

EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHIES AND TEACHING STYLES AMONG PRIVATE BASIC EDUCATION TEACHERS IN TAGBILARAN CITY, BOHOL

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ABSTRACT

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This study described the educational philosophies and self-reported teaching styles of 129 private basic education teachers in Tagbilaran City, Bohol. A quantitative survey provided information on teachers' profiles and their reported philosophical and instructional orientations. The most common individual philosophical classifications were essentialism (18.6%) and perennialism (16.3%), with

41.9% of respondents falling under combination orientations. Demonstrator was the most popular teaching style (33.3%), followed by Authoritarian (27.9%). Combined teaching styles accounted for 15.5% of respondents. Teachers reported a wide range of ideas and techniques, with an emphasis



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on explanation, modeling, and mentoring. Differences between research may reflect the settings and instruments employed. These findings may encourage teachers to reflect on their lessons and identify areas for professional development. Because the study was based on self-report and had little score data, the classifications reflect the methodologies given by respondents. They do not demonstrate educational effectiveness, cause-and-effect relationships, or the evolution of beliefs over time.

Introduction

Teachers' beliefs about the purpose of education are a good starting point for understanding their teaching choices. Some teachers value basic knowledge, lasting ideas, learning by doing, social responsibility, or personal choice. These beliefs can help explain how teachers view their work, but what they say they believe may not always align with what they actually do.

Research in Bohol provides a good local reference. Relator (2024) researched philosophical beliefs and educational methods among instructors in San Roque, Mabini, Bohol, and discovered a strong relationship between them. The findings support further research into this relationship across a variety of school environments, but they do not demonstrate that philosophical concepts influence specific teaching methods. In Nigeria, Jabbar (2018) discovered a modestly positive relationship between teachers' preferred teaching techniques and educational philosophies, with essentialism and lecture approaches predominating in the sample.

Other research shows how philosophical concepts affect several aspects of education. Yolcu and Sarı (2022) analyzed pre-service teachers' professional perspectives and attitudes on educational philosophy. Alanoglu et al. (2022) investigated digital literacy among 298 primary school teachers in Turkey and found that resistance to change mediated the relationship between digital literacy and educational ideals. Although these studies give context, their demographics and outcomes are not comparable to those of Tagbilaran City's private basic education teachers.

A philosophical viewpoint reveals what a teacher considers important, whereas a teaching-style score reflects how a teacher characterizes their instructional practices. Teachers may value both fundamental knowledge and student autonomy. Grouping teachers into a single group simplifies analysis; hence, it is necessary to determine the criteria for classification.

This study investigates the educational philosophies and self-reported teaching strategies of private basic education teachers in Tagbilaran City. It contrasts these tendencies with findings from other studies and investigates the consequences for faculty development. The analysis is based exclusively on instructor self-reported data, without classroom observations or student outcomes.

The five philosophical perspectives studied were essentialism, perennialism,

progressivism, social reconstructionism, and existentialism. Core knowledge and skills: Essentialism. Perennialism: perennial ideas. Progressivism: experience and needs of learners. Social Reconstructionism: Education & Social Issues. Existentialism: human choice and responsibility.

This research examines pedagogical ideologies, teachers' views, and teaching approaches. Ozturk (2023) studied how self-awareness and metacognition help students make decisions independently and take responsibility for them in existentialist education.

Grasha (1994) identified five teaching roles: the Expert, the Formal Authority, the Personal Model, the Facilitator, and the Delegator. The study's customized survey divided people into four groups: Authoritarian, Demonstrator, Facilitator, and Delegator. It is not assumed that the categories used in the study correspond to Grasha's first five styles.

Each area focuses on a distinct aspect of instruction. The demonstrator stresses explanation and modeling. The authoritarian style stresses the teacher's role in giving directions. The facilitator guides students as they learn. The delegator gives learners more responsibility, but the teacher remains available to support them. These explanations clarify the categories; however, the questionnaire items provide the basis for interpreting them. A teacher's rating does not necessarily reflect the strategy employed in any given lesson.

The study aimed to describe the teachers in terms of their professional and personal lives, as well as their stated educational philosophies and teaching styles. The results and other studies in this area were also intended to inform faculty development. The conclusions are based on the available descriptive data.

Methodology

Design and participants. The study used a quantitative survey involving 129 private basic education teachers in Tagbilaran City, Bohol. Participation was voluntary. Some invited teachers declined to participate, and one school administrator did not respond despite follow-ups. The findings describe the participating teachers and may not represent all private basic education teachers in the city. Nonresponse may have changed what was in the sample. There is no margin of error given because the needed information about the population and sampling was not provided. Age and level of education help describe the respondents, but they don't explain why their beliefs differ.

Instruments and Scoring.

The study used the Educational Philosophies Self-Assessment Questionnaire attributed to Cohen (1999) and a teaching-style questionnaire informed by Grasha's (1994) framework. The teaching-style questionnaire covered Authoritarian, Demonstrator, Facilitator, and Delegator categories. Both questionnaires were described as using a five-point agreement scale. Table 1 summarizes the instruments and distinguishes the reported categories

from the original framework.

Table 1. *Instruments and reported scoring information*

Component	Source and coverage	Response format	Scoring and interpretation
Teacher profile	Sex, age, educational attainment, and teaching experience	Categorical responses	Frequencies and percentages describe the sample. Civil status is excluded because the source figures conflict.
Educational philosophy	Self-assessment attributed to Cohen (1999); five philosophical orientations	Five-point agreement scale	Individual and combined classifications are summarized as frequencies. Combined subgroups are pooled. Item-level classification rules were unavailable.
Teaching style	Four reported categories informed by Grasha (1994): Authoritarian, Demonstrator, Facilitator, and Delegator	Five-point agreement scale	Individual and combined classifications are reported. These categories differ from Grasha’s original framework; detailed adaptation and tie rules were unavailable.

Table 2 presents the response codes, agreement anchors, and descriptive mean-score intervals stated for the questionnaires. The score intervals describe endorsement of questionnaire statements. They are separate from the procedure used to assign a dominant philosophy or teaching-style classification.

Table 2. *Response codes and descriptive mean-score intervals*

Code	Response anchor	Mean-score interval	Descriptive level
5	Strongly agree	4.20–5.00	Very high
4	Moderately agree	3.40–4.19	High
3	Undecided	2.60–3.39	Moderate
2	Moderately disagree	1.80–2.59	Low
1	Strongly disagree	1.00–1.79	Very low

Note. The intervals indicate agreement with the questionnaire statements. They do not measure teaching quality or the frequency of a behavior in the classroom. These descriptive ranges are not validated cutoffs. This paper reports category frequencies and percentages; it does not derive subscale means from the intervals.

When an instrument’s scoring guide allows it, a category mean is calculated by adding the relevant item scores and dividing by the number

of items included. Reverse-scored items and missing responses must first be handled according to the guide. This calculation differs from assigning a respondent to a category and does not confirm how the classifications in this study were obtained.

The available summaries include individual and combined classifications, but the item-level scoring guide and rules for tied scores were unavailable. Combined classifications are therefore reported without assuming that they resulted from equal scores. For educational philosophy, the combined classifications were pooled into one category because the subgroup labels were inconsistent.

The researcher reported pilot testing with teachers outside the final sample and identified Cronbach's alpha as the reliability measure. However, the pilot sample size and subscale coefficients were not provided. The available information is therefore insufficient to assess the adapted instrument's reliability or validity.

Data analysis. We used frequencies and percentages to summarize the available profile information and reported classifications. For each category, the percentage was calculated by dividing its frequency by 129 and multiplying by 100. Percentages are shown to one decimal place. The combined educational philosophy category pools the four combined rows in the source table, totaling 54 respondents; its subgroup composition is not interpreted.

Tables 5 and 6 reproduce the earlier inferential outputs without recalculation. Cross-tabulations, expected cell counts, and correlation coding were unavailable. The conclusions therefore remain descriptive; arbitrary codes for nominal categories do not provide a meaningful rank order.

Ethical considerations. The researcher reported to the University of Bohol Ethics Review Committee. Participants were informed about the study and **could** refuse or withdraw. Privacy and confidentiality were maintained, and responses were used for research purposes. No permission number, approval date, or further data-protection procedure is provided here since this information was not included.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Respondent profile. Of the 129 respondents, 114 (88.4%) were women. The largest age group was 25–29 years (44.2%). More than half held a bachelor's degree (55.0%), while 38.8% had taken master's degree units. Those with fewer than three years of teaching experience made up the largest experience group (38.0%). These figures describe the participating teachers but do not, by themselves, explain their teaching preferences.

The female majority is consistent with the Philippine context discussed by Bongco and Abenes (2019). Their study drew on narratives from ten female basic education teachers to examine how expectations at home and at school can intersect with professional opportunities. This provides context for the

present sex distribution. It does not establish that the participating teachers experienced the same constraints or that women and men use different teaching styles.

Educational philosophies. Essentialism was the most frequently cited individual philosophical classification (24 teachers, 18.6%), followed by Perennialism (21 teachers, 16.3%). Together, these two individual categories accounted for 34.9% of respondents. A further 54 teachers (41.9%) were recorded under combined orientations. Table 3 groups those combined classifications without assigning an uncertain subgroup label.

Table 3. *Educational philosophy classifications (n = 129)*

Classification	n	%
Essentialism	24	18.6
Perennialism	21	16.3
Progressivism	14	10.9
Social Reconstructionism	13	10.1
Existentialism	3	2.3
Combined orientations	54	41.9
Total	129	100.0

Some teachers were placed in more than one philosophical category, as shown by the combined category. This could mean their views overlap, but the category counts don't show how these ideas show up in the classroom. For example, a teacher might stress the basics while also encouraging student participation. Classroom observations or interviews would help show how teachers balance these duties.

Essentialism (18.6% of respondents) was the most popular approach. In 2018, Jabbar found that essentialism and lecture methods were popular among secondary school teachers in Kano, Nigeria. This fits with what you said. The leading orientation is similar, but the samples and instruments used make a deeper comparison impossible.

Also, Relator looked at 30 teachers in San Roque, Mabini, Bohol, in 2024. For both beliefs and actions, progressivism got the best average scores (3.63 for beliefs and 3.69 for actions). This suggests that teachers may have different views, even within the same province. However, you cannot directly compare these mean scores to the percentages used in this study.

Yolcu and Sarı (2022) examined 793 future teachers and found that a professional teaching method was positively associated with both Progressivism and Existentialism way. Their research offers another way to view the connection between teachers' views of their job and the beliefs of those who work with them. Their results provide background information but not a direct comparison because they examined professional views rather than the teaching-style categories used here.

Ozturk (2023) relates existentialist education to learner agency, self-knowledge, and responsible decision-making. From this perspective, the few respondents who identified with Existentialism should not be taken to imply that other respondents place little importance on learner choice. Some concepts that align with an orientation are ones teachers could support without being placed in this category. Subscale scores and examples from their lessons would further clarify these perspectives.

Teaching styles. The most common type of teaching style was described by 43 teachers (33.3%) as demonstrator. This was followed by 36 teachers (27.9%) who described themselves as authoritarian. 12.4% of the votes went to Facilitator, and 10.9% went to Delegator. Some teachers were a mix of two types: Authoritarian–Demonstrator (14.0%) and Demonstrator–Delegator (1.6%). These graphs show the range of individual and mixed styles that were reported by the sample.

Table 4. *Self-reported teaching-style classifications (n = 129)*

Classification	n	%
Authoritarian	36	27.9
Demonstrator	43	33.3
Delegator	14	10.9
Facilitator	16	12.4
Authoritarian- Demonstrator	18	14.0
Demonstrator-Delegator	2	1.6
Total	129	100.0

The teaching-style results show that explanation, modeling, and teacher direction are common in teachers' reported methods. However, the data do not show whether these methods were effective or how often teachers used other styles. Combined teaching styles were reported by 20 teachers (15.5% of the

sample). The percentages for each part may differ slightly due to rounding.

A contrasting distribution was reported by Dilekli and Tezci (2016) among 1,003 classroom teachers in Turkey. Facilitator was the most common style at 47.1%, whereas the present four-category adaptation classified 12.4% as Facilitator. Their study also found that facilitator style was relevant to reported practices for teaching thinking skills. This contrast should be treated cautiously because they used Grasha's five-style scale and examined a different teaching outcome. Interpreting the difference as a direct measure of the relative quality of the two teacher groups would be misleading.

The findings point to the need to examine more closely how teachers blend explanation and modeling with opportunity for students to reason, practice, and make judgments. A Demonstrator may ask questions during a demonstration, and a Facilitator may give direct instruction when learners need support. The questionnaire results do not reveal which tactics are combined within a lesson. A classroom observation or a lesson plan review may provide insight.

Yoshida et al. (2024) assessed four teaching styles among 1,261 nursing faculty members in Japan, ranging from clearly teacher-centered to clearly learner-centered. Their results provide context for interpreting the combined classifications in the current investigation. But differences in instruments and category labeling make comparison impossible. Their groups should not be assumed to map onto the Authoritarian–Demonstrator categorization utilized here. Overall, the results suggest it may be more useful to understand differences in emphasis among teaching styles than to distinguish simply between conventional and modern teaching approaches.

Reading teacher profiles alongside the findings. The profile helps identify who participated, but it cannot explain the **distribution of philosophies or styles** on its own. Most respondents were women; **the largest age group was 25–29 years old, and many held a bachelor's degree or had taken master's-level units.** These separate distributions do not show which orientations younger teachers, women, or teachers pursuing graduate study held. A cross-tabulation would be needed even to describe those combinations.

Jabbar (2018) found no significant differences in teaching styles by sex or qualifications. This provides a reference point for future research in Tagbilaran, although differences in instruments and school settings limit its application to the present sample. Here, the teachers' profiles provide background, while possible relationships between their characteristics and teaching styles remain open to further study.

The educational profile may also help guide faculty development. Teachers with different graduate-study experiences can bring varied perspectives to discussions of classroom practice. Reviewing a lesson or student task together gives them a concrete starting point for explaining their instructional choices. However, the survey does not show that completing a degree makes teachers more progressive, reflective, or effective.

Reported associations between profiles and classifications. Table 5 reproduces the earlier chi-square outputs. Only educational attainment and educational philosophy had a reported p-value below .05 (.016). These outputs remain unverified because expected cell counts and complete diagnostics were unavailable; the civil-status figures also remain unresolved.

Table 5. *Originally reported chi-square outputs for teacher profiles*

Profile characteristic	Philosophy χ^2	Philosophy p	Teaching style χ^2	Teaching style p
Sex	4.033	.854	1.930	.859
Age	41.213	.417	22.842	.587
Civil status	8.191	.943	14.193	.164
Educational attainment	51.498	.016	10.029	.968
Teaching experience	35.512	.349	10.719	.953

Note. Original outputs are reproduced without recalculation. Degrees of freedom and expected counts were unavailable; some attainment groups had one respondent. Tests used the original philosophy subgroups, not the pooled categories in Table 3. Civil-status counts were inconsistent. These limitations prevent confirmation of the reported associations.

Relationship between philosophy and teaching style. Table 6 reproduces the earlier correlation. Its interpretation depends on the variables used: Spearman’s correlation is unsuitable for arbitrary codes assigned to nominal categories. If subscale scores were used, their definitions and measurement properties would need to be verified.

Table 6. *Originally reported Spearman correlation output*

Variables	n	Reported ρ	Reported p
Educational philosophy and teaching style	129	.830	< .001

Note. The source displayed $p = .000$, reported here as $p < .001$. Values were not recalculated. Coding was unavailable, so the coefficient is not treated as a validated association or evidence of causation.

Relator (2024) reported a significant relationship between philosophical beliefs and corresponding practices, as measured by Kendall’s tau-b. That finding supports examining the two together, but it does not validate the coefficient in Table 6. The present discussion therefore relies on the separate descriptive distributions while acknowledging the original, unverified correlation output. Alanoglu et al. (2022) found that the educational philosophies of 298 primary school teachers indirectly affected online literacy through resistance to change, but the direct effects were not substantial. E-literacy was not investigated in the present study, but the findings suggest that other factors might be involved in understanding the relationship between beliefs and behavior. Future Tagbilaran studies may include classroom settings, teachers’

responses to change, and their philosophical views.

Related research indicates the need to consider teachers' beliefs in their activities. Yet, it is acknowledged that they reflect various aspects of teaching. The present data detail the prevalence of ideologies and teaching styles individually. They do not show which orientations and styles the same teachers reported. To examine that relationship, you would need a connected respondent score or a cross-tabulation.

Implications for faculty development. The results could help teachers make decisions about everyday classroom practices. Teachers can discuss the purpose of the lesson, explain their choice of methods, and consider how to involve students as they go over it together. These conversations can help teachers connect their beliefs about education with their teaching without forcing them to stick to a single philosophy or style.

With Demonstrator and Authoritarian being the most common types, teachers could look for ways to explain concepts clearly and engage students. After a demonstration, they might ask students to explain a process, suggest alternatives, or apply what they saw in a new situation. These are possible approaches, not practices that were looked at in the survey. How well they work depends on the subject, students' readiness, available time, and classroom experience.

Professional discussions can also help teachers see whether their views overlap. Alongside a commitment to inquiry and social responsibility, they may emphasize basic knowledge. Through peer feedback and reflection, learners can consider how these goals work together to meet their needs.

A practical sequence for lesson review. A school could start by having a few teachers share lessons to discuss. They could discuss what they wanted students to learn, why they chose the tasks they did, and when they gave direct instruction, encouraged participation, or helped students with their own work. This keeps the discussion focused on classroom practice and acknowledges that a poll classification only gives a partial picture of how a teacher works. In a follow-up talk, students' explanations, written work, questions, and problems could be used. These might help teachers assess how well their approach met the lesson goals. Could students, say, explain why the steps were important after a demonstration? Did they get enough training and direction before working on their own? These are ideas for using the results; they are not activities **examined** in this study.

Then, teachers could pick a small change and talk about what they saw later. They might add a follow-up question, give you a choice of examples, or set up a checkpoint while you work alone. The talk would focus on the change and how students felt about it. Any claim that something improved learning needed evidence and, for a research claim, a good way to test it.

Limitations. The study relied on self-report, without classroom observations or measures of student learning. Nonresponse may limit how well the findings represent teachers beyond the sample. The available

summaries lacked item-to-category mappings, tie rules, and numerical reliability results, limiting assessment of the instruments. Civil-status results were omitted from the descriptive profile because the figures conflicted, while combined philosophical orientations were pooled because a subgroup label was inconsistent. Tables 5 and 6 retain the earlier inferential outputs, but their assumptions and coding could not be verified; they are not used as the basis for the conclusions. The cross-sectional design cannot show changes in teachers' beliefs over time.

CONCLUSION

The most popular philosophical groups were essentialism and perennialism, but many teachers identified with more than one philosophy. The most common teaching styles were demonstrator and authoritarian. These results show what the participating teachers said about their beliefs and how they taught. They may also help start a conversation about classroom choices. These don't prove that beliefs lead to certain ways of teaching or that one way is better than another.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The results could be used by school leaders to encourage teachers to voluntarily discuss their views and their teaching practices. Teachers might be able to examine their work more closely than survey responses allow by observing peers, reviewing past lessons, and reflecting on their own work. There should be room for different approaches to professional development based on teachers' needs in the classroom.

In the future, researchers might examine how teachers' stated beliefs shape their teaching choices by combining survey responses, classroom observations, lesson reviews, and student feedback. Studies that track teachers over time could also examine whether changes in teachers' beliefs and teaching practices are linked to professional development.

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