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By

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ABSTRACT

RELATING EXPERIENTIAL AND CLASSROOM LEARNING--A STUDY IN BIBLE COLLEGE CURRICULUM

By

Charlotte Anne Kinvig

Students bring to the formal educational setting a lifetime of prior experience as well as current out-of-class experiences that influence learning. The purpose of the study was to identify and to describe the relationship between the life experiences of students and classroom learning in undergraduate theological institutions in Western Canada. The intent was to discover what professors do with the experiences of students as a potential curriculum resource and how faculty seek articulation between the classroom context and the out-of-class experiences of students.

The data collection involved face-to-face interviews and a learning style inventory. Interviews were conducted with the chief academic officers as well as 60 students and 21 faculty at two Bible colleges. Conclusions reached are as follows:

1. Collegians favor learning that moves beyond abstract conceptualization to action and concrete realities.

2. Faculty believe they use the life experiences of students more frequently than students acknowledge.
3. Faculty are willing to adapt curriculum for students, but their actual use of the experiences of students as a resource is minimal.
4. A high degree of correlation exists between faculty and students on their perception of the roles of the professor.
5. Men are stronger on teacher centered and individualistic approaches to learning, while women emphasize the personal and interactive dimensions.
6. Kolb's (1985) Learning Style Inventory revealed that among faculty, the preferred learning mode of women was concrete experience and for men was abstract conceptualization.

DEDICATION

To My Family

Mom and Dad, Paul and Sharon, Milton and Sharon

for their constant love and support

To My "Second Family"

Margaret, Shirley, Signe, and Jean Sokvitne

for their consistent encouragement

in my growth endeavors

To My Friend

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and for practicing teaching as an

"improvisor's art"

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Chapter 1

UNDERSTANDING THE PROBLEM

In an information age characterized by rapid change, the age-old dilemma within education of the integration of theory and practice demands attention. This tension between the theoretical and practical calls for a renewed assessment of learning in our educational institutions. Focusing on abstractions fails to recognize the incompleteness and partiality of theory apart from the concreteness of life's realities. The question needs to be asked, "How effective is the articulation in learning between classroom and life?" The classroom cannot be isolated from non-classroom experience. The informational and experiential must intersect.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to identify and to describe the relationship between the life experiences of students and classroom learning in undergraduate theological educational institutions in Western Canada. The experiences of students include past and current interactions with life.

Background of the Problem

Relevant to the issue of articulation between the classroom and life in theological education are concerns for the curriculum and theological context.

Curriculum

Too frequently, curriculum (the substance of schooling) has been limited to subject-centered and more measurable designs (Klein, 1986, pp. 31, 32; Short, 1986, p. 7).

> The stuff of theory is abstract or idealized representations of real things. But curriculum in action treats real things: real acts, real teachers, real children [students], things richer than and different from their theoretical representations. Curriculum will deal badly with its real things if it treats them merely as replicas of their theoretic representations (Schwab, 1978, p. 310).

In his classic on curriculum, Tyler asserts that the three data sources of society, students, and subject matter must be used in curricular development and that reducing curriculum to one aspect proves inadequate (1949). All three proceed in a comprehensive approach for coherence and goal attainment. Tyler further states, "Learning takes place through the active behavior of the student; it is what he does that he learns, not what the teacher does" (p. 63).

Some schools do include field-based education in the curriculum to improve the experiential and concrete components of the personal and social dimensions. Sheafor and Jenkins point out though that the reality of field instruction reveals that planned "linkage between classroom

and field content rarely occurs on paper and even more rarely in practice" (1981, p. 19). With the knowledge and technological explosion, however, an interactive model that actively includes the student and society becomes even more essential in today's and tomorrow's education.

Dewey, an influential 20th century educational theorist, viewed education as the "laboratory in which philosophic distinctions become concrete and are tested" (1916, p. 384). Philosophy indicates desirable social values, and education promotes them. "Education is life and not merely a preparation for life" (Macropaedia, p. 69). The mission of schools consists of providing experiences which promote growth.

Dewey perceives every experience as characterized by interaction and continuity. No person comes with a blank slate to be filled with knowledge. Each person arrives with needs, capacities, values, and interests that affect the character of the individual's experience. Previous experience tempers the subsequent experience with a cumulative effect. Therefore, schools must know the problems students confront, learn what dispositions are useful in clarifying and coping with these problems, and understand the sorts of experiences which will bring about those dispositions.

> Dewey obviously thinks that teachers should be very influential in the governance of schooling. The student also should be influential . . . note that Dewey does not sanction the kind of absurd permissiveness which came to be associated with progressive education generally (Axtelle & Burnett, 1970, p. 287).

In fact, Dewey considers freedom to be the power to frame purposes and execute them. He equates freedom with self-control (1938, p. 67). Only one important freedom exists--that of observation and judgment exercised in behalf of worthwhile purposes (p. 61). Teachers have a moral obligation not to let the environment happen by thoughtless chance. A key curricular component within the classroom context then includes the life experience the student brings. Both interaction and continuity compose experience (Dewey, 1938, pp. 33, 42). Interaction or transaction are used interchangeably by Dewey to specify the give and take that occurs between a person and his surroundings. Continuity on the other hand, deals with prior experience generating learned tendencies that affect subsequent situations and responses.

Theological Education

The articulation of the classroom and life experiences of students along with interaction and continuity in learning must also be embraced within much of theological education. For a vocation claiming concern for the whole person, and particularly the awesome responsibility of the spiritual dimension of humanity, the principles of articulation between theory and practice and continuity in learning remain basic

to improving competency as well as scholarship. Frequent verbal affirmation of the relationships occur, but in actuality a clear polarization often exists between the theoretical and the practical, the content and the experiential. Somehow the student's involvement, the demands of the church, and the requirements of theological institutions need to be rethought and coordinated so that the cognitive dimension does not supersede wholistic preparation for church vocation. The personal life and ministry skills needed to serve within the church must also be developed. Such take time, practice, and linkages between school, field, and personal experience.

While increased incorporation of field-based education gives evidence of concerns for the practical, further rediscovery of the articulation of theory and practice remains necessary. In addition, greater integration of content and experience in the educational process needs consideration.

> The greatest defect in theological education today is that it is too much an affair of piecemeal transmission of knowledge and skills, and that, in consequence, it offers too little challenge to the student to develop his own resources and to become an independent, lifelong inquirer, growing constantly while he is engaged in the work of the ministry (Niebuhr, Williams & Gustafson, 1957, p. 209).

How can this life-long learning perspective be promoted effectively if the past and present life experiences of students are not appropriately addressed within the classroom? The issues of continuity and interaction,

therefore, demand consideration for the enhancement and facilitation of learning and transformation.

Attending to the practical and integration aspects persists as especially valuable when one considers the image of the church as a community of believers exhibiting interdependence among themselves. A one-way centralized delivery system that fosters dependency and minimizes participation, thereby hindering people's learning and creating information overload, needs to be avoided. Within the church as well as the classroom, learning cannot be divorced from praxis, the reflection/action continuum. Not only the end but also the means must be considered. Otherwise, the tendency moves toward a banking concept of Christian education that posits knowledge for future consideration rather than present application (Freire, 1983, p. 58). Since people tend to teach as they have been taught, appropriate modeling of student participation must take place in the college in order to promote interaction within ministry contexts.

Research Questions

The inquiry will be guided by the following three research questions:

Research Question #1

As seen by the administration, faculty, and students, what elements of the explicit curriculum in a given institution emphasize the experiences of students?

Research Question #2

What do professors do to utilize learnings from the experiences of students?

Research Question #3

How do the preferred learning styles of faculty and students relate to the use of the experiences of students within the classroom?

Importance of the Research

The "pursuit of excellence" has become the shibboleth of the day. As a result, a renewed search for quality is characterizing education. Theological educators also reflect a regard for excellence. This study fits into a number of concerns in current discussion about theological education. In particular it attempts to determine the extent and methodology for including the experiences of students in the classroom. The evident performance gap between the claim of readiness for ministry and the actuality raises legitimate concern.

With knowledge in a kaleidoscopic society mushrooming, classical studies and intellectual discipline still prove necessary but no longer sufficient. The fact persists that "the questions a congregation raises about a potential minister do not concern the number of courses completed but revolve about such areas as wisdom and knowledge, pastoral skills, psychological maturity, and the strength of faith" (Schuller, Brekke & Strommen, 1975, p. vi). "Readiness for

ministry" involves professional and personal as well as intellectual development. The "minimal correlation between classroom proficiency and actual practice in the field" must be overcome if people are to perform adequately in ministry (Schuller et al, 1975, p. vii; Hill, 1986).

Fletcher suggests in "The Making of a Minister: What's Wrong With the Process?" that there must be more than an intellectual integration of the academic disciplines. In reference to the seminary he calls for a "coherent partnership of . . . shared responsibility between judicatory, seminary and training congregration for theological education" (1979, p. 6). The essential process of continuous interchange between theory and practice must present itself for reconciliation in the prevailing relationship of alienation between theory and practice (Pinar & Grumet, 1982, p. 50). While legitimate differences exist between the world of thought and the world of action, both are essential, and "educators must help their students make connections between those two worlds" (Eaton, 1984, p. 3).

Others, however, question whether correspondence between the classroom and field exists as a logical and pedagogical possibility. Kraft, in fact, calls planned linkage between the two a pseudo-problem and illusion (1982, p. 141). Ng would not go this far, but he does claim that field-based training still seems to be an "extra" for the most part with little articulation between the classroom and experiences of life (1985).

One's conception of ministry and assumptions about people connect closely with the growing concern for the articulation process between theory and practice in the theological arena. If one perceives ministry as top-down with the professional as the expert, then a cognitive emphasis and isolationist dimension tend to exist. Information rather than integration and life transformation will receive priority. Students may then be viewed as vessels to be filled, and the resources and deficits that students bring to the educational process will be ignored for the most part. As Fletcher points out, the student is "viewed largely as an individual to be shaped in a set of values and responses that begin, disconnectedly, from the point of being recruited. The result is intellectual and emotional isolation from previous personal, intellectual, and ethical history" (1979, p. 4).

By virtue of ignoring experience, educators move contrary to the integrative process and the development of meaningful wholeness. Kierstead states, "With the exclusive use of direct instruction, we prevent ourselves from getting the full range of desired student outcomes" (1985, p. 26). Part of enabling personal integration is planning curriculum that includes the experiences of students and promotes the interplay of abstract and concrete realities. Experience cannot be seen as competing with subject matter but as an integral part of classroom content. "Good theology and authentic Christian experience go hand in hand" (Gasque, 1985, p. 33).

Definition of Terms

Articulation. The planned interaction and linkage of cognitive (theoretical) and experiential learning.

Christian Service. Involvement in church-related activities such as teaching, preaching, and administration.

Curriculum. The consequence of clarifying what is taught why, to whom, and under what conditions (Ward, 1985, Spring Term).

Experience. The transaction between an individual and his or her environment which includes the subjective, internal, and personal as well as the objective and external (Kolb, 1984, pp. 34-36). Dewey also emphasizes the concept of continuity as well as interaction in experiences so part of previous experience prevails in present experience and influences subsequent experience (1938, pp. 42-48).

Experiential Learning. Learning "in which the learner is directly in touch with the realities being studied" (Keeton & Tate, 1978, p. 2).

Field-based Learning. An experience-based learning process functioning outside of the classroom context which includes an educational focus as well as a service and practical work component.

Life Experience. The sum total of all that a person encounters in each area of his or her life, which in turn may be used for reflection in the learning process.

Theological or Bible College Education. For the purposes of this study these terms are limited to undergraduate schooling leading to the Bachelor of Theology or Bachelor of Religious Education degrees (usually four-year programs).

Context of the Problem

Historically, the Bible college has educated for church-related vocation. The Bible college movement began in the early 1880s in part as a reaction against a more scholastic emphasis and arose out of an awareness of the need for lay and practical training. Witmer affirms the pragmatic character of the Bible college as "an educational institution whose principle purpose is to prepare students for church vocations or Christian ministries through a program of biblical and practical education" (1962, p. 26). While the curriculum has grown to include general education as well as biblical and professional studies, educators claim that the purpose remains essentially the same (Barcalow, 1986, p. 23).

Theological education though has faced tensions similar to other disciplines. With the growing emphasis on accreditation of educational institutions and professionalism in church-related careers, training became increasingly

academic. While the increased incorporation of field-based education demonstrates some swing back to the practical, greater integration of the classroom and life appears necessary. In order to determine how the experiences of students are utilized in the curriculum practices of undergraduate theological institutions, two Bible colleges called Rhema and Logos,[1] were selected for study.

Rhema and Logos Bible Colleges are members of the American Association of Bible Colleges and the Association of Canadian Bible Colleges. Both colleges hold similar doctrinal perspectives. Their primary curricular emphases consist of Bible, theology, and church-related ministry courses.

Overview of Research Procedures

The research was descriptive in nature and grounded in qualitative procedures. With the views of both teachers and students regarding the use of the experiences of students in the classroom curriculum being of primary interest, descriptive research makes a legitimate contribution to the determination of facts and understanding of processes (Borg and Gall, 1983, p. 31). As Isaac and Michael detail, descriptive studies prove useful in the following ways:

---

[1] For the sake of confidentiality, the pseudonyms Rhema and Logos are used to describe the Bible colleges involved in the study.

a. To collect detailed factual information that describes existing phenomena.
b. To identify problems or justify current conditions and practices.
c. To make comparisons and evaluations.
d. To determine what others are doing with similar problems or situations and benefit from their experience in making future plans and decisions.

(1981, p. 46)

Selection of Subjects

The research was conducted at two Bible colleges in Western Canada. Permission was secured to proceed with the research in each institution. Lists of students and faculty were then requested. A random sample of students and faculty ensued according to discipline emphasis. Interviews were conducted with students in the second through fourth years of their studies. All students were enrolled in either the Bachelor of Theology or Bachelor of Religious Education programs. A sample of the faculty and the chief academic administrator also participated in interviews concerning their use of the experiences of students.

Data Collection

Standardized interviews and a learning style inventory furnished the primary means of collecting. A pilot study was conducted at a third Bible college for the purpose of refining the interview schedules and research procedures. The interviews centered on the determination of planned and unplanned linkages between content and experience in the curriculum and the extent to which professors utilize the experiences of students. Both faculty and students took Kolb's Learning Style Inventory in order to assess the

influences of learning style on the observations and practices regarding the experiences of students as a resource in the curriculum.

Data Reduction and Analysis

Interviews concentrated on the interviewee's perception of the role of the experiences of students in the classroom, the methodologies used, and the faculty's inclusion of the experiences of students. The data collected were content analyzed (Krippendorff, 1980). Patterns and relationships were identified in the data and then clustered as appropriate into thematic units for coding and analysis. To assess the findings and measure association, descriptive and correlational statistics were the primary means of further analysis.

Population

The population consisted of faculty and students of member colleges of the American Association of Bible Colleges and the fraternal Association of Canadian Bible Colleges.

Sample

Faculty and students from two Bible colleges associated with the American Association of Bible Colleges were chosen for conducting the research. Geographical location and willingness to participate served as criteria for the college selections.

Sophomore through senior Bachelor of Theology and Bachelor of Religious Education students and ten to eleven faculty at each of the two Bible colleges comprised the subjects for the study. The choice of Bachelor of Theology and Bachelor of Religious Education students or their equivalent revolved around the professional status of these degrees and their commonality within Bible college programs. The elimination of freshmen students from the study removed those with the least knowledge of the faculty and institution. The basis for the selection of faculty interviewees depended on whether the subjects they taught focused primarily on the Biblical/theological/pastoral or the Christian education/missions areas.

Delimitations

The primary constraint of the research related to choosing to carry out the descriptive study at only two Bible colleges in Western Canada. As a result, the sample was small. Further, the study explored happenings in the educative setting based on each subject's perception. Researcher bias also existed as a possibility in the clustering procedure of subject responses, but other observers were included to minimize this effect.

Generalizability

Due to the stated delimitations, data collected are directed primarily to the participating institutions and the Bachelor of Theology and/or Bachelor of Religious Education programs for the possibility of informing administrative and faculty curricular decisions. Institutions with similar programs may find benefit in noting the place of the experiences of students in the curriculum and the articulation process that exists in ministry preparation. Also, recognizing tendencies on the undergraduate level might be suggestive of what occurs on the graduate level. Nevertheless, because of the exploratory nature of this descriptive study, generalizability will be limited.

Overview of the Dissertation

Chapter 1 clarifies the problem of articulation between the classroom and experiences of students, specifies the context, and overviews research procedures. Chapter 2 reviews precedence in the relevant literature while Chapter 3 describes the research design. Findings are presented in Chapter 4, and Chapter 5 suggests the worth of the study.

Chapter 2

PRECEDENTS IN THE LITERATURE

Concern for the integration of action and abstraction permeates history. Almost two centuries ago, Immanuel Kant, the German philosopher, wrote that "we must seek insensibly to unite knowledge with the carrying out of that knowledge into practice" (Kant, 1906, p. 75). And long before Kant, the Hebraic concept of knowing was established in the idea of obeying and doing as well as thinking and understanding.

> Jewish education was never something extraneous to life or merely an instrument that served to prepare for life and that later could be discarded when its utility was exhausted. Jewish education was rather synonymous with life. It unfolded life, giving it direction and meaning (Drazin, 1940, p. 12).

Ideas and action converged into a harmonious whole, avoiding dichotomization. Emphasis centered on conduct and character rather than on the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake. Information aimed to affect life change. Even during the ministry of Christ, His emphasis in learning related to truth within the context of life experiences instead of to a formal or remote cognitive mode.

With the rise of Greek thought in the sixth century B.C., a primary influence on Western civilization, the educational focus became more conceptual and verbal. Rationality and

intellect were exalted. The behavioral, life-changing component of learning was either assumed or considered irrelevant. As formal schooling grew, content rather than functionality continued to be central. Even within the medical profession, not until the late 19th century did medical schools begin to place students in real life situations as part of their training (Houle, 1976, pp. 26-30). Previously, an individual could become a doctor without ever having any "hands-on" experience. Within this century the recognition of the value of experiential learning grew but not without tensions.

A notable proponent of experiential learning in this century, John Dewey, wrote as early as 1904, "I will assume without argument that adequate professional instruction of teachers is not exclusively theoretical, but involves a certain amount of practical work" (Dewey in Archambault, 1964, n.p.). The deep roots of the experiential tradition, therefore, provide a foundation for a renewed emphasis in contemporary society on the experiences of students.

Perspectives on Curriculum

Curriculum stands as the central dynamic that interfaces with the educational and cultural context, yet diversity of opinion exists on which curricular exemplars demonstrate verifiable effectiveness. Kliebard mentions that even Aristotle addressed the matter of curriculum and held that curriculum relates to the question of values (1985,

pp. 31,32). Agreement on value issues can be difficult, and value-laden orientations abound inherently in curriculum designs. Huebner identifies five value frameworks for categorizing curriculum systems in education: technical, political, scientific, esthetic, and ethical (1975, p. 223). In his view, curriculum defines an environment-producing discipline rather than merely knowledge-producing.

Definitional Perspectives

The definitional aspect of curriculum proves problematic. Definitions range from focusing on the subject matter to all that students do in school. Unfortunately, most people perceive the term as "that required, structured, inflexible sequence of learning experiences determined by the teacher and the school authorities" (Linskie, 1983, p. 61). Linskie expands his thoughts as follows:

> All these arbitrary decisions about which curriculum a student must follow leave out the most important factor, namely, what the learner is like. What does he think he needs? What are his goals? Does the plan fit her needs? . . . there are few students who "fit" the norms and achievement levels arbitrarily arrived at by the curriculum experts.
>
> One comforting thought: regardless of the best laid plans of curriculum builders, learners generally follow their own curriculum. If it is not possible for them to do this in a classroom, then they rush to leave school at the earliest possible moment to work on their personal curriculum (pp. 61, 62).

Essentially, the root of the word curriculum means the "nature of the course or journey on which we take those whom we teach" (Schubert, 1984, p. xvii). This continuum needs to

include learner input in order to maximize the profit of that journey.

Historical Perspectives

Curriculum as a formal field of study per se began only in the 1800's (Schubert, 1984, pp. 4, 5). A systematic method of selecting, arranging, and organizing curriculum was proposed by Herbart in Europe and later promoted in America by the McMurray brothers. The Herbartian pedagogy specified preparation, presentation, association, generalization, and application as essential to teaching and impacted instructional strategies for years to come. A more empirical approach appeared in Bobbitt's work, The Curriculum (1918), considered the first major modern book in curriculum (Schubert, 1984, p. 32). Other educators of influence during this time included Whitehead and Dewey. A later significant work of vast influence was Tyler's classic, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction. He advocated a unified view of curriculum and instruction and claimed that purposes, experiences, organization, and evaluation stood foundational to curriculum decisions and development (Tyler, 1949).

Orientations to Curriculum

With the multiplicity of theorists promoting various curriculum approaches, several authors have sought to clarify the field by organizing curriculum proponents into various orientations. Probably the most common discussion of curriculum design relates to that which is subject-centered, societal-centered, and individual-centered (Klein, 1986,

p. 32). In his historical chronology of curriculum books in education, Shubert divides curriculum thought into the intellectual traditionalists, the social behaviorists, and the experientialists (1984, p. 6). The intellectual traditionalists stress mental disciplines; the social behaviorists, the scientific engineering of socially acceptable conduct; and the experientialists, outside knowledge/experience impacting the intellect (the accent becomes method).

Pinar identifies three other categories--the traditionalists, the conceptual-empiricists, and the reconceptualists (In Giroux, Penna, & Pinar, 1981, pp. 87-97). The traditionalists (Tyler, McNeil, Tanner & Tanner, and Zais for example) value service to practitioners in the schools above all else. The conceptual empiricists, on the other hand, tend to be trained in the social sciences and see research as the primary concern rather than the practitioners or students. Posner and Bruner would be representative of those who develop and test prescriptions for the educational context. The third category of thought delineated by Pinar, and the one with which he identifies, portrays the reconceptualists' view. From their more political and critical framework, they contend that education needs a "fundamental reconceptualization of what curriculum is, how it functions, and how it might function in emancipatory ways" (p. 94). They avoid the technician's

mentality and call for a structural change in the culture (see Apple, 1975; Kliebard, 1975; & Huebner, 1975).

A taxonomy of curriculum by Eisner and Vallance (1973) suggests five orientations. Their first orientation pertains to the development of cognitive processes. The emphases focus on helping students learn how to learn and in providing opportunities for students to develop their intellectual faculties. Process rather than content, and student inquiry instead of teacher delivery emerge as concerns. Bloom's cognitive taxonomy reflects one application of cognitive process.

Secondly, Eisner and Vallance specify the area of academic rationalism which seeks to foster intellectual growth. Hutchins' "great books" idea exemplifies this approach. In addition to being exposed to the major disciplines, students encounter the writings of the greatest minds in each discipline. This assumes appropriately organized knowledge as well as the growth of rationality with exposure to reason's highest accomplishments.

Personal relevance covers the third grouping with its search for personal meaning. Curriculum arises out of the understanding interaction of teacher and student. Mutuality of planning characterizes this joint venture. Teacher and student walk together in their educational pilgrimage.

The fourth dimension profiles curricula as social adaptation and social reconstruction. This more radical concept holds that institutions exist to fulfill the needs of

society. Therefore, first determine the needs of society and then plan pertinent programs; change schools to fit concerns. Marxism would be representative of this view.

The fifth area regards curriculum as technology, a means-ends orientation. School becomes more like a factory. Ends are operationalized in terms of specific outputs. Behaviorism would fit under this umbrella.

Vallance, co-editor with Eisner on Conflicting Conceptions of Curriculum, recently updated her view on this five-part model (1986, pp. 24-30). She questions the technological conception, and states that technology pertains to means rather than purpose and does not fit with the other four aspects of the model. Then she asserts that the personal relevance/self-actualizing perspective has lost its prominence with societal changes toward a practical and job orientation. She proposes two complementary curricular conceptions as goals of education that manifest a greater student orientation--personal success and a personal commitment to learning. Within the personal success framework the immediate practical end becomes the guiding principle of curriculum design and course selection. The focus of a personal commitment to learning moves beyond the lifelong concept to an "underlying passion for the hard work and joys of intellectual exploration . . ." (p. 28).

Conditions of learning other than the formal curricular expressions accompany curriculum. The learning environment stretches far beyond the formal system. "Current conceptions

of curriculum are inadequate, in that they tie the educative process only to the world of man's technique, and exclude ties to the world of his spirit" (Huebner, 1966, p. 94). Much learning proceeds indirectly and enjoys immeasurably increased potency because of being unintended. Many uncontrollable variables exist. Three categories suggested for perceiving curriculum incorporate the explicit, the implicit or hidden, and the null (Eisner, 1985, pp. 87-107).

The explicit curriculum speaks of the conscious, planned influences. The publicly advertised goals would be expressive of the explicit aspect. The implicit or hidden curriculum then corresponds to teaching that takes place by virtue of the kind of place the school is. The rules, expectations, and procedures of the classroom or school would fall within this category. Environmental influences eventuate in the socialization and enculturation of people into certain life styles. The third consideration, the null curriculum, refers to the untaught components, the unoffered options, and the unknown alternatives and concepts. Eisner states that the excluded may be at least as important as the included (p. 97).

Current brain research on the right and left hemispheres holds that the intellectual functions of the brain can be weakened or strengthened by use or disuse. The right brain deals with the spatial, synthesizing, intuition, and arts

appreciation, while the left governs the verbal, sequential, analytic, and rationale capacities (Sonnier & Goldsmith, 1985, pp. 26-30). Omissions, therefore, of particular educational opportunities for development, whether by ignorance or choice, imply life-affecting consequences.

> Theories of curriculum and of teaching and learning cannot, alone, tell us what and how to teach, because questions of what and how to teach arise in concrete situations loaded with concrete particulars of time, place, person, and circumstance. Theory, on the other hand, contains little of such concrete particulars. Theory achieves its theoretical character, its order, system, economy, and above all, its very generality only by abstraction from such particulars, by omitting much of them (Schwab, 1978, p. 322).

To zero in on a particular theory or fail to include the practical, therefore, may mean learning only what that theory tells us to see and blinding ourselves to other aspects. This can enclose us in what Zais refers to as encapsulation--the distorting of our concepts of reality (1986, p. 17). Clarity grows with recognizing the in-built limitations of our humanness and culture and striving to transcend measured systems for the authentic and liberating.

Becker suggests that reducing encapsulation involves the comprehensive engagement of three broad content fields: the individual dimension, the social and historical dimension, and the theological dimension (1967, pp. 258-372). The exercise of liberation results in "the freedom to bathe our daily life in the highest possible intensity and scope of meanings; and these must be divine, self-transcendent meanings" (p. 273).

Instead of a content structure, Royce (1964) advocates a process design organized around the four psychological ways of knowing: rationalism (logical thinking), empiricism (sensing), intuitionism (feeling), and authoritarianism (believing). To avoid encapsulation, all four must interlock in a balanced network. Mosher, however, accuses the curriculum field of building models rather than doing curriculum. Maintenance rather than reformulation functions as the norm (1977, p. 82). Beyond the proliferation of individual theories, the challenge continues to be how to intersect the theoretical designs with the practical in flexible dimensions in order to achieve maximum human growth.

The Student and the Curriculum

Discussions in curriculum tend to center around objectives, content, and philosophy. The predetermining nature of these facets often precludes attending to the particular student's interests, abilities, or needs (Frymier, 1986, pp. 59, 60).

> Whether programs are consciously designed as such, education is a developmental intervention in adults' lives, an activity that is by its very nature linked to processes of growth, development, change, and transformation (Weathersby & Tarule, 1980, p. 43).

Implicit to the curricular philosophy practiced and strategies chosen are one's assumptions about learners. Knowles (1978) has advocated the idea that a different science of teaching needs to be considered in relation to adults. Diversity characterizes adults, and the degree of

experience adults bring to each life phase far exceeds that of children. Thus the organizing conceptions of andragogy (the teaching of adults) and pedagogy (the teaching of children) have been suggested. Cross identifies andragogy as "probably closer to a theory of teaching than to a theory of learning" (1981, p. 227).

Although disagreement exists on whether adult learning demonstrates just a continuation of children's learning or whether it contains its own discriminating differences, a growing body of literature supports the idea of distinctiveness. According to Knowles four crucial suppositions differentiate adult learners from child learners.

> These assumptions are that, as a person matures, (1) his self-concept moves from one of being a dependent personality toward one of being a self-directing human being, (2) he accumulates a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning, (3) his readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of his social roles, and (4) his time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly his orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject centeredness to one of problem centeredness (1970, p. 39).

The Development of the Student and Curriculum

The life cycle and developmental stage theorists give helpful frameworks for the education of adults. The life cycle theorists tend to divide into those that develop their models according to age-linked life periods and those that think in terms of life structure and the way people construct

experience. Erikson (1959), for example, mentions eight stages of psycho-social development related to age that revolve around the resolutions of conflicts. The three stages focusing on adults include young adulthood, intimacy versus isolation; middle adulthood, generativity (the need to mentor the next generation) versus stagnation; and later adulthood, integrity versus despair.

Sheehy (1976) and Levinson (1978) developed their models more around adult experience. Sheehy talks of adult passage and marker events as transitions in development, while Levinson portrays his stage of development around social roles at work and within relationships. Cross in her CAL paradigm mentions the situation characteristics of adult learners in terms of the physiological/aging, the sociocultural/life phases, and the psychological/ developmental stages (1981, p. 235).

The developmental stage approach promotes the idea that stable periods exist, linked by transitions in terms of the three dimensions of ego, moral, and cognitive development. These stages are hierarchical which tends to the idea that higher is better. Others disagree, however, and feel that adults cope well in society at various stages. One of the ego theorists is Loevinger (1976) who talks of the ego in relation to people's search for deeper meaning in life experiences. Kohlberg, on the other hand, has six sequential stages reflecting ways of making judgments about moral questions: punishment and obedience orientation, instrumental

relativist orientation, interpersonal concordance or "good boy--nice girl" orientation, "law and order" orientation, social-contract legalistic orientation, and universal ethical-principle orientation (1980, pp. 91,92).

Perry's work on intellectual competence commands particular interest because his research dealt with college students (1981, pp. 76-116). He sought to account for the wide variety of responses from students within the educational context. Students tend to enter college in a category he calls dualism. Such students respond within two realms--either right or wrong or good or bad. Knowledge is quantitative. Then they move on to multiplicity where diverse opinions and values are considered legitimate. From this point arises the possibility of the relativistic stage, not in terms of license to do anything a person wants, but in knowledge becoming qualitative and thought relating to the context. The final phase, commitment, acts as a narrowing aspect. Doubts and questions have been faced and choices made and prioritized. The paradox of wholeheartedness and tentativeness also characterizes the commitment aspect. Growth can be deflected at any phase, however, by escape or retreat.

Involvement of the Student and Curriculum

In his book, Achieving Educational Excellence, Astin proposes a theory of student development that moves beyond developmental outcomes and the "what" to the "how," the student involvement theory (1985, p. 143). This theory finds

its roots in a longitudinal study of college dropouts (Astin, 1975). The five basic postulates comprising the theory at this point consist of the following:

1. Involvement refers to the investment of physical and psychological energy in various "objects." The objects may be highly generalized (the student experience) or highly specific (preparing for a chemistry examination).

2. Regardless of its object, involvement occurs along a continuum.

3. Involvement has both quantitative and qualitative features.

4. The amount of student learning and personal development associated with any educational program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement in that program.

5. The effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is directly related to the capacity of that policy or practice to increase student involvement.

(Astin, 1985, pp. 135,136)

Involvement stands as an active term with the intent of the theory comprising a comprehensive link between subject matter, resources, individualized approaches, and the learning outcomes of concern to the student and professor (p. 141).

Education for knowing functions insufficiently for informing one of the practices of life. The context within which people understand knowledge must be enlarged. A person's capacity "to enquire the virtues of the academic disciplines will be enhanced by their placement in the context of service. What is otherwise 'unreal' becomes serious" (Green, 1981, p. 551). Competence always possesses

a context and involves the whole person, not just the cognitive.

> All too often we are giving our young people cut flowers when we should be teaching them to grow their own plants. We are stuffing their heads with the products of earlier innovation rather than teaching them to innovate. We think of the mind as a storehouse to be filled when we should be thinking of it as an instrument to be used (Gardner, 1964, pp. 21, 22).

The emerging field of adult development, as well as the growing percentage of older adults returning to college, involves reevaluating the learning context, curriculum content, and teaching process. According to Tough, life events rather than age indicate an adult's readiness and motivation to learn (1979). Adults want to make meaningful contributions and select relevant learning opportunities.

> It has been estimated that schools at best make a 15 to 20 percent contribution to the education of the typical person. This means that 80 to 85 percent of what the typical adult knows can be attributed to other or community related learning experiences (Bush, 1974, p. 12).

Thus educational courses need to be integrative of real life contexts so that a clear articulation exists between the classroom and other life dimensions. As Perry found, even younger adults (18-22 years) are trying to make meaning out of their world (1981, p. 107). The concerns and expertise of the learners and their wealth of experience must not be neglected in the teaching process.

In addition, "Past experience may block, modify, or it may affect perception, as well as how we solve problems and make decisions" (Kidd, 1976, p. 46). All that a person

experiences remains part of him or her. Winn asserts that youth today "come to school with a vast background of fragmentary information, but have difficulties organizing this knowledge into a coherent structure" (1985, p. 15). Therefore, educators must not ignore the significant influences a learner brings to the educational context--the formal and informal ideas, actions, assumptions, and expectations. Murphy mentions that possibly even on the seminary level faculty have been too content to leave it to students to "'put it all together,' to arrange the pieces into a meaningful whole" (1975, p. 289). Faculty frequently feel an "acute need to create more proximate structures to aid the student in the integrative process, although we may yet be trying to identify what these structures can be" (p. 289).

In its final report in 1984, Involvement in Learning, the Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in Higher Education suggested the following:

> The key to restoring the integrity of bachelor's degree programs . . . is to engage students' interests by treating them as fellow learners, including them more fully in academic life, and increasing the ways they can contribute creatively to their own and others' education (Newell, 1984, p. 7).

Astin builds on the National Institute of Education report on undergraduate education in his article, "Involvement: The Cornerstone of Excellence."

> At this stage in its development, the involvement theory comprises two basic postulates. First, the amount of student learning and personal development associated with any educational program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement in that program. And second, the effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is directly related to the capacity of that policy or practice to increase student involvement (1985, p. 36).

"The hidden fact about the teaching profession--perhaps not too well hidden--is that learners complicate it enormously" and yet "the key to good teaching is the student, and the good teacher must respect that student" (Gullette, 1984, pp. 8,10).

Participation and dialogue prove crucial to an adult learning context. Professors acknowledge this need. Interviews of 29 faculty at one university found that 90 percent viewed student participation as important and beneficial to both students and instructors (Forsberg & Greenbaum, 1981, p. 388). Despite such verbalization, the consensus seems to be that schooling everywhere stays very much the same (Goodlad, 1984, p. 264). We allow ourselves to be prisoners of the expected form of schooling. Both teachers and students become socialized into classroom expectations.

Data indicate that students become increasingly compliant and conforming as they progress in school. While teachers express the value of students becoming independent learners, most still view themselves as needing to be in control of the decision-making process (p. 109). The teacher comes through as "coach, quarterback, referee, and even rule-maker. But

there the analogy must stop because there is no team" (p. 108). The value of cooperative achievement in classrooms around shared purposes often absents itself in practice.

Also integral to curriculum concerns is the imperative of developing lifelong learners. Tough found that "80 percent of all highly deliberate learning is planned and managed by the learner or by a friend" (Tough, 1981, p. 302). A teacher-centered and transmission-oriented approach to teaching evidences its inadequacies in a learning society where knowing how to learn and access information keeps a person on the cutting edge of relevancy. Education needs to be reconceptualized with a view to the experiences of students and lifelong perspectives.

Models of Experiential Learning

Various models and taxonomies to improve the planning, implementation, and evaluation of curriculum have been developed. The cognitive taxonomy of Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, and Krathwohl (1956) and the subsequent affective taxonomy of Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia (1964) serve as useful educational tools. The cognitive taxonomy begins with knowledge as basic and then moves on to comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and finally evaluation. The affective domain, on the other hand, includes from receiving (attending) to responding, valuing, organization, closing finally with characterization by a value or value complex. This classification progresses from

awareness to internalization. More recently, Steinaker and Bell proposed a wholistic experiential taxonomy compatible with learning theory (1979). Their categories included the sequential objectives of exposure, participation, identification, internalization, and dissemination.

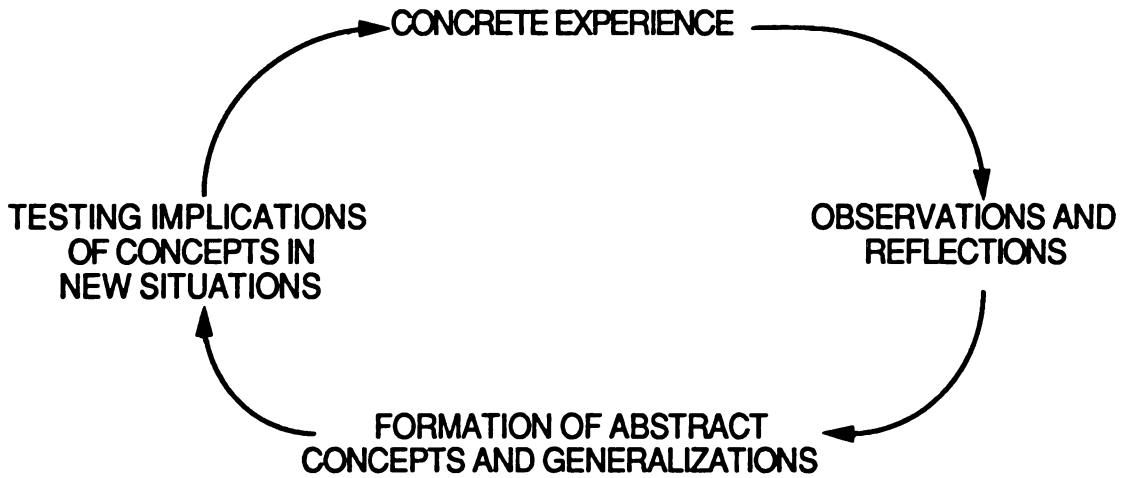
Kolb clarifies experience as the transaction between an individual and his or her environment which includes the subjective, internal, and personal as well as the objective and external (1984, pp. 34-36). This shifts learning from exclusively a classroom focus to the family, community, workplace, and to all involved in living. Experiential learning moves beyond the cognitive to a more wholistic approach. Chickering claims the following:

> Experiential learning leads us to question the assumptions and conventions underlying many of our practices. It turns us away from credit hours and calendar time toward competence, working knowledge, and information pertinent to jobs, family relationships, community responsibilities, and broad social concerns. It reminds us that higher education can do more than develop verbal skills and deposit information in those storage banks between the ears. It can contribute to more complex kinds of intellectual development and to more pervasive dimensions of human development required for effective citizenship. It can help students cope with shifting developmental tasks imposed by the life cycle and rapid social change (1977, p. 86).

Two paradigms that address the theory-practice tension include the four-stage instructional design by David Kolb (1984) and the interdisciplinary integration of Richard Logan (1983). Kolb's Experiential Learning Model emphasizes the role of experience in the learning process. The model describes how "experience is translated into concepts which

in turn are used as guides in the choice of new experiences" (Kolb, 1978, p. 2). The process operates in a circular and continuous manner in competent learning. The four-stage cycle consists of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. The first stage of the cycle, concrete experience, involves the feelings and senses while the reflective observation stage includes watching and reflecting upon what happens. Abstract conceptualization focuses on symbolic representations, thinking, and analysis. Actually doing and testing theory is the active experimentation phase.

Figure 2.1. The Experiential Learning Model



(Kolb, 1978, p. 2)

All four patterns give direction to learning and are incorporated by learners but with a variety of configurations. According to Kolb even different disciplines or tasks evidence variations. In reality people tend to

emphasize some learning abilities over others. Each phase suggests a preferred learning style as well as a structure for organizing learning settings. Kolb developed a learning style inventory that measures the polar opposites in the following dimensions:

Concrete Experience ---------- Abstract Conceptualization

Active Experimentation ------- Reflective Observation

Since teachers tend to teach as they learn unless they discover a conscious reason to do otherwise, value exists in revealing the relationships between teachers' and students' learning styles. Significant growth can be facilitated through understanding the need for a variety of learning environments. Recognition, for instance, that "hands-on experience may be as threatening for the abstract learner as a lecture is frustrating for an active one" challenges the creative planning of a teacher (Smith & Kolb, 1986, p. 2). Acknowledging these various responses increases in importance when students fail to learn because of too great a disparity or mismatch between their learning style and the educational context. Although people learn differently, schools tend to teach people the same way, as analytic learners. Available data indicate that approximately 70 percent of students do not fall within this category (Smith & Kolb, 1986, p. 21; McCarthy, 1980).

Logan advocates a "four-pole" model that seeks to bridge the theoretical and practical foci. Instead of seeing the traditional in opposition to the non-traditional (problem solving and experiential), he views them as complementary. Problems and information seldom fit neatly into the institutionalized, disciplinary categories. Therefore, Logan believes the interdisciplinary integration of the practical and enriching as well as the objective and subjective in the learning process will result in the following qualities of an educated person:

> 1) Skilled for the World: One who has learned practical reasoning and career-related skills (practical pole).
>
> 2) Enriched by the World: One whose sense of perspective, proportion, and values has been nurtured by the enriching aspects of education, by immersion in culture, history, and knowledge and who has thereby developed a sense of the historical and cultural context of life and knowledge and an aesthetic appreciation of the creations of the human mind ("non-practical" pole).
>
> 3) Engaged in the World: One who is able and willing to get involved in addressing the problems of society and humanity, and who does so as both a practical problem solver and as a compassionate empathic individual (engaged pole).
>
> 4) Detached from the World: One who is capable also of standing back and conceptualizing a problem, reflecting dispassionately on the human impact of different courses of action, and objectively analyzing the possible outcomes of different courses of action (detached pole).
>
> (1983, p. 237)

The design of curricular models and taxonomies, therefore, provides a foundation to integrative strategies.

Relationship of Field Education to the Institutional Curriculum

Elements of experiential education find expression in a variety of academic disciplines in higher education, but the degree of harmonization between the field and institutional curriculum can differ tremendously. In fact, some would hold that experience regardless of "fit" or articulation gives sufficient opportunity for growth. Others, on the other hand, would carefully structure experiences to promote learning of the "right things."

In their book on internship education, Zanville and Markwood state that little agreement prevails over the extent of articulation necessary between the field and academic experience of the student. They suggest the ideal articulation process occurs when internships integrate into the total curriculum design. This avoids the "isolated events" approach which can occur with those resulting from student or faculty initiation (1982, pp. 16-21). Furthermore, a classification system of internship programs according to five different administrative types clarifies their work--the college department/faculty-run model, the college/university coordinated model, the college/university centralized model, the academic external model, and the external internship program model. Since agencies other than the educational institution administer the latter two, articulation would be more difficult to maximize.

Institutions keep attempting though to overcome the integration difficulty. For instance, in the Program for Entry into the Educating Professions (PEEP) an interrelated curriculum has been developed on the doctoral level with "four basic components: general culture, special scholarship, professional knowledge, and technical skills (developed through rotating internships)" (Kane, 1984, p. 621). Such a program concentrates on arranging for quality internships with students placed near the top in an organization hierarchy. Appraisal reveals that effectiveness relates to the match between the intern and the learning opportunity, the structuring of the experience, the specifying of the intern-organization relationship, and the monitoring of the student's progress. An element of mismatch must be evident as well. "Every internship must have a certain amount of disequilibrium, if it is to allow for growth, diversity, and the acquisition of knowledge. Learning involves discontinuity before new levels of equilibrium and integration are achieved (Kane, 1984, p. 622).

Other non-traditional programs in higher education have risen to address the disarticulation between academia and reality. Nova University in Florida, for instance, offers off-campus graduate programs with a variety of delivery systems. One of their more innovative programs, a master's degree for child care administrators, designs a two-year period of studies without interruption of professional responsibilities. In addition to modular coursework and a

problem-solving practicum, the degree requires a one-week intensive conference interactive in nature (Manburg, 1984, pp. 108-114). Other colleges offer weekend courses for professional people. At one college in New York a two-weekend course for three graduate credits meets Friday evening through Sunday to provide teachers' needs for inservice and on-going education (Lickona, 1978, p. 261).

Organizations such as the Council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning (CAEL) as well as individuals have risen to promote the experiential component (Keeton & Tate, 1978; Chickering, 1977). In addition, the focus on praxis has aided linkage of the practice-theory dimension (Groome, 1980; Whitehead & Whitehead, 1980; Ward 1983). Building awareness through the action/reflection dynamic furnishes a valuable integrator.

Schooling too often supplies a defective approach to education (Ward, n.d.) and gives reason for some educators to react against the institutional context. Freire, for instance, opposes the banking concept of formal education and expresses more concern about the integrated person (1983, p. 4). He believes that when people recognize their world and what each brings to the situation, they can move forward in reflection and action to transform their reality. Shor affirms that his own schooling missed being rooted in reality and suggests "an appeal to critical thought and a strategic relation to daily life can help existentialize academic study while intellectualizing experience" (1980, p. 32). Illich

rejects the institutionalizing of values entirely and advocates the deschooling of society for transcending global miseries (1971, p. 2).

Dilemmas in Integration

Overcoming the frequent dichotomy between life and theory poses continuing challenges. Whitehead claimed, however, that the one subject matter for education concerned "Life in all its manifestations" (1929, pp. 6, 7). To him, inert ideas were untenable as knowledge can "transform every phase of immediate experience . . . education is not a process of packing articles in a trunk" (pp. 32, 33).

This imperative to use knowledge rather than store it grows with the realization that college no longer remains an 18-22 year old sphere or the terminus of post-secondary schooling. In a knowledge intensive society, college more often functions as the beginning of the continual updating necessary to keep current and be competent. A wider diversity in age and stages of adult development evidences itself in the classroom. The polarization that often exists between theory and practice appears anathema to the adult as he or she looks for coherence and relevance in learning. Weathersby and Tarule contend that unfortunately, "explicit linkages among curriculum content, desired outcomes, and teaching methods are rare in higher education. We are usually content to leave unexamined the assumptions underlying traditional practices" (1980, p. 16).

The issues of linear education and lock-step curriculum that limit the flexibility adults desire pose other dilemmas. People want functional as well as informational competence. Accomplishing this within the classroom though stretches the imagination and capability of students and teachers.

> The classroom learning environment is a very efficient one for information assimilation and for mastering some aspects of this fundamental and distinctively human activity. However, at the level of application, learning in the classroom becomes less productive than it does in a work-service setting (Duley & Gordon, 1977, p. 4).

The maxim, "Experience is the best teacher," seems commonly affirmed, and numerous studies indicate in the teaching field, for instance, that "student teaching is the single most important and rewarding phase of professional preparation programs (Nicklas, Black, & Simms, 1982, p. 2). However, the availability of contradictory data reveal that in actuality "field-based experiences seem to entail a complicated set of both positive and negative consequences" (Zeichner, 1980, p. 46). Zeichner regards the statement, "Practical school experience necessarily contributes to the development of better teachers" a myth (p. 45). Immersion in field settings may primarily socialize teachers into the status quo with an uncritical acceptance.

Some argue that too many experienced teachers develop a utilitarian approach for solving immediate problems with questionable long-range consequences for the teaching-learning process (Hoy & Rees, 1977). Another problem can be that familiarity with the classroom can encourage an over-

confidence that converges on a few techniques rather than a conceptualization that considers alternatives and takes time to view the larger picture. Such situations fail to fulfill Dewey's concern for the quality experience.

> The belief that all genuine education comes about through experience does not mean all experiences are genuinely or equally educative. Experience and education cannot be directly equated to each other. For some experiences are miseducative. An experience is miseducative that has the effect of arresting or distorting the growth of further experience (Dewey, 1938, p. 25).

For Dewey education and growth stand as interchangeable terms. Miseducation occurs when anything thwarts growth and the solving of fundamental problems or generates additional problems. Experiences that produce growth are educative. Education or growth involves developing skills that enable a person to effectively cope and solve current as well as subsequent problems. To Dewey the greatest pedagogical fallacy implies the notion that only one thing is learned at a time. Collatoral learning is much more significant (1938, p. 48). He goes on to say in his treatise, Experience & Education, that the "most important attitude that can be formed is that of desire to go on learning" (p. 48). Education must continue rather than terminate. Failure to recognize other learning creates a barrier to on-going learning. Therefore, part of promoting a life-long style of learning includes acknowledging the learning that has taken place up to the present moment. Classrooms cannot be treated as isolated contexts. Thus a crucial aspect of the

educational challenge means determining worthwhile experiences that promote growth.

"Quality of experience resides both in the nature of the experience itself and in the way in which it is guided" (Stratemeyer, 1951, p. 1). One of the primary criticisms in field education has focused on the supervision. The accepted assumption has been that the student, cooperating teacher, and university supervisor work closely together. "Operationally, however, the cooperating teacher and university supervisor . . . rarely spend much time working together and rarely affect the same areas of teacher development" (McIntyre, 1984, p. 42). Also, supervision must "go beyond the 'tricks of the trade' by helping student teachers develop a framework to reflect on practice and understand" (Gitlin, Ogawa & Rose, 1984, p. 46).

Recognition must also be given to the following fact:

> . . . issues disconnected from the daily life of teachers are not likely to enlighten. All such disjointed instruction does is to convince beginning teachers that educational theory is irrelevant to classroom teaching, a belief already prevalent among experienced teachers (Tom, 1984, p. 199).

Theory must be grounded in practice, and as one instructor said, "You've got to take knowledge for a road test to see if it works for you" (Feiman-Nemser, Buchmann, Ball, & Noordhoff, 1985, p. 4). Another factor relates to whether the teacher accepts that he or she can learn important things from the student. "Without that belief, the educator will be rejecting student reality as a rich resource . . . will not

listen carefully to what students offer, and hence will condition students into non-speaking" (Shor, 1980, p. 105). In order for change to occur in the educational system, teachers must lead the way to any reform. In fact Rudolph states that professors hold awesome power over American higher education, and for anything to be done "it is going to be done by the professors or it is not going to be done at all" (1984, p. 17). Since the 1960s teachers have lived through an era of failed revolutions, and when new ideas arise the disposition can be to respond with "This too shall pass" (Postman 1983, p. 319). Postman goes on to say that "if so great a divergence between theory and practice existed in any other profession, it would most likely be considered a scandal" (p. 319).

> Conventional conceptions of teaching are almost all based on models that emphasize the teacher's output behavior: giving information, presenting a lesson, illustrating an idea, asking a question, modeling a behavior, or graphing a concept on the board. Teachers who are skilled in meeting students' needs tend to turn that model around. They are sensitive observers and good listeners; they "draw students out" (Frymier, 1986, p. 62).

So much of learning involves unlearning and relearning. "How easy and tempting it is in designing a course to think of the learner's mind as being as blank as the paper on which we scratch our outline" (Kolb, 1984, p. 28). Yet this does not accurately reflect the case. Students come with preconceived ideas and a variety of background experiences to any learning context. If professors fail to allow for the

experiential component in the learning process then effective learning can be limited.

A related concern for teachers pertains to how to prepare students for new learning. A key component in supporting the learning process includes concern for old learning. The schema of the old relates to the new more profoundly than we usually recognize. Research by Roth on assessing text processing strategies sought to determine how people handle prior learning in dissonance with the text (1985). Strategizing instructional environments that not only explained old and new relationships but made both students and teachers aware of students' misconceptions assisted in guiding students to new perceptions.

> . . . difficulty arises from the need to assure that every individual student completes the recall of relevant prior learning . . . Yet it appears that systematic attention to the recall of prerequisites would have noticeable effects on ease of learning (Gagne, 1980, p. 9).

The Teaching Process

Teaching tends to be an ambiguous process that makes definition difficult. Theories of instruction and learning often do not impinge upon one another (Langford & Bailey, 1981, p. 126). Dewey though specifies that the immediate and direct concern of an educator or teacher centers on the situations in which interaction takes place (1938, p. 45). Teaching consists of the "creation of learning environments, and different environments are directed toward or nurture

different kinds of learning" (Joyce & Weil, 1986, 418). This may be one reason why Eble claims teaching to be an "improvisor's art" (1979, p. 3).

Orientations to the Teaching Process

Joyce and Weil have arranged models of teaching into four families of orientations to teaching and learning (1986, pp. 5-12). The information-processing family seeks to make sense of the world by developing concepts and acquiring and organizing data. The next family, identified as the personal, focuses on the individual and each person taking responsibility for his or her own learning. Carl Rogers' statement that "Teaching, in my estimation, is a vastly overrated function" would be one perspective characterizing this orientation (1969, p. 103). The social family utilizes cooperative study and the synergy that results from collective processes. The behavioral systems family engages in modification of conduct in response to information.

"Even the subject-matter specialist, whose responsibilities may be confined to teaching a single discipline to fairly mature students, faces teaching tasks for which no one single model can be completely adequate" (Joyce & Weil, 1986, p. 20). Wise teachers master a range of teaching models in order to facilitate the learning of students.

To balance the emphasis within the teaching-learning process on accommodating the student and making the learner comfortable, Thelen contends, "The learner does not learn

unless he does not know how to respond" (1960, p. 61). In other words, significant learning is usually accompanied by an appropriate measure of discomfort. Appropriateness would be pertinent here as concern exists for productivity and helping learners marginal to their context. When a learner has difficulty relating to an educational environment and profiting from it, barriers to learning arise (Joyce & Weil, 1986, p. 440).

Another reality consists of Musgrave's contention that the predominant teaching methods today are teacher-centric rather than student-centric. Students generally find themselves in a responding role. A control rather than growth orientation may be more predominant.

> When teachers practice teacher-centric methods to the extent that the teachers are the stars in the classroom, then teachers become the active participants during the teaching learning situation while the students are passive learners until feedback time. Even then feedback information is controlled by the teacher. . . . Student-centric methods place students in the spotlight so that they become active learners and the teacher's role becomes more diversified. Freeing the teacher from having to present all the time allows him to assume the roles of motivator, guide, evaluator, and helper to a greater extent (Musgrave, 1975, pp. 2,3).

A reductionist posture that tends to treat every classroom context the same permeates schooling. For instance, "the lecture has persisted in college teaching because it is the easiest thing to do; it is the accepted thing; it is the safest" (Eble, 1979, p. 42). Estimates suggest that "90 percent of all instruction occurs through the lecture and the question and answer methods, and yet,

only between two and four students in each group of ten learn best by listening" (Dunn & Dunn, 1978, p. 13). An analysis of lecture in the college classrooms by Batchelder and Keane indicated subject matter as a variable in classroom method and revealed the following conclusions:

> 1. Lecture is the predominant behavior in the college classroom, occurring for over 83% of the time for the 48 subjects in this subject.
> Teachers in science lecture 92% of the time, in social science 83% of the time, and in the humanities 74% of the time.
>
> 2. College teachers are most concerned with factual content while they are lecturing. Factual lecturing is done through straight information giving and through the use of the ideas of others.
>
> (1977, p. 42)

As Eble points out, most teachers enter into lecturing too lightly without considering what needs to be accomplished or developing the skills essential to turning the occasion from drudgery to a stimulating, renewing experience (1979, p. 44).

> In his lectures, McWilliams aims not to transmit a lot of basic information but to provide a "central context" for later discussion. "The one great sin," he says, "is not to be interesting. A lecturer is a performer; he uses hyperbole. In leading a discussion group a teacher must be a choreographer. But in giving a lecture he's on stage" . . . Even with bright students, "attention spans are short" (The Power of a Good Lecture, 1976, p. 69).

The issue does not revolve around the superiority of lecture over discussion or simulations over audio-visuals, but in determining how best to accomplish the integration of the educational goals with the realities of the learners. Unfortunately the modeling even for professionals frequently proves inadequate and contradictory. One observer notes that

"experts often lectured to large groups of teachers on the importance of individualizing instruction" (Hunt, 1978, p. 239).

Argyris and Schon also wonder if people's trouble in learning the new does not stem from existing ideas that determine practices and the tendency to protect the old. These authors call these "operational theories of action theories-in-use to distinguish them from the espoused theories that are used to describe and justify behavior" (1974, p. viii). This suggests professors must attempt to provide an environment where theories-in-use can be expressed, reflected upon, and new understanding developed.

Students and the Teaching Process

In an extensive analysis of research on college students' views on teaching, Feldman found stimulation of interest and clarity (understandableness) as the two dimensions most consistently associated with superior college teachers or teaching. When students freely describe their best or ideal teachers, friendliness, helpfulness, and openness to others' opinions (encouragement of class questions and discussion) are mentioned most frequently.

> . . . these variables are less strongly associated with overall evaluation of actual instructors than are the instructor's stimulation of interest, clarity or understandableness, knowledge of subject matter, preparation and organization, and enthusiasm for the subject and for teaching (Feldman, 1976, pp. 264-265).

Models of teaching exist as stimulators to constructing learning situations rather than as recipes (Joyce & Weil, 1986, p. 21). In designing a plurality of learning environments the teacher must be comfortable with a repertoire of strategies. "The task of teachers is not necessarily to possess the content and convey it to the student, but is rather to enable the student to take possession of the content wherever it is found" (Fenstermacher, 1986, p. 40). Carkhuff reinforces these ideas by his instruction to "teach students--not content" and to remember that "all effective learning begins with the learner's frame of reference" (Carkhuff, 1984, p. 6). Many fail to recognize that "content is a vehicle on which life skills should be taught. The exposure of an individual to life situations is an endless variety of content" (Groves & Groves, 1980, p. 86).

Findings from a study at a small liberal arts college reinforce the need to address the centrality of the student in the classroom. The researcher found that only about 4 percent of class time centered on the teacher's praising, encouraging, and using students' ideas while student talk accounted for a total of 14 percent of class time (Smith, 1977, 1980). This research parallels somewhat a study by Foster in medicine that recorded teacher encouragement and praise as approximately 4 percent, student responses at 10 percent, and students' initiations at 8 percent of class time (1981).

The trends evident from these and other available studies indicate students in higher education usually play passive parts. Too often the end of education is seen as the acquisition of knowledge and the value of learning how to learn with a life-long commitment stays unrecognized. An interesting insight in a study by Barnes (1980) found that advanced courses included teacher acceptance or use of students' ideas almost twice as often as beginning courses. These patterns occurred three times as frequently in the humanities as in the math/science disciplines. In research on styles of lecturing, strong association occurred between lecturing patterns and subject areas (Brown, Bakhtar, & Youngman, 1982).

A study on curriculum change and stability covering the 1890 to 1980 period discovered little evidence of significant change in teaching practices over that period of time. In spite of reform efforts to move toward more student-centered instruction, teacher-centered instruction "seemed uncommonly stable at all levels of schooling" (Cuban, 1983, p. 160). Why do so few instructional innovations impact the classroom context? While the espousal of various views abound, Waller proposes the following:

> . . . both theory and practice of education have suffered in the past from an overattention to what ought to be and correlative tendency to disregard what is. When theory is not based upon existing practice, a great hiatus appears between theory and practice, and the consequence is that the progressiveness of theory does not affect the conservatism of practice (1967, p. 35).

One reason may be the sending of mixed messages. Verbalizations regarding valuing students proliferate, but "by overemphasizing test scores and continuing to suggest that good scores result only from large-group direct instruction, we paralyze teachers so that they are afraid to move toward a more experiential approach" (Kierstead, 1985, p. 30). In addition, Sternberg and Caruso suggest that the procedural nature of practical knowledge does not lend itself to a reading and listening approach to learning (1985, p. 143). Teachers uncomfortable with a doing focus thus tend to limit learning contexts to conceptualization and direct instruction.

Another factor may be that many consider teaching a personal art and the classroom sacrosanct as far as outside intrusion. Actual knowledge about what takes place in the classroom and the teaching and learning process continues to be limited--particularly on the college level (Birnbaum, 1984; Doyle, 1979). In one university study Cross discovered that only 28 percent of faculty were willing for colleagues to visit their classes. Also, 94 percent of the faculty rated themselves as above average and 64 percent placed themselves in the top quarter of teaching faculty (Meeth, 1977, p. 4). Related findings indicate that teachers rate their performance better than their students do (Wagner & Freedman, 1985, p. 38). Perhaps then the barriers to teachers increasing effectiveness rotate more around perceptual issues.

"The key to good teaching is to involve students, to make them participants not spectators" (Best in Rice, 1986, p. 15). "People's learning interests are embedded in their personal histories, in their visions of who they are in the world and what they can do and want to do" (Weathersby, 1978, p. 19). Cognitive knowledge can be sterile without the vitality of active student involvement. Perhaps more students than may be imagined feel like Winston Churchill who said, "Personally, I'm always ready to learn although I do not always like being taught" (In Murphy, 1978, p. 396). Frequently students are relegated to a position as consumers of knowledge rather than co-discoverers on the life-long learning journey.

Integration in Theological Education

The growing disillusionment over the failure of theological education to deliver on its promises has resulted in fresh assessment and some innovations. Fletcher even hypothesizes that the "arrangements of seminary life block student opportunities of learning tasks of ministry by experience," and thus calls for a shared partnership between the seminary and church community (1979, p. 6). Wolterstorff affirms renewed challenges for the Christian college.

> . . . a college will have to be far more concerned than ever before with building bridges from theory to practice. Throwing some abstract political science at the student along with some abstract economics and sociology will not do the trick. The goal is not just to understand the world but to change it. The goal is not just to impart to the student a Christian world-and-life-view--it is to equip and motivate students for a Christian way of being and acting in the world. And there is not a shred of evidence that simply putting abstract theory in front of them will alter their actions (1984, pp. 46, 47).

In his book, Theologia: The Fragmentation and Unity of Theological Education, Farley asserts the difficulty in theological training as more fundamental than theory and practice. Too often in a "pragmatic, strategy oriented ethos of theory-practice," ministry becomes a technology (1983, p. 19). Education means preparation for ministerial activities. A pastoral paradigm with a functional and professional orientation tends to a specialized and management occupied role. Such frequently misses the theological wisdom and discipline essential for the laity as well as the pastor in the mobilization of the church as a redemptive community (p. 188). Theologizing must not be a function preserved for the professional.

Part of the tension in theological education relates to concerns between distinctive content and educational principles. With the dedication to divine revelation, the implicit assumption frequently practiced is that knowledge exists as a sufficient condition for transformation. The resulting accusation follows:

> The issue facing evangelical education is the development of a distinctive concept of education--not defense of the distinctiveness of its content . . . Too long Christian educators have attempted to uphold an antiquated system of education by appeal to the truth value of their content (Mayers, Richards, & Webber, 1972, p. 74).

On the other hand, Niebuhr and his associates would deny the denouncement of the lecture method or promotion of student centeredness as primary issues. Instead, they believe that theological education needs to become characterized by companionship in learning rather than transmission of knowledge (1957, p. 209).

> The question is whether teacher and student are companions in inquiry into a challenging subject or whether the teacher conceives of himself as a retail distributor of intellectual and spiritual commodities. The lecture system of classroom instruction is no more tied to the latter idea than discussion methods and group dynamics are in themselves representative of the former (Niebuhr, Williams, & Gustafson, 1957, p. 209).

Part of the answer of the Association of Theological Schools to the concern for preparation effectiveness has been the establishment of "readiness for ministry" criteria and assessment measures (Schuller, Brekke & Strommen, 1975). The competencies established provide help in designing curriculum. Seminaries and Bible colleges have also been involved increasingly in field-based education. The theme of the 1984 conference of the National Association of Professors of Christian Education, for example, focused on field education. Niebuhr warns though of the danger of stressing the future aspect in field work.

> All too often "field work" (why not call it "church work"?) is regarded and directed as though its purpose were the acquisition of skills for future use. Students, it seems should teach Sunday School classes because sometime in the future they will need to organize Sunday Schools, to do "clinical work" in hospitals because they will learn something beneficial for their later practice as counselors, to practice preaching so that in other times and other places they may proclaim divine righteousness and mercy. When such considerations are urged upon them an inner contradiction comes to appearance; a kind of professionalized self-love has been substituted for love of God and neighbor. The children in the Sunday School class, the patients in the hospital, the hearers of the "practice sermons" have been put into a secondary place; they have become means to a personal end (1956, pp. 131, 132).

Others take a more innovative approach to the problem of theory and practice integration. The most notable movement, Theological Education by Extension (TEE), has been used on both a professional and lay level. The best model portraying this concept is the two-railed fence analogy used by Ward (Ward & Rowen, 1972). Seminars act as the fence posts or linkages between the two rails of cognitive input and field experience. The interactive seminars function as opportunities for reflection, evaluation, and integration.

Variations on the concept of the extension school are increasing here in North America. The Ontario Bible Church of Ames, Iowa, established a four-year Ministry Apprenticeship Training curriculum integrating ministry, character, and academic goals. The Seminaire Baptiste Evangelique du Quebec (SemBEQ) in French Canada combines brief residential educational periods with the extension idea to prepare people for ministry (1984). A new seminary, The Conservative Baptist Seminary of the East, seeks to answer

the integration question by having students deeply involved in church ministry throughout the four-year program with the possibility of classes only one day or so a week. The curriculum and training process centers around the church (1985).

Strategies for Integration

The literature does mention ways of bridging the gap between theory and practice in institutional settings. Basic, of course, is the necessity of awareness. An approach that zeros in on context as well as theory will increase understanding of the complexity of the learning phenomenon. Concept and context must be intertwined into an interactive whole (Williams, Neff, Finkelstein, 1981, p. 96). In his classic on aims in education Whitehead exhorted, "Get your knowledge quickly, and then use it. If you can use it, you will retain it" (1929, p. 36).

Theory and practice must inform each other. A practical focus alone can become technical and mechanical. The danger then increases that students are "likely to use methods long after they have become dysfunctional and are not able to improve upon methods that no longer work" (Webb & Sherman, 1983, p. 24). Critical engagement with ideas and experience must be encouraged, otherwise a narrow pragmatism and/or conceptualization that limits people to reacting instead of thinking and repeating rather than creating may be true. Reflection serves as a necessary integrative skill, and the interactive seminar can provide such an opportunity. As

reflection combines with a range of experiences, the quality of the educational process will improve as well (Stratemeyer, 1951, p. 12).

> Only experience that is reflected upon seriously will yield its full measure of learning, and the reflection must in turn aim at testing the newly refined understandings by further experience. Our duty as educators is both to provide the *experiential* opportunity and make sure it can yield *learning*. That is, we must provide a framework for regularly analyzing the experience and forming new concepts and theories, and then submitting these new concepts to the test of experience (Doherty, Mentkowski, & Conrad, 1978, p. 25).

The seminar is usually considered as particularly conducive to reflection and integration. Findings seem to indicate, however, that the quality of the seminar exercises influence on its articulating power. Having reflection in a seminar "as a program goal does not insure its manifestation" (Goodman, 1983, p. 48). If the seminar means merely an opportunity to address technical concerns, then it becomes socialization into current practice and "recipe knowledge" (Zeichner, 1980, p. 12). On the other hand, if the seminar penetrates issues on a deeper level then it potentially functions as a "catalyst for substantive discussions" (Goodman, 1983, p. 46). The classroom setting also needs to provide reflective occasions. Learning to think critically will help students move beyond a survival mentality and the passive character of most classroom learning environments. Reflection can assist in the improvement of practice.

Another way of improving the linkage involves the use of ethnographic methodologies in a variety of settings (Gitlin & Teitelbaum, 1983, p. 225). By students conducting their own ethnographies, realities may be understood and critical analysis and reflection encouraged. Thus classroom and field learning begin to impact one another.

Peer teaching could also aid the integration process. Most teachers would acknowledge the truth that "I never learned so much about the subject until I had to teach it." Having to organize knowledge in order to communicate it assists learning (Warren, 1970, p. 10).

In addition, the Experiential Learning Incident Log also operates as a useful technique. The purpose of the log as detailed by Mentkowski reads as follows:

> . . . to make the student aware of the detail of her experience, to reflect on her experience, to identify her theory and her theory in use, and to test out her new ideas in action. The log is designed to encourage the student to become proficient at reflecting on experience, at conceptualizing, at planning for new actions and further experiences (1983, p. 13).

Communication between the field, student, and institution must be another emphasis. Projects and papers which demand integrative thought help people appreciate and understand what has transpired. Growth portrays an interactive function and "when environmental conditions are not optimal, then some form of arrestation is assumed to occur" (Joyce, 1980, p. 19). More attention needs to be paid to a nurturing environment. Baltes and Schaie found the decline of IQ in adults a myth (1970, p. 720-725), and the Sprinthalls suggest

that lack of growth may be due more to inadequate stimulating interaction (Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1983, p. 22).

Summary

In the more recent literature, concern for linking the experiences of students and institutional learning is evident, but actual articulation between the cognitive and experiential is less apparent. Certainly, recognizing and utilizing the experiences of students as a curricular resource does not serve as a panacea for solving the tendency toward a theory-practice polarization. Also, the issue lies not in student experience versus subject content in the classroom but in encouraging the creative interplay of both. The dynamic processes of theory and practice not only find integration through action and reflection, but as part of a larger interpretive endeavor, "the recovery of meaning and the development of understanding" (Macdonald, 1982, p. 56). The capacity of the learner to make right decisions and grow in wisdom will not be maximized if the reality of students' experience is minimized. In his article, "Education for Character," Martin states that the Christian college must be characterized by a commitment to purpose:

> above every other skill . . . is development in the person of a capacity for good judgment. To judge rightly is . . . the end of the education experience to which everything else is means . . . The teacher is the leader in making choices that influence the development of the student's skill in making choices . . . There is moral seriousness to this interaction (1986, p. 13).

Chapter 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study was to identify and to describe the relationship between the life experiences of students and classroom learning in undergraduate theological institutions in Western Canada. This chapter addresses research design, the population, methodologies in instrument development, data collection, and data analysis.

Research Design

Since the concerns focus on factors linking experiences of students within and outside the classroom, a descriptive study fulfills the purpose of the research. The emphasis centers in qualitative research methods, rather than quantitative.

The study identified the perceptions of students and faculty regarding the use of the experiences of students in the Bible college classroom and described current practices pertaining to the same. Kolb's (1985) inventory which assesses how people's learning styles may influence preferences in relation to the use of the experiences of students was employed.

The research proceeded as follows:

1. Selecting institutions to participate in the study.
2. Obtaining permission from the chief academic officer of each college to conduct the study.
3. Developing the interview instruments.
4. Structuring a standardized interview protocol.
5. Pilot testing research methodology and refining procedures and interview instruments at a Bible college other than the two involved in the study.
6. Collecting data through institutional documents, standardized interviews, and a learning style inventory at two Bible colleges called Rhema and Logos.[1]
7. Exploring and discovering patterns and relationships in the data.
8. Coding and analyzing the data.

Research and Operational Questions

The following questions guided the research:

Research Question #1

As seen by the administration, faculty, and students, what elements of the explicit curriculum in a given institution emphasize the experiences of students?

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[1] For the sake of confidentiality, the pseudonyms Rhema and Logos are used to describe the Bible colleges involved in the study.

Operational question #1. What post-high school and pre-college experience do students bring to the formal education context?

Operational question #2. What out-of-class educational experiences are provided by the college curricular structure?

Operational question #3. What in-class educational experiences are designed by professors?

Operational question #4. What out-of-class educational experiences are designed by professors?

Operational question #5. In what ways does the administration encourage the inclusion of out-of-class experiences of students in the curriculum?

Operational question #6. What factors contribute to or hinder the inclusion of out-of-class experiences of students in the curriculum?

Research Question #2

What do professors do to utilize learnings from the experiences of students?

Operational question #1. How do professors become aware of the involvements of students outside of the classroom?

Operational question #2. Approximately how frequently is class time devoted to utilizing the out-of-class experiences of students?

Operational question #3. What do professors do to include the experiences of students in classroom learning?

Research Question #3

How do preferred learning styles of faculty and students relate to the use of experiences of students within the classroom?

Operational question #1. What are the preferred learning styles of faculty and students?

Operational question #2. Do the preferred learning styles of faculty relate to the kinds of experiences they design and to the frequency with which they utilize the experiences of students?

Operational question #3. Do the preferred learning styles of students relate to their expectations regarding the inclusion of the experiences of students within the classroom or the kinds of experiences they suggest should be included?

Population

The population consisted of faculty and students in undergraduate institutions affiliated with the American Association of Bible Colleges in the United States and Canada and the Association of Canadian Bible Colleges. Preparing people for church-related careers constitutes the primary purpose of Bible colleges. The vocational or professional nature of the Bible college mandate requires a major in Bible and theology and usually some form of practical training and experience in "Christian service" during the student's college days. Thirty hours in Bible and theology are mandatory for members of the American Association of Bible

Colleges (Gangel & Benson, 1983, p. 362). Although both denominational and interdenominational schools are members of this organization, some similarity in theological and educational objectives exists among faculty and students.

Sample

The sample consisted of a total of 60 students and 21 faculty at two undergraduate theological institutions.

Institutions

The sample consisted of faculty and students at one interdenominational Bible college (Rhema) and one denominational Bible college (Logos) located in Western Canada. Variability of sample was reduced by selecting Bible colleges that are members of the American Association of Bible Colleges and Association of Canadian Bible Colleges.

Rhema and Logos Bible colleges were chosen on the basis of their size and willingness to participate in the study. A number of Bible colleges in Western Canada have less than 100 students, few full-time faculty, and limited program offerings so were not considered for the study.

Other factors favoring a Western Canada location included cost and proximity to the researcher. Doing the research at two colleges assisted in overcoming some confounding variables idiosyncratic to one setting that might have impacted the results if the study were conducted at only one college.

Subjects

The subjects selected at each institution consisted of students, faculty, and one chief administrative officer.

Students

Thirty students were randomly selected according to major (Bible/theology/pastoral or Christian education/missions) from all full-time students in the sophomore, junior, and senior classes at Logos. Since Rhema students did not enter their degree major until their junior year, 30 students were randomly selected according to major (Bible/theology/pastoral or Christian education/missions) from all full-time students in the junior and senior classes at Rhema. These subjects were expected to have a high degree of knowledge of faculty and the learning environments.

Faculty

Eleven faculty were randomly selected at Rhema from all full-time faculty according to the program major (Bible/theology/pastoral or Christian education/missions) in which they taught. Ten faculty were randomly selected at Logos from all full-time faculty according to the program major (Bible/theology/pastoral or Christian education/missions) in which they taught. Because of the few number of full-time faculty in the majors selected and some subjects refusing to participate, the remaining subjects at Logos no longer constituted a random sample but volunteer subjects (Borg & Gall, 19 p. 251).

Profiles of Participating Institutions

Both Rhema and Logos colleges are fully accredited members of the American Association of Bible Colleges and active in the Association of Canadian Bible Colleges. Although one school is denominational and the other interdenominational, their doctrinal statements are similar. The primary curricular emphases at both of these schools consist of Bible, theology, and church-related ministy courses.

Rhema Bible College

Rhema is an independent and interdenominational school located in a rural setting. The college has an enrollment of 786 full-time and part-time students, with a full-time equivalent of 733. The institution employs 23 full-time faculty, 4 part-time faculty, 14 administrators, 4 counsellors, and 5 graduate study interns.

Academic Programs

The college offers a three-year Bachelor of General and Biblical Studies degree, plus two four-year degrees: a Bachelor of Religious Education with majors in Bible, Christian Education, World Evangelism, and Theological Studies; and a Bachelor of Sacred Music. A Bachelor of Theology Program, as well as a one-year Certificate and a two-year Diploma Program are also available. The Bachelor of Theology Program takes an additional year beyond the Bachelor of Religious Education degree. The focus of this latter

program is practical as well as theoretical with a minimum of six months field experience.

Programs Included in the Research

Rhema Bible college offered a more comprehensive Bachelor of Religious Education program which appeared to be equivalent to the Bachelor of Religious Education (B.R.E.) and Bachelor of Theology (B.Th.) offered by Logos. Since the B.Th. is a fifth year degree achieved following the B.R.E. at Rhema, these students were not on campus at the time of the study, but were involved in a minimum of six months of field experience. In assessing the programs, however, the Christian Education and World Evangelism majors at Rhema seemed comparable to the B.R.E. at Logos, while the Theology, Pastoral, and Biblical majors at Rhema appeared to fit the B.Th. format at Logos.

Logos Bible College

Logos is a denominational school located in a city context. The September enrollment for the 1986-1987 school year consisted of 383 students with the full-time-equivalent equal to 353. Faculty comprising this school include 15 full-time, 12 part-time, and 9 people with administrative responsibilities.

Academic Programs

Logos has designed three four-year professional degree options in the Bachelor of Theology, Bachelor of Religious Education, and Bachelor of Sacred Music degrees. A three year Bachelor of Religious Education alternative is available

for registered nurses. Additional programs include the non-professional three-year Bachelor of Biblical Studies and 24 semester hour Diploma in Church Ministry.

Programs Included in the Research

Logos subjects were involved in two programs, the Bachelor of Theology (B.Th.) and the Bachelor of Religious Education (B.R.E.). Both are professional degrees with biblical studies but the B.Th. emphasizes theology, pastoral studies and New Testament Greek while the B.R.E. focuses on Christian education thought and practice as well as theology.

Faculty Subjects at Rhema and Logos

A random selection of faculty according to the study program in which faculty taught was chosen.

Rhema

Due to uncertainty at Rhema whether one faculty member would return from an off-campus business trip in time to meet his interview appointment, an additional faculty member was incorporated to assure a minimum of 10 faculty subjects. The faculty person approached first returned on time, consequently 11 faculty subjects participated in the research at Rhema. At Rhema, professors teaching in Bible, theology, and pastoral areas were in one subject grouping. Those in Christian education and world evangelism (or missions) were in another.

Logos

Random selection of faculty at Logos occurred according to the program in which faculty taught (either the B.Th. or B.R.E.), but due to the small number of faculty and three faculty unable to participate, the sample is volunteer. Where faculty taught courses common to both the B.R.E. and B.Th., the criteria for whether faculty were included in one program or the other depended on the number of practical courses a professor taught. If the professor taught a minimum of two courses with an applied and practical focus, then that person was included in the Christian education faculty. Traditionally, the B.Th. is considered a more academic degree with its classical languages and theory focused courses, while the perception of the B.R.E. is more application oriented. This division also compares favorably with the Rhema group of study majors mentioned earlier.

Faculty Demographic Data

Demographic data solicited from faculty pertained to variables that may influence faculty's use of the experiences of students as a resource in the classroom.

Sex. Women faculty at both colleges fulfilled professorial roles in the Christian education and missions majors. No women at either college taught in the Bible/theology/pastoral majors except for one part-time instructor in New Testament Greek at Logos. Table 3.1 shows that of the 21 professors constituting the faculty sample, 71.43 percent were male and 28.57 percent were females.

Table 3.1 Faculty by Sex by College

Sex	College		
	Rhema N	Logos N	Total %
Male	8	7	71.43
Female	3	3	28.57
TOTAL	11	10	100.00

Age. The mean age of the faculty at Rhema and Logos was 41.62 years (Table 3.2). Faculty ages range from 28 to 62 years. The higher mean of Logos indicates a slightly more mature faculty with ages varying from 33 to 62 years.

Table 3.2 Faculty Age by Sex by College

Sex	College		
	Rhema Mean in Years	Logos Mean in Years	Total Mean in Years
Male	40.75	44.13	42.33
Female	38.67	41.00	39.83
TOTAL	40.18	43.20	41.62

Academic Degrees. Of the faculty subjects comprising the study, all had a minimum of a master's degree (Table 3.3). Only three had doctorates, and no women were among this group.

Table 3.3 Highest Academic Degree of Faculty by Sex by College

Sex/Degree	College		
	Rhema N	Logos N	Total N
Male			
Master's	7	5	12
Doctor's	1	2	3
Female			
Master's	3	3	6
Doctor's	0	0	0
TOTAL	11	10	21

Work Experience. One variable was vocational experience prior to joining faculty at the respective colleges (Table 3.4). Church-related experience of faculty focused primarily on pastoral, youth, and Christian education ministries. One professor at Rhema and two at Logos had served in other countries as missionaries. A similar number and proportion were previously involved in business ventures dealing with restaurant managing and computers. The Other category covered job backgrounds in social work, construction, teaching, counselling, and public relations. A display of the prior work experience of faculty in years (Table 3.4) reveals women with higher mean years of experience in Missions and Other while men average more Church experience.

Table 3.4 Previous Years of Faculty Work Experience by Sex by College

Sex/Experience	College				
	Rhema		Logos		Total
	N	Mean	N	Mean	Mean
Male	8		7		
Church		3.06		5.29	4.10
Missions		0.00		1.43	0.67
Business		0.25		0.29	0.27
Other		2.81		4.36	3.53
Female	3		3		
Church		3.00		2.50	2.75
Missions		6.67		3.33	5.00
Business		0.00		1.00	0.50
Other		3.17		5.00	4.08
TOTAL	11		10		

A two-factor analysis of variance on each type of experience in Table 3.4 yielded no significant difference except on the missions variable. No significant difference existed between colleges but an F-test score of 3.189 with a p value of 0.092 existed on the sex factor. Women faculty had significantly more experience in missions than men.

The consequence of amalgamating the church, missions, business, and other experience for each person and school resulted in an experience mean of 7.91 years for Rhema and 11.2 years for Logos. Even with one less faculty member in the study, Logos had a total of 112 years to 87 years for Rhema. Logos faculty demonstrated a 41.59 percent higher mean than did Rhema faculty in vocational experience prior to Bible college teaching.

Present Teaching Load. Table 3.5 shows the response of faculty when they were asked to specify their present responsibilities and clarify the extent of their teaching load according to Part-time, Half-time, or Primary-time.

Table 3.5 Present Faculty Teaching Load by College

Teaching Load	College		Total
	Rhema	Logos	%
Part-time	1	0	4.76
Half-time	6	0	28.57
Primary-time	4	10	66.67
TOTAL	11	10	100.00

Present Administrative Load. A number of the Rhema faculty spent half their time in administration (Table 3.6), while all the Logos faculty considered teaching their primary focus even though they may have other job demands such as committee work or student committee advisor.

Table 3.6 Present Faculty Administrative Load by College

Administrative Load	College		Total %
	Rhema	Logos	
None	1	5	28.57
Part-time	5	5	47.62
Half-time	5	0	23.81
TOTAL	11	10	100.00

None of the faculty interviewed considered administration their primary purpose (Table 3.6). Only six had no administrative responsibility, and five of these taught at Logos.

Teaching Major. Faculty were randomly selected according to the major in which they taught--either the combination set of Bible/theology/pastoral (B/Th/P) or Christian education/ missions (CE/M). Table 3.7 displays that with an additional faculty member participating at Rhema, 52.38 percent of the faculty interviewed at Rhema and Logos taught in the Bible, theology, or pastoral majors while 47.62 percent taught in Christian education and missions.

Table 3.7 Faculty Teaching Major by College

Teaching Major	College Rhema	Logos	Total %
Bible/theology/ pastoral	6	5	52.38
Christian education/ missions	5	5	47.62
TOTAL	11	10	100.00

Time in Present Position. The time of faculty in their present position (Table 3.8) ranges from 0.2 - 11 years at Rhema to 0.2 - 16 years at Logos. Although Logos faculty are in their positions longer, a t-test on the difference in means did not yield significance.

Table 3.8 Faculty Time in Years in Present Position by College

Sex	College Rhema N	M	S.D.	Logos N	M	S.D.
Male	8	4.71	2.88	7	6.89	5.75
Female	3	5.33	4.93	3	6.07	5.46
TOTAL	11	4.88	3.30	10	6.64	5.37

Faculty time at the college (Table 3.9) varies from 1.25 - 33 years for Rhema to 0.2 - 16 years for Logos, but a t-test on the mean times did not demonstrate significant results.

Table 3.9 Faculty Time in Years at the College by College

Sex	College					
	Rhema			Logos		
	N	M	S.D.	N	M	S.D.
Male	8	10.44	10.69	7	7.31	5.42
Female	3	7.18	5.35	3	6.73	4.41
TOTAL	11	9.55	9.38	10	7.10	4.90

Rhema faculty demonstrate more years working at the college (Table 3.9), but a shorter time than Logos faculty in their present responsibilities (Table 3.8).

Off-campus Involvement. A potential variable in the use of the experiences of students as a resource in the classroom related to the professor's own involvement in off-campus ministries (Table 3.10). The off-campus involvement descriptor describes commitments that are not college related. The most common response by faculty specified church, seminar, camp, and retreat related responsibilities.

Table 3.10 Faculty Off-Campus Involvement by College

Involvement	College		Total	
	Rhema	Logos	N	%
None	3	2	5	23.81
Periodic	4	1	5	23.81
Regular	4	7	11	52.38
TOTAL	11	10	21	100.00

Although some difference is evident between Rhema and Logos as far as off-campus involvement (Table 3.10), a chi-square test did not produce significance. Faculty with no involvement off-campus are 27.27 percent at Rhema as compared to 20 percent at Logos. The claim by faculty of periodic involvement is 36.36 percent at Rhema and 10 percent at Logos. Logos faculty nearly double the claim of Rhema faculty in regular off-campus involvement with 70 percent to 36.36 percent.

Student Subjects at Rhema and Logos

Random selection of students at the two colleges occurred according to program of study--Bible/theology/pastoral (B/Th/P) or Christian education/missions (CE/M). Table 3.11 shows that 30 students from each major were selected between the two colleges and 30 students from each college. At Rhema, students do not enter their major until the junior year, so when students were randomly selected according to their major no sophomores from Rhema are included.

Table 3.11 Students in Each Set of Majors by Class by College

Class/Major	College		Total	
	Rhema	Logos	N	%
Sophomore				
Bible/theology/ pastoral	0	6	6	10.00
Christian education/ missions	0	8	8	13.33
Junior				
Bible/theology/ pastoral	5	1	6	10.00
Christian education/ missions	6	4	10	16.67
Senior				
Bible/theology/ pastoral	10	8	18	30.00
Christian education/ missions	9	3	12	20.00
TOTAL	30	30	60	100.00

Rhema

At Rhema, 15 students were selected from the Bible, theology, and pastoral majors, and another 15 from the Christian education and world evangelism or mission areas--subject groupings comparable to the Bachelor of Theology and Bachelor of Religious Education degrees at Logos.

Logos

At Logos, 15 students were chosen from the Bachelor of Theology program and 15 from the Bachelor of Religious Education.

Student Demographic Data

In order to discern influences and potential student resources for the classroom curriculum, demographic data were obtained from each student. In the collection of data various demographic variables were considered.

Sex. Table 3.12 displays that 65 percent of the student respondents were male and 35 percent were female. At Rhema, 73.33 percent of the sample were male, while 26.67 percent were female. Logos' respondents consisted of a more even balance between male and female with 56.67 percent and 43.33 percent respectively.

Table 3.12 Number of Students According to Sex by College

	College		
Sex	Rhema N	Logos N	Total %
Male	22	17	65
Female	8	13	35
TOTAL	30	30	100

Age. Student ages ranged from 18 to 38 years. Rhema students varied from 20 to 38 years of age, and Logos students from 18 to 38 years of age. The mean age of students was higher for men than women, but the mean age between schools is similar (Table 3.5).

Table 3.13 Student Age in Years by Sex by College

Sex	College: Rhema Mean	Logos Mean	Total Mean
Male	24.09	24.06	24.08
Female	22.00	22.15	22.10
TOTAL	23.53	23.23	23.38

Response Rate

One hundred fifteen student and faculty subjects were approached to participate in the study, and 81 responded, or 70.43 percent. Table 3.14 shows the response rate for faculty at 84 percent. Rhema had a higher response rate than Logos.

Table 3.14 Faculty Response Rate by College

College	Number Approached	Number of Responses	% of Responders
Rhema	12	11	91.67
Logos	13	10	76.92
TOTAL	25	21	84.00

The mean response rate for students was 66.67 percent (Table 3.15). The response rate among Rhema students was higher than for Logos students.

Table 3.15 Student Response Rate by College

College	Number Approached	Number of Responses	% of Responders
Rhema	37	30	81.08
Logos	53	30	56.60
TOTAL	90	60	66.67

Non-response Rate

Table 3.16 displays the non-response rate of faculty and students at Rhema and Logos. Nearly 30 percent of faculty and students approached to participate in the study did not respond. Rhema had the largest faculty and student population but the best response rate.

Table 3.16 Faculty and Student Non-response Rate by College

College	Number of Non-responders	% of Non-responders
Rhema (N = 49)		
Faculty	1	2.04
Students	7	14.29
Logos (N = 66)		
Faculty	3	4.55
Students	23	34.48
TOTAL (N = 115)	34	29.57

Due to the higher non-response rate at Logos (Table 3.16) and in order to ascertain whether non-responders were clearly different from responders, a minimum of 20 percent of Logos college non-responders were randomly selected for follow-up (2 faculty and 5 students). The reasons given by the faculty were "too busy" while students specified "too busy," "inconvenient," and "illness." The events at the respective colleges during the time that the researcher conducted interviews may have had some bearing on the response rate. At Rhema, exam week was in progress, and the faculty and students had a less structured schedule. At Logos, classes were suspended because of a conference, but participation in the conference was expected and a number of optional opportunities for involvement were available.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were employed in collecting data from the subjects, face-to-face interviews and Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (Gorden, 1980, p. 246).

Interview Guides

Moderately scheduled interview guides were developed for each group of subjects--the faculty, students, and chief academic officers (Appendices A, B, & C). Questions were designed to gather demographic information and to meet the specific objectives of the three research questions. Collegians and faculty were usually operating under time constraints so to improve the quality of response, two

factors were considered important: meaningfulness of items plus brevity of the instruments (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 422).

Some questions were worded identically on all three interview guides, but other questions differed according to the particular perspective of the group. Interview schedules included closed form and open form questions. The wording, as well as sequence of questions, was considered (Payne, 1951, pp. 138-176; Gorden, 1980, p. 361). The first personal interaction question was considered to be important for setting the tone of the interview, so was developed to contribute both to rapport and data analysis (Gorden, 1980, pp. 229, 230). Where questions included forced choice answers, a card with potential responses was given to each subject to avoid misunderstanding. To minimize researcher bias and variability in interview conditions, a standardized interview protocol was produced and followed (Appendices A, B, & C).

A pilot study to field test instruments and procedures with faculty, students, and a chief administrative officer at a third Bible college gave opportunity for further development and refinement of the instruments as well as assisting in ensuring clarity in communication (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 419). One crucial aspect was to determine terminology and ideas that fit people's classification schemes. Both open-ended questions that allowed for neutral probes and closed-ended questions were developed. Forced

choice and ranking order questions were also included (Isaac & Michael, 1981, p. 142).

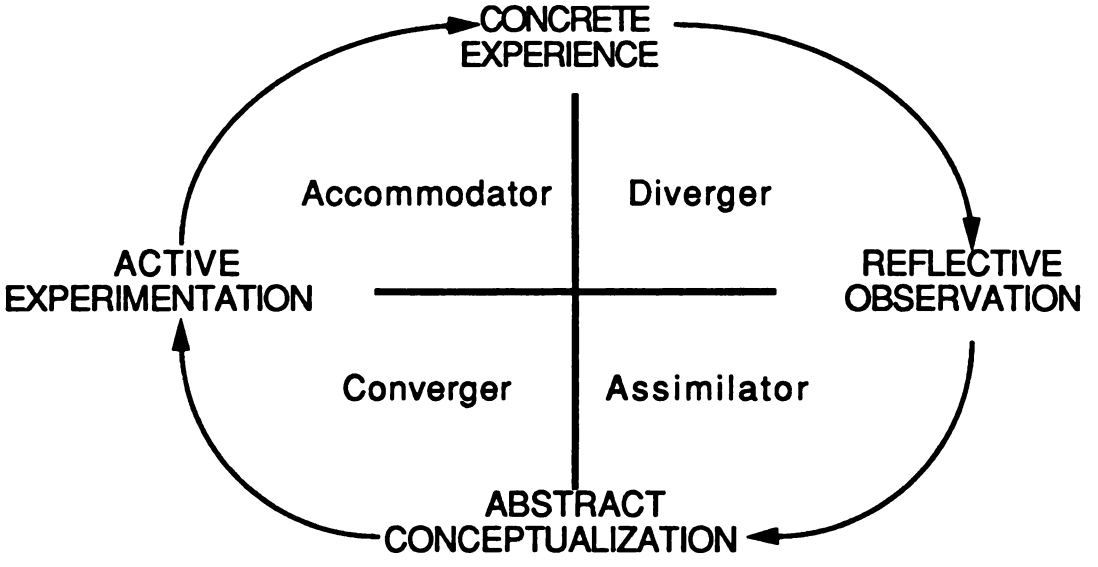
The final question of each interview was a rank order of professor's roles. For ranking statements only one phrase was typed per card to facilitate ease of decisions through a card-sort exercise. These statements were grounded in the taxonomy of curriculum suggested by Eisner and Vallance (1973) along with the two additions suggested by Vallance in 1986. The taxonomy with the corresponding interview statements follows:

Taxonomy	Interview Statements
Cognitive processes	To teach a student how to think
Academic rationalism	To master and communicate knowledge
Social adaptation and reconstruction	To prepare the student for what the church wants/needs
Personal success	To develop each student's potential
Technology	To facilitate mastery of technology
Personal relevance	To emphasize life and ministry usefulness
Personal commitment to learning	To encourage a personal commitment to on-going learning

Learning Style Inventory

The Learning Style Inventory was derived from experiential learning theory and consists of a 12 item self-appraisal questionnaire. The respondent is asked to rank four phrases for each item in the questionnaire according to the way he or she learns best. The inventory assesses the four individual learning abilities of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. These four poles are then graphed to identify the prevalent learning mode of each individual--converger, diverger, assimilator, or accommodator.

Figure 3.1 The Learning Cycle



(Kolb, 1981, p. 9)

The converger combines the learning steps of abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. The strength of this type lies in the practical application of ideas. Solving problems and making decisions reflect this

orientation. The diverger's strong points consist of generating ideas, sensitivity, and imaginative ability. This person learns best by reflective observation of concrete experience. Abstract conceptualization and reflective observation join together in the assimilator type. The assimilator values abstract ideas and concepts and arranges diverse information into concise, integrated form. Logical analysis is esteemed over practical value. "Hands-on," however, portrays the learning style of the accommodator. This action-oriented person likes new challenges and tends to make decisions more by feelings than logical analysis.

The combination scores used to determine the dominant style are "highly reliable indices suitable for most research applications" (Kolb, 1978, p. 16). Correlations between five different groups resulted in reliability coefficients of about .80. One representative group of 50 M.I.T. Sloan fellows (mid-career managers attending a one-year master's program in management) demonstrated coefficients of .80 on the abstract conceptualization and concrete experience (AC-CE) score and .81 on the active experimentation and reflective observation (AE-RO) score.

The ability of the inventory to predict behavior consistent with experiential learning theory (validity) needs to be viewed more cautiously until further correlation between the inventory and specific vocational fields is expanded and examined. A strong correspondence between the

individual learning styles and the careers people choose does appear apparent (Smith & Kolb, 1986, p. 83).

The value of the learning style inventory lies in understanding the dominant learning approach of people. "Learning styles are important because they are the education-relevant expressions of the uniqueness of the individual" (Joyce & Weil, 1986, p. 435). How one learns influences one's expectations and even educational methodologies.

Data Collection

Data collection involved two parts: the interview and the learning style questionnaire.

Recruitment of Subjects

The chief academic officers of each institution were asked to submit lists of students and faculty. The lists classified students according to study major and faculty by teaching major. A school catalogue was also obtained to assist the researcher in understanding the college and scope of its programs.

After a random selection of students and faculty, letters were sent to 30 students and 10 faculty at each college inviting them to participate in the research. Due to the distance factor for the researcher plus the inefficiency of the mail service, arrangements were made for a neutral contact person at each locale to receive responses and confirm mutually agreeable interview times. The researcher

required a minimum of 30 student and 10 faculty respondents from each school (15 students and 5 faculty from the Bible/theology/pastoral area and 15 students and 5 faculty from the Christian education/missions field). When the initial mailing failed to recruit sufficient respondents, letters were sent to other potential subjects in the order of the random selection until the needed sample was achieved.

Interview Procedures

An interview protocol was developed to ensure consistency of approach and to aid in establishing rapport. Following introductions, a brief time of informal interaction enabled the subjects to relax and be comfortable. The purpose of the study was explained and the appropriate consent form given to each subject (Gorden, 1980, pp. 213-232). Confidentiality was emphasized. All subjects still agreed to participate at this point, so the interview proceeded according to the guide relevant to the subject (See Appendices A, B, and C). With permission from each participant, notes were taken for accuracy of data collection. The interview progressed by obtaining demographic information first of all. Then a card with a definition of life experience was given to each subject in order to facilitate mutual understanding of a key descriptor in the study. Besides probes already recorded on the interview guide, the following questions were used to assure depth and clarity of response:

"Would you please explain that statement further?"

"Can you think of another situation?"

"Are there any additional ideas you would like to add?"

Time was taken at the close of each interview to answer any questions or clarify any misunderstandings. Student interviews ranged from 30 to 45 minutes in length. The faculty interviews included two more questions and usually lasted for 45 to 60 minutes. Additional time was allowed between interviews for the researcher to amplify information or impressions in handwritten notes.

Learning Style Inventory

Following the close of the face-to-face interview, subjects were given Kolb's Learning Style Inventory to complete. Most participants took 12 to 15 minutes to finish the questionnaire.

Methodological Assumptions

The data collection of any study is based on certain assumptions.

Sample

The researcher established a minimum random sample of 60 students and 20 faculty with 30 students and 10 faculty from each college. Although the sample size is limited, 30 subjects at each college does meet the minimum for discovering the magnitude of relationship between two variables (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 257). A minimum of 20 faculty also allows for chi-square tests of 2 by 2 tables with a cell frequency no smaller than 5 (Isaac & Michael, 1981, p. 177).

Interview Procedures

Another methodological consideration involved the acceptability of questionnaire and interview procedures (Gorden, 1980; Borg & Gall, 1983). In the use of personal interviews, validity of data relates to questions asked fulfilling the purposes for which the study was intended (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 275). Pre-testing the questionnaires and interview during the pilot study assisted in increasing validity of measurement as well as reliability. As Payne emphasizes, wording is key, so in the pre-testing phase the follow-up question, "What do you mean by that?" was employed to improve wording of questions (1951, p. 14).

In order to minimize interviewer and response effect in the interviews, a standardized protocol was developed and followed. The interviewer sought to establish rapport and an atmosphere for honest replies. Different degrees of structure in the questions assisted in maximizing the value of the findings. Similarity of questions and approach with the three groups of subjects, faculty, students, and chief academic officers, aided in reducing variability.

The difficulties inherent in self-report are addressed partially by using students, faculty, and the chief academic officer from the same institutions--three groups of subjects from differing perspectives. Also, simple random sampling based on the generation of random numbers by computer meant every member element in the universe had an equal chance of being chosen (Gorden, 1980, p. 238). Then confidentiality

was assured, and the placement of potentially threatening questions considered. In addition, an informal post-interview helped to clarify any misunderstandings (Gorden, p. 404).

Data Reduction

Content analysis fits the present study because of its context sensitivity. Such analysis remains "fundamentally empirical in orientation, exploratory, concerned with real phenomena, and predictive in intent" (Krippendorff, 1980, p. 9). This research technique provides a practical guide in less structured situations for "making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context" (p. 21).

Due to the amount of data accumulated through the research and the difficulty of individually listing all the elements, groups of elements are used as sampling units (p. 67). When concepts are similar and little detail lost, clustering is done. For instance, when faculty and students were asked about out-of-class learning experiences designed for learning, 346 responses were given. In order to reduce these data into a form suitable for analysis while retaining all relevant information, content analysis was applied. The frequency of responses such as "papers," "reading," "field trips," and "ethnography" were recorded and then explored to discover patterns and relationships. In this particular illustration, "papers and "reading" seemed to cluster under the theme of ideas or thinking while "field trips" and "ethnography" clustered under doing. All responses were

considered. From the emerging theme units, statements were then clustered under the final categories of abstract and concrete (abstract pertaining to ideas and concrete to doing).

Clustering seeks to group variables into mutually exclusive classes. These categories describe the most likely basic elements of the problem investigated. Summarizing tables are used to display data. Where appropriate, data are represented using frequencies and percentages.

An individual was trained to assist the researcher in coding the data. In order to overcome researcher bias, increase reliability, and validate the themes emerging out of the data, five other coders were recruited to assign data independently to categories. Statements were not admitted for analysis unless their reliability was 0.8 or above (Krippendorff, 1980, p. 147). Examples of the unreliabilities encountered in the findings are specified where appropriate to clarify their influence. Interrater reliability on interview statements and categories varied from 94.63 percent to 98.45 percent with an average of 96.54 percent so contamination by researcher judgments is minimal (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 480, 482).

The raw data collected through this study were grounded in qualitative procedures. All the data were analyzed to discover underlying uniformities in the verbal material. In order to reduce the variety of alternatives to be tabulated, similar ideas were clustered into a single category to

facilitate statistical investigation (Krippendorff, 1980, p. 71).

Further analysis used primarily descriptive statistics with summarizing data presented in displays with frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. Due to the fact that much of the data accumulated were interpreted in frequencies, additional statistical analysis employed mostly chi-square tests (Isaac & Michael, 1981, p. 177). Where interaction between and within groups seemed possible, variability was explored through analysis of variance (p. 182). When seeking to determine a significant difference between sample means, t-tests were used (p. 176). For assessing the ranking variables, the rank-difference correlation or Spearman rho conveyed indices of relationship (p. 172).

The level of significance for accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis of no relationship was established at .05. Because of the exploratory nature of the study and the small sample size, the significance level of .10 was accepted for some correlational analyses (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 260). These levels of significance were considered the maximum risk in making a Type 1 error, in which the null hypothesis is true but rejected, or a Type 2 error, in which the null hypothesis is false but not rejected (Isaac & Michael, 1981, p. 185). The probability of chance (p-value) gives the actual probability of making a Type 1 error given the obtained results.

Delimitations and Generalizability

The study pertains to faculty and students of undergraduate schools that participate in the American Association of Bible Colleges. The investigation was restricted to 60 sophomore, junior, and senior Bachelor of Theology and Bachelor of Religious Education students and 21 faculty from two Bible colleges. With a diversity of denominational and interdenominational schools, representation should be realistic. The only differences between subjects considered in the random selection were the teaching major for professors and study major for students.

With the research based on the self-report of respondents and no random selection of participating colleges, the study was limited. Colleges were chosen on the basis of proximity to the researcher which had a minimum enrollment of 300 students. Also, only the Bachelor of Theology and Bachelor of Religious Education programs were considered. Inclusion in the study depended upon willingness to be involved. The perceptions of subjects were accepted as accurate. Due to the interview focus of the study, classroom observations were not included to confirm or modify responses. The fact though that both students and faculty comprise the study assisted in clarifying the actualities in each situation.

Another factor which affects the generalizability of the study is the small sample size. This study also did not encompass perceptions from students and faculty in other degree programs.

The data gathered were particular to the participating colleges. A description of the current practices at the institutions will be specified with the potential for further curriculum considerations. While recognizing the limitations of the research, the findings may be indicative of curricular trends in classroom and institutional education in other Bible colleges in North America, particularly Bachelor of Theology and Bachelor of Religious Education programs. Identification of current linking practices of student experience with classroom content, as well as faculty, administrator, and student perspectives, may be of help to parallel situations in other institutions.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS FROM THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to identify and to describe the relationship between the life experiences of students and classroom learning in undergraduate theological institutions in Western Canada. Describing "what exists" based primarily on the self-report of faculty and students formed the essence of the study.

Analysis of Data

The descriptive nature of the research included collecting detailed factual information that portrays existing phenomena and determining what others do with similar situations in order to benefit from their experience in making future plans and decisions (Isaac & Michael,1981, p.46). With these emphases, qualification of data was stressed more in the study rather than quantification of data.

Organization of the study revolved around the research and operational questions. Interviews and a learning style inventory were the basic instruments for collecting data. The interview schedules contained some of the same components

for all subjects, but questions were adapted and expanded as necessary to fit the different perspectives of the students, faculty, and chief administrators (Appendices A, B, and C for Interview Guides).

The responses elicited from the interviewees were submitted to content analysis to identify repeating patterns. From the accumulated data emerged classifiable ideas that were clustered into synthesizing themes (Krippendorff, 1980, pp.115-117). In reducing raw data to recurring theme units, the researcher derived categories. Organizing information into data displays provided the basis for further analysis and possible conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p.21). This process provided a foundation to discover meaning, interpret data, and make inferences. Because the study included only one administrator at each school, the data derived from the administrator are reported, but not statistically analyzed. Pertinent demographic information from the subjects and institutions was also included in the research report.

Statistical Treatment

A content analysis of the 3003 ideas derived through data reduction of the interviews was conducted from an attributional point of view (Krippendorff, 1980, pp. 112, 113). Data were categorized and then reported primarily in frequency and percentage distributions. Where appropriate, statistical tests were used to measure the degree of association (Borg & Gall, 1983, p.559). The level

of significance used was .05 except when correlation between variables was apparent. Then the .10 level of significance was accepted (Borg & Gall, 1983, p.380).

Demographic Variables

In the analysis of data, various demographic variables need to be considered.

Faculty Variables

The first set of variables concerned faculty: age, sex, field of teaching major (whether faculty teach in the Bible, theology, and pastoral areas or the more practical areas of Christian education and missions), the number of years a faculty member spent in another vocation before Bible college teaching, educational training, vocational experience, present responsibilities, time in present position, time at the college, and the extent of his or her present involvement in ministry vocation apart from the college setting.

Student Variables

The second set of variables related to students' responses: the length of time spent in work between high school and college, age, sex, year in college, major, years between high school and college, other schooling and transfer credit, and work experience.

The Interviews

Demographic data were examined in relationship to those aspects of the interview guide based on the research and operational questions. Data reduction occurred during the

interview. As the subject responded, the researcher wrote down each idea as a word, phrase, or sentence. For example, in answering the question, "What stands out about a particular professor?" respondents cited words like "sensitive" or "honest." Phrases such as "a good sense of humor" or "willingness to listen" were mentioned as well as sentences like "He really cares that you understand the ramifications of what he is teaching and internalize it." Each thought was recorded as a separate idea.

Between interviews the researcher added comments or impressions missed during the actual interview time. The number of statements given by subjects totaled 3003 (Table 4.1). Rhema students appear to be more verbal than Logos students, but Logos faculty appear to be more verbal than Rhema faculty.

Table 4.1 Statements Derived from Interviews by College by Subjects

College	N	Mean	Total Responses %
Rhema			
Faculty	448	40.73	14.92
Students	1104	36.80	36.76
Logos			
Faculty	480	48.00	15.98
Students	971	32.37	32.34
TOTAL	3003	37.07	100.00

Interviews with the Chief Academic Officers

Arrangements were made during the study for the chief academic officer of each participating institution to be interviewed and to fill out the Learning Style Inventory. Each interview covered about one hour of time (See Appendix A.). Some similarities characterized the two male administrators. Both men had completed their doctorates and were 43 years of age. Each man had been in his present position for approximately ten years and involved himself in regular ministry apart from the campus context. The results from the learning style questionnaire indicated that both men were assimilators.

Rhema Chief Academic Officer

The Rhema officer had served at the college for 17 years and was involved in teaching as well as administration. His memorable learning experiences focused on the formal educational environment. Enjoyment of research and introduction to broader abstract concepts in a philosophy course illustrate two. Another concerned the relational skills developed through being in the role of academic dean.

When asked if having a 35 year old engineer in his class would make any difference, his initial response was "no," but then he qualified his answer by saying he would change the application but not the content. A missionary in his class would make a greater difference. In the case of the missionary, the administrator would be more flexible with assignments and probably vary the content. He felt that he

frequently took class time to utilize student life experience.

Ways that Rhema's chief academic officer encouraged professors to use the experiences of students in the classroom setting included emphasizing "the total life of students (application)" at faculty meetings, periodic surveys of students for their feedback, review of professor's syllabi, and requesting that courses be life related. If faculty are too limited to the theoretical, he assigns roles like counselling that enable them to get into real life situations. In ranking the role of a professor in order of importance, he established the following order (most important first).

- to develop each student's potential
- to encourage a personal commitment to on-going learning
- to teach a student how to think
- to emphasize life and ministry usefulness
- to prepare the student for what the church wants/needs
- to master and communicate knowledge
- to facilitate mastery of technology

Logos Chief Academic Officer

The chief academic officer at Logos had been at the college for 14 years. His responsibilities were administrative, and presently he was not teaching. Memorable learning experiences for him centered around two formal educational opportunities (an ancient history course and his Ph.D studies) and informal learning situations (his

participation in planning and directing significant activities--"occasions for moving from theory to practice").

His response to having a 35 year old engineer or missionary in his class was that there would be no change in the way he presented material, but he would encourage different assignments. As far as advocating that professors use the experiences of students in the classroom setting, no specific action is taken. However, field education and internship requirements do add an experiential component to the structured curriculum. The "placing of internships before the student's final year is a deliberate choice," and "professors are encouraged to use the data from the internship experiences in their classes." Also, students are given opportunities within chapels and residences to share. Then non-traditional education that includes practical and experiential components receives support and is designed within the curriculum structure.

When asked to rank the role of a professor from most important to least, the Logos administrator listed the roles as follows:

- to encourage a personal commitment to on-going learning
- to teach a student how to think
- to master and communicate knowledge
- to prepare the student for what the church wants/needs
- to emphasize life and ministry usefulness
- to develop each student's potential
- to facilitate mastery of technology.

Discrepancy of response between the two administrators does not appear to be great except on two factors: the Rhema officer ranks student potential much higher while the Logos officer places mastery and communication of knowledge higher.

Findings Related to the Research and Operational Questions

The aggregate of the remaining accumulated data is presented relative to the research and operational questions.

Findings Regarding the Explicit Curriculum

The findings of the first research question and its corresponding operational questions portray the subjects' views of the explicit curriculum in the respective colleges.

Research Question #1

As seen by the administration, faculty, and students, what elements of the explicit curriculum in a given institution emphasize the experiences of students?

Operational question #1. What post-high school and pre-college experiences do students bring to the formal educational context?

The response of student subjects indicates that they bring substantial experience as a potential contribution to the college context. Table 4.2 shows that men bring more years of experience to the classroom than women. More of the women tend to enter college immediately after high school. The mean for years spent between high school and college is similar between Rhema and Logos students.

Table 4.2 Years Between High School and College by Sex by College

Sex	College					
	Rhema			Logos		
	N	M	S.D.	N	M	S.D.
Male (N = 39)	22	3.03	5.11	17	3.50	4.98
Female (N = 21)	8	0.88	0.21	13	1.17	1.47
TOTAL	30	2.46	4.57	30	2.49	3.99

Table 4.3 reveals that more Logos students had work experience before entering college than Rhema students. In order to record a "Yes" response for subjects, the work experience had to be more than the two or three summer months between finishing high school and entering college. For Logos, 80 percent of the students had work experience as compared to 43.33 percent of Rhema students. In considering all the male subjects from both colleges, 43.33 percent had work experience between high school and college, while this was true of only 21.67 percent of the female subjects.

To discover if the frequencies on the two dependent variables were significantly different, a chi-square test assessed the null hypothesis that there is no difference between college and student work experience (Table 4.3). The null hypothesis was rejected because a significant difference was discovered (chi-square = 8.531, p = 0.0035, phi = 0.377). The researcher may conclude that, 99 times out of 100, in

repeated tests the same results would be observed. Most Logos students had significantly more work experience prior to college than did Rhema students.

Table 4.3 Student Work Experience by Sex by College

Sex	College					
	Rhema		Logos		Total	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Male (N = 39)	10	12	16	1	26	13
Female (N = 21)	3	5	8	5	11	10
TOTAL	13	17	24	6	37	23

Even though sophomores, juniors, and seniors were included in Logos subjects as opposed to just juniors and seniors at Rhema, more of the Logos students had previous work experience (See Table 4.3). Twenty of the thirty Logos students did not enter college immediately after high school (Table 4.4). The opposite characterizes Rhema where 20 of the 30 students did enter college immediately. With the similar mean age of student subjects at Rhema 23.53 and Logos a close 23.23 (Table 3.5), the fact that sophomores were included at Logos and excluded at Rhema should not be a confounding variable.

From Table 4.4 apparently twice as many Rhema students as Logos students entered college immediately. The reverse is true for Logos; two times as many students did not enter

college immediately after high school. Chi-squares tested the hypotheses that no difference existed between college attended and students entering college immediately after high school, or between sex and students entering college immediately after high school (Table 4.4). A significant difference was evident between schools for those entering college immediately after high school (chi-square = 6.667, p = 0.0098, phi = 0.333). Thus, the researcher may conclude that, 99 times out of 100, in repeated tests the same results would be observed.

Table 4.4 Students Who Entered College Immediately after High School by Sex by College

Sex	College					
	Rhema		Logos		Total	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Male (N = 39)	14	8	5	12	19	20
Female (N = 21)	6	2	5	8	11	10
TOTAL	20	10	10	20	30	30

Table 4.5 reveals the results of the null hypothesis that no difference exists between colleges for men and women entering college immediately after high school. The null hypothesis was accepted for females as $p > .05$. The hypothesis was rejected for males, however. A far greater than expected number of males at Rhema entered college

directly from high school, while more males at Logos deferred their college entrance.

Table 4.5 Student Differences by Sex for Entering College Immediately after High School

Sex	Chi-Square	p	Phi
Male	4.496	0.034	0.340
Female	2.651	0.1035	0.355

Another experience factor concerned other education that may have been taken since high school but prior to Rhema or Logos (Table 4.6). Little variation is apparent between colleges. At Rhema 6 people in the sample received transfer credit for a mean of 37.00 credits. Two of these subjects transferred 91 and 71 credits which raised the Rhema mean. Seven Logos students obtained transfer credit for a mean of 12.29 credits.

Table 4.6 Students Who Studied after High School but before Rhema or Logos by Sex by College

Sex	College					
	Rhema		Logos		Total	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Male (N = 39)	8	14	5	12	13	26
Female (N = 21)	2	6	6	7	8	13
TOTAL	10	20	11	19	21	39

Operational question #2. What out-of-class educational experiences are provided by the college curricular structure?

An appraisal of the official documents of the school plus information solicited from interviews revealed educational experiences, other than those class-oriented, enhanced the education of students. Both schools, for instance, required participation in "Christian service" and in an internship. Because of this, follow-up interviews were conducted with those directing these areas at the respective colleges to clarify expectations in these programs.

Rhema stipulates six full semesters of Christian service with one academic credit per semester. No class is involved but a syllabus with assignments to complete and practice is issued. The first year emphasizes evangelism. In the second year, with a skill identification focus, students assess strengths and weaknesses and are able to make a choice of major. In the third year, the student develops the skills relating to his or her chosen major, and before the senior year an internship must be completed. In the view of the director, these "ministry involvements are considered part of the academic curriculum" and not separate entities. Those participating in internships report regularly to their field supervisor who has been sent a syllabus by the college. Both supervisor and student send in evaluation forms to Rhema. The student also does an extensive written project at the end

of internship. A follow-up interview occurs on campus and further academic counselling is given as appropriate.

Logos students must also complete six academic credits in Christian service as a prerequisite to their graduation. The initial credit is a course focusing on personal counselling and ministry preparation. The remaining five credits are action designed. Students participate in various forms of ministry with regular reporting and evaluating. Those on the youth and children's teams receive more training integrated with their practice. Although integrating field and classroom education is the desire, the encouragement is primarily informal. All students also participate in a minimum three-month long internship program.

> Both the students intending to intern and selected pastors who will act as supervisors meet on [Logos's] campus for the annual Internship Seminar during the Spring semester. At this time pastors and students are given guidelines for making the internship experience as profitable as possible (<u>'86 Interim Catalogue</u>, p.20).

Weekly evaluation and feedback sessions are designed between the intern and his supervisor. The internship is a prerequisite for one course in the curriculum on philosophy of ministry with the intention of articulation between theory and practice.

Other out-of-class experiences provided by the curricular structure include the daily chapel period and advisor-advisee relationships. Faculty act as advisors to assist students as necessary. Rhema also designs periodic advisor-advisee

chapels. Logos has established Covenant Groups. Students sign up for a group led by a faculty member for the purpose of mutual growth. A variety of topics and group size are available. At Logos, up to ten credits may be obtained in non-traditional education. For pertinent seminars that a student may attend, for instance, an appropriate evaluative-reflective activity can be designed in connection with that opportunity to maximize learning and earn credit. The chief academic office of Logos specified that chapels, prayer days, and missionary meetings were all considered an integrated part of the curriculum and learning environment.

Operational question #3. What in-class educational experiences are designed by professors?

From the statements of faculty and students regarding in-class education experiences designed by professors three categories emerged: Teacher Active, Group Active, and Individual Active (Table 4.7). All in-class occasions are usually structured by teachers to some extent, but the emphasis here concerns where the action centers. Responses from subjects submerged within Teacher Active include "lecture," "guest speakers," "films," and "videos" since the action focuses directly on the teacher or a presentation oriented substitute. Group Active refers to an interactive orientation like "discussions," "small group work," "brainstorming," "role plays," and "games." "Student involvement in presentations," "practice teaching" or in-

class "reaction papers" and "work sheets" reflect the Individual Active or student orientation.

Some items mentioned by subjects like "exams" or "case studies," for example, were not included in the categories specified above as they failed to be validated because of discrepancy of opinion over which category they fit. Depending upon their usage, case studies and exams may accommodate all three categories; therefore, they were not included in the frequency count. Case studies can be presented and analyzed by the teacher, given to student groups for investigation, or assigned for the individual student to analyze and present. Exams are usually carefully developed and controlled by the teacher even though students are usually active in writing them so validators vascillated between Teacher Active and Individual Active experiences designed by professors. One professor mentioned that she was thinking of planning a group exam.

Table 4.7 Statements of In-class Learning Experiences by Subjects by College

In-class Experiences	College				Total	
	Rhema		Logos		N	%
	Faculty	Students	Faculty	Students		
Teacher Active	13	58	24	62	157	42.43
Group Active	23	69	21	54	167	45.14
Individual Active	6	21	11	8	46	12.43
TOTAL	42	148	56	124	370	100.00

Chi-square tests demonstrated no significant difference between colleges or between faculty and students on the three dependent variables of Teacher Active, Group Active, and Individual Active in Table 4.7.

Since the responses across subjects and colleges tended to be similar on the group variable, tests were conducted on just the Teacher Active and Individual Active variables. No significant distinction was found between colleges, but faculty and students deviated significantly (chi-square = 3.267, p = 0.0707, contingency coefficient = 0.126). The researcher may conclude, therefore, that in repeated tests, 93 times out of 100, the same results would be observed. Compared to faculty, students view the teacher as far more active than the individual student in class.

In the Teacher Active category, subjects stated"lecture" 53 times. Of these occurrences 13 subjects described the in-class learning experiences designed by professors as "mostly lecture." Two faculty at each college plus one student from Logos and 8 students from Rhema gave the phrase "mostly lecture."

The perception that the teacher is more central to the action than the students is reinforced by further analysis of the Teacher Active and Individual Active categories on just student responses alone (Table 4.7). Students observe a significant difference between Teacher Active and Individual Active (student active) in-class learning experiences (chi-square = 5.437, p = 0.0197, phi = 0.191). It may be concluded, therefore, that in repeated tests, 98 times out of 100, the same results would be observed.

When students were requested to share ways they had been able to use their own life experience within the classroom (Table 4.8), most responded with "sharing an illustration." Of the 113 statements pertaining to this question, 71 or 62.83 percent specified "sharing an illustration" with a small group or the class, a Group Active response. The professor "asking a direct question" of a student or using "a poem I wrote as an example of existentialism" came within the Teacher Active ways students were able to share their experience. Individual Active responses of students centered in "asking a question," "class presentations," "giving prayer requests," and "sharing testimonies."

Table 4.8 Ways Students State They Have Been Able to Share Their Experiences by College

Ways Students Share	College						Total
	Rhema			Logos			
	N	M	S.D.	N	M	S.D.	N
Teacher	3	0.1	0.31	4	0.13	0.35	7
Group	32	1.07	0.14	39	1.3	1.12	71
Individual	22	0.73	0.79	13	0.43	0.68	35
TOTAL	57			56			113

Analysis distinguished little difference between colleges on any of the variables in Table 4.8. The major sharing takes place within the group. The individual may become more active by giving a class presentation or initiating comments.

Students were asked to delineate in-class teaching methods professors used that facilitated their learning. Some of the methods cited are as follows: "question and answer," "films," "student class presentations," "small groups," "discussion," "lecture," "debate," "forum," "panels," "audio/visual," "slides," "pop quizzes," "drama," "role play," and "agree/disagree statements." In order to handle these responses statistically, methods were grouped into categories that describe where the action centers: Teacher Active, Group Active (interaction oriented), and Individual Active (student oriented) methods (Table 4.9). Lecture, films, audio/visual, pop quizzes, and question and

answer were included within the Teacher Active category. Small groups, debates, forums, panels, drama, role plays, and agree/disagree statements describe methods within Group Active. Class presentations as well as practice teaching and preaching fit the Individual Active category.

Table 4.9 Methods Cited by Students that Professors Used by College

	College					
	Rhema		Logos		Total	
Type	Male	Female	Male	Female	N	%
Teacher Active	37	25	30	24	116	47.35
Group Active	46	12	24	27	109	44.49
Individual Active	10	4	4	2	20	8.16
TOTAL	93	41	58	53	245	100.00

In response to the question regarding in-class teaching methods that professors use to facilitate learning (Table 4.9), no significant difference was apparent by college or sex. Rhema males though do appear to speak more frequently of group-centered methodologies than the other subjects. Students mentioned the lecture method most frequently (48 times). Class discussion followed (43 times) and then small groups (23 times). At Logos, lecture as a learning method designated a negative connotation three times (e.g."not lecture") and positive three times (e.g."Lecture with the

most information in the shortest time equals the best method."). Eight Rhema subjects communicated a negative attitude toward lecture (e.g."Lecture can be pretty boring.") and four a positive response (e.g."I love lecture that uses a lot of examples.").

Operational question #4. What out-of-class educational experiences are designed by professors?

The categories arising out of the data concerning the out-of-class learning experiences designed by professors centered around the Concrete and Abstract (Table 4.10). A concrete activity includes immersion in an experience and actually applying and using concepts. Concrete incorporates seeing, touching, smelling, and doing (e.g."field trips," "interviews," "church ministry projects," "preparation of class presentations," and "journal keeping").

Abstract activities, on the other hand, include reading, research, and the study of concepts and ideas. Of the out-of-class learning experiences described, 162 of the 323 statements specified "reading," "papers," "library research," or "exams"--all assignments fitting within the Abstract category. From student comments (e.g. "mostly reading and papers," "just papers"), abstract experiences appear to fill the majority of out-of-class learning designed by professors.

Table 4.10 Out-of-class Learning Experiences by Subjects by College

In-class Experiences	College				Total	
	Rhema		Logos		N	%
	Faculty	Students	Faculty	Students		
Concrete	16	47	13	55	131	40.56
Abstract	25	72	37	58	192	59.44
TOTAL	41	119	50	113	323	100.00

While no difference exists between schools (Table 4.10), a significant difference arises between faculty and students on the Concrete and Abstract variables (chi-square = 3.968; p = 0.0464; phi = 0.111). The researcher concludes that, in repeated tests, 95 times out of 100, the same results would be observed and students will emphasize concrete learning opportunities more frequently than the faculty do.

When asked to specify the more interesting kinds of assignments that professors had given, student responses clustered into Abstract and Concrete categories (Table 4.11). Some of the interesting Abstract assignments included "papers that allow freedom of choice," "a take-home exam where you go through all the men in the 17th to 19th centuries who influenced Old Testament theology today," "historical timelines," and "research type of assignments that apply to me." Assignments fitting the Concrete descriptor involved "creating a visual representation of my philosophy of

ministry," "an ethnographic field study," "planning and directing a conference," and "going to different churches and observing forms of worship." Other Concrete assignments included a "camping practicum for one weekend," "creating a song, picture, or painting portraying the life of Christ," and "making a class presentation."

Table 4.11 Assignments Students Specify as Interesting by College

	College					
	Rhema		Logos		Total	
Assignments	Male	Female	Male	Female	N	%
Concrete	36	17	24	27	104	57.78
Abstract	33	10	18	15	76	42.22
TOTAL	69	27	42	42	180	100.00

Table 4.11 makes clear that students favored the concrete over the abstract. A significant difference on the two variables was apparent (chi-square = 35.358; p = 0.0633; contingency coefficient = 0.609). The researcher may be confident that, 94 times out of 100 in repeated tests, the same results would be observed.

Operational question #5. In what ways does the administration encourage the inclusion of out-of-class experiences of students in the curriculum?

Although three Rhema faculty could not think of any administrative initiative or voiced that no initiative was apparent in advocating the use of the experiences of students in the classroom, more common faculty responses reflected such ideas as "encourage teachers to be in tune with student life and involved," or "have workshops on the typical college student."

A content analysis of all faculty responses (Table 4.12) resulted in three categories pertaining to the college administration's promotion of the experiences of students in the classroom setting: Encourage Relevance, Allow Inclusion, and Evaluate Teachers. Encouraging relevance means promoting education apropos to the students. Some direction is given through such opportunities as workshops, faculty meetings or verbal affirmations to foster a teaching-learning process pertinent to the students. Additional guidance from administrators included "professional development days," "encouraged to teach more than facts," and "xeroxing relevant articles for us."

Allowing inclusion speaks to the passive dimension and reflects a permissive environment. Statements included "hard to say," "the administration is extremely flexible and gives us free rein," or "talked about more informally, but not formally so much." Faculty sense their freedom to include the experiences of students, but directives or active support from administration are missing. Evaluating, on the other hand, means the direct interaction or assessment instituted

by administration to build in formal or informal accountability relating to syllabi or teaching. Deviation between colleges on the variables is absent except on Allow Inclusion. Logos faculty specified environmental freedom factors 13 times to only 5 for Rhema.

Table 4.12 Faculty Statements of Administrative Initiative by College

Initiative	College		Total
	Rhema (N = 11)	Logos (N = 10)	
Encourage Relevance	10	10	20
Allow Inclusion	5	13	18
Evaluate Teachers	2	2	4
TOTAL	17	25	42

Operational question #6. What factors contribute to or hinder the inclusion of out-of-class experiences of students in the curriculum?

In considering what contributes to or hinders the use of the experiences of students as a resource in the classroom curriculum, four categories were derived from the data: Institutional, Course, Faculty, and Student factors (See Table 4.13.). Deciding who bears the responsibility for the contributions or hindrances characterizes these categories.

Institutional factors reflect the way "things are set up"--the design of the college context. Particulars from subjects embrace such matters as "class size," "facility," "philosophy of the college," and "scheduled school activities."

Course factors refer to the structure of the course and the nature of knowledge. The composition of this factor includes the "subject matter," "the time-consuming disposition of student experience," and the "tyranny of completing the material (especially when the course is a pre-requisite for subsequent courses in the curriculum)."

Details within Faculty factors incorporate the "extent of awareness and involvement with students," "the openness of the teacher to share," as well as one's "personal philosophy of education" and "commitment to growth." Also the expertise and confidence of the professor and whether or not the individual feels threatened have a bearing on willingness to involve others.

The fourth factor takes into account the expectations, willingness, feedback, and maturity of students. Some Student aspects included "diversity of student backgrounds" and "students that already have a foundation in Bible and experience in ministry."

Table 4.13 Factors that Contribute to Using the Experiences of Students by College

Contributing Factors	College		Total	
	Rhema	Logos	N	%
Institutional	3	6	9	13.04
Course	1	7	8	11.60
Faculty	24	14	38	55.07
Student	7	7	14	20.29
TOTAL	35	34	69	100.00

Analyzing the contributions and hindrances to using the experiences of students as a resource in the classroom (Table 4.13) reveals a significant difference for the contributions factor between colleges on the four variables (chi-square = 8.119, p = 0.0436, contingency coefficient = 0.324). The conclusion is that, 96 times out of 100 in repeated tests, the same results would be observed. Rhema faculty will speak more frequently of the Faculty aspect.

Table 4.14 Factors that Hinder Using the Experiences of Students by College

Hindering Factors	College		Total	
	Rhema	Logos	N	%
Institutional	4	9	13	14.77
Course	15	11	26	29.55
Faculty	18	20	38	43.18
Student	4	7	11	12.50
TOTAL	41	47	88	100.00

Analysis between the contributions and hindrances factors (Tables 4.13 & 4.14) on the four variables of Institutional, Course, Faculty, and Student also demonstrates a significant difference (chi-square = 8.441, p = 0.0377, contingency coefficient = 0.226). The researcher can be confident that, 94 times out of 100 in repeated tests, the same results would be observed. Faculty speak of themselves more frequently as the contributors and hinderers to the using of the experiences of students. Contributions by faculty are mentioned most frequently. Course factors are spoken of more frequently as hindrances rather than contributions to the using of the experiences of students.

When subjects were asked to express their ideal of how the experiences of students should be used, responses were tentative and general. Many commented on the difficulties rather than contributing ways to use the experiences of

students. Several students reacted against the use of the experiences of students as they felt they were "here to learn and not to take the professor's role." One Logos professor considered the use of the experiences of students as "existential" and "not the best form of learning."

Again, the themes emerging from the data concerned the center of action and consisted of Teacher Active, Group Active, and Individual Active categories (Table 4.15 & 4.16). Some of the Teacher Active suggestions specified "Work closer with students on process and live more personal interchange," "Give a survey at the beginning of the course for background information and keep this in mind as a person teaches," and "Be flexible in curriculum plan according to struggles observed."

"More small group discussions" typified Group Active. A student proposed "writing up personal case studies and then having the professor give them to the class for analysis." For Individual Active, some advocated "have students present a seminar on a researched paper," "allow students to do teaching," "have teachers value our opinion and not be so dogmatic," and "structure moments of growth reporting."

Table 4.15 Statements Expressing the Ideal Use of the Experiences of Students by Subjects by College

Ideal Experience	College				Total	
	Rhema		Logos		N	%
	Faculty	Students	Faculty	Students		
Teacher Active	9	11	3	7	30	35.30
Group Active	2	5	3	12	22	25.88
Individual Active	5	12	1	15	33	38.82
TOTAL	16	28	7	34	85	100.00

From Table 4.15 data, no significant differences were discovered between faculty and students or between colleges on the ideal use of the experiences of students within the classroom. Logos students do tend to speak more frequently of the group orientation, while Rhema students slightly favor the teacher and individual. The trend of faculty responses moves to the teacher orientation while students stress the individual.

A correlation of male and female students on the three dependent variables in Table 4.16 (Teacher Active, Group Active, and Individual Active) produced a significant difference (chi-square = 8.931, p = 0.0115, contingency coefficient = 0.355). The researcher can be confident that in repeated tests, 99 times out of 100, the same results would be observed. Women affirm group interaction more

frequently and the teacher less frequently, whereas men note the individual more and the teacher focus second.

Since the number of faculty (N = 21) was insufficient to tabulate a 2 by 3 contingency table, male faculty were combined with male students and female faculty with female students. The results continued to show a noteworthy difference (chi-square = 12.988, p = 0.0015, contingency coefficient = 0.364). The researcher may be confident, therefore, that 99 times out of 100 in repeated tests, men will cite teacher and individual orientations more frequently than women; women will cite a group orientation more frequently than men. The combination of faculty and students indicated a slight move on the part of the female sample toward the teacher and even more on the part of the male sample in the teacher direction.

Table 4.16 Statements Expressing the Ideal Use of the Experiences of Students by College by Sex

Assignments	Students		Faculty		Total	
	Male (N = 39)	Female (N = 21)	Male (N = 15)	Female (N = 6)	N	%
Teacher Active	13	5	10	2	30	35.30
Group Active	5	12	2	3	22	25.88
Individual Active	19	8	5	1	33	38.82
TOTAL	37	25	17	6	85	100.00

Other elements influencing the utilization of the experiences of students pertain to the perception of a professor's role (See Table 4.17.). Both professors and students were asked to rank the following roles in order of importance:

- To teach a student how to think
- To master and communicate knowledge
- To prepare the student for what the church wants/needs
- To develop each student's potential
- To facilitate mastery of technology
- To emphasize life and ministry usefulness
- To encourage a personal commitment to on-going learning

One professor at Rhema refused to rank the professor roles. He said he was "not open to rank as the roles are very interrelated. . . . We fail by breaking life up into segments." This same professor questioned the value of using the experiences of students as a resource in the classroom; and yet besides teaching, this professor was also the Director of Christian Service, the practical aspect of the curriculum. He stated, "Student experience was not of primary importance. . . .Students come as consumers to buy information. If we are not giving them their money's worth, then we are failing."

Table 4.17 Priorities Assigned to the Roles of the Professor by Subjects

Roles of the Professor	Rank Order of Assigned Priorities						Mean of Assigned Priorities					
	By Rhema & Logos Faculty	By Rhema & Logos Students	By Rhema Faculty	By Logos Faculty	By Rhema Students	By Logos Students	By Rhema & Logos Faculty	By Rhema & Logos Students	By Rhema Faculty	By Logos Faculty	By Rhema Students	By Logos Students
To teach a student how to <u>think</u>	1	2	3	1	1	2	5.10	5.08	4.60	5.60	5.37	4.80
To develop each student's <u>potential</u>	4	1	1	4	3	1	4.65	5.30	5.00	4.30	4.80	5.80
To emphasize life and ministry <u>usefulness</u>	2	3	2	3	2	3	4.75	4.60	5.00	4.50	4.93	4.27
To encourage a personal commitment to on-going <u>learning</u>	3	4	5	2	4	4	4.65	4.37	4.20	5.10	4.53	4.20
To master and communicate <u>knowledge</u>	5	6	4	5	6	6	4.10	3.47	4.60	3.60	3.37	3.57
To prepare the student for what the <u>church</u> wants/needs	6	5	6	6	5	5	2.95	3.82	2.80	3.10	3.73	3.90
To facilitate the mastery of <u>technology</u>	7	7	7	7	7	7	1.80	1.37	1.80	1.80	1.27	1.47

* The role of the professor is identified in text by the underlined key word.

To calculate the degree of relationship between these ranking variables, the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient (also called Spearman rho) was applied. With the number of ranks equalling seven (N = 7), a correlation coefficient of 0.714 must be obtained to be significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.17 demonstrates that faculty ranked Thinking most important with Usefulness next, while students considered Potential the highest priority with Thinking and Usefulness next. A high correlation was discovered between professors and students on the ranking of roles (correlation coefficient > 0.714, rho = 0.8125). Thus professors and students rank the roles about the same.

Table 4.17 also describes the professors' ranking judgments of the role of the professor at the two colleges. Rhema faculty's ranking results in the top two roles, Potential and Usefulness, tied, followed by Thinking and Knowledge tied. Logos faculty order the statements as Thinking first with Learning next and then Usefulness. With rho = 0.5357 (correlation coefficient > 0.714) insufficient evidence exists to establish that professors ranked the roles the same, and indicates a possibility that professors at the two colleges ranked the roles separately.

For the ranking of the role of the professor by the students at the two colleges, Rhema students moved from Thinking to Usefulness and then Potential with the remainder ranked the same as Logos students. Logos students, on the

other hand, stated Potential first and then progressed to Thinking and Usefulness. The Spearman rho though indicates a high correlation between students at the two colleges (coefficient correlation > 0.714, rho = 0.8929). Basically Rhema and Logos students ranked the roles the same.

Summary of Findings for Research Question #1

In assessing the promotion by the administrations of Rhema and Logos regarding the inclusion of the experiences of students, faculty from the two colleges gave similar responses (Table 4.12). Both college administrations encourage relevant application of materials to students' lives and do limited evaluation or interaction to assess appropriateness of curriculum. The indirect fostering of using of students' experience through the institutional context appears to be higher at Logos than Rhema.

Students come to college with more life and work experience at Logos than at Rhema. Only 33.33 percent of Rhema students interviewed did not enter college immediately after high school, while 66.67 percent of Logos students deferred entrance. A significant difference existed between colleges on men entering college directly from high school. More male students at Rhema than Logos began college immediately following high school. On other educational experience between high school and their present college, Rhema and Logos students were similar.

Both schools required participation in field education and internship programs. The perception of the in-class learning experiences differed significantly between faculty and students, with students viewing the classroom as more teacher centered than did faculty. Lecture was mentioned as the most common classroom method with discussion and small groups next.

In considering contributions and hindrances to using the experiences of students as a classroom resource, faculty from both schools viewed themselves as creating the primary contributions and hindrances to the inclusion of the experiences of students. Students and faculty communicated limited perceptions of ideal ways to use the experiences of students although faculty tended more toward a teacher orientation than students. From the responses, however, a significant difference was apparent between sexes in the ideal use of the experiences of students. Women advocate group interaction most and teacher active ways least. Men, on the other hand, affirm the individual student most and the teacher active focus second.

In specifying out-of-class assignments and assignments found to be most interesting, students favor the concrete and professors the abstract. In the ranking of professorial roles though students and faculty are similar in their expectations. Teaching a student how to think obtained a strong rating by students and faculty.

Findings Regarding Faculty Practices

Findings from Research Question #2 articulate actual faculty practices in integrating the life experience of students as a resource in class-related learning.

Research Question #2

What do classroom professors do to utilize learnings from the experiences of students?

Part of understanding professors and students relates to discovering their valued perceptions of teachers and learning. When requested to share their most memorable learning experiences since high school, subjects specified "being a summer camp counsellor," "the birth of my kids," "a canoe trip," "taking classes with other professionals," and the "analysis and synthesis" ability of a professor. Out of these and other responses emerged the thematic units of Education, Personal Life, and Job/Ministry (Table 4.18).

The Education component included specific professors, structured educational experiences like courses and seminars, plus institution-related dimensions such as "dorm life" and "yearbook staff." Within the personal life framework, subjects mentioned "a death in the family," "breaking up with my girlfriend," "marriage," and religious encounters. "Working with people," "cross-cultural ministry," "church-related responsibilities" and "job training" detail some aspects of the Job/Ministry area.

Items expressed by subjects and not validated for usage within category frequencies included "internships," "friendships at college," and "a group discipleship study at church." Some disagreement seemed to exist among the validators on whether internships were more job or education related, yet 10 students and one faculty member designated "internship" as a meaningful learning period. Validators also vascillated on whether friendship belonged to the personal dimension or happened by virtue of being in the educational context, or if a church study was an educational or personal aspect.

Table 4.18 Memorable Learning Experiences of Subjects by College

Memorable Experiences	College				Total	
	Rhema		Logos		N	%
	Faculty	Students	Faculty	Students		
Education	18	20	15	14	67	40.61
Personal Life	4	18	1	18	41	24.85
Job/Ministry	8	27	4	18	57	34.54
TOTAL	30	65	20	50	165	100.00

From Table 4.18 no significant difference was apparent between faculty and students or between colleges on students on the variables of Education, Personal Life, and Job/Ministry. Faculty remember more learning experiences

within an educational framework, but students mention memorable learning nearly equally in all three areas with Job/Ministry mentioned more frequently. Although subject matter obviously permeates the formal educational context, only 6.67 percent of statements given by subjects expressed particular content as noteworthy. Three Rhema faculty mentioned specific content as being memorable, but no Logos faculty stipulated content. Logos students referred to content five times and Rhema students three times. Other factors specified within the Education category included professors and more general statements about a school or its programs.

Table 4.19 shows the emphasis on memorable learning experiences according to sex. Differences between male and female students are significant (chi-square = 7.823, p = 0.02, contingency coefficient = 0.252). Therefore, the conclusion is that in repeated tests, 98 times out of 100, the same results would be observed. Women students mentioned educational memories most and male students mentioned educational memories least. Men found their greatest memorable experiences in job or ministry opportunities with personal life next. Women specified personal life the least.

Table 4.19 Memorable Learning Experiences of Students by Sex

Memorable Experiences	Male N	Male M	Male S.D.	Female N	Female M	Female S.D.
Education	16	0.41	0.55	18	0.86	0.73
Personal Life	27	0.69	1.00	9	0.43	0.87
Job/Ministry	33	0.84	0.71	12	0.57	0.68
TOTAL	76			39		

Subjects were asked to identify a teacher since high school they remembered most and to express what was most significant about that person. Responses received were reduced to three descriptors: Personal, Interpersonal, and Professional qualities. In other words, subjects think in terms of who the professor is, who the professor is to me, and who the professor is to my education.

The Personal qualifies the innate characteristics, for example, "humility," "personality," "godliness," "integrity," and "lifestyle." Interpersonal refers to the professor's relational and people skills, for example, "approachability," "acceptance," "encouragement," "personal sharing," and "hospitality in homes." Professional suggests the vocational particulars, for example, "clarity," "challenge," "style of teaching," "intellectual rigor," "relevance," and "academic proficiency and qualifications."

Table 4.20 Qualities of Significant Professors Identified by Subjects at Rhema and Logos Colleges

Qualities	College				Total	
	Rhema		Logos		N	%
	Faculty	Students	Faculty	Students		
Personal	17	51	14	50	132	35.29
Interpersonal	11	40	9	33	93	24.87
Professional	19	58	20	52	149	39.84
TOTAL	47	149	43	135	374	100.00

Between colleges as well as between professors and students similar perceptions exist on the three variables describing the prominent qualities of their professors (Table 4.20). Professors and students emphasize Professional, then Personal, and finally Interpersonal characteristics in the same order of importance.

In analyzing the data from Table 4.21, a significant difference was discovered between male and female students on the three variables (chi-square = 8.875, p = 0.0118, contingency coefficient = 0.174). It can be concluded, therefore, that in repeated tests, 99 times out of 100, the same results would be achieved. Men speak more frequently of the Professional qualities with equal mention given to the Personal and Interpersonal areas. Women speak more frequently of the Personal dimension, Professional second, and Interpersonal last.

Table 4.21 Qualities of Professors Specified by Students by Sex

Qualities	Male (N = 39)	Female (N = 21)	Total N	Total %
Personal	54	47	101	35.56
Interpersonal	54	19	73	25.71
Professional	75	35	110	38.73
TOTAL	183	101	284	100.00

Operational question #1. How do professors become aware of the involvements of students outside of the classroom?

Responses from faculty about how they know the involvements of students outside of the classroom were clustered into three categorizies: Professor Initiated, Student Initiated, and Institutional Designed (Table 4.22). Contacting students through both the more formal classroom situation and informal interactions come under the umbrella of Professor Initiated. Articulations in this category varied from "calling me by name" and "class discussion" to "casual interaction" and "being invited to professors' homes." Student Initiated means students made the first approach. For example, one professor expressed that his knowledge of students results from "a lot of their initiative through classes." Institutional Designed connotes assigned or contrived interactions by virtue of the formal

institutional system or program. "Advisor-advisee responsibilities," "committee advisor," "student newspaper," "school functions" and "student assistants" fit the Institutional Designed function.

Table 4.22 Faculty Awareness of Student Involvement Outside of the Classroom by College

Involvement	College Rhema (N = 11)	College Logos (N = 10)	Total N	Total %
Professor Initiated	26	32	58	70.73
Student Initiated	1	2	3	3.66
Institutional Designed	12	9	21	25.61
TOTAL	39	43	82	100.00

Although a significant difference is not evident between colleges on the three dependent variables in Table 4.22, faculty do appear to perceive themselves taking the primary initiative in awareness of students' involvements. Of the 58 statements relating to Professor Initiative, only 15 or 18.29 percent reflected professors going beyond the call of duty--for example, further social involvement such as inviting students to their homes or going out for coffee together. The other comments under Professor Initiated divided almost evenly between casual interaction and class-related interaction.

Operational question #2. Approximately how frequently is class time devoted to utilizing out-of-class experiences of students?

Deciding on the frequency of devoting class time to utilizing out-of-class experience demanded a choice between Never, Seldom, Occasionally, Frequently, and Always (Table 4.23). Subjects were given a card with the possible responses specified. No subjects chose Never but five chose Always. Student subjects were asked two questions. The first was, "How important is it to you that you be able to share in classes out of your own life experience?" and the second was, "Approximately how frequently do professors take class time to utilize student life experience?" Approximating how frequently they take class time to utilize student life experience was the focus of the professors' question.

Table 4.23 Students and Professors Express the Frequency of Using the Experiences of Students by College

Frequency	College Rhema	College Logos	Total N	Total %
Students say they desire to share their experiences				
Never	0	0	0	0.00
Seldom	7	5	12	20.00
Occasionally	15	15	30	50.00
Frequently	8	7	15	25.00
Always	0	3	3	5.00
Students say Professors use the experiences of students				
Never	0	0	0	0.00
Seldom	9	11	20	33.33
Occasionally	16	12	28	46.67
Frequently	5	7	12	20.00
Always	0	0	0	0.00
Professors say they use the experiences of students				
Never	0	0	0	0.00
Seldom	2	0	2	9.52
Occasionally	4	4	8	38.10
Frequently	4	5	9	42.86
Always	1	1	2	9.52

Because of the small sample size of 21 faculty in Table 4.23, the five forced choice responses were collapsed into just two for analysis, Occasionally and Frequently. Seldom and Occasionally were combined under Occasionally, and Frequently and Always under Frequently. A substantial difference was not found between colleges on what professors say they use nor on what students say professors use.

Significance was discovered between students and professors, however, on what students say professors use and what professors say they use (chi-square = 8.022, p = 0.0046, phi = 0.315). The researcher may be confident, therefore, that in repeated tests, 95 times out of 100, the same results will be observed. Only 20.00 percent of the students perceive professors using the experiences of students frequently, whereas 52.38 percent of the professors say they utilize the experiences of students frequently. The difference between what students desire to share and what professors say they use was significant (chi-square = 3.39, p = 0.0656, phi = 0.205). Thus it can be concluded that in repeated tests, 94 times out of 100 the same results will be observed. More students say they desire to share frequently than students say professors use the experiences of students, but the difference is not significant.

Operational question #3. What do professors do to include the experiences of students in classroom learning?

Professors were asked two questions relating to 35 year old students in order to discern how they utilize a student's background (Table 4.24). Because of the commitment of the colleges to church-related vocation, the questions set in opposition a missionary already in a religious career with an engineer from a "secular" profession to detect any variation in response. The questions focused on whether having a 35 year old misionary or an engineer in their class would make any difference. Responses varied from "I already teach to

the serious student" or "depends on the class" to "material would not be different but approach may be." Reponses were grouped according to no difference (None) and some difference (Some) for tabulating (Table 4.24). Faculty's acknowledgment of the older student making some difference in the class is slightly higher for the missionary than the engineer, but no significant difference occurs between the missionary and engineer or among the two colleges.

Table 4.24 Faculty Express Degree of Importance of an Engineer or Missionary in Class by College

Degree of Importance	College				Total	
	Rhema		Logos		N	%
	Engineer	Missionary	Engineer	Missionary		
None	5	3	3	4	15	35.71
Some	6	8	7	6	27	64.29
TOTAL	11	11	10	10	42	100.00

Following the question on whether an engineer or missionary would make any difference in a class, professors were invited to share how such a person would make a difference (Table 4.25). Responses fit into three categories: Teacher Recognizing Student, Teacher Adapting to Student, and Teacher Utilizing Student. The teacher's recognition of the student is more an awareness factor with acknowledgement of his/her presence and possible influence. The response of the teacher, however, is primarily passive.

In adapting to the student, the teacher actively changes course procedures or assignments in the light of the older student. The teacher may interact one on one with the person, but any changes still leave the teacher central to the class action. The actual utilization of the student means that the teacher publicly involves the older student within the class as a resource for the other students.

Again, faculty of both colleges are similar in their reaction to the missionary and engineer (Table 4.25). Greater adaptation and recognition appears to occur for the engineer than the missionary. Comments indicate both the missionary and engineer would be utilized about the same.

Table 4.25 Responses of Teachers to an Engineer or Missionary in Class by College

Response	College				Total	
	Rhema		Logos		N	%
	Engineer	Missionary	Engineer	Missionary		
Recognizing	4	4	8	2	18	21.69
Adapting	15	7	11	11	44	53.01
Utilizing	5	6	5	5	21	25.30
TOTAL	24	17	24	18	83	100.00

In reply to a question regarding what professors have done to learn about you, student subjects specified ideas that have been grouped into Facilitate Class-Related Interaction, Cooperate with Institutional Designed Functions,

and Initiate Social Contact (Table 4.26). Class-related interaction includes "discussion," "personally-focused assignments," "direct questions," and "allowing opportunities for sharing." Cooperating with institutional functions may involve "attending the all-school picnic at the beginning of the year," "participating in athletic activities," or being "my academic advisor." Initiating social contact could mean just "casual interaction" or going beyond the call of professorial duties to actions like "going out for coffee" with students or "inviting them home."

Table 4.26 What Students Say Professors Have Done to Know Them by College

Professors' Action	College						Total	
	Rhema			Logos				
	N	M	S.D.	N	M	S.D.	N	%
Facilitate	35	1.17	1.32	39	1.30	1.18	74	33.48
Cooperate	38	1.27	1.29	29	0.97	0.93	67	30.32
Initiate	38	1.27	1.08	42	1.40	0.86	80	36.20
TOTAL	111			110			221	100.00

From Table 4.26 the action on the part of the professor in seeking to know students relates about equally to classroom, institutional, and personal effort. The professor initiates social interaction outside the classroom, but 36 of the 80 statements describing social initiative referred to casual interaction.

In Table 4.27 consideration of the student responses to what professors have done to know them indicates a marked difference between the sexes on the three dependent variables. Findings were significant (chi-square = 6.42, p = 0.0404, contingency coefficient = 0.168). The researcher may be confident, therefore, that in repeated tests, 96 times out of 100, the same results will be observed. Men seem to believe faculty accomplish the majority of their relationship building with students around social interactions (Initiate). Women, however, contribute professor initiative as primarily class-related (Facilitate) or institutionally designed (Cooperate).

Table 4.27 Statements Students Make to Describe What Professors Have Done to Know Them

Qualities	Students Male (N = 39)	Students Female (N = 21)	Total N	Total %
Facilitate	44	30	74	33.48
Cooperate	38	29	67	30.32
Initiate	60	20	80	36.20
TOTAL	142	79	221	100.00

When requested to give ways they integrate the experiences of students into the teaching-learning process, professors shared, "for contemporary illustration," "ask for applications at times," "all teaching put into context of who

students are," and "go looking for student experience and ask them for it." One professor commented that a person's response to the question depended on one's philosophy of education. "My task is to deliver content. Students need to learn regardless of experience. We need more propositional content in education."

Replies from faculty clustered into where the action centered and subsequently the three categories of Teacher Active, Group Active, and Individual Active (Table 4.28). Most Teacher Active statements concerned the teacher soliciting illustrations from the students as appropriate. Group Active approaches included "simulation games," "role plays," "class discussions," and "periodically allow sharing at the beginning of class." Ways detailing Individual Active involved "encourage them in presentations to include life-related experiences," and "a paper on current methods of self-nurture."

A significant difference was discovered between colleges (Table 4.28) in the ways that professors say they attempt to incorporate the experiences of students (chi-square = 6.988, p = 0.0082, phi = 0.399). The researcher may be confident, therefore, that in repeated tests, 99 times out of 100, Logos faculty will emphasize Individual Active more frequently than Rhema faculty. Rhema faculty will speak more frequently of Teacher Active approaches than Logos faculty.

Table 4.28 Ways Professors Incorporate the Experiences of Students by College

Ways	College Rhema (N = 11)	College Logos (N = 10)	Total N	Total %
Teacher Active	17	13	30	50.00
Group Active	8	8	16	26.67
Individual Active	2	12	14	23.33
TOTAL	27	33	60	100.00

Findings Regarding the Learning Style Inventory

Each participant in the research project completed Kolb's Learning Style Inventory in order to discover any relationships that may be apparent between learning style and the use of the experiences of students as a curriculum resource.

Research Question #3.

How do preferred learning styles of faculty and students relate to the use of experiences of students within the classroom?

The Learning Style Inventory taken by all subjects assesses the preferred learning style of each individual. Four raw data scores are derived called concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC), and active experimentation (AE) which show the relative

emphasis of the person in each area. In addition, the combination scores (AC-CE and AE-RO) indicate the degree to which the subject is abstract versus concrete and active versus reflective. From this information, the dominant learning orientation of the person is predicted--diverger, assimilator, converger, and accommodator.

Operational question #1. What are the preferred learning styles of faculty and students?

In analyzing the data derived from the Learning Style Inventory, t-tests for independent means and chi-square tests were used. One student from Logos failed to complete all of the questionnaire so his inventory results are not included in the analysis.

From the data displayed in Table 4.29, a t-test for independent means was used to analyze each item on the inventory scale and test the hypothesis that there is no difference between faculty and students on each dimension. A strong difference was discovered on active experimentation (AE) with t value = 2.343 , p = 0.0217 (two-tailed test). In repeated tests, therefore, 98 times out of 100, students will score higher than faculty on active experimentation (AE).

Difference between faculty and students was also noticeable on the active-reflective (AE-RO) scores with a t value of 1.911 and p = 0.0596 (two-tailed). This result needs to be interpreted with caution since the standard deviation varies extensively (students = 13.523, faculty = 12.68) and the mean for faculty is a negative at -1.762.

However, the indication is that faculty score higher on reflection than students.

Table 4.29 Learning Styles Inventory Scales by Subject

Learning Style Inventory	Faculty M (N = 21)	S.D.	Students M (N = 59)	S.D.
Concrete Experience	25.71	8.93	20.97	7.26
Reflective Observation	31.74	7.85	29.34	8.27
Abstract Conceptualization	33.24	10.28	30.64	8.50
Active Experimentation	29.64	7.45	34.04	7.32
Abstract-Concrete	7.52	16.95	4.67	13.69
Active-Reflective	-1.76	12.68	4.70	13.52

Table 4.30 shows the results of students' learning styles according to sex. A t-test between male and female students disclosed a significant difference between the two on concrete experience (CE) ($t = -2.658$, $p = 0.0102$, two-tailed). The researcher may be confident that, 99 times out of 100, in repeated tests the same results will be achieved, and women will score higher than men on the CE scale. No significant results were found among the other scores.

Table 4.30 Student Learning Styles Inventory Scales by Sex

Learning Style Inventory	Male M (N = 38)	Male S.D.	Female M (N = 21)	Female S.D.
Concrete Experience	24.20	6.47	29.19	7.65
Reflective Observation	30.18	8.62	27.81	1.64
Abstract Conceptualization	30.87	7.81	30.24	9.82
Active Experimentation	34.75	6.74	32.76	8.43
Abstract-Concrete	6.67	12.44	1.05	15.35
Active-Reflective	4.57	13.73	4.95	13.46

Faculty learning styles scores corresponding to sex are demonstrated in Table 4.31. A significant difference between male and female faculty was revealed on concrete experience (CE) ($t = -2.309$, $p = 0.0324$, two tailed). The researcher may be confident, therefore, that in repeated tests, 97 times out of 100, women will score higher on concrete experience (CE) than men.

Significance was also found on abstract conceptualization (AC) ($t = 2.799$, $p = 0.0114$, two-tailed). The researcher may be confident, therefore, that in repeated tests, 99 times out of 100, men will score higher than women on the AC scale. The abstract-concrete (AC-CE) dimension also results in significance ($t = 3.06$, $p = 0.0064$, two tailed). The researcher may be confident that, 99 times out of 100, men will score higher than women on the AC-CE scores. For

females, however, the standard deviation is greater than the mean so the curve is skewed.

Table 4.31 Faculty Learning Styles Inventory Scales by Sex

Learning Style Inventory	Male M (N = 15)	Male S.D.	Female M (N = 6)	Female S.D.
Concrete Experience	23.13	6.19	32.17	11.92
Reflective Observation	32.37	7.75	30.17	8.61
Abstract Conceptualization	36.37	7.41	24.67	12.06
Active Experimentation	28.30	7.34	33.00	7.21
Abstract-Concrete	13.53	10.81	-7.50	21.03
Active-Reflective	-3.60	13.21	2.83	10.93

Student learning styles were examined in relationship to the major program of the student in Table 4.32. Results demonstrate that no significant difference exists between students according to academic program major.

Table 4.32 Student Learning Styles Inventory Scales by Program Major

Learning Style Inventory	Christian Education/ Missions (N = 30) M	S.D.	Bible/Theology/ Pastoral (N = 30) M	S.D.
Concrete Experience	27.31	6.91	24.68	7.47
Reflective Observation	28.55	8.56	30.10	8.04
Abstract Conceptualization	29.74	9.25	31.52	7.77
Active Experimentation	34.40	8.54	33.70	6.17
Abstract-Concrete	2.43	13.44	6.83	13.81
Active-Reflective	5.85	14.37	3.60	12.80

Table 4.33 displays faculty scores in relation to their teaching major. No significant difference exists for faculty according to teaching major on the Learning Style Inventory.

Table 4.33 Faculty Learning Styles Inventory Scales by Program Major

Learning Style Inventory	Christian Education/ Missions M (N = 11)	S.D.	Bible/Theology/ Pastoral M (N = 10)	S.D.
Concrete Experience	28.30	10.44	23.36	6.99
Reflective Observation	30.40	7.92	32.96	7.96
Abstract Conceptualization	29.50	12.75	36.64	6.20
Active Experimentation	31.80	7.83	27.68	6.84
Abstract-Concrete	1.20	20.90	13.27	10.25
Active-Reflective	1.40	11.91	-4.64	13.22

The results of the Learning Style Inventory show the preferred learning type of each subject (Table 4.34). The diverger, assimilator, converger, and accommodator types are displayed by college for faculty and students. No significant difference on faculty and students exists between colleges. The calculations in Table 4.34, however, shows more divergers at Rhema and more accommodators at Logos. The assimilator type embraces the greatest number of subjects.

Table 4.34 Learning Style Type by Subject by College

Type	College				Total	
	Rhema		Logos		N	%
	Faculty	Students	Faculty	Students		
Diverger	4	7	1	3	15	18.75
Assimilator	3	11	5	9	28	35.00
Converger	3	7	2	7	19	23.75
Accommodator	1	5	2	10	18	22.50
TOTAL	11	30	10	29	80	100.00

From Table 4.35 an analysis between faculty and student women and men was performed according to learning type, but no significant difference was revealed.

Table 4.35 Learning Style Type by Subject by Sex

Type	Faculty		Students		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	N	%
Diverger	3	2	6	4	15	18.75
Assimilator	7	1	12	8	28	35.00
Converger	5	0	11	3	19	23.75
Accommodator	0	3	9	6	18	22.50
TOTAL	15	6	38	21	80	100.00

The results from the data in Table 4.36 of correlation between the learning type items and teaching major or student major disclosed no significant differences.

Table 4.36 Learning Style Type by Subject by Program Major

	Faculty		Students		Total	
Type	CE/M	B/Th/P	CE/M	B/Th/P	N	%
Diverger	3	2	5	5	15	18.75
Assimilator	3	5	9	11	28	35.00
Converger	1	4	6	8	19	23.75
Accommodator	3	0	9	6	18	22.50
TOTAL	10	11	29	30	80	100.00

CE/M = Christian education/missions
B/Th/P = Bible/theology/pastoral

Operational question #2. Do the preferred learning styles of faculty relate to the kinds of experiences they design and to the frequency with which they utilize the experiences of students?

When asked to state their use of the experiences of students in terms of Never, Seldom, Occasionally, Frequently, and Always (See Table 4.23), no professors said Never. In fact 47.62 percent stated Seldom or Occasionally and 52.38 percent chose Frequently or Always. However, when the professors were given two illustrations of potential older students in their class, the engineer and missionary, 38.10 percent of faculty said the engineer's presence would make no

difference and 61.90 percent said some difference. In considering professor response to the missionary or engineer in their class according to learning type (Table 4.37), variation is noted in the example of the missionary as compared to the engineer, but the difference is not significant. The presence of the missionary in the class would have some influence according to 66.67 percent of faculty, but 33.33 percent stipulated no difference.

Table 4.37 Faculty Learning Styles and the Use of the Experiences of Mature Students.

Type	Engineer		Missionary	
	None	Some	None	Some
Diverger	3	2	3	2
Assimilator	3	5	2	6
Converger	1	4	2	3
Accommodator	1	2	0	3
TOTAL	8	13	7	14

Operational question #3. Do the preferred learning styles of students relate to their expectations regarding the inclusion of the experiences of students within the classroom or the kinds of experiences they suggest should be included?

Consideration was given to the potential relationship in Table 4.38 between student types and the interesting kinds of assignments students mention, but no significant difference

was achieved. Accommodators and convergers mention more concrete than abstract types of assignments. Divergers stipulate both abstract and concrete about equally, while assimilators are stronger on the concrete. 57.63 percent of the students preferred concrete type of assignments, and 42.37 percent specified abstract as more interesting.

Table 4.38 Student Type by Interesting Kinds of Assignments

Type	Concrete	Abstract	Total
Diverger	14	15	29
Assimilator	28	22	50
Converger	30	19	49
Accommodator	31	19	50
TOTAL	103	75	178

Students were given opportunity to express in-class methods professors used that facilitated their learning. A correlation from Table 4.39 of in-class methods described by students and their preferred learning style indicated a significant difference between student types and the in-class methods students mention (chi-square = 12.691, p = 0.0482, contingency coefficient = 0.218). The researcher may be confident, therefore, that in repeated tests, 95 times out of 100, the same results will be observed. The diverger, converger, and accommodator are strongest on the teacher and

group orientations. Assimilators are also strongest on the teacher and group aspects, but they mention individual student focused methods much more than the other types.

Table 4.39 In-class Methods Students Mention Professors Use by Student Type by College

Type	In-class Methods Teacher	Group	Individual	Total
Diverger	22	16	2	40
Assimilator	37	32	19	88
Converger	28	33	4	65
Accommodator	28	26	7	61
TOTAL	115	107	32	254

Summary of Findings for Research Question #3

The preferred learning styles of faculty and students discovered through Kolb's Learning Style Inventory demonstrated significance on several variables. Difference was exhibited between faculty and students on the active experimentation score (AE). Students are more oriented to action and application than faculty. The active-reflective scores also evidence difference. Faculty lean more toward the reflective dimension than students.

Differences are also manifest between the sexes. Women students evidence a stronger orientation toward concrete experience. The same holds true among faculty as well. Men faculty are higher on abstract conceptualization than women faculty, but similar results are not apparent between men and women students. On the abstract-concrete continuum (AC-CE) as well, faculty men score higher than faculty women. Men move more toward the abstract and women toward the concrete. Although men and women students demonstrate the same trend, the difference is not significant.

No difference was discovered between type and the teaching major or study major of faculty and students. As far as type is concerned, the results indicated that assimilator was the preferred learning style of 35 percent of the faculty and students. Converger, accommodator, and then diverger followed in that order.

As far as learning type is concerned, the preferred style of students indicated a significant difference between type and the in-class methods students mention that professors use to help them learn. Divergers, convergers, and accommodators are strongest on Teacher Active and Group Active approaches. While the assimilators also stress teacher and group aspects most, their verbalization of individual, student-focused methods receives greater emphasis than the other types.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Within theological education the mission of communicating divine truth and developing people for living out that truth in human experience is commonly held. Thus value exists in discovering the extent of the articulation between theory and practice. Goodlad's claim that "schooling is everywhere very much the same," and that the differences exist only in degree suggests the need for research on whether or not theological education, with its commitment to the development of the whole person, merely repeats the schooling norms (1984, p. 264). Rowen's response following a study of seminaries bears repetition for the Bible college.

> If we are entering an era of creative integrity in the reformation of theological education, it must represent more of the New Testament's "downward pull" toward the engagement of orthodoxy (right thinking) and orthopraxis (right practice). It will affect the development of the entire community--faculty, students, and the church. Significant curriculum reform does not occur apart from the transformation of people. The desire for the seminary [Bible college] to be a place of spiritual formation demands that the vision involve the spiritual formation of the faculty, the students and the community of faith. Curriculum development is faculty development and student development. . . (1981, p. 197).

One aspect of accomplishing the wholistic journey toward life transformation is to relate the life experience of the students to the classroom setting. Integration of theory and practice and interaction between past and present experience is essential to the process.

The purpose of this study was to identify and to describe the relationship between the life experiences of students and classroom learning in two undergraduate theological institutions in Western Canada. The experiences of students included both past and current interactions with all of life.

Findings

The major discoveries of the study revolved around the demographic variables, findings between colleges, findings between faculty and students, and findings between the sexes.

Demographic Variables

Two of the variables considered in the relationship between the out-of-class experiences of students and classroom learning included the program major of students and the experiences of students after high school but prior to college.

Program Major of Students

Program major was not a significant variable in the use of experiences of students by professors. No significant difference appeared between subjects in Bible/theology/pastoral (B/Th/P) and Christian

education/missions (CE/M) areas in either learning style or professors' use of the experiences of students.

The question was asked whether or not those with more abstract learning styles would be attracted to the B/Th/P, commonly presumed to be the more academic programs, and whether or not those with more concrete learning styles would gravitate toward the CE/M with their practical orientation. Such did not occur at the colleges studied, suggesting that one set of majors is not more practical than the other set of majors. This could be influenced by the fact that all programs have field experiences required within the formal curriculum. No difference between program sets may also indicate the significant impact inclusion of the experiential component makes when part of the curricular structure.

Previous Experience of Students

With the mean age of the students at nearly 24 years of age and one half of the students taking opportunities for other life and work experience prior to entering college, obviously students bring to the classroom context a wealth of experience. This background cannot but help influence their present learning patterns and enhance their ability to contribute to the course curriculum. Such indicates the invaluable human experience available to faculty as a curriculum resource. The possibility of the student as an active contributor to curriculum, however, is overlooked by faculty for the most part.

Findings Between Colleges

While similarities in response from the faculty and students of Rhema and Logos Bible colleges were evident, some differences were also apparent.

Previous Experience of Students

Students at Rhema come to college with less life and work experience than those at Logos. Only 33.33 percent of Rhema students interviewed did not enter college immediately after high school while 66.67 percent of Logos students deferred entrance. The number of students entering college immediately after high school proved higher than expected for men at Rhema than for men at Logos.

Perspectives of Administrators

Both college administrators encourage relevant application of materials to students' lives. Each does limited evaluation of the curriculum himself or interacts with faculty to assess the appropriateness of curriculum. The indirect fostering of use of the experiences of students through the institutional context or environmental factors appear to be higher at Logos than Rhema. As far as administrators promoting the inclusion of experiences of students, faculty from the two colleges gave similar responses.

Perspectives of Faculty

A major difference appears evident between Logos and Rhema faculty regarding the ways they report incorporating the experiences of students. Rhema faculty stress teacher

active ways of making use of the experiences of students, but Logos personnel place their greatest emphasis on the individual student. The faculty/student ratio may be influential to this emphasis at the respective colleges. The ratio of full and part-time faculty to enrolled students indicates a 29.1 to 1 ratio at Rhema as opposed to 14.2 to 1 at Logos. The higher faculty/student ratio at Rhema may contribute to the teacher centered focus or it may be indicative of administrative and/or economic emphases.

Findings Between Faculty and Students

The findings between faculty and students center around class-related learning, faculty interaction with students, the roles of professors, and learning styles.

In-class Learning Experiences

The perception of the in-class learning experiences differed significantly between faculty and students. Students viewed the classroom as more teacher centered than the faculty did. Faculty perceived themselves as using a higher proportion of individual student-oriented learning than students conceded. Part of this could be due to the faculty's belief that they indeed teach specifically with the students in mind so assume they teach in a student active manner. Comments indicate that lecture ranks as the most common classroom method followed by discussion and small groups. Teachers tend to apply information by using contemporary illustrations given by students or by applying information to or for students. Little use of the experiences

of students is evident. For the most part, faculty appear to ignore previous experience for further development of the student.

Students are most likely to contribute within the group context. The student role with action centered in the individual is more limited. This coincides with the response of faculty to the possibility of a 35 year old missionary or engineer in class. Faculty specified awareness of the mature student's presence and appeared most willing to do some adapting. Various faculty expressed a willingness to adjust assignments and some lecture material and to take interest in individuals. As far as actually using the student as a contributing resource for the class, faculty displayed more reluctance.

Concern for covering content may be a factor in professors' hesitation to use experiences of students. Also, the fact that some people feel neither comfortable or competent in situations in which they do not possess full control may explain some of the aversion. Faculty seem oriented primarily to classroom control and teacher-centered approaches. The indication may be that more concern exists for the person's ability to fit into the existing educational model than any valuing of his or her experience.

This reluctance to use the experiences of students coincides with faculty replies to what hinders or contributes to using the experiences of students. Professors view faculty themselves as the primary contributors and hinderers

to utilizing the experiences of students. Philosophy of education, busyness, competence, and knowledge of students were key determinates expressed by faculty in the use of the experiences of students. A major hindrance may relate to theological factors and fears on the part of some regarding undermining divine revelation and advocating existentialism. The issue of propositional truth for some professors may contribute to a transmission mode of teaching that ignores the value of learning continuity and tends to reinforce the classroom as an isolated context.

For institutional and course hindrances, the size of classes and facility limitations as well as subject matter and the pressure to cover material merit mention. The impression is that professors believe subject matter dictates to some extent the use of the experiences of students. The content issue seems to appear to some professors as an external factor over which they have little control. The expectations and willingness of students to be involved also were cited as obstacles to utilizing their experiences. Students, however, expressed a greater desire to share than they believed class opportunities were available.

Professors' Knowledge of Students

Students related most professor initiative to the courses, the institution, or casual interaction. Although faculty demonstrate interest in students, they appear to be occupied with their professional roles with limited knowledge of the extensive experience students have to offer. Although

this could be due to professional demands and time constraints, people tend to do what is important to them. These could also relate to the discrepancy observed between faculty and students' perceptions on the frequency of using the experiences of students. Faculty perceive themselves as using the experiences of students frequently while students say professors only use it occasionally.

Ideal Use of Students' Experiences

Faculty and students displayed evident hesitation in their responses as well as an obvious dirth of ideas in the ideal use of the experiences of students. This may indicate that little deliberate thought and planning had been given to the use of the experiences of students as a legitimate resource in the classroom. Whereas faculty strongly related their memorable learning experiences to the educational realm, the memorable learning experiences of students were not confined primarily to the educational realm. This probably reflects the vocational commitment of faculty to the schooling mode of learning. Faculty may also believe that the schooling norm provides the best learning context. Obviously, students do not perceive their schooling context with the same significance. Thus faculty need to reevaluate their views on how learning occurs with optimum effectiveness. Possibly students are also discovering their most meaningful learning outside of the classroom context.

Out-of-Class Assignments

A significant difference was observed between students and faculty when describing out-of-class assignments designed by professors based on their preferred learning style. Students emphasized the doing more than faculty, while faculty stressed the conceptual. In specifying interesting kinds of assignments that professors have given, students continued to favor those of a concrete nature.

Roles of Professors

A high degree of correlation appeared between faculty and students on the preferred roles of the professor. Such may be indicative of similar values by professors and students. Possibly students and faculty are closer in their expectations than is sometimes thought.

Teaching a student how to think ranked highest by faculty, while developing each student's potential ranked highest by students. This may demonstrate students' concern for their own development. Thinking does rank high for students as well with the relative differences between students and faculty minimal. This may mean both faculty and students have been socialized into expecting a cognitive development mode within the educational framework.

To facilitate mastery of technology ranked the lowest of any of the roles of professors' statements. The institutions studied exist to prepare people for church-related vocation, so the low technological ranking is understandable. However, the low rating assigned to preparing the student for what the

church wants/needs deserves special attention. The chief academic administrator at the denominational school, Logos, placed it as fourth, the highest ranking compared to the students and faculty. At the interdenominational school, Rhema, the chief academic office placed what the church wants/needs as fifth. Thus the Logos administrator seems more conscious of his ties to a church, but his faculty and students do not appear committed to the denominational link to the same extent. Possibly the feeling existed that emphasizing life and ministry usefulness would ultimately address what the church wants or needs. Several students struggled with this statement as they were willing to be prepared for what the church needs but questioned if what the church wants is actually what it needs. The faculty between the two colleges were inclined to disagree on the ranking of professor roles. Logos faculty tended to give thinking a higher priority and knowledge a lower priority than Rhema.

Learning Styles

The learning style questionnaire disclosed a strong difference between students and faculty on active experimentation, and on the active-reflective continuum faculty scored higher on reflection than students. Students prefer the applied and useful. A philosophical tension may exist here for faculty. Possibly faculty believe that abstract and conceptual thinking needs further development for young people or that education as faculty remember experiencing it should be sustained.

Correlation between learning styles of students and the kinds of assignments that they find interesting revealed the diverger true to type with a near even division between responses in the concrete and abstract categories. Accommodators and convergers specify concrete assignments more often than abstract ones as interesting. Although the assimilator would generally find abstract assignments more interesting than concrete ones, the reverse was true of these subjects. This possible preference for the concrete assignment may indicate the assimilator desires more variety and action in assignments than he or she presently experiences.

Findings Between the Sexes

Responses from men and women indicated some significant differences between them.

Memorable Learning Experiences

Evident differences are found between women and men students on memorable learning experiences. Men's greatest educational memories were wrapped up in their jobs or ministries. Personal life came next, and formal educational experiences were the least memorable. In fact, men placed twice as much value on their job/ministry responsibilities as on their education.

Women, though, mentioned educational opportunities first, followed by job/ministry and personal life. Women appear to derive more satisfaction from their learning than men.

Ideal Use of Students' Experiences

When asked to express the ideal use of their experiences in the classroom, men stressed teacher active and individual active methods. In the light of teacher active describing action and control centering in the teacher, the responses show men 38.00 percent more dominance oriented than women. Men are more dominent and individualistic, while women are more concerned with the personal and interactive.

Learning Styles

Men and women students and male and female faculty differed significantly on the learning style scales. Women scored higher on concrete experience, and men higher on abstract conceptualization. Results from the abstract-concrete continuum also indicated that male faculty rated more toward the abstract than female faculty. The fact that significance was not revealed between men and women students on the abstract-concrete continuum may indicate that age and educational experience could be factors in the extent to which abstract thinking is developed.

Conclusions and Implications for Theological Education

In the light of the study, a number of conclusions and/or implications may be drawn:

1. The use of the experiences of students as a classroom resource is not yet a value subscribed to extensively by most faculty. In curriculum and syllabi development a general awareness of the typical experiences of students

seems encouraged. Public recognition and active utilization of the valuable resources students can contribute to peers as well as the professor are practiced infrequently.

Teaching and learning objectives which take into account students' experiences and actively plan intentional use of them need to be developed. Students desire to be more central to the action. Preparing a list of methodologies for integrating the experiences of students into the classroom context would serve as an inventory and basis for creative expansion.

Faculty may need training in facilitating meaningful group dynamics. As developing adults themselves, at different stages in their lifewalk and skills, faculty find themselves subject to the same processes of growth as their students (Weathersby & Tarule, 1980, p. 49). Teachers face a complex set of demands in the classroom setting. Relationships are reciprocal, and students and teacher impact one another (Doyle, 1979, p. 139).

An evaluation of faculty and classroom dynamics which includes assessing the use of the experiences of students as a resource may assist in improving its practice.

Seminars and workshops in faculty development should use faculty themselves as a resource and thus model the use of students as resources.

2. Faculty and students evidence similar perceptions on the roles that professors should model. Both faculty and students place high value on teaching a student how to think.

This may reflect the strong socialization process within the schooling mode. Teachers must integrate the development of thinking with the working of those ideas into the realities of life and ask the questions, "What does my behavior provide as a role model for my students? Is that model conducive to the greatest effectiveness of students in ministry?" If teachers are not modeling the active use of the experiences of students as a resource, then how do the students view those they serve in church-related ministries? Do students duplicate a model of serving within the church that treats people as data reservoirs? Such can discourage personal motivation within the congregation to becoming life-long theological learners--people able to discover, to apply, and then to contribute to the church and global community.

3. Collegians desire learning assignments which prove applicable and useful in skills as well as content. Students want to move beyond the abstract conceptual world to the concrete realities of life.

With the students' desire for a greater emphasis on doing along with the various learning types present in the classroom, teachers must face the challenge to expand areas of competence instead of merely using methods and

giving assignments with which he or she feels personally comfortable.

4. In-depth interaction with students is limited. Fundamental to using the experiences of students is knowing the student. Responses seem to indicate a general and superficial knowledge of students with more in-depth relationship limited.

    Administrations may need to reassess faculty responsibilities and look for meaningful ways to encourage deeper faculty-student relationships and develop a sense of community. Making time for deeper faculty-student relationships may mean lighter teaching loads and/or providing interpersonal and counselling training for faculty. Other avenues of support to address the increased cost would then have to be found.

5. Men remember their most significant learning in their jobs or ministries, while women connect their most significant learning within education.

    Possibly men see education as a means to an end, and maybe women have less job experience and more of their world centers around their educational pursuits. Faculty, therefore, need to integrate more experiential components into the formal curriculum to increase the articulation between the theoretical and practical and broaden meaningful learning for both men and women.

6. Students bring to the classroom context a wealth of prior vocational and educational experience, but the possibility of the student as an active contributor is ignored by faculty for the most part.

   Faculty need to recognize students as companions in the learning journey and be willing to learn from their students. The experiences of students provide a rich resource for enhancing the learning process.

7. Field education is a required part of the curriculum, but it seems to be a separate entity within the curricular structure. Little articulation between the academic and experiential is evident. Logos has one course that builds on students' internship experience, but the overall perception of students is that little actual integration occurs between their experiences and the classroom.

   Administrators and faculy need to plan more direct coordination between the experiences of students and the classroom setting. Giving assignments that challenge students to integrate in-class and out-of-class learning would assist in bridging the experiential and theoretical.

Recommendations for Further Research

The exploratory nature of this study suggests additional areas needing research. Schwab is correct when he says, "We need more reliable knowledge about what is going on in our

education institutions" (1978, p. 313). This would be true of theological education as well. With this in mind, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. Replicate this study at other Bible colleges across Canada and/or the United States to increase understanding and reliability.
2. Expand the research to include other variables, such as greater detail on subjects' previous work and life experience. Knowing the prior experiences of subjects could contribute more specific ideas of the resource experience available and suggest ways those experiences could be included within the learning process.
3. Enlarge the scale of the study to descriptive research and surveys at institutions outside of the Bible college tradition in order to yield further insight.
4. Generate hypotheses for experimental studies that test learning between classrooms that ignore the experiences of students and those which actually include the experiences of students. Another study could determine differences between colleges that have field-based education and those colleges which do not.
5. Conduct longitudinal studies to determine the benefits and difficulties inherent in incorporating the experiences of students within the classroom
6. Pursue a study of people in vocational settings other than education to research what leaders currently do to involve other people as a resource. For instance,

research how students operationalize their concepts of teaching and ministry within the church. How do they involve individuals in the learning and growth process of the church community?

7. Develop categories of life experiences that students bring to the educational context and develop a proposal for creative ways to integrate their history with present theory and practice.
8. Do an observational study within theological education classrooms to determine the actual practices of faculty and students in relation to the articulation between the life experience of students and classroom learning.

Reflections

The study of the relationship between the life experiences of students and learning experiences in the classroom has identified a desire on the part of Bible college professors to adapt to students and be relevant to their context. The actual practice, however, of using the individual experiences of students as direct contributors to curriculum is minimal.

Although the debate over the relationship of student experience and classroom content will not terminate with this study, the findings indicate that they should not be seen as mutually exclusive and that schooling, even theological schooling, is "too much the same" (Goodlad, 1984, p. 264).

> Common, too, is the deliberate sustaining of a socialization process believed essential to the conduct of schooling. Very deliberate in the primary grades, this process is fully established by and rarely questioned after the upper elementary grades. The dominant role of the teacher, limited opportunity for student-initiated activity, and quiet passivity of the class group become virtues to be reinforced. Deviation may be tolerated but it is neither condoned nor rewarded. Usually the socialization process, as powerful among teachers as among students, simply discourages or ultimately suppresses deviation (Goodlad, 1984, p. 266).

The general theoretical intentions of subjects coincide with Kierstead's contention that direct instruction and experiential approaches should be found to be complementary (1985, p. 25). Responses indicate, however, that in actual practice integration is limited. Students reinforce the need for greater articulation by expressing their desire for a stronger emphasis on the doing. This may suggest the need to be in line with Dewey's comprehensive view of every experience as an interaction between a person and his environment and continuous with prior and subsequent experience. Such calls for rethinking the structure of our learning environments. At issue lies not learning per se but the kind of learning. Are the experiences educative or miseducative? Does growth occur? In theological educators' appropriate concern for communicating propositional truth, teachers dare not be satisfied with valuing quantity of facts and limiting quality of life change.

Kreider declares, "The Christian college carries in its bosom all those biblical themes which suggest that meaningful knowledge is for action, for transformation . . . "(p. 108).

Possibly more recognition needs to be given to the reality that faculty and students walk as companions on the transformation journey. Both can learn from the other. Each brings invaluable assets to the schooling context.

> Quality education is communal. The teacher is more than a brilliant hit-and-run lecturer to a throng of note takers in the outer reaches of an auditorium . . . Creative solitude is essential, but most of learning is communal (Kreider,1986, p. 104).

Although generalizability is limited primarily to the participants in the two colleges involved in the research, this descriptive study can provide a basis for critical reflection at other Bible colleges with similar programs. In some measure the research may stimulate theological educators to avoid educating students to merely becoming "the best-informed generation in history--quantitatively," but "one of the worst-educated generations--qualitatively" (Fuller, 1982, p. U-17).

> One of the most difficult problems we face is to make it possible for young people to participate in the great tasks of their time. Alexander might conquer half the known world in his early twenties, and nineteenth-century New England lads might be sailing captains in their late teens, but our age lays enormous stress on long training and experience. We have designed our society in such a way that most possibilities open to the adolescent [student] today are either bookish or frivolous. And all too often when we do seek to evoke his moral strivings the best we can do is to invite him to stand sentinel over a drying reservoir! What an incredibly dull task for the restless minds and willing hearts of young people [students]! (Gardner, 1964, pp. 155, 156).

The challenge of the study for theological educators may well be for a fresh synthesis of content and experience in an enriched and stimulating environment--to continue the search

for creative ways to enhance the educational process through the contributions of students and to involve students not only in information but in transformation. Valuing the human resources in the classroom as well as integrating scholarship and service values is imperative to meeting the growth demands of the church and global community. "We need excellence not merely for the sake of excellence, but for enabling us to give greater service" (Van Gilst, 1983-1984, p. 5).

APPENDICES

Appendix A

School: _____ Logos _____ Rhema Code: _____

Demographic Information for Administration Interview

1. Sex
   _____ Male
   _____ Female

2. Educational Training
   _____ Bachelors
   _____ Masters
   _____ Doctoral
   _____ Other

3. Vocational Experience (Approximate time)
   _____ Pastoral
   _____ Christian Education
   _____ Business
   _____ Missions
   _____ Other (_____)
   _____ Other (_____)

4. Present responsibilities
   _____ Teaching
   _____ Administration
   _____ Field Education
   _____ Other (_____)

5. Time in present position _____ (approx. years)

6. Time at the college _____ (approx. years)

7. Age _____ years

8. Involvements in ministry outside of the college campus?
   When?
   How long?

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Learning Style Inventory Scores

9.	CE	_____	
10.	RO	_____	
11.	AC	_____	
12.	AE	_____	
13.	AC - CE =	_____	
14.	AE - RO =	_____	
15.	Diverger	_____	1
	Converger	_____	2
	Accommodator	_____	3
	Assimilator	_____	4

Administration Interview Guide

1. What are some of the more memorable learning experiences you have had since High School? Why?

2. What teacher do you remember most since High School and what stands out about this person?

3. You have a 35 year old engineer in your class who is taking one year to study Bible and ministry related courses. Would his/her being there make any difference in your class? [__ Yes, __ No, __ Some] If it would, how and why?

4. Would it make any difference if this 35 year old were a missionary taking refresher courses? [__ Yes, __ No, __ Some] If it would, how and why?

5. How do you become aware of students' involvements outside of the classroom?

6. Approximately how frequently do you take class time to utilize student life experience? *(Pertinent only if the administrator teaches. If he/she does,then hand the respondent the card with the following categories.)*

_____ Never
_____ Seldom
_____ Occasionally
_____ Frequently
_____ Always

7. In what ways do you try to incorporate student experience into the teaching-learning process?
(Pertinent only if the administrator teaches.)

8. What kind of in-class learning experiences do you design for your students?
(Pertinent only if the administrator teaches.)

9. What kind of out-of-class learning experiences do you design for your students?

10. To what extent and in what ways to you encourage student experience in the classroom setting?

11. What contributes to the use of student experience as a resource in the classroom curriculum?

12. What hinders the use of student experience as a resource in the classroom curriculum?

13. Ideally, how would you like to see student experience included within the classroom?

14. Which of these do you consider most important to the role of a professor? Please rank and sort the following cards in order of importance (the top card as most important). *(Hand the respondent the cards with one of the following categories on each card.)*

_____ to teach a student how to think
_____ to master and communicate knowledge
_____ to prepare the student for what the church wants/needs
_____ to develop each student's potential
_____ to facilitate mastery of technology
_____ to emphasize life and ministry usefulness
_____ to encourage a personal commitment to on-going learning

Thank you!

Appendix B

School: _____ Logos _____ Rhema Code: _____

Demographic Information for Student Interview

1. Age _____ years

2. Sex _____ Male _____ Female

3. Year in College _____ Sophomore (33-64) _____ Junior (65-97) _____ Senior (98-130) _____ Other: _____

4. Degree: _____ B.R.E. _____ B.Th. _____ Other: _____

5. Major: _____ Pastoral _____ Theology _____ Christian Ed. _____ Missions _____ Biblical Studies _____ Music

6. Did you enter college immediately after H.S.? _____ Yes _____ No

7. If no, how many years between H.S. & college? _____ years

8. Have you had any educational experience since H.S. but prior to CBC/BBC? _____ Yes _____ No

9. If "yes," what kind? _____

10. How much transfer credit did you receive here? _____

11. Have you had work experience since H.S. but prior to CBC/BBC? _____ Yes _____ No

12. If "yes," what kind? _____

Learning Style Inventory Scores

13.	CE	_____	
14.	RO	_____	
15.	AC	_____	
16.	AE	_____	
17.	AC - CE =	_____	
18.	AE - RO =	_____	
19.	Diverger	_____	1
	Converger	_____	2
	Accommodator	_____	3
	Assimilator	_____	4

Student Interview Guide

1. What are some of the more memorable learning experiences you have had since High School? Why?

2. Identify a professor from whom you have learned a great deal. What stands out about this professor?

3. What are some of the more interesting kinds of assignments professors have given you?

4. What kinds of in-class teaching methods have professors used that have facilitated your learning?

5. What have your professors done to find out about you?

In Class:

Out-of-class:

6. How important is it to you that you be able to share in classes out of your own life experience? *(Hand the respondent the card with the following categories.)*

_____ Never
_____ Seldom
_____ Occasionally
_____ Frequently
_____ Always

7. Approximately how frequently do professors take class time to utilize student life experience? *(Hand the respondent the card with the following categories.)*

_____ Never
_____ Seldom
_____ Occasionally
_____ Frequently
_____ Always

8. What are some ways you have been able to use or share your own life experience within the classroom?

9. What in-class experiences have professors designed for your learning?

10. What kind of out-of-class learning experiences have professors designed for your learning?

11. Can you think of ways you wish professors would use your life experience in their classes?

12. Which of these do you consider most important to the role of a professor? Please rank and sort the following cards in order of importance (the top card as most important). *(Hand the respondent the cards with one of the following categories on each card.)*

_____ to teach a student how to think
_____ to master and communicate knowledge
_____ to prepare the student for what the church wants/needs
_____ to develop each student's potential
_____ to facilitate mastery of technology
_____ to emphasize life and ministry usefulness
_____ to encourage a personal commitment to on-going learning

Thank you!

Appendix C

School: _____ Logos Code:_____
_____ Rhema

Demographic Information for Faculty Interview

1. Sex
   _____ Male
   _____ Female

2. Educational Training
   _____ Bachelors
   _____ Masters
   _____ Doctoral
   _____ Other

3. Vocational Experience (Approximate time)
   _____ Pastoral
   _____ Christian Education
   _____ Business
   _____ Missions
   _____ Other (_____)
   _____ Other (_____)

4. Present responsibilities
   _____ Teaching
   _____ Administration
   _____ Field Education
   _____ Other (_____)

5. Time in present position _____(approx. years)

6. Time at the college _____(approx. years)

7. Age _____years

8. Involvements in ministry outside of the college campus?
   When?
   How long?

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Learning Style Inventory Scores

9.	CE	_____	
10.	RO	_____	
11.	AC	_____	
12.	AE	_____	
13.	AC - CE =	_____	
14.	AE - RO =	_____	
15.	Diverger	_____	1
	Converger	_____	2
	Accommodator	_____	3
	Assimilator	_____	4

Faculty Interview Guide

1. What are some of the more memorable learning experiences you have had since High School? Why?

2. What teacher do you remember most since High School and what stands out about this person?

3. You have a 35 year old engineer in your class who is taking one year to study Bible and ministry related courses. Would his/her being there make any difference in your class? [__ Yes, __ No, __ Some] If it would, how and why?

4. Would it make any difference if this 35 year old were a missionary taking refresher courses?
[__ Yes, __ No, __ Some] If it would, how and why?

5. How do you become aware of students' involvements outside of the classroom?

6. Approximately how frequently do you take class time to utilize student life experience? *(Hand the respondent the card with the following categories.)*

_____ Never
_____ Seldom
_____ Occasionally
_____ Frequently
_____ Always

7. In what ways do you try to incorporate student experience into the teaching-learning process?

8. What kind of in-class learning experiences do you design for your students?

9. What kind of out-of-class learning experiences do you design for your students?

10. To what extent and in what ways does the college administration encourage you to include student experience in the classroom setting?

11. What contributes to the use of student experience as a resource in the classroom curriculum?

12. What hinders the use of student experience as a resource in the classroom curriculum?

13. Ideally, how would you like to see student experience included within the classroom?

14. Which of these do you consider most important to your role as a professor? Please rank and sort the following cards in order of importance (the top card as most important). *(Hand the respondent the cards with one of the following categories on each card.)*

_____ to teach a student how to think
_____ to master and communicate knowledge
_____ to prepare the student for what the church wants/needs
_____ to develop each student's potential
_____ to facilitate mastery of technology
_____ to emphasize life and ministry usefulness
_____ to encourage a personal commitment to on-going learning

Thank you!

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