

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESIDENTIAL ADULT LEARNING IN THE FBI NATIONAL
ACADEMY LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AND THE IMPACT ON PARTICIPANT'S
ATTITUDE OF SATISFACTION

By

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(ABSTRACT)

Using the Federal Bureau of Investigation's (FBI) 212th session of the National Academy, a residential adult learning environment, as a case study and the 1996 research on participant's perception of residential adult learning environments by Dr. Jean Anderson Fleming, this study examined the relationship among the characteristics (overarching themes: detachment and continuity and descriptive themes: building relationships in residence, learning in residence, and individual change in residence) and how this relationship impacts the participant's attitude of satisfaction with the program.

A 33-item Likert scale, developed by the researcher, was used to collect the data from 244 police officers and the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale was used for measuring the overall participant attitude of satisfaction with the residential learning environment. Demographic data were also collected from the participants to provide an overall profile of the respondents and each police officer had the opportunity to respond to an open-ended question at the end of the survey.

Six hypotheses formed the basis of the study and were investigated through bivariate and multivariate analysis. Univariate analysis was used to describe and summarize the collected demographic data, as well as the frequency responses to each statement by the participants, while multivariate analysis was used to determine the best model for the prediction of satisfaction.

Positive relationships existed between each of the five independent variables (detachment, continuity, building relationships in residence, learning in residence, and individual change in residence) and the dependent variable, satisfaction. The overarching themes of detachment and continuity were combined to form a new variable, DECONTI. Individually, (bivariate regression) DECONTI was the most significant predictor of satisfaction, while building relationships in residence exhibited no significance. Multivariate analysis (standard and stepwise regression) suggested that the model of DECONTI, learning in residence, and individual change was the best predictor of satisfaction.

The analysis of the characteristics of residential adult learning environments and their impact on participant satisfaction was quantitatively supported in this study. The results of this study supported the assertions of Fleming, the literature, and the research questions, while offering new observations and insights into the effectiveness of residential adult learning environments.

DEDICATION

Dedicated to my wife Sue and son Brian, whose unwavering support made this journey possible!

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CHAPTER I

THE PROPOSAL

Introduction

In the fall of 1851, an out of work teacher named Christian Kold opened a school which, with the volunteer help of neighbors, he had built from salvaged and hand-hewn materials on a run-down farm at Ryslinge, Denmark. The building had a single sleeping loft for teachers and students, a kitchen, a living room, and one meeting room. Fifteen students enrolled the first winter (Alford, 1966, p. 1).

The contemporary Danish folk high school (“Peoples High School”) is recognized by historians as an outgrowth of that first school opened by Kold, which was based on the philosophical principles developed by Bishop N. F. S. Grundtvig. Grundtvig, “who was born in 1783 as a son of a Danish country priest and who died in 1872 as a great bard, historian, theologian, and educator” (Kulich, 1984, p. 10), laid out his educational philosophy in a series of essays [*Nordic Mythology* (1832), *The Danish Four-Leaf Clover* (1836), *The School for Life and the Academy of Soro* (1838)] published in the mid-nineteenth century. Grundtvig had railed against the established formal education that existed in Denmark. He envisioned a “people’s school” built around the “living word” and the common culture of the Danish rural inhabitants. The four critical elements that anchored Grundtvig’s concept of a folk high school are “that the school should be a school for life...should be historical-poetical...should be *folkelig*...and that it should be a residential school for adults” (Kulich, 1984, p. 10).

Over one hundred and fifty years later, and worlds apart, large, contemporary multi-bed conference centers managed by universities, corporations, governmental organizations, and private enterprises are still organizing and managing residential learning environments for adult learners. For example, this researcher recently received a flyer in the mail announcing the opening of “The Conference Center Niagara Falls” in May 2004. The flyer read, “Inspired by the magnificence of Niagara Falls, The Conference Center Niagara Falls is designed to provide meeting professionals with a technologically advanced, sensibly priced venue for your most important meetings and events” (Flyer in the mail, visit www.niagarafalls-cc.com).

Although the term *residential adult education* is not often used in contemporary terminology, the residential adult educational settings have contributed and played a significant role in how adults learn and enhance their personal experience (Buskey, 1990; Cohen & Piper, 2000; Houle, 1971; Fleming, 1996, 1998; Schacht, 1957, 1960; Simpson & Kasworm, 1990).

As suggested by Buskey (1990), who echoed the earlier thoughts of Livingstone (1945), “residential adult education has its roots in three concepts: adult students, who are the participants involved in the learning activities; residence, which means that the participants live and eat together in a common facility; and education, which is the spiritual aim of the experience” (p. 15).

In 1935, the first National Police Training School, later named the Federal Bureau of Investigation’s (FBI) National Academy, a residential adult learning environment, began operation in Washington, D.C., and twelve weeks later graduated its first class of police officers. The early content focus was on police administration, police problems, and practical training exercises, which later formed the curriculum basis for the current FBI National Academy

(FBINA). In 1972, the FBI Academy, with federal funding to build a new agent training facility and to relocate the FBINA, opened its doors on the United States Marine Corps Base (USMC) Quantico, Virginia. The participants are primarily sworn law enforcement officers from the United States, but approximately twenty percent of the student population is comprised of international police officers. The FBINA provides the context of focus for this present study.

Since 1972, the current FBINA has incorporated the three basic concepts outlined by Buskey (1990) and Livingstone (1945): first, the student, law enforcement officers seeking to enhance their learning; second, residence, the FBI Academy, where the participants (students) reside, share meals, and gather in common facilities; and third, education, the law enforcement participants are there to enhance their professional knowledge and skills, while sharing their experiences with the faculty, staff, and law enforcement peers.

Advocates of residential adult education have offered a strong position that residential environments enhance the adult learning process, while suggesting the need for additional qualitative and quantitative research (Buskey, 1990; Cohen & Piper, 2000; Houle, 1971; Fleming, 1996, 1998; Schacht, 1957, 1960; Simpson & Kasworm, 1990). Fleming (1996) suggested that the effectiveness of the residential environment should be tested in a variety of contexts with a variety of participants. It is the position of this researcher that much of the recent research into the effectiveness of residential adult learning environments has been qualitative in nature and that there is a need for additional quantitative research. Another important consideration, central to this research, is the choice of the residential learning environment. This environment consisted of the FBI National Academy and its participants, the domestic and international police officers. The FBI National Academy is a legitimate example of a residential adult learning environment.

In the United States, numerous examples of residential adult education exist. These include: the folk schools imported by the religious Danish immigrants, the early Chautauqua and Lyceum movements in the mid-to-late nineteenth century, the Americanized folk high schools of the 1920s and 1930s, university programs in the late 1930s and 1940s, the Centers for Continuing Education sponsored by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation in the 1950s, the modern day conference/resort training centers, and other residential adult programs such as the Baccalaureate College of Lesley College in Massachusetts (Alford, 1969; Buskey, 1990; Cohen & Piper, 2000; Fleming, 1996, 1998, 1998; Houle, 1971; Schacht, 1957, 1960; Simpson & Kasworm, 1990).

Simpson and Kasworm (1990) indicated that the 1990s offered adults a variety of opportunities to learn, one of those options being the residential adult environment (p. 3). The authors used the metaphor “learning sanctuary” in describing the residential adult learning environment, a place for adult interaction and learning that offered safety and protection from outside distraction and interferences. It was a “retreat or escape from the maelstrom of daily life” (p. 3). The learning sanctuary provided adults an opportunity to reflect on the learning process as well as for personal growth and change.

Fleming (1996) further suggested that the residential adult environment had a “magical” quality, a unique interplay between the participant and the residential learning environment. Some recent research has focused on qualitative approaches to residential adult learning environments (Cohen & Piper, 2000; Fleming 1996, 1997, 1998; Horn 1995). Cohen and Piper (2000), for example, using a case study/narrative approach, observed a “personal transformation” among the adult participants enrolled in the Adult Baccalaureate College of Lesley College in Cambridge, Massachusetts in line with Mezirow’s (1990) theory of transformational learning. The adult students in their study shared “the common theme of an unfinished education” usually

for a variety of reasons (p. 206). Through self-narrative, the participants shared their experiences of the adult learning process and the personal change and self-reflection that occurred in the residential setting (pp. 205-206). The residential environment defined by Cohen and Piper would support Mezirow's (2000) contention that individuals exhibit "an urgent need to understand and order the meaning of our experience," which is "why it is so important that adult learning emphasize contextual understanding, critical reflection on assumptions, and validating meaning by assessing reason" (p. 3). The residential experience seems to offer the setting, a place, where the experiences can be shared. One of the key points that seems to emerge from the literature is that residential adult learning environments indeed work. Many professionals in the field of adult education are of the position that residential education presents a positive and successful learning environment for adults (Buskey, 1990; Cohen & Piper, 2000; Fleming, 1996, 1997, 1998; Houle, 1971; Schacht, 1957, 1960; Simpson & Kasworm, 1990).

Numerous other examples of residential learning abound. One example is in the field of residential environmental education, in which teachers accompany adolescents throughout the learning activity. Dettman-Easler and Pease (1996, 1999) stated "residential environmental education programs are programs in which teachers take students to a location and spend at least one night" (p. 41). Normally the accommodations are rustic cabins or retreat type facilities, but students eat, sleep, and have groups activities associated with the residential environment. The authors stressed that the "teachers in our study believe that residential programs provide students with a valuable and unforgettable experience" (p. 41). Ward (1976) conducted a study in which adults, surveyed years after the residential environmental experience, recalled specific exercises and events in which they had participated.

Other residential experiences focus on both adults and adolescents with problems of substance abuse, mental retardation, and physical disabilities (Merriam & Brockett, 1997, p. 20). There are other residential programs that focus specifically on the elderly and rehabilitation in "elderhostels" (Fisher & Wolf, 2000, pp. 480-492), and in the field of corrections "boot camps" for non-career criminals (Davidson, 2000, pp. 392-497; Wolford, 1989, pp. 356-368).

The expansive variety of residential programs has led to some confusion in describing the residential adult learning experience. As Fleming (1996, p. 1) cited "a lack of clarity about the central concepts of learning in residence, as well as a lack of empirical research" has led to concerns about the importance of residential experience in the adult learning process. It is difficult to describe one residential experience and apply it "across the board" to all adult residential learning experiences but is worth investigating how much of what we understand about residential adult learning applies to different contexts. The Baccalaureate College of Lesley College, mentioned earlier in the Introduction, is an example, of residential learning helping experienced adults finish their undergraduate degrees. The FBINA, the focus of the present study, is an example of a different type of long-term residential adult learning environment with its emphasis on professional law enforcement training and education.

Fleming's (1996, p. 8) qualitative study sought to "understand more fully the residential experience" especially through the "perceptions" of the participants and how these impressions compared with the literature on residential adult education. She developed a "framework of characteristics of residential learning," derived from multiple sources: Schacht's (1957, 1960) analysis and interpretation of residential adult education; the assessment and overview of Houle (1971), which described "the essential ideas of the European conception as they have evolved through practice and through a voluminous literature" (p. 13); and the investigations of Buskey (1970, 1990), as well as Simpson and Kasworm (1990) on the "rebirth" of the residential

conference center. Fleming cited the Summer 1990 volume of the New Directions For Adult and Continuing Education, higher education series, *Revitalizing the Residential Conference Center Environment* and her experience as an adult educator as the impetus for her study.

To review Fleming's foundation: Schacht (1957) identified six "values of residence" that define the "special virtue" of residential adult education: (a) detachment, (b) environment break, (c) concentration, (d) time, (e) intimacy, and (f) community (pp. 341-346). Fleming, used Schacht's assertions and the "Essentials of the European Conception" identified by Houle, namely: (a) "requires its own physical facilities, (b) myriad forms of sponsorship, (c) strong central purpose...sense of mission, (d) strongly humanistic quality, (e) separate identity of its own, (f) composed of a small enough group...may establish...identity within it, (g) fosters a sense of community...leads the individual to enlarge his knowledge of others, (h) complete break from the normal processes of life, (i) purpose...is wholly educational, and (j) the participants in residential adult education are expected to become better citizens of their nation and of the world" (Houle, 1971, pp. 13-19), developed her "Framework of Characteristics of Residential Adult Education" and listed them as follows: "(a) detachment from the familiar, (b) personal growth and identity, (c) learning domains and process, (d) impact of time, (e) sense of community and fellowship, and (f) environment (Fleming, 1998, p. 261). These six characteristics synthesized the literature that defined the residential experience and formed the basis for Fleming's study. Although the terminology may differ based on the contextual orientation of the residential experience, the essential components as defined by Schacht (1957, 1960) and Houle (1971) remain remarkably similar in definition and direction. Referring to the earlier comments of Buskey (1990), the conceptual roots of adult residential learning environments consist of three areas: adult students, residence, and education.

Figure 1 depicts the conceptual migration of Fleming's "Framework of Characteristics of Residential Adult Education" as synthesized from the work of Schacht (1957), Houle (1971), and the literature.

Fleming (1996) suggested three areas for further study: (a) additional research into the perceptions of participants about the residential experience, especially participants within different demographics and contexts, (b) a call for a new "in-depth" look at the "Matrix of Key Elements of the Residential Learning Experience" (see Table 1 & 2) based on the descriptive and overarching themes, and (c) additional research into the historical context and significance of the "Danish folk high schools" especially as they impact the American experience (p. 360).

"The purpose of the matrix is to illustrate connections that create and shape the residential participant experience, based on the perceptions and the literature of residential education" (p. 358). Fleming constructed the "matrix" with the overarching themes heading the rows, while the descriptive themes head the columns that depict and demonstrate the interrelationship between the "25 key elements" (p. 358-359). For the purpose of this study, the researcher has divided the key elements into two Tables (1 & 2), one is for detachment and the second is for continuity.

This research embraces Fleming's suggestions addressing participants from different demographics and contexts (in this case, law enforcement and the FBINA), and affords a more in-depth look at the "Matrix of Key Elements of the Residential Learning" as it pertains to the participant's perception of the effectiveness of the FBINA as an adult learning environment. The research also heeds the call for more quantitatively based research.

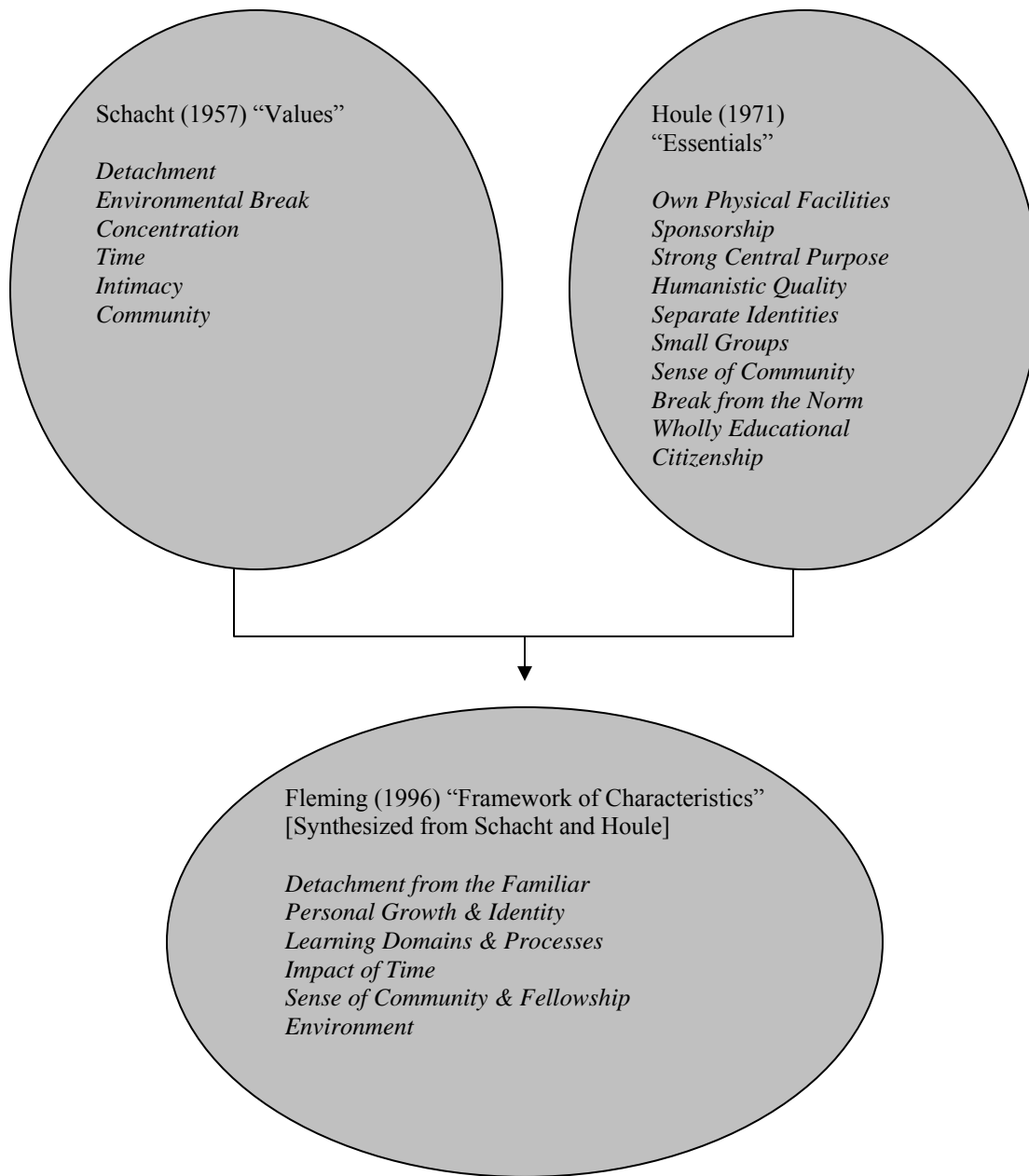


Figure 1: Characteristics of Residential Adult Education – A Conceptual Migration

Table 1

“Matrix of Key Elements of Residential Learning” - Detachment

<i>Overarching Theme of Residential Learning</i>	<i>Descriptive Theme of Residential Learning</i>	<i>Descriptive Theme of Residential Learning</i>	<i>Descriptive Theme of Residential Learning</i>	
Detachment	Building Relationships in Residence	Learning in Residence	Individual Change – During Program	Individual Change – After the Program
	Relationships are intense	More opportunities exist for learning	Participants loosen-up	Participants experience personal transformation
	Relationships are personal	Free time exists for learning	Participants act youthful	Participants change their values
	Relationships are unavoidable	Participants learn through being immersed	Participants feel safe	Participants change lifestyles
	Relationships develop with different people	Participants learning by having fun and playing	Participants are creative	
	Participants are seen in context	Participants learn through interpersonal relationships	Participants expand self-awareness	
	Participants drop their facades	Participants learn about themselves	Participants become more accepting of residential programs	
	Participants become interdependent	Participants learn about themselves		

The key elements associated with “detachment” and each of the descriptive themes is integrated within Table 1. Fleming (1996) suggested that the two overarching themes (detachment and continuity) are intertwined with the descriptive themes (building relationships in residence, learning in residence, and individual change). In Table 2, the descriptive themes are integrated about the overarching theme of continuity.

A closer inspection of the two Tables (1 & 2) reflects the apparent associations (relationships) between the overarching and descriptive themes. In Chapter Four, using bivariate and multivariate analysis, this study will analyze the relationships depicted in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 2

“Matrix of Key Elements of Residential Learning” - Continuity

<i>Overarching Theme of Residential Learning</i>	<i>Descriptive Theme of Residential Learning</i>	<i>Descriptive Theme of Residential Learning</i>	<i>Descriptive Theme of Residential Learning</i>	
Continuity	Building Relationships in Residence	Learning in Residence	Individual Change – During the Program	Individual Change – After the Program
	Relationships develop through intimate living	More opportunities to learn	Participants are creative	Participants experience personal transformation
	Relationships develop through informal bonding	Free time exists for learning	Participants expand self-awareness	Participants change values
	Participants drop their facades	Participants learn through being immersed	Participants become more accepting of their residential programs	Participants change lifestyles
	Participants are personal	Participants learn through interpersonal relationships		
	Participants are intense	Participants learn by being stretched beyond personal comfort zones		
	Participants are seen in context	Participants learn through group reinforcement		

Personal Perspective

The predicate for this study is based on a research article by Fleming published in the professional journal, *Adult Education Quarterly* (1998). In her research study, Fleming (1996, 1998) discussed participant perceptions of selected residential adult learning short-term programs and how those perceptions compare with the existing literature. The research interested me because of my simultaneous study of the history of American adult education, particularly the Highlander Folk School and its founder, Myles Horton. Horton and Highlander were cited in Fleming’s work, as American examples of the Danish folk high school concept, which stimulated an interest in the phenomenon of the residential experience. In Chapter II (Review of the Literature), the origin and development of the Danish folk high school is explained and traced from its European beginnings to the United States.

From 1987 - 2003, I worked and taught at the FBI Academy. One of the major programs offered at the FBI Academy is the FBI National Academy (FBINA), which is a ten-week residential adult learning program for senior law enforcement officers throughout the world. The

FBINA program is accredited (undergraduate and graduate) by the University of Virginia (UVA), located in Charlottesville, Virginia. Each year the FBI Academy hosts four National Academy (NA) sessions with approximately 270 police officers in each session. [See Appendix A for a more detailed description of the FBINA and its history dating back to 1935.] Over the years, as a UVA adjunct faculty instructor, I have taught and interacted with more than 1,000 FBINA participants in class as well as in extended learning experiences, and have directly observed the importance and significance of the residential environment in the learning process of these adult law enforcement officers. The National Academy (NA) students lived, ate, studied, and socially interacted together with other students and faculty. In discourse with NA students, it was not uncommon for teacher and student to discuss the importance and significance of the residential learning environment through the formal learning in the classroom and informal learning in small group discussions outside of class.

The importance and significance of the FBINA residential environment resonated with Fleming's research and the research of others. Complemented by my own studies (See Appendix B: Expanded Personal Perspective), these forces have led me to further examine the characteristics of residential learning environments.

Statement of the Problem

Historically, proponents of residential adult learning have claimed that certain characteristics of residential learning provided an environment suitable for adult learning. In the 1950's, Schacht (1957), Siegle (1956), Pitkin (1956), building on the mid-nineteenth century Danish folk high school concept, advocated residence education as an important part of the adult learning process. Schacht (1957, 1960) observed that residential education was congruent with the principles of adult learning and very workable method for helping adults learn. The author suggested that there were certain inherent "values" in residential education that collectively offer a positive adult learning environment. Siegle (1956) was convinced that residential education was a unique and effective educational process, while Pitkin (1956) argued that the residential education backdrop supported the educational effort.

In the 1950s, these three individuals were the leading proponents of the residential education movement, while there were other practitioners that questioned the empirical significance of the residential experience (Kafka, 1970 & Kafka and Griffin, 1984).

In the 1990s, residential adult learning environments (conference centers) emerged in the marketplace as well as new proponents in the literature (Buskey, 1990; Fleming 1996, 1998; Simpson & Kasworm, 1990), but as Fleming (1996, 1998) suggested many of the previous misgivings and concerns existed regarding the clear understanding of the residential learning process and the need was voiced for further empirical research to more clearly understand the characteristics of residential adult learning environments and the role played by the residential participants (Fleming, 1996, p. 1). Even with the long and established history and recent research into the effectiveness of residential adult learning environments, there appears to be a lack of quantitative studies assessing the characteristics of adult learning in residence and the participant's general reaction (satisfaction) with the learning environment.

As continuing professional education develops throughout the 21st century, the need to further define and clarify the contributions of adult residential experiences in a variety of contexts exists. The need for further research demonstrating these contributions is also essential. This study responds to this calling. The FBINA, as a case study, offered a unique opportunity to

observe and collect data during a ten-week residential adult environment with law enforcement participants. The results of this research will add to the relevant knowledge base of residential adult learning environments and hopefully provide empirical data that will refine the use of residential education for adults (Buskey, 1990; Fleming, 1996, 1998; Simpson & Kasworm, 1990).

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

Using the FBINA and its participants as a case study, the purpose of this study is to more clearly understand the relationship among the characteristics of residential adult learning environments as described by Fleming (1996, 1998) and how this relationship impacts the participant's perception of satisfaction of the residential adult learning environment.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study are centered upon the relationship between the overarching and descriptive themes (Fleming, 1996) and the overall participant's perception of satisfaction of the residential adult experience. The hypotheses are designed to examine, (a) the relationships between and among the overarching and descriptive themes and (b) their association with the participant's overall perception of satisfaction. The general research questions are as follows:

1. As defined by Fleming (1996, 1998), is there a positive relationship (association) between the two overarching themes of detachment and continuity and the three descriptive themes: building relationships, learning in residence, and individual change?
2. Is there a positive relationship (association) between the two overarching and three descriptive themes and the participant's perception of satisfaction with the FBINA learning experience?
3. What is the strength of the relationship between each individual theme and the themes in combination with each other to the participant's overall satisfaction?

Based on the three research questions above, six different hypotheses have been developed that will form the basis of this study. The five independent variables are the overarching themes: (a) detachment and (b) continuity plus the descriptive themes: (c) building relationships, (d) learning in residence, and (e) individual change (Fleming, 1996, 1998). As measured by the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale, the dependent variable is the participant's perception of satisfaction within the FBINA residential learning environment.

Hypothesis

The principal research hypothesis for this study is the following:

1. There is a positive relationship between measures of the overarching themes: detachment and continuity, measures of the three descriptive themes: building relationships, learning in residence, and individual change and the measure of the overall participant's perception satisfaction in the residential adult learning environment. These themes (characteristics) were tested individually and collectively

to assess the measure of the relationship between the themes and the participant's perception of satisfaction.

A focus of this study is to determine if the two overarching and three descriptive themes (Fleming 1996, 1998) have a positive association with the overall participant's perception of satisfaction determined by the Kropp-Verner Scale and the relative importance of the themes to satisfaction.

Assumptions

The FBINA represents a case study of participants in a residential adult learning environment that meets the basic criteria outlined by the literature. As mentioned earlier, Buskey (1990) listed the three conceptual anchors of an adult residential environment, which include the adult participant (law enforcement officer), the residential environment (the FBI Academy Complex), and the educational program (the curriculum sanctioned by the UVA). The FBINA is an example of the many diversified residential programs in the United States. As a law enforcement-training academy, which brings together police officers worldwide, there are four basic assumptions that will guide this study:

1. In the FBINA, each participant is a sworn law enforcement officer in his or her respective jurisdiction. It assumes that they have met the criteria for certification in their communities to enforce the law. It differentiates the police officer from the civilian personnel who also work in the various police agencies.
2. Each participant has met the basic qualifications and requirements for selection to the FBINA, which include an in-depth application process, background investigation, and security clearance. This assists in the development of the FBINA curriculum and the dissemination of "law enforcement sensitive" information.
3. Each participant willingly accepted the appointment to the FBINA as an important step in his or her professional growth and progress. In many police agencies, attendance at the FBINA is necessary, or at least, criteria for promotion or advancement within the department.
4. Approximately 75% of the FBINA participants have undergraduate degrees and many have graduate degrees, which increases the level of delivered educational content and reduces the chance of confusion when taking the survey instrument.

Limitations

For the purposes of this study, it was important to establish certain limitations as boundaries for the research. They include:

1. This study is limited to the sworn police officers, participants (students) that attended the FBINA located at Quantico, Virginia.
2. This study is limited to the 244 participants of the 212th Session of the FBINA from January through March 2003.
3. This study is limited by the ten-week length of each session of the FBINA.
4. This study only looked at the characteristics of residential adult learning environments in relation to the overall satisfaction of the participant with the FBINA program.

As discussed earlier, the FBINA is offered four times per year. The selection criteria used by the FBI Field Offices is standard and all participants regardless of their geographic location must meet the same standards for selection. For the international law enforcement students, it is important that they are able to speak, read, and write the English language. Given the general standards applied to all participants, each Session of the FBINA is very similar in its population.

Definition of Terms

As previously mentioned, one of the difficulties with an analysis of residential adult education is the “lack of clarity of the term and the concept...” (Fleming, 1996, 1998). For the purposes of this study, it is important to define the folk high school, residential adult learning environments, its characteristics, the FBINA, the participants, and other important and significant terms, phrases, and academic works. For a complete “Glossary,” see Appendix A.

Adult Education means many things to different individuals. Knowles (1980) suggested that adult education has “at least three different meanings. In the broadest sense, the term describes a process—the process of adult learning” (p. 25). Adult learning spans the breadth of formal and informal learning engaged in by motivated adults. Adult education also represents a “set of organized activities carried on by a wide variety of institutions for the accomplishment of specific educational objectives” (p. 25). Thirdly, as Knowles (1980) suggested, adult education “combines all these processes and activities into the idea of a movement or field of social practice” (p. 25). Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) defined adult education as a “process whereby persons whose major social roles are characteristic of adult status undertake systematic and sustained learning activities for the purpose of bringing about some changes in knowledge, attitudes, values, or skills” (p. 9).

Residential adult education and adult learning are incorporated into the residential environment. It is a set of planned and organized activities that incorporates adults as students in an educational endeavor and residential adult education and adult learning in an important subset of the field of practice.

Residential Adult Learning has a multifaceted context depending on the context of the environment. As discussed earlier in this chapter, the history of adult residential learning is vast and worldwide. Alford (1966) questioned, “should the term ‘residential adult education’ be narrow or broad in its application” (p. 14)? Is it just the buildings, the program, or the institution or is it the combination of “features of residence, adult students, and educative intent” (p. 14) that establish residential education? The contemporary version of residential education embraces education and training on a variety of levels: the university, corporate conference, rehabilitation (physical and mental), retreats, and weekend seminars.

At the FBINA, the residential adult learning environment is a ten-week law enforcement-training program, where 250 police officers from around the world come together to live, eat, study, socialize, and work together to form bonds of friendship and to enhance the profession of law enforcement.

Participant is defined specifically as the FBINA student (participant) that is attending the session identified in this study.

FBI National Academy (FBINA) is the ten-week law enforcement-training program offered by the FBI.

Satisfaction is an important component in the adult learning process. Fulton (1991) described satisfaction as an “intrinsic measure of how pleased or fulfilled a learner is with an

activity” (p. 19). Densmore (1965) defined “Total satisfaction—the degree of over-all positiveness associated with having participated...as measured by the Kropp-Verner Scale” (p. 10). Kropp-Verner (1957), through their attitude scale, which was used in the present study, offered a method for measuring the general attitude of the participant during and “at the conclusion of an organized educational activity” (p. 212).

Significance of the Study

This study is significant because it contributes to the existing literature on the potential benefits of adult residential learning, especially in the areas of practice and empirical support or justification for residential learning. In addition, this study provides statistical data of interest for the academic institution, corporation/business, profession (medical, legal, business, and law enforcement), and secular interests in the attitudes toward long-term residential environments.

In the area of practice, the results of the study will enhance working knowledge of adult residential environments by exposition of FBINA case study experience. From the work of Grundtvig and his vision of the Danish folk high school, to the Schacht’s (1960) “values of residence,” Houle’s (1971) “essential elements,” Fleming’s (1996, 1998) “Framework of Characteristics in a Residential Learning” and this study, the results will have a potential impact on future residential experiences by analyzing the participant’s perception of satisfaction with a training program.

Even though this study focused on the FBINA, a law enforcement-training environment, the implications for other similar residential centers exists. As the literature review in Chapter II reveals, residential experiences are many and varied, but the essential components synthesized by Fleming and this work are applicable to other residential adult environments.

Secondly, many of the prior studies have documented the lack of quantitative research on adult residential learning environments (Buskey, 1990; Fleming, 1996, 1998; Simpson & Kasworm, 1990). Yet, while many of the practitioners insist that positive benefits result from adult learning in residential environments, others have questioned the significance of residence. It is anticipated that this study will add to the quantitative knowledge with regard to the relationship of the characteristics of adult residential education to the adult residential learning environment and add to the knowledge, practice, and implementation of adult residential learning.

From a practical perspective, there is another factor worth considering as a possible by-product of this present study. In the spring of 2001, at a FBI budget meeting, an executive questioned the financial investment being directed toward the FBINA amidst the pending cutbacks and shortfalls facing most federal agencies. What was so unique about the FBI Academy learning environment? The FBI executive continued to ask, could not the National Academy police officers receive the same quality of training and learning experience from universities, local community colleges, or state law enforcement training academies? Why does the FBI continue to offer free training to local law enforcement? The data derived from this current study could address those questions and provide assistance in the preparation of a response to budget inquiries, as well as contribute to the research and literature base on adult education, adult learning, and specifically the residential adult learning environments.

The FBI National Academy

The FBI's principal police training program is the FBINA. This is a ten-week, multidisciplinary program of study for experienced law enforcement managers nominated by their agency heads and based upon their potential for continuing advancement in their departments. The program emphasizes the development of law enforcement leaders, a comprehensive overview of effective and efficient principles of management, a wide array of criminal justice (law, behavioral science, communications, media, and forensic science) courses, and a focus on physical fitness and nutrition for the healthy wellness of the police officer. The UVA operates a regional office that accredits the undergraduate and graduate courses offered through the FBINA and certifies the academy faculty as adjunct faculty, within the School of Continuing & Professional Studies.

Each year, the FBINA holds four ten-week sessions of approximately 1,100 specially selected police officers. Since 1935, more than 33,000 police officers have graduated from the program, including over 2,000 officers representing 134 other countries around the world. Of those graduates, more than 20,000 are still active in law enforcement (FBI Briefing Book, 2001).

Following graduation from the FBINA, each police officer has the opportunity to join the FBI National Academy Associates (FBINAA) with both domestic and international chapters. Since 1935, these graduates have played a significant role in the development of a higher level of professional competency, cooperation, and integrity within the law enforcement community. The various worldwide chapters of the FBINAA have held retraining sessions to facilitate continued sharing of ideas and professionalism (FBI Briefing Book, 2001).

As mentioned earlier, the 212th session of the FBI National Academy is a residential adult learning environment and is the population from which this study is centered.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of residential adult learning through the relationship of key themes, characteristics and the overall satisfaction of the participants in the program. This chapter sought to lay the foundation for the study by describing the expanse of residential programs in the United States, the diversity of the residential programs, the variety of definitions, and the lack of quantitative research in the area. Proponents of residential adult education still maintain its significance in the learning process. The questions that guide this study will focus on the relationship of the themes of residential learning and the over all participant satisfaction with the FBI National Academy program.

The following chapter reviews the literature of residential adult education, its champions and its detractors, the relevant research conducted in the area, its place in the broad field of adult and continuing education, and the historical development and context of the FBI and the FBI National Academy, a residential learning environment. Chapter Three outlines the research methodology used in the collection of the data from the National Academy Survey Questionnaire (NASQ). The fourth chapter describes and analyzes the collected data and finally chapter five offers the summary, conclusion, and recommendations for this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview

This chapter provides an overview of the relevant literature and research pertaining to the concept of residential adult education as well as the history of the FBI, FBI Academy, and the FBI National Academy. The review will focus on the historical “roots” of residential adult education (Alford, 1966, 1969; Buskey, 1970, 1990; Fleming, 1996, 1997, 1998; Schacht, 1957), the characteristics that describe and define the residential adult learning experience (Buskey, 1970, 1990; Cohen & Piper, 2000; Fleming, 1996, 1997, 1998; Schacht 1957, 1960), and the research that has attempted to assess the effectiveness of residential adult learning environment (Alford, 1966, 1969; Buskey, 1970; Fleming, 1996; Kafka, 1970; Lacognata, 1961; Schacht, 1957; Wientge & Lahr, 1966).

This present study is based, in part, on the researcher’s interest in the historical and social significance of residential adult education, the research conducted by Fleming (1996, 1997, 1998) and personal conversations with Fleming as well as FBINA participants. Fleming suggested additional research to further define and clarify the residential experience and its characteristics, the continued evaluation of the perceptions of the participant, and further empirical testing of the variables that construct the residential experience. The FBINA is the subject of this quantitative case study, which focuses on the characteristics of residential adult learning environments and the perceptions of the law enforcement student towards satisfaction of the residential learning process. The main research question attempts to discern the relationship between overarching and descriptive themes of the residential experience and the overall student satisfaction of the program.

The applicable literature is organized into the following sections: (a) the historical development and evolution of the “*Folkehojskole*,” the Danish People’s High School, (Folk High School), its spread in Europe and migration to the United States, (b) characteristics of residential adult learning environments, (c) the relevant research that addresses the concept of residential adult education, (d) a brief history of the FBI, (e) the establishment of the FBI Academy, and (f) the creation of the FBINA, an example of a residential adult education.

Historical Development and Evolution of the “*Folkehojskole*”

As mentioned earlier in Chapter I, one of the difficulties in precisely defining residential adult education is the uniqueness and diversity of the residential concept in each and every environmental culture. The original Danish folk high school concept varied as it spread in other parts of Scandinavia, Europe, Asia, and the Americas. Houle (1971) stated “the eye of the historian discerns one clear line of sequential development beginning in Denmark in the middle of the nineteenth century...differing in important ways in each setting and each country in which it is found and yet having a fundamental unity of thought and practice” (p. 4). In assessing the development of the Danish folk high school concept, Houle identified two scholars, among others, as capturing the true meaning of residential education. In the mid-nineteenth century,

Bishop N. F. S. Grundtvig, an ardent Danish Nationalist, is credited with formulating the philosophy of a people's school for living and less than 100 years later, Sir Richard Livingstone, a British Scholar from Oxford, traveled to Denmark and observed, first-hand, the working of the folk high school and its remarkable success in bringing Denmark out of an economic and cultural slump (pp. 5-12).

Nicolai Frederik Severin Grundtvig

Grundtvig was the philosophical founder of the Danish folk high school and a volatile reactionary to the "formalism, rote-learning, and emphasis on books and 'dead' languages in the Danish school of his day" (Alford, 1969, p. 1). From 1829 to 1831, in search of an alternative to the traditional Danish education process, Grundtvig traveled to England and was impressed with the "freedom and vitality" of its schools, especially the residential colleges of Oxford and Cambridge. Here, Grundtvig was impressed with the "closeness" and the interactions between the student and teacher during meals and free time in the residential setting (pp. 1-2). Grundtvig returned to Denmark charged with the belief that the "living word" (oral word) was superior to books and the classical studies. He wanted a place (school) for the common man, the rural farmers and craftsmen of the Danish countryside. Grundtvig envisioned a "school for life," where adults (students) and teachers could come together, to live, to eat, and share a common environment (Alford, 1966; Christie, 1995; Hart, 1927; Livingstone, 1945).

After the defeat of Denmark during the Napoleonic Wars, Grundtvig tried to encourage the national spirit of the Danish people by creating the folk high school as a residential center for adults, "a school for life, not for living" (Grundtvig and Alford, 1965, as cited in Buskey, p. 16). The purpose of the center was to focus on Danish history and culture in an attempt to foster and channel the participants into action. The students were "encouraged to bloom rather than be educated to conform" (Warren, 1989, p. 217). Interestingly, Grundtvig never actually opened a successful folk school, but in 1851, Christian Kold opened the first successful folk high school in Ryslinge, Denmark based on the principles established by Grundtvig. Kold's Ryslinge became the model for other Danish folk high schools and other European and American visitors.

In the 1920s, Lindeman (1926) and Hart (1927), both of Danish ancestry, traveled to Denmark to see first-hand the successful integration of the folk high school concept and re-birth of Danish culture and history. Stubblefield (1988) identified Eduard C. Lindeman and Joseph K. Hart as standing apart from other adult education theorists of the time because they "focused their efforts in adult education on helping adults respond more adequately in their relationships with individuals and their memberships in groups, institutions, and communities. They thought of adult education as a form of social education" (p. 119). Lindeman (1926) offered the following significant observations about the meaning of adult education: a) "education is life..." b) "education conceived as a process coterminous with life..." c) "the approach to adult education will be via the route of situations, not subjects..." and d) "the resource of highest value... is the learner's experience" (pp. 6-9). Within Lindeman's observations about the meaning of adult education are the philosophical foundations of Grundtvig's "living word" and "schools for life."

In the early 1920s, based on the Danish model, Hart tried unsuccessfully to assist in the establishment of a folk high school in the mountainous regions of Pennsylvania. Later in 1925, on a trip to Great Britain, Hart spent the summer in Denmark studying the philosophical writings of Grundtvig, the history of the folk high schools, the impact on Danish culture, and visiting the

“*folkehojskole*”, the Danish People’s High Schools (Stubblefield, 1988, p. 128). Hart (1927) stated, “the discovery of these Danish schools has been at once the justification and the fulfillment of an educational adventure covering many years” (pp. 112-113). Hart found the living example of his “utopia of community education,” which focused the young adults on the relationship between life and experience, as the true essence of education. It was the combination of teacher, student, culture, life experiences, and the community that developed the person in adulthood (Stubblefield, 1988, p. 128).

There is a marked similarity between the observations of Lindeman (1926) and Hart (1927), plus a common theme of the influence of the Danish folk high school concept. These basic concepts, somewhat Americanized, would form the foundation for the John C. Campbell Folk School established in 1925, with a focus on Appalachian folk art and craft, and the Highlander Folk School established in 1932 by Myles Horton, as a place where “mountain people” could learn about “ life, work, culture, and history of Grundy County [Tennessee], the Cumberlands, and the South...” (Adams, 1975, p. 28).

Sir Richard Livingstone

Interestingly, approximately one hundred years earlier, Grundtvig had made a journey to Oxford and Cambridge in England in search of a structure or methodology that would incorporate the ideals of the “living word” and a “school for life” that he had envisioned for the rural people of Denmark. Imbued with the concept of residence from Oxford and Cambridge, Grundtvig returned to Denmark in 1831 to spread the concept of the Danish folk high school.

In late 1930s, Livingstone made a similar trek, as Grundtvig’s, to Denmark in search of a method to enliven the classical structure of the British educational system. Livingstone (1945) stated that although the main educational structure was sound and entrenched, there was a need for something more “to give the masses of the nation some higher education, which will include that study of human ideals and achievement which we call literature, history, and politics, and study of the material universe which we call science” (p. vii).

Livingstone (1945) observed that in the previous hundred years, there had been only four significant landmarks in education, “great creations which have embodied an idea, and excited interest and exercised influence far outside the country of their origin” (pp. 43-44). Livingstone identified the events as “the pre-war German University, the English Public School, the Danish People’s High School, and the Scout and Guide Movements” (p. 44). The People’s High School, highlighted by Livingstone, was successful because it educated the rural population of Denmark. Recognizing the achievements of Grundtvig and Kold, Livingstone noted the characteristics that defined the folk high school. The schools were residential with stated lengths of term depending on the season; they were primarily for rural men, eighteen years of age, but later, women were enrolled; the ventures were privately controlled; and the sole purpose for the education was to give the people their history, literature, language, and culture (pp. 45-46). “This Danish national education has three secrets of success: it is given to adults; it is residential; it is essentially a spiritual force” (p. 47).

Spread to the United States

Over the next 150 years, the Danish folk high school concept spread throughout Europe, Asia, and in the United States. In America, the growth of the folk high school concept was

closely tied to the Danish communities and the Danish Lutheran Church in the mid-west. In the late 1800's, Grundtvig's son, F. L. Grundtvig, migrated to America and established several religious communities in and around Tyler, Minnesota. This Danish-American community, known as Danebod, which meant "Danish Land" or "Danish Savior," was central to the other Danish-American communities. "The first minister and folk school Vorstander, was Hans Jorgen Pedersen, who had received his education at the folk high school located in Ryslinge, site of Christian Kold's first school" (Alford, 1969, p. 2).

In the mid-west and during the same time period, several other notable folk schools were established such as: Elk Horn Folk School, Elk Horn, Iowa (1878 - 1890), Ashland Folk School, Grant, Michigan (1882 - 1920) and (1928 - 1938), and Nysted Folk school, Nysted, Nebraska (1887 - 1934). There were perhaps twelve other folk schools that were started but closed shortly after opening. By the first part of the twentieth century, most of the folk schools had closed and many were used as Danish seminaries and health care facilities (Schacht, 1957, pp. 46-85).

There were several other uniquely American versions of the residential adult learning environments, with the philosophical connections to the European folk school concept such as: a) "the religiously-oriented camp meeting or retreat retreats;" b) "agricultural short course;" c) "university summer session;" and d) "conventions and conferences" (Houle, 1971, pp. 23-24). Liveright (1962) stated that, "the earliest organized forms of adult education in this country were the women's clubs, the Lyceums, and the Chautauqua's... (pp. 437-438). The Chautauqua, which began in 1874 as an outgrowth of the Lyceum Movement, served as a model for residential adult learning environments and focused on many of the important liberal adult education issues (p. 19).

There were two notable American versions of the Danish folk school concept, the John C. Campbell Folk School established in 1925 and in 1932, the Highlander Folk School opened in the Appalachian Mountains of North Carolina and Tennessee respectively. The Campbell Folk School is still in operation and focuses on mountain crafts, while the Highlander Folk School, now named the Highlander Research and Education Center, operates in Eastern Tennessee and promotes human rights and environmental issues. The original founder of the Highlander Folk School in 1932, Myles Horton, led the school until his death in 1990 and championed the cause of an individual's impact on society (Buskey, 1990; Adams, 1975, 1980; Glen 1996; Horton, 1989; Livingstone, 1945; Stubblefield and Keane, 1994).

In the 1950s, a third American version of the Danish folk schools incorporated the university residential centers and became an important part of the continuing education movement. The Kellogg Foundation funded nine of these centers for career enhancement and civic participation (Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). In 1957, the Georgia Center for Continuing Education opened "with funding from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation (through a 1953 grant) and the State of Georgia, and was the second of the 'Kellogg Centers,' the first opening at Michigan State University in 1951" (The Georgia Center for Continuing Education, 2004, History section, 3). According to the Georgia Center, "there are 13 such centers, ten in the U. S., and one each in Costa Rica, Great Britain, and Honduras (3). Prior to World War II, many of the first conference and convention centers opened on or near major universities, such as in 1935, the University of Minnesota. After the war, the Kellogg Centers grew throughout the 1950s and 1960s (Stubblefield & Keane). As the Kellogg Centers grew, so did the interest of major corporations such as IBM, Xerox, Merrill Lynch and the Marriott Corporation in establishing their own residential adult learning environments. The FBI and the FBI Academy have used the former

Xerox Training Center in Leesburg, Virginia for mid-level and upper-level management training when the Academy residential facilities are full of students.

Characteristics of Residential Adult Learning Environments

In the 1960s, Schacht (1960) reasoned that residential adult education was “due for an upswing in the United States” (p. 1). Dating back to the mid-nineteenth century in America, residential adult education was not a new movement, but had been present in the early Chautauqua and the church-inspired Danish folk high schools and now, the Kellogg Centers were catering to the business executives “spending from a few days to a number of weeks studying management or human-relations problems or immersing themselves in cultural disciplines” (Schacht, 1960, p. 1).

Like Schacht (1957, 1960), Pitkin (1956) and Houle (1971) realized that there were strong similarities between the European folk high school and the rapid growth of residential adult education in the United States. The residential environment requires its own physical boundaries and sense of identity, which separates the participant from the normal duties and commitments of everyday life. This detachment from familiar surroundings enhances the residential experience. The residential environment places emphasis on the educational development of the individual with a strong emphasis on humanistic values. The participants are generally placed in small groups to help facilitate a sense of community and the building of interpersonal relationships. The participants involved in a residential experience are thought to be “better off” as a result of the residential environment (p. 13-21). This was exactly what Schacht, Siegle, and Pitkin had suggested in the 1950s and early 1960s. In addition, Houle (1971) observed the close connection between residential continuing education and the rapid growth of the university residential environment. In 1935, the University of Minnesota began the first residential experience on a university campus (Alford, 1966).

Schacht (1960), assessing the needs of the adult learner, took the position that residential adult education was an acceptable method of learning and that there were special “virtues or advantages” of residential adult education, which made it unique. Based on Schacht’s study, he offered the following six special “virtues or advantages” of the residential experience (1960, pp. 2-4):

1. The *advantage of detachment* is the removal or separation of the individual away from the normal, daily routine of life. The experience is manifested in physical separation, as well as psychological isolation from the familiar surroundings (family, friends, and job).
2. The *advantage of a change in environment* is that combined with detachment, the individual is given the opportunity to explore and experiment free from the traditional approaches to learning.
3. The *advantage of concentration* allows the individual to focus on a learning project without interference from outside influences. The 24/7 nature of residential environment offers learning opportunities at a time best suited to the individual.
4. The *advantage of time* presents the learner with the ability to understand, comprehend, and implement knowledge through the learning process. Closely aligned with the other advantages, time involved in the learning process is without outside responsibilities.

5. The *advantage of intimacy* incorporates the essence of living in residence, which allows for the personal interactions with other learners. This personal interaction through formal and informal activities enhances the learning process.
6. The *advantage of community* extends the normal family and social unit to include other individuals with different backgrounds and experiences, which enhances the opportunity to learn.

Houle (1971), funded by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, saw the connection between the attributes of learning in residence and adult continuing education. Residential learning experiences could be described in a variety of ways, but Houle took the position that a residential environment that “integrated life-and-learning situations” offered the best in residence. Like Schacht (1960), Houle (1971) envisioned an upswing in residential adult learning and stated that “residential education in the United States is massive in size and growing rapidly” p. 29). Both Houle and Schacht recognized the historical connection and transition between the European folk high school concept and its development in the American culture. Houle (1971, p. 13-21) offered ten important “characteristics” from the European concept that applies to the residential adult education movement in the United States:

1. “Residential adult education requires its own physical facilities...”
2. “European centers have myriad forms of sponsorship...”
3. “Each center has a strong central purpose...”
4. “Whatever the specific sense of mission, it has a strong humanistic quality.”
5. “The center has a separate identity of its own.”
6. “Each conference is composed of a small enough group so that everyone may establish his own identity within it.”
7. “The center fosters a sense of community which leads the individual to enlarge his knowledge of others and of himself in relation to others.”
8. “The conference [experience] provides a complete break from the normal process of life of those who come to it.” Participants are detached from the normal routines of work, family and social life.”
9. The purpose of the center is wholly educational.”
10. “The participants in residential adult education are expected to become better citizens of their nation and of the world.”

Fleming (1996) offered very similar definitions in her “Frameworks of Characteristics” which were derived from the Schacht (1957, 1960) and Houle (1971). The characteristics are defined (pp. 310-330):

1. *Detachment from the Familiar* explores the separation from familiar surroundings (family, friends, and job) and the impact of both physical and psychological isolation from normal and comfortable routines.
2. *Personal Growth and Identity* is accomplished within the residential setting because the participant has the time to concentrate on the learning process and the content. The individual has the potential for self-evaluation and reflection.
3. *Learning Domains and Processes* exhibited in a residential environment offer the time for concentration and immersion into the content and the development of the “whole person” as outlined by Grundtvig.
4. *Impact of Time* affects the participants in different ways. Time is built into the structure of the offered programs and the learning processes. It allows the learner an opportunity to establish new relationships and effect personal change.

5. *Sense of Community and Fellowship* is a central component of a residential adult learning setting. The dynamics of adult group interaction offer the possibility of change within the group and the individual. The outcome of a “learning community” extends beyond the confines of the residential experience.
6. *Environment* is the embodiment of the residential experience, which takes into account the physical, psychological, social, and cultural ingredients of the setting and learners who participate in the program.

Relevant Research

The literature indicates that residential adult education works, is popular, and is consistent with the adult learning process, but the literature also supports the notion that residential adult education lacks empirical support to substantiate the claims of success (Alford, 1966; Buskey, 1990; Cohen and Piper, 2000; Fleming, 1996, 1998; Houle, 1971; Kafka, 1970; Kafka & Griffith, 1984; Simpson and Kasworm, 1990; Schacht, 1957, 1960). Flanagan (1975) asserted, “research results on the effectiveness of adult residential programs are generally positive, but researchers differ on their conclusions concerning the direct influence on residence in adult learning” (p. 58).

In the ten-year period from 1960 through 1970, several researchers looked at residential adult learning from an adult education/learning perspective. Lacognata (1961) and Wientge and Lahr (1966) focused their research on the differences between a residential and non-residential learning environments/courses as compared with outcome cognitive achievement/test scores. Kafka’s (1970) study looked at three characteristics (“determinants”) of residential education: group isolation, content concentration, and group support in relation to cognitive achievement. Kafka (1970) and Kafka and Griffith (1984) acknowledged some positive benefits from learning in residence, but were less sure of the overall superiority of residential learning process in connection with the determinants.

Lacognata (1961) compared the effectiveness of residential and non-residential adult learning environment. Using an eight-day insurance course taught in residence at the Michigan State Kellogg Center for Continuing Education and a similar traditional course taught in Detroit, Michigan, he hypothesized “that residential instruction results in superior achievement” (p. 19). Lacognata’s study examined “knowledge acquisition and knowledge application” on four different instruments: “essay-quiz, a multiple-choice test, State examination scores, and focused interviews” (p. 19). He concluded that the residential students did better on the essay and multiple-choice tests, but both groups (residential/non-residential) did equally well on the State examinations (p. 19). Lacognata suggested that the variables isolation, continuity, and group support contributed to the effectiveness of the residential situation, but indicated further research was warranted because of the variety and differences in programs (pp. 19-20).

Wientge and Lahr (1966) conducted a similar study where a control group existed in a traditional adult evening class, while an experimental group attended residential weekend seminars. It was thought that the experimental group would be superior because of the residential nature of the program, but the results did not support their contention. Wientge and Lahr summarized that residency did not improve the learning outcomes or affect the participant’s attitudes in any positive way (p. 12).

Kafka (1970) conducted a quantitative study of the determinants of residential adult education (closely related to Schacht’s “value of residence” and Fleming’s “Framework of

Characteristics”), in which he compared the determinant to cognitive achievement in short-term residential environments. Kafka viewed residential programs as “temporary systems” in which three determinants (isolation, content concentration, and group support) had a possible impact on cognitive achievement. His study concluded that there was a positive correlation between isolation and content concentration and cognitive achievement, while the data did not support a correlation between group support and cognitive achievement (p. 2).

Since I have spent fifteen years teaching, facilitating, working and interacting with adult students (participants) at the FBI Academy, a residential adult learning environment, I feel uniquely qualified to assess the value of this type of residential program. Using this first-hand knowledge and experience and synthesizing the research of Schacht (1957, 1960), Alford (1966), Houle (1971), Simpson & Kasworm (1990), and Fleming (1996, 1998), this quantitative study provides new insight into the significance and importance of the characteristics of residential adult learning environments. The data and conclusions derived from my study will allow for a greater understanding of the adult participant, the characteristics of residential adult learning environments and the attitude of satisfaction on the learning program.

The FBI: A History

Concept of the FBI (1892 – 1908)

Based on conversations at the Baltimore Civil Service Reform Association meeting in 1892, Theodore Roosevelt and Charles Bonaparte, both Progressives, discussed the need for professionalism, not political connections in law enforcement. When Roosevelt became President of the United States in 1901, he continued the search for expertise and excellence in finding the best individuals for government service. In 1905, President Roosevelt selected Charles Bonaparte, as his Attorney General, to lead the Department of Justice, who then hired former police detectives and United States Secret Service Agents to form the initial cadre of federal investigators, later called the FBI. Since its inception in 1870, the United States Department of Justice was not authorized to have its own investigators, but relied on others Agencies, like the United States Secret Service, to lease their agents to the Department of Justice. The practice was expensive and created some conflict in Congress, because they saw the use/lease of other Agents as a potential conflict of interest (Federal Bureau of Investigation (n.d.), p. 1).

Up until the 20th century, local, county or state governments, not the federal government, handled most government responsibilities and oversights. The creation of national investigative agency created some controversy and concern with the states, but with increased transportation and communication across state boundaries necessitated the need for a federal investigative force (p. 1).

In May 1908, Congress prohibited the Justice Department from the practice of use/lease of Secret Service Agents, which forced Attorney General Bonaparte to seek independent funding for the Department of Justice to hire its own Agents. In July of the same year, Congress appropriated funds to the Department of Justice to hire a select number of new Agents, who were ordered by Attorney General Bonaparte to report to the Chief Examiner Stanley W. Finch. FBI historians point to this date (July 26, 1908) as the beginning of the FBI (p. 2).

The Beginning (1908 – 1921)

While the Bureau's early crime fighting was basically limited to financial and bank fraud crimes, the early Justice investigators had few federal laws to enforce. This changed in June 1910 with the passing of the Mann ("White Slave") Act, which made it illegal to transport women across state lines for immoral reasons. Over the next few years, as more federal crimes were added to the Bureau's responsibility, the number of Agents grew to more than 300 with field offices located in most of the major cities and a Special Agent in Charge managing each field office (Federal Bureau of Investigation, p. 2).

As the United States entered World War I in 1917, the Bureau's investigative requirements extended to "Espionage, Selective Service, and Sabotage Acts and assisted the Department of Labor by investigating aliens" (pp. 2-3). In July 1919, "William J. Flynn, former head of the Secret Service, became Director of the Bureau of Investigation" and oversaw the Bureau's growth into interstate crimes with the passing of the National Motor Vehicle Theft Act (p. 3). Laws, like the Mann Act and National Motor Vehicle Theft Act, gave the Bureau of Investigation the ability to reach across state lines in the pursuit of federal criminals (p. 3).

Turbulent Period (1921 – 1933)

The period from 1921 to 1933 was a turbulent period for the Bureau of Investigation as it investigated and battled [Gangsters] criminals who violated the Prohibition Act, which outlawed the selling or import of illegal alcoholic beverages. Although the Department of Treasury had the principle jurisdiction on the illegal use of illegal alcoholic beverages, the Bureau of Investigation was able to make its presence known by implementing other lesser-known federal laws, such as federal fugitive witness statues. For example, the Bureau's earliest investigations of the infamous Al Capone were based on federal fugitive witness investigations (Federal Bureau of Investigation, p. 3).

During the period 1921 to 1933, the resurgent Ku Klux Klan (KKK) of the late 1800s provided targets of opportunity for the young Bureau of Investigation. Through these years, the Bureau made a name for itself fighting traditional financial and bank fraud crimes, neutrality violations, as well as the espionage and sabotage violations during and after World War I (p. 3).

J. Edgar Hoover, who had joined the Bureau of Investigation in 1917, a graduate of the George Washington University Law School, was promoted to Assistant Director of the Bureau under then Director, William J. Burns. After President Harding died in office in 1923, the new President Calvin Coolidge appointed a new Attorney General, Harlan Fiske Stone. In May 1924, Attorney General Stone promoted Hoover as the new Director of the Bureau of Investigation.

Over the next few years, Hoover made sweeping changes in the Bureau by enhancing the professionalism of the Special Agents by developing regular performance appraisals. He fired many Agents who he thought were unfit or unqualified for the position and enacted regular inspections of all Field Offices operations, its Agents, and support personnel. Hoover expanded the number of Field Offices to over 30 and established new "Divisional headquarters in New York, Baltimore, Atlanta, Cincinnati, Chicago, Kansas City, San Antonio, San Francisco, and Portland" (p. 3). In January 1928, Hoover implemented a new agent-training program and returned to the "earlier preference for Special Agents with law or accounting experience" (p. 3).

One of the significant accomplishments of the early Hoover era was establishment, under the control of the Bureau of Investigation, of a National Division of Identification and

Information, which brought together crime records and fingerprints of federal, state, and local fingerprints in one common location as well as the compiling and publication of crime statistics for the United States. This fact increased the effectiveness and efficiency of the Bureau of Investigation and its ability to work with local law enforcement. It should be noted that the expansion the Bureau was not well received in all corners of law enforcement. The states and local law enforcement felt that crime prevention, detection, and enforcement were their responsibility (p. 4).

Great Depression and the Pre-World War II (1933 – 1939)

The 1930s would again be an important decade for the developing Bureau of Investigation. The stock market crash in 1929 and resulting Great Depression set the stage for the enhancement of federal jurisdiction over certain types of crime. During this economic crisis in the United States, many people turned to information medias, such as newspapers, magazines, radio, and even the movies for entertainment, while other people turned to crime activities. Hoover capitalized on the media interest of the American people to publicize the Bureau of Investigation and its activities. The earliest version of the current *Law Enforcement Bulletin* (LEB), then called the *Fugitives Wanted By Police* was such an example of publicity orchestrated by Hoover. Hoover recognized very quickly the importance of public opinion and he often used it to his advantage over the next 40 plus years. With the enhanced support of the American people and Congressional action, the Bureau grew to over 600 Special Agents and 1100 Support personnel in over 40 cities (Federal Bureau of Investigation, p. 4).

The early to mid-1930s were crucial years for the early FBI. The kidnapping of the Lindberg baby in 1932 and the passing of the Kidnapping Statute by Congress brought the Bureau of Investigation into the public's eye as well as the pursuit of John Dillinger in 1934, when he crossed state lines to evade capture. Congress passed a series of federal laws involving violations of interstate activity, which greatly enhanced the investigative responsibility and prowess of the Bureau, to include the authorization to carry guns and make arrests. Prior to this, the Bureau of Investigation was only an investigative arm of the Department of Justice without such authority. In 1935, after much discussion and political wrangling, the Federal Bureau of Investigation was created within the Department of Justice (pp. 4-5).

The 1930s also saw the funding and establishment of the FBI's Technical Laboratory (1932) and the creation of the FBI National Academy (1935) to augment and enhance the training of police officers in contemporary investigative methodology from across the United States. In the 1940s, this same training was extended to the international law enforcement community (p. 5).

World War II Period (1939 – 1945)

In the mid to late-1930s, with the threat of European unrest, the United States remained neutral per the recently passed Acts of Neutrality, but the United States was rife with political, economic, and social unrest. The country was still in the throes of the Great Depression and early forms of Fascism and Communism found support with some disadvantaged American citizens. Hoover and the FBI saw this support as a potential threat to internal (domestic) American security. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt and Congress agreed and with the issuance of a Presidential Directive by Roosevelt and the passage of the Smith Act by Congress made it a

federal crime to advocate the overthrow of the United States Government. In 1939, as war broke out in Europe, the FBI stepped up its operations as subversion, sabotage, and espionage became overriding concerns of Hoover and the Roosevelt Administration as well as the vast majority of the American people (Federal Bureau of Investigation, pp. 5-6).

By the early 1940s, the United States was backing away from the Neutrality Acts and moving towards the European Allies. The Germans, Italians, and the Japanese (Axis Powers) nationals living in the United States represented a real threat to American security. The FBI with other Agencies and international partners orchestrated avenues of information and intelligence gathering. The FBI, along with other military and civilian agencies stopped numerous attempts at sabotage, espionage, and enemy alien insertions at the hands of the Axis Powers. Interestingly, during this period, the FBI sought and incorporated graduates of the FBI National Academy, which began in 1935 (See Section: The FBI National Academy, p 60), into the ranks of the corps of FBI Special Agents to fight this onslaught of war-related criminal activity. The ranks of the FBI grew to over 13,000 employees of which 4,000 were Special Agents (p. 6).

One event in American history, during the war years, that has received much in the way of media scrutiny and governmental review was internment of Japanese nationals and American citizens of Japanese descent. These American citizens and Japanese nationals were forcibly removed from the West Coast of the United States for security reasons by order of President Roosevelt and the concurring Attorney General. Interestingly, Hoover and the FBI had arrested those individuals they considered security risks and did not see the need for the confinement of others (p. 7).

War-related investigations were not the only responsibility of the FBI. The FBI continued to work in the traditional areas of financial and bank fraud, interstate violations (Mann Act, Kidnapping, and National Motor Vehicle Theft Act), as well as new areas of unrest in Civil Rights and unrest as a result of the recommendations arising out of the Fair Employment Practices Commission (FEPC).

The FBI faced a different world in September 1945. President Roosevelt had died in office and Harry S. Truman became the next President. The war in Europe was over with the surrender of Germany and Italy (May 1945), while the war in the Pacific would continue for a few more months (August 1945).

Postwar America (1945 – 1960)

The fear, and in some cases the reality of Communism spreading into various levels of government as well as in the private and commercial sectors, fueled the demand for increased diligence on the part of the FBI. Since 1917, the FBI had the direct mission of protecting the internal security of the Nation against those who would undermine its autonomy. In the post-war period, the FBI assumed new duties such as conducting background investigations on prospective federal employees and Presidential appointees. Hoover and the FBI felt that comprehensive background investigations were as critical to effective investigations of subversive activities as the actual criminal act itself (pp.7-8).

In addition to the national security investigations in the post-war period, the FBI increased its crime fighting partnership with state and local law enforcement agencies and Congress continued to enhance the FBI's investigative jurisdiction. In March 1950, the FBI's "Ten Most Wanted List" was established to assist in the search (hunt) for dangerous fugitives. The FBI, with enhanced resources (forensic and technical developments), was able to provide

greater assistance to the law enforcement community. Hoover, dating back to the establishment of the FBI National Academy in 1935, recognized the importance of effective and efficient partnerships with law enforcement through training and cooperation (p. 8).

Throughout the 1960s, Congress enacted several new laws (Civil Rights Act of 1960 and 1964; the Crime Aboard Aircraft Act of 1961; an expanded Federal Fugitive Act; and the Sports Bribery Act of 1964), which would extend the FBI's jurisdiction in investigation of civil rights, racketeering, and gambling. Some of the most notable investigations surrounded the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr., the subsequent arrest of James Earl Ray, the acknowledgment of the existence of a nationally organized crime network (La Cosa Nostra/American Mafia), and the testimony of organized insider Joseph Valachi. Based on the testimony of Valachi, Congress strengthened the jurisdiction of the FBI with two new laws aimed at the federal racketeering and gambling statutes, which assisted in the fight against organized crime. The Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 authorized the use of court-ordered electronic surveillance as an investigative tool in certain violations. The Omnibus Crime Bill was followed by the Racketeer Influenced and Corrupt Organization (RICO) Statute of 1970 that allowed investigative agencies (especially the FBI) to prosecute organized crime groups for their myriad of crimes. Effectively, by the end of the 60s decade, the FBI had grown to over 6700 Special Agents and 9300 Support Personnel (p. 9).

Era of Protest and Demonstration (1960 – 1972)

The 1960s was a turbulent and violent period within the United States beginning with the assassination of President John F. Kennedy, the public outcry and demonstration against the war in Vietnam, and urban unrest in the streets. In fact, “in 1970 alone, an estimated 3,000 bombings and another 50,000 bomb threats occurred in the United States (p. 9). The FBI was called upon to play a critical role in these investigations. Hoover, quoted in a PTA magazine article, felt that the United States was being challenged by “a new style in conspiracy...conspiracy that is extremely subtle and devious and hence difficult to understand...a conspiracy reflected by questionable moods and attitudes, by unrestrained individualism, by nonconformism in dress and speech, even by obscene language, rather than by formal memberships in specific organizations” (as cited in www.fbi.gov/libref/historic/history/text, p. 10).

The University of Wisconsin (Madison, Wisconsin) was the setting for violent antiwar sentiment in August 1970, where four young individuals threw a powerful homemade bomb into the Army Math Research Center on the university grounds; one student was killed and three others injured. A few months later, an Ohio National Guardsman fired on Kent State students participating in an antiwar protest. Four students were killed and others injured as a result this incident. The FBI was called in to investigate both the bomb blast at the University of Wisconsin and the death of students in the Kent State demonstration. The FBI, lacking specific guidelines for dealing with the violent threats by homegrown demonstrators, relied on some of the same investigative techniques that it had used during the war and post-war eras. By the beginning of the 1970s most of the violent antiwar demonstrations had subsided into more peaceful protests (p. 10).

On May 2, 1972, J. Edgar Hoover died. Hoover had been the Director of the FBI for almost 48 years and had led the FBI through its formative period. President Richard M. Nixon appointed L. Patrick Gray, a retired Navel officer and Assistant Attorney General in the Justice Department, as Acting Director of the FBI, who was immediately faced with the attempted

break-in at the Democratic National Headquarters located in the Watergate Office Building in Washington, D. C. As a result of this investigation, Acting Director Gray withdrew his name from Senate confirmation for the position of Director of the FBI amid allegations of impropriety. Within hours of the Gray resignation (April 27, 1973), William Ruckelshaus was appointed Acting Director until Clarence Kelly assumed the position on July 9, 1973.

Post Watergate

Within days of Kelley's appointment as Director of the FBI, members of the Nixon Administration began to resign amid allegations of obstruction of justice in connection with the Watergate investigation. These events culminated in the resignation of President Richard M. Nixon on August 9, 1974 and the swearing in of Gerald R. Ford as the new President with a vow to heal the nation.

Over the next five years, Director Kelley, the former Police Chief of Kansas City, initiated many new reforms to restore the image and reputation of the FBI. He improved the selection and training of Special Agents, intelligence gathering, the prioritization investigative programs, and the training offered to the general law enforcement community. In 1974, Career Review Boards were established to help train its existing mid and upper-level managers and to train future managers of the FBI. At the same time, Kelley, in conjunction with the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) and the Major City Chief Administrators, sought the development of executive training programs for law enforcement leaders (p. 11).

During Kelley's tenure as Director, he initiated a "Quality over Quantity" approach to investigations, which established three national priorities for the FBI: Foreign Counterintelligence, Organized Crime, and White-Collar Crime.

Rise of International Crime

With the resignation of Clarence Kelly in 1978, former federal judge William H. Webster became the next Director of the FBI. Webster continued and expanded the national priorities established by Kelley with enhanced funding and allocation of personnel resources. With the terrorism abroad and at-home, Webster added Counter-Terrorism as the fourth national priority for the FBI. The FBI continued its investigations into national security matters and brought many espionage cases to successful prosecution. The 1980s saw the FBI, at the direction of the Department of Justice, extending its influence into narcotics investigations with concurrent jurisdiction with the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA). This influence resulted in "the confiscation of millions of dollars in controlled substances, the arrests of major narcotics figures, and the dismantling of important drug rings. One of the most publicized, dubbed the 'Pizza Connection' case, involved the heroin trade in the United States and Italy" (p. 12).

The late 1980s was also a period of economic stress in the United States with the failure of many banks and savings and loan companies. The FBI, with enhanced funding and resources provided by the Financial Institution Reform, Recovery, and Enhancement Act, directed Agent and Support Personnel towards these investigations. Also in 1980s, the FBI investigated many cases of public corruption on the federal, state, and local level. For example, FBI investigations (Code Name ABSCAM) led to the convictions of members, while on the state level the FBI investigated state legislatures in California and South Carolina (p. 12).

During the same period of time, Congress expanded the FBI's jurisdiction in combating terrorism by giving the FBI authority to investigate crimes against United States citizens outside of the country. The FBI was given authorization to arrest federal criminals (terrorists, fugitives, and drug traffickers) in foreign countries without specific permission from the host country.

In May 1987, Director Webster resigned from the FBI to head the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and in November 1987, Judge William S. Sessions was sworn as the next Director of the FBI. Judge Sessions continued the national priorities of the FBI and sought additional resource to meet the new challenges facing the FBI. By 1988, the FBI employed over 9600 Special Agents and over 13,600 Support Personnel working out of 58 Field Offices in the United States and 15 Legal Attaches (Special Agents assigned to Embassies) overseas (p. 13).

End of the Cold War

“The dismantling of the Berlin Wall in November 1989 electrified the world and dramatically rang up the Iron curtain on the final act in the Cold War: the formal dissolution of the Soviet Union, which occurred on December 25, 1991” (p. 13). These events significantly changed the world landscape and changed the direction of the FBI. The FBI moved significant resources out of foreign counterintelligence duties to impact the rising tide of violent crime in the streets of cities across America. In 1989, Director Sessions placed identified violent crime as the sixth national priority of the FBI. By November 1991, the FBI initiated “Operation Safe Streets” an attempt to establish federal, state, and local task forces aimed at fugitives and gangs. This program placed FBI Special Agents working hand-in-hand with their police colleagues and helped to forge a new partnership with law enforcement, a concept that had been a cornerstone of the Hoover years (p. 13).

The technology employed by the FBI continued to assist the investigations in the field. By 1978, the Laboratory Division was using laser technology in the identification of fingerprints (implemented in 1924) and by the early 1990s; the Lab was using DNA technology in crime scene investigations. DNA testing of evidence allowed law enforcement to positively or negatively rule out potential suspects. Ironically, as many crimes were solved, numerous old crimes for which individuals were convicted and serving sentences in prison were released because of DNA evidence (P. 13).

The FBI continued to enhance its resolve against white-collar crimes, especially with automation of the financial world. Law enforcement was now faced with financial and fraud crimes at all levels of the economy, from environmental, securities, tax, to health care cases, which resulted in hundreds of millions of dollars lost to the American taxpayer. With the ease of a simple electronic transfer, legal and illegal funds could be moved around the world making it very difficult to trace and track. The FBI found it necessary to strengthen the resources of Special Agent and Support Personnel working those violations.

By 1991, the National Security Threat List, approved by the Attorney General of Department of Justice, “changed the approach from defending against hostile intelligence agencies to protecting U. S. information and technologies. It thus identified all countries...not just hostile intelligence services...that pose a continuing and serious threat to the United States. It also defined expanded threat issues, including the proliferation of chemical, biological, and nuclear weapons; the loss of critical technologies; and the improper collection of trade secrets and proprietary information (p. 13).

Unfortunately, the image and reputation of the FBI was seriously tested in the early 1990s with two isolated events involving the FBI and the FBI's Hostage Rescue Team (HRT), which had been created in the early 1980s and showcased at the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games. In August 1992, the FBI was called upon to assist the United States Marshall in the apprehension of a federal fugitive Randy Weaver at his cabin located in Ruby Ridge, Idaho. In an attempt to arrest Weaver, a Deputy U. S. Marshall was killed in the line of duty. During the standoff, in which the HRT was now involved, the wife of Randy Weaver was shot and killed by an FBI sniper. Eight months later, in April 1993, the FBI and the FBI's Hostage Rescue Team were again called upon to assist another federal law enforcement agency, the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms (ATF) at a remote compound outside of Waco, Texas. In this situation, ATF Agents had attempted to arrest individuals inside the heavily armed, religious compound for weapons violation, but the arrest attempt resulted in the death of four ATF Agents as they attempted to storm the compound. For the next 51 days the FBI, the HRT, and law enforcement attempted to bring a peaceful settlement to the standoff. "Instead, as Agents watched in horror, the compound burned to the ground from fires lit by members of the sect. Eighty persons, including children, died in the blaze" (p. 14).

In the resulting years, these two incidents resulted in public and Congressional investigations that seriously questioned the FBI and its ability to deal with crisis events. Today, these two events have been adjudicated in the public and legal sectors, but the FBI has continued to deal with the aftermath of these crisis situations. New policies, procedures, and training have been implemented throughout the FBI to ensure that important lessons were learned so that history does not repeat itself. As a result, the FBI created the Crisis Incident Response Group (CIRG) to address crisis situations.

Rise of a Wired World: 1993 - Present

As a result of serious ethics violations, in July 1993, Director William H. Sessions was forced to step-down and was replaced by Acting Director Floyd I. Clark. Two months later, September 1, 1993, Louis J. Freeh was sworn in as the new Director of the FBI with a mandate to deal with crime problems both at home and abroad. Director Freeh embarked on a policy of expanding the FBI's role in foreign countries and to forge new partnerships with international law enforcement. For example, in 1994, Director Freeh opened a FBI Legal Attaché Office in Moscow, the capitol of the old Soviet Union. In April 1995, the FBI opened the first International Law Enforcement Training Academy (ILEA) in Budapest, Hungary, which was based on the FBI National Academy concept and program (p. 14). It is important to remember that the FBI National Academy, which began in 1935, began incorporating international police officers in the ranks of the National Academy during the early 1940s.

The FBI was making the transition from the traditional crimes (bank robbery, interstate transportation of stolen motor vehicles and property, kidnapping, and others) to crimes of a more international scope. FBI resources were reassigned to meet these demands. The period 1993 – 1996 seriously tested the FBI's resolve with the following cases: "World Trade Center bombing in New York City (1993); the bombing of the Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City (1995); the UNABOMBER Theodore Kaczynski (1996); the arrest of Mexican drug-trafficker Juan Garcia-Abrego (1996); and the Russian crime boss Vyacheslav Ivankov (1995)" (p. 14).

As previously discussed, the digital environment (use of computers and the Internet) provided a new vehicle for criminals (cyber-criminals) to apply their trade. The FBI met those

challenges by creating the Computer Investigations and Infrastructure Threat Assessment Center (CITAC) to address cyber attacks against U. S. interests. In 1991, to meet local needs, the FBI had established the Computer Analysis and Response Teams (CART) to aid in the investigations in which computers were involved and an integral part of the crime activity. CART personnel have extended their responsibilities to assist state and local law enforcement with these types of investigations; some of the notable examples are the investigation of child pornography cases (FBI's Innocent Images Program) both domestic and international. In 1998, the FBI established the National Infrastructure Protection Center (NIPC) "to monitor the dissemination of computer viruses, worms, and other malicious programs and to warn government and business computer users of these dangers" (p. 14).

"Between 1993 and 2001, the FBI's mission and resources expanded to address the increasingly international nature of crime in US localities. The FBI's budget grew by more than \$1.27 billion as the Bureau hired 5,029 new Agents and more than 4000 new Support Personnel" (p. 15). Director Freeh was instrumental in preparing the FBI for the 21st century challenges in the domestic and international arenas. Freeh left office in June 2001 for a position in the private sector.

Challenge: 2001 – Present

"On September 4, 2001, former U. S. Attorney Robert S. Mueller, III was sworn in as FBI Director (2001 to present) with a specific mandate to upgrade the Bureau's information technology infrastructure, to address records management issues, and to enhance FBI foreign counterintelligence analysis and security in the wake of the damage done by former Special Agent and convicted spy Robert Hanssen" (p. 15).

Exactly seven days after Director Mueller was sworn in, the terrorist attacks in New York City and Washington, D. C. occurred and the role of the FBI was again forever changed. I vividly remember the day of the terrorist attacks because I was in my office preparing for a meeting with Director Mueller, when one of my colleagues came running into my office and yelled, "turn on the TV, the World Trade Center has been hit by an airplane" (Personal recollection on 9/11/01)! Ironically, several days earlier, Director Mueller had requested some guidance and information on public speaking and dealing with the media, because, I had taught public speaking and effective media relations to law enforcement for the last twelve years as an instructor at the FBI Academy. The meeting was not held until several months later!

Over the next few days, months, and years, Director Muller led the FBI's extensive investigation in complete partnership with all branches of federal, state, and local law enforcement. The responsibility for the investigation and the prevention of further attacks fell directly on the backs of the FBI, along with other law enforcement agencies. The FBI, as well as their strategic law enforcement partners, had to reassess priorities to assist in the ongoing investigation and the prevention of further such attacks in the United States. In addition, to the complexities of the "9/11" investigation and related investigations, the FBI has had to continue with its mission of investigation federal violations and national priorities.

Today, with the establishment of the Department of Homeland Security, the re-direction of the fight and prevention of terrorism, the concerted effort to work closely with all levels of domestic and international law enforcement, and the recent (July 2004) release of *The 9/11 Commission Report*, the FBI, again, stands ready to meet the challenges of the new millennium.

This researcher notes that intermixed with the information derived from the FBI's historic website (www.fbi.gov/libref/historic/history/text) are personal observations about the history of the FBI, because this researcher was a FBI Special Agent (1978-2003) and lived a part of the history as a participant.

Origin of the FBI Academy

“May of 1972 stands out as a remarkable month in FBI history. Director J. Edgar Hoover's death marked the end of an era. Yet, just when one door closed on the FBI's past, the doors of the new, ultramodern FBI Academy opened on its future” (Linkins, 1997, p. 1). Since 1972, the FBI Academy has dedicated its faculty, staff, and facilities to the training and education of FBI personnel, domestic and international law enforcement. In addition, the FBI Academy has been a focal point for law enforcement cooperation, assistance and extensive research (pp. 1-2). Nearly forty years earlier, Director Hoover envisioned a facility where the formal training of FBI personnel could be organized and controlled to ensure effective and efficient investigation of federal crimes.

Early Period

“In the late spring of 1934 Director J. Edgar Hoover called one of his Assistant Directors (Hugh H. Clegg) to his office and assigned him the function of organizing and operating the educational and training activities of the FBI” (Personal letter of Hugh H. Clegg to Director Clarence Kelley, p. 1, dated 12/16/76). Without a formal training program, the training received by Special Agents was selective and regionalized within the respective FBI Field Office. By 1934, Director Hoover recognized the need for consistent and professional training at a centralized location. He mandated that the candidates for Special Agent have either a law or accounting background due to the complexity of the position. The early class size ranged in size from 20 to 50 men (women would not become Special Agents until the early 1970s), lasted five weeks in the Washington, D. C. area, with overall instruction provided by the Assistant Director (AD). The AD was assisted by a cadre of senior Agent Supervisors with expertise in many different specialized areas such as “bankruptcy violations, fingerprint identification, antitrust violations, expert accounting matters, technical laboratory aids, fugitive investigations, and firearms training on the range” (Clegg, 1976, p. 3.).

The instructional staff responsible for training the new Agents relied on the following outline (lesson plan): “an analysis of the applicable federal law, the essential elements of fact required to establish a violation, court decisions pertaining to the law, the professional ethics involved, investigative procedures and practices, previous success of an outstanding nature, analysis of mistakes to be avoided, relationship with the U. S. district attorney, Department of Justice instructions and directions, evidence, testimony, and the distribution of written reports” (p. 3).

As mentioned in the “Brief History of the FBI”, the early FBI was called the Bureau of Investigation and investigated primary financial and bank fraud matters. The early Bureau did not have arrest powers or the authority to carry weapons. The authority to arrest and carry weapons did not occur until 1932. Interestingly, the early firearms training was conducted at Fort Meade, Maryland, Camp Richie (now the Presidential Retreat called Camp David), and later it was conducted at U. S. Marine Corps Base located at Quantico, Virginia (p. 4).

Based on Presidential Orders and legislation passed by Congress, the FBI's investigative responsibilities greatly increased with U. S. involvement in World War II. The demand for trained Special Agents tested the existing training program with as many as 1000 to 1200 Agents in as many as 16 classes. The length of class had been increased from five weeks to 16 weeks to meet the increased responsibilities of the position.

With the growing numbers of Special Agents in the various Field Offices, the need existed for specialized in-service training to keep the Agent population advised on the latest laws, court decisions, and investigative techniques. The FBI Academy was the location for the in-service training (p. 5).

Beginning of the FBI National Academy

The qualification, professionalism, and training of Special Agents of the FBI had been noticed by state and local law enforcement. Director Hoover's desire to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of the FBI had not gone without notice. "On July 9, 1935, Director Hoover addressed the assembled members of the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) at their annual conference in Atlantic City, New Jersey" (p. 7). After the presentation, members of the IACP Training Committee met with Director Hoover to request that the FBI provide training (similar to that of the Special Agents) to a select group of qualified police officers. Upon Hoover's return to Washington, he called the AD (Hugh Clegg) of the Training and Inspection Division and asked him to determine the feasibility of such a request. Information and confirmation was solicited from the Special Agents in Charge (SACs), who had close working relationships with state and local law enforcement. The support for such a program was immediate and unanimous, therefore, Director Hoover ordered the AD to organize such a program, establish a curriculum, secure appropriate faculty from the Supervisory Agent staff, and to recruit and enlist the support of visiting faculty from universities, law enforcement agencies, and the private sector. Director Hoover mandated that this new police training school, the selection of students, background investigation, and Hoover's final approval be completed by the end of July 1935 (p. 8).

Very quickly, the Training and Inspection Division contacted and met with distinguished educators and administrators from around the country to identify the best-qualified faculty for the new police training school. The first visit was to "Mr. C. Bruce Smith, Director, Institute of Public Administration, New York City, author of the authoritative book on police administration and director of several police department surveys, who agreed to lecture on the subject, 'Police Administration and Organization'" (p. 8). Recommendations from Mr. Smith and others produced the partial list of instructors:

Dr. Earl C. Arnold, dean, Vanderbilt University Law School – *Evidence*

Dr. Arthur L. Beeley, Professor of Sociology, University of Utah – *Sociology*

Professor Albert Coates, Director of the famous Institute of Government, University of North Carolina – *Criminal Law*

Dr. Alexander H. Gettler, Chief Toxicologist for the city of New York and

Professor of Forensic Medicine, New York University – *Toxicology and Medical Examinations*

Dr. William Healey, Director of Judge Baker Foundation and Institute of Human Relations, Yale University – *Juvenile Problems*

Dr. Mark A. May, Director, Institute of Human Relations and Professor of Psychology, Yale University – *Crime Motivation*

Dr. Elton Mayo, Professor of Industrial Relations, Harvard University – *Interviews*

Professor Raymond Moley, Professor of Public Law, Columbia University – *Prosecution Administration*

Dr. J. J. B. Morgan, Professor of Psychology, Northwestern University – *Interviews*

Dr. Herbert J. Stack, Instructor in Safety Education, Columbia University – *Safety*

Rev. E. A. Walsh, S. J., Vice-President, Georgetown University – *Social Problems*

Dr. R. W. Wood, Professor of Physics, Johns Hopkins University – *Physics and Its Application to Law Enforcement*

Dr. Thorndike, Columbia University – *Teaching Methods*

Dr. F. W. Williams, Columbia University – *Physical Education*

Professor Felix Frankfurter, Harvard University – *Ethics and Judicial Administration*

Professor Thurman Arnold, Professor of Criminal Law, Yale University – *Criminal Law Administration*

Dr. W. A. White, St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C. – *Psychiatry*

Dean Ferson, University of Cincinnati Law School – *Ethics and Criminal Law*

This list was not all-inclusive, but represented the quality and expertise of some of the visiting faculty. Of course, there were significant training and educational contributions made by guest instructors from law enforcement agencies and the FBI's own instructional staff (pp. 8-10).

As a result of the organizational work performed by the Training and Inspection Division and based on the recommendations of the expert/visiting faculty, the courses were grouped and selected: "Scientific and Technical; Statistics, Records and Report Writing; Investigations, Enforcement, and Regulatory Procedures; Tests and Practical Experiences; Administration and Organization; and Ethics and Conduct" (p. 10).

Within the month, Director Hoover had his new police training school organized and "ready-to-go!" The central concept/theme of the training program was to select qualified and experienced law enforcement officers and to assist them into becoming future leaders and trainers in law enforcement. The training school was to be a part the FBI Academy and thus, was named *The FBI National Police Academy*. After the first class on July 29, 1935, with 23 law enforcement students, it was soon apparent that the name of the program was not reflective of all the law enforcement officers attending the program. There were officers from Sheriff's Department, State Police/Highway Patrol Departments, as well as local town marshals. In the 1940s, as the training program was opened to international officers from different countries and various ranks and titles, the name was changed to *The FBI National Academy* (p. 10).

Director Hoover insisted on constant updates from the FBI Staff and Counselors (two FBI Special Agents assigned to each class) as to the progress of the students. It was not uncommon for Hoover to write "letter of commendation" to selected students for outstanding performance. Director Hoover attempted to attend as many of the graduations as his schedule would permit. In those days, the U. S. Marine Corps Band held the graduations in Great Hall at the Department of Justice Building with famous guest speakers, government officials and music. It was a very impressive ceremony! Director Hoover felt very strongly about the FBI National Academy program and its students.

Physical Structure

By comparison with the current FBI National Academy located at the FBI Academy on the U. S. Marine Corps Base, Quantico, Virginia, the original classes were held “in Classroom #1 on the fifth floor of the Justice Department Building where 100 was the normal seating capacity. The Justice Building had an indoor firearms range, gym, and the FBI Technical Laboratory, as well as nearby office space for training. Besides the classroom building, “an FBI training building was constructed...with five classrooms, gym, dining room and kitchen, armory, and indoor range...on a principal thoroughfare on the Quantico Marine Base. Firearms ranges built especially for the FBI Academy were nearby on the base” (Clegg, p. 12).

One of Director Hoover’s requirements for participation in the FBI National Academy was, upon graduation the officer would return to his department and pass on the knowledge and training acquired over the past eleven-weeks. The Special Agents in Charge (SAC’s) were required to follow-up on the graduates as they returned to their departments to determine how that officer was being utilized. There was an interesting example where a police chief refused to allow the FBI National Academy graduate to pass-on the knowledge and training that the officer has acquired. In fact, the officer was put on “graveyard shift” (Midnight to 8:00 am) to ensure that he was out of the mainstream. The SAC learned of this situation and planned on how he would rectify the problem. Within a few weeks, the SAC was asked to speak at a luncheon where city officials (Mayor and Police Chief), professional organizations, civic groups, and concerned citizens would be in attendance. During the SAC’s remarks, he commented on the professionalism of the police department, the forward thinking of the Police Chief, the citizens whose taxes paid for the officer’s salary while at the FBI Academy, and finally the Mayor for his leadership and support of the police department. Several days later, the Mayor called the Police Chief into his office and inquired how the FBI National Academy graduate was being used in the department. The officer was quickly reassigned to a leadership position within the department’s training program. Several years later, the FBI National Academy graduate rose to the position of Assistant Chief in the Police Department (p. 14).

As law enforcement officers graduated from the FBI National Academy and returned to their departments, these same officers began to request FBI assistance in their local training initiatives. These requests were anticipated and the FBI began to identify Special Agents in the Field Offices who had specific expertise and educational background to extend the training capabilities of the FBI. These specially selected Agents were tasked with the coordination of all law enforcement-training activities within the Field Offices. Director Hoover did insist that all FBI sponsored training was to be free and requested by the law enforcement agency through the respective Field Office. “By 1954, these extension courses, a apart of the FBI National Academy extension programs, numbered well over three thousand per year and the total enrollment was well over 100 thousand”.... Extension courses in 1975 numbered 10,516 with 319,663 [students] enrolled” (p. 15-16). By comparison, in the fiscal year ending 2003, the FBI National Academy’s extension programs were expanded around the world and encompassed 3,000 courses and well over 250,000 students.

FBINA: An Example of Residential Adult Education

“From its inception in 1935, the FBI National Academy has maintained as its principle objective, the goal of increasing the professionalism of police officers through expanded training

in critical areas of law enforcement” (“The FBI Academy Almanac” 1994, p. 2). In 1935, the early FBINA, then called the FBI National Police Training School, was located in Classroom #1, fifth floor of the Justice Department Building in Washington, D. C. (H. Clegg, personal communication, December 16, 1976). That early FBI training building was located at what is now called Hocmuth Hall, USMC Base Quantico. The structure was a large, three-story brick building, which was very modern as compared to the early Danish folk high schools described by Kold (Alford, 1966, p. 1), but very contemporary with the university residential movement in the United States (Houle, 1971). The FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover wanted to enhance and better train the local police officers to deal with expanding crime problems. Hoover believed that this better-trained police officer would then go back to his or her department and share their new knowledge and experience with other members of the department (“FBI Academy Almanac” 1994, p. 2).

In October 1941, The National Police Training School’s move to the FBI’s training facility coincided with World War II and the curriculum was expanded to meet the new challenges “such as civil defense, sabotage, treason, plus Nazism, and Fascism” (p. 2). In July 1944, the new name of FBI National Academy was adopted by the graduating class of police officers, and by the 1950s, this organization grew to meet the threat of communism and demands of a rising crime rate. Over the next fifty years, the FBINA expanded in size from an initial class of twenty-three to over 270 police officers per class and from a “few vocational skills courses” to a curriculum that “continues to reflect the newest challenges in law enforcement” (p. 7).

Although the challenges: nationalism, patriotism, development of a common culture, the “living word,” faced by Grundtvig in the mid-nineteenth century were different than the challenges facing law enforcement in the twentieth century, there are many common threads of parallelism. The National Police Training School was envisioned as a tool for the enhancement and improvement of the profession of law enforcement to combat the growing rate of crime and threats of crimes associated with World War II and its aftermath. FBI Director Hoover recognized the importance of aligning the efforts of the FBI with local law enforcement to face the crime problems domestically and internationally facing the United States. Like Grundtvig and the Danish folk school movement, the residential adult environment, especially the FBINA as an example, provided a sanctuary where training and education could be shared with teacher and student.

Livingstone (1945) and many years later Buskey (1990) echoed the conceptual roots of residential adult education in the student, the residence, and the education. As was described in Chapter One: “first, the student, law enforcement officers seeking to enhance their learning; second, residence, the FBI Academy, where the participants (students) reside, share meals and gather in common facilities; and third, education, the law enforcement participants are there to enhance their professional knowledge and skills, while sharing their experiences with the faculty, staff, and law enforcement peers” (Chapter 1, pp. 2-3).

In the 1970s, the University of Virginia (UVA) accredited the FBINA and the police officers received university credit that could be applied to their pursuit of an education beyond secondary school. Like the University of Minnesota in 1935, the first American university to adopt a residential adult education program (Houle, 1971), the FBINA and UVA formed an educational partnership, which continues today, for the enhancement and improvement of the law enforcement profession.

Like the research outlined in Chapter I and II of this study, the FBINA is a contemporary example of the residential adult learning environment. The characteristics described by the

research of Schacht (1956, 1960), Alford (1966), Houle (1971), Buskey (1990), Simpson and Kasworm (1990), Fleming (1996, 1998), and Cohen and Piper (2000) are present in the FBINA. It is the relationship of these characteristics and their impact on the participant satisfaction of the learning environment that drives this study.

Chapter Summary

In Chapter II, this study reviewed the relevant literature and research pertaining to the concept of residential adult education by tracing the historical background of residential adult education, the characteristics that describe and define the residential adult learning experience and the research that has attempted to assess the effectiveness of residential adult learning environment. Chapter II was organized along the following sections: a) the historical development of the “*Folkehojskole*”, the Danish People’s High School, (Folk High School), its spread in Europe and migration to the United States, b) characteristics of the residential adult learning environment, c) the relevant research that assessed the concept of residential adult education, and d) the FBINA, as an example of a residential adult education.

As mentioned, a major part of this study was based on the researcher’s interest in the historical background of residential adult education and the recent research conducted by Fleming (1996) and her call for additional research that further defined and clarified the residential experience and the characteristics associated with adult residential education. The FBINA was case study of a residential adult learning environment. The study focused on the characteristics of residential adult learning environments and the perceptions of law enforcement students (participants) towards satisfaction of the residential learning process.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Overview

The historical roots of residential adult education can be traced back to the “*folkehojskole*” in mid-nineteenth century Denmark and the philosophical writings Bishop N. F. S. Grundtvig (Alford, 1966; Schacht, 1957). Over the next 150 years, the folk high school concept spread throughout the world and the United States. Uniquely, wherever the concept spread, the folk high school took on characteristics common to the culture and situated itself based on the needs of the people in the adult learning environment (Houle, 1971). Since the 1990s, there has been renewed interest in the quality of learning in the residential adult learning environment (Buskey, 1990; Cohen & Piper, 2000; Fleming, 1996, 1997, 1998; Simpson & Kasworm, 1990).

The empirical research and conceptual development reviewed in earlier chapters continues to illustrate the need to quantitatively assess the relationship between the characteristics of adult residential learning environments and the overall participant satisfaction of the residential learning process. As reviewed in the literature, much of the recent research has been qualitative in nature with little emphasis on the satisfaction of the participant in connection with the residential adult learning experience. Fleming (1996) alluded to a “magical quality” of the residential experience and Kirkpatrick (1998) indicated the importance of “Level – 1 Reaction Evaluation” in the overall assessment of a learning activity.

Fleming (1996) cited the earlier research of Buskey (1970, 1990), Houle (1971), Schacht (1956, 1960), Simpson and Kasworm (1990), as well as her own personal experience and developed a conceptual framework (“Framework of Characteristics of Residential Learning”), a synthesis of the significant characteristics associated with residential adult learning environments (see Figure 1, p. 9). From this “Framework,” the participants in Fleming’s study identified three descriptive themes (building relationships in residence, learning in residence, and individual change) and intertwined within the descriptive themes, they identified two overarching themes (detachment and continuity). As a result, a “Matrix of Key Elements” (see Table 1 & 2, Chapter 1) was developed by the participant’s perception of residential learning in Fleming’s study. Fleming suggested that further testing of the “Matrix” was warranted and especially in a variety of different contexts. The FBINA is an example of a different context for further quantitative testing of the “Matrix.” This study continued this tradition and examined the extent of empirical support for Fleming’s compelling argument.

Research Questions

The research question which comprised this study is centered upon the relationship between the two “overarching themes of detachment and continuity,” the three “descriptive themes: building relationships, learning in residence, and individual change” as described by Fleming (1996, 1997, 1998) and the overall participant’s perception of satisfaction of the residential adult experience as evaluated by the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale. The hypotheses were designed to determine: a) the strength and direction of the relationship, b) whether their

total impact on satisfaction varies and c) if the variation in satisfaction could be predicted by the independent (predictor) variables.

Using the FBI National Academy as the sample population, the criteria were based on the quantification of scores relating to statements derived from the “Matrix of Key Elements” and overall satisfaction on their residential adult learning experience. The “Matrix of Key Elements” was measured with a Likert-style survey instrument developed by the researcher, while overall satisfaction was discerned from the mean or scale numerical score on the Kropp-Verner Scale.

Six hypotheses formed the basis of this study. Univariate analysis was used to summarize and describe the five-predictor (independent) variables and one criterion (dependent) variable. Descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation were used. Bivariate analysis, Pearson’s correlation coefficient was used to assess the strength of association and the direction of the ordinal (Spearman’s rho used for additional comparison) and interval variables under investigation. Multivariate statistical analysis, regression (Standard and Step-wise), was used to analyze the relationship of the five-predictor variables and the one criterion variable.

The five predictor (independent) variables are the overarching themes: (a) detachment and (b) continuity, and the descriptive themes: (a) building relationships in residence, (b) learning in residence, and (c) individual change (Fleming, 1996, 1998). In this study, the criterion (dependent) variable is the participant’s perception of satisfaction rating, as measured by the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale, of the FBINA residential learning environment.

Hypothesis

The principal research hypothesis for this study was the following:

1. There is a positive association between the two overarching and three descriptive themes and the participant’s perception of satisfaction with the residential adult learning environment.

Additionally, beyond examining this overall question, one of the focuses of this study is to determine the contributions of the individual concepts. Do the overarching and descriptive themes (Fleming 1996, 1998) individually or in combination have a positive association with the overall participant satisfaction determined by the Kropp-Verner Scale? Each is also examined in the context of specific sub-hypotheses as detailed below.

Sub-Hypotheses

For each of these (H1-H6) hypotheses, bivariate analysis, Pearson’s correlation coefficient, was used to assess the strength and direction of the relationship. Likert scales often are measures at the ordinal level, which would require Spearman’s rho, but because of the scale construction, the Likert responses are treated as interval data. In addition to Pearson’s correlation coefficient, Spearman’s rho was used for the comparison of results.

H1: There is a positive association between detachment and participant satisfaction within the residential adult learning environment.

Statements 5, 12, 13, 18, 26, and 33 (see Appendix D) specifically address the overarching theme of “detachment,” while Part II (see Appendix C) of the survey relates to the Kropp-Verner Scale.

Schacht (1956) stated that detachment is “accompanied by a sense of liberation and at least temporarily, suspended responsibility from the demands of office, shop, or home” (p. 341).

As a “value of residence” detachment was critical for the success of the adult learning program. Detachment was an essential component of the Danish folk high schools and the European versions of residential universities and colleges (Alford, 1966, 1969). Fleming (1996, 1998) noted that detachment was one of two overarching themes that wove throughout the residential experience in her study of participant perceptions. Schacht (1960) stated that the withdrawal from familiar activities allows the participant time to study and reflect on the content. Cohen and Piper (2000) supported the assertions of Schacht and Fleming in the “dynamic of detachment” and added “students must leave their regular routines and familiar circumstances to attend the nine-day retreat. Left behind are the suits, ties, briefcases, and outward badges of work identity, as well as children, spouses, homes and extended families” (p. 209). Kafka and Griffith (1984) found in their research that “group isolation is a physical fact with psychological and social consequences which may contribute to the quality of an educational experience” (p. 21). Fleming (1998) described detachment as an “overarching theme [that] refers to both the physical and psychological isolation from the real world experienced by participants of residential learning programs” (p. 267). For the purposes of this study and H1, the overarching theme of detachment will be treated as one conceptual variable.

H2: There is a positive association between continuity and participant satisfaction within the residential adult learning environment.

Statements 1, 7, 21, and 28 (see Appendix D) specifically address the overarching theme of “continuity.”

Schacht (1960) indicated that a “change in environment to a new and different place” offers the individual the opportunity to “experiment with new ideas in a supportive setting” and to avoid disruptions in the learning process (p. 2). Collins (1985) felt the “programmatic structure and the physical setting should be such that participants can get away on their own or with companions for periods of reflection necessary to sharpen mental focus” (p. 71). Fleming (1998) offered continuity as a second overarching theme in her study, which “refers to the continuous and uninterrupted nature of residential learning programs and opportunities afforded program participants” (p. 267). As Fleming (1998) found the relationship between detachment and continuity (change in environment) plays a significant role in the residential experience, especially for the participants. For these reasons, it is expected that the positive effects of continuity on satisfaction will be seen here.

H3: There is a positive association between “building relationships” and participant satisfaction within the residential adult learning environment.

Statements 3, 4, 6, 14, 15, 17, 19, 22, and 25 (see Appendix D) specifically address the descriptive theme of “building relationships.”

Schacht opined that personal relationships, which develop from the “community” of the residential experience, are most significant. Schacht (1956) further added that “perhaps the greatest value in a residential experience lies in living together in a group larger than the ordinary family circle, composed of keen-minded individuals with varied tastes and interests and of varied dispositions” (p. 346). Schacht (1960) describes community as “wherein people live together in a group larger than the normal family.... different disciplines, backgrounds, jobs, and family situations, with different dispositions and interests provide feedback and growth experiences...” (pp.2-4). Houle (1971) described the “sense of community” as essential to the residential center, a place that “leads the individual to enlarge his knowledge of others and of himself in relation to others” (p. 16). It is expected that these contentions will be borne out in the examination of the FBI National Academy as well.

H4: There is a positive association between “learning in residence” and participant satisfaction within the residential adult learning experience.

Statements 2, 11, 20, 23, 29, and 30 (see Appendix D) specifically address the descriptive theme of “learning in residence.”

Schacht (1960) stressed that most residential adult education provides an environment where “learning can be a primary activity, with education scheduled at all hours, and where the whole person can become involved in the learning process without gaps for work and family responsibility” (pp. 2-4). Kafka and Griffith (1984) identified “concentration on program content refers to the intensity of the participants’ single purpose for cognitive activity” (p. 21). Focus on the learning activity is consistent with adult learning experience, especially an attempt to integrate living experiences with the learning process (Flanagan, 1975). Schacht (1960) asserted that time was a significant advantage for the residential adult learning environment. It allows “for the learning process, which allows for absorption, assimilation, integration, practice and application” (pp. 2-4). Fleming (1998) indicated time, especially “free time,” was critical for learning in residence. “Participants learn through being immersed, having fun and playing, through interpersonal relationships, and through learning about themselves” (Fleming, 1998, p. 265). Collins (1985) advised residential adult education facilitators to “engender a shared experience among all participants.... activities, mealtimes, and the layout of living quarters should reflect the communal nature of the residential continuing education experience” (p. 70).

Intimacy is a critical component of residency because it defines the basic structure of living together in a common facility. Schacht (1960) defined intimacy as “constant association at meals, in sessions, in outdoor activities, or in the living room, encourages the process of becoming acquainted with others, which in turn, facilitates the formal learning” (pp. 2-4). Fleming (1998) described residential learning experiences “as situations in which individuals live and learn together, 24 hours a day, in the same location, for the full duration of a common program of study” (p. 260). It is expected that these contentions will be borne out in the examination of the FBI National Academy as well.

H5: There is a positive association between “individual change” and participant satisfaction within the residential adult learning experience.

Statements 8, 9, 10, 16, 24, 27, 31, and 32 (see Appendix D) specifically address the descriptive theme of “individual change.”

Fleming (1996) looked at “individual change” through the classification of knowledge, attitude, feeling, behavior, and skill. Participants described a “sense of safety within the residential adult learning environment, where they could “loosen up” and interact other participants on an equal basis, sharing thoughts and ideas. One participant responded that the experience “brought out the kid” in the learning endeavors (p. 300-303). Fleming’s study, which goes beyond the scope of this study, identified changes over time, beyond the residential experience. Many of the participants reflected that they had personal transformations and that they viewed their lives from different perspectives. The residential environment provides a “safe haven” where introspection and “critical reflection” could occur naturally (Mezirow, 1991).

Does the FBI Academy, as a residential adult learning environment, provide a safe and secure residential location for the participants to interact freely and to assess their professional and personal development?

H6: There is a complex positive association between the overarching and descriptive themes, individually and collectively, as they are positively associated with participant satisfaction within the residential adult learning experience.

Part I (Q1-33) specifically addressed the “overarching themes of detachment and continuity,” the “descriptive themes of building relationships, learning in residence, and individual change,” while Part II encompassed the Kropp-Verner Scale. Although this research does not specifically define the complex relationship between the overarching and descriptive themes and the relationship with participant satisfaction, multivariate analysis and multivariate regression was used in the analysis of H6 in an effort to explore these complex relationships.

Using the perceptions of the participants, Fleming’s (1996) “Matrix of Key Elements of the Residential Learning Experience” (see Figure 2) sought to graphically depict the inter-connections between and among the descriptive themes, building relationships, learning, and individual change in residence and the constant weaving of the overarching themes detachment and continuity throughout the residential experience (pp. 357-359). Cohen and Piper’s (2000) model of a residential adult learning community, where “program ingredients all blend into the curriculum design, which is student driven and informed by both peers and faculty,” reflect a similar inter-connection as Fleming’s study (p. 226).

Data Collection

For this current study, the sample population was drawn from the FBI National Academy (FBINA) participants who had been selected to attend the training program. Based on standard FBI selection criteria, the attendees are chosen from the police agencies worldwide. The NA is offered four times per year. This current study chose one session as representative of the FBINA population. The sample consists of approximately 250 sworn law enforcement officers, which is a sufficient number to gather data for this current study. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), the “simplest rules of thumb are $N \geq 50 + 8m$ (where m is the number of independent variables) for testing multiple correlation and $N \geq 104 + m$ for testing individual predictors” (p. 117). The 250 participants form a sufficient sample population size to perform the described statistical analysis.

Univariate statistical methods of mean and standard deviation were used to analyze the five independent variables and the one dependent variable, which was critical to the research question and the hypothesis. Additional univariate analysis was conducted on the demographics (sex, age, educational level, rank in the department and size of the department or agency) of the participants in the study and the frequency of responses to the National Academy survey Questionnaire (NASQ). Although not the focus of the research, the additional information provides insight into the participants. Chapter V will address the potential importance of the demographics and frequency of responses as they relate to recommended additional research.

Dependent Variable (Criterion)

Kirkpatrick (1998) suggested that Level 1 – Reaction “as the word reaction implies...measures how those who participate in the program react to it. I call it a measure of customer satisfaction” (p. 19). Kirkpatrick further added, “reaction had to be favorable if we were to stay in business and attract new customers as well as get present customers to return to future programs” (p. 19). An important component of any program, like the FBINA, is to get a

positive reaction to the training and education within a residential adult learning environment. A positive reaction to the educational experience sets the stage for the development of new relationships, learning, and change within the individual.

Overall participant satisfaction with residential adult education, as measured by the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale (see Appendix C), is a key concept within the framework of this study. Specifically, this research focuses on a particular residential adult learning environment, the ten-week FBI National Academy sessions offered four times per year. As mentioned earlier in this study, residential adult education has a history that dates back over 150 years, but the essential values or advantages (Schacht (1957, 1960), characteristics (Houle, 1971), or perceptions (Fleming, 1996, 1998) have remained consistent.

As addressed by Kropp and Verner (1957), “short-term educational activities for adults are hampered by the lack of instruments for evaluation” (p. 212). The authors sought to develop an instrument that would generally assess the participant’s overall satisfaction with an educational activity or program, such as the FBINA, not to evaluate specific reactions to program components or content. They offered that “one common element that appears to be measurable is the general attitude of the participant at the conclusion of an organized educational experience” (p. 212). In the original design, Kropp and Verner evaluated educational programs of only one or two days in length. Densmore (1965) extended the design of Kropp and Verner in his attitudinal study of residential continuing education programs conducted by the University Conference Services at Michigan State University’s Kellogg Center for Continuing Education. One of the purposes of Densmore’s study was... “to obtain a quantified measure of the participants’ total reaction of satisfaction from participating in the conferences...” (pp. 1-3).

Since the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale does not specifically address reliability and validity testing, it is important for this study to detail the basic methodology of scale construction. Kropp and Verner used the methodology developed by Thurstone and Chave. “The method of preparing the items was that used by Remmers in adapting the Thurstone technique so that ‘attitudes in general’ could be measured” (Kropp & Verner, 1957, p. 213). Kropp and Verner suggested that in using the “Remmers modifications, items included in the scale are sufficiently general to permit their application to almost any attitude object” (p. 213).

Kropp and Verner (1957) constructed the instrument by asking a group of 60 adults to “write a series of general statements that might express the range of their own personal reactions to some meeting or conference they had attended that was educational in nature” (p. 213). The statements were reviewed to eliminate those which focused on specific elements of the educational programs. A group of 158 statements were then “edited into a consistent style without altering their meaning” (p. 213), and then were submitted to 70 randomly selected judges to be categorized and scored using an 11-point scale. Point one was the first category selected and it reflected “the most favorable reaction,” the sixth category indicated the “mid-point,” and the eleventh category reflected “the least favorable” reaction (p. 213).

Kropp and Verner (1957) determined the ratings (values) for the scale in the following manner:

With the judgments at hand, the median value of the ratings given to each statement was computed followed by the first and third quartile for each item. This determined the median and the range in which the middle half of the judges’ ratings fell. The final selection of a statement was then controlled by its statistical position. Thus, when the range covering the middle half of the ratings for a given statement was broad, it was assumed that the judges could not agree on its on the eleven-point scale and that

statement was discarded. On this basis, items with an inter-quartile range of two or greater were discarded. The remaining statements were placed serially according to the median values of their rating and the final items for the scale selected arbitrarily with priority given to those that have whole or half values (p. 213).

Kropp and Verner (1957) suggested, based on the Thurstone and Chave methodology and the item preparation developed by Remmers, that the scale developed “appears to be a valid instrument for getting an over-all rating of participant reaction to meetings” (p. 214). Kropp and Verner further added that the scale’s value will be based on its use in the various fields of study.

O’Shea and Ranofsky (1964), using a mailed questionnaire, found the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale useful in assessing the general reaction (attitude) of dental educators that gathered for a short training session. Densmore (1965) found the Attitude Scale useful in evaluating (measuring) conference success and the overall participant satisfaction at Michigan State University’s Kellogg Center for Continuing Education.

Kropp and Verner (1957) called for additional use of the instrument in a variety of education settings as a measure of overall participant satisfaction. In the “End Notes, #7” section of the article (See Appendix C), Kropp and Verner urged “anyone wishing to test this particular scale is urged to make his own reproduction of it and to use it as freely as he may desire” (p. 215). This study responded to this call for additional use and applies it to the FBINA.

Independent Variables (Predictor)

The two overarching themes: detachment and continuity and the three descriptive themes: building relationships, learning in residence, and individual change were measured as the independent (predictor) variables involved in this study.

The researcher developed a survey instrument to measure the significance of the independent variables involved in this study, because there was no specific measurement instrument that addresses the overarching and descriptive themes outlined by Fleming (1996, 1998). Using Fleming’s (1996) “Matrix of Key Elements” of the adult residential learning environment, a survey questionnaire was designed to test the twenty-five elements identified.

A portion of the survey instrument was pre-tested in late November 2002 with a class of the current FBINA session and some subtle changes were made to the questions and the written directions on the instrument. Several members of the FBI Academy faculty and adjunct instructors within the FBI National Academy offered suggestions regarding the wording of the content of the survey questions as they related to the residential experience and the adjustments were made to the survey.

Method

A survey measurement instrument (See Appendix D) examined both the participant’s perception of satisfaction with the residential adult learning environment and the independent variables, the two overarching themes: (a) detachment and (b) continuity, as well as the three descriptive themes: (c) building relationships, (d) learning in residence, and (e) individual change. The developed survey instrument followed the five-response Likert-type scale, using closed-ended questions with forced/fixed responses. The range on the instrument is from one to five with (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree). Some of the advantages of the Likert-Type Survey are that it is low cost and it could be

administered in large-group session. Administering the test in large-groups assured completion and provided an opportunity to clarify questions from the respondents. Upon completion of the questionnaire, the data were properly coded and entered into SPSS 11.0, a statistical software package for analysis.

Some of the disadvantages to the Likert-type scale survey instrument were that the responses were limited to only five possible opinions/attitudes, but the limited options force the respondent to make a choice based on the given options. This limitation enables the researcher to code the responses. The respondent did not have the ability to qualify each answer, but this was mediated (on the last page of the survey instrument) by allowing for feedback and qualification questions on the part of the respondent. As in all survey designs, the researcher/developer must acknowledge bias and through the use of expert review and pilot testing, fix the problems with the question survey (see earlier comments regarding pre-testing and pilot testing). These issues are addressed in the reliability and validity section of this chapter.

The survey instrument was created from a series of statements developed from the “Matrix of Key Elements” identified by Fleming (1996). A review expert panel of FBI Academy faculty and the Unit Chief of the FBI Academy’s Research and Analysis Unit reviewed the statement as to content and relation to a residential learning environment. Based on their review, the statements in the National Academy Survey Questionnaire (NASQ) passed the initial test of face validity. Several small classes of National Academy students provided additional insight to the structure and meaning of the statements. Their suggestions, where appropriate and where their comments added to the clarity of the statements, were altered and re-worded.

Survey Question Design and Construction

The survey questionnaire was based on the research question that guided the study. As discussed earlier, the research questions were designed to examine whether the characteristics of a residential adult learning environment positively correlated with the participant’s perception of satisfaction with the residential learning environment.

“Questionnaires are essential to and most directly associated with survey research, but they are also widely used in experiments, field research, and other data collection activities” (Babbie, 1992, p. 152). For the purposes of this study, a Likert-type scale was used because of its effectiveness and usefulness in research (Selltiz, 1959, p. 366, as cited in Weber, 1980, p. 49). The questionnaire survey, in the format of a Likert-type scale, was employed as the method of collecting data, following the recommendation of Alreck and Settle (1995), that the “Likert-type scale is useful for obtaining participant opinions or attitudes about specific issues” (p. 116).

Validity and Reliability

Two important technical considerations in the construction of a survey questionnaire are the criteria of reliability and validity (Babbie, 1992, p. 129). Following Babbie (1992) reliability “is a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same results each time” (p. 129). The measuring instrument, if reliable, should show that the “differences in scores actually reflect the true differences among individuals in the characteristic which it seeks to measure” (Selltiz, 1959, as cited in Weber, 1980, p. 57). Some of the inherent problems with reliability in surveys reside with the instrument, the researcher, and the participant. Since reliability is a basic problem in social research, researchers have created

several methods of assessment. Some of the traditional methods are test-retest, split half, using established measures, and researcher-worker reliability (Babbie, 1992p. 130-131). The National Academy Survey Questionnaire instrument was administered in the 3rd week as a pilot and again in the 9th week from which the data was collected. The scores were slightly higher in the ninth week, which supported the validity of the instrument.

In this research, a composite score was computed for each variable under consideration, summing the categories.

Specifically, the independent variables (Overarching Themes: Detachment and Continuity and Descriptive Themes: Building Relationships in Residence, Learning in Residence, and Individual Change) about residential adult learning were examined through a series of statements or attitudes based on the “Matrix of Key Elements of Residential Learning,” which helped define the particular independent variable (theme). The internal consistency of items in relation to the attitudes employed the use of Cronbach alpha to assess the internal consistency of the items (Weber, 1980, p. 59). The alpha coefficient signifies the average correlation between each item in the instrument. The closer the alpha coefficient value is to 1.00, then the higher the presumption of internal consistency. A low alpha coefficient would indicate measurement error and require a re-evaluation of the items in the survey (Weber, 1980, pp. 59-60).

Alpha coefficients were calculated for each of the variables under investigation and the correlation was moderately strong for each item (see Table 3).

Table 3

Alpha Coefficients and Reliability for the Independent Variables

Predictor Variables (Independent)	
Detachment	.50
Continuity	.63
Building Relationships in Residence	.64
Learning in Residence	.55
Individual Change	.62

Fleming’s (1996) research indicated that there was a very close connection between the two overarching themes of detachment and continuity. She posited that the close connection was intertwined with the three descriptive themes. For example, it is possible for the *continuity* of learning (program) to exist in a non-residential environment, such as the doctoral cohort at the Northern Virginia Center, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (Virginia Tech) without the impact of *detachment*. Detachment, as defined in Chapter II, exists in the adult residential environment. The combination of the two overarching themes (8 statements in the survey questionnaire) produced an alpha coefficient of .83, while the alpha coefficient for three descriptive themes (23 statements in the survey questionnaire) was .82. Using the measure of internal consistency reliability, the alpha coefficient for all 33 statements on the survey questionnaire was .83. The evaluation of the combination and the total survey (33-statements) is analyzed in Chapter IV.

The second important technical consideration is validity, defined as “the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration”

(Babbie, 1992, p. 132). Researchers have devised several methods for assessing the validity of the measuring instrument. Carmines and Zeller (1979) offered three types of validity assessment, criterion-related validity, construct validity, and content validity (as cited in Babbie, 1992, pp. 132-133). Criterion-related validity was used to validate or predict if the participants in the FBI residential adult environment were satisfied with their experience. In other words, will the level of participant satisfaction be an accurate measurement of the characteristics (attitudes) regarding the residential adult learning experience. As stated earlier by Kirkpatrick (1998), Level-1 evaluation (Reaction) looked at participant satisfaction with the overall training program. Without a “measure of customer satisfaction” it would be difficult to maintain and attract new participants to the programs.

Analytical Strategy

This study employed the use of descriptive and inferential statistics in the analytical strategy developed for assessing the impact of the characteristics of residential adult education [independent variables] and participant satisfaction with the residential adult learning environment experience [dependent variable].

Following Alreck and Settle (1995), the analysis of the survey data was broken down into two main categories: “those that describe individual variables and distributions and those that measure the relationship between variables” (p. 305). Generally the descriptions of continuous or categorical data are examined first before analyzing the relationships/association between variables (p. 305).

Babbie (1992) defined univariate analysis as “the examination of the distribution of cases on only one variable at a time” (p. 389). Univariate analysis was used to report the data such as rank in the department or agency, numbers of sworn or non-sworn personnel, type of agency (Police Department, Sheriff’s Office, County or State Agency, or Federal Law Enforcement), educational level (high school, college, post graduate), gender, or age. The study used measures of central tendency (mean and median) and dispersion (range and standard deviation) to describe these distributions.

Secondly, this study examined the relationship among the independent variables in order to explain the variation in the level of participant satisfaction with the residential learning experience. Univariate statistics, while adequate for the descriptive information, does not shed light on the relationship among the independent variables and the dependent variable. Multivariate statistics were used, such as regression. If significant bivariate relationships were found between the independent (overarching themes: (a) detachment and (b) continuity and the descriptive themes: (c) building relationships, (d) learning in residence, and (e) individual change) variables and the dependent (satisfaction) variable, then regression models would be utilized to the extent to which the independent variable could reliably explain participant satisfaction with the residential learning experience. This analysis would shed light on whether support for the arguments forwarded by Fleming (1996) and other advocates of the residential learning experience exist in the FBINA.

As a result of the National Academy Survey Questionnaire (NASQ), the data was collected and analyzed by means of bivariate and multivariate statistical analysis.

Expected Outcomes

As was mentioned earlier in this research study, one of the main challenges facing scholars and practitioners interested in residential adult education is the lack of empirical study concerning its satisfaction (Buskey, 1990; Simpson & Kasworm, 1990; Fleming 1996). Fleming (1996) called for additional clarification of terminology and concepts pertaining to the residential adult learning environment such as FBINA, as well as empirical research with regard to the components or elements that define and describe the residential experience (Schacht, 1957, 1960; Lacognata, 1970; Kafka & Griffith, 1984).

This study adds to the literature by empirically investigating the relationship of the overarching themes: detachment and continuity and the descriptive themes: building relationships, learning in residence, and individual change, in characterizing and defining the residential adult experience, as well as addressing the participant's perception of satisfaction with the residential adult learning environment as implemented in the FBINA.

Chapter Summary

This chapter sought to establish the methodological procedures anticipated for this research project. The target group (FBI National Academy students) was defined and the procedure for data collection was described. The National Academy Survey Questionnaire (NASQ) was developed by the researcher to test the participant's responses to a series (Q1-33) of statements regarding residential adult learning environments and their perception of satisfaction. The Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale was used to test the participant satisfaction and an open-ended question was provided to solicit voluntary responses regarding the participant's residential learning experience. Additionally, the NASQ sought specific demographic data from each of the respondents.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS (ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION)

This study focused on the FBI National Academy as a residential adult learning environment. The “Matrix of Key Elements,” developed and identified by Fleming (1996, 1998) as characterizing an adult residential learning environments, formed the nucleus for the development of a survey instrument which assessed the participants’ perception of attitude toward the residential adult learning environment at the FBI. Using the key elements of the Matrix, the purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between the overarching themes (detachment and continuity) and descriptive themes (building relationships in residence, learning in residence, and individual change), and the themes’ individual and collective effect on the attitude of overall participant satisfaction (as measured by the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale).

This chapter presents the descriptive and analytical findings relative to the hypotheses under study. The chapter is organized into three main sections: univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analyze. Univariate statistics are used for the descriptive analysis, while bivariate and multivariate statistics are used for examining the hypothesis about the residential learning experience. The collected data are displayed in tabular as well as in textual form throughout this chapter.

First, a demographic profile of participants is offered, as derived from Part III of the research questionnaire (see Appendix D).

Demographic Data for the Participant’s Profiles

The following graphic (see Table 4) summarizes the demographic data collected from the National Academy respondents. It should be noted that demographic (gender, age, education, agency, sworn, and rank) data are not a part of the research questions or hypothesis that are central to this study, but they do provide a snapshot and broader and richer overview of the sample that comprises this study of the FBI National Academy participants.

Table four provides a demographic overview of the 212th session of the FBI National Academy. Most of the participants were male, in the 41-50 age bracket, and with at least a college education. More than half of the participants were from local departments or agencies, numbered 401 sworn law enforcement officers and had achieved the rank of lieutenant. Full-text and tabular descriptions of the demographic data are located in Appendix F.

Univariate Analysis

Univariate statistics measure and describe one variable at a time (Babbie, 1992). Initially, this study analyzed five independent variables (detachment, continuity, building relationships, learning in residence, and individual change) and one dependent variable (satisfaction).

Means and Standard Deviations

The mean and standard deviation were calculated for each of five independent (predictor) variables and the one dependent (criterion) variable under investigation. In the “Mean” column, the first number reflects the summed mean for the variable and the number in parenthesis is the average mean (summed/number of statements) for each of the independent variables. In the “Std.

Deviation” column, a similar procedure (standard deviation/number of statements) was applied to the standard deviations of the independent variables. The mean for the dependent variable is

Table 4

Distribution of Participants to National Academy Survey Questionnaire (NASQ) Gender, Age, Education, Agency, Sworn Officers, Position/Rank

Category	(N)	Valid %
Gender		
Male	217	91.2
Female	21	8.8
Age		
21-30	4	1.7
31-40	92	38.3
41-50	126	52.5
51-60	18	7.5
Education		
High School	46	19.2
College (4yr)	136	56.7
Master’s Degree	56	23.3
Ph.D.	2	.8
Agency		
Local	126	52.5
County/Twp	59	24.6
State	29	12.1
Federal	7	2.9
International	13	5.4
Other	6	2.5
Sworn Officers		
1-49	62	26.1
50-99	37	15.5
100-200	42	17.6
201-400	25	10.5
401 and Over	72	30.3
Position or Rank		
Sergeant	28	11.7
Lieutenant	82	34.2
Captain	55	22.9
Deputy Chief	23	9.6
Chief/Sheriff	21	8.8
Other	31	12.9

the mean score for the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale. These variables are summarized below in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Independent Variables and Dependent Variable

Variable Independent (Predictor)	Mean	Std. Deviation
Detachment	15.06 (3.76)	2.83 (.71)
Continuity	16.26 (4.10)	2.66 (.67)
Building Relationships in Residence	38.39 (4.27)	3.55 (.39)
Learning in Residence	23.50 (3.91)	3.22 (.54)
Individual Change in Residence	30.30 (3.78)	3.74 (.42)
Variable Dependent (Criterion)		
Satisfaction	8.40	0.96

An assessment of the mean and standard deviation (see Table 5) indicated that the mean (mean in parentheses) for each of the independent variables and their standard deviations (in parentheses) are very similar to each other with an approximate mean of 4.00 (3.96). The Likert type scale was described in Chapter III. The responses ranged from one equals strongly disagree to five equals strongly agree with three having no opinion (see Appendix B). The means of the independent variables indicate that the responses centered around four (agree). The means and standard deviations for each individual statement (Q1-Q33) are located in Appendix E of this document.

The scoring on the dependent variable (satisfaction as measured by the Kropp-Verner Attitude Scale) ranged from 1 (little or no satisfaction) to 13 (high satisfaction) with 6 established as the midpoint, while the other categories were not enumerated. The mean of 8.40 reflects a slightly higher (2.40) level of overall satisfaction with a standard deviation of 0.96.

Frequency of Responses – National Academy Survey Questionnaire

As a part of the National Academy Survey Questionnaire (NASQ), univariate analysis (frequency) was conducted on the participant responses to each statement (identified as Q1-Q33) in the NASQ. The survey, which consisted of four parts, was filled out by the participants. The following table (see Table 6) summarizes the frequency responses of the respondents to the statements in the National Academy Survey Questionnaire (NASQ). A complete breakdown (full-text and tabular) of the statements by each independent variable is located in Appendix G, while the full-text version of the NASQ itself is contained in Appendix D.

These responses indicated an apparent overall support for the key elements of residential learning environments even though Q8, Q16, and Q26 appeared to have strong negative frequency responses. It should be noted that those questions (see Appendix D) were intentionally reversed in an attempt to secure unbiased responses. An analysis of Table 6 indicated that Q7, Q13, Q18, Q24, Q27, and Q31 had a noticeable percentage of “No Opinion” in the 3rd column. It is possible that those participants that marked “No Opinion” on certain statements were unsure or that particular statement did not impact their experience in the environment.

Table 6

Frequency of Responses for Statements Q1-Q33

Item	Strongly Agree/Agree %	No Opinion %	Strongly Disagree/Disagree %	Total %
Q1	91.4	4.5	4.0	100.0
Q2	83.2	6.6	10.2	100.0
Q3	90.6	3.7	5.7	100.0
Q4	62.2	9.8	27.8	100.0
Q5	78.7	7.3	14.0	100.0
Q6	95.5	2.5	2.0	100.0
Q7	68.9	13.5	17.6	100.0
Q8	10.7	1.6	87.7	100.0
Q9	60.7	6.6	32.8	100.0
Q10	91.0	6.6	2.4	100.0
Q11	71.3	4.5	24.2	100.0
Q12	69.7	9.0	21.3	100.0
Q13	61.1	22.1	16.8	100.0
Q14	91.0	4.9	4.1	100.0
Q15	94.6	4.5	.8	100.0
Q16	3.7	3.7	92.6	100.0
Q17	95.9	2.9	1.2	100.0
Q18	68.1	19.3	12.7	100.0
Q19	95.9	2.9	1.6	100.0
Q20	90.2	6.1	3.7	100.0
Q21	82.0	7.0	11.1	100.0
Q22	89.3	7.0	3.7	100.0
Q23	93.0	3.3	3.3	100.0
Q24	18.9	23.4	57.4	100.0
Q25	82.0	10.7	7.4	100.0
Q26	9.4	8.6	82.0	100.0
Q27	66.8	18.4	14.3	100.0
Q28	83.6	10.7	5.7	100.0
Q29	85.3	8.2	6.5	100.0
Q30	52.1	12.7	35.3	100.0
Q31	62.7	26.2	11.0	100.0
Q32	8.6	6.1	85.2	100.0
Q33	62.3	11.0	26.7	100.0

It might be unreasonable to expect each statement to solicit a response. With the exception of Q24, all of the others had a strongly agree/agree greater than 61%, which reflected positive support for the statement regarding the residential learning environment. Q24 (“For the first time in my life, I was aware of my own identity.”) indicated that over half (57.4%) of the respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed with this statement.

Bivariate Analysis

Bivariate statistics “frequently refers to the analysis of two variables...and the desire is simply to study the relationship between the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, p.2). Specifically, the focus is on the patterns of association, do high/low values on one variable correspond to high/low values on the other variable, which is the case in a positive association or relationship. In a negative association between two variables, low values on one variable correspond to high values on the other variable and vice versa (Hinton, 1995 & Kachigan, 1991).

Pearson’s r Product-Moment Correlation coefficient was used to analyze the relationship between each of the five-independent (predictor) variables and the one dependent (criterion) variable. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, Spearman rho correlation coefficient was also used to examine the relationships

The bivariate analysis examined the strength, direction, and significance between the dependent (criterion) variable satisfaction and five independent (predictor) variables delineated in the six hypotheses that comprise the overall research questions. As seen in Tables 7, a positive relationship was found between satisfaction (dependent variable) and each of the five independent (predictor) variables: (a) satisfaction and detachment ($r = .310, p \leq 0.01$), (b) satisfaction and continuity ($r = .494, p \leq 0.01$), (c) satisfaction and building relationships in residence ($r = .392, p \leq 0.01$), (d) satisfaction and learning in residence ($r = .482, p \leq 0.01$), and (e) satisfaction and individual change in residence ($r = .465, p \leq 0.01$). Each of these positive relationships was moderate in strength. The relationship between satisfaction and detachment ($r = .310, p \leq 0.01$) and building relationships in residence ($r = .392, p \leq 0.01$) were the weakest (see Table 7) relative to the other correlations.

Table 7

Correlation Matrix - Pearson Product-Moment Coefficient (Independent Variables and Dependent Variable)

	Detachment	Continuity	Building Relations in Residence	Learning in Residence	Individual Change in Residence	Satisfaction
Detachment	1					
Continuity	.555**	1				
Building Relationships in Residence	.492**	.552**	1			
Learning in Residence	.351**	.487**	.538**	1		
Individual Change in Residence	.494**	.522**	.560**	.610**	1	
Satisfaction (Kropp-Verner)	.310**	.494**	.392**	.482**	.465**	1

** $p \leq 0.01$ level (2-tailed)

As mentioned earlier, Spearman’s rho was used to calculate the association/relationship between the dependent variable and the five independent variables (see Table 8).

Table 8

Correlation Matrix - Spearman’s rho Product Moment Coefficient (Independent Variables and Dependent Variable)

	Detachment	Continuity	Building Relationships in Residence	Learning in Residence	Individual Change in Residence	Satisfaction (Kropp-Verner)
Detachment	1					
Continuity	.519**	1				
Building Relationships in Residence	.499**	.544**	1			
Learning in Residence	.367**	.456**	.541**	1		
Individual Change in Residence	.459**	.494**	.557**	.619**	1	
Satisfaction (Kropp-Verner)	.336**	.471**	.365**	.446**	.482**	1

**p ≤ 0.01 (2-tailed)

As is discerned from Table 8, there is not appreciable difference in the results from the Pearson’s r and Spearman’s rho calculations.

In Chapter 3, it was suggested that the overarching themes of detachment and continuity were closely intertwined with themselves as well as the descriptive themes. The combining of the two (detachment and continuity) overarching themes produced an alpha coefficient of .83, which suggested a high degree of interrelatedness or internal consistency. As a result, the combined new (detachment + continuity = deconti) variable under investigation is examined below.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics: Detachment + Continuity

Category	Mean	Std. Deviation
Detachment + Continuity (DECONTI)	31.32 (3.92)	4.63 (.58)

As shown in Table 5, earlier in the chapter, the combination of the two overarching themes (independent variables) is consistent with the results of detachment’s mean 15.06 (3.76)

and standard deviation 2.83 (.71) and continuity's mean 16.26 (4.10) and standard deviation 2.66 (.67) in Table 4. DECONTI's mean (see Table 9) is higher than detachment, but lower than continuity in Table 4.

Based on the alpha coefficients of detachment and continuity, individually and combined, plus the means and standard deviations, as well as the literature, these suggest combining the two variables into a single (detachment + continuity) independent (predictor) variable may be a new and significant concept for analysis. An analysis of Table 10 indicated that the relationship between DECONTI and satisfaction was $r = .457$, which was stronger than detachment individually ($r = .310$), but weaker than continuity ($r = .494$) in Table 7. This combination should be addressed based on conceptual similarity, bivariate strength of association measures, as well as a lack of specificity in the literature.

Below in Table 10, the Pearson's Product Moment Coefficient is calculated with the three remaining independent variables (building relationships in residence, learning in residence, and individual change in residence) as well as the dependent variable, satisfaction.

Table 10

Correlation Matrix - Pearson's Product Moment Coefficient with DECONTI

	Detachment + Continuity (DECONTI)
Detachment + Continuity (DECONTI)	1
Building Relationships in Residence	.593**
Learning in Residence	.476**
Individual Change in Residence	.577**
Satisfaction (Kropp-Verner)	.457**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

** $p \leq 0.01$

There is a higher Pearson's r value when the combined DECONTI variable is compared the individual detachment, but there is a slightly smaller Pearson's r when DECONTI is correlated with continuity and learning in residence compared to when they are not. There is also a slightly lower Pearson's r when DECONTI is correlated with satisfaction. In the tabular chart below (see Table 11), Spearman's rho is calculated using the combined (detachment +continuity) variable with similar results except for the "building relationships in residence independent variable which is slightly (.499 vs. .470) lower.

Table 11

Correlation Matrix - Spearman's rho Product Moment coefficient with DECONTI

	Detachment + Continuity (DECONTI)
Detachment + Continuity (DECONTI)	1
Building Relationships in Residence	.591**
Learning in Residence	.470**
Individual Change	.542**
Satisfaction (Kropp-Verner)	.459**

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

** $p \leq 0.01$

The combination of the overarching themes (detachment +continuity), DECONTI indicated a stronger positive relationship with the three other (descriptive themes) independent variables and the dependent variable, satisfaction. While bivariate analysis (correlation matrix and bivariate regression) explains the individual relationship and accounted for variance between each of the independent variables and their individual relationship with satisfaction, it does not explain the joint interaction of the independent variables and the dependent variable.

As stated earlier, “the primary goal of regression analysis is usually to investigate the relationship between a DV and several IVs” (p. 112). An initial step in this phase of analysis is to examine the relationship between satisfaction and each of the IVs (see Table 7).

Table 12 offered six models from which to explain the accounted for variance in the dependent variable and predict satisfaction. Model 1, with detachment as the independent variable, was the weakest (Adjusted R Squared = .093) supporting just 9% of the explained variance, followed by Model 3, with building relationships, supporting only 15% of the accounted for variance in satisfaction. Model 2, with continuity as the independent variable, was the strongest (Adjusted R Squared = .241) of the five independent variables, supporting 24.1% of the explained variance in satisfaction, followed by learning in residence and individual change. Model 6, the new combined independent variable, DECONTI, supported approximately 25% of the accounted for variance in satisfaction.

Multivariate Analysis

Multivariate statistics are commonly used in the analysis of complex data, especially when there are multiple independent (predictor) variables and one dependent (criterion) variables that are correlated with each other (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Multiple regression is a logical extension or enhancement to the bivariate correlational analysis addressed earlier in this chapter.

Table 12

Bivariate Regression Equations for each Independent Variable and the Dependent Variable

Independent Variables	R	Adj R Square	Std Error of the Estimate	B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig.
Model 1 Detachment	.310	.093	.91635	.115	.346	.310	.000
Model 2 Continuity	.494	.241	.83829	.179	.020	.494	.000
Model 3 Building Relationships	.392	.150	.88662	.106	.016	.392	.000
Model 4 Learning in Residence	.482	.229	.84456	.144	.017	.482	.000
Model 5 Individual Change	.465	.213	.85323	.120	.015	.465	.000
Model 6 DECONTI	.502	.249	.83382	9.911E-02 (.09)	.011	.502	.000

In this study, multiple regression (multiple linear regression) analysis, specifically statistical (stepwise) regression and standard (forced-entry) multiple regression, were used to investigate the relationship between the dependent (criterion) variable, satisfaction, and the independent (predictor) variables, detachment, continuity, building relationships in residence, learning in residence, and individual change. The purpose of multiple regression was to understand hypothesis #6 (H6) and illuminate further any relationships pertinent to hypotheses #1-5 (see H1-H5, pp. 73-79).

The core strategy of multiple regression is “what happens to overlapping variability due to correlated IVs and who determines the order of entry of the IVs into the equation” (p. 131). In standard multiple regression all the IVs (predictor variables) enter the equation at one time; “each one is assessed as if it has entered the regression after all other IVs had entered. Each IV is evaluated in terms of what it adds to the prediction of the DV that is different from the predictability afforded by all the other IVs” (p. 131).

Statistical regression (stepwise) is somewhat different from standard multiple regression, in that, some of the variables are excluded from the regression equation based upon the variance explained by the variables.

As stated earlier, “the primary goal of regression analysis is usually to investigate the relationship between a DV and several IVs” (p. 112). An initial step in this phase of analysis is to examine the relationship between satisfaction and each of the IVs (see Table 7).

In addition to the bivariate regression equations (see Table 12), this study is also interested in how these independent variables act collectively in predicting the dependent variable, satisfaction. Table 13, 13a, and 13b below displayed the application of stepwise regression analysis to the multivariate relationship between the five independent variables and the one dependent variable.

Table 13 (Model Summary) indicated that Model 1 (Continuity) best explained (accounted for) the variance in the dependent variable satisfaction. The addition of Models 2 and 3 accounted for an increase with the variance in the dependent variable, satisfaction. Model 3 (continuity, learning in residence, and individual change) best explains the variance in the dependent variable. According to the stepwise regression analysis, detachment and building relationships in residence did not appear to be significant in contributing to the explained variance in the dependent variable.

Table 13

Model Summary (Stepwise Regression)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of The Estimate
1	.494a	.244	.241	.83829
2	.566b	.320	.315	.79640
3	.580c	.336	.328	.78862

a. Predictors: (Constant), Continuity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Continuity, Learning in Residence

c. Predictors: (Constant), Continuity, Learning in Residence, Individual Change

Table 13a

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	54.796	1	54.796	77.976	.000a
Residual	170.060	242	.703		
Total	224.856	243			
2 Regression	72.003	2	36.001	56.763	.000b
Residual	152.853	241	.634		
Total	224.856	243			
3 Regression	75.953	3	25.198	40.516	.000c
Residual	149.263	240	.622		
Total	224.856	243			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Continuity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Continuity, Learning in Residence

c. Predictors: (Constant), Continuity, Learning in Residence, Individual Change

d. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction (CVSATISF)

Table 13b

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.
1 (Constant)	5.489	.494	16.461	.000
Continuity	.179		8.830	.000
2 (Constant)	4.175	.405		.000
Continuity	.123	.022	.339	.000
Learning in R	9.459E-02 (.09)	.018	.317	.000
3 (Constant)	3.896		9.333	.000
Continuity	.105	.290	4.548	.000
Learning in R	7.107E-02 (.07)	.238	3.471	.001
Individual C	4.348E-02 (.04)	.169	2.403	.017

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction (CVSATISF)

Table 14, 14a, and 14b below applied standard multiple regression (forced-entry) analysis to the five independent variables and one dependent variable.

Table 14

Model Summary (Standard Multiple Regression - Forced-Entry)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.581a	.337	.323	.79145

a. Predictors: (Constant), INDIVCHA, DETACH2, BUILDREL, LEARNINGR, CONTINUI

Table 14a

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	75.773	5	15.155	24.193	.000a
Residual	149.083	238	.626		
Total	224.856	243			

a. Predictors: (Constant), INDIVCHA, DETACH2, BUILDREL, LEARNINR, CONTINUI

b. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction (CVSATISF)

Table 14b

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.
1 (Constant)	3.813		6.812	.000
DETACH2	-1.185E-02 (-.01)	-.032	-.473	.636
CONTINUI	.107	.296	4.133	.000
BUILDREL	6.564E-03 (.006)	.024	.338	.736
LEARNINR	6.909E-02 (.06)	.231	3.262	.001
INDIVCHA	4.431E-02 (.04)	.172	2.303	.022

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction (CVSATISF)

Table 14 (Model Summary) reflected that all five of the independent variables were entered into the multiple regression equation and that they accounted for approximately 32.3% of the variance in the dependent variable. Table 14b (beta coefficients) reflected that detachment (-.032) and building relationships in residence (.024) appeared to have less of an impact on the dependent variable, satisfaction. Continuity (.296), learning in residence (.231), and individual change (.172) together appear to account for most of the explained variance in the dependent variable.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter IV analysis and based on the research of Fleming (1996), the two overarching themes of detachment and continuity were “intertwined” and strongly related ($r = .555$) with each other (see Table 7). Earlier analysis in this chapter supported this claim as the new combined independent variable; DECONTI may in fact be a new concept in the study. Table 9 addressed the mean and standard deviation of the new variable, while Table 10 reflected its relationship with the other independent variables and the dependent variable. Table 12 showed that DECONTI, individually, in a bivariate regression equation, best predicted (accounted for variance) in the dependent variable, satisfaction.

Table 15, 15a, and 15b applies stepwise regression analysis to the DECONTI, building relationships in residence, learning in residence, individual change, and the dependent variable, satisfaction.

Table 15, 15a, and 15b, with DECONTI, indicated slightly higher beta coefficients. In addition, impact on the variance of the dependent variable is slightly higher (DECONTI - .502 vs. Continuity - .494).

Table 15

Model Summary (Stepwise Regression with DECONTI)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of The estimate
1	.502a	.252	.249	.83382
2	.565b	.320	.314	.79666
3	.576c	.331	.323	.79152

a. Predictors: (Constant), DECONTI

b. Predictors: (Constant), DECONTI, Learning in Residence

c. Predictors: (Constant), DECONTI, Learning in Residence, Individual Change

Table 15a

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	56.604	1	56.604	81.415	.000a
Residual	168.252	242	.695		
Total	224.856	243			
2 Regression	71.900	2	35.950	56.643	.000b
Residual	152.956	241	.635		
Total	224.856	243			
3 Regression	74.496	3	24.832	39.636	.000c
Residual	150.360	240	.627		
Total	224.856	243			

a. Predictors: (Constant), DECONTI

b. Predictors: (Constant), DECONTI, Learning in Residence

c. Predictors: (Constant), DECONTI, Learning in Residence, Individual Change

d. Dependent Variable: CVSATISF

Table 15b

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	5.292		15.203	.000
DECONTI	9.911E-02 (.09)	.502	9.023	.000
2 (Constant)	4.126		10.096	.000
DECONTI	6.814E-02 (.06)	.345	5.565	.000
Learning in R	9.088E-02 (.09)	.304	4.909	.000
3 (Constant)	3.914		9.337	.000
DECONTI	5.744E-02 (.05)	.291	4.334	.000
Learning in R	7.227E-02 (.07)	.242	3.519	.001
Individual C	3.809E-02 (.03)	.148	2.036	.043

a. Dependent Variable: CVSATISF

