Socrates, Plato, Dewey, or Gates?:
A Review of Pedagogy in Parks & Recreation
Higher Education

Susan A. Myllykangas, MA, CTRS
Indiana University

Abstract

Socrates, Plato, Dewey, or Gates: who is the best teacher? Each man used a different method of instruction and all are known as outstanding teachers. Dialectic, Socratic, play, reflective, experiential, active, technological….with all of these various approaches to teaching how do junior faculty know what instructional methods work best for the students they teach? Which theories, activities, and assignments are being used in parks and recreation teaching? What makes teachers in parks and recreation education effective? This review of the past 16 issues of SCHOLE (1986-2001) synthesizes the answers to these questions.

Keywords: pedagogy, teaching, learning, theory, assignments, leisure, parks & recreation

Introduction

Socrates never lectured; he questioned; as questions encourage students to reach into their unconscious knowledge and draw conclusions (Lloyd, 1999). He believed man should possess a broad knowledge of the world that could then be built upon through stringent intellectual activities and the application of logic. A protégé of Socrates, Plato formed the Academy with the belief that the pursuit of knowledge was the highest and most valuable of all human activities (Mitchell, 1999). Plato’s method of teaching was through play; believing that the only way for adults to discover new truth was through active play (Hunnicutt, 1990). The father of modern education, John Dewey, believed students should be encouraged to participate in the community, actively working in cooperation with others and therefore learning how to be members of society (Field, 2001). Most recently, Bill Gates, chairman and chief software architect at Microsoft Corporation, unveiled his contribution to active, engaging methods of teaching in higher education, Visual Studio.NET Academic. These technological computer based tools were developed specifically for use in research and teaching in higher education. Gates said, “Microsoft is constantly deepening its partnership with academia, and is committed to jointly developing new ideas and solving many of the key challenges in computing” (Microsoft’s, 2001, p. 1). Socrates, Plato, Dewey, or Gates: who is the best teacher?
Dialectic, Socratic, play, reflective, experiential, active, technological....with all of these various approaches to teaching how do junior faculty know what instructional methods work best for the students they teach? Which theories, activities, and assignments are being used in parks and recreation teaching? What can teachers in parks and recreation education do to be effective in meeting all student learning types? Drs. McKinney and Russell, as part of the Society of Parks and Recreation Educators, a branch of the National Recreation and Park Association, were asking similar questions when they created *SCHOLE: a Journal for the Advancement of Parks and Recreation in Higher Education* in 1986. They, along with other professionals in the field of parks and recreation education, began seeking answers that were unknown and undocumented at the time. *SCHOLE* has published 17 annual issues since its inception in 1986, each filled with information related to teaching techniques, course content, curriculum design, student relations and mentorship, and other educationally pertinent topics. Using Kolb’s Learning Style Theory and historical pedagogists as the framework, this paper will review the past 16 issues of *SCHOLE* (1986-2001) as a way of answering these questions. Though the review was not inclusive of all research published on pedagogy in the field, *SCHOLE* was selected for review as it represents the core of pedagogical research in the field of parks and recreation in higher education.

**Educational Theories Used**

The theories mentioned in the *SCHOLE* literature are developmental in nature, with the exceptions being Dale’s Cone of Experience (1969) and Bandura’s Social Learning Theory (1977). Developmental theories stress the student as a receiver of information and explain the stages of student development. The premise of these theories is that teachers can improve their communication by understanding the patterns of student development, evaluating the current developmental stages of their students, and introducing course information in varied ways to meet the stages of development of their students.

Dale (1969) is known as a pioneer in the area of learning environment (Valerius, Keller, Doyle, & Collins, Jr., 1998). In 1972, he suggested that his original Cone of Experience model of learning be adjusted. Higher order thinking skills involving integration and application were thought to come from active “discovery.” Educators therefore acted as facilitators of learning allowing students to seek, risk, and discover new knowledge through their own independent thinking. Lectures and readings were thought to provide for lower level learning while field trips, interviews and other activities allowing for integration and application encouraged higher levels of learning.

Social Learning Theory was created by Albert Bandura in 1977 and is popular among educators interested in student self-efficacy and academic success (Pajares, 1996). Bandura believed that a person’s mind, behavior and the environment all play an important role in the learning process. A key principle of this theory is the belief that people can learn by observing others. Awareness and future reinforcement of the knowledge gained can then effect a change in the person’s behavior. The Social Learning Theory was mentioned in a 1999 study conducted by Riley, Skalko, McChesney, and Glascoff.
who reported on the need and benefits of student exposure to different cultures and generations to prepare them to be future professionals.

In the first year of _SCHOLE_’s publication, Moore, Riggins, and Sylvester (1986) explained William Perry’s (1970) theory of intellectual and ethical development, which became the context for many of the developmental instruction theories used to teach college students today. Perry’s model suggests that college students evolve through developmental stages divided into three groups based on how students perceive and make sense of information. The first stage is the **Dualistic View** of Knowledge where students think in black and white, right and wrong. The teacher’s role in this stage is central in enabling and supporting growth. Stage two is **Relativism** where students learn that answers to questions may not be black and white. They may feel lost in a chaotic world and request that the teacher “give them what they want to hear” as a way to make sense of the world. It is not uncommon at this stage to hear students say things like, “Is this going to be on the test?” or “Tell me what you want and I’ll say it.” The final stage is that of **Commitment**. Students begin to appreciate the contextual nature of knowledge and realize that they must make a personal commitment to learn in spite of the uncertainty they may feel. Simply stated the themes of the stages include responsibility, personal identity, integrity and commitment.

Knefelkamp’s developmental model of instruction is based on the assumption that educators respect student diversity and design their teaching and programs to meet the students’ developmental needs (Moore et al., 1986). Knefelkamp used Perry’s original theory and incorporated other developmental information into it. He infused information from Erikson (1968), Gilligan (1977), Heath (1968), Loevinger (1976) and Lewin (1951) into his interpretation of Perry’s theory. His theory focused on challenge and support of instructional variables. Instructors can adjust the amount of support and challenge for each student and create an individual learning plan that best meets the student’s developmental needs.

Kolb’s Learning Style Theory is the educational theory most cited in the _SCHOLE_ literature (Moore, Riggins, & Sylvester, 1986; Russell & Rothschadl, 1991; Szucs, Hawdon, & McGuire, 2001). Developed by David Kolb (1984), this theory combines both learning theory and individual development theory. Learning is described as a four-step process: (1) **concrete experiences** relating to personal feelings, (2) **reflective observations** or learning behavior through observation, (3) **abstract conceptualizations** requiring an integration of thinking into the development of theories, and (4) **active experimentation** composed of doing and testing what is learned in new and complex settings. Kolb found that learners tended to demonstrate a combination of each learning mode. Noting this he created four classifications of learning styles: (1) accommodator, (2) diverger, (3) converger, and (4) assimilator.

Students who characterize the accommodator style learn through concrete experiences and active experimentation. Recreation students largely showed this learning style in two separate studies (Moore, Riggins, & Sylvester, 1986; Russell & Rothschadl, 1991).
Students preferred hands-on activities using trial and error to solve problems and were seen as risk takers who adapted well to new challenges. Results confirmed that recreation students had statistically different learning styles than students from other majors such as physical education, management, counseling, business, sociology, psychology, and sport management (Moore et al. 1986; Russell & Rothschild, 1991; Szucs, Hawdon, & McGuire, 2001). Interestingly, female students were shown to prefer empirical hands-on learning methods more than male students (Moore et al., 1986; Szucs, 2001). The reliance on personal experiences inherent in this style of learning allows for weaknesses to develop in a student's rational learning abilities. Barnett (1986) noted that students in leisure programs characteristically tended to rely heavily on personal experiences, which fostered the formation of uncritical opinions instead of actual knowledge based on problem-solving techniques. A possible reason that the field of parks and recreation does not have many theories of its own could be traced back to this weakness. Theories are constructed using actual knowledge gleaned from solving problems. If students in parks and recreation are not challenged to critically think using inductive and deductive thinking but are allowed to solely rely on their personal experiences then their abilities to put empirically based information together into sound theories is limited at best. Szucs et al. (2001) noted that park, recreation, tourism and management majors showed comparative weakness in their theory-building ability when compared to students in other majors. It was suggested that instructors provide opportunities for students to strengthen these rational abilities through class assignments and projects. Readers are encouraged to secure copies of Barnett (1986), Kelly (1986), Carpenter (1988), Silverman (1995) and Long (2001) to learn about various additional ways of integrating theory development opportunities into course content.

Figure 1  Kolb's Learning Styles  Adapted from: Kolb, D. A. (1981).
Divergers are like diamonds. These learners possess the ability to look at situations from many perspectives. These learners combine concrete experiences with reflective observation as a means of gathering new knowledge. Students drawing upon this style of learning are imaginative and like to integrate many varied relationships into one meaningful whole. This type of learner prefers brainstorming activities and opportunities to organize information and relationships in ways that provide holistic meaning. In Russell and Rothschild's 1991 study, therapeutic recreation students fell into this type of learning category.

Convergers combine abstract conceptualization with active experimentation. Students using this style of learning possess the strength of practical application and move quickly to find one right answer. Interactions with inanimate objects or things are preferred to communications with other persons. Emotions are removed and replaced with a heavy reliance on logic to solve problems. Activities allowing students to use deductive reasoning, decision-making, and their abilities to define problems are preferred by this style of learner. In Russell and Rothschild's (1991) study of recreation students' styles of learning, the converger style resulted in the lowest percentage (11%) when compared with the other three styles of learning. Students pursuing careers in engineering tend to exhibit this style of learning (Moore et al. 1986).

Assimilators learn best by combining abstract conceptualization and reflective observation. Students using this style have the ability to create theoretical models. They tend to be less concerned with people, like those using the converger style, than abstract concepts.

Physical education and students with other majors in the Russell and Rothschild (1991) study showed a tendency toward being assimilators. More interesting and pertinent to pedagogy are the results that showed two-thirds of the faculty in the study showed this type of reflexive learning style while the majority of students preferred hands-on learning (Moore et al., 1986).

It appears that parks and recreation students prefer active experimentation as a way to learn. Szucs et al. (2001) noted that parks and recreation students tended to favor empirical learning rather than rational learning. Socrates, Plato, Dewey, and Gate's styles and methods would all fit into the theories adhered to by parks and recreation educators and the styles of learning preferred by our students. But are parks and recreation educators walking their talk? Do assignments and classroom activities follow the students' preferred learning style or the instructor's?

Assignments and Activities

Parks and recreation students largely prefer active, engaging assignments and classroom activities. For the most part, educators sharing ideas in SCHOLE have listened to their students and provided them with these types of activities. These same educators, whether they are aware of it or not, have also provided activities corresponding to Kolb's
learning process of concrete experiences, reflective observations, abstract conceptualizations, and active experimentation. The following review includes examples of various learning style activities and assignments reported in *SCHOLE* articles over the years.

**Concrete experiences**

Activities and assignments that are concrete encourage students to relate the information they are learning to their own personal feelings. Henderson and Bialeschki (1997) shared an activity that prompted students to use what they had learned about work and leisure and apply it to their own lives through the creation of a research biography. Students were asked to write about the issues of work and leisure faced by their mothers. Through this “mother” assignment, students integrate course information into their own lives.

An interesting twist to an activity rarely found outside of elementary schools is the introduction of show and tell into the higher education classroom. Long (2001) used this constructivist learning technique in a Foundations of Parks and Recreation course. Students were requested to bring an artifact related to their personal leisure lifestyle to share with the class. These artifacts stimulated questions from the students and encouraged exploration and increased knowledge of topics from a new and varied perspective.

Carpenter (2001) mixed individual, small group, and large group work together in a concrete learning activity related to leisure and quality of life. Students independently ranked listed qualities often included in the definition of quality of life. They were then asked to form small groups to discuss their rankings. Students expressed their feelings and beliefs about the choices they made. A comparison was made between the “experts” rankings, completed in 1972, and the students’ current rankings. For the remainder of the activity students formed large groups and were asked to re-rank the qualities with the intention of coming to a group consensus about the order. Students were encouraged to explore their individual feelings and beliefs as well as those of their classmates’ questions and debates often arose as students struggled with their own personal feelings and those of others.

**Reflective observations**

Reflective learning encourages students to learn behaviors through observation. One of the most reported reflective teaching methods is that of the guest lecturer or speaker. Blazey and James (1994) shared how their use of guest speakers increased students’ awareness of diversity within the profession of parks and recreation. The instructors incorporated guest speakers into their course curriculum in an attempt to expose students to professionals who could potentially become mentors and role models for them. Guest speakers were said to be the “first-point-of-contact” for students exploring the profession. Students not only heard about the various areas and opportunities available to them but also saw professionals with and from whom they could interact and learn.
Other reflective methods of teaching are found in the use of various group projects. Sable, Powell, Hagner, and Lichtenstein (1997) shared their experiences with the incorporation of guest speakers, cooperative learning projects, case method learning, and team building activities for students pursuing a Disabilities Studies Minor. Cooperative learning has been one of the most researched of all teaching methods and is respected for its ability to positively affect "student achievement, student empowerment, and cultural diversity" (p. 55). Team building activities encouraged students to apply the information they had learned in class to solve problems. Students worked in small groups communicating their beliefs, values, and ideas to others. Through these interactions students learned about themselves and others, while gaining knowledge of the skills necessary to work in professional positions. Case method instruction was described as combining case studies with cooperative learning. Students were presented with a case and as a small group (or the entire class) they were asked to identify problems, factors, and the course of action that should be taken to remedy the problem. This mode of learning allowed students to explore their personal selves while learning from others too. It is clear that students not only had opportunities to role model professionals in the field, but also to enhance their own styles and skills while acting as role models for their fellow classmates.

Reflective learning was also discussed in an article by Austin, Perry, Harnishfeger, and McCormick (1999). These authors reported on the use of distance learning and interactive video for teaching therapeutic recreation courses. A total of 19 students who had taken the course and graduated from the institution responded to a survey regarding their satisfaction with the mode of learning. Interestingly, students reported being satisfied with the amount and quality of interaction with fellow students in the course but were least satisfied with the amount of interaction they had with the instructor. A point to ponder surrounds the information that therapeutic recreation majors tend to be divergers in their learning style. This means that they combine concrete experiences with reflective learning. The question then becomes, who are students using as role models and what behaviors are they seeking that were not evident in the use of interactive television?

Other examples of reflective learning methods can be found in the following articles. Bedini, Stone, and Phoenix (2000) report on the use of tutors and/or mentors for professional support and guidance of diverse students. Ethnography was a method introduced to a Leisure and Aging class by Brittan-Rogers (2001). Lastly, Powell (2001) shared information regarding the formation of interdisciplinary or transdisciplinary teams as a way to teach students how to work well with others from differing disciplines.

It is important to remember that reflective learning can be done without the presence of a person. Students are exposed more and more to online courses and the use of computer applications. The first article mentioning the use of computers in the classroom was written by Mihalik in 1989. Although strange to read today because of the common use of computers in our day-to-day lives, the author explained the benefits of using microcomputers, different business software, and applicable hardware to adequately
prepare parks and recreation students to advance in the competitive job market. It was suggested that students become familiar with a word processing program, a spreadsheet program, and a graphics program such as Lotus 1, 2, 3. Computers were again mentioned as teaching tools in an article by Vogt, Hase, Reynolds, and Virden (1996). The authors shared the results of a quasi-experimental study they conducted reporting that students who had been exposed to computers in the classroom performed better and had improved attitudes toward the use of computers. Also in 1996, Love described computer-based learning. She shared that computers could be used as supplements to in class work as well as providing students with opportunities to explore the Internet for more detailed information. Using a computer as a supplement to a course could be a catalyst for discussions and provide vicarious classroom experiences for students enrolled in classes far away from campus. Students were encouraged to learn behaviors, develop skills, and critically analyze information by observing computer images instead of people.

Abstract conceptualizations

Abstract conceptualization involves providing opportunities for the integration of thinking into the development of theories. Designing abstract learning experiences for large classes can be a challenge. However, O'Dell and Siegenthaler (1998) found a way to provide such an experience for a large Introduction to Recreation and Leisure class. Instruction on the implementation of three leisure assessment instruments and a demographic information sheet was provided for the class. Students were then asked to collect information using these tools from at least three generations of family, friends, and acquaintances. Once data were analyzed, the students composed a one-to-two page paper discussing the similarities and differences in leisure attitudes, satisfaction, and perceived freedom. This assignment encouraged the integration of course information, increased class discussion, and enhanced communication with family members. The authors noted that through analyzing family leisure behaviors students “...are better prepared conceptually for advanced recreation and leisure courses, and...they have practiced critical thinking skills” (p. 30).

Several professionals in the field have called for a return to the use of humanities as a method of teaching the meaning of leisure to students (Lehey, 1991; Parr & Mathieu, 2000; Estes, 2000; Russell, 2001). Literature can be used as a means of understanding leisure and the recreation profession. Lehey (1991) suggested that literature be used in a course designed to teach students about ethics. She found that actual case studies and true occurrences worked better than fictional ones in providing students opportunities to apply information to resolving ethical dilemmas.

Parr and Matheiu (2000) advocated the use of metaphors as a way to encourage abstract conceptualization by students. Metaphors are used in day to day living and act as a means of categorizing the world. Students learned abstract thinking by beginning to analyze the true meanings of the metaphors. This ability was then transferred to topics in leisure and recreation allowing for the development of theory building skills.
Estes (2000) shared her frustration and fear that students were unable to provide and defend a definition for leisure. She proposed that the reason this was occurring was that students lacked the tools and a sense on connection between leisure and theory. Using humanities as a method of teaching offered students opportunities to develop a language with which to discuss leisure and the information necessary to create and defend a personal philosophy of leisure. The humanities provided students with a worldview that incorporated history, philosophy, and literature.

Last but not least, Russell (2001) expanded the definition of humanities to include poetry, painting, sculpture, and literature. Through the experience of thinking about a work or art students were exposed to the "...experiments of living" (p. 74) and could themselves experience the cultural, social, and historical aspects of leisure. Students were encouraged to think about what they were seeing, feeling, hearing, or reading. This in turn assisted them in the integration and development of theories based on their own interpretations of the past and present. Lehey summed up support for the use of humanities in teaching by saying that "exploring leisure through the humanities is leisure itself" (Russell, 2001, p. 81).

The use of portfolios has become quite a popular way of assisting students with the integration of information and the development of theories. The first mention of portfolios as a means to document student development of competence and knowledge came in 1996 in an article authored by DeGraaf and Jordan. Instead of focusing on competence and knowledge in one course or topic, portfolios were used to assist students in the overall planning and documentation of their career paths.

Anderson, Schroeder, and Anderson (2001) used portfolios as a means of advising students. The portfolios were used to assist students in developing a sense of self responsibility for their professional development, increasing students' organizational and planning skills, promoting reflection and self assessment of the knowledge gathered, and documenting professional goals and outcomes. It was suggested that portfolio assignments be spread across the curriculum to allow students to witness and document changes in abilities and skills.

Active experimentation

Active experimentation involves doing and testing what is learned in new and complex settings. As was reported earlier in this paper, these are the favored activities and assignments of the majority of recreation students. Active experimentation exercises have been created and reported for various courses supplementing core recreation and leisure courses. For example, Barnett (1986) reported on the use of quality claims made in television commercial as a way to motivate students in a research methods class. Students tested the better taste claims made by Coke against their rival Pepsi as well as claims of a softer product made by the maker of White Cloud toilet tissue. By encouraging students to actively design and carry out their own research they were able to test and apply the knowledge they gathered in class.
Similarly, Ward (1994) suggested providing students with field-based assignments that allowed them opportunities to test classroom knowledge in the real world. Service learning has taken a front seat in the instructional methods category. Ralston and Ellis (1997) were the first to report on service learning in *SCHOLE.* Appropriately used, service learning offers opportunities for students to work in the community while learning skills they will need as a professional in the field. Both the community and the student benefit from such experiential learning situations.

Williams and Lankford (1999) reported on the increased use of service learning as a teaching method in higher education. They shared the pros and cons of service learning. The benefits revolve around the experiential nature of the activity for the student, while the barriers include institutional resistance, legal issues, and public perception. Once these barriers are overcome, the benefits of service learning activities for the student far outweigh the challenges.

Estes, Wilson, and Toupence (2001) described ways to structure and orchestrate service-learning projects. By matching the students' skills, abilities, and knowledge to the appropriate community site, students are offered better opportunities to learn and develop.

Activities and assignments do not need to be as complex and require as much preparation time as service learning does. Clayton (2001) reported on the use of a paper airplane activity to teach students about the meanings of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as well as perceptions of freedom and actual freedom of participation. Students actively participated with and without instructions in this activity that required them to explore the deeper meanings of terms common to the field. Students were forced to examine their perceptions of freedom and the actual freedom they had within the structure of the activity. They evaluated what the activity was like when there were no rules and when rules had been placed on the activity. Through active engagement with the information students were better able to decipher situations related to each term presented.

Similar to making airplanes, Long (2001) noted how incorporating show and tell activities into a higher education classroom could assist in abstract and critical thinking. This constructivist activity allowed students the opportunity to bring a leisure artifact to class and share its meaning with others. Through this activity students began to search for the meaning of leisure in their own life. The artifacts and examples also provided references for further discussion of leisure philosophy and history.

Television and movies seem to provide opportunities for students to engage with information in a different way. Barnett (1986) used television commercials as a means of teaching research methods. As mentioned earlier, students tested the claims of commercials such as White Cloud toilet tissue and Coke versus Pepsi. In 1994, Ward suggested using television shows and movies as a way for students to become familiar with diversity and inclusion issues. Having students review television and movies led to increased discussion in class and provided a point of reference when discussing certain topics. Ardovino (2001) described the incorporation of the television show *Star Trek* as
a means to teach students about important leisure concepts. The students were divided into five groups and given identities of five civilizations found in the television series. Students were then instructed to learn as much as possible about their civilization with questions being provided that guided them to investigate components of leisure behavior. Once the information was gathered, students reported on their findings and discussions took place regarding how this information applied to concepts of leisure. Television and movies provided students with a visual, auditory, and experiential basis in which to apply concept and ideas that they were learning in class.

It appears that creativity and diversity in assignments and activities is not a problem for professionals writing for SCHOLE. To sum up what is known to this point, most recreation students prefer experiential learning activities and are weak in abstract theory building skills and abilities. Professors of recreation are using a variety of instructional methods to instruct recreation students and assist them in developing the critical thinking skills necessary to become professionals in the field. The question now turns to, “What does the SCHOLE literature say about good teaching of students in field of recreation and parks”?

**Good Teaching**

Goodale (1987) noted that universities did not adequately acknowledge and reward good teaching. One of the reasons he felt this way was that there was a lack of agreed upon criteria for quality with which to measure teaching success. He proposed that teachers begin to focus their attention on how they responded to and graded students’ work. Goodale believed that teachers were responsible for and to their students and graduates, the ideas, traditions, and purpose of the college or university, the career and professional fields that their graduates enter, and to society and the culture as a whole. Teachers must know that students have the right to objective content and assessment of mastery of it. Students have the right to differential recognition and reward according to their mastery of the subject studied. If standards are low and there is little discrimination in evaluation then grades become meaningless. If grades are meaningless then Goodale suggested certificates and degrees become meaningless. Allowing students to own their grades places the responsibility and rewards for effort where they should be...on the student. He believed that grades are earned, not given, and that professors must respect that.

Ward (1994) agreed with Goodale. Making certain that grading criteria are clear assists students for whom English is not a primary language. Crompton (1998) also agreed that a good professor in the field sets the standards high and challenges students to meet the standards. Standards and expectations must be high if students are to stretch to their fullest potential. Crompton states, “through being intellectually challenged, students find out who they are” (p. 83).

Beck (1991) addressed the publish or perish situation that exists in many universities. He noted that although college professors are paid to teach, many are not trained to
do so. There is much evidence that the assumption that holding a Ph.D. makes one qualified to teach is not correct. Professors in parks and recreation often have degrees in education with specializations in recreation or are graduates from health, physical education, and recreation programs that include some education courses. Due to this, teachers in parks and recreation may be better equipped than professors in other disciplines to teach effectively (p. 27).

Beck finishes his article by suggesting that tangible rewards be given to faculty as a means of encouraging commitment to effective teaching. The Chancellor of the State University of New York reported that giving tenure to a quality teacher whose scholarship was adequate was one way of sending the message to other faculty that teaching is just as important as service and research. Beck concludes by saying, “Teaching, when pursued seriously, is a demanding endeavor, equivalent in complexity and importance to publication, and deserving of equal rewards” (p. 31).

Russell and Rothschadl (1991) stated that, “Faculty have attempted to be more effective through a variety of methods: revising curricula, expanding academic requirements, raising program admission GPA’s, strengthening general education coursework, and testing for proficiency as a condition of graduation” (p. 35). What has been overlooked however is the way students learn. To be a quality professor they suggest that institutions provide professional development activities related to learning more about learning styles, promote classroom research; provide opportunities for students to learn how to learn better, and making sure that new faculty come into their position with a basic understanding of individual learning styles and practices.

Teaching style, enthusiasm, empathy, and choices of course content (Entwistle, 1981, as cited in Szucs, et al. 2001) were all identified as factors necessary for professors to provide for successful learning. However, the burden of successful learning is shared with students. Students’ learning style, motivation and intellectual skills play a role in the success or failure to learn. Teacher and student learning styles should be determined at the beginning of the course to identify strengths and weaknesses in the four areas specified by Kolb’s theory. Adaptations can then be made to the course content, assignments, and presentation that will allow for the best opportunity for all students to increase their knowledge. It should be noted that some common practices such as providing syllabi on the first day of class might need to be changed if professors are going to provide opportunities for all students to learn to the best of their abilities.

Wilkins (2001) shared that there are many ways to teach, learn, and know. Providing students with a sense of uniqueness, both for you and for them individually, allows students to explore diversity in a safe environment. Difference does not need to mean dominance or subordination but can be stimulating and engaging opportunities for learning. Treating students and fellow faculty with respect and integrity allows for community to develop. In this community everyone can grow. Wilkins believed the really important thing was to be as clear and honest as possible, and to share and mentor one another (p. 135).
Ward (1994) shared that “many faculty have been unable or unwilling to make the changes necessary to address the needs of today’s diverse college student” (p. 73). By resisting change Ward believed faculty would be unable to effectively cope with the changing diversity within university settings. She suggested faculty become more inclusive in their teaching by doing the following things: (1) get to know your students, (2) make assignments relevant to the students, (3) make sure that the grading criteria is clear, (4) be prepared to explain jargon and academic terms, (5) discuss assignments in class to clear up any confusion, (6) add variety by using different teaching methods, and (7) start off slowly when developing units that make you uncomfortable. Ward concludes the article with a reminder that leisure studies and recreation professionals have a history and field of practice that encourages taking a leadership role in the creation of supportive, equitable, and enlightening learning environments (p. 77).

Lastly, Kerstetter (2000) outlined six fundamental principles of teaching: (1) communication, (2) clarity of purpose, (3) what works for one student may not for another, (4) no class, lecture or assignment is ever perfect, (5) having a sense of humor, and (6) enjoying and respecting the students. These principles have provided her with a framework in which to teach effectively. Caution is urged in overanalyzing teaching in this humorous statement, “Asking teachers how to teach is like asking caterpillars how they walk – thinking about it too much could cause them to trip over their own feet” (Secor, 1995, as cited by Kerstetter, 2000, p. 105).

She imparts, “the greatest teachers have passion, which is shared through educating others” (p. 108) beyond that teaching is an art that cannot be broken into a set of rules or prescriptions to be followed by all (Emerson & Plank, 1995, as cited in Kerstetter, 2000).

To summarize, being a quality professor in the field involves discipline of yourself and the students being taught. It also involves values clarification, knowledge of self, and the ability to step outside of the historical way of doing things to take risks and get to know the individual learning needs and styles of the students. A sense of community with other scholars as well as within the classroom can add to the quality and effectiveness of a professor. Finally, keeping the passion for learning and exploring life alive and accessible to students is vitally important to superior teaching. Future research focusing on faculty trends in other disciplines would be interesting.

Conclusion

Socrates, Plato, Dewey, and Gates...perhaps all of their pedagogical approaches are correct. Socrates use of questioning corresponds to Kolb’s assimilator learning style by encouraging inductive and deductive reasoning. Plato’s methods of trial and error using play and hands on learning match Kolb’s accommodator learning style. Service learning opportunities provide students with every day experiences in which to try out their newly gained knowledge. Dewey’s methods were similar to service learning and
equate to Kolb’s diverger style of learning. Lastly, using the computer as a tool for
learning has provided students immediate access to information and opportunities to
feed their motivation for learning. Kolb referred to students seeking answers to how
questions as convergers and Gates promotion of computers in higher education would
certainly support growth of students drawing on this style of learning. There is no one
right way to teach. Learning takes various forms for different people. As a professor,
being aware of your own learning style, being flexible and willing to change plans, and
adjusting routines to meet students needs will increase the effectiveness of teaching.
There is no one right way to teach. However, variety seems to be a key to successful
teaching and learning. Henderson and Bialeschki (1997) said it best when they wrote,
“People learn...10% of what they read, 20% of what they hear...70% of what they dis-
cuss, and 80% of what they experience” (p. 102).

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