

DETERMINING TEACHING METHODS IN
THE THEOLOGICAL COLLEGES OF KENYA

BY

SIMEON NIKOBARI

JULY 1992

NAIROBI EVANGELICAL GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY

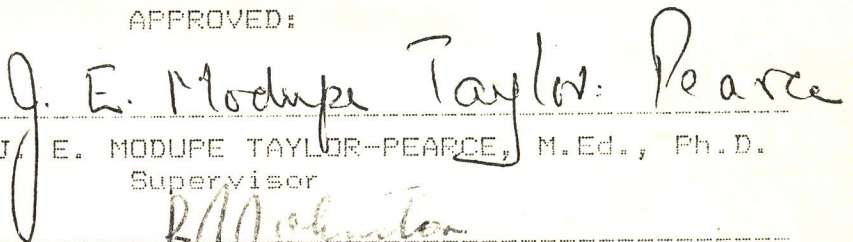
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A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL IN PARTIAL
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF
ARTS IN CHRISTIAN EDUCATION

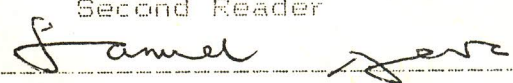
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine the extent to which certain identified teaching strategies are being applied by theological lecturers in the theological colleges of Kenya. These are: educational objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques and questioning.

After the statement of the problem in chapter one, chapter two focuses on two items. These include: (1) A review of the past concerning the search for appropriate strategies and (2) key strategies which have been in use from ancient times to the present.

Chapter three discusses the development procedures of questionnaires. In Chapter four, findings are analysed based on research hypotheses. Chapter five discusses the findings, suggests conclusions and draws implications from conclusions.

It is found that firstly the teaching strategy involving educational objectives is being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. Secondly, the teaching strategy involving lecturing methods is being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in theological colleges of Kenya. Thirdly, there is difference in the perception of lecturers and their students on the application of the teaching strategy involving imitation techniques in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya.

The lecturers' perception indicated a favourable extent while the students' perception contradicted it. Fourthly, the teaching strategy involving questioning is being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

My appreciations are expressed to the following:

1. Dr. J. E. Modupe Taylor-Pearce, my supervisor and academic advisor. He has sacrificially supervised this thesis despite his schedule which is ever full and busy. His encouragement, guidance and insistence that this thesis reflect the best of our ability have urged me to greater effort.
2. Dr. Peter J. Johnston for acting as the second reader of this thesis. He gave graciously of his time to read this work and work with me step by step at its various stages of development.
3. Mr. and Mrs. Hugh Jacks for their prayer, love and financial support for the whole five years of stay at NEGST. Their contribution was indispensable.
4. Dr. Emil Chandran, the Director of the Research Bureau of the Church of the Province of Kenya, for checking up on my statistics in chapter 3.
5. Dr. Lois Semenyé, Dr. Paul Ronoh, Dr. Elie A. Buconyori, and Dr. Victor Babajide Cole for acting as judges in various stages of this study.
6. Mr. Samson Obwa and Mr. Samuel Kihato for accepting kindly to proofread the manuscript.
7. The Deans of Studies in the following theological colleges: Saint Paul's United Theological College, the East Africa School of Theology, Hekima Jesuit Theological

College and the Apostles of Jesus Seminary. These were helpful in allowing the researcher access to their lecturers and students to whose ideas this thesis owes its existence.

8. The last but not least is Francine, my wife. Her patience and sacrifice were among the reasons which made this work come to completion.

WHAT THIS THESIS COVER

ABSTRACT

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ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|------|---|
| CC | Corresponding Conclusions |
| MI | The Teaching Strategy Involving Imitation Techniques |
| ML | The Teaching Strategy Involving Lecturing Methods |
| MO | The Teaching Strategy Involving Educational Objectives |
| MQ | The Teaching Strategy Involving Questioning |
| NFTC | Nairobi Fellowship of Theological Colleges |
| SM | Scores' Means |
| TS | Scores' Totals |

CHAPTER I

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The Justification And The Statement Of The Problem

One of the twelve items identified by the International Council of Accrediting Agencies (ICAA) as the agenda for renewal of evangelical theological education worldwide today is that of "instructional variety" (ICAA 1983, 5). This appeared in their "Manifesto for Renewal of Evangelical Theological Education" (ICAA 1983, 1). Explaining ways and means through which evangelical theological education today may vigorously introduce and reinforce such an item, the manifesto states:

Our program of theological education must vigorously pursue the use of a variety of educational teaching methodologies, evaluated and promoted in terms of their demonstrated effectiveness, especially with respect to the particular cultural context. It is not right to become fixed in the method merely because it is traditional, or familiar, or event (sic) avant-garde. Lecturing is by no means the only appropriate teaching method, and frequently by no means the best. Presumably neither is programmed instruction. Our programs need to take practical steps to introduce and train their staff in new methods of instruction, in a spirit of innovative flexibility and experimentation, always governed by the standards of effectiveness (ICAA 1983, 5).

From the above, two important issues emerge. First, there is a call for the use of a variety of teaching methodologies. These should be evaluated and promoted in terms of their demonstrated effectiveness, particularly within their cultural contexts. Second, there is a call to take practical

steps in introducing and training staff in new methods of instruction. Being rooted in a spirit of innovative flexibility and experimentation, such practical steps should be governed by standards of effectiveness.

This twofold call justifies the need for surveying what is going on in classroom situations in theological colleges. Such a survey would eventually bring out the realities of the actual situation, sensitize the teachers to what is available and what is lacking, and possibly motivate them towards improving their teaching strategies. It is within this context that the researcher desires to do a critical investigation into the extent to which certain identified strategies are being applied by practitioners in theological colleges of Kenya.

This need for renewal in education teaching methodologies is also advocated by other researchers and theological educators. Thus, for example, Bessen in concluding "the continuation of the laborious search for more relevant patterns of training" pleads:

Thank God, there are still many youths eagerly waiting to be trained for the ministry. Let us not disappoint them! With our eyes wide open to change and development all around us and our ears turned to God's imperative call of the Gospel, we must continue courageously the laborious search for more relevant patterns of training (Bessen 1990, 7:41).

In like manner Buconyori, while acknowledging that course content should be contextualized, insists that teaching methods should be given prominent attention' (Buconyori 1990, 197).

Among other advocates in this area are: Bowen (1984), Pluedemann (1985) Daystar University College (1988) and Semenye (1991). Bowen calls for more research to examine the

relevance of teaching strategies in the Theological Colleges and High Schools in Africa in the light of his research findings (Bowen 1984, 99). Pluedemann recommends in his Agenda For Renewal in Christian Education, that "we must rethink our educational methods" (Plueddemann 1985, 18). Daystar University College (DUC) criticizes in its "Strategic Flexibility in Theological Education" - what it calls "A classroom lecturer who is merely an audible extension of a textbook" (DUC 1988, 43); and Semenyé strongly urges "the need to develop strategies of training in these theological schools" (Semenyé 1991, 141).

In considering the situation above, a question arises as to what extent is a "variety of teaching" strategies being applied by theological lecturers in theological colleges of Kenya. This creates a problem with all teaching strategies in use. The researcher has decided to limit himself to the following teaching strategies: educational objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques and questioning. Accordingly the problem for this study is formulated as follows:

To determine the extent to which four key teaching strategies - as named below - are being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. These are: educational objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques and questioning.

Limitations

As stated above the teaching strategies have been limited to four. These are considered as the most commonly used. Another limitation is that the study will confine

itself to teaching in the course of systematic theology as an example to teaching in general. Also to be noted is that this study refers, basically, to classroom realities. It excludes the college administration, finances and all other related matters. All strategies or methods, not appearing among the four above, are considered outside the scope of this study.

Hypotheses

The following have been formulated to address the problem. 1. The teaching strategy, involving instructional objectives, is not being applied extensively by the theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the Theological Colleges of Kenya. 2. The teaching strategy, involving lecturing methods, is being applied extensively by the theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the Theological Colleges of Kenya. 3. The teaching strategy, involving imitation techniques, is not being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the courses of Systematic Theology in the Theological Colleges of Kenya. 4. The teaching strategy, involving questioning, is not being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in Theological Colleges of Kenya.

Definitions Of Terms

Six key terms in this research study need to be defined.

These include:

Theological Colleges. Christian institutions of higher learning which aim at training the ministers of the Church of Christ Jesus at the post-secondary school level education leading to a bachelor's degree of theology.

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Definitions Of Terms

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Theological Colleges. Christian institutions of higher learning which aim at training the ministers of the Church of Christ Jesus at the post-secondary school level education leading to a bachelor's degree of theology.

Extent: Frequency or the rate of recurrence. This definition is taken from Stein 1966, 504.

Teaching Strategy involving Objectives. This involves the setting up by theological lecturers of course goals of learning processes in an achievable, clear manner and conveying these to the students.

Lecture. The presentation of material by speaking directly to the class in an expository manner.

Imitation. The process of laying down models for the students to emulate.

Questioning method. The engaging of students in a learning process by challenging them with planned and prepared questions.

The Significance

Five points of significance were identified. These are:

- A need to give a feedback to policy makers in the theological colleges of Kenya.
- A need to improve teaching methods in our theological colleges.
- A need to examine critically our present teaching methods so as to determine whether they are the best available.
- A need to provide useful models for present day practice.
- A need to evolve more productive teaching strategies.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SOME RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is two-fold: the first is to provide from literature a review of the past with regards to the search for appropriate teaching strategies. The second is to identify the major teaching strategies which have been in use from ancient times to the present.

Review Of The Past

Two aspects of the review of the past are under discussion. These include: firstly, a general review of the past. A historical sketch concerning teaching methodologies is presented. This covers the history of methodology from the ancient times to the present time. Secondly, a specific review of the past focusing on Africa is discussed. This consists of types of education before colonization, during colonization and after colonization of Africa.

General Review of the Past.

Ancient Times

The search for appropriate teaching methodologies is neither a concern of one group of people nor only an academic exercise of today. Our reviewed literature shows that the classical cultures, involving Hebrew and Greek, concerned themselves to seek for appropriate ways to transmit knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to their offspring

from generation to generation. Hyman, using Rosenberg's research findings, states that "ancient Hebrews expressed their great concern about teaching, not by establishing specific methods to be used, but by giving advice to teachers in the form of maxims" (Hyman 1974,54). Thus, he quotes from the Talmud which advises teachers as follows:

Teach your tongue to say "I do not know" when you are uncertain lest you later be proven incorrect. If one asks thee a question, do not stammer but reply without hesitation.... Be meek like Hillel and not irritable like Shammai, for the irritable is not fit to teach.... Always teach your pupils in the shortest manner... Teach from the known to the unknown and from the simple to the complex.... Use mnemonic signs as an aid to the children's memory... Make the subject of study clear by means of illustrating proofs (Hyman 1974,54).

In the light of the above advice, the Hebrew teachers' principles of teaching are evident. These principles have three common characteristics. The first is transparency in the area of limitation in the knowledge of a teacher vis-a-vis his students. The second is meekness and strict control of his temper; and third, "teaching from known to the unknown" (Hyman 1974, 54). The third incorporates the principle of taking students from where they are and leading them to the place the teacher wants them to be. Thus, the teacher takes into consideration the specific abilities of students.

From looking at the above, two important teaching methods emerge. The first is the teaching strategy involving the lecture method which seems to have been extensively in use. It was used in combination with questioning and answering, illuminating proofs and mnemonic devices.

The other method in current use was modelling. The Hebrew teacher taught moral values and attitudes such as

meekness and transparency by demonstrating them like Hillel before his students (Hyman 1974, 54). Showing how intellectual integrity is lived on a daily life basis, he preferred to put into action what he believed than merely speak about it.

The second classical culture which concerned itself with the search for appropriate teaching methods is Greek. Hyman (1974) reports that "the Sophists devoted considerable effort to analyzing the activities of successful poets and speakers in order to locate the key elements of their success" (Hyman 1974, 54). This would eventually help him to teach various subjects. According to Hyman, Dionysius, in the second century, evolved "six steps of lecturing method" (Hyman 1974, 54) as representative of the Greek lecture method. These consisted of the teacher:

1. "Giving selected passages an exact reading with respect to pronunciation, punctuation and rhetorical expression.
2. Explaining the figures.
3. Explaining the historical and mythological references.
4. Commenting on the choice of words and their etymology.
5. Pointing out the grammatical forms employed.
6. Estimating the literary merit of the selection" (Hyman 1974, 55).

From the above, an expository lecturing method is evident. It is made up of the teacher reading the text and then explaining and commenting on the text with due attention being given to the grammatical and literary aspects of a given passage.

Another method of teaching by the Greeks is exemplified by an extract taken from Plato's dialogue, Meno (Irwin 1928,

155). Socrates uses his teaching method as follows:

Socrates: And does he who desires the honourable also desire the good?

Meno. Certainly.

Soc. Then are there some who desire the evil and others who desire the good? Do not all men, my dear sir, desire good ?

Men. I think not.

Soc. There are some who desire evil?

Men. Yes.

Soc. Do you mean that they think the evils which they desire to be good; or do they know that they are evil and yet desire them?

Men. Both I think

Two characteristics of the Socratic method are evident from the extract. The first is the role of the teacher. He asks probing questions which eventually lead the learner to two different learning experiences. First, the learner is brought to realize that what he thought he knew previously, he does not really know. Second, he discovers a "new" knowledge that was already latent within himself.

The second is the role of the learner. He participates in his learning process by answering questions thrown at him by the teacher. He is assumed mentally alert, thinks actively and cooperates voluntarily in his teaching-learning experiences which are full of insights and discoveries.

In the light of the above, certain teaching strategies are evident. The expository lecturing methods, questioning techniques, student-teacher discussions, and discovery and reconstructing approaches were used extensively by teachers in ancient Greece.

A summary of the teaching methods which were in current use by teachers in classical cultures, Hebrew and Greek,

consisted of the following:

- The expository lecturing methods;
- Modelling, also called imitation techniques;
- The questioning method;
- Student - teacher discussions; and
- Discovery approaches.

Middle Ages (6th - 15th Century)

The lecturing method appears to have been the dominant teaching method in the Middle Ages. Thus, Byrne comments:

The lecture method arose out of the custom of the professors of medieval universities to pour out information to their students. This was necessary, of course, due to the scarcity of books. The few books which were in existence were generally in the possession of the teachers. The result was that the pupils had to take notes as their teachers read or lectured from books (Byrne 1981, 186).

One of these professors who influenced "the method of disputation in lecturing" (Hyman 1974, 55) was Peter Abelard, the 12th Century teacher of "both theology and dialects at Mont Sainte Genevienne and the Cathedral School of Notre Dame" (Smith 1967, 16). Medieval teachers, however, in using this method had to follow a particular sequence of steps in disputation as is clearly revealed in the thirteenth century lecture on Law at the University of Bologna:

First, I shall give you summaries of each title before I proceed to the text; secondly, I shall give you as clear and explicit a statement as I can of the purport of each Law (included in the title); thirdly, I shall read the text with a view to correcting it, fourthly, I shall briefly repeat the contents of the law; fifthly, I shall solve apparent contradictions, adding any general principles of Law (to be extracted from the passage), commonly called "Brocardica", and any distinctions or subtle and useful problems (questions) arising out of the Law with their solutions, as far as the Divine Providence shall enable me. And if any Law shall seem deserving,

by reason of its celebrity or difficulty, of a Repetition, I shall reserve it for an evening Repetition (Hyman 1974, 55).

From the quotation above, logical steps necessary for teaching a lesson in the class of Medieval Colleges are as follows:

1. The tutor introduce his educational materials by giving "summaries of each title" to his students (Hyman 1974, 55).
2. The tutor states clearly and explicitly "the purport of each law" (Hyman 1974, 55).
3. The tutor reads the text "with a view of correcting it" (Hyman 1974, 55).
4. The tutor repeats briefly "the content of the law" (Hyman 1974, 55). He goes over it again at the hearing of his students.
5. The tutor concludes his lesson by giving solutions to apparent contradictions in the form of general principles "extracted from the passage" (Hyman 1974, 55). Sometimes repetitions of the same text are inevitable.

Three steps of teaching method involving lecturing are evident. Firstly, the introduction of the lesson which consists of summaries of the lesson and the statement of its educational objectives. Secondly, the presentation of the new materials in such a way that is most clearly understood by students. Consequently two sub-steps were identified. One, to "read the text with a view to correcting it" (Hyman 1974, 55). Two, "briefly repeat the contents of the law" (Hyman 1974, 55). Thirdly, the conclusion consisting of two characteristics. These are the solutions to contradictions from the text and problems arising, and a formulation of

general principles "extracted from the passage" (Hyman 1974, 55).

It is evident from the above that seven teaching steps made up the presentation of a lesson in the Middle Ages. These include: disputation in lecturing, reading out of the teaching materials by the tutor, the stating of the lesson objectives, the principle of review and repetition, and the logical arrangement of major steps.

Evident also is that teaching steps were centred on the tutor. He always fed the minds of students with information whereas the students passively listened and took notes from him. He summarized titles, stated lesson objectives, read the text, repeated the contents of the text, and solved contradictions from the text.

Modern Times (16th - 19th Century)

The search for ways to transmit cultural legacy continued even into modern times. Hyman states: "In the transition from medieval times to the present, such men as Comenius, Pestalozzi, Froebel and Herbert devoted a great deal of thought to methods of teaching as part of a more general concern with schooling" (Hyman 1974, 56). In his writings Comenius (1592 - 1670) as quoted by Laska and Goldstein stressed particular teaching methods depending on imitating nature and appealing to the five senses, viz: smell, sight, taste, touch and hearing:

If we wish to find a remedy for the defects of nature, it is in nature herself that we must look for it, since it is certain that art can do nothing unless it imitates nature....

It is now quite clear that the order, which is the dominating principle in the art of teaching all things to all men, should be, and can be, borrowed from no other source but the operations of nature. As soon as this principle is thoroughly secured, the

processes of art will proceed as easily and as spontaneously as those of nature. This is our belief, and our advice is to watch the operations.

From this, a golden rule for teachers may be derived. Everything should, as far as is possible, be placed before the senses. Everything visible should be brought before the organ of sight, everything audible before that of hearing. Odours should be placed before the sense of smell, and things that are tastable and of touch respectively. If an object can make an impression on several senses at once, it should be brought into contact with several... (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 23 - 24).

From looking at the above three teaching strategies become evident. The first is the teaching technique which involves the imitating of the operations of nature by the teacher. The processes of nature operate naturally and spontaneously. Teaching processes should do likewise.

The second is the teaching methods which involve the use of objects capable of appealing to the student's senses. These include: the sight, the hearing, the smell, taste and touch. This is a hint to the use of teaching aids.

The third is the teaching principles which stresses learning by doing and by practical activities. It requires that students smell, see, hear, taste and touch what they are learning where possible. This is an allusion to participatory methods.

Another advocate for renewal in teaching methods - in modern times - is Rousseau (1712 - 1778). He called for a new approach to teaching method. This emphasized students' interests and desire.

Rousseau's ideas on the new method are contained in his book Emile, the name of his pupil. From this, the following excerpt was taken:

We were observing the position of the forest to the north of Montemorency when he interrupted me with the usual question, "What is the use of that?"

"You are right", I said." Let us take time to think it over, and if we find it is no use we will drop it, for we only want useful games." We find something else to do and geography is put aside for the day.

Next morning I suggest a walk before breakfast, there is nothing he would like better; children are always ready to run about, and he is a good walker. We climb up to the forest, we wander through its clearings and lose ourselves; we have no idea where we are, and when we want to retrace our steps we cannot find the way. Time passes, we are hot and hungry; hurrying vainly this way and that we find but woods, quarries, plains, not a landmark to guide us. Very hot, very tired, very hungry, we only get further astray. At last we sit down to rest and to consider our position. I assume that Emile has been educated like an ordinary child. He does not think, he begins to cry; he has no idea we are close to Montmorency, which is hidden from our view by a mere thicket; but this thicket is a forest for him, a man of his size is buried among the bushes.

After a few minutes' silence I begin anxiously -
Rousseau - My dear Emile, what shall we do to get out?

Emile - I am sure I do not know. I am tired, I am hungry, I am thirsty. I cannot go further.

Rousseau - Do you suppose I am any better off? I would cry too if I could make my breakfast off tears. Crying is no use, we must look about us. Let us see your watch; what time is it?

Emile - It is noon and I am so hungry!

Rousseau - Unlikely my dinner won't come to find me. It is twelve o'clock. This time yesterday we were observing the position of the forest from Montmorency. If only we could see the position of Montmorency from the forest.

Emile - But yesterday we could see the forest, and here we cannot see the town.

Rousseau - That is just it. If we could only find it without seeing it.

Emile - Oh! my dear friend!

Rousseau - Did we not say the forest was-

Emile - North of Montmorency

Rousseau - Then Montmorency must lie-

Emile - South of the forest.

Rousseau - We know how to find the north at midday.

Emile - Yes, by the direction of the shadows.

Rousseau - But the south?

Emile - What shall we do?

Rousseau - The south is the opposite of the north.

Emile - That is true; we need only find the opposite of the shadows. That is the south! Montmorency must be there! Let us look for it there!

Rousseau - Perhaps you are right; let us follow this path through the wood.

Emile - (Clapping his hands) Oh, I can see

Montmorency! there it is, quite plain, just in front of us! Come to luncheon, come to dinner, make haste! Astrology is some use after all (Irwin 1928, 153 - 154).

From the above excerpt eight teaching strategies are evident. The first one is the method involving "teaching by doing." Rousseau teaches a lesson about geography by having the pupil visit a particular geographical site. He also allows his pupil to think through his answers.

The second is the teaching strategy which includes visits to the things to be learned or taught. Rousseau and his pupil visited the forest located in the northern part of Montmorency.

The third is the teaching method which involved problem-solving. Rousseau never told or showed the way out from the forest to Emile. The latter discovered his way out through asking and answering questions from his teacher.

The fourth is the teaching technique which involves the imitating of nature. Rousseau took his pupil slowly along the learning process of discovery. He did not pressurize him nor cram facts into the learner's head. When the latter did not understand, he was willing to postpone the lesson until the following day. That is, the pupil's interests and ability were in constant consideration. Even when the pupil expressed his inability to handle the facts about the lesson of geography the teacher stopped and waited for a favourable time.

The fifth has to do with dialogue in teaching. Rousseau and Emile interacted one to the other. The learner is permitted the maximum freedom to experience successful completion of finding out his way back to his town.

The sixth concerns the teaching technique involving

discovery and restructuring methods. Emile's interest in returning home were utilized as a means to induce him to learn how to find his way. He was first of all reduced to a state where he did not know what to do. This was his situation of helplessness. Then he was led and helped to discover his way out from the forest. The idea is that learning takes place when the learner discovers for himself/herself.

The seventh is the teaching method involving the use of objects, Emile was made aware of the geographical site, the shadow of himself which helped him to distinguish the north from the south, and many other things such as trees, plants, thickets, air.... The eighth is the teaching method of questioning or Socratic method.

Similar discovery methods of teaching were stressed by Pestalozzi (1746 - 1827). His teaching strategies followed exactly the trail blazed by Rousseau. Laska and Goldstein believe that Pestalozzi's "principal contribution to teaching method was to show how Rousseau's ideas could be applied in the classroom" (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 53).

Another advocate of the child-centred methodology is Herbert who is reported by Laska and Goldstein as having been "the father of the modern science of education". (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 26). The methodology he contributed to education consists of five formal steps (Herbert 1901, 59). These comprise:

1. Preparation - Analysis }
2. Presentation - Synthesis } -----> apperception of concepts
3. Association }
4. Systematization } -----> Through the derivation and

arrangement of
rule, principle
or class.

5. Application

From knowing to
doing.

From the above at least two characteristics of the Herbertian methodology are evident. There is first of all his reference to a "systematic presentation." This is a hint at the teaching methods involving lecturing and showing.

The second is the principle of encouraging the learner to put into practice his acquired knowledge.

The other advocate of empirical teachings was Froebel (1782 - 1852). Kindergarten education and the use of play in teaching owe their development to his effort and encouragement (Bao 1987, 47).

However, the school of thought of Rousseau and his colleagues is not without loopholes. One of their shortenings is their emphasis on students' feelings and felt-needs against the teaching of pure Bible content. This makes an idol of persons. The teacher ignores that the learner is a sinner. Thus, he ignores the power of sin, and the absolute standards of God's revealed truth. It is not all that the learner wants/desires that is helpful to him, his society, his church, and his country. To be noted also is that some spiritual truths cannot be taught through natural senses.

In summary, six major teaching strategies were in current use during modern times. They were: play, imitation techniques, teaching by doing, observational visits, problem-solving, dialogue and discovery/restructuring.

Contemporary Times (20th Century)

The twentieth century interest in teaching strategies has led researchers to develop various methods. One of the

researchers who achieved a universal reputation as Laska and Goldstein stated is Maria Montessori (1870 - 1952). Her vision and encouragement made possible the existence of "the method of observation" (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 96).

Laska and Goldstein quote her description of these observational teaching methods as follows:

In the giving of ... lessons the fundamental guide must be "the method of observation", in which is included and understood the liberty of the child. So the teacher shall observe whether the child interests himself in the object, how he is interested in it, for how long, etc., even noticing the expression of his face. And she must take great care not to offend the principles of liberty. For, if she provokes the child to make an unnatural effort, she will no longer know what is the "spontaneous" activity of the child. If, therefore, the lesson rigorously prepared in this brevity, simplicity and truth is not understood by the child, is not accepted by him as an explanation of the object, - the teacher must be warned of two things - first, not to insist by repeating the lesson; and second, not to make the child feel that he has made a mistake, or that he has not understood, because in doing so she will cause him to make an effort to understand, and will thus alter the natural state which must be used by her in making her psychological observation... (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 97).

Madam Montessori had a daily routine which consisted of "a series of exercises of practical life." These practical lessons included the "care of their persons" (cleanliness and tidiness, dressing up, cleaning of the classrooms, teacher demonstrating how to clean properly, and motivating the pupils by praising the "child who is clean" and or whose room "is well ordered"....) (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 98).

Also included in the daily routine was proper teaching. This was called by her "the free teaching". (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 98). It consisted of "supervising operations", the writing on the blackboard, administering punishments such as isolation in case of disobedience, and

teaching by models (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 99).

From looking at the above, three educational techniques become evident. These are: imitation techniques, lecturing methods, demonstrations.

Another dominant figure in the twentieth century education is John Dewey (1859 - 1952). His teaching strategies emphasized experience and the problem solving method. On stressing the importance of learning by "wrestling with educational problems" he stated:

It is that no thought, no idea, can possibly be conveyed as an idea from one person to another. When it is told, it, to the one to whom it is told, another given fact, not an idea. The communication may stimulate the other person to realize the question for himself and to think out a like idea, or it may smother his intellectual interest and suppress his dawning effort at thought. But what he directly gets cannot be an idea. Only by wrestling with the conditions of the problem at first hand, seeking and finding his own way out, does he think (John Dewey 1946, 109).

From looking at the problem-solving method above, four main steps in the learning process emerge. They are falling into the categories of educational problems, wrestling with educational problems, seeking and finding ways out of educational problems and learning. Behind every learning step stands a style of teaching. These are inferred as follows: the teacher creates educational problems. The teacher throws the learner into educational problems. Consequently the learner becomes mentally disequibrated. The rationale behind this is that learners tend to learn and develop cognitively as they struggle against problems. The teacher guides and directs the learning situation.

Two teaching strategies may sum up the above. These are: the teaching strategies involving discovering and

problem-solving methodologies.

Thorndike (1874 - 1949) and Skinner (1904 - 1990) have also dominated twentieth century educational thought. They contributed their "operant conditioning teaching approach" which was called by Laska and Goldstein "the reinforcement method" (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 103). This was described by Thorndike as "The Law of Effect" (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 107). Thorndike explains that: "satisfying results strengthen, and discomfort weakens the bond between situation and response." Skinner further observes.

Once we have arranged the particular type of consequence called a reinforcement, our technique permits us to shape up the behaviour of an organism almost at will (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 109).

From the above one strategy involving reinforcement method becomes evident. Another group of researchers and educators who contributed significantly to methodologies in this 20th century consists of Benjamin Bloom and his colleague. They contributed the development of the taxonomy of educational objectives. These objectives have taken into account the cognitive and the affective domains as well as the motor skills' area.

The search for better ways of teaching continues.

Pribram is quoted by Laska and Goldstein as having predicted a new teaching method which takes into account chemical changes in the brain of the learner. He states:

Perhaps the recent experimentation on the "chemistry of learning" which suggests, that learning involves chemical changes in the brain, will enable teachers to give students specially prepared pills that will produce the desired learning outcome through direct chemical means (Laska and Goldstein 1973, 120).

To summarize, the major teachings strategies, educational techniques which are in current use in this

twentieth century are evident. These include: the teaching techniques which use imitation techniques, lecturing methods, demonstration approaches, problem solving and games.

It should always be borne in mind that most teaching methods promulgated in the present day are based on non-Christian methodologies. These may well require adaptation and modification as we know that the Christian position, as opposed to the humanistic position, is that all pupils and students are involved in the reality of original sin, and so are their teachers.

A Survey Focusing On Africa

An attempt to survey the past - concerning African traditional education - faces a threefold reaction by three groups of educators: those who have called for a return to African traditional ways of teaching; others have called for a rejection of beliefs in the existence of African traditional education; some have urged that European educational systems be maintained whereas others have called for a rejection of the European educational system. A few of the above have advocated a synthesis of African traditional and European ways of teaching. For Ocitti, "the challenge for educators is what to 'jettison', what to 'modify' and what to 'preserve' of the Old and the New, the Alien and the Indigenous" (Ocitti 1973, 109). With that dilemma in mind, an attempt is hereby made by the writer to divide education in Africa into: pre-colonial Africa, Colonial Africa and Independent Africa.

Education in Pre-colonial Africa.

In pre-colonial Africa, all societies had ways of

transmitting knowledge, skill, attitudes and cultural values of all kinds to their offspring. For example, cooking, gardening, baby-sitting, house-building, customs and fighting were transmitted from one generation to another. According to Moumouni:

Among non-Islamic African peoples, the child in the course of his development generally acquires all his knowledge from family and social life. On the practical level, he does this by observing and imitating adult behaviour and work, and by playing many different group games. On the theoretical level, he learns by listening to his older friends and the 'elders', questioning them in the course of daily activities or during evenings spent in conversations, telling stories, legends, riddles and proverbs (Moumouni 1968, 26).

From looking at the above, five learning activities emerge. The learner observes, imitates, plays, listens, and questions. These activities suggest certain teaching methods. They are: to model, to organize games, to tell and to ask questions. These teaching strategies fit into the two main groups of being predominantly student-centred (such as in games) or predominantly teacher-centred (such as in sharing and telling). Plueddemann supports Moumouni when he states that "African societies have a wide variety of educational activities ranging from informal play and imitation to formal education" (Plueddemann 1973, 26).

Quoting Beal, Plueddeman observes:

If a child is told, sees demonstrated, casually observes, imitates, experiments, and is corrected... and is given an extra boost in learning by dramatized announcements of status-role change, all within a consistent framework of belief and value, he cannot help but learn what cultural transmitters want him to learn (Plueddemann 1973, 19).

From the above, some African indigenous ways of teaching are reflected by activities such as "house building, ways of baby-sitting, cooking techniques, periods of initiation...."

Africans taught by living and practising what they taught. Every teacher practised what he/she taught. For example, a teacher of biology had to be a medicineman, and the one who taught religion, a traditional priest.

However, value systems have changed. Teachers are no longer required to practise what they teach. Most teachers of biology are no longer medical doctors.

From the above, several traditional teaching methodologies can be gleaned. These include: observations and drama which make allusion to imitation techniques; stories which refer to telling methods, poetry, proverbs; and parables which make allusions to discovery methods.

Another advocate is Adams (1984). Carrying out a research study among four villages situated in the Northern region of the Ivory Coast, Adams managed to identify and validate ten principles about African indigenous ways of teaching. He lists them as follows: "active pedagogy, productive pedagogy, status-reinforcing, effectively charged, high motivation, modelling, integrated learning, peer learning, oral transmission, and mastery learning" (Adams 1984, 9-13).

Acknowledging the affluence of teaching principles in the African indigenous education, Adams urged further research studies to identify and validate other principles:

This list of ten principles is not thought to be exhaustive, but it is considered to be sufficient as a starting point for the elaboration of educational strategies that are more consistent with African realities. It is hoped that researchers might use this checklist in other settings to broaden the supportive data base for these principles, or employ the methodology to identify and validate other principles (Adams 1984, 26).

The ten pedagogical principles above can be fitted into

four main groups. These are: first, the teaching strategy involving lecturing method. This covers oral transmission. The second is the student centred methods which consist of active pedagogy, productive pedagogy, integrated learning and mastery learning. The third is motivation. This covers status-reinforcing, effectively charged and high motivation. The fourth is imitation techniques. This covers modelling.

In summary, it is evident that before the advent of Europeans, Africans had ways of teaching. They are:

1. Telling teaching method which is known today as lecture method. Knowledge was transmitted orally. This reflects a general valorization of spoken language and developed a good memory in the learner.
2. Modelling teaching technique. This method involves at least three stages. These are: observation, imitation and participation. Through this method the student learned from the teacher and his/her entourage who practised what they taught.
3. Doing and living teaching devices. This was a productive pedagogy of those days. The teacher made sure the learner produced services and products of social or economical value. It was a process of teaching an occupation or apprenticeship.
4. Motivation techniques as reflected by reward and punishment. These are known today as behavioristic approaches to teaching. With these methods, the learner suffers unpleasant consequences if he fails to make an effort to learn.
5. Questioning. This is exemplified by what Buconyori describes as "Burundi Pedagogical Method" (Buconyori 1990, 64-65). Using Suguru's research findings, Buconyori states:

Methodologically, ... the learner started learning by asking questions raised by curiosity. It was at this moment of questions that the adult teacher intervened with clarifications from tradition. Depending on the nature of the question, the adult-teacher could channel the clarification through riddles, proverbs, parables, poetry or demonstration (Buconyori 1990, 64).

From the above pedagogy in context, it is evident that the teacher creates conditions conducive to learning through either cultural celebrations or rituals. Then the learner is made to start off the process of teaching which tends to teach him by asking relevant questions. This is quite different from the Socratic Method in which the teacher asks questions, even sometimes suggests clues to the answers. This is because the teacher comes in the teaching situation as a rescuer. He comes to teach somebody who is already highly motivated. He clarifies from tradition and "channels the clarifications through riddles, proverbs, parables, poetry or demonstrations" (Buconyori 1990, 65).

At least one methodological fact is evident. Teaching precedes precepts and principles. This is what is called today "inductive method of teaching" whereby the teaching process is begun by investigating, and explanation of relationship among variables and to be concluded by the formulation of a principle. For example, in this context, the teacher will not say "Here are Ten Commandments, master them and never transgress any of them." When the African teacher wants to pass a moral standard to his students, he first of all creates a desire in the learner's mind by providing opportunities for the learner to transgress it. Then he interferes in the situation before the act is carried out. He points to the learner that he almost transgressed

the law/commandment. Secondly, he explains/lectures to him about the tragic logical consequences of his act, as if he had committed it. If he is unable to explain, he tells the mythical side of it to the learner or channel it according to the existing knowledge. Thirdly the teacher warns the learner never to attempt it again.

Education In Colonial Africa

Following the partition of Africa - after the Berlin Treaty of 1885 - missionaries together with colonizers arrived in Africa to convert and colonize Africans. Educationally, they first of all sought to get rid of all the indigenous ways of teaching by replacing them with their own Western system of education which is mainly lecturing.

A comparison between teaching methods in current use in 20th century Europe and those that missionaries were transplanting in Africa shows apparent disparities. For example, missionaries were bringing authoritarianism in classrooms whereas Dewey (1859 - 1952) was strongly urging democracy in American classrooms and elsewhere. They were inflicting severe physical and psychological punishment as one of major ways to make students learn whereas Montessori (1870 - 1952) had emerged victorious in the war against physical punishments as a teaching methodology.

It must be remembered however, that nearly all colonial educators were naturally conditioned by the type of academic education themselves had received, and knew no other. They felt that they were in duty bound to pass on what they knew, even if sometimes the motives were somewhat mercenary. Clearly they could not wait for 30 or 40 years until an enlightened researcher found out what indigenous African

educational methods were.

Discussing contradictory characteristics of "colonial education" in Africa, Moumouni concludes: "In all its aspects, colonial education exercised a constant influence, from day to day and in contradictory directions, as much as on those who benefited directly as in the rest of the population" (Moumouni 1968, 52). Quoting Brevie', the Governor-General of French West Africa, Moumouni states:

The duties of colonialism and political and economic necessities have imposed a twofold task on our work in education. On one hand, we must train indigenous cadres to become our auxiliaries in every area, and assure ourselves of a meticulous chosen elite. We must also educate the masses, to bring them closer to us and transform their way of living.... From the political standpoint we must make known to the people our intention of bringing them into the French way of life... From the economic viewpoint we must train the producers and consumers of tomorrow... (Moumouni 1968, 42-43).

From looking at the above colonial declaration one thing emerges. That is the idea of gearing every activity toward satisfaction of colonial powers' needs. It portrays how teaching objectives of colonial powers were alien to African interests.

Another African educationist is Datta. He discussed what he described as "Aspects of teacher behaviour in most English-speaking countries of Africa" as follows:

The teacher's entry into a classroom is followed by a general silence and the pupils stand up as a sign of respect. Lessons involve hardly any discussion. The teacher asks a question, the pupils hurriedly browse through their books and then raise their hands if they find the correct answer. Otherwise the teacher invites one of the pupils to answer the question. The pupil called upon to do so, rises with eyes lowered, responds and sits down. If the teacher is not satisfied with the answer he provides the correct answer and occasionally ridicules the pupil (Datta 1984, 94).

Another researcher in Zambia has confirmed the

predominance of "note-taking and reading in classrooms" (Datta 1984, 107). The researcher's observations and corresponding conclusions are based on Flander's analysis. Table 1 below shows percentage scores of classroom interaction in the courses of Economics and Religion in Zambia in comparison with interaction in the U.S.A.

Table 1, Percentage Scores in Classroom

Interactions (Datta 1984, 107)

| Flander's Analysis | Economics | Religion | Interaction in U.S.A. % |
|---------------------------------|-----------|----------|-------------------------|
| Teacher asking questions 4 | 11.54% | 1.15 | 68 |
| Other teacher talk 1,2,3,5,6,7, | 21.71 | 20.73 | |
| Pupils asking questions 8 | 8.4 | 2.4 | 20 |
| Other Pupil talk 9 | 3.6 | 3.9 | |
| Silence or confusion 10 | 54.75 | 71.82 | 12 |

Looking at the religion column, it is evident that in the course of religion silence or confusion takes the longest time (71.82). The teacher's talk takes 20.73% whereas the pupil talk takes 3.9% of the total time. This suggests an excessive use of lecture methods at the expense of the rest of the teaching methods.

In light of the above, the colonial pedagogical methods were characterized first by excessive fear on the part of students and the superiority complex of the teacher. Students had to lower their eyes while talking to their teacher to indicate respect. This is an inferiority complex which is damaging to their psychological aspect of life. Students were not allowed to talk to each other in classroom settings. Second evident also were lecturing and physical punishments or ridiculing of students as ways of teaching. Third, excessive note-taking at the expense of understanding of what was taught.

The educational philosophy behind this teaching was

described by Datta as follows: "the pupils are empty pots which can never learn from each other but from one authority" (Datta 1984, 95). So the dominant teaching method was the one of pouring-in the facts and information. Such methods are described by Kienel as "Funnelling methods of teaching" (Kienel 1978,38).

Freire is another third-world educationist who discussed the colonialists' lecture method. Describing what he called "a banking system of education" Freire stated:

Instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiques and makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize and respect. Worse still, it turns them into "containers", into receptacles, to be filled by the teacher. The more completely he fills the receptacles, the better a teacher he is. The more meekly the receptacles permit themselves to be filled, the better students they are (Freire 1974, 45-46).

In summary, the teaching strategies used during the colonial times may be described as "authoritarian teacher-centred methods." They include: the teaching strategies of lecture, excessive note-taking and physical and psychological punishment.

Education in Independent Africa

Shortly after independence, African leaders and educators embarked on educational reforms all over Africa. Discussing the scope with which the need for relevance in education was felt, Dorujaiye states:

The need for change in educational systems and school curricula of different African countries is well known. This need has been expressed with fervor, as can be judged by opinions from people expressed in the corridors of civilian and military powers. Universities, learned conferences and the teaching professions in Africa have echoed the need (Durojaiye 1976,1).

From the above it is evident that people outside and

inside governments were crying for educational reform. Soldiers and civilians alike expressed the need for reform. The Universities as well as conferences were after reform. This is an indication that all people were generally fed up with the colonial educational system. These concerns were an indication to the African leaders that people were ready to contribute their due share in bringing about educational reforms.

In Kenya, for example, various syllabi have been produced and have either been abandoned or revised as new educational aims have been adopted. The most recent syllabus is the one designed for a system called "the 8:4:4: system of education" which became operational in 1985 (8:4:4: means eight years of primary, four years of secondary and 4 years of university education).

However, very recently researchers have become aware of the inadequacy of educational reforms which have been limited to course contents only. They have learnt that reforms have not been touching teaching methodologies. Educationists have now started advocating for methodological reforms.

Some of the advocates are Bowen and Bowen who, discussing what they described as contextualizing teaching methods in Africa, have stated:

"If we contextualize our subjects, but fail to do the same for our methods, Africans, Asians and Latin Americans will not learn as well as they might otherwise" (Bowen and Bowen 1989, 270). Buconyori is yet another educator who, in the light of his research findings, has decried the lack of attention given to educational methods: "Studies on Africa show that the cry for relevant African education has put so

much emphasis on the content but paid little attention to the relevant teaching strategies" (Buconyori 1990, 4).

In the light of the above, it is safe to summarize that the teaching methodologies inherited from the colonial era are still alive, and influential. And that, although educational reforms have been instituted, teaching methodologies have been overlooked.

In summary, the review of the past focusing on Africa has shown six major teaching methodologies. These include: Telling teaching methodology, modelling techniques, doing and living teaching devices, questioning, and authoritarian teacher-centred lecture method.

African and Hebrew types of education are similar in their use of ceremonies and rituals. They are closer to each other than each of them is to the Greek education. Both Africans and Hebrews taught first, then gave principles. Punishment as a means of teaching was predominant in both.

Major Strategies Which Have Been In Use From The Past To The Present

Fourteen major teaching strategies were identified from the literature as having been in use from the past to the present. These include:

- Lecture methods
- Socratic methods
- Modelling methods
- Discovery methods
- Simulated methods
- Field trip methods
- Problem solving methods
- Dialogue

- Demonstrations
- Reward and punishments
- Teaching methods involving Educational objectives
- Discussion methods
- Question and answer method
- Inductive method

All the teaching strategies above may be seen within five main groups. These are: lecturing methods, educational objectives, imitation techniques, discovery methods and questioning.

The lecturing methods consists of lecture method, inductive methods, demonstrations and discussions. The strategy involving educational objectives covers all types of teaching objectives such as lesson and course objectives and the educational goal. Imitation techniques consist of modelling, demonstrations, stimulated games. Discovery methods cover field trips, and problem solving. Questioning is made up of the Socratic methods, dialogue, question and answer methods.

Teaching objectives

Several pieces of literature have confirmed the extensive use of the teaching strategy involving educational objectives. Two of them are Gangel and Benson (1983) who suggested that the survival of Hebrew culture has always depended on Hebrew parents' tireless adherence to original educational objectives such as "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of knowledge" (Proverbs 1:7). Discussing the role of the Hebrew parents in relation to their children and the survival of the culture as a whole, Gangel and Benson state:

...it survived because that most crucial of all educational elements - aim , or objective - was never distorted nor diminished in the minds of Hebrew parents. There was the task of training the next generation, and failure in that task would not be taken lightly by the God who had called them to it (Gangel and Benson 1983, 22).

From looking at the suggestion above, at least three positive results about the strict use of the teaching objectives emerge. These suggest the extent to which the teaching strategy involving educational objectives was used by the Hebrews in the family in the ancient times. The first is the preservation of the Hebrews' national unity. A strict adherence to an educational system has preserved their unity in such a way that no political system could approximate. This was based on three things, namely: a high view of God, the Old Testament and a moral ideal.

The second is the preservation of the right relationship between individual Hebrews and Yahweh, their God. For example, Joseph could reiterate his commitment to the God of his fathers even in his 110th year of age. He stipulated: "I am about to die. But God will surely come to your aid and take you up of this land to the land He promised on oath to Abraham, Isaac and Jacob" (Gen 50:24).

The third is the preservation of right relationship between individual Hebrews and their people. The case in point is that of individual Hebrews who refused to yield to economic and political enticements designed to divert their attention and commitment from their people. Moses was one of them. He held high in his heart teaching objectives he had acquired from his mother and father. At the age of 80 he

could remember that the "fear of the Lord was the source of knowledge" (Prov.1:7). He did not think it fit to dilute his commitment to his people even when these were under the threat of annihilation. His home education at an early age of his life was based on the teaching objective characterized by a high view of God. This led Moses to take upon his shoulders the great task of liberating the Hebrews from bondage (Heb. 11:23-28). Four decisions were taken and reflected the educational objectives Moses required. These were:

1. He rejected the honour offered to him as the son of King Pharaoh in Egypt. This was so because he wanted to be an instrument in the hands of the Mighty King of heaven. As a result he saved his compatriots from shame, degradation, exploitation and oppression (Heb. 11:24).
2. He accepted voluntarily to suffer alongside the people of Yahweh rather than to rejoice with the earthly well-to-do people (Heb. 11:25).
3. He considered to be persecuted for the name of Christ as an unprecedented wealth rather than pretending to be an Egyptian (Heb. 11:26).
4. He preferred to disobey the earthly King for the sake of gaining favour from the Invisible External God (Heb. 11:27).

In the light of the above, it is evident that Hebrew parents achieved their educational goal. All generations knew that "the fear of the Lord is the source of knowledge" whether they were inside or outside their homeland. The reason behind this success is due to the appropriate application of their teaching objectives. Instructional

objectives were used to such an extent that everybody understood them, and they were clear in the mind of every single individual.

Another outstanding teacher who used teaching objectives extensively is our Lord Jesus Christ. In his "Principle of Concentration in the Educational Strategy of Jesus Christ and Implication For Higher Education", Friedeman groups all teaching objectives of Jesus Christ into three categories. These are: character building objectives, community objectives and training for service objectives (Friedeman 1987).

From looking at the research findings above, it is evident that the teaching strategy involving educational objectives was applied by our Lord Jesus Christ to the extent to which at least three dimensions of life were touched. These are: the character of the student, the community of the students and service (Friedeman 1987, 52).

The apostle Paul also used the teaching strategy involving educational objectives in different and various circumstances. One of them is that he used teaching objectives in pointing non-Christians to the way of conversion. For example, to the people of Lystra, Paul formulates and informs them about his educational objectives for his visit as follows: "We are bringing good news, telling you to turn from these worthless things to the living God" (Act 14:15). In another, he used objectives to leading converts to Christian maturity. Thus, Paul states his aims to the Colossians: "We proclaim him, admonishing and teaching everyone with all wisdom, so that we may present everyone perfect in Christ" (Col. 1:28).

Another one was the use of educational objectives to train people for service. For example, in what the New International Version of the Bible (NIV) describes as "Instructions to Timothy", Paul sets a fivefold instructional objective to be followed by Timothy, namely: being an example to believers in speech, life, love, faith and purity (1 Tim. 4:12).

In the light of the above, it is evident that the teaching strategy involving educational objectives was used by the apostle Paul to affect the character of the learners as indicated by objectives relating to conversion and spiritual maturity of the learner, as well as the professional life of the learner as shown by Paul's "Instructions to Timothy."

Lecturing Methods

The teaching strategy involving lecturing methods is very old indeed. The literature shows that ancient cultures used it extensively. For example, ancient Hebrew parents were commanded "to talk" about their commandments from God through a variety of styles. The Bible states: "Talk about them when you sit at home and when you walk along the road, and when you lie down and when you get up" (Dt. 6:7).

There are at least two things in the divine order above which are reflected by the extent to which the lecture method was used by ancient Hebrew teaching parents. There is first of all the idea of talking about the commandments "when sitting, when walking, when lying down and when standing up." Put in other words, the family of the child-learner was to teach at various teachable moments. These are moments of natural interaction between the parent and his/her child. It

is evident from the above that any posture could be right posture for lecturing or talking about the instructional materials which are the commandments of the Lord.

This suggests a variety of teaching styles. The ancient Hebrew parent-teacher taught from several postures including: sitting, walking, lying down, and standing. The authoritative posture of professor or lecturer *ex cathedra* was not the only style used. It was used as one method among many others (Anderson 1989, 69 - 71).

There is secondly the idea of "house, road, down and up." These words carry within themselves the idea of places and time of instructions.

This suggests a continual talk about this commandment. Such endless teaching takes place everywhere. Evident from the above is that the teacher is ordered to teach or talk of the commandment at all times and in all places.

The New Testament also shows that our Lord Jesus Christ used lecturing methods in a variety of ways. When He taught the crowd how to pray, Jesus Christ used the lecture method (Lk. 11:1-3). He also used the lecture method when He instituted the Lord's Supper (Mt. 26:26-29). The Sermon on the Mount in Mt. 5:1-7:28 is mainly presented in the form of a lecture.

The apostle Paul is another religious teacher who used lecturing methods in a variety of ways. For example, to the people of Pisidian Antioch he used it urging repentance from sin in order to receive Jesus Christ as the personal Saviour and Lord (Acts 13:16-42). To the Athenians he used this method to explain to them how the Living God had revealed Himself as Creator and Judge (Acts. 17:23).

Imitation Methods

The use of the teaching techniques involving imitation techniques can be traced back to the ancient times. For example, Aristotle is quoted by Laska and Goldstein as having praised it as "the distinguishing mark of man from animal." He stated "man is the most imitative creature in the world and learns at first by imitation." (Laska and Goldstein 1973,10).

The Hebrews also made use of imitation techniques as a way of modelling the character of Yahweh to the nations and to their children. Hosea, for example, modelled the perfect love of God towards the unrepentant Israelites by taking for his wife a loose woman (Hosea 1:2-10).

Our Lord Jesus demonstrated the value of modelling in His lessons. For example, He modelled humility to His disciples by washing their feet (John 13:1-17). He taught prayer by modelling attitudes of prayer (Mark 6:40-41).

The apostle Paul also was aware of the merits of imitation techniques. Consequently he commends the technique to believers such as the Corinthians - "Be followers of me" (1 Cor. 11:1) and the Galatians - "Be as I am" (Gal. 4:12). He also urges Timothy as his disciple - to imitate him in the following aspects of life: "doctrine, manner, and purpose" (2 Tim. 4:10-15).

Questioning

The use of questioning as a teaching technique is very old. Socrates (469 - 399 B.C.) is one of the representatives of educators who used it. He believed that by using questions he could force his pupils/disciples to become

involved in the teaching-learning processes.

Other people who used it were Hebrew parents and teachers. They were expected to explain the rationale of every Jewish feast and ceremony to their children. Children were expected to ask questions as they watched ceremonies, rites and feasts. The parents - who were officiating - were expected to answer. For example, at the Passover (Ex. 12:26) children could ask: "What is the meaning of this service?" Our Lord Jesus Christ did exactly the same thing. When He was inadvertently left by His parents in Jerusalem, who came back looking for Him, they found him "sitting in the midst of the teachers, both listening to them and asking questions" (Lk. 2:41-51).

Our Lord Jesus Christ used questioning in a variety of ways and situations. He used it to draw a correct answer from his disciples. He asked: "Who do people say I am?" They told Him, "John the Baptist; and others said Elijah; but others, one of the prophets." But who do you say I am? Peter answered: "Thou art the Christ" (Mk. 8:27-29).

The apostle also used questioning in a variety of situations. Evangelizing Agrippa, he asked: "Why does it seem incredible to you that God should raise the dead?" (Acts 26:8). "King Agrippa, do you believe the prophets?" (Acts 26:27). These questions aimed at eliciting personal commitment from the King.

In summary, the teaching techniques involving questioning method was used by educators from different cultural backgrounds. A mention can be made about Greeks, Hebrews and Africans. To be noted also is that the questioning technique was used to transmit both religious

knowledge and secular knowledge as well.

Discovery Method

Like the rest of the methods above, the discovery method is very ancient. The Greek educators were aware of its merits. They used it. One of them was Socrates (469 - 399 B.C.). The other one was Plato who used it in teaching-learning processes between him and his disciples. A case in point was Meno as found in Laska and Goldstein (1973, 14-17).

Africans have also used this method before the period of colonization. Through warlike games, Rwandese youths were taught how to fight (Maquet 1968, 181).

Discovery begins when a person discovers his inadequacy. The role of the teacher in that is to show the learner his inadequacies. Once these are detected, the learner deals with them. He may either adjust or integrate the new knowledge. He may also decide to reorganize his experiences, or to withdraw and give up. In these activities, the teacher as a facilitator, stands by the learner and helps him to make necessary changes as he reorganizes his experience. That is what Jesus did in His encounter with Nicodemus as reported in John 3:1-21. Similarly, the Samaritan woman in John 4, was led to see the Lordship of Christ through the discussion which started with the Lord asking for a drink. Nicodemus was a Pharisee, a ruler of the Jews. From earlier training and cultural heritage, Nicodemus had his own value systems. Jesus gave him a new teaching which did not fit into Nicodemus' basic concepts. Nicodemus was led to see the inadequacy of his concepts.

African educators of the pre-colonial times used

discovery as a method of teaching. This method consists of role play, simulation games and cooperative projects/games.

In Africa, children were taught through simulated activities. For example, Maquet observed that in Rwanda, children learned to fight real battles by exercising the muscles in warlike activities (Maquet 1968, 181). Pluedemann explains that in games involving stimulation, "children are not turned loose to do simply what they feel like doing. The simulated play is highly structured with such cognitive as well as effective learning taking place." Through simulated activities children were involved in socializing processes; they learned tribal history, preparing meals and serving, carrying babies on their backs like their mothers and building houses (Plueddemann 1973, 22).

In summary, the teaching strategy involving discovery methods has been used by different Greek, Hebrew and African educators to transmit cultural legacy and values. Learning was facilitated through metaphors, simulations and games.

Given the large number of teaching strategies which are evident from the literature, four strategies were selected by the researcher as targets for critical investigation. These are: Teaching objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques and questioning.

The factors guiding the choice were as follows:

1. Time - The four methods are considered as significant, comprehensive and manageable within the time constraints
2. People who used it - Each of the four methods was used by our Lord Jesus Christ and the apostles in their educational ministries, and by people in all places and all ages.

3. Comprehensiveness - Each of the four methods covers several teaching techniques.
4. Today's frequency - The four methods are currently in use, and in the light of the widespread call for appraisal of and improvement of the lecture and other teaching methods, further investigation on them is deemed significant.

Summary of Chapter II

This literature review had a two-fold purpose. The first was to provide from the literature a review of the past with regard to the search and concern about appropriate ways of teaching. Various methods have been reviewed, some of which have been seen to have very ancient origins.

The second was to identify some major teaching strategies which have been in use from the ancient times up to the present. A number of teaching strategies have been identified. Of these the following five major groupings were set out.

- Educational Objectives
- Lecturing Methods
- Imitation Techniques
- Questioning and
- Discovery Methods

CHAPTER III

TESTING AND ANALYZING

The Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which four teaching strategies were being applied in the course of systematic theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. These include: educational objectives (MO), lecturing methods (ML), imitation techniques (MI) and questioning (MQ).

Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this study have been already given in chapter one. In order to test the hypotheses, the writer developed two questionnaires which are contained in Appendix A.

Population

This study concentrates on selected undergraduate theological colleges in Kenya. These are: five Nairobi Fellowship of Theological Colleges (NFTC) and three colleges which are not members of the NFTC, namely: Saint Paul's United Theological College (St. Paul's), Hekima Jesuit Theological College (Hekima) and the Apostles of Jesus Seminary (AJS).

Test Development

The questionnaire construction started from general ideas delineated from the literature and consultations with other researchers and supervisors. At its initial stage, an 82-item-questionnaire was drafted and handed in to four experts in Education for validation.

The experts above were requested to assist the researcher by rating each item of the questionnaire as a true test of the quality it was designed to measure. The grades involving: Very Good (VG), Good (G), Average (A), and Poor (P) were used to indicate the extent to which each question measured teaching strategies involving educational objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques and questioning. Out of 82 questions, 10 were retained for this research because they had scored "Very Good", from each of the experts.

The selection process of the 10 questions was done in two different stages. At the first stage, seven questions were selected. This was followed by the selection of the remaining three. The two stages of selection are described below.

The original list which comprised 82 questions was constructed by the researcher. These were handed in to the four experts above for validation. Out of the 82 questions, only 7 scored the highest "Very Good" by each of the experts. Since the original plans were to maintain the best ones, these were retained for this research.

However, the 7 questions were not enough for this study. Out of the seven questions, three were testing the teaching strategy involving the educational objectives; two, the lecturing methods; the remaining two teaching strategies shared the remaining questions. These were the teaching strategies involving the imitation techniques, and questioning.

As a result, another list of questions was constructed. Three questions relative to the teaching strategies involving

imitation techniques and questioning were formulated by the supervisor. In addition to these, the researcher selected six questions from those that had been graded "Good" in the previous list of 82 questions. The same questions had also to relate to the methods of imitation and questioning. They were modified and added to the three.

All the nine questions were handed in for validation to three of the four experts who were available at this stage.

Out of the nine questions 3 were graded "Very Good" by each of the three experts. Then these were added to the 7. The total of all questions became 10.

A final questionnaire was drafted. Since this study sought to investigate the extent to which theological educators were applying certain identified teaching strategies, it became necessary that a response to it take into consideration both students and lecturers. Consequently a twofold instrumental approach became inevitable.

The first was a questionnaire to be answered by students. To adapt it to the students, the researcher put subjects of each question into the third person singular, "he or she."

The second was a questionnaire designed to make lecturers describe the teaching strategies they use. To adapt it to them, the researcher put all subjects in each question in the first person singular "I".

To avoid confusion, the researcher typed these two questionnaires on separate papers of different colours. The students' questionnaires was typed on white paper whereas the lectures' questionnaire, on yellow paper. (See Appendix A).

Following the completion of the two ten-item

questionnaire construction, the researcher proceeded to the process of pre-testing them in three different pilot colleges. These included: Kenya Highlands Bible College (KHBC) (one of the NFTC), the AJS and the St. Paul's. Both students and some lecturers were asked to participate in the pre-test. Every student and every lecturer who was not selected for the final questionnaire was, if genuinely interested, given a copy of the initial period questionnaire. It should be stressed that those who excused themselves were not pressurised into participating.

Students who participated were 66. Three were from KHBC, 33 from the AJS and 30 from the St. Paul's. With regard to the lecturers seven participated. Those were 4 from KHBC, 2 from the St. Paul's and one from the AJS.

The return from the pilot-test brought about three major alterations. These were:

- The narrowing of the study to one course, Systematic Theology Course.
- The narrowing of the investigation to one group of lecturers, the teachers of Systematic Theology; and
- The change of wording of the questionnaires.

Administration Of The Final Test

College Samples

Four colleges were selected as samples to test the hypotheses of this study. These were: the East Africa School of Theology (EAST), a member of the NFTC, St. Paul's, the AJS, and Hekima. The factors guiding the choices of these sample colleges were as follows:

- Students: all the selected colleges recruit students from Kenya and abroad.

- Teachers: all the sample colleges have lecturers drawn from Kenya and abroad.
- Duration of establishment: The sample colleges have each been established for more than five years. St. Paul's was founded in 1903; EAST in 1968 and AJS and Hekima in 1984 (ACTEA Directory of Theological Schools in Africa 1985).
- A variety of background: Each sample college represents a distinct theological tradition which is significant in Kenya. EAST represents the evangelical traditions. St. Paul's represents the main-stream Protestant traditions. Hekima represents the Jesuit Catholic tradition and AJS represents a missionary-oriented Catholic tradition.

Students

Seniors of each institution among the sample colleges were selected and requested to participate in evaluating the teaching strategies used by their lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology. These strategies involved: educational objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques and questioning. 81 students participated, 15 students came from EAST, 14 from Hekima, 21 from St. Paul's and 31 from AJS. Only students who had been subjected to the teaching methods above for at least two years were involved in the study to promote the validity of their observations.

Lecturers

The teachers of Systematic Theology in each college among the sample colleges were selected. They were requested to participate in evaluating their teaching methodologies. A total of nine lecturers participated. Four lecturers came from EAST, two from the St. Paul's, two from the AJS, and one from Hekima.

Systematic Theology Course

The course of Systematic Theology was selected as the course to be used for investigating the methods. The rationale for its choice was that the Systematic Theology course was one of the major courses in these theological colleges.

Research Instruments

Two ten item questions were constructed following the Likert attitude scale concept. Normally these comprise a questionnaire to be answered by students. They are also referred to as questionnaire Students (QS) and questionnaire Lectures (QL). (See Appendix A).

This type of instrument was selected because research has confirmed its effectiveness in evaluating Students' attitudes toward a particular course or instructor. (Jacobson, Eggen and Kanihak 1989, 78). The Likert concept with a broad span of responses was adopted also because it reduces the chances for the respondent to give manipulated or insincere answers.

Normally the Likert scale is described by Nachmias and Nachmias as "a five-point-continuum." It gives five fixed alternative expressions. These are: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree. In this five-point-continuum, weights of 1,2,3,4,5 or 5,4,3,2,1, are assigned. The direction of weighting is determined by favorableness or unfavorableness of the item (Nachmias and Nachmias 1976, 114).

The wording was also adapted never, rarely, sometimes, often, always were used instead of strongly agree, agree,

undecided, disagree and strongly disagree.

The five spaces were adapted to four because one of the validity evaluators suggested it. The rationale behind is that the distance between "Rarely" and "sometimes" is small if compared with the rest of the distance. Each of the four-points-scale indicates the frequencies with which the lecturer's behaviour occurs.

Validity And Reliability From Final Test

Estimates Of Content Validity

Questions were adjusted statistically in relation to one another at the end of the testing process. The rationale behind this was to determine the nature of relationship between every two questions testing a common method. Table 2 below gives the correlation coefficient of every pair of questions dealing with a common method.

Table 2. Correlations Of Pairs Of Questions By Methods

| METHODS: | OBJECTIVES | | | LECTURE | IMITATION | QUESTIONING | | |
|------------|------------|------|-----|---------|-----------|-------------|------|------|
| QUESTIONS: | 1&2 | 2&3 | 1&3 | 4&5 | 6&7 | 8&9 | 9&10 | 8&10 |
| | 0.5 | 0.55 | 0.5 | 0.45 | 0.5 | 0.45 | 0.41 | 0.5 |

Then each correlation coefficient above was submitted to a two tailed t test. The rationale was to determine its significance. The method for obtaining significance was obtained from the section entitled "Statistical Significance of a Coefficient of Correlation" in Best and Kahn (1989, 267). The results are as follows:

N = 81 for all samples

For $r = .5$ $t_r = 5.13$

$$r = .45 \quad tr = 4.78$$

$$r = .41 \quad tr = 4.38$$

Using a two tailed test at the .05 level with 79 degrees of freedom, the null hypothesis is rejected for each r , since each of the tr values exceeds the estimated t critical value of 1.994. Hence, each of the coefficient correlations is significant at the .05 level.

Estimates of Internal Consistency

After both groups (students and lecturers) were pre-tested, and the questionnaire returns codified, relationships between the individual questions' scores and the ones of their teaching strategy were determined. The rationale behind the test was to determine the nature of relationship between the total scores of a method and each individual question. Attempts were made also to determine the relationship existing between each and every question with the overall total scores of the class. The outcomes were as follows:

Method Q

The correlation between the first question and the method total (T_0) was $r=0.80$ whereas the one between the same question and the overall total (TA) was $r=0.57$.

The correlation between the 2nd question and the T_0 was $r=0.78$, whereas the one between questions 2 and the TA was 0.71.

The correlation between third 3rd question and the T_0 was $r=80$ whereas the one between the same question and TA was $r=0.66$.

Method L

The correlation between question 4 and the method total (TL) was $r=.72$ whereas the one between the same question and the overall total (TA) was $r=0.55$.

The correlation between question 5 and the TL was $r=0.81$ and the one of the same question and the TA was 0.54 .

Method I

The correlation between question 6 and the method total (TI) was $r=0.78$ whereas the one between the same question and the TA was $r=0.52$.

The correlation between question 7 and the TI was $r=0.84$ whereas the one between the same question and the TA was $r=0.66$.

Method Q

The correlation between question 8 and the method total (TQ) was $r=0.56$ whereas the one between the same question and the overall total (TA) was $r=0.57$.

The correlation between question 9 and the TQ was $r=0.66$ whereas the one between the same question and the TA was 0.64 .

The correlation between question 10 and the TQ was $r=0.85$ whereas the one between the same question and the TQ was $r=0.65$.

It is to be noted that each of the correlation coefficients is obviously significant since each exceeds $r=.5$ which has been shown to be significant. Thus it is evident that the above shows that in each case the question have significant internal consistency in what they are supposed to measure.

Estimates of Reliability

After the establishment of internal consistency the test was split into 2 halves comprising: odd-numbered by each person on one half were correlated with those obtained by him on the other half. The rationale behind the test was to determine if the halves measured the same quality. That was, the extent to which the teaching strategies-involving MO, ML, MI, and MQ -were being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. The correlation coefficient using "the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula" (Nachmias and Nachmias 1976, 67)

$$r_{xx'} = \frac{2r_{oe}}{1+r_{oe}} \text{ was } r^2 = 0.70.$$

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which four teaching strategies were being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. These include: educational objectives (MO), lecturing methods (ML), imitation techniques (MI), and questioning (MQ). Findings based on research hypotheses - are presented under three headings, namely:

Obtained Scores

Testing of Hypotheses

Summary of Findings

Methodology of Analysis

Procedures

- (a) The population was defined as "Theological Colleges of Kenya." This was done during the 2nd quarter of 1991.
- (b) Four college samples were selected during the same time as population. Four factors guided the choice, namely: Students and teachers' recruitment, year of establishment of the colleges and their theological background.
- (c) During the 3rd quarter of 1991, two questionnaires were drafted and handed to a panel of experts in order to test their validity.
- (d) At the beginning of the 1st quarter 1992 pilot testing

was done among three colleges, namely: KHBC, St. Paul's and the AJS.

- (e) Shortly after the questionnaires were returned to the researcher, analysis of findings began and was completed.
- (f) The final testing took place in the 2nd quarter of 1992.
- (g) Internal consistency, validity and reliability were established as the result of the final testing.

Data analysis

The analysis was based on the research hypotheses. The questionnaire returns were codified, classified and analyzed as follows:

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis - that the teaching strategy involving educational objectives is not extensively being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya - was tested by the use of questions 1, 2, and 3 (See Appendix A). Scores were added up and their averages worked out for the testing of the hypothesis. Then corresponding conclusions were drawn.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis - that the teaching strategy involving lecturing methods is being extensively applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya - was tested by the use of questions 4 and 5 (see Appendix A). Scores were added up and their averages worked out for the testing of each hypothesis. Then corresponding conclusions were drawn.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis - that the teaching strategy involving imitation techniques is not extensively being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in theological colleges of Kenya - was tested by the use of questions 6 and 7 (See Appendix A). Scores were added up and their overall averages worked out for the testing of the hypothesis. Then corresponding conclusions were drawn.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis - that the teaching strategy involving questioning is not extensively being applied by the theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya - was tested by questions 8, 9 and 10 (See Appendix A). The scores were added up and their averages worked out for the testing of the hypothesis. Then corresponding conclusions were drawn.

Scoring Procedures

For each question, scores were allocated as follows: Never (1), Sometimes (2), Often (3), and always (4). The mean of these four scores is 2.5. It is therefore decided that a response would be considered as "favourable" or "unfavourable" according to whether its mean was greater or less than the critical mean of 2.5.

Research Findings

Scores Obtained

Using the above scoring procedure, the scores obtained were as described below: The teaching strategy involving educational objectives scored the most favourable of all. Its means were 3.6 (lecturers) and 3.0 (students).

This was followed by the teaching strategy involving lecturing methods with means of 3.4 (lecturers) and 2.8 (students). The method involving questioning was third in the scoring rank order with a means of 2.7 (lecturers) and 2.7 (students). The least scores were given to the teaching strategy involving imitation techniques with means of 2.6 (lecturers) and 2.4 (students). All the means above are shown in tables 3 and 4 below.

Table 3. Scores' totals (TS), Scores' means (SM) and corresponding conclusions (CC) by Lecturers.

| METHODS | N | TS | SM | CC |
|----------------------|---|----|-----|------------|
| Teaching Objectives | 9 | 98 | 3.6 | Favourable |
| Lecturing Methods | 9 | 62 | 3.4 | Favourable |
| Questioning Devices | 9 | 49 | 2.7 | Favourable |
| Imitation Techniques | 9 | 47 | 2.6 | Favourable |

Table 4 below Scores' totals (TS), Scores' means (SM), and corresponding conclusions (CC) by students.

| METHODS | N | TS | SM | CC |
|----------------------|----|-----|-----|--------------|
| Teaching Objectives | 81 | 741 | 3.0 | Favourable |
| Lecturing Methods | 81 | 458 | 2.8 | Favourable |
| Questioning Devices | 81 | 448 | 2.7 | Favourable |
| Imitation Techniques | 81 | 391 | 2.4 | Unfavourable |

N. indicates the number of people who participated.

Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was stated that the teaching strategy involving educational objectives is not extensively being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in theological colleges of Kenya. To test this hypothesis two questionnaires known as QL and QS were administered (See Appendix A). Three specific questions (1-3) from each questionnaire were purposefully asked

regarding this specific hypothesis. The hypothesis was rejected both from the findings on the lecturers and students. The lecturers' mean of 3.6 and the students' mean of 3.0 are each greater than the critical value of 2.5. It was, therefore, concluded that the teaching strategy involving educational objectives is extensively being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis stated that the teaching strategy - involving questioning - is not extensively being applied by the theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. To test this hypothesis, two questionnaires known as QL and QS were administered (See Appendix A). Three specific questions (8 - 10) from each questionnaire were purposefully asked regarding this specific hypothesis. The hypothesis was rejected both from the findings on the lectures and the students. The mean of 2.7 from both lecturers and students is greater than the critical value of 2.5. It was therefore concluded that the teaching strategy involving questioning (MQ) is extensively being applied by the theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis stated that the teaching strategy involving imitation techniques (MI) is not extensively being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the lecturers in colleges of Kenya. To test this

hypotheses two questionnaires known as QL and QS were administered (See Appendix A). Two specific questions (6 -7) from each questionnaire were purposefully asked regarding this specific hypothesis. The hypothesis was rejected in the case of the lecturers and accepted in the case of the students. The lecturers' mean of 2.6 is greater than the critical value of 2.5, while the students' mean of 2.4 is less than the critical value of 2.5. It was, therefore, concluded that the perspectives of lecturers and students appear to differ on the matter.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis stated that the teaching strategy involving lecturing methods is extensively being applied by theological lecturers in the course Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. To test this hypothesis two questionnaires known as QL and QS were administered (See Appendix A). Two specific questions (4 - 5) were purposefully asked regarding this specific hypothesis. The hypothesis was accepted both by the findings on the lecturers (3.4 being greater than 2.5) and on the students (2.8 being greater than 2.5).

Summary

In summary, three teaching strategies were found extensively in use. These are: Educational objectives, lecturing methods and questioning. The fourth one (imitations) was found extensively in use according to lecturers' self-ratings and not extensive according to students' ratings.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter, findings are discussed. Conclusions and implications are drawn from discussions and recommendations formulated.

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which certain identified teaching strategies are being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. These included: educational objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques and questioning.

To achieve this purpose, four hypotheses were formulated. The first was: the teaching strategy involving educational objectives is not being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. Secondly, the teaching strategy involving lecturing methods is being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. Thirdly, the teaching strategy involving imitation techniques is not being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in theological colleges of Kenya. Fourthly, the teaching strategy involving questioning is not being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya.

Findings

The findings of the research as already stated in chapter four were as follows: First, the teaching strategy involving educational objectives is being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. Secondly, the teaching strategy involving lecturing methods is being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in theological colleges of Kenya. Thirdly, there is difference in the perception of lecturers and their students on the application of the teaching strategy involving imitation techniques in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. The lecturers' perception indicated a favourable extent while the students' perception contradicted it. Fourthly, the teaching strategy involving questioning is being applied extensively by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya.

Observations

From the results as stated in chapter four, the findings can be further classified from the scores in terms of rank order and relative intensity. Here, "relative intensity" is interpreted as "lecturers" and "students" according to which group had a greater average score for a particular strategy. Thus, we have the table below:

Table 5, Classification of Research Findings

| STRATEGY | RANK ORDER | | RELATIVE INTENSITY | PERCEPTION | |
|-------------------------|------------|----------|--------------------|------------|------------|
| | Lecturers | Students | | Lecturers | Students |
| Teaching Objectives | 1 | 1 | Lecturers | Favourable | Favourable |
| Learning Methods | 2 | 2 | Lecturers | Favourable | Favourable |
| Questioning | 3 | 3 | No difference | Favourable | Favourable |
| Facilitation Techniques | 4 | 4 | Lecturers | Favourable | Favourable |

Discussions On Findings

It may be seen from the above that the theological lecturers do not apply one method. The findings show that in the perception of the lecturers all four methods are being applied, although in the perception of the students three of the four are being applied. This finding suggests that the theological lecturers have demonstrated the capacity to adapt a variety of methods.

It is observed also that in each case the relative intensity of observation is on the part of the lecturers, except for one case in which there is no difference in intensity. This may indicate that the lecturers as the agents of the methods have a more comprehensive grasp of what they are doing than their students.

However, it also indicates a communication gap. There is therefore need for lecturers to make a greater effort to raise the awareness of the students about the strategies they are using to attain their objectives. It is recommended that a conscious effort be made by lecturers to explain their methodologies to their students and to obtain feed-back which

could lead to improvement.

It is also observed that the rank order for both lecturers and students is the same, namely: educational objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques and questioning. This is a confirmation of the reliability of the observation. The fact that the educational objectives scored the highest shows that the teaching in these theological colleges has a sense of direction and that lecturers set limits to what they are teaching. If the lecturing method had more predominance than objectives, it would have indicated a desire to impart knowledge without clearly demonstrating the aim of the teaching.

There has been a general feeling that the lecturing method has been the most predominant teaching method in theological colleges. While these findings show that lecturing has a higher rank order than questioning or imitation techniques, it is not seen as the most predominant. It is to be noted that both students and lecturers see the lecture method as independent of the strategy of setting objectives.

If the findings had shown that only teaching objectives and lecturing were favourable, and all methods unfavourable, it would have indicated that the only means used to arrive at the objectives was the lecturing method. The fact that other teaching methods are seen to be favourable indicates that lecturing is not the only method used in these theological colleges. The findings indicate that the lecturing method is used as a part of a group of strategies to attain the educational objectives.

It is to be noted that the teaching strategy involving

imitation techniques has the least rank order for both lecturers and students. For students, it was not significantly applied. In conclusion, it may be safely said that low priority was given to this method. Where priority is duly given, it would indicate emphasis on character building through the observation of models. The finding calls for a more deliberate effort at modelling within the classrooms and outside. It is suggested that theological education should be deeply concerned with modelling. Effective learning by example is essential for the building of the Church and its future leaders.

More General Discussion

Teaching Objectives

Theological lecturers have certain course content and educational objectives to cover within a specified period. The fact the teaching objectives occupy the highest rank order would indicate a commitment to this course content and to the achievement of the objectives. Faithfulness to teaching objectives also adds accountability and the evaluation process on the effectiveness of the teaching.

Lecturing Methods

The lecturing method was found to rank second in the teaching strategies used. It has proved to be an effective method over the years. Nevertheless the concentration on the transmission of instructional materials from the lecturer to the student may not bring out the full ability of the student. The fact that the student knows what the lecturer wants him to know may not make the student productive of his own ideas to the benefit of learning in general. At the same

time there is a body of knowledge to transmit and the lecturing method has often been effective in doing that.

However, the findings have revealed that lecturing is part of a group of methods used. These suggested also that this group stands a greater chance of achieving the objectives of learning than the lecture method used alone.

Questioning

The questioning method was found to rank third. This shows that it is in existence, but less extensively used. The fact that it is part of a group used is commendable. However, it is a well-known fact that questioning is an effective way of inducing creativity, self discovery and effective learning. Thus, it is recommended that greater emphasis be placed on the questioning method.

Imitation Techniques

The imitation techniques rank fourth in the findings. It is here perhaps that the greatest amount of work needs to be done. Imitation techniques involve modelling and discipleship. These are essential. There is need for the student to learn in various situations as the early disciples did. They learned on the land and at the sea, at normal and on social occasions, in the normal times as well as in times of crisis. As the student observes the teacher and as the teacher intermingles with the example, both student and the lecturer should "grow up in all things into Him who is the Head - Christ" (Ephesians 4:15 NKJV).

Conclusion

In conclusion, four significant research findings have emerged and have been discussed. There was first of all the idea that theological lecturers employ a variety of teaching methodologies. This deserves support and encouragement.

Second, there was the idea that the teaching strategies involving educational objectives and lecturing methods are adequately emphasized. A considerable effort to help these maintain their status quo is appropriate.

Third, there was the idea that the teaching strategy involving questioning is part of the methods in current use. This however needs more emphasis.

Four, there was the idea that the teaching strategy involving imitation techniques is inadequately emphasized in the teaching-learning process. This needs priority attention.

In the light of the above, several recommendations were formulated. Among them, three important points are suggested as follows:

- a) Priority to be given to learning by imitation;
- b) More emphasis to be given to questioning; and
- c) The use of combined methods above by theological lecturers to be emphasized and encouraged.

Implications

The research has confirmed the existence of a predominantly extensive use of teaching strategies which tend to centre on the lecturers. Such methods indicate generally lecturers' bias in selecting the classroom methodologies they use. In such cases lecturers' interest, ability, and needs appear to take priority over those of the students. As a result, the theological teacher appears to be answering

questions that the student is not asking.

At the same time the question may as well be asked regarding the use of lecturing methods as part of a repertoire involving other methods such as questioning. Also one wonders whether the lecture methods can be made student-centred under certain circumstances. With the above in view the following two questions arise:

- To what extent do those who use the lecturing methods together with other methods such as questioning and imitation techniques make their teaching student-centred rather than lecturer-centred?
- To what extent can the lecturing method be made to respond to questions that students are asking rather than the questions the lecturers formulate for them?

The view has been expressed by Nicholls that "many theological schools are slow to break out of a strict classroom lecture and examination approach to teaching" (Nicholls 1982, 19). The question arises as to whether this is due to habit, attitude or lack of training and skills in other systems. In the light of this, a question arises as follows: To what extent do theological lecturers exhibit resistance to changing strict classroom lecturing systems? Furthermore, what are the factors which influence such attitudes?

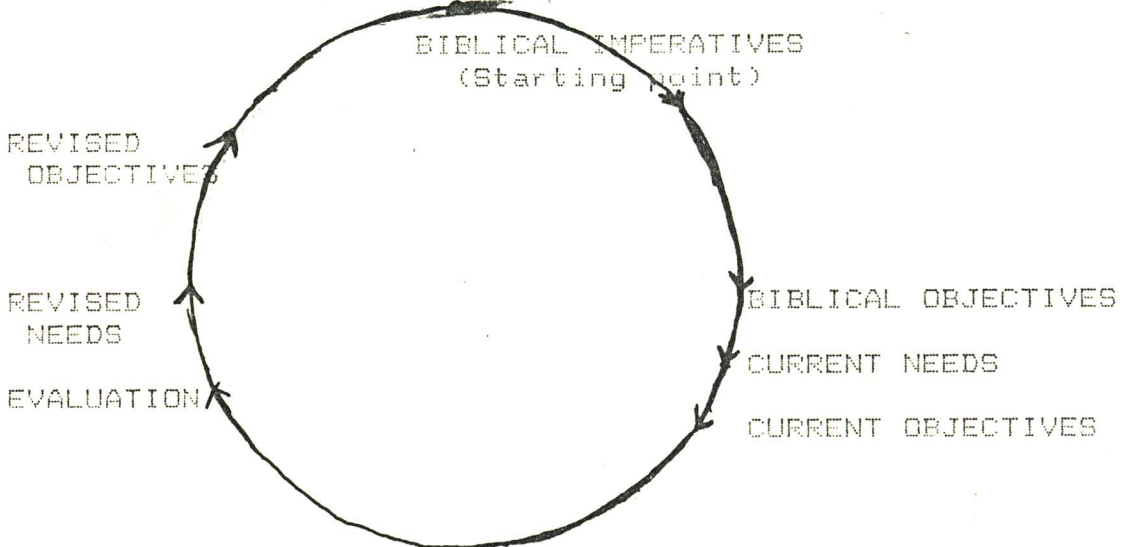
Shown also by this research was the extensive use of the teaching strategy involving educational objectives. Based on ideas received from Javalera, the researcher recommends the following model involving five stages of teaching objectives:

1. Teaching objectives should arise from Biblical imperatives and Biblical objectives as found in Matthew

20:20 and Colossians 1:28.

2. The formulation of current educational objectives should be based on number one above and should take into account social aims and objectives.
3. Teaching objectives should be submitted to regular evaluation.
4. Revised needs and educational objectives should be formulated.
5. These should be submitted to the check-point, that is the Biblical imperatives and objectives (Matthew 20:20 and Colossians 1:28).

All the five stages can be represented by drawing as follows:



In summary, the ultimate purpose in these theological colleges should be to help each student to grow into Christ-likeness. Each classroom session should be marked by a step toward Christ-likeness.

Found out also was a lack of agreement between theological lecturers and their students on the use of the teaching strategy involving imitation techniques. Lecturers rated it favourable while students rated it unfavourable. From looking at this, some questions arise:

- What strategies should be used to ensure that there is effective modelling and use of imitation techniques?
- How effective would the teaching strategy which is predominantly involving imitation techniques induce effective learning?
- What implications would the teaching strategy which is predominantly imitation techniques have for the structure of the curriculum both in terms of classroom and field experiences?

Also revealed was an agreement between lecturers and their students on the use of the teaching strategy involving questioning. They gave it a third rank order. This also raises questions which can be formulated as follows:

- How can questioning be balanced with other teaching methods such as imitation techniques so as to induce effective learning?
- Can student-centred methods apart from the lecturing method produce effective learning?
- Can the predominant use of questioning methods above all others produce effective learning?

Recommendations For Further Research

From the above, the questions for further research are listed: 1. The study has been limited on the course of Systematic Theology. There is need for the study to be done in terms of other theological and Christian education subjects. 2. This study overviewed four major teaching methods used in the teaching of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. Thus, it is recommended that each of the four methods be studied separately, to explore each in greater depth.

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SIMEON NIKOBARI

NN.E.G.S.T.

P.O.Box 24686

NAIROBI.

May 24, 1991.

Dr. Paul Ronoh
Kenyaatta University
NAIROBI.

Dear Dr Ronoh

re:VALIDITATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The writer is conducting a research to determine the extent to which certain identified teaching strategies are being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. These are: 1) educational objectives; 2) lecturing methods; 3) imitation techniques and 4) questioning.

You are kindly requested to assist the writer in validating the investigative instrument attached as appendix. The writer will give you all necessary backgrounds. However, your evaluation is expected to be independent of the researcher.

Your kindness in giving assistance in this project will be very appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Simeon Nikobari

THE RESEARCHER.

SIMEON NIKOBARI

N.E.G.S.T.

P.O.Box 24686

NAIROBI.

May 24, 1991.

Dr. Elie BUCONYORI

C.L.M.C.

KAREN

Dear Dr. Buconyori,

re: VALIDITATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The writer is conducting a research to determine the extent to which certain identified teaching strategies are being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. These are: 1) educational objectives; 2) lecturing methods; 3) imitation techniques and 4) questioning.

You are kindly requested to assist the writer in validating the investigative instrument attached as appendix. The writer will give you all necessary backgrounds. However, your evaluation is expected to be independent to the researcher.

Your kindness in giving assistance in this project will be very appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Simeon Nikobari
THE RESEARCHER.

SIMEON NIKOBARI

N E G S T

P.O.Box 24686

NAIROBI.

May 24, 1991.

Dr. Victor Cole

N.E.G.S.T.

NAIROBI.

Dear Dr. Cole,

re: VALIDATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The writer is conducting a research to determine the extent to which certain identified teaching strategies are being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. These are: 1) educational objectives
2) lecturing methods
3) imitation techniques and
4) questioning.

You are kindly requested to assist the writer in validating the investigative instrument attached as appendix. The writer will give you all necessary backgrounds. However, your evaluation is expected to be independent of the researcher.

Your kindness in giving assistance in this project will be very appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Simeon Nikobari
THE RESEARCHER.

SIMEON NIKOBARI

N E G S T

P.O.Box 24586

NAIROBI.

May 24, 1991.

Dr Lois Semenye

Daystar University College

P.O.Box 44400

NAIROBI.

Dear Dr. Semenye,

re: VALIDITATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The writer is conducting a research to determine the extent to which certain identified teaching strategies are being applied by theological lecturers in the course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya. These are: 1) educational objectives; 2) lecturing methods; 3) imitation techniques; and 4) questioning.

You are kindly requested to assist the writer in validating the investigative instrument attached as appendix. The writer will give you all necessary backgrounds. However, your evaluation is expected to be independent of the researcher.

Your kindness in giving assistance in this project will be very appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Simeon Nikobari
THE RESEARCHER

QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction

This questionnaire is designed to find out the reaction of students to instructions in the theological colleges of Kenya. Such reactions will help us to suggest some ways of improving teaching methodologies in current use.

The Content Validity

Please indicate on the space provided on the left side of the paper your rating of each item as a true measure of the quality indicated in the heading (kindly tick one of the four ratings) as follows:

- V.G. (Very Good)
- G. (Good)
- A. (Average)
- P. (Poor)

Please give your assessment of the extent to which questions under each heading, taken as a whole, in fact measure the quality indicated in the heading (at the end of the questionnaire).

NAIROBI EVANGELICAL GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY

(N.E.G.S.T.)

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LECTURERS

Introduction

The researcher is carrying out a research study on the applicability on certain identified teaching strategies in classroom situations. These are: educational objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques and questioning.

The researcher would like to determine the extent to which the teaching strategies above are being applied by theological lecturers in course of Systematic Theology in the theological colleges of Kenya today. This will help the researcher to suggest ways of improving teaching methods in use. Please assist him in answering the following questions.

The information gathered in this study will be kept confidential. It will be used only for this research and the resultant thesis.

Thank you.

Questionnaire

Please describe your teaching strategies you use. Answer by ticking () the appropriate answer.

1. I inform the students of my course objectives
 - a) Never
 - b) Sometimes
 - c) Often
 - d) Always

2.

2. I set achievable course objectives

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

3. I have lesson plan for each class session

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

4. I state clearly each point

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

5. I support the main points with illustrations

- a) Never
- b) Sometimegs.....
- c) Often
- d) Always

6. I allow class demonstrations by students

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

7. I enable students to develop their own ideas by observing models such as the teacher, other people and visual aids.

- a) Never
- b) Often

7. I enable students to develop their own ideas by observing models such as the teacher, other people and visual aids.

a) Never

b) Sometimes

c) Often

d) Always

8. I find out ways to help students answer their own questions

a) Never

b) Sometimes

c) Often

d) Always

9. I ask questions to stimulate students' inquiry

a) Never

b) Sometimes

c) Often

d) Always

10. I help students to formulate questions on their subject matter and to search for appropriate answer

a) Never

b) Sometimes

c) Often

d) Always

A13

NAME OF YOUR COLLEGE

.....

YOUR ACADEMIC TITLE

NAIROBI EVANGELICAL GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY (N.E.G.S.T.)

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

INTRODUCTION

The researcher is carrying out a research study on the applicability of certain identified teaching strategies in classroom situations. He would like to determine the extent to which the teaching strategies - involving lesson objectives, lecturing methods, imitation techniques, and questioning - are being applied by theological tutors in the course of Systematic Theology in the Theological Colleges of Kenya today. This will help him to suggest ways of improving teaching methods in use. Please assist him by answering the following questions.

The information gathered in this research study will be kept confidential and will be used only for this research and the resultant thesis.

Thank you.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Describe the teaching methods used by your tutor. Answer by ticking () the appropriate answer.

1. The tutor set achievable lesson objectives

a) Never

b) Sometimes

c) Often

d) Always

2. The tutor informed the students of his or her course objectives

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

3. The tutor had plans for class sessions

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

4. The tutor stated clearly the main points

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

5. The tutor stated the main points with illustrations

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

6. The tutor allowed class demonstrations by students

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

7. The tutor enabled the students to develop their own ideas by observing models such as the teacher, other people and visual aids.

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

8. The tutor asked questions to stimulate students' inquiry

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

9. The tutor helped the students to be able to formulate questions on their subject matter to search for appropriate answer.

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

10. The tutor found out ways to help students answer their own questions.

- a) Never
- b) Sometimes
- c) Often
- d) Always

TABLE 4.3 Summary of categories of interaction analysis²⁰

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|----------------|--------------------|--|
| Teacher's talk | Indirect influence | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. * <i>Accepts feeling</i>: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a <u>non-threatening manner</u>. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings is included. 2. * <i>Praises or encourages</i>: praises or encourages student action or behaviour. Jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual; nodding head, or saying 'um hm' or 'go on' are included. 3. * <i>Accepts or uses ideas of students</i>: clarifying, building or developing ideas <u>suggested by a student</u>. As a teacher brings more of his own ideas into play, shift to category 5. 4. * <i>Asks questions</i>: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer. |
| | Direct influence | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. * <i>Lecturing</i>: giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions. 6. * <i>Giving directions</i>: directions, commands or orders with which a student is expected to comply. 7. * <i>Criticizing or justifying authority</i>: statements intended to change student behaviour from non-acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing; <u>extreme self-reference</u>. |
| Student talk | | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. * <i>Student talk - response</i>: talk by students in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statements. 9. * <i>Student talk - initiation</i>: talk by students which they initiate. If 'calling on' student is only to indicate who may talk next, observer must decide whether student wanted to talk. If he did, use this category. |
| | | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 10. * <i>Silence or confusion</i>: pauses, short periods of silence, and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer. |

* There is NO scale implied by these numbers. Each number, is classificatory; it designates a particular kind of communication event. To write these numbers down during observation is to enumerate, and not to judge, a position on a scale.