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What Managers Do to Create Healthy Work Environments

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John Zondlo

Abstract

The purpose of this exploratory qualitative study was to determine what successful managers do to create healthy work environments in a healthcare organization. Managers using exemplary behaviors were selected and interviewed based on employee satisfaction surveys, and focus groups were conducted with employees who worked for them. Effective managers were found to create healthy work environments through behaviors included in three categories: Setting the Climate, Keeping Performance on Track, and Tapping Employee Potential. A healthy work environment was defined, and a model was developed. This model can be the template for leadership training and made an expected part of managerial behavior and competency development.

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to better understand the managerial behaviors that create healthy work environments. Creating healthy work environments (HWE) is important because organizations with HWE may be more successful and because employees should be able to work in humane, rewarding work situations. Identifying these behaviors is essential for human resource development professionals who wish to design supportive managerial learning programs.

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Creating healthy workplaces is fundamental for retaining employees and sustaining motivation. This is especially important for the healthcare industry. The American Association of Critical-Care Nurses (AACN) has created a strategic initiative to deal with the profound problem of the nursing shortage in healthcare. "Creating healthy work environments in the hospital setting is imperative to improving patient safety and staff retention and recruitment" (AACN Public Policy, 2005).

Research shows evidence that the work climate affects organizational success (Ballou, Godwin, & Shortridge, 2003; May, Lau, & Johnson, 1999; Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004). Evidence suggests that the best to work for companies may be more productive than counterparts who are not (Ballou, et. al., 2003; Levering & Moskowitz, 2005, Levering, Moskowitz et al. 2006), and companies having employees with positive workplace attitudes have higher market values than those that do not (Ballou, et. al.2003). Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin, and Michaels (1998) claim that organizations will have to create a successful employee value proposition in order to successfully attract and retain talent in an increasingly free agent workforce, and Boverie and Kroth (2001) use the term "occupational intimacy" (p. 71) to describe a passionate work environment.

Transforming organizations into places that are both productive and humane may, then, be the two keys to creating successful, sustainable, healthy working environments. Leaders must perceive a positive climate as a productivity factor if they are to provide the resources and support required. People in positions of power are otherwise more likely to revert to shorter-term, more punitive work practices. Workplaces must also be healthy in order to garner the most creative energy from employees.

Organizations are finding it an increasingly free-agent marketplace for skilled talent. The healthcare industry has been particularly hard hit. Nursing shortages make headline news. Healthcare institutions are scrambling to hire, keep, and motivate healthcare workers. In this setting, the purpose of this exploratory study was to examine managerial behaviors that create motivating and healthy workplaces.

Methods

Managers working for a healthcare organization were selected based on employee satisfaction surveys. This organization is comprised of acute care hospitals, a long-term care facility, medical clinics, and a health plan.

Interviews with these managers were completed and focus groups then conducted with employees who worked for them.

Twenty-five managers were chosen based on selected high-employee satisfaction survey scores in their work area. They represented a cross-section of the organization, including managers in urban hospitals, rural hospitals, medical clinics, and the health plan. Each was invited to participate in this study. Interviews were completed with 21 of these leaders.

Data Collection

One-hour interviews with the 21 selected managers were the primary data collection source for this study. The interviews were focused on identifying the specific behaviors managers utilize in the workplace to create healthy work environments and to collect examples of how those behaviors have been employed in their work areas. Two focus groups were conducted to add depth of understanding and to check the validity of the managers' self-reported behaviors. They were voluntarily populated by employees who worked for these leaders.

Interviews

An interview guide was sent to each selected manager prior to the meeting so the manager had time to reflect upon possible responses. Questions included asking what they do to create healthy working environments, how they assure that their employees understand the expectations of their jobs, how they make sure their employees' opinions count, how they involve their employees in decisions that affect them, and how they give employees regular feedback. After each question, the participant was asked to describe specific behaviors or examples of how they accomplished these activities. After the data were analyzed, it was presented to interviewees along with the models that emerged to check for validity and authenticity.

Focus Groups

Participants were asked to identify what their managers had done well in the past to create healthy working environments in their work areas. Those top-of-the-mind responses were quickly listed on a flip chart until all

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participants had exhausted their topics. Individuals were then asked to describe what their manager does in more detail. These responses were captured in hand written notes by an outside recorder. At the end of an hour employees were thanked for their time and the meeting was adjourned.

Data Analysis

Individual interviews were transcribed, and responses were grouped by the questions that were asked. They were then iteratively grouped until categories of responses within those initial questions emerged. Responses that fit more appropriately within another question were moved. This process continued until an overall categorization scheme emerged. The focus group responses that were captured via flip charts and handwritten notes were transcribed. They were then iteratively grouped until categories of responses emerged.

Results

The results are reported by the dimensions, categories and subcategories that emerged from the responses. There were three overarching dimensions, which were called: Setting the Climate, Keeping Performance on Track, and Tapping Employee Potential.

Setting the Climate

Setting the Climate was defined as establishing conditions for a robust work environment. Ten behavioral categories comprised this dimension. These categories were behaviors of the exemplary managers who set a healthy work climate. They are:
1. *Giving employees autonomy and avoiding micromanaging.*
2. *Encouraging and giving permission to have a fun, humorous atmosphere*. This included having managers who were fun and humorous themselves and allowing and encouraging fun and humor in others.
3. *Putting people in jobs they enjoy*. This included making sure employees were in the right jobs for their skills, talents, and interests.
4. *Good communication with employees*. This included sharing useful information, using a variety of methods of

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communication (such as emails, memos, meetings), having an open-door policy, and being a promoter of open communication.

5. *Treating employees as people, without hierarchy and fairly.* This included such behaviors as letting employees see the managers as a real person, knowing employees on a personal level, making sure that no one (including the manager) was allowed to act in a superior or disrespectful manner, and trying to treat people fairly and equitably.

6. *Celebrating events and encouraging social activities in departments.* These behaviors included managers who ate with employees at times, honored special times for employees, had purely social events, and offered opportunities for celebrations in the office, especially to recognize employees.

7. *Having an ability to solve problems.* These behaviors included encouraging employees to come to the managers to resolve problems quickly, sitting down and listening to employees' problems, and having people work through interpersonal and team issues directly and together.

8. *Being an enthusiastic role model.* This included having a passion for work, being positive and friendly with employees, and setting a great example.

9. *Making sure employees have what they need to get the job done.* This involved responding to employee needs quickly, making sure they have the resources they need, and providing a safe and healthy physical work environment. It also meant being an advocate for employees in the larger environment, providing for employee learning and growth needs, acting as a mentor, giving encouragement, making employees feel valued, and helping with emotional support when employees need it.

10. *Being accessible.* Exemplary managers are approachable, visible to employees, and available.

Keeping Performance on Track

Keeping Performance on Track is defined as making sure employees know what they want, letting them know how they are doing, and being

very clear about expectations. There were three categories in this dimension: Starting Right, Having On-going Support Mechanisms, and Checking Employee Progress.

Starting Right involves being clear about expectations before people are hired. This was shown through behaviors such as describing the organization and expectations clearly from the beginning of or even before employment. Responses included meeting with new employees personally, making sure they go through new employee orientation, and giving them a mentor or preceptor to guide them at the beginning.

The second category of behaviors for keeping performance on track is Having On-going Support Mechanisms available. This included having staff meetings and the availability of on-going learning. Regular meetings were used to reinforce manager expectations. One-on-one meetings facilitate clearing up problems, setting expectations, and giving feedback on progress. Sending employees to training and having the right tools and materials available provides important support.

The last category is Checking Employee Progress. This involves making sure that the progress of employees is checked in a timely manner. Having benchmarks and metrics helps to provide a measure of their progress.

Exemplary managers give employees feedback which helps employees grow and develop. Behaviors that were cited included giving feedback right away and regularly; making sure the feedback is direct, honest and provides tough information about their performance; and making sure that bad news is delivered individually. Exemplary managers also express appreciation by catching employees when they are doing the work in the right way and thanking them publicly and personally. They also post results, metrics, and information for others to see and appreciate. Another behavior that exemplary managers employ is using feedback as a learning opportunity, asking such things as, "What could we do differently next time?"

Tapping Employee Potential

Behaviors that tap into employee potential included using teams and group meetings to solve problems affecting the employees. This includes providing support for employee ideas by encouraging and reinforcing their initiative to problem solve, actively pursuing issues employees believe to be important, asking for employees' opinions and allowing them to follow-through on solving problems. These managers consistently brought

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important issues to the employees instead of keeping things from employees.

Asking employees to make work decisions set the exemplary managers apart. These managers let employees plan and deal with issues around their work schedules, solicited employees' ideas regarding work problems, and helped employees solve interpersonal issues at work.

Employee Focus Groups

The results are reported by the categories that emerged from the responses given in the two focus groups. The focus groups were made up of employees of the interviewed "exemplary managers". They were asked what their managers do to help create a healthy work environment.

The most frequently mentioned behaviors were that their managers communicated effectively, had an open-door policy, stood up for employees, interacted on both a personal and social level, supported a work-life balance, recognized contributions and accomplishments, and followed through on their promises. They also mentioned behaviors such as making employees feel like they were part of a team, having regular meetings, saying thank you, getting to know the staff, celebrating successes, being willing to try different ways of doing things, setting a good example, being fair, finding out the whole story in disputes, and not micro-managing.

Responses were then grouped into six categories. These were communicating well; making employees feel like they count; having clear job expectations; interacting on a personal, social, and fun level; setting the example; and showing no favoritism.

Comparing Manager and Employee Responses

Every category mentioned by employees in the focus groups has a corresponding category, and often several that are related, mentioned by managers in interviews. This indicates that what managers think they do to create healthy work environments are some of the things they actually do to create them. The employee categories included: Communicates, Sets the example, Has clear job expectations, Interacts on a personal level, and Has no favoritism. Similarly, the manager categories included: Communicates, Sets the example, Has clear job expectations, Has fun, Has lots of social activities and celebrations, and Treats employees fairly as people with a hierarchy.

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Discussion

The data analysis for this project was interesting because it became difficult to place behaviors into one or the other of the Feedback or the Expectations sections--many could have fit into either. So we had to think about what the relationship between those two managerial activities might be. We came to the conclusion (a) that they were both related to keeping performance on track and (b) that it was an iterative process of setting the expectations and then letting people know if they were meeting expectations or not. The data was organized around that relationship and we called it Keeping Performance on Track.

Similarly, it was difficult deciding whether some activities were more related to involving employees in making decisions or in seeking their views about what decisions would be made. We concluded (a) that this was a process of tapping into what employees felt should be done and sometimes asking them to decide what should be done and (b) that the two activities are related and hard to separate. The data were organized around the "sharing" and the "doing", and we called it Tapping into Employee Potential, recognizing that there is more to human potential than just getting ideas and making decisions. Every instance of involving employees in decisions is a case when employee's opinions count.

What emerged from outside the four specific areas of inquiry--expectations, feedback, opinions, and decisions--were the whole range of activities that set the tone for the working environment. We called those activities Setting the Climate. You can share the expectations, give feedback, ask for opinions, and involve people in decisions all day long, but if employees are not having fun, do not feel like their manager cares about them, are over managed, and so on, they will not perceive themselves to be in a healthy work environment.

The focus groups validated what the managers had been telling us. They described the same behaviors as the managers did, often using the same examples.

There were hundreds of actions noted describing how exemplary managers create healthy work environments. Some seemed so self-evident. Yet both employees and managers agreed on the behaviors that, for employees, creates a healthy work environment. In the future it would be interesting to interview managers at the bottom of the employee satisfaction survey results to see how many, if any, of these behaviors they say they use.

The identified strategies are behaviors--things you can actually see

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people do--and they can be learned skills. Though it is hard to fake sincerity, it is relatively easy to get a group together to kick around ideas about how to rethink the work schedule.

The healthy work environment model (see Figure 1) that came out of the data is really an outline that managers wishing to make their environments healthier can use. It could also be used--to borrow from one of the anchor points of this study--to set expectations for managerial behaviors in other healthcare organizations.

Figure 1: Healthy Workplace Environment Model
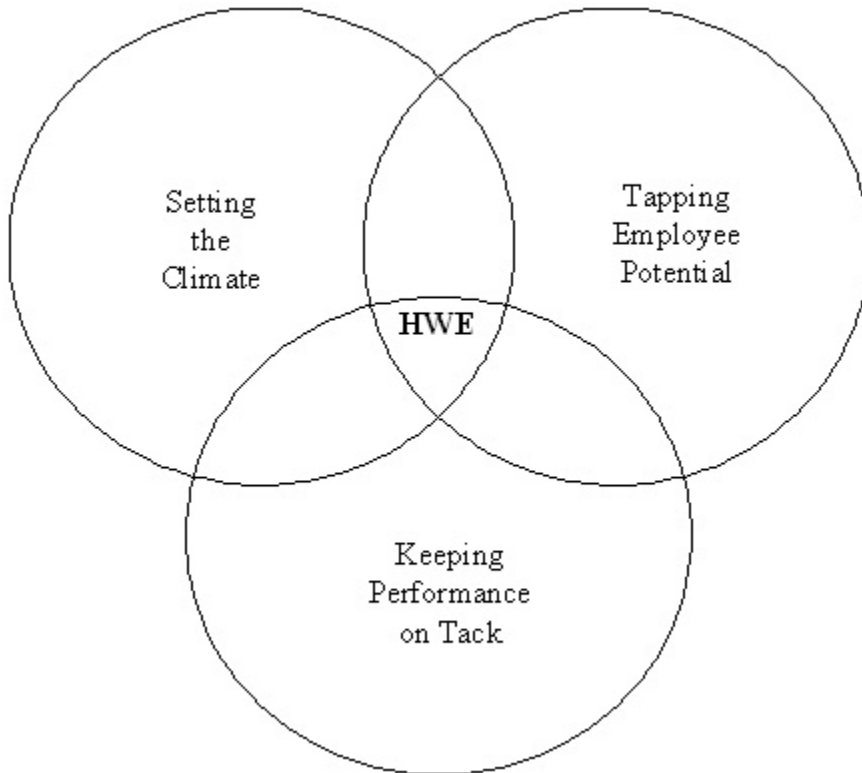
The HWE model that emerged was gathered from specific questions around feedback, expectation, making opinions count, and involving

employees in decisions, in addition to the grand tour question about how managers create healthy work environments. Therefore, it must be viewed in that context. What a "healthy work environment" is, however, was never defined in this study. We purposefully did not define it for those being interviewed. Our assumption is that people carry inside themselves a working definition of it. By asking what behaviors managers utilize to create one, they have begun to define it for us.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Some managers inside this healthcare organization know how to create healthy work environments. The HWE model that emerged from this study could be incorporated into organizational managerial and leadership training--modified to align with existing organizational initiatives and values. Further, these behaviors could be made an expected part of managerial behavior in an organization.

The list of behaviors described by managers is an encyclopedia of activities that supervisors could draw upon if incorporated into managerial development programs. They could also be used as a checklist that any supervisor could use as an outline for creating a healthy work environment in a specific area. The behaviors identified in this study begin to provide evidence of the practices that are necessary for building and sustaining healthy work environments.

The healthy workplace environment categories these managers practice are supported by Lowe, et. al (2003) who found the strongest correlates of a healthy work environment to be good communication, social support, and strong job demands. Additionally, Heath, Johanson, and Blake (2004) found in a similar study of nursing leaders that in order to set the tone for healthy work environments, having effective communication, having collaborative relationships, and promoting decision making among nurses increased job satisfaction. The comprehensive model we propose targets these working conditions and work relationships that build strong and healthy organizations.

Further study could involve similar data gathering from the employee population. What do employees do to create and support healthy work environments? Also, it would be a useful experiment to choose a work location or locations as a case study for incorporating the healthy work environment model and related behaviors to see to what extent it would make a difference for a specific work group.

Creating healthy work environments is important for all organizations, not just the healthcare industry. The evidence is mounting for expanding our understanding of what creates healthy work and for creating environments where employees find meaningful work that is enjoyable and where they feel nurtured and cared about as well.

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Making the Invisible Visible:
A Model for Delivery Systems in Adult Education

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Abstract

Delivery systems are not well defined in adult education. Therefore, this article reviews the multiple components that overlap to affect the adult learner and uses them to create a model for a comprehensive delivery system in adult education with these individual components as sub-systems that are interrelated and inter-locked. These components are philosophy, theory, method, need, educational entity, influence, outcome, and assessment. By combining these, the adult educator has access to a delivery system consisting of a full spectrum of opportunities by which the learner may realize an optimal educational experience within a learning environment. The model provides the components that can make visible this invisible system.

Introduction

Literature in the field of adult education commonly uses the term "delivery system," yet no consistent definition or model of what a delivery system actually is seems to exist. Models exist for program planning as do model-like typologies for adult education, so is a delivery system simply a synonymous term for multiple types of learning opportunities? Is a delivery system a way to plan programs? Is it a process and procedure? Or perhaps is it an approach to classroom activities and participation? Is it some of

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these things, all of these things, none of these things? In its current usage, the term "delivery system" seems to be an invisible mantle cloaking a myriad of adult education scenarios. An attempt to make visible this invisible system led to a thorough review of the multiple components that overlap to affect the adult learner and the creation of a model for a comprehensive delivery system in adult education that takes these individual components and sees them as sub-systems that are interrelated and inter-locked. The model attempts to articulate the components of what we as adult educators actually do, perhaps without thinking about the underlying assumptions and process—in other words, it attempts to make the invisible visible (see Figure 1).

A delivery *system* in adult learning, as used here, is a set of overlapping components (specifically philosophy, theory, method, need, educational entity, influence, outcome, and assessment) and sub-components, which interact with each other and revolve around the learner and the learning environment to maximize adult learning through the combination of selected subcomponents. This delivery system model differs from a program planning model in that it takes into account components and sub-components that deal with the facilitator's philosophical and theoretical orientations, as well as how all parts of the model overlap and influence each other in order to affect the learner as who is situated within the learning environment. The facilitator's conscious utilization of the following model's components and sub-components creates an interface between the learner and the educational experience.

Components and Sub-components

The Learner and the Learning Environment

The learner, surrounded by the learning environment, becomes the hub of this model. The learner brings to the educational experience, among other things, age, gender, prior knowledge and experiences, cultural values, perceptions, motivation, cognitive abilities, skills, and curiosity. Being observant of these traits and nuances allows the facilitator to better mold the delivery system and accommodate the learner's specific needs such as a degree, occupational pay raise, or personal gratification. For optimal learning to occur, the learner needs to be acknowledged as an individual.

Vella's (2002) book, *Learning to Listen, Learning to Teach*, lists 12 major steps that should be covered when directing learning towards adults.

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Figure 1: A Delivery System Model for Adult Education

Cultivation of Intellect
Individual Self-Actualization
Personal & Social Improvement
Social Transformation
Organizational Effectiveness

Portfolio Assessment
Test
Written Paper
Oral examination
Self Assessment
Reaction
Learning
Behavior
Results

Prescriptive
Descriptive
subjective
Objective

Type 1
Type 2
Type 3
Type 4
Formal
Nonformal
Informal
Self-Directed

Lecture
Demonstration
Socratic
Discussion
Tutorial
Hands On
Reading
Contract
Portfolio
Debate
Simulation
Role Play
Research
Immersion
Self-directed
Computer Assisted Instruction

Family
Friends
World Events
National Events
Local Events
Political influences
Economic influences
Cultural values
Ethical values
Religious values
Spiritual values

Age
Motivation
Relevant Experience
Ability
Curiosity
Prior Knowledge
SDL readiness
Literacy
Emotional State
Alertness/fatigue
Culture
Perception

Critical Reflection
Skill Acquisition
General knowledge
Personal growth
Job enhancement
Job preparation
Social improvement
Social transformation
Organizational improvement

Classroom
Seating Arrangement
Curriculum
Materials
Proximity to other Learners
Proximity to facilitator
Safety
Respect for learners
Clearly defined roles
Accountability
Sound Relationship
between
learner and facilitator

Humanistic
Pedagogy
Andragogy
Transformational Learning
Critical
Postmodern
Feminist
Cognitive
Behaviorist
Environmental
Assimilation
Constructivist
Emancipatory
Developmental
Social
Transitional

Philosophy
Assessment
Need
Learning
The Learner
Environment
Educational Entry
Method
Influence
Outcome
Theory

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These include a needs assessment of what is to be learned; a feeling of safety for the learner within the environment; sound relationships that are established between the facilitator and the learner; the sequence of the content presented and its reinforcement; the use of praxis; the establishment of respect for learners as decision makers; the understanding of the learner's ideas, feelings, and actions; immediacy of the learning; clear established roles on the part of the facilitator and the learner; the use of teamwork; the engagement of learners; and accountability.

The learning environment must be examined as well. All other factors of the delivery system model converge upon the learner and the learning environment to affect both. Examples of learning environments include classrooms, the workplace, religious institutions, and other physical surroundings. Some characteristics of the learning environment that the facilitator should be aware of are size, lighting, décor, furnishings, ventilation, climate, sound projection, technological capabilities, and seating arrangement (Caffarella, 2002). No matter where the learner is or where learning is taking place, it is impossible to remove one from the other. Like learners, no two learning environments are the same. The learning environment increases or decreases the potential for learning. When preparing to engage learners, the facilitator needs to ensure that the learning environment is conducive to creating a positive learning experience.

Philosophy

According to Darkenwald and Merriam (1982), there are five basic philosophical positions in the field of adult education: self-actualization, organizational effectiveness, cultivation of the intellect, social transformation, and personal and social improvement. Self-actualization regards adult education's purpose as fulfilling the needs of the individual learner. Organizational effectiveness emphasizes the training of people in an organization to increase the organization's efficiency and effectiveness. The cultivation of the intellect philosophy views adult education as a means to train the intellect through critical inquiry into the themes that have occupied humanity for millennia, such as liberty, justice, beauty, ethics, and theology. Social transformation, as advocated by Friere (1970) and Horton (1998), is based on the premise that the dominant society and culture are fundamentally oppressive and through adult education a more just society can be created. The philosophy relating to personal and social improvement

advances the dual and reciprocal goals of improvement of the self as well as improvement of the society at large such that these two interact to improve both.

Theory

There is a plethora of theories surrounding adult learning such as andragogy, transformational learning, post-modernism, behaviorism, cognitivism, humanism, and constructivism. Andragogy, according to Knowles (1980), is "the art and science of helping adults learn" (p. 43). Knowles maintained that adults learn differently than children and therefore the methods and materials used with adults must differ as well. First introduced in 1978 by Jack Mezirow, transformational learning is "dramatic, fundamental change in the way we see ourselves and the world in which we live" (as cited in Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 318). Post-modernism operates on the premise that there are no absolutes and that there is no one right way to do things. When applied to adult education, this theory focuses on the diversity of learners and their needs. Behaviorism defines learning as something that occurs in response to external stimuli; education serves to shape desired behaviors. Cognitivism was the first to challenge behaviorism. This learning orientation claims that learning is an ongoing mental process that draws from schemata and thinking rather than a response to stimuli; therefore, the purpose of education is to create lifelong learners. Humanistic theory focuses on the potential of the individual for personal growth. Humanist theorists see education as a tool for self-actualization. Theories of andragogy and self-directed learning are rooted in the humanist learning orientation. Constructivism pulls from many theories but emphasizes that individuals make meaning from their experiences; thus education helps individuals create knowledge and meaning based on experience.

Method

The methodology represents an array of approaches from which a facilitator may choose to impart information for learning. Equally for the self-directed learner, methodology denotes the opportunity and freedom to choose the means of acquiring knowledge that is best suited to each learning style. The key element for maximizing the effect of one instructional or learning method over another is based upon the instructor's

and the learner's knowledge of themselves.

No less important is the learner's awareness of personal expectations from the learning experience and one's learning style preference. James and Maher (2004) noted that it is incumbent upon the learner to analyze expectations and to "complete the tasks necessary to accomplish the learning goal" (p.120). Some of the most recognizable and frequently utilized methods for facilitating the teaching-learning experience include lecture, experiential learning, discussion group, demonstration, computer-assisted learning, and self-directed learning.

Need

The delivery systems model approaches need not from the perspective of determining what type of program should be offered, as in the Pearce four stage process of formal needs assessment (Caffarella, 2002), but rather from the perspective of what brings adults to education. The Mocker and Spear (1979) descriptive-prescriptive needs model is a more appropriate lens for examining what leads adults into an educational setting. Descriptive needs are those determined by the learner while prescriptive needs are those determined by external forces such as a manager. Needs can further be classified as subjective or objective with subjective needs established by "soft data" such as feelings or perceptions and objective needs determined through some form of "hard data" such as a test. Thus, needs can be classified into one of four general categories: descriptive-subjective, descriptive-objective, prescriptive-subjective, and prescriptive-objective.

Educational Entity

There are four types of agencies that provide adult education (Schroeder, 1970). Type I agencies are focused exclusively on adult education and are few in number. Examples include "proprietary schools and independent residential and nonresidential adult education centers" (p. 37).Type II agencies first serve the educational needs of youth and have as a secondary function the education of adults. Public schools with adult programs such as GED and post-secondary learning institutions offering programs like continuing education fall into this category. Type III agencies have as their focus both the educational and non-educational needs of the community and include such organizations as libraries and museums. Type

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IV agencies are those agencies in which adult education is designed and offered in order to further some other goal. Examples include for-profit organizations with HRD departments, churches, and government agencies.

In addition to these types of agencies, there are also further classifications of the kinds of adult education: formal, nonformal, informal, and self-directed. Formal learning encompasses the learning that happens inside of an educational institution, such as a university or a technical program. Informal learning is defined as the learning that occurs through the course of living one's life, and nonformal learning occurs in an organized program, outside of the formal education system (Merriam & Brockett, 1997). According to Tough (1979) and Livingstone (2001), most adults are engaged in self-directed or informal learning activities with more formalized learning experiences contributing "only a small percentage of the total learning of adults" (Gouthro & Plumb, 2003, p. 2). Potentially, an educational entity is anything as diverse as a university that targets adults, the local YMCA offering an exercise course, or the individual reading a book on home repair.

Influence

No education is immune to external influences. Perhaps the most intense influences are those derived from family, friends, and the immediate environment. Nevertheless, local, national, and global events also influence the educational context. Thus, these influences can vary from a family member's encouragement to learn to global economic factors requiring a worker to retrain. Merriam and Caffarella (1999) note that "demographics, the global economy, and technology are three forces affecting all of society's endeavors, including adult education" (p. 22).

Thompson (2005) notes that many forces, among them citizenship, diversity, social justice, and human rights, have deep roots in lifelong learning. These forces provide a stimulus for adult educators as they plan programs, develop program assessments, and give consideration to much larger concerns such as organizational mission and vision. Thompson further suggests that these challenges and others of this epoch provide many opportunities for learning which in turn shape individuals and communities. Rose (1999) notes that

> Educators of all populations are constantly confronted with how to help individuals make meaning of their experience, both in informal and non-formal settings. Adults bring to their learning

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situations complex and varied experiences that have both a positive and negative impact on their learning. Part of our task as educators is to provide a context for learning, so that new information and new concepts can be understood. (p. 30)

Outcome

The outcomes are the end result of participating in an adult education experience. For some learners, personal growth or the mastery of a newly acquired skill is the primary goal. For others, the engagement in an activity that will make a significant difference in society or the culture at large is of utmost importance in the learning experience. For still others, the learning itself is inherently satisfying and pleasurable. For some, awareness that their learning experience has made a difference in an organization is fulfilling. Job enhancement is also a valid and compelling outcome for many learners.

Assessment

Kirkpatrick's (1994) four-level evaluation model serves as an effective tool for assessing adult learning. Reaction is the foundational form of evaluation, assessing the learner's reaction to and satisfaction with the learning. The assessment is subjective, dependent on the learner's perceptions. The second level of evaluation is learning. Here the learner is evaluated using some type assessment strategy to show that learning has occurred. The third level of evaluation is behavior. This level measures the learner's utilization of the content in a real-world setting as evidenced by changed behaviors. Results, the fourth level, provide measurable outcomes for the learning that has occurred, such as declining accident rates after a safety program.

Conclusion

The uses of this model are as diverse as the model itself. Whether the learner is seeking to acquire information about cooking a favorite dish or a facilitator learning in an academic environment, the model can be applied and used effectively. When using this model it is important to note that there is no single point of entry; indeed, the facilitator can utilize any combination of the sub-components to develop a course-specific delivery

system that will be effective in promoting learning. All of these components are used, whether consciously or unconsciously. Personal philosophy may be embedded while methodology and assessment may be intentionally chosen.

The use of this model can assist in creating a productive learning environment that takes into account the complete ecology of the learning experience. Through the combination of philosophy, theory, method, need, educational entity, influence, outcome, and assessment, the facilitator is given access to a full spectrum of opportunities by which the learner may realize an optimal educational experience within a learning environment. Equally, the learner is the recipient of a full array of offerings that can provide opportunity for personal discovery, life enrichment, and skill attainment.

The anticipated use of this model is for the educator to take into account the combination of various components that affect the adult learner. Just as inquiry led to a fuller awareness of the elements that create an effective learning experience for adults, the use of a model such as this one can heighten the consciousness of the symbiotic nature of the learner with the various components that have a role in adult education, thus making the invisible visible.

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Dimensions of Part-Time Faculty Job Satisfaction:
Development and Factor Analysis of a Survey Instrument

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Abstract

The purpose of this research study was to develop a reliable and valid survey instrument for assessing the satisfaction of part-time faculty teaching in continuing higher education at Brigham Young University (BYU). This article describes the reliability and validity of the instrument that may be used by other administrators and researchers interested in evaluating part-time faculty job satisfaction at their respective institutions. The researchers hypothesized that dimensions of overall job satisfaction (adapted from the Herzberg model) would be measured by subscales on the survey instrument. The factor analysis provided empirical support for eight dimensions. The failure of two subscales in the factor analysis (status and job security) and one subscale on the test of internal reliability (challenge) will necessitate a revision of applicable survey questions.

Introduction

Much research has been conducted concerning job satisfaction of full-time faculty as demonstrated in literature reviews in works by Hagedorn (2000) and Tack and Patitu (1992). The ongoing research shows several studies completed more recently (Ambrose, Huston, & Norman, 2005; Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Reybold, 2005).

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However, peer- reviewed studies on part-time faculty job satisfaction are limited to just a few (Antony & Valadez, 2002; Feldman & Turnley, 2001; Townsend & Hauss, 2003; Truell, Price, & Joyner, 1998). This is the case despite the fact that "part-time faculty are a permanent and important part of teaching and learning at community, junior, and vocational colleges; four-year colleges; and universities" (Baron-Nixon, 2007, p. 1).

Prior studies on part-time faculty job satisfaction have relied on data from the National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF) or other in-house survey instruments. Despite poor reliability, institutional instruments were comprised primarily of single survey questions to measure job satisfaction constructs with the exception of one summated rating scale of overall job satisfaction used in a study by Feldman and Turnley (2001). Antony and Valadez (2002) were able to develop three summated rating scales using the NSOPF data: satisfaction with students, satisfaction with personal autonomy, and satisfaction with demands and rewards. Other standardized surveys such as the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) Faculty Survey were not designed with summated rating scales to measure part-time faculty job satisfaction. Several subscales on the National Survey of Faculty sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation could be utilized in future studies. However, it is lengthy, and many questions are not applicable to part-time faculty.

Hill (1986) states that "there are many well-known measures of job satisfaction in use in business and industry . . . ; [nevertheless], they do not seem to be wholly applicable to the work situation of faculty in higher education" (p. 39). Likewise, while instruments to evaluate full-time faculty job satisfaction are available, they lack relevance for part-time faculty on several fronts. For example, questions for full-time faculty about tenure, rank, grants, service responsibilities, and research facilities or expectations do not apply to part-time faculty. Questions regarding various aspects of collegiality and shared governance are worded in ways that do not fit part-time faculty. Since they are often residents in the community and have not relocated to obtain the job, questions about the desirability of the surrounding community are rarely relevant to part-time faculty job satisfaction. As well, questions about balancing family and work life are not as applicable because, by definition, part-time faculty should be employed only part-time.

The purpose of this research study was to develop a reliable and valid survey instrument for assessing the satisfaction of part-time faculty teaching in continuing higher education at Brigham Young University

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(BYU). This article describes the reliability and validity of the instrument that may be used by other administrators and researchers interested in evaluating part- time faculty job satisfaction at their respective institutions. An analysis of the survey results is not presented in this article but is discussed in another publication (see Hoyt et al., 2008).

Methodology

Survey Development

In order to more accurately measure constructs and achieve greater reliability and consistency over time, 12 summated rating scales on factors related to part-time faculty job satisfaction were developed using Herzberg's theoretical model. Herzberg (1968) categorized the needs of employees into two categories: (a) hygiene factors that extrinsically bring dissatisfaction and (b) motivating factors that intrinsically motivate employees. The "hygiene factors include company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security" (p. 57). The motivator factors are "achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth or advancement" (p. 57).

A few questions were modified from other instruments, but the large majority of questions on the instrument were developed by the researchers. The instrument utilized a 6-point Likert scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree). To control for acquiescence, which is "the tendency for people to agree with all items regardless of content," several negatively worded questions were included on the instrument (Spector, 1992, p. 12). The instrument was refined with the help of part-time faculty who pilot tested the survey during July 2007.

Because "a construct cannot stand alone, but only takes on meaning as part of a broader theoretical network," each set of four questions was carefully mapped against Herzberg's theoretical model of job satisfaction with two construct categories: hygiene factors and positive motivators (Spector, 1992, p. 13). Hygiene factors were autonomy, class facilities, faculty support, pay, job security, quality of students, status, and teaching schedule. Although pay, status, and job security relate directly to the Herzberg model, other variables could be explained further. The quality of classroom facilities, quality of students, and convenience of teaching

schedule are variables measuring working conditions. Autonomy is associated with supervision in the Herzberg model, measuring the extent to which part-time faculty members are closely supervised or given greater independence. Faculty support represents interpersonal relationships within the model.

Positive motivators were challenge, recognition, and work preference. Challenge and recognition correspond directly with the Herzberg model. Work preference measured the type of work in the model (whether part-time faculty preferred teaching over other types of work). Single questions were used to measure the constructs of achievement (engaging in collaborative research), responsibility (serving on academic committees), and advancement (desiring a full- time teaching position).

Survey Distribution and Sample

After the Institutional Review Board at Brigham Young University authorized the study, the online instrument was distributed by the university's Office of Institutional Assessment and Analysis to 762 part-time faculty members via a hyperlinked, e-mail invitation. The initial mailing and two follow-up reminders were sent over a 3-week period ending in August 2007, and 346 part-time faculty members (45%) completed the survey.

The survey respondents represented all colleges and schools at the university and had similar population demographics. Respondents were largely full-time working professionals (45%), homemakers (18%), graduate students (18%), and retired workers (5%). They taught a median of three courses per calendar year, were 59% male, and were a median of 42 years of age. About 45% had a full-time job, 20% worked another part-time job (fewer than 35 hours each week), and 35% had no other work.

Statistical Tests

All statistical tests were conducted using SPSS 15.0. The summated rating scales were first analyzed for reliability with the Cronbach's Alpha test (Alpha for short); Alpha estimates internal consistency reliability by determining how all of the items in the instrument relate to each other and to the total instrument. The Alpha value required to "demonstrate internal consistency" was set at .7, following guidelines established by Spector (1992, p. 32). Negatively worded questions were reverse scored as required

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for the statistical test. The survey sample size more than met the minimum requirement of "100 to 200 respondents" for an item analysis (Spector, 1992, p. 29).

In factor analysis, "groups of items that tend to be inter-related with one another more strongly than they relate to other groups of items will tend to form factors" (Spector, 1992, p. 53). The factor analysis for this research was conducted to determine whether specific questions (items) would load heavily on the factors or constructs as hypothesized and load poorly on other factors. Factor loading coefficients represent the strength of the association of the question or item with the factor, and the loadings were interpreted using cutoffs established by Comrey (1992): .71 or higher, excellent; .63 to .70 very good, .55 to .62 good, .45 to .54 fair, and .30 to .44 poor.

The inclusion of 346 respondents with 40 questions or variables in the current study also met standards for sufficient sample size to conduct a factor analysis. Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999) recommend that researchers have 150 to 300 cases for factor analysis. Bryant and Yarnold (1995) indicate that the ratio of subjects to variables should be no lower than five to one. The ratio for the current study is eight to one.

"Several types of stopping rules have been developed . . . [to] determine the number of factors to extract (i.e., to retain) in a given analysis" (Bryant & Yarnold, 1995, pp. 102-103). Researchers have based this decision on the percentage of the variance accounted for in the model, eigenvalues of at least one, the average eigenvalue, scree plots, parallel analysis, the minimum average partial criterion, a priori hypotheses about the number of factors, and whether or not factors are meaningful, with various arguments for and against each criterion (Grimm & Yarnold, 1995; Lance, Butts & Michels, 2006; Norusis, 1994; O'Connor, 2000; Rencher, 1998; Spector, 1992). Ultimately, some level of "subjective judgment is necessary to determine the number of factors and their interpretation" (Spector, 1992, p. 55). Decisions for the current study were made by examining eigenvalues, scree plots, and the percent of the variance, but they also relied heavily on a priori hypotheses developed from the Herzberg model.

The factor analysis incorporated Principal Axis Factoring extraction and Varimax rotation. Methods also involved specifying the number of factors based on a priori hypotheses as well as using the SPSS default of an eigenvalue of at least one. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant, which indicated that the population correlation matrix was unlikely to be an identity. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was

.867 or "meritorious to marvelous" (Norusis, 1994, p. 53).

In the interest of examining the effects of various statistical methods, the researchers ran several exploratory factor analyses with alternative extraction methods (i.e., Generalized Least Squares, Maximum Likelihood, Alpha, and Image) and rotation options (i.e., Quartimax, Equimax, and Promax). The rotated matrices showed small differences in the scores, and questions loaded in a very similar manner on factors resulting in no substantial differences in the interpretation of results. According to Rencher (1998), "if a model is valid . . . , most methods yield similar loadings at least after rotation" (p. 385).

Findings

Reliability of the Summated Rating Scales

The Alpha value of .85 supported the reliability or internal consistency of the summated rating scale measuring overall part-time faculty job satisfaction (see insert). This construct was only analyzed with Cronbach's Alpha and not factor analysis because each of the other subscales measured satisfaction with specific aspects or dimensions of a part-time faculty position that would contribute to overall job satisfaction.

Nearly all the other summated rating subscales measuring various dimensions of overall job satisfaction had high alpha values (see Table 1). However, the subscale measuring the variable *challenge* was not included in the table as reliable since it had a low Alpha value of .60. In retrospect, the word *challenge* seems unclear in terms of how part-time faculty may interpret its meaning. It can have negative connotations such as struggling to meet teaching responsibilities and difficulty in dealing with students, or it can have positive associations such as the work engaging instructors and making full use of faculty skills and abilities. Future work is needed to more clearly delineate this construct. The subscale for *work preference* was retained because the alpha value was nearly .70; however, additional questions could be experimented with in future studies to increase internal reliability.

Validation of the Summated Rating Subscales

In factor analysis, "items that inter-correlate relatively high are assumed to reflect the same construct . . . , and items that inter-correlate

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Table 1. Ten Dimensions of Overall Job Satisfaction

Dimension	Items	Alpha
Autonomy	1-4	.82
Teaching Schedule	5-8	.87
Pay	9-12	.94
Work Preference	13-16	.69
Faculty Support	17-20	.86
Recognition	21-24	.72
Status	25-28	.81
Class Facilities	29-32	.85
Quality of Students	33-36	.87
Job Security	37-40	.71

relatively low are assumed to reflect different constructs" (Spector, 1992, p. 54). The questions for the subscales of satisfaction with pay, class facilities, quality of students, and work preference had good to excellent loadings on the intended factors with no loadings on any of the other factors (see Table 2). The questions measuring satisfaction with teaching schedule also had very good to excellent loadings on the intended factor. Questions for the factor autonomy had good to excellent loadings. Factor loadings were also very good to excellent for questions on the level of faculty support, and two of these questions (numbers 18 and 19) had only poor to fair cross-loadings with the first factor in the rotated matrix.

Despite these positive results, the status and recognition questions loaded on the same factor, suggesting that the constructs should be combined into one subscale. While re-examining the questions, the researchers realized that questions did overlap and that the status subscale included questions measuring recognition. It was difficult to clearly delineate the two constructs, and there did not appear to be a substantial difference between status and recognition. A new and parsimonious subscale is recommended, using questions 23-26, each having very good to excellent loadings on the factor. These same questions also maximized the value on the Alpha test (.87) when dropping the other questions. It is possible that the construct of status may be more accurately measured by asking questions about the importance of part-time faculty jobs relative to other jobs on campus, but this would need to be done in future studies.

Table 2. Rotated Factor Matrix in Order of Eigenvalues

Item	Auto.	Teach	Pay	Work	Faculty	Rec/Stat	Class	Quality	Job
1	0.58	0.18	0.04	0.14	0.15	0.08	0.07	0.09	-0.02
2	0.86	0.07	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.08	0.09	0.09	-0.02
3	0.87	0.06	-0.02	0.09	0.06	0.06	0.09	0.12	0.05
4	0.61	0.02	0.04	-0.10	0.02	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.09
5	0.06	0.83	0.06	0.04	0.09	0.10	0.11	0.06	0.03
6	0.15	0.79	0.14	0.14	0.13	0.17	0.09	0.11	0.06
7	0.09	0.74	0.12	0.14	0.08	0.16	0.13	0.09	0.04
8	0.05	0.66	0.22	0.05	-0.05	0.15	-0.02	0.07	0.17
9	0.04	0.11	0.88	-0.04	0.06	0.22	0.07	0.08	0.03
10	0.00	0.17	0.87	0.05	0.10	0.24	0.08	0.07	0.07
11	0.02	0.14	0.89	-0.01	0.07	0.22	0.08	0.11	0.04
12	0.04	0.07	0.78	-0.06	0.02	0.18	0.00	0.05	0.04
13	0.09	0.09	-0.05	0.66	0.12	0.12	0.10	0.17	-0.12
14	0.15	0.18	0.04	0.57	0.14	0.25	0.11	0.22	-0.10
15	-0.01	0.00	-0.03	0.68	0.10	0.07	0.06	0.03	-0.01
16	0.00	0.11	-0.04	0.57	-0.02	-0.07	-0.03	0.06	0.18
17	0.02	0.07	0.14	0.08	0.66	0.26	0.04	0.04	-0.02
18	0.16	-0.01	0.04	0.05	0.63	0.51	0.07	0.04	-0.05
19	0.16	0.06	0.04	0.13	0.69	0.31	0.05	0.13	0.08
20	0.09	0.11	0.02	0.13	0.82	0.19	0.16	0.07	0.02
21	-0.03	0.14	0.16	0.06	0.17	0.41	0.05	-0.03	0.03
22	0.06	0.01	0.12	-0.02	0.06	0.40	-0.05	0.10	0.12
23	0.02	0.07	0.09	0.10	0.28	0.67	0.13	0.16	0.08
24	0.02	0.12	0.18	-0.01	0.25	0.71	0.17	0.03	0.06
25	0.10	0.17	0.17	0.09	0.15	0.80	0.06	0.11	0.06
26	0.13	0.19	0.19	0.14	0.19	0.64	0.11	0.08	0.03
27	0.10	0.25	0.21	0.36	0.04	0.50	0.15	0.15	-0.06
28	0.03	0.11	0.10	0.37	0.13	0.34	0.22	0.20	-0.04
29	0.04	0.12	0.09	0.15	0.09	-0.02	0.81	0.15	0.02
30	0.10	0.05	0.02	-0.04	0.10	0.10	0.75	0.12	-0.01
31	0.10	0.08	0.06	0.00	0.05	0.20	0.83	0.11	0.05
32	0.09	0.09	0.06	0.29	0.03	0.10	0.56	0.14	0.05
33	0.11	0.16	0.06	0.07	0.04	0.22	0.12	0.77	-0.01
34	0.14	0.08	0.09	0.19	0.12	0.08	0.22	0.73	0.01
35	0.09	0.07	0.08	0.23	0.18	0.19	0.23	0.69	0.07
36	0.09	0.01	0.10	0.08	-0.03	0.00	0.07	0.76	0.13
37	0.07	0.36	0.08	0.19	-0.05	0.19	0.09	-0.02	0.38
38	0.17	0.34	0.05	0.12	-0.03	0.17	0.04	-0.03	0.46
39	0.01	0.11	0.10	-0.01	0.07	0.04	0.05	0.02	0.67
40	-0.01	-0.03	-0.02	-0.08	-0.01	0.07	-0.02	0.13	0.82

For the job security subscale, two of the questions only had a poor or fair loading on the intended factor. These same questions cross-loaded poorly on the teaching schedule construct. The remaining two questions had very good to excellent loadings on the job security factor; nevertheless, Velicer and Fava (1998) state that researchers should not interpret factors with fewer than three items or questions. Thus, this subscale failed the factor analysis.

The job security construct may be worth exploring further because part-time faculty members, who have taught for several years, are given priority teaching courses or senior status at some institutions. This may contribute to a personal sense of job security in this context. Institutions may also routinely lack full-time faculty in particular subjects, resulting in an ongoing need for part-time instructors in specific areas. On the other hand, part-time instructors lack tenure, and the question arises as to whether job security really applies to them.

Conclusion

The researchers hypothesized that 11 dimensions of job satisfaction and the subscale measuring overall job satisfaction would be reliable and valid (a total of 12 subscales). The item analysis and factor analysis provided empirical support for eight dimensions and the overall job satisfaction subscale. The failure of two subscales in the factor analysis (job security and status) and one subscale on the test of internal reliability (job challenge) may be caused by a need to improve survey questions. The hygiene factor of job security may not be applicable to part-time faculty.

Although the current study considered several dimensions of part-time faculty job satisfaction, the work is incomplete. Researchers conducting future studies could explore other potential dimensions of job satisfaction such as administrative policies, campus climate, academic freedom, altruistic needs, and intellectual stimulation. Rather than using single questions for the constructs of achievement, responsibility, and personal growth or advancement, other researchers may develop additional summated rating subscales for these factors.

Part-time faculty job satisfaction is a multidimensional construct, and additional studies are needed to better understand the needs of part-time faculty and refine instruments that will measure their job satisfaction. Given the reliance of higher education on part-time faculty and the limited

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research on part-time faculty job satisfaction, further study is warranted.

Despite the possibility of improving the instrument by adding new subscales, the survey measures a variety of reliable and valid dimensions of job satisfaction that colleges may use to improve the work environment for part-time faculty. After administering the survey, the values on questions for each dimension and for the overall job satisfaction construct can be summed and divided by four (number of questions per dimension or construct) to examine how the institution scores on the instrument. The institution can view areas where it is rated lower and in need of improvement and areas where it scores high. Scores in the range of 4-6 are on the positive end of the scale; however, a score of 4, Somewhat Agree, uses wording that indicates some hesitancy to rate the area well. Any average scores at about a 4 or lower on the 6-point scale would be areas of possible improvement. Obviously, negatively worded questions would need to be reverse scored when following these guidelines. It would be helpful to include an open-ended question on the survey requesting feedback on how to improve. If an institution scores low on a dimension, open-ended comments that relate to the low-rated dimension can provide more descriptive detail and should receive increased attention to make program changes. Institutions may also add additional faculty demographic and background questions.

The researchers have published the results of using the instrument at a major university and found it to be very helpful in identifying policies and other aspects of the work environment that could be improved for part-time faculty (Hoyt et al., 2008). Readers are referred to this second publication for these results. The institution scored lower on part-time faculty recognition (4.3), faculty support (4.3), and honorarium or pay (3.9); however, results may vary by type of institution. The second article also contains a comprehensive literature review in the implications for practice section that provides a wide variety of ideas for improving the work environment for part-time faculty.

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Dimensions of Part-Time Faculty Job Satisfaction

Directions: Read each item and rate it using the following scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree.

Overall Job Satisfaction		
1 .	I am completely satisfied with my job teaching courses as a part-time faculty.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2.	Based on my experience teaching as a part-time faculty, I would highly recommend the job to others.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3.	Considering everything, I have an excellent job as a part-time faculty teaching courses.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4.	I am dissatisfied with aspects of my job as a part-time faculty.	1 2 3 4 5 6
Recognition		
5.	I am often thanked for teaching here.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6.	I feel well respected as a part-time faculty.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.	Part-time faculty are recognized for their teaching contribution.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8.	A part-time faculty job is a valued position.	1 2 3 4 5 6
Work Preference		
9.	I really enjoy teaching courses.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10.	I almost always look forward to teaching classes.	1 2 3 4 5 6

11.	If I had the choice, I would rather teach than do other types of work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12.	I would prefer to do work other than teaching.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Autonomy		
13.	I am completely satisfied with the level of autonomy that I have in teaching my courses.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14.	I have a lot of freedom to develop and modify course content to meet the needs of my students.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15.	I have a satisfactory level of autonomy to select material and texts for my courses.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16.	I would like more freedom to determine the content, materials, and texts for my courses.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Classroom Facilities		
17.	The classroom space where I teach classes is excellent.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18.	The classrooms in which I teach are very well maintained and clean.	1 2 3 4 5 6
19.	The classrooms in which I teach have up-to-date audiovisual equipment, computer connections, and equipment.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20.	Space for my classrooms is well designed to meet my teaching and my students' learning needs.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Faculty Support		
21.	I receive very helpful advice and support from academic department faculty to improve my teaching.	1 2 3 4 5 6
22.	Faculty in my academic department(s) are always available and accessible to me when I need assistance.	1 2 3 4 5 6

23.	Full-time faculty in my academic department(s) take a sincere interest in my success as a teacher.	1 2 3 4 5 6
24.	I feel very comfortable requesting assistance from academic department faculty when I have questions about my courses or students.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Honorarium

25.	The payment I receive for teaching classes is adequate.	1 2 3 4 5 6
26.	I feel that I am well compensated for my teaching.	1 2 3 4 5 6
27.	I am paid fairly for the amount of work I do to teach courses.	1 2 3 4 5 6
28.	I am dissatisfied with the pay I receive for teaching courses.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Quality of Students

29.	I am completely satisfied with the quality and caliber of students in my classes.	1 2 3 4 5 6
30.	Students in my classes are very well prepared academically to take my courses.	1 2 3 4 5 6
31.	Students here are highly engaged and very interested in their academic work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
32.	Students lack motivation or the academic skills to succeed in my courses.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Teaching Schedule

33.	The times scheduled for my class(es) have been convenient to my schedule.	1 2 3 4 5 6
34.	I have been very satisfied with my teaching schedule.	1 2 3 4 5 6

| 35. | The times that I teach my classes work well with my personal or other family commitments. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 36. | I have to teach at times that are inconvenient for me. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |

Note: When conducting surveys, items should be randomly arranged rather than organized by construct.

Scoring

The Dimensions of Part-Time Faculty Job Satisfaction contains both positive and negative items. The negative items are items numbered 4, 12, 16, 28, 32, and 36. For these negative items, assign the following values: 6 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Agree, 2 = Agree, 1 = Strongly Agree.

Scores for each of the 8 dimensions and for the separate measure of overall job satisfaction are calculated by summing the value of the four items and then dividing the total by 4 (the number of questions for each subscale). The 8 dimensions can be correlated with overall job satisfaction or be used to predict overall job satisfaction as a dependent variable.

Closed-Captioned Video and the ESL Classroom:
A Multi-Sensory Approach

James L. Rowland

Abstract

Traditional ESL instruction accepts the idea that a student's ability to visualize text and to create mental pictures of letters and whole words is important in comprehension. Closed-captioned videotext with high audio/video correlation allows the learner to see, hear, and contextualize words and sentences simultaneously.

Introduction

Closed-captioned video presentations can be useful in English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction. Video topics rich with the history and culture of the target language provide a meaningful context for language learning.

I started using closed-captioning in 1991 to assist children to learn to read. Students reported that closed-captioning and sub-titles helped them with spelling, reading, writing, and word recognition, which seems reasonable. Before we speak or write, we create a mental representation of words, and then we recite or pen them.

I used closed-captioned videos in China and Mexico. I imbedded closed-captioned text on copies of several videos. The text appears on the video like the title and the credits of a film and can be viewed on any television-video equipment. These videos are informative, entertaining, and culturally and historically objective. Closed-captioned videos create a successful learning opportunity by obtaining and maintaining students' attention. They have often been overlooked as they were developed for individuals with learning disabilities.

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Literature

Supportive literature assists in developing new uses for closed-captioned videos. Peter Shea (1995) noted that closed-captioning is more effective and a better learning tool than videos without closed-captioning (p. 4). Shea suggests that teachers "should consider gauging content to the zone of proximal development of the students to which the material is to be presented" (p. 4). Lower-level learners benefit from closed-captioned videos as they unite meaning, thought, and speech. This is similar to Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, which is not unlike our teachable moment. Closed-captioned videos produce this moment.

Vocabulary acquisition is a challenging aspect of any language learning experience. Donna Tatsuki (1998) defines not easily understood vocabulary as hot spots. Tatsuki (1996) encourages note taking, word recognition, and varied writing tasks to support vocabulary retention and mastery of hot spots. These techniques, common to traditional ESL instruction, should be used with the videos.

The closed-captioned visual text allows the student to visualize word and sentence patterns. Pattern recognition provides access to images and features that allow the student to perceive events or action. Bransford et al. notes that this type of experience affords students opportunities to "form rich mental models," which is "particularly important for lower achieving students and for students with low knowledge in the domain of interest" (cite in Baron, 1989, p. 2) In addition, "video allows students to develop skills of pattern recognition which are related to visual and auditory cues rather than to events labeled by the teacher" (p. 2). Closed–caption videos provide this holistic instructional approach to ESL students. This integration of sound, pictures, objects, and words promotes additional cognitive processing, which provides an opportunity for different styles of thinking and learning.

Observations

Students have been able to write simple sentence after watching a 25-minute closed-captioned video. Their ability to observe the dialogue, in sentence form, apparently assisted them.

I administered questionnaires in China and Mexico which are based on examples in *Action Research: A Guide for the Teacher Researcher* (Mills,

2000). My Chinese assistant, Shen Zhiyuan (Eric Shen), noted that student interacted with the closed-captioned text. Steve Zhou, a student, reported that closed-captioned videos create interest in learning English. Bao Feng (Frank Bao), an English teacher, uses closed-captioned videos to teach English. He "absolutely" believes that closed-captioned videos assist students with "good listening abilities." He stated, "Students are not afraid to speak," and they make them better at "listening and speaking." Cynthia, Frank's student, responded that some of the videos were too difficult. This supports Shea's (1995) warning (p. 4). Cynthia also noted, supporting Frank's observation, that students realized their need to spend more time listening to and reading English, which caused them to work harder. Another teacher, Ji Feng (Charlie), responded that "in the long run, watching video is a more effective way to learn English than just studying it in class." Charlie agreed that closed-captioned viewers "are better than others in their spoken English."

While conducting classes in Mexico, I realized that local instructors are necessary in order to establish rapport and bridge the cultural and comfort gap that exists when non-local teachers are involved. One of my instructor related, "Unfortunately, it was in my later years of foreign language classes that videos were used to teach students about a certain country's culture"; this is an instructional sequence that is still popular. This supports the observation that "an approach that envisions the teaching of language and culture in a serial fashion misses the important point that the two are intertwined" (Hadley, 2001, p. 347). This instructor suggested that "videos manage to combine information in a visual/informational format that cannot be done in lectures." As Hadley (2001) notes, our mission "is not to impart facts, but to help students attain the skills that are necessary to make sense out of the facts they themselves discover in their study of the target culture" (p. 347). This instructor also mentioned that "I would hesitate to use only 'pure' informational videos, which can tend to be dry and lose the attention of the audience." Closed-captioned language instruction is ensync with these observations and Hadley's "intertwined" method.

Some closed-captioned videos that meet these historic and cultural criteria are the Charlie Brown/Peanuts cartoon-style videos. These are the holiday series: New Year's, Valentine's Day, Arbor Day, Easter, Halloween, Thanksgiving, and Christmas. Others include This is America--Charlie Brown series, The Mayflower, Constitution, Presidency, Trans-Continental Railroad, Music and Heroes of America, and NASA.

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The use of closed-captioned video presentations works with both children and adults. When used with children,

- A local teacher should be available to assist in the creation of a learning atmosphere.
- Student participation and attendance should be consistent.
- The room selected for instruction should be a classroom.
- The television should be at the eye level of a seated student.
- Closed-captioned videos should be used with traditional ESL instruction.

When used with adults,

- Adult are generally more motivated.
- Adults attend most classes.
- The position of the television is not a problem with the adults.
- Class time should be 1½ hour to allow time to discuss the 25-minute video.

Findings

The uniformity of the observations establishes merit for my summary. One instructor felt that the "younger students had a more difficult time paying attention to the videos for their entire duration, while the adults seemed to have no problem." Increasing vocabulary and cultural knowledge are benefits, "especially when re-addressed by the instructors." Creating an interest in the culture of the people who speak a language is an important part of these closed-captioned video presentations. The Standards for Foreign Language Learning (Standards 2.1 and 2.2) and Comparisons (Standards 4.1 and 4.2) "emphasize the need for students to develop an awareness of the cultural framework or 'perspectives' of the culture whose language they are studying" (Hadley 2001, p. 39). Additional instructor observations are:

- Students not only were introduced to a new vocabulary but were also introduced to a new culture and some of our history.
- I think it's important for all people to hear and learn about other cultures and to learn respect and understanding for other people and their countries.
- The students often used the closed-captioning to choose out single words.
- The closed-captioned videos seemed to benefit the students' vocabulary the most.

Student comments were as follows:
- I will try to see often.
- If I have an opportunity to watch the videos I can learn more.
- Yes, because in different videos I learn new words.

The questionnaires substantiated the students' ability to read the questions and write their answers in English.

Continuation

Input from people, actively involved in day-to-day occupational experience are the best source of information. Multiple intelligence and learning style research suggests that students are both visual and auditory. This multi-sensory approach to language instruction allows the student to see, hear, and contextualize what is on the screen. The level of difficulty and length can be personalized. This technique is not meant to stand-alone; it is a language learning stimulator.

John Dewey (1938) believed in "the principle of continuity of experience" (p. 35). Please join me in this "continuity of experience" and continuous discovery.

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Lessons in Conference Planning:
Adult Learning Principles at Work

Laura B. Holyoke

Abstract

Effectively applying principles of adult learning is the goal of adult educators. This article describes how one instructor successfully operationalized these principles in a college course in which students planned and executed a professional conference for adult educators.

The Course

Chairing the annual Mountain Plains Adult Education Association Conference for 250 adult educators in Coeur d'Alene this past spring provided an opportunity to offer a hands-on, conference planning experience to graduate students. Wanting to try something outside the typical classroom experience, I organized a special topics course on conference planning which could provide experiential learning that not only espoused but also employed adult learning principles in an authentic context.

Because we needed to accomplish the conference planning task in a relatively short period of time, I structured the course to function more as a team with a commissioned assignment rather than a typical instructor-facilitated class. The students and I met at the beginning of the semester to lay the groundwork for the conference planning process and then more regularly as the event date approached. Three students lived in the city where the conference would convene; the other three students resided on the main campus about 90 minutes away. Early in the semester, I met with each of the two groups separately, and then, during the month leading up to the conference, we held weekly conference calls and used a web site to

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communicate progress on various tasks and assignments.

Adult Learning Principles

In order to create a meaningful learning experience for the class, a philosophical framework was employed that utilized the principles of adult learning (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005). These principles recognize the unique characteristics of adult learners:

(1) the need to know;

(2) a sense of autonomy;

(3) the importance of life experiences and knowledge;

(4) the readiness to learn;

(5) the need for practical and applicable learning, and

(6) internal motivation.

The Need to Know

The first principle is adult learners *need to know* why they need to learn something. Once the benefits of learning are clear, adults tend to invest considerable time and energy into the learning process. Thus, we began the course with a briefing on the associations and stakeholders involved in the conference followed by a discussion on past conference experiences. While all of the students had participated in professional conferences and some of them had experience with conference planning, none had experienced the full cycle of planning, developing, and putting on a conference. Nevertheless, the students expressed their excitement in participating in a hands-on project that would enhance their knowledge and skills in event planning.

Self-Directed Learning

The second principle of adult learning refers to the *autonomy* of the learner Adults need to be free to direct their work and to choose learning activities that reflect their interests. For the class, students chose the responsibilities and specific tasks they would be responsible to complete for the conference. During team meetings, they reported on their progress—sometimes sharing a completed task or project and sometimes asking for help or information from their classmates.

Using Prior Experience and Knowledge

The third principle of adult learning recognizes that adults have accumulated a foundation of *life experiences* and *knowledge*, and consequently, they are their own richest base of resources. Such was the case with the students in this course. They pulled from their previously attained knowledge and skills in areas such as graphic design, industrial technologies, and nutrition science to construct new knowledge in planning and developing the conference activities.

Readiness to Learn

The fourth principle states that adults must be *ready to learn* and be able to see a reason for learning. Learning has to be applicable to their vocation or other responsibilities to be of significance to them. Most of the students enrolled in the program were working professionals who took the class because they wanted or needed to learn how to plan a conference for their own professional needs. The course provided an opportunity for them to engage in authentic, hands-on activities that involved planning an event for other professionals. One student commented, "The experience of this course was very helpful. Being involved in planning a large scale regional event is something that I expect to be involved in, and I now feel well prepared to tackle that task."

The Need for Practical Application

The fifth principle of adult learning considers adults' orientation to learning; learning needs to be *practical* and applied in a meaningful context. Many students valued the realistic approach of the course and appreciated learning in a practical manner. One student noted that she obtained "very insightful information" from the "opportunity to do hands-on coursework." From the first meeting to the debriefing at the end of the conference, students' learning was contextual and authentic. Another student described her learning experience as follows: "Just . . . going through the process of planning a conference has been more valuable than any textbook read."

Motivational Factors

The sixth principle of adult learning concerns motivation; adults are *internally motivated* and their learning must include an intrinsic value in which they can see a personal payoff by acquiring the knowledge or skill. Students in the course were motivated by the authentic experiences that they could add to their resumes, the professional contacts they made that could be helpful in their professions, and the new friendships that developed among them. They also learned new skills and earned graduate credit in the process.

Putting It All Together

The final authentic assessment for the course was the conference itself. Every student was present during the conference and had the opportunity to experience the results of their collective efforts. One student summed it all up: "This was a great experience --I really feel that I am prepared to take a more active role in planning a large event based on the information that I gained in this class. Thank you!"

Facilitating adult learning can be creative, fun, and meaningful for all involved. This special topics course on conference planning provided college students with a meaningful learning experience through a real-world application. By applying principles of adult learning and being creative in structuring learning experiences, adult educators can provide unique and practical learning opportunities for their adult students.

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