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TOWARD IDENTIFYING AND DEVELOPING ESSENTIAL TEACHING COMPETENCIES
FOR FACULTY MEMBERS OF ASSEMBLIES OF GOD
BIBLE INSTITUTES IN THE PHILIPPINES

A Thesis of the Professional Project
Presented to the Faculty of the
Denver Conservative Baptist Seminary
Denver, Colorado

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements of the Degree
Doctor of Ministry

Dimension: Cross-Cultural

by

Dwayne E. Turner

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Committee of the Assemblies of God for their support in making this study possible. A particular note of thanks goes to the late Dr. Wesley Hurst for his encouragement and support with this project.

A special debt of gratitude is acknowledged to Dr. Lois McKianey, my mentor, for her professional and expert guidance through this study. Also, the help of Dr. Stewart Bellor, who served as field supervisor for the study, is acknowledged with appreciation.

The final and most important acknowledgement goes to my wife Gayle and our sons Phillip and Steven who patiently encouraged me during the preparation of this project. The assistance of Phillip in operating the computer program used in analyzing some of the data of this study is acknowledged with deep appreciation.

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A study of this nature hardly could be an independent effort. A debt of gratitude is acknowledged to all those who assisted in any way, directly or indirectly, with this study.

Appreciation is acknowledged to the twelve persons who were the participants in the field study seminar. The help of Mrs. Grace Artuza in arranging many of the details related to the seminar is gratefully acknowledged. The kindness of the administration and staff of Immanuel Bible College in hosting the seminar is deeply appreciated. Thanks goes to Miss Ruth Waldenmaier for assisting in the administration of some of the questionnaires used in the study.

Gratitude is acknowledged to the members of the Foreign Missions Committee of the Assemblies of God for their support in making this study possible. A particular note of thanks goes to the late Dr. Wesley Hurst for his encouragement and support with this project.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Bible institute¹ movement is a global phenomenon involving hundreds of institutions, thousands of persons as faculty and administrators, and scores of thousands as students. These schools are distinct in that "they present a Bible-centered curriculum with the express purpose of preparing students for Christian service."² The American Association of Bible Colleges defines Bible college education as "education for college level whose distinctive function is to prepare students for Christian ministries or church vocations through a program of Biblical, general, and professional studies."³ Bible institutes generally are classified as undergraduate professional, or special purpose, institutions. Graduates of these schools assume positions as pastors, evangelists, cross-cultural missionaries, church administrators, Christian educators, church musicians, Christian journalists, church office workers, and lay church workers. Bible institute curricular offerings include courses in Bible and theology, general education and appropriate ministry skills. Cocurricular programs of regular

¹For the purposes of this study no distinction is made between Bible schools, Bible institutes, and Bible colleges. The term "Bible institute" is used to refer to all undergraduate schools offering Bible education with a view toward preparing people for vocational Christian service.

²George Sweeting, "Bible Colleges and Institutes: Chronicling the Vision of a Century," Christianity Today, February 5, 1982, p. 38.

³American Association of Bible Colleges Manual (Fayetteville, Arkansas: American Association of Bible Colleges, 1980), p. 9.

chapel services and involvement in practical Christian service also are required. It is anticipated that through this marriage of curricular and cocurricular programs students will become intellectually, spiritually, and functionally ready to engage in some form of Christian ministry. Thus it can be said that a distinct brand of professional education is offered by Bible institutes.

From humble beginnings in the United States in the late nineteenth century, the Bible institute movement has spread around the world. This expansion can be traced largely to modern missionary activity. Many of the modern missionaries received their biblical education at Bible institutes. Kenneth Gangel suggested that the Bible institute movement "has produced 75 percent of all evangelical missionaries on the field today. . . ."4 As these persons went abroad in fulfillment of their missionary ministries, they established Bible schools overseas to provide Bible education for the national Christians in the lands they served.

Since its inception in April 1914, the Assemblies of God has been dedicated to total world evangelization. Currently, through its Division of Foreign Missions, the fellowship sponsors 1,358 cross-cultural missionaries who work in 115 countries.⁵ The fellowship's mission strategy includes:

the widest possible evangelization of the spiritually lost through every available means, the establishment of indigenous churches after the New Testament pattern, the training of national believers to proclaim the gospel to their own people in an expanding mission to other peoples.⁶

Training national church workers and leaders is inherent in the denomina-

⁴Kenneth Gangel, "The Bible College: Past, Present, and Future," *Christianity Today*, November 7, 1980, p. 34.

⁵"1984 Foreign Missions Growth," *Advance*, July 1985, p. 20.

⁶D. F. M. Passport: The Missions Manual (Springfield, Missouri: Assemblies of God Division of Foreign Missions, n.d.), p. 1-4.

tion's mission philosophy. Melvin L. Hodges, Assemblies of God missions statesman, showed that to realize the denomination's goals a well-trained national ministry in each field of labor is essential.⁷ An indigenous church cannot be built without competent leaders to oversee the work. It is commonly believed that God calls those whom He chooses to this ministry and that the churches bear the responsibility to recognize and confirm God's call and to train those whom He calls. Training these to fulfill God's divine call on their lives is viewed as basic missionary work.

The major vehicle for the training of national ministers and Christian workers has been the Bible institute. Through its missionary ministry, the Assemblies of God operates 250 overseas Bible schools which had an enrollment of 30,796 students in 1984.⁸ While many other evangelical organizations also operate overseas Bible institutes, the Assemblies of God operates more than any other denomination or mission agency.⁹

The Assemblies of God operates twelve Bible institutes in the Philippines.¹⁰ Four of these schools are jointly owned and operated by the Philippines General Council of the Assemblies of God and the Division of Foreign Missions of the General Council of the Assemblies of God, U. S. A. Another four schools are owned and operated by district councils within the Philippines General Council. The remaining four schools are owned and

⁷Melvin L. Hodges, The Indigenous Church (Springfield, Missouri: Gospel Publishing House, 1953), p. 49ff.

⁸Appointed to Pray: 1985 Annual Report, Assemblies of God Division of Foreign Missions (Springfield, Missouri: Division of Foreign Missions, 1985), p. 3.

⁹Interview with J. Philip Hogan, Executive Director, Division of Foreign Missions, General Council of the Assemblies of God, Springfield, Missouri, 11 June, 1983.

¹⁰These schools are listed in Appendix A.

operated by individual churches, though they may enroll students from other churches also.

Need and Rationale

Bible institutes exist as academic institutions, and therefore the faculties of these schools are naturally required to perform, along with other role tasks, a variety of academic and teaching tasks. Most of these persons, however, have not had training to prepare them for their teaching tasks. Assemblies of God missionaries usually attended a Bible institute and served as local church pastors prior to receiving overseas appointment. Likewise, national faculty members generally are chosen from the ranks of successful national ministers. Sometimes national faculty members begin teaching duties immediately upon graduation from the institution where they will teach. While both missionaries and nationals have received training to prepare them to function in local church ministry, often neither of them has had opportunity to develop the teaching competencies needed to function as Bible institute faculty members. Joseph Gettys, in 1949, vividly showed that competencies needed for pastoral ministry differ from those competencies needed to train others to engage in ministry:

Think of the college teacher who is called out of a position as a pastor and thrust suddenly into the classroom. His sermon-building habits may have been satisfactory for the pulpit, but how this daily discipline of preparation for the classroom torments his soul! He grasps here, there, and yonder for available helps. Some may be good, others poor. Yet his teaching load requires him to be ready for his classes six days a week. He does the best he can but realizes that he is trying to do a job for which he has not had adequate preparation.¹¹

Ten years later, Hubert Reynhout, Jr., in discussing some of the weaknesses of Bible institutes on the mission field, wrote:

¹¹Joseph Gettys, How to Teach the Bible (Richmond, Virginia: John Knox Press, 1949), p. 44.

The lack of preparation for educational work on the part of teachers is another common weak point. The teachers are frequently quite well trained in Bible and theology, but very few are trained in education. Yet their job is an educational one. To know the subject is one part of teaching; to know the students, and to know how to teach effectively are other and just as valuable parts.¹²

Reynhout's statement focuses on one of the major tensions of higher education, including Bible institute education--the tension between what to teach and how to teach, between knowledge of subject content and teaching skills. Neeley D. McCarter aptly described the situation:

On numerous occasions I have witnessed a strange phenomenon. A group of professors from the same or several theological schools were engaged in a discussion. In a formal and informal fashion the conversation turned to the task of teaching. Suddenly one could feel the level of hostility rise. Voices become sharp and critical. In one such setting a professor exclaimed, "Why do we always talk about how to teach? Why don't we talk about the substance of our courses?" I had been a member of that faculty for some years and had never heard a good or even lengthy discussion of how we teach; I had heard many discussions of content.¹³

McCarter further stated:

There are no doubt reasons for faculty members to resist a discussion of teaching. Most of us were not trained to teach; we received our degrees in a discipline and probably never studied about or worked on the task of teaching as such.¹⁴

Reynhout hit the nail squarely when he stated, "teachers should be specialists trained for this ministry both in their subject matter and in education. . . ." ¹⁵ If faculty members are to become specialists or develop teaching competencies essential to the performance of their role tasks,

¹²Hubert Reynhout, Jr., The Bible School on the Mission Field (Barrington, Rhode Island: Barrington College, 1959), p. 13.

¹³Neeley D. McCarter, "Teaching in Theological Schools," in The Contours of Ministry and Professional Education: 1974 Report of the Thirteenth Biennial Meeting of the Association of Professional Education for Ministry, ed. LeRoy E. Kennel (n.p., n.d.), p. 55.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Reynhout, p. 18.

training programs which are specifically designed for this purpose are needed.

Statement of the Problem

Recruiting and maintaining competent faculty members for Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines has been a constant problem. Persons, whether missionaries or nationals, who have had opportunities to develop the essential competencies needed to perform their role tasks have been rare indeed.

Identifying the essential teaching competencies needed by faculty members was judged to be a logical beginning point in solving this dilemma. Then, meaningful faculty training programs that would help develop those competencies could be produced. Therefore, the purposes of this project were (1) to identify the essential teaching competencies needed by faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines, and (2) to prepare a program intended to enable a selected group of faculty members to develop or improve these essential competencies.

In considering this problem, several questions surfaced. What role tasks were being performed by faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines? Which of these role tasks related to the teaching function? What competencies were needed for faculty members to perform satisfactorily their teaching role tasks? How could those competencies best be developed?

This study had two potential applications: (1) in-service training for those presently serving as faculty members, and (2) pre-service training for those who would aspire to become faculty members. In this project, only the former was considered.

Definitions

In this study the following terms were used as follows:

Assemblies of God referred to that fellowship of evangelical and Pentecostal churches organizationally affiliated as the General Council of the Assemblies of God in the United States of America, Incorporated. The organization is headquartered at 1445 Boonville Avenue, Springfield, Missouri. There is no worldwide organization of the Assemblies of God. Fellowships in countries other than the United States have been organized and are autonomous bodies. Generally, these organizations are also called General Councils and bear the name of the country in which they exist, such as the Philippines General Council of the Assemblies of God. Fraternal ties exist between the General Council in the United States and those in other lands, particularly where these councils were begun by or are served by missionaries from the American body. In this study, the term may refer as indicated in different contexts to either the American fellowship, the fellowship in the Philippines, or that larger world-wide fellowship for which no juridical organization exists.

Bible institute referred to an undergraduate institution whose curriculum is organized around the Bible as the unifying factor and whose primary purpose is to prepare students for involvement in Christian ministries and/or church vocations. In this study, the term applies to all such schools, whether the program duration is two years, three years, or four years and without regard to whether the official names of the various institutions may be schools, institutes or colleges.

Essential teaching competencies was used to refer to the understanding, skill, ability, expertise, and craft necessary to teach effectively and efficiently and to carry out all expected role tasks. This is demonstrated

by designing, sequencing, administering, and evaluating meaningful learning experiences and by assisting in the learner's character development and spiritual formation through non-quantitative means.

Certain competencies are required to perform any task. To seek to help teachers develop or improve those competencies essential to the performance of their role tasks should not be viewed as an attempt to develop a sophisticated, "ivory towered," impractical, scholarly elite. It is facing the reality that teachers at all levels must perform certain tasks and, therefore, need to develop the expertise needed to perform those tasks well.

Likewise, improving teacher competencies does not of necessity produce cultural separation for the institution, its faculty, its students, or its graduates. Training teachers to perform their role tasks competently should not be construed as putting cultural distance between the teachers and other members of their culture or as advancing the teachers in social rank within that culture. Rather, it should be understood as equipping those teachers to perform effectively within their cultural milieu to the end that God is glorified and His Church is edified.

Faculty members referred to those persons who are members of the instructional personnel of a Bible institute, whether they are engaged full-time or part-time in this work.

Role tasks was used to indicate that which a person does in the fulfillment of his assignment or job. In this study, the term included all aspects of the duties performed by faculty members. Because teaching was viewed holistically, such matters as modeling a consistent Christian life, modeling an effective ministry in one's teaching discipline, and nurturing the spiritual growth of the learners, as well as usual matters such as teaching classes, serving on committees, and performing assigned duties are

to be understood when the term applies to Bible institute faculty members.

Delimitations

This study by definition was limited to a study of selected faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines. It was recognized that Bible institutes are but one approach to ministerial education. It was also acknowledged that the Bible institute concept was imported to the Philippines from the United States. The negative impact of that admission is buffered somewhat when one realizes that, at the point in history when this importation began, the Philippines was a protectorate of the United States. The commonwealth's form of government, including its constitution, was a duplicate of the American pattern. Likewise, its public education system was nearly an American carbon copy. With some of their countrymen calling for statehood, the Filipinos would have had it no other way.

While the Bible institute movement was imported in origins, one can hardly argue that the concept is not indigenous now. It has adapted to Filipino culture until it appears to be as much at home there now as is the papaya tree or the banana plant. Evidence of this is found in the number of Bible schools which exist in the Philippines and in the fact that these schools have felt the need to organize their own association, the Philippine Association of Bible and Theological Schools.

It was further acknowledged that the Bible institute is not always the most appropriate model of ministerial education. Yet these schools have been effective in some situations in the Philippines, and some believe they will have continued usefulness in the future. Dr. Stewart DeBoer, president of Asian Theological Seminary in Manila, stated, "A. T. S. believes that for many years to come the backbone of the urban and rural churches will be the

Bible schools."¹⁶ He further stated:

Personally I believe that it will be the Bible schools throughout the Philippines, who [sic] will be providing local leadership for years to come. It will be the graduates of Bible schools who minister in the barrio and give the impetus to church planting.¹⁷

The exploration of alternative models of ministerial education was beyond the scope of this project.

The cross-cultural nature of this study provided other delimiting factors. Cross-cultural education occurs when an educational planner designs an instructional program for persons whose cultural orientation is different from one's own and when a teacher and a group of learners have experienced different cultural backgrounds. Both were the case in this study. The researcher, an American, developed a training program for a selected group of Filipino faculty members, and he led a seminar learning experience for them. Insights from cultural anthropologists, cross-cultural communicators, missionaries and theologians concerned about contextualization of the gospel, and ethnopedagogues helped the researcher develop cross-cultural sensitivity and served to reduce cultural distance.

Assumptions

For the purposes of this study, it was assumed that faculty members of the schools concerned in the study had an acceptable knowledge of the content of the subjects they teach. That their understanding of the subject matter could be more fully developed and that their teaching would profit thereby was granted; yet, it was assumed that these teachers were at least

¹⁶Stewart DeBoer, "Practical Considerations of Higher Theological Education in the Philippines," paper presented to the Summit Consultation of the Philippines Council of Evangelical Churches, Inc., Angona, Rizal, Philippines, 1981. (Mimeographed.)

¹⁷Ibid.

minimally competent in knowledge of the disciplines they teach.

Another assumption was that Bible institute faculty members perform certain identifiable role tasks, including a host of academic and teaching tasks. It was believed that these role tasks could be identified by discovering what faculty members actually do. It was expected that these tasks could be grouped into categories of labor and organized into a typical role task profile.

To perform these teaching role tasks certain competencies were essential. It was assumed that these competencies could be identified and appropriate activities could be prescribed to enable faculty members to develop and/or improve in these competencies. That training programs could be prepared to help faculty members develop these essential teaching competencies was assumed.

Further, it was assumed that the data gathered in this study were honestly expressed by the respondents. This included expressions in the preliminary study, the faculty interviews, the faculty and student surveys, and the seminar participants' evaluations.

And finally, it was assumed that within the Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines there were sufficient interested and capable faculty members who were willing to participate in such a study that a valid and profitable study could result. It was expected that the training program in this project would help facilitate the development of these essential teaching competencies in a selected group of these faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines.

Organization of the Study

The remainder of this study was organized as follows:

Biblical and theological concepts which supported the existence of the Bible institute movement, the function of teaching, and the need to develop teaching competencies were presented in the second chapter.

In the third chapter a review of the selected educational literature was presented. Literature dealing with trends in faculty development, conceptual understandings of instructional design, and relational elements of teaching were considered. A part of the study of instructional design included an assessment of behaviorism.

The procedures used in this project were reported in the fourth chapter. The data collected in research were described and analyzed. Also, a task profile of what faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines do was developed in this chapter. Those tasks which were specifically related to teaching functions were identified. The tasks within the teaching functions with which faculty members seemed to need the most help were identified. An in-service faculty training program that would help faculty members develop their essential teaching competencies was proposed also.

Details concerning a field study with the proposed training program were reported in chapter five. Evaluations of progress made by those faculty members who participated in the training program were reported, as were evaluations of the training program itself.

In the sixth chapter a summary of the project was presented and appropriate conclusions were discussed. Recommendations for further study were presented also.

Seventeen appendixes involving 150 pages were included to document the study.

CHAPTER II

BIBLICAL AND THEOLOGICAL REFLECTIONS

The Bible institute movement grew from the practical need to train Christian workers. The first two Bible schools, the Missionary Training College for Home and Foreign Missionaries (now Nyack College) and Moody Bible Institute, were founded for this principle purpose. Similar schools established since then exist for this same purpose.

The existence and usefulness of the Bible institute movement as described in the previous chapter were assumed for this study. Therefore, biblical and theological concepts which would support the existence of the movement, the function of teaching, and the need to develop teaching competencies were explored. The purpose of this chapter was to report the findings of this research.

Doctrine of Revelation

Central to Christianity is the doctrine of revelation. The term "revelation" means the disclosure of what was previously unknown or hidden. In Christian theology, it refers to God's communications in which He manifests Himself and relevant information about Himself. Bernard Ramm stated: "Revelation is the autobiography of God, i.e., it is the story which God narrates about himself. It is that knowledge about God which is from God."¹

¹Bernard Ramm, Special Revelation and the Word of God (Grand Rapids, Michigan: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1961), p. 17.

The Scriptures portray God as the eternal, living, holy, self-existent One. Because of who He is and because of who man is, God is incomprehensible, or hidden, apart from His own acts of self-disclosure. Man could never discover or know God except for God's revelations of Himself to man. Because of His nature, God, through His acts, made known truth about Himself which otherwise could not have been known.

Theologians have found it helpful to discuss God's self-disclosure as (1) general, or natural, and (2) special. General revelation refers to that which can be known about God through nature (Psalms 19:1-6; Job 36:39; Acts 14:15-17), and through the moral law written into the conscience of man (Acts 17:24-31; Romans 2:14-15).² This revelation, while inadequate to result in salvation, is universally available to all men and is adequate to define some invisible qualities of God (Romans 1:18-21). Although general revelation is limited in scope, man's refusal to govern himself by it is a sufficiently serious infraction for him to be held accountable therefor.

Special revelation refers to that activity of God by which He discloses His redemptive nature and His plan of salvation for fallen man.

Carl Henry stated:

Special revelation is redemptive revelation. It publishes the good tidings that the holy and merciful God promises salvation as a divine gift to man who cannot save himself (OT) and that he has now fulfilled that promise in the gift of his Son in whom all men are called to believe (NT). The gospel is news that the incarnate Logos has borne the sins of doomed men, has died in their stead, and has risen for their justification. This is the fixed center of special redemptive revelation.³

²For helpful discussions of this see G. C. Berkouwer, General Revelation (Grand Rapids, Michigan: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1955); and Bruce A. Demarest, General Revelation: Historical Views and Contemporary Issues (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Zondervan Publishing House, 1982).

³Evangelical Dictionary of Theology, 1984 ed., s.v. "Revelation, Special," by Carl F. H. Henry.

While some information about God can be discovered through general revelation, information leading to salvation cannot be (Romans 1:18-32). Special revelation is needed for people to know how to enter into, enjoy and live in this marvelous plan. Much of special revelation was recorded in written form in the Scriptures. Evangelical Christians in particular place high priority on God's revealed Word as found in the Scriptures. Some theologians have opted to emphasize that God reveals Himself in the mighty acts that are recorded in the Bible, rather than in the very words of Scripture. Special revelation is understood best as coming in both deeds and words. Bernard Ramm stated, "Special revelation is longer and wider than Scripture, but Scripture is at the heart and soul of special revelation."⁴

To understand as fully as possible what can be known about God, people must diligently apply themselves to the examination and comprehension of both general and special revelation. Both are parts of God's total effort to make Himself known. Addressing this point, Henry further stated, "Despite the distinction of general and special revelation, God's revelation is nonetheless a unity, and it must not be artificially sundered."⁵ The fact that God has revealed Himself makes it imperative that people seeks to understand as fully as possible that which has been revealed.

A justification for the Bible institute movement can be found in the fact that these schools facilitate God's revelational purposes. Bible institutes provide an environment in which students can explore God's revelation. The Bible is central to the curriculum; other disciplines, which focus on what is revealed in general revelation, are approached from a

⁴Ramm, Special Revelation, p. 169.

⁵Henry, s. v. "Revelation, Special."

biblical point of view in an attitude of faith. Knowing God and understanding what He has revealed is a high priority for Bible institutes.

Biblical Tradition of Teaching

In both the Old and New Testaments, teaching is one of the ways used to propagate God's revelation. This tradition began early and continued throughout the biblical record. This important function occurred in a variety of situations and was adapted to meet the specific needs of the times. It was expressed in various delivery forms which were appropriate to the people available to be teachers and learners. This biblical tradition is a foundation on which teaching in the Bible institute movement rests.

Teaching in the Old Testament

Teaching and education were regarded seriously in Old Testament times. The Hebrews believed that "the fear of the LORD is the beginning of knowledge" (Proverbs 1:7; 9:10).⁶ The primary aim of Jewish education was to help the people know and serve God. William Kane stated: "The ideal of Hebrew education was to develop a human being who would be pleasing in the eyes of God, his creator."⁷ The Torah, God's revealed law, gave instructions in how to live and fulfill the divine mission. It embraced all aspects of life across the whole span of human life, and knowledge of the law was to enable them to be the kind of people who would please God. So teaching and learning the Torah was highly important for the Hebrews as they sought to live in right relationship with God. In the Old Testament teaching was

⁶Unless otherwise indicated, all Bible quotations and references in this study are from The New International Version of the Holy Bible (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Zondervan Bible Publishers, 1978).

⁷William T. Kane, History of Education, rev. John J. O'Brien (Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1954), p. 9.

conducted by parents in the context of the family unit, by the priests and Levites, by the prophets, and by the scribes in the synagogues.

Teaching by Parents

Education in ancient Israel was largely informal and was tied closely to the family unit which perhaps is understood best in the extended family model. Education of one's children, particularly in the religious traditions of Israel, was considered a religious duty (Genesis 18:19, Deuteronomy 11:18-21). Kane, in emphasizing that Hebrew education was a family concern, said:

Among the Hebrews the family rather than the community occupied first place in the hierarchy of educational agencies. It served as first and chief teacher. Father and mother were charged with the education of their children as a religious obligation as well as a natural one. This obligation was accepted and carried out rigorously. They taught the child its letters, and almost from infancy began its training in religious and moral truth. They too were to teach him his trade. Their authority was great, and children respected it. They were urged often not to spare the rod--the Hebrews being sound psychologists.⁸

During Moses' administration, the Deuteronomic Law requiring parents to instruct their children in the ways of God was commanded (Deuteronomy 6:4-7). Parents were to perpetuate the meanings of Israel's faith by recounting the events and interpretations of Israel's history (Deuteronomy 6:20-25).

Teaching by Priests and Levites

The family remained a major center of education in Hebrew society after the tribes settled in the land of Palestine. Yet the home was not the only place where education took place, nor were learning opportunities limited only to routine family experiences. After the religion of Israel was established at Sinai, two features which were educationally significant

⁸Ibid., p. 11.

were added to Jewish communal experience; one was the national festivals and the other was the priesthood and Levitical ministry. William Barclay maintained, "It can easily be seen that the Jewish Feasts and Festivals were in themselves unparalleled opportunities for instruction in history and in the generosity of God."⁹ He also stated:

There was an integral part of Jewish communal life which must have provided a very real vehicle of instruction. Such a vehicle must have been found in the three great national feasts and festivals--The Passover, Pentecost, and the Festival of Tabernacles. Jewish law laid it down that a father must explain the great festivals to his son.¹⁰

In making the same point C. B. Eavey claimed:

All the festivals and ceremonies were to be utilized as means for the instruction of children. The Law ordained a number of religious times: the weekly Sabbath, the Feast of Trumpets, the Feast of Tabernacles, the Passover, the Sabbatical Year, the Year of Jubilee, the Feast of Pentecost, and the Day of Atonement.¹¹

Such biblical passages as Exodus 13:8, Deuteronomy 4:9, and Deuteronomy 6:20 support their observations. The preparations for and celebration of these occasions would have created or enhanced the readiness to learn important lessons from them.

After the Sinai experience, educational responsibility was shared by various religious leaders including the priests and Levites. Moses wrote the law of God and delivered it to the priests with instructions that they were to read it and teach it to the people (Deuteronomy 31:9-13). Various duties of the priests were listed in Deuteronomy 33:8-10; teaching God's judgments and laws were specifically spelled out. Leon Wood, discussing

⁹William Barclay, Educational Ideals in the Ancient World (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Baker Book House, 1959), p. 22.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 19.

¹¹C. B. Eavey, History of Christian Education (Chicago: Moody Press, 1964), p. 53.²

the teaching ministry of the priests and Levites argued:

The priests and Levites were to serve as the teachers of the people. They were to instruct young and old in the Laws of God, revealed long before at Mt. Sinai. Sometimes the statement is made that the task of the priests--in distinction especially from the prophets--was to represent the people of God. The statement is true in part, for they did do this. Particularly during the weeks spent at the central sanctuary, they represented the people in making the prescribed sacrifices and offerings for them. However, it should be realized that in terms of time spent, they gave themselves even more to representing God to the people, in this activity of teaching.¹²

Eavey noted that the priest performed various duties some of which might not at first be considered of a teaching nature. He demonstrated that even these duties, such as officiating in the rituals and ceremonies of the Law, were a basis for teaching a proper attitude toward God and His worship. He showed that some of these feelings and attitudes were more vividly and powerfully taught indirectly than they could have been by words alone.¹³ The priests' manner of handling sacred things and their approach to God were observed and thereby were occasions to promote learning.

The theocratic form of government God instituted for Israel induced a great need for teaching. God had revealed His requirements in the Law and the people were expected to obey them. To obey God's laws, the people must be knowledgeable of them. This necessitated that teaching by those who knew God's requirements must be readily available to all of the people. The tribe of Levi was assigned this important teaching ministry. Upon occupation of the land, the priests and Levites were scattered throughout the tribes rather than receiving territory of their own. Wood made the case that this was to facilitate their teaching duties. By all Levites bearing this

¹²Leon Wood, Distressing Days of the Judges (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Academie Books, 1975), pp. 57-58.

¹³C. B. Eavey, History of Christian Education (Chicago: Moody Press, 1964), p. 55.

responsibility and with them scattered throughout the tribes, ample opportunity was available for all Israelites to learn what God expected of them.¹⁴

Teaching by the Prophets

Another significant group of people who participated in Israel's teaching function were the prophets. Concerning the teaching role of the prophets, Fletcher Swift said:

It may be seriously doubted whether any nation has ever produced a group of religious and moral teachers comparable to the prophets of ancient Israel. Through their spoken public addresses and writings they became creators of national religious and social ideals, critics, and inspirers of public policies, denunciators of social wrongs, preachers of individual and social righteousness, and the source and channel of an ever loftier conception of Yahweh and of the mission of Israel. In fulfilling each of these capacities they were acting as public teachers. In every national crisis they were at hand to denounce, to encourage, to comfort and always to instruct. They were the public conscience of Israel, the soul of its religion, the creators of public opinion, its most conspicuous, its most revered, its most convincing teachers.¹⁵

Kane added support to the case that Israel's prophets served a teaching function. He wrote:

But after the national settlement in Canaan, during the period of tribal rulers and still more during the centuries of the kingdoms, there arose among the Hebrews men of striking personality and great gifts, whom they called prophets. These, claiming an inspiration from God, went about instructing the people. For the most part, they were not in a position of authority; their work was strictly educational, addressed to the minds and hearts of their hearers. Many of them left their teachings in writing. They had a great influence upon the Hebrew people, and more than once, by their teaching, brought about an impressive renaissance of national and religious life.¹⁶

In the strictest sense, the prophets were God's spokesmen, men who

¹⁴Wood, Distressing Days, p. 58.

¹⁵Fletcher H. Swift, Education in Ancient Israel: From Earliest Times to 70 A. D. (Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company, 1919), p.38.

¹⁶Kane, History of Education, p. 12.

spoke for God. They served because they were specifically called to this ministry; this is in contrast to the priests and Levites who entered divine service because the whole tribe was called. Not only was their call of divine origin, but their message was from God too. In describing the nature of the prophetic office, Gleason Archer stated:

In the earliest period the prophetic function was assigned to the Levitical priests, who were charged with the responsibility of teaching the implications of the Mosaic Law for daily conduct in the practical issues of life. But even the Torah envisioned the possibility of a special class of prophets distinct from the priests. . . . As the priesthood became increasingly professionalistic in attitude and lax in practice, a new teaching order arose to maintain the integrity of the covenant relationship in the heart of Israel. Some of these prophets came from the priestly tribe of Levi, such as Jeremiah and Ezekiel, but the majority came from the other tribes.¹⁷

It seems probable that the prophets formed associations, bands, brotherhoods, or companies, perhaps on the order of professional guilds. Scripture mentions, particularly in connection with the ministries of Samuel, Elijah, and Elisha, the existence of such companies at Ramah (1 Samuel 19:19-20), Jericho (2 Kings 2:5), Gilgal (2 Kings 4:38), and elsewhere (2 Kings 6:1). These bands sometimes have been called "schools of the prophets." Scholars, however, are uncertain if these should be understood as institutions which prepared people for prophetic ministry. Those who were part of these bands were called "sons of the prophets." This statement in the Hebrew is a plural construct relationship suggesting possession or close relationship, as sons belonging to the prophets. Since the Hebrew word "son" connoted several meanings, it was difficult to determine precisely what meaning should be understood here. Since Hebrew teachers referred to their pupils as their sons, the possibility may exist that these bands

¹⁷Gleason L. Archer, A Survey of Old Testament Introduction (Chicago: Moody Press, 1964), p. 285.

indeed were institutions organized for the training of those aspiring to prophetic ministry. Biblical information which may be understood as supporting this point of view is found in the fact that they shared a common table (2 Kings 4:38ff) and built community buildings (2 Kings 6:1ff). It may be that they represented a type of mentor-disciple relationship. James Newsome supported this viewpoint and wrote:

The evidence within the Old Testament points to the prophetic guilds as being frequently organized around some central figure who served as both spiritual mentor to his followers and as the arbiter of custom and discipline.¹⁸

Edward J. Young further supported this same notion. He stated:

It would seem, however, as though the word "son" is not intended to express actual sonship, but rather a close connection such as might be termed discipleship. The prophets were sons in the sense that they stood in a close and intimate relationship to the great master prophets, Elijah and Elisha.¹⁹

The biblical narrative portrays the "sons" as seeking the approval of their leaders before doing things (2 Kings 2:16-18, 2 Kings 6:1ff) and as obeying the commands of their leaders (2 Kings 4:38ff). These may further support the mentor-disciple relationship idea.

Regardless of what the "schools of the prophets" may have been, it seems highly probable that some exchange of information was shared by the participants. In any case, there is evidence that the prophets participated in the teaching function of the Old Testament.

Teaching by the Scribes

Another group of men who participated in the function of teaching in

¹⁸James D. Newsome, Jr., The Hebrew Prophets (Atlanta: John Knox Press, 1984), p. 5.

¹⁹Edward J. Young, My Servants the Prophets (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Co., 1955), p. 93.

Israel were the scribes. These men were learned in Jewish law and traditions. They appear to have developed into thorough scholars who explored various possible meanings of the texts and considered different applications of revealed divine truth. They wrote extensively and produced a tremendous body of literature. Their appearance paralleled the beginning of the synagogue. In describing the interface of these two, Barclay expressed:

The Synagogue was the centre in which the Law was explained, expounded and applied. In that sense the Synagogue was the centre of public Jewish education. It is here that the Scribe enters the scene. If the Law had to be taught, and explained, and appointed, there must be men who dedicated themselves to that task, men whose life work it was to know and to interpret the Law, and to state its claims authoritatively; and the Scribes were these men.²⁰

The primary purpose of the synagogue was instruction in the laws of God. The Scriptures were read and expounded.²¹ As time moved on, the idea that the synagogue was a center of religious instruction became commonly accepted. The teaching function of the synagogue became more highly developed and professional with the passing of time. The teaching function was so closely associated with the synagogue that Charles Guignebert described it as "a sort of popular religious university;"²² and Eavey argued that the Jewish elementary school developed in the synagogue.²³

The scribes were the teachers of the synagogues. Eavey explained:

The scribes became the learned and legal class and as such the leaders among them were teachers of the Law. They were trained in and obedient to the Law. Such obedience implied total consecration to God, with the

²⁰Barclay, Educational Ideals, p. 25.

²¹Alfred Edersheim, The Life and Times of Jesus the Messiah (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1886), pp. 431-32.

²²Charles Guignebert, The Jewish World in the Time of Jesus (New Hyde Park, New York: University Books, 1959), p. 75.

²³Eavey, History of Christian Education, p. 64.

forsaking of all duties and activities not related to the worship and service of God. In addition to teaching the Law, the scribes interpreted its meaning.

The scribes regarded their work as holy, for to them had been entrusted the sacred task of transmitting the laws of God Himself had given. Schools of the scribes were centers of disputation where difficult matters were settled. These came to be known by the time of Christ as the "rabbinical schools"; They gradually gained complete control over religious thought and education. The heads of these schools were first called "rabbis" about the time of Christ. In the centuries immediately preceding the birth of Christ, the growing influence of these rabbinical schools weakened that of the priesthood more and more. During the first century of the Christian era, the teaching scribes, or rabbis, finally superseded the priesthood. In their schools all learning was concentrated, but the priesthood and the higher laity benefited from instruction given in them.²⁴

The scribes and the synagogues contributed significantly to the biblical teaching function.

This brief study of teaching in the Old Testament it has been shown that the teaching function was practiced in the Old Testament, and that it was expressed in a variety of ways and delivery forms. The purpose of the teaching function always was to help the learners know God and His law so they might live in conformity to His will.

Teaching in the New Testament

The teaching function that was observed in the Old Testament continued in New Testament times. In the New Testament, this teaching function is expressed in a variety of forms too. While the synagogue and some of the forms from the Old Testament continued into New Testament times, new adaptations to the teaching function were observed too. In the New Testament, Jesus taught and he commanded others to teach (Matthew 5:2ff; 28:19). The apostles taught (Acts 2:42). Early church leaders engaged in the teaching ministry (Acts 5:42; 15:35; 18:11; 28:31). Paul taught and

²⁴Ibid., p. 65.

instructed Timothy to teach (2 Timothy 2:2). God gave teaching gifts to some individuals and gave teachers to the Church (Romans 12:6-7; 1 Corinthians 12:28; Ephesians 4:11).

Teaching by Jesus

Evidence showing that Jesus participated in the biblical teaching function was overwhelmingly convincing. Jesus was called by teaching titles, "master" and "rabbi", and he accepted, even welcomed, these titles and regarded himself as a teacher (John 13:13). He is depicted in the Gospels in the act of teaching. He taught the multitudes (Mark 2:13; Mark 6:34). Jesus taught in the synagogues (Mark 1:21; Luke 4:15-22). In common with other teachers of his time, Jesus had a group of disciples who considered him to be their teacher (Matthew 5:1-2). Jesus was recognized widely by his contemporaries--friends, enemies, and the general population--as a teacher (Mark 4:38; Luke 21:7; Matthew 26:25; John 3:2; Matthew 19:16; Mark 12:14; Matthew 22: 24; 36; Mark 9:17; Mark 12:32; Luke 12:13; Luke 19:39; Mark 12:32).

Jesus never gave a discourse on pedagogy, yet he was an authority on the subject. He has been recognized as the "Master Teacher," teacher par excellence, one who had developed well his teaching competencies.

A study of these accounts in the Gospels where Jesus taught seemed to show that Jesus understood certain teaching-learning processes which are recognized yet today. J. M. Price said that ". . . he had such a grasp of teaching as to be thoroughly at home at the task."²⁵ Price argued that Jesus thoroughly grasped and effectively used the essential elements of

²⁵J. M. Price, Jesus the Teacher (Nashville, Tennessee: Convention Press, 1946), p. 13.

psychological principles of learning, educational theory, and pedagogical practice. He reasoned that careful study and painstaking practice are necessary to become effective teachers, and that the Christian teacher would learn much about effective teaching by studying the example of Jesus.

Jesus approached the teaching task from a learner-centered posture. He taught in keeping with what is known about how people learn. He did not seek to force learning, but to structure situations that led the learners to discover or experience truth for themselves. His statements and actions often were invitations to them to think, to wonder, to ask, to learn. Their growth, development, and learning were uppermost in his desires.

Jesus' practice showed that he considered that the tasks of the teacher were to make truth available, to motivate learning, and to role model what was being taught. In making truth available, Jesus taught as one with unusual authority which resulted in the amazement of those who heard him (Mark 1:22; Matthew 7:28-29). He motivated learning both by intrinsic and extrinsic sources. He appealed to such intrinsic motives as obedience and love (John 4:34; John 14:15), and he appealed to extrinsic motives such as benefits and rewards (Matthew 6:33; Revelation 22:12). Jesus also appealed to conscience as a motivator (Matthew 23:23; Luke 18:1). His life was an open book giving full expression to what he sought to instill in others (John 14:6). No more fitting role model could be found.

Jesus' teaching practices made it appear that he understood that teaching leads to change. He sometimes taught to change knowledge and understanding (Mark 7:9-16); sometimes to change attitudes and values (Matthew 12:1-12; 18: 1-14); and sometimes to change behavior, actions or skills (Luke 11: 1-13). His teaching also appeared to reflect that he understood that within these domains there are levels at which changes occur.

Jesus based his teaching on sound principles of teaching and learning. His teaching reflects an understanding of human learning and it reflects an understanding of how to plan instruction in light of the way humans learn. By using challenging statements, parables, questions, visual images, and attention-getting terms, Jesus demonstrated an understanding of the importance of the learners' interest. Very little can be taught without securing and holding the learners' attention.²⁶ He knew the value of beginning where the learner was. In the Sermon on the Mount, Jesus followed a pattern--"You have heard it said . . . But I tell you . . ." His teaching moved from the known to the unknown (Luke 10:25-37; John 4:6-25). Many of Jesus' parables and illustrations show that He taught abstract truth by concrete examples (Matthew 5:13-16, 23, 29, 30, 38-42). Jesus made use of repetition. John A. Marquis wrote, "Our Lord often discussed a subject twice. The most casual reader of the Gospels cannot fail to see that he repeats himself."²⁷ Sometimes Jesus would introduce a subject in sketchy form, then later return to it and expand it further.²⁸ Jesus knew that

²⁶Herman Harnell Horne devoted the third chapter of his book to how Jesus secured attention. Herman Harnell Horne, Jesus: The Master Teacher, reprint ed. (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Kregel Publications, 1964).

²⁷John A. Marquis, Learning to Teach from the Master Teacher (Philadelphia: The Westminster Press, 1913), p 31.

²⁸Several writers developed this idea more fully. Valerie Wilson wrote: "In the beginning he instructed individuals. During the middle period He addressed the crowds. In the end he again worked with individuals, specifically giving intensive training to the twelve." Werner G. Graendorf, ed., Introduction to Biblical Christian Education (Chicago: Moody Press, 1981), chapter 4: Christ the Master Teacher, by Valerie A. Wilson. E. Griffith-Jones argued that there were marked stages of development in the teaching of Jesus. He explained that in the early period of Jesus ministry he laid a foundation for the superstructure he would build later; in the second stage Jesus moved into the vital and productive phase of his ministry; and in the third stage Jesus teaching became more differentiated in tone and method. He drew closer to them relationally; yet he attempted to prepare them for the tragedy that awaited him and them. E. Griffith-Jones,

repetition reinforces learning and that it is important to skillful teaching. Jesus knew the value of learning by doing, that a learner must think and act for himself. He knew that the activity of the learner, rather than that of the teacher, produces learning. Terms such as "go," "follow," "do," punctuated his lessons. After giving some preliminary instructions, he sent out the Twelve (Mark 6:7-13) and the seventy (Luke 10:1-16) to try for themselves. Jesus also knew the importance of readiness to learning. He knew that some lessons could not be learned until after essential prerequisite lessons were learned. He recognized that until a certain level of development occurred other learning could not be achieved (John 16:12). The design of Jesus' instruction reflects his knowledge of educational principles.

The teaching of Jesus showed clear purpose and objectives as well as procedures which were intended to achieve those goals. Several writers gave attention to this matter. Each of them developed their own explanation of the objectives of his teaching, but they generally agreed that his major objectives were spiritual in nature. He sought to reveal God, to communicate a new life and relationship to God (John 10:10b). That Jesus ever had his objectives clearly before him is seen in his prayer in John 17. Parts of this prayer seem like a reporting to the Father concerning the achievement of his objectives. It is as if Jesus is saying, "this was our goal and here is what I did about it." In his teaching, Jesus seemed to have his

The Master and His Method (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1902). Donald Burdick noted a similar pattern to the teaching ministry of Jesus. He wrote: "Viewing His ministry as a whole, we can see that He developed His teaching in a progressive manner. First, we note the general proclamation of the gospel in terms similar to John the Baptist (Mk. 1: 14, 15). Then, there follows a progressive development of the concept of the kingdom. We can trace a gradual revelation of His deity. In due time He began to teach His disciples concerning His death (Mt. 16:21 ff.; 17:22 ff; 20:17-19). Finally, He comes to eschatology (Mt. 24, 25)." Donald Burdick, "Beginnings of the Gospel" (Class syllabus, Denver Conservative Baptist Seminary, 1966), p. 53.

objectives clearly before him, and he designed his instruction accordingly.

Jesus skillfully used a variety of teaching methods. He lectured, told stories, asked questions, led discussions, and used visual aids. Several writers explored Jesus' use of various teaching methods and all found him to be most adept at this.²⁹

Jesus' teaching also showed that he understood how to relate to different audiences. Whether teaching individuals, such as Nicodemus (John 3:1-21) or the Samaritan woman (John 4:1-26); small groups, such as the Twelve (Mark 3:13-14) or the Seventy (Luke 10:1-24); or the multitudes, such as the five thousand (Mark 6:32-44); he always kept in focus the value of individuals and sought to meet their needs. His teaching involved a variety of human relations situations, and he used these situations to teach by example as well as by word. The relatively small group setting of Bible institute teaching affords many opportunities to teach by example and to develop mentor-disciple relationships.

The teaching of Jesus showed that he engaged in the teaching function and that he mastered the teaching competencies needed to teach effectively. Although done centuries ago, Jesus' teaching reflects professional competence when measured by what is now known about teaching today.

²⁹Among the writers who wrote concerning this are J. M. Price, Jesus The Teacher (Nashville, Tennessee: Convention Press, 1946). Herman Harnell Horne, Jesus--The Master Teacher, reprint ed., (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Kregel Publications, 1964). Claude C. Jones, The Teaching Methods of the Master (St. Louis, Missouri: The Bethany Press, 1957). E. Griffith-Jones, The Master and His Method (London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1902). John A. Marquis, Learning to Teach from the Master Teacher (Philadelphia: The Westminster Press, 1913). Clifford A. Wilson, Jesus the Master Teacher (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Baker Book House, 1974). Charles Francis McCoy, The Art of Jesus as a Teacher (Philadelphia: The Judson Press, 1930). Walter A. Squires, The Pedagogy of Jesus in the Twilight of Today (New York: George H. Doran Co., 1927). Norman E. Richardson, The Christ of the Classroom (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931).

Teaching by Paul

The Apostle Paul also participated in teaching God's revelation. Paul viewed himself as a teacher (Colossians 1:28; 1 Timothy 2:7; 2 Timothy 1:11). The book of Acts gives vignettes of Paul engaged in teaching. One of these was at Corinth where he spent one year and a half teaching the people the word of God (Acts 18:11). Throughout the missionary journeys described in Acts, Paul's custom was to go first to the local synagogue. In several locations, on the Sabbath he was invited to minister. Paul's ministry in these situations is described in various ways such as speaking, proclaiming the Word of God, reasoning, and arguing. Based on what is known concerning the purpose and function of the synagogue, there is good reason to understand this ministry as teaching. He remained at Ephesus for a period of about two years during which time he led daily discussions in the lecture hall of Tyrannus (Acts 19:9). Little information is known about this particular situation, but it does seem clear that Paul taught there. The narrative of Acts shows Paul teaching in several different settings and before a variety of audiences.

The New Testament materials also reveal that Paul surrounded himself with a group of ministry associates, at least some of whom were surely joined to him in a master-disciple relationship. They were attached to him, and he groomed them for ministry. Timothy was a prime example of one of the disciples of Paul. The fact that Paul had his own disciples demonstrated that he participated in the teaching function and that he was perceived in his own time in that light.

Further demonstrations of Paul's participation in the biblical teaching function are seen in the fact that he taught his disciples concerning the importance of the teaching ministry, and he urged them to engage in

this ministry (1 Timothy 4:11; 1 Timothy 6:2; 2 Timothy 2:2). He believed that all Christians were to engage in teaching. Ralph Covell and C. Peter Wagner, in addressing the concerns of extension seminary education, wrote:

Not only did Paul believe that he and his fellow-workers had been called to teach, he also saw teaching as a responsibility of all Christians. He exhorted the Colossian Christian to "Let the word of Christ dwell in you richly as you teach and admonish one another in all wisdom . . .," (Colossians 3:16). Here again we see that those gifts of the Holy Spirit given to the leadership level of the church for ministry are shared in some measure by all Christians. A truth often neglected in the body of Christ is that every believer should teach God's Word to all members of the Christian family.³⁰

A combination of background, education, and supernatural enablements of the Holy Spirit served to give Paul opportunities to develop the essential teaching competencies needed to teach effectively.

Paul's birth facilitated his teaching competencies. He was born into a Jewish home (Acts 21:39; 22:3; Romans 11:1; Philippians 3:5). Jewish homes were centers of religion and education in which fathers taught God's law to their sons. As a boy, no doubt, he watched his father prepare for and lead various Jewish home celebrations such as the Passover. He surely was taken to the synagogue regularly as he grew toward manhood. Paul's father was a member of the Pharisees, the strictest sect of Judaism, and he trained his son in the same tradition (Acts 23:6). In discussing the significance of Paul's domestic influences, Howard Tillman Kuist wrote:

One impression that certainly projected itself into Saul's pedagogical sense was the supreme importance of the home as an educational institution. The personality of his parents and the atmosphere of his home were among the most potent educative factors in his early life. Long after he had left his home the fundamental principles of domestic education remained stamped in his consciousness.³¹

³⁰Ralph R. Covell and C. Peter Wagner, An Extension Seminary Primer (South Pasadena, California: William Carey Library, 1971), p. 44.

³¹Howard Tillman Kuist, The Pedagogy of St. Paul (New York: George H. Doran Company, 1925), p. 31.

So much of what Judaism stood for went into the fabric of Paul's thinking. Many of his notions about God, man, history, life, and religion were shaped by his Jewish roots. He was formed so much by Jewish thought that to his dying day he never lost his Jewish way of thinking, a heritage of his birth.

While a Jew in every regard, Paul was marked by Hellenistic influences. Dispersion Jews were affected by cultural influences that Jews in Palestine did not experience or at least were not as strong. By living in cities where Greek culture was strong, these Jews, to varying degrees, were impacted by other cultural norms and adopted some of the practices and mind set. Paul was such a Diaspora Jew. Tarsus in Cilicia, his hometown (Acts 21:39), was cosmopolitan, thereby providing many opportunities for a young man growing up there to be exposed to cultural influences other than his own. Speaking to this point, John Pollock stated:

Tarsus was a fusion of civilization at peace under the rule of Rome: indigenous Cilicians, and Hittites whose ancestors once ruled Asia Minor; light-skinned Greeks, Assyrians and Persians; and Macedonians who had come with Alexander the Great on his march to India.³²

Addressing a similar point, Robert Picirilli explained:

So Tarsus was a city of recognized significance. One does not have to be very imaginative to sense the kind of awareness Paul would have had if he spent the first years in his life there. He would have become familiar with the sea and with the ships that unloaded cargo at the docks of Tarsus from all over the Mediterranean. He would have heard the strange native tongues of the ships' crews and conversed with them in Greek, the most common language of the empire. He would have observed many travelers from Rome; Tarsus was a favorite vacation spot for highborn Romans. Many people mixed in Tarsus, and Paul could not have avoided being exposed to them and their ways. He would have obtained considerable understanding of the shape and culture of the Roman world and of the heterogeneous peoples that populated it.³³

³²John Pollock, The Apostle (Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1969), p. 4.

³³Robert E. Picirilli, Paul the Apostle (Chicago: Moody Press, 1986), p. 4.

Paul appeared to be proud of his heritage from Tarsus and assumed that those who heard him speak concerning it would understand that pride as justifiable (Acts 21:39). Apparently, Tarsus was recognized in that day as an outstanding place to call home. That Paul was Hellenistic and that he bore the marks of the city's influence hardly could be denied.

Paul's educational background also contributed to his competence for ministry. Being a Jew at that time implied certain educational factors.

Kuist, addressing Paul's scholastic influences, said:

What a rich and varied influence the Hebrew school system exerted upon the sons of Israel! In the first century a mental atmosphere had been created which brought it to full bloom. "Education: catholic, compulsory, and gratuitous: was the cry of the day. "Strenuously and indefatigably, the Pharisees advocated education; and by their unceasing efforts, hundreds of synagogues, colleges and schools arose, not only in Judea but throughout the Roman Empire." The ignorant were left without excuse. He who could not read was no true Jew! The Hebrew Scriptures had become a spelling-book; every Jewish community supported a school; religion itself was considered a matter of teaching and learning.³⁴

It seemed most probable that Paul's parents took his early education seriously. He most surely frequented the synagogue and may have attended the existing schools too. Pollock, expressing this conviction, wrote:

The school attached to the Tarsus synagogue taught nothing but the Hebrew text of the Sacred Law. Each boy repeated its phrases in chorus after the hazzan or synagogue keeper until vowels, accent and rhythm were precisely correct. Paul learned to write the Hebrew characters accurately on papyrus, thus gradually forming his own rolls of the Scriptures. His father would have presented him with another set of rolls, on vellum: The Greek translation of the Old Testament known as the Septuagint, from which the set readings were taken in synagogue each Sabbath. By his thirteenth birthday Paul had mastered Jewish history, the poetry of the psalms and the majestic literature of the prophets. His ear had been trained to the very pitch of accuracy and a swift brain like his could retain what he heard as instantly and faithfully as a modern "photographic mind" retains a printed page.³⁵

Paul knew the Old Testament Scriptures exceptionally well. Following the

³⁴Kuist, The Pedagogy of St. Paul, 34.

³⁵Pollock, The Apostle, 6.

pattern of his day, his training in them began quite young.

A university of some distinction existed at Tarsus. F. F. Bruce described this university as offering "philosophy, the liberal arts, and 'the whole round of learning in general'--the whole 'encyclopaedia;'"³⁶ and he stated that the education available there was superior to that available at Athens and Alexandria. Whether Paul attended this university is unknown. Some scholars believe that he did, others believe that he did not. Pollock, for example, doubted that a strict Pharisee would have exposed his son to such pagan moral philosophy.³⁷ Paul's knowledge of Greek language, culture, and thought show that he understood the Greek mind; enrollment at the university would certainly explain how this knowledge may have been obtained.

Paul claimed to have been thoroughly trained in the law under Gamaliel. To have been trained at the feet of Gamaliel represented the best educational qualifications available in that day. F. F. Bruce wrote:

There was present at this meeting of the Sanhedrin a Pharisaic leader of quite exceptional eminence, Rabban Gamaliel the Elder, the greatest teacher of the day. He was a disciple of the gentle Hillel, and was now leader of the school of Hillel. He himself has many illustrious disciples, among them Saul of Tarsus. His prestige was such that in later days it could be said, "Since Rabban Gamaliel the Elder died there has been no more reverence for the Law, and purity and abstinence died out at the same time" (Mishnah, Sota ix. 15).³⁸

Other scholars spoke of Gamaliel in equally glowing terms; there can be no question that to study under this man was education at its highest. Paul referred to himself as a Pharisee (Acts 22:3; 23:6; Philippians 3:5), the strictest sect of Judaism concerning the Law. By identifying himself with

³⁶F. F. Bruce, Paul: Apostle of the Heart Set Free (Grand Rapids, Michigan: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1977), p. 35.

³⁷Pollock, The Apostle, 6.

³⁸F. F. Bruce, Commentary on the Book of The Acts (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1956), p. 124.

this sect, he was calling attention to his educational achievements. He knew the Old Testament Scriptures in detail.

Paul apparently spoke and/or read three languages, Greek, Aramaic, and Hebrew. Greek was the lingua franca of Tarsus. Paul spoke the language to the officer who came to arrest him (Acts 21:37) and wrote the various New Testament epistles in the language. It is understood that this was Koine Greek. He spoke Aramaic in Acts 22:1; this was the language commonly used in Palestine after the Exile. It would be unimaginable that anyone could have studied under Gamaliel, without speaking, reading and writing Hebrew, the language of the Jews prior to the Exile. The Scriptures existed in Hebrew, although the Septuagint was in existence in Paul's time too. The ability to speak, read, and write in three languages represents no small educational achievement in any time.

Paul made it very clear that his background and educational achievements of themselves did not account for his success in ministry (1 Corinthians 2:1-5). He believed that spiritual truth was taught by the Spirit by spiritual means (1 Corinthians 2:10-12). Paul put no premium on ignorance, but neither did he rely on his personal strengths, his ethnic connections, nor his education to substitute for the power of the Holy Spirit. He believed that there was a power to the message he preached (1 Corinthians 1:18-25). That power had conquered him, and it would others too. After Paul's dramatic conversion while enroute to Damascus and the subsequent events (Acts 9:10-18), who could doubt that God had specifically selected Paul for ministry and that being filled with the Holy Spirit gave him the power for effective service? He maintained that the gospel he preached came by revelation of Jesus Christ and cited his conversion experience as the basis of that revelation (Galatians 1:11-24). Other experiences gave him

continuing reassurance of the supernatural character of his new life and ministry (Acts 16:6-10; 18:9; 22:17-21). He viewed Christian ministry as a trust from God (1 Corinthians 4:1-2) and considered that the power for effective ministry rested in divine sources (2 Corinthians 10:3-5).

While Paul made it clear that his ministry was based on supernatural power, he never renounced the contribution of his background or his educational achievements. He made use of both in his ministry, and both contributed greatly to Paul's competency for ministry. Alone, however, they were not sufficient. The divine enablements of the Holy Spirit were needed too. This study of teaching by Paul has shown that he engaged in the biblical teaching function, and that this function was exercised in a variety of situations and made use of a number of delivery forms. It was the combination of background, education, and supernatural enablement that afforded Paul the opportunity to develop the essential teaching competencies needed to teach effectively.

Holy Spirit in Teaching

The Bible presents the Holy Spirit as an active participant in the teaching function. His involvement in the process does not preclude skills or the teachers' need to develop essential teaching competencies.

Roy B. Zuck identified four false views regarding the relationship of the Holy Spirit to human teachers.³⁸ Those holding the first of the views believe that the Holy Spirit excludes human teachers. They maintain that the Holy Spirit directly illuminates the learner. The Holy Spirit alone is the teacher; therefore human teachers are unnecessary. Human

³⁸Roy B. Zuck, The Holy Spirit in Your Teaching (Wheaton, Illinois: Scripture Press Publications, Inc., 1963), pp. 53-59.

teachers are seen as obstructions to the work of the Holy Spirit; so one should not study, go to school, or sit under human teachers.

Supporters of another view hold that the Holy Spirit substitutes for human effort. They believe that human teachers are needed, but the results come from the Holy Spirit. Preparation, study, and human effort are not needed because the results of teaching come from the Holy Spirit. Supporters of this viewpoint believe that, because the Bible was inspired by the Holy Spirit, preparation to teach its truths is unnecessary.

Those advocating the third false view hold that the Holy Spirit adds a spiritual "footnote." They believe that Christian teaching is no different than secular teaching except for asking God to bless the effort. The teacher imparts what he can; the Holy Spirit takes over where the teacher leaves off and adds His contribution. The Holy Spirit's work is like adding a post-script, an appendix, a halo.

Those holding the final of these false viewpoints see the Holy Spirit as totally unnecessary. This is opposite of views discussed earlier. The importance of educational theory and processes are recognized, but the essential supernatural contribution of the Holy Spirit is overlooked.

Zuck was right in concluding that these are false views. None of them is completely accurate and/or adequate. It has been shown earlier in this chapter that in biblical times God used human teachers. In the Scriptures a pattern of human effort coupled with divine enablement to produce results in ministry can be shown (1 Corinthians 3:6). The Holy Spirit is active in the teaching-learning process by working within both the teacher and the learner. He does not cease His teaching when the class ends. He prepares the teacher and the learner for the teaching-learning encounter, and He continues afterward to reinforce the lesson.

While these views presented by Zuck are false and cannot be upheld, it is affirmed in the Bible that the Holy Spirit was an active participant in the biblical teaching function. Several titles used in Scripture for the Holy Spirit indicate His participation. He was called the Spirit of wisdom and of understanding, the Spirit of counsel and power, the Spirit of knowledge and of the fear of the Yahweh (Isaiah 11:2). He was called the Spirit of truth (John 14:17; 15:26; 16:13), and the Spirit of wisdom and revelation (Ephesians 1:17). Zuck analyzed these and other titles of the Holy Spirit and concluded:

As a Teacher, He makes others wise; gives understanding, counsel, strength, knowledge, and the fear of the Lord; imparts and appropriates truth; helps in every learning situation; provides for spiritual wisdom; and discloses knowledge regarding God.³⁹

Concerning the work of the Holy Spirit, John characterized Him as a teacher, reminder, guide, and revealer (John 14:26; 16:12; 16:15). Paul portrayed Him as the revealer of the deep things of God and as the teacher of spiritual truth (1 Corinthians 2:10-16). It is shown in Paul's prayers that he understood that the Holy Spirit enables men to know God better and to be the enlightener of the heart's eyes (Ephesians 1:17).

The Word of God was written by the inspiration of the Holy Spirit (2 Peter 1:20-21; 2 Timothy 3:15-16). The doctrine of "inspiration" affirms that God is the author of the Scriptures and that God caused divinely chosen human writers to write what He wanted written. B. B. Warfield stated:

The Biblical books are called inspired as the Divinely determined products of inspired men; The Biblical writers are called inspired as breathed into by the Holy Spirit, so that the product of their activities transcends human powers and becomes Divinely authoritative. Inspiration is, therefore, usually defined as a supernatural influence exerted on the sacred writings by the Spirit of God, by virtue of which

³⁹Ibid., p. 24.

their writings are given Divine trustworthiness.⁴⁰

The Holy Spirit also gives enlightenment to make the truth of God's revealed Word understandable to man (Ephesians 1:18; 3:9). Theologians refer to this as "illumination." C. C. Ryrie explained:

Specifically, the doctrine of illumination related to that ministry of the Holy Spirit that helps the believer understand the truth of Scripture. In relation to the Bible, the doctrine of revelation relates to the unveiling of truth in the material of the Scriptures; inspiration concerns the method by which the Holy Spirit superintended the writing of Scripture; and illumination refers to the ministry of the Spirit by which the meaning of Scripture is made clear to the believer.⁴¹

The doctrine of illumination can be applied to both the teacher and the learner. As the teacher prepares to teach the lesson, the truth is made understandable by the Spirit's work. On the other hand, the same work takes place in the learner. When the teacher and the learners come together in the class setting, the Holy Spirit is present as the dynamic factor, illuminating the truth to both. In the teaching-learning encounter, the Holy Spirit facilitates the communication process by empowering the teacher and by giving the learners the ability to "hear and perceive." The probing work of the Holy Spirit applies the truth of God's Word to the lives of both. In doing so, He calls attention to those aspects and areas that yet do not conform to God's revealed will.

According to the Scriptures, the Holy Spirit gave teaching gifts to some individuals (Romans 12:7) and He gave teachers to the Church (1 Corinthians 12:28-29; Ephesians 4:11). He also gave gifts of wisdom and of knowledge (1 Corinthians 12:8). Theologians have not agreed always as to

⁴⁰Benjamin Breckinridge Warfield, The Inspiration of the Bible (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: The Presbyterian and Reformed Publishing Company, 1964), p. 131.

⁴¹Evangelical Dictionary of Theology, 1984 ed., s.v. "Illumination," by C. C. Ryrie.

to what these gifts may be, but at least they show that the Holy Spirit is an active participant in the teaching function.

The fact that God supernaturally gives gifts which facilitate the teaching function does not, however, preclude the need for teachers to develop essential teaching skills. The significance of both the divine and the human aspects of ministry can hardly be overlooked. This is seen in Paul's admonition to Timothy to ". . . fan into flame the gift of God" that had been given to him (2 Timothy 1:6). The gift had been given by God, but Timothy was called upon to activate it.

The biblical view of the Holy Spirit's role in teaching is integrative. The Spirit is an active participant, and so is the teacher. The involvement of the one does not preclude the other. God chose to work through people, and without His divine enablement humans would be ineffective in ministry, including teaching. This integrative model whereby both the Holy Spirit and the teacher actively participate in the teaching function provides a rationale for teachers developing essential teaching competencies. The Holy Spirit is actively involved in the process, but does not eliminate the need for teachers to invest their best effort in the process.

This conclusion that teachers should develop the teaching competencies essential to effective teaching appears to be supported by the biblical principle which teaches that whatever one sets out to do, it should be done energetically as service to God (Ecclesiastes 9:10; Colossians 3:23).

While neither of the passages cited refers directly to teaching, a principle which can include teaching is shown.

Perspectives on the Church

One issue that grows out of these biblical and theological reflec-

tions pertains to how the Bible institute relates to the church. Some persons tend to define the church as only the individual congregation in a given locale. Those who hold this view may contend that training people for ministry is a single local church function. They may argue that teachers and the gift of teaching were given to a specific church. The Bible institute often does not fit in this understanding of the church.

Others hold to a different perspective of the church, a view which emphasizes the essential unity of all members of the body of Christ. They recognize and emphasize the necessity of the local church, but recognize that the body of Christ has a broader dimension as well. They understand that there is a universal and multiple locale dimension to the church. Those who support this viewpoint recognize that various ministries have been given by God to accomplish His purpose, and they understand that there are various structures in which expression can be given to these ministries. From this viewpoint, the Bible institute is one modern form in which the teaching function can be expressed.

The Assemblies of God was the context for this present study. This group has always seen both the local and corporate aspects of the church. The founders of the movement sought to protect the sovereignty of the local congregation and viewed the organization they established as a cooperative fellowship of churches. They recognized, however, that there were some things they could do better cooperatively than they could do independently. The founding instrument they wrote reveals that they recognized foreign missions, Bible education, and literature publication to be in this category.⁴² The broader view of the church has prevailed in this fellowship

⁴²William W. Menzies, Anointed to Serve (Springfield, Missouri: Gospel Publishing House, 1971), pp. 93-94.

ever since, and the Bible institute is seen as an appropriate place for the exercise of the teaching gift and an appropriate place for the training of ministers and Christian workers.

Jerry White explained the broader perspective of the church:

Thus the believer as an individual and the believer in fellowship with other believers has personal responsibility to obey God's commands about evangelism, discipleship, serving others, and helping the poor, and so on.

He is also personally responsible to exercise his gifts. The spiritual gifts of believers are given for the building up of the entire body of Christ, not just the local church. God certainly uses these gifts in the local congregation, but they are not the property of that congregation. They belong to the whole body.⁴³

White found no biblical or theological reason to restrict ministry to the structure of the local church or denomination.

The ministry of Paul at Ephesus may support such a conclusion. Paul ministered among the church there and he also taught at the lecture hall of Tyrannus. It appears that the lecture hall provided a structure different from the local church for Paul's exercise of the teaching ministry.

Conclusions

In the examination of the doctrine of revelation, it was shown that God desires man to know Him. Bible institutes facilitate God's purpose to disclose His nature and His plan of salvation. Studying the Bible and other aspects of truth in an effort to know God and what He has revealed is a high priority of Bible institutes. Faculty members who teach in Bible institutes help advance the purpose of God to reveal Himself to man.

The teaching function was one of the ways used to propagate knowledge of God's revelation. The teaching function was expressed in

⁴³Jerry White, The Church & The Parachurch (Portland, Oregon: Multnomah Press, 1983), p. 80.

biblical times in a variety of delivery forms. The Bible institute follows in the tradition of that biblical teaching function and is one modern form through which the teaching function can be expressed.

Helping faculty members develop essential teaching competencies followed the biblical pattern. Those who teach should know and obey God's revealed Word. Their lives should be appropriate role models of the truths they teach. Teachers should understand the task of teaching, and they should develop the competencies needed to teach effectively in their particular setting.

The Holy Spirit is an active participant in the teaching function. This was shown by the titles used for Him and by the work He performs. The Holy Spirit's involvement does not preclude the need for skills and teaching competencies; in fact, His involvement heightens the need for the teacher to develop essential teaching competencies.

For generations we have been transmitting teaching skills by a process such like the "laying on of hands." Some sensitive teachers improve their skills as they gather years of experience; but others unfortunately repeat the first year's experience many times. They simply do not profit from it.

The magnitude of this problem among faculty members of Bible institutes was raised in chapter one. Too little attention has been given to helping faculty members develop essential teaching competencies. Part of the problem in the past has been that educators have not agreed on what constitutes teaching effectiveness.

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CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF RELEVANT RESEARCH

Teachers at all levels are valued members of almost every society. Because of their potential for influencing their pupils, teachers are considered to have a significant role and their responsibility is recognized to be profound. Consequently the competencies of teachers is a matter for concern. It might be expected that teachers are skilled professionals who understand how to influence human minds. Tragically this has not been the case always. It has been argued that some teachers are less than proficient in skills related to instructional processes. Further, the approach to the training of teachers has been challenged. Popham and Baker expressed:

For generations we have been transmitting teaching skills by a process much like the "laying on of hands." Some sensitive teachers improve their skills as they gather years of experience; but others unfortunately repeat the first year's experience many times. They simply do not profit from it.¹

The magnitude of this problem among faculty members of Bible institutes was raised in chapter one. Too little attention has been given to helping faculty members develop essential teaching competencies. Part of the problem in the past has been that educators have not agreed on what constitutes teaching effectiveness. Popham and Baker wrote:

Although the search has been less fervent than the quest for the Holy Grail, there is a long history of educators who have sought a clear definition of teaching competence. For years educational researchers

¹W. James Popham and Eva L. Baker, Systematic Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), p. 3.

and theorists have attempted to reach a satisfactory conception of "the effective teacher." Generally, approaches to this task have been too simplistic. There has been an attempt to identify the good teacher in terms of definite attributes he possessed or certain classroom procedures he employed. More recently it has been recognized that there is no generic entity such as "the effective teacher." Rather, teaching effectiveness must be considered in relationship to particular instructor, dealing with particular learners, in a particular environment, as he attempts to achieve particular instructional goals.²

Since the educational theorists have not agreed about what constitutes teaching competence, it should not be surprising that teachers have demonstrated less than professional skills and that teacher preparation has not always been adequate. Popham and Baker claimed, however:

It is now possible to transmit to teachers a set of tangible competencies that will aid them in their instructional endeavors. Just a few decades ago this could not have been said with conviction; but now we do have some sound principles (although they are far from polished) to guide the teacher interested in improving his instruction.³

It must be recognized that teaching is complex and highly personal. There are various ways to approach the teaching situation. No formula has been discovered that will guarantee success every time. Yet approaches, principles, and processes have been identified which make substantial improvement in teaching effectiveness. Helping teachers develop these essential teaching competencies was the major emphasis of this study.

In the previous chapter, some biblical and theological reflections which informed this study were reported. Since this study also involved educational processes, a search of selected educational literature which seemed relevant to the study was made. The purpose of this chapter was to report the findings of that search. Selected research concerning the task of faculty development, conceptual understandings of instructional design, and relational elements of teaching were considered.

²Ibid., p. 8.

³Ibid., p. 3.

Faculty Development

When colleges and universities wish to improve the quality of education, attention often is drawn to faculty development. It is assumed that to teach effectively one needs to know both the subject matter and how to teach it. In recognition of this, education programs for primary and secondary teachers tend to emphasize both. Prospective teachers at these levels study a basic core of subject content and take courses in methods of teaching such subjects as science, math, reading, and language.

In higher education, more ambiguity appeared to have existed. The role of faculty members has been debated, and some tend to see teaching as a sideline of the college professor's role. Faculty members appear to be thought of as professionals in a discipline, but not necessarily in teaching. Concerning this conflict, Donald Light, Jr. wrote:

While teaching takes most of a professor's time, it is published research which the profession rewards. . . . The professor who publishes in professional books or journals earns more, gets promoted faster, and works at a more "prestigious" institution. The true professionals, then, are those professors who do scholarship and publish, not those who primarily teach.⁴

Kenneth Eble and Wilbert McKeachie observed a similar phenomenon and wrote:

College teaching tends to be a profession in which secondary attention is given to teaching itself. If public schooling has been criticized for forcing practitioners through a program in which pedagogy looms large, college and university teaching is equally chargeable for fostering programs in which pedagogy is scarcely present.⁵

The theory appears to be that because a faculty member has studied a particular discipline he or she is a specialist in that subject matter.

⁴Donald Light, Jr., "Thinking about Faculty," Daedalus 103 (Fall 1974): 259.

⁵Kenneth E. Eble and Wilbert J. McKeachie, Improving Undergraduate Education through Faculty Development (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1985), p. 4.

Because a person knows the subject, it is assumed that he or she can teach others who know less about the subject. It follows, then, that the way to become more effective at teaching a subject is to know it better, to learn more about the content of the subject. This approach has been seen broadly as a problem in higher education. Theological education has not escaped this problem. Marvin J. Taylor, of the Association of Theological Schools in the United States and Canada, affirmed this viewpoint when he stated:

The appropriate training for a theological seminary faculty member is to obtain the Ph.D. degree in the discipline which he/she intends to teach. Hence many graduate schools of theology do have "training programs" for preparing theological school faculty.⁶

John Mostert, executive director of the American Association of Bible Colleges, in addressing the question of where Bible college faculty members can get the education needed to prepare them to teach competently, wrote:

I know of no school which offers specific training for the preparation of theological educators. The closest to this would be seminaries and graduate schools which offer work in Christian education. But such programs are church oriented rather than oriented to teaching in Bible colleges and theological institutions.⁷

Because of the belief that faculty members are content specialists, rather than teaching specialists, many faculty members have not taken even one course in education or related disciplines which are designed to develop teaching skills. Teachers learn to teach by repeating what they have observed, by experience, and by attending in-service workshops.

Eble and McKeachie asserted that many colleges and universities, in response to the problems faced in the 1960s, placed emphasis on teaching during the 1970s. They identified organizations, research projects, and a

⁶Marvin J. Taylor to Dwayne E. Turner, February 9, 1982, personal letter.

⁷John Mostert to Dwayne E. Turner, February 9, 1982, personal letter.

body of literature that resulted from the emphasis.⁸ They emphasized that the purpose of faculty development is to improve teaching, not other areas of the faculty members work. They also identified eight emphases in faculty development. These included: (1) enlarging knowledge of learning theory and pedagogical practices, (2) developing additional teaching skills, (3) gaining a better understanding of students, (4) developing skills and understanding having to do with interpersonal relationships with students, (5) gaining greater understanding of how one's discipline's organizational structures facilitate or inhibit student learning, (6) developing motivation and enthusiasm, (7) learning how to continue learning from one's experiences as a teacher and increasing opportunities for teachers to learn from one another, and (8) developing collegiality among teachers for mutual help.⁹ The first two of these emphases were identified as the particular focus of this professional project.

Since identifying and developing essential teaching competencies was the purpose of this study, the work edited by James Weigand proved helpful. Six teacher competencies were identified and explored in this book. These included: (1) knowing intellectual developmental stages of learners, (2) formulating performance objectives, (3) developing question asking skills, (4) sequencing instruction, (5) evaluating learning progress, and (6) developing creativity.¹⁰ Recognizing that human interaction is a necessary condition for learning to take place, the book also emphasized the need for teachers to develop competencies in interpersonal transactions.

⁸Eble & McKeachie, Improving Undergraduate Education, pp. 8-10.

⁹Ibid., pp. 14-16.

¹⁰James E. Weigand, ed., Developing Teacher Competencies (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971), pp. 1-295.

Kenneth Eble, working in the early 1970s, spent two years researching college teaching in the United States. He visited seventy schools and talked to faculty members, students, and administrators to learn what goes on day by day in college classrooms. At that time he found a neglect of teaching and an uncertainty in college education. Based on these findings, he wrote Professors as Teachers, in which he proposed positive approaches designed to improve college teaching.¹¹ Eble faced squarely the fact that many college teachers happen into the profession, seldom by intention. He believed that those who enter the teaching profession should be helped to enter wisely and that their education should include learning to teach. He also argued that at early, middle, and late career points teachers should engage actively in developing their teaching skills. He challenged colleges to establish programs to help faculties develop teaching effectiveness.

Four years later, Eble followed with another helpful book, The Craft of Teaching.¹² In this work, he offered specific practical suggestions to improve college teaching. He discussed such matters as creating a learning environment, employing effective teaching methods, structuring and administering helpful learning assignments, testing, and grading. He argued that teaching skills are acquired and that teaching involves interaction between the teacher and the learners.

Besides his joint effort with Eble, Wilbert McKeachie has labored individually to promote better college teaching. His book, Teaching Tips,

¹¹Kenneth E. Eble, Professors as Teachers (San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass, Inc., Publishers, 1972).

¹²Kenneth Eble, The Craft of Teaching (San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass, Inc., Publishers, 1976).

¹³Kenneth H. Hoover, College Teaching Today (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1980).

was written to give practical help to the beginning college teacher.¹³ The seventh edition of the book features the theory and research support for the practical helps that are given. He offered help in course preparation, the first class meeting, teaching methods common to college teaching, testing, grading, managing the classroom experience, educational counseling, and discussions of recent developments in cognitive psychology. McKeachie's personal backgrounds in education and in psychology appeared to contribute substantially to a product that is more than merely a few helpful tips about college teaching.

Several others have published helpful works and have contributed to the body of literature intended to improve college teaching.¹⁴ Representative of these is Kenneth Hoover's College Teaching Today.¹⁵ Professor Hoover, of Arizona State University, dealt with practical day-to-day applications for improving instruction at the college level. He wrote about concepts of teaching and learning, establishing instructional objectives, instructional planning, methods and techniques for small groups and for large groups, testing and evaluation procedures, and matters related to the teachers' professional growth and teaching competence.

¹³Wilbert J. McKeachie, Teaching Tips: A Guidebook for the Beginning College Teacher (Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1978).

¹⁴Some examples from this body of literature include: Stanford C. Erickson, The Essence of Good Teaching (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1984); Calvin B. T. Lee, ed., Improving College Teaching (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1967); Kenneth Eble, The Aims of College Teaching (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1983); Margaret Morganroth Gullette, ed., The Art and Craft of Teaching (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1982); and Joseph Lowman, Mastering the Techniques of Teaching (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1984).

¹⁵Kenneth H. Hoover, College Teaching Today (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1980).

Another recent work dealing with faculty development is Peter Burke's Teacher Development: Induction, Renewal, and Redirection.¹⁶ Various components of the teaching process and external influences which bear on the professional teacher are discussed. Three themes run throughout the book; induction, the special concerns that exist when beginning a new task; renewal, the continuity of teacher development throughout one's professional career; and redirection, the recognition of need for updating as circumstances change. The author shows that both prospective and practicing teachers need to engage in development, that both pre-service and in-service training are needed to improve the quality of college teaching.

Several colleges and universities use the in-service model for faculty development. It appeared that these programs utilize a variety of forms and approaches. One representative program is sponsored by the Washington Center for the Improvement of the Quality of Undergraduate Education, located at the Evergreen State College, Olympia, Washington.¹⁷ The purpose of this program, involving thirty-two participating institutions from Washington state, is to foster a teaching community that supports each others' teaching. It promotes a multi-disciplinary approach and voluntary faculty exchanges between participating institution. Through these exchanges, faculty members try new approaches to organizing materials and they attempt using methods they normally do not use. Support of participating faculty members helps assure success. It was reported that the experience resulted in faculty members acquiring a new awareness of teaching and learning and

¹⁶Peter J. Burke, Teacher Development: Induction, Renewal, and Redirection (New York: The Falmer Press, 1987).

¹⁷"Teaching to Learn and Learning to Teach," The Teaching Professor 1 (December 1987): 4-5.

experiencing a new excitement for their teaching tasks.¹⁸ Another such representative program, sponsored by Indiana University, focuses on the training of associate instructors. Indiana University administers the program department by department through the chairpersons of the various departments. It is reported that the faculty members at the university consider training the associates as part of their job, despite the fact that budgeting for the program has not been established.¹⁹ The review of literature pertaining to faculty development was found to serve this project in at least four ways. It was confirmed that the concerns of this study were legitimate. Others, working in college education in different settings, were concerned about the quality of teaching in college too. Their efforts, while not the same, appeared similar enough to suggest that the desire to improve the quality of teaching in Bible colleges in the Philippines was a valid concern. A result was the affirmation that an in-service training seminar for faculty members was an appropriate model for this study. Essential teaching competencies to be included in the field study seminar were identified by the review. From this body of literature, some works were selected to be included in the library of materials made available to the seminar participants during the field study.

Instructional Design

Conceptual understanding of instructional design was needed in this project to design the envisioned teacher training program. A program of instruction needed to be designed to facilitate learning for the teachers

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹"Indiana U. Evaluates Associate Instructor Training," Academic Leader 3 (November 1987): 8.

who would participate in the field study. This need was shown further by the fact that the teachers who studied the program were expected to learn how to design instruction for use in their teaching later.

In the past much instructional planning was done without a clear understanding of what was involved. Teachers tended to proceed on intuition or impression. Often the main concern was the teacher and methods of teaching rather than the learner and his learning. However, a recognition that the teaching-learning process is complex and that it involves many interrelated parts has developed. Attention has been given to the interactions of these interrelated parts. Borrowing from the "systems approach" used in business, industry, military, and government, efforts have been made to develop an overall plan which will incorporate the interrelated parts into a sequential pattern. It is believed that the proper flow of events is essential to proper outcome. The systems approach treats the process as a whole rather than as unrelated individual parts. The systems approach is concerned about economy and efficiency; therefore, inputs and outputs are measured and compared. In education this takes the form of determining if the learning was adequate to justify the resources put into the process.

Applied to instructional design, the systems approach can be used to specify what is to be learned, what methods and resources will be most efficient in helping the learners achieve the desired learning, and determining the degree to which the desired learning occurred. These concerns involve learning objectives, methods and resources and evaluation.

The beginnings of this current trend may be credited to Ralph W. Tyler, a professor of education at the University of Chicago. Tyler taught a basic orientation course in education in which he taught an overview of curriculum development and instructional planning. He published his

syllabus for this course and stated therein:

The rationale developed in this syllabus begins with identifying four fundamental questions which must be answered in developing any curriculum and plan of instruction. These are: (1)What educational purposes should the school seek to attain? (2)What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes? (3)How can these educational experiences be effectively organized? (4)How can we determine whether these purposes are attained?²⁰

Tyler's questions easily translate into an instructional design of specifying learning objectives, determining instruction needed to achieve the objectives, instructional sequencing, and testing and evaluating learning achievement. These questions have been the basis for the work of several instructional designers.

Models of Instructional Design

Many models of instructional design were available. The following discussion presents three representative models.

Davis, Alexander, and Yelon suggested five steps to their learning system design: (1) describing the current status of the learning system, (2) deriving and writing learning objectives, (3) planning and implementing evaluation, (4) performing a task description and task analysis, and (5) applying principles of human learning.²¹ These writers identified five types of instructional problems and sought to show how these steps solved the problems they identified. They offered this as both a design philosophy and as a set of tools to use in problem solving.

Jerrold Kemp enumerated eight parts to the planning process:

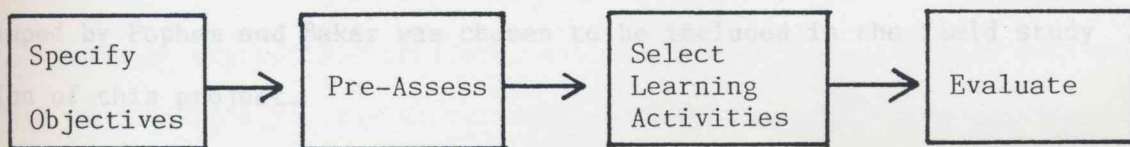
²⁰Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950), pp.1-2.

²¹Robert H. Davis, Lawrence T. Alexander, and Stephen L. Yelon, Learning System Design: An Approach to the Improvement of Instruction (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1974), pp. 9-20.

1. Consider goals, and then list topics stating the general purpose for teaching each topic.
2. Enumerate the important characteristics of the learners for whom the instruction is to be designed.
3. Specify the learning objectives to be achieved in terms of measurable student behavioral outcomes.
4. List the subject content that supports each objective.
5. Develop pre-assessments to determine the student's background and present level of knowledge about the topic.
6. Select teaching-learning activities and instructional resources that will treat the subject content so students will accomplish the objectives.
7. Coordinate such support services as budget, personnel, facilities, equipment, and schedules to carry out the instructional plan.
8. Evaluate students' learning in terms of their accomplishment of objectives, with a view to revising and reevaluating any phases of the plan that need improvement.²²

Popham and Baker suggested four steps in instructional planning as is shown in the following paradigm:²³

AN EMPIRICAL INSTRUCTIONAL MODEL



Concerning this model they said:

The teacher first specifies precise objectives in terms of pupil behavior. Second, he pre-assesses the learner's behavior with respect to the objectives and, as a result, may modify his objectives. Third, he devises an instructional sequence consistent with the best that is known regarding how pupils learn. Fourth, he evaluates the post-instruction performance of the learners and makes appropriate decisions regarding his instructional sequence and/or the quality of the objective.²⁴

They further stated:

The value of the empirical scheme is that regardless of an individu-

²²Jerrold E. Kemp, Instructional Design: A Plan for Unit and Course Development (Belmont, California: Fearon Publishers, Inc., 1977), p. 9.

²³W. James Popham and Eva L. Baker, Establishing Instructional Goals (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), p. 20.

²⁴Ibid.

al's teaching style, it provides a procedure whereby the teacher, as a technically skilled expert can, over time, systematically improve the quality of his instruction. ²⁵

None of these begins with the subject matter, as some teachers are prone to do. This may be a major concern to those who have been entrenched in the concept that teaching is equated with imparting knowledge. But others may have concerns about this point too. In college teaching, the curriculum dictates the course a teacher teaches, and most often these are identified by subject matter. College teachers generally are not free to teach anything they may think their students need to learn. They begin with what the learners need to learn about the particular subject they are to teach. Subject content and learners' needs are brought together to become the basis for the learning objectives.

Helpful insights were gained from all of these models. The model developed by Popham and Baker was chosen to be included in the field study portion of this project.

Learning Objectives

The importance of specifying learning objectives as a component of instructional planning was shown in the survey of literature on instructional design. Objectives are statements of learning intent. The expected outcomes of the teaching-learning experience are identified in the objectives. Current educators insist on four basic characteristics to instructional objectives:

- (1) they must be stated in terms of the learner's behavior; that is, what the learner will be able to do after instruction that he could not do before it;
- (2) they must include a verb, but only one, which specifies the observable behavior the learner will perform,
- (3) they must describe the conditions,

²⁵Ibid.

if any, under which the learner will perform the behavior, and (4) they should, when possible describe the criteria for evaluating an acceptable performance of the behavior by describing how well the learner must perform to be considered acceptable.²⁶

The major desire for stating learning objectives in this way is to quantify empirically learner achievement. Performance objectives are structured in such a way that the teacher can observe the learners performing the desired behavior and thereby be convinced that the objectives have been achieved. Specifying learning objectives in performance terms emphasizes learner achievement by specifying what is to happen to the learner as a result of the instruction. Because learning is seen as change, performance objectives indicate the kind of change that should occur. Many educators argue that clearly defined performance objectives are needed for teachers to select or design appropriate instructional activities. Behaviorally stated learning objectives also provide reliable criteria for evaluating learning achievement.

Assessment of Behaviorism

The concern for learning outcomes, performance, observable changes, quantification, and empirical measurement of learning achievement is supported by the behavioristic psychology developed in the tradition of John Locke, Ivan Pavlov, Edward Thorndike, John B. Watson, and B. F. Skinner.

²⁶See Ronald T. Hyman, Ways of Teaching, 2nd ed. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1974), p. 42; Robert E. Mager, Preparing Instructional Objectives (Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1962); Popham and Baker, Establishing Instructional Goals; Norman E. Gronlund, Stating Objectives for Classroom Instruction, 2nd ed. (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1978); Carolyn Matheny Dillman and Harold F. Rahmlow, Writing Instructional Objectives (Belmont, California: Lear Siegler, Inc., 1972); Davis, Alexander, and Yelon, Learning System Design, pp. 29-41.

Without question, Skinner must be credited with much of the modern emphasis on behaviorism.

Behaviorism is rooted in the theory that human behavior can be explained in terms of stimulus-response associationism. For the most part, behaviorists affirm a naturalistic, materialistic view of the ultimate nature of reality. This means that God, spirit beings, and such non-material elements are outside of reality. It further means that man is mere matter. Cosgrove determined:

Given Skinner's naturalistic, materialistic picture of reality, he is almost bound by consistency to believe that man is only matter, completely determined, and that scientific methods can reveal all truth about human nature.²⁷

Daniel Barlow assessed:

The behaviorally-oriented educators view man as a highly evolved and evolving animal at best. . . . What is the nature of the student? For the behaviorist, a "neutral human animal," whose behavior can be controlled through contingency reinforcement--basically training and manipulation.²⁸

In reflecting his materialistic view of man, Skinner stated, "The picture which emerges from a scientific analysis is not a body with a person inside, but a body which is a person in the sense that it displays a complex repertoire of behavior."²⁹ He, at a later time, said, "A person is not an originating agent; he is a locus, a point at which many genetic and environmental conditions come together in a joint effect."³⁰ In articulating his empirical, materialistic perspective of human nature, Skinner further declared:

²⁷Mark P. Cosgrove, B. F. Skinner's Behaviorism: An Analysis (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Zondervan Publishing House, 1982), p. 27.

²⁸Daniel Lenox Barlow, Educational Psychology: The Teaching-Learning Process (Chicago: Moody Press, 1985), p. 152.

³⁰B. F. Skinner, Beyond Freedom and Dignity (New York: Bantam Books, 1972), p. 190.

³⁴Skinner, Beyond Freedom & Dignity, 18.

A behavioristic analysis rests on the following assumption: A person is first of all an organism, a member of a species and a subspecies, possessing a genetic endowment of anatomical and physiological characteristics, which are the product of contingencies of survival to which the species has been exposed in the process of evolution. The organism becomes a person as it acquires a repertoire of behavior under the contingencies of reinforcement to which it is exposed during its lifetime. The behavior it exhibits at any one moment is under the control of a current setting. 31

Behaviorists tend to believe that environmental factors determine human behavior. The following quotations from Skinner demonstrate his believe in this point:

The work is mechanistic in the sense of implying a fundamental lawfulness or order in the behavior of organisms. . . but it is assumed that behavior is predictable from a knowledge of relevant variables and is free from the intervention of any capricious agent.³²

When all relevant variables have been arranged, an organism will or will not respond. If it does not, it cannot. If it can, it will.³³

Personal exemption from a complete determinism is revoked as a scientific analysis progresses, particularly in accounting for the behavior of the individual.³⁴

Skinner believed that the purpose of psychology was to predict and control the behavior of organisms. He promoted operant conditioning and reinforcement to achieve these. In his experiments with rats and pigeons, Skinner demonstrated that by arranging conditions and supplying reinforcement he could shape their behavior in predictable ways. He believed that similar techniques could be used to control human behavior. His controversial novel, Walden Two, described a modern, scientific, utopian, society in

31B. F. Skinner, About Behaviorism (New York: Vintage Books, 1976), p. 228.

32B. F. Skinner, The Behavior of Organisms (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1938), p. 433.

33B. F. Skinner, Science and Human Behavior (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953), p. 112.

34Skinner, Beyond Freedom & Dignity, 18.

which people were shaped by behavioral engineers who were specialists in operant conditioning. Desired behaviors were reinforced; undesirable behaviors were extinguished through lack of environmental reinforcement.

The principle of reinforcement is basic to behavioristic learning theories. Behavior is modified by rewarding moves in desired directions. Reinforcement may be positive, positive results such as praise, treats, privileges; or negative, unpleasant or adverse results such as punishment, scolding, or withholding approval. Experience has shown that immediate rewarding tends to reinforce desired changes more than do delayed rewards.³⁵ Application of this principle to education suggests that the sooner a student knows if his response to a question or problem is correct, the more the correct response will be reinforced. Ideally, a learner should learn immediately if his response is acceptable and adequate.

The principle of reinforcement has led to some fascinating innovations in education. One of these innovations was the use of teaching machines. Devices which could reinforce mechanically acceptable performance were designed and used with some vigor for a time. In more recent times, an emphasis on the use of electronic computers in education has developed, and the same principle is involved. Another innovation which developed out of the behaviorists' understanding of reinforcement was what is known as programmed instruction. This is a way of structuring instructional materials to provide immediate reinforcement to the learner. Learning tasks are broken down into small steps called "frames." Each frame is designed to test that learning task and to reward immediately acceptable performance. In more recent times, strict programming has been modified to produce a

³⁵Skinner, Science and Human Behavior, 100-102..

variety of auto-instructional approaches.

Behaviorism has penetrated deeply into the thinking of many modern educators. The impact has been far reaching. Perhaps the most far-reaching and most long-lasting impact has been in the way instructional objectives are structured.

Behaviorists affirm the position that human behavior is shaped from the outside, by the external environment. There are psychologists and educators who take exception to this position, who believe that human experience is governed by internal forces such as biological maturation, or the structuring of one's own experience. Those who embrace this particular position follow in the tradition of Jean Jacques Rousseau, Sigmund Freud, Jean Piaget, Erik Erickson, Lawrence Kohlberg, and Jerome Brunner, who are known as developmentalists.

William Crain evaluated behaviorism from a developmentalist point of view. He identified three primary ways in which proponents of the the approaches disagree. The first area of disagreement deals with the internal and external emphases of the two. Crain explained:

First, developmental theorists often discuss internal events. Piaget describes complex mental structures, even though he might not be able to find direct evidence for all of them in any individual case. Freudians discuss internal events, such as unconscious fantasies, that we cannot directly observe at all. Skinner believes that such concepts divert us from scientific progress, which is made when we confine ourselves to the measurement of overt responses and environmental stimuli.³⁶

Crain argued that a number of those in Skinner's own camp consider him to be extreme and take positions closer to that of the developmentalists.

Crain identified a difference on the meaning and importance of

³⁶William C. Crain, Theories of Development: Concepts and Applications (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1980), p. 219.

developmental stages as the second area of disagreement. He explained:

In Piaget's theory, for example, a child's stage is a crucial variable; it is a predictor of the kind of experience the child can learn from. A child at the sensori-motor level will not learn tasks that involve language, nor will a child beginning to master concrete operations learn much from lectures covering abstract theory.

Skinnerians doubt the validity of stages as general, distinct ways of thinking or behaving; for the environment shapes behavior in a gradual, continuous manner.³⁷

He observed that Skinner did acknowledge that a person's age was a variable but that he considered such information only as descriptive and secondary to experimental variables which control behavior.

Crain considered the third issue dividing Skinner and the developmentalists to be the most important. This concern has to do with the source of behavioral change. He said:

Developmentalists contend that in crucial instances a child's thoughts, feelings, and actions develop spontaneously, from within. Behavior is not exclusively patterned by the external environment.³⁸

After citing examples from various developmentalists, he continued:

Developmental theorists, then, try to conceptualize ways in which children grow and learn on their own, somewhat independent of others' teachings or external reinforcements. At the same time, no one can deny that environments also reinforce and control behavior to a considerable extent, and often in ways Skinner describes. Skinner's theory and research, moreover, have a clarity and elegant simplicity which others would do well to emulate.³⁹

Evangelical Christians are sure to take exception to some of the tenets of behaviorism too. The biblical teaching is that man is a unique creation of God, made by God, in God's own image, for God's glory. The behavioristic teaching that the learner is nothing but a neutral human organism whose behavior is controlled through operant condition is a radical departure from this biblical teaching. Christians are sure to object to the

³⁷Ibid., p.220.

³⁸Ibid.

³⁹Ibid., pp. 220-221

behaviorists' view of man as nothing but an evolved and evolving animal.

Daniel Barlow representing the Christian view stated:

This logically implies that the "nature," if any, with which the educator will be working is less than "human." What is the nature of the student? For the behaviorist, a "neutral human animal," whose behavior can be controlled through contingency reinforcement--basically training and manipulation. Critics from the humanistic position are quick to point out that this rules out the "human spirit"--the vast inner potential of a human being that makes the human being what he is. Critics from the Christian standpoint quickly contrast the neutral animal nature with the sin nature of the human being, a cardinal belief of orthodox, evangelical, and fundamental Christians. Both humanists and Christians would point out that to equate training and manipulation (behavioristic) with the total educational process is simplistic.⁴⁰

Barlow also stated:

The implication for the teaching-learning process is rather obvious. How one views the student--as an animal to be trained and manipulated for society's survival, or as a person created in the image of God--has significant implications for how one approaches the teaching-learning process. Goals, methodology, the curriculum, the role of the teacher, and the nature of the student obviously are affected at the core by such assumptions.⁴¹

Behaviorism also seemed open to criticism by Christians on the issue of control. If human behavior is controlled or manipulated through contingency reinforcement, one must ask about the will of God for mankind in general and for individuals in particular. What will be the ultimate standard of behavior? Who will decide what behaviors to reinforce? and what behaviors should be extinguished? Who will control the controllers? and what gives them the right to this privilege-responsibility?

Some educators appeared ready to challenge the behaviorists on the matter of educational objectives. Although the use of behavioral objectives has become very prominent during the past half-century, some reputable educators have not been convinced fully. One example is Ronald T. Hyman, a

⁴⁰Barlow, Educational Psychology, p. 152.

⁴¹Ibid.

a teacher and researcher from Rutgers University who described five criticisms of behaviorally stated objectives.⁴² His first objection dealt with the specificity of objectives. He argued that some educators specify their objectives too much, so that they severely restrict their teaching. Hyman expressed concern that this leads to the loss of needed flexibility.

Hyman's second criticism concerns the stating of specific objectives in behavioral terms. He argued that the purpose of teaching is not simply to change the learner's behavior, but to bring change that is guided by reason and principle. Hyman thought that such matters as reflective thinking, creativity, critical reasoning, and developing appreciations were valid learning objectives, although there may be no adequate way to observe and measure these. He could not accept that only behaviorally stated objectives were valid.

The third criticism Hyman raised concerned the function of objectives. He noted that the current trend is for teachers to establish the objectives prior to meeting the learners. He contended that the teacher could not fully know his objective while teaching a lesson or even after having taught it. He viewed teaching as dynamic and argued that all of the variables could not be known in advance.

The fourth criticism concerned the effect of behavioral objectives on the act of teaching. Teaching involves warm interpersonal relationships between the teacher and the learners, he pointed out. He expressed concern that if a teacher devoted himself diligently to the achieving of his stated behavioral goals, he might endanger this friendly relationship and thereby be self-defeating. Hyman thought that to achieve predetermined objectives

⁴²Ronald T. Hyman, *Ways of Teaching*, 2nd ed. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1974), pp. 45-49.

it might be necessary to adopt a manner that involved force, threat, intimidation, one that fails to respect the learner's integrity and independence.

Hyman's fifth criticism centered on implicit values. He argued that when a teacher establishes the objectives and seeks to attain only those, the learners are permitted to depend on the teacher to set the objectives rather than learning to become autonomous and independent in determining their own objectives. This was seen as causing the students to undervalue the unplanned and unexpected outcomes of the teaching-learning process, when in reality, Hyman believed, these might be inherently of extreme value. He suspected that while behavioral objectives might facilitate evaluation, they also might restrict learning to a mode of dependence which would be opposite of what should be the desired outcome.

While some criticism of the behaviorists' approach appears appropriate, the concern for performance, especially at the lower levels of the cognitive domain, appears legitimate. Who would not want to affirm that learning should be made overt, that learning should be transferred into life? Jesus taught, in Matthew 28:19-20, that "making disciples of all nations" included "teaching them to obey everything [He] commanded." Obedience requires doing, performance, behavior. While one may not wish to accept all of the behavioristic approach, undoubtedly it has led to some useful understandings of certain aspects of the teaching-learning process. One helpful contribution appears to be the specifying learning objectives in a way that the performance of the learners will indicate that the desired changes have been achieved.

An example of a Christian educator who has found a way to specify learning objectives which retains the strengths of the behavioristic model without embracing some of the problematic aspects of the approach is LeRoy

Ford.⁴³ He differs slightly from educators such as Robert Mager.⁴⁴ These educators insist that learning objectives be stated very specifically in terms of the observable behavior the learner will be able to perform after instruction. Ford teaches that learning goals are relatively broad statements of learning intent. The contrast is from specific behavior to broad learning intents. He calls these "primary learning outcomes," and he identifies four of them--knowledge, understanding, attitude, and skills. He, then, teaches teachers to look for "indicators," signs of progress, that the primary learning outcomes are being achieved. Ford's goal indicators are statements of what the learners may do to "indicate" that they have achieved the learning goals. They are statements of what the teacher may accept as proof that the learner is proceeding toward the desired goal. What other call "objectives" Ford calls "indicators." He argues that his term reflects in a clearer way the function of the statements. Ford's understanding is that the indicators tend to show that the learning goals have been achieved. Indications, however, are not the same as empirically measurable results. Indications leave open the possibilities that it may appear that the goals are achieved, when in actuality they have not been. This accommodates the feeling of need for deeper levels of involvement with the information. This leaves open the possibility that the goals may have been achieved, but the learners do not necessarily demonstrate it in the ways the teacher specified.

Despite these measurement problems, Ford seems to capitalize on the

⁴³LeRoy Ford, Design for Teaching and Training (Nashville, Tennessee: Broadman Press, 1978).

⁴⁴Robert F. Mager, Preparing Instructional Objectives 2nd ed. (Belmont, California: Fearon Publishers, Inc., 1975).

learner performance orientation which is essential to the behavioristic approach. Ford, however, appears to steer clear of the mechanistic techniques which were objectionable in the strictly behavioristic approach. Because of this, Ford's model was taught to the teachers who participated in the field study of this professional project.

The principle of reinforcement seemed like another useful contribution by the behaviorists to this study. The materials for the inservice seminar were designed on an auto-instructional format. The correct responses were placed immediately after the learning exercises. This offered the opportunity for immediate reinforcement of the correct responses, or opportunity for immediate knowledge of the correct responses in the event of a wrong response.

Despite some problematic aspects, the behavioristic approach seemed to offer some useful element to this study. Valuable lessons were learned from reviewing the research related to behaviorism, and some aspects of the approach made contributions to this study.

Levels of Learning

Educators have identified three domains in which learning changes occur, and they have defined various levels of learning within these. These three domains are the cognitive, the affective, and the psychomotor domains. The cognitive domain is concerned with intellectual pursuits such as knowing, remembering, and understanding. The affective domain is concerned with attitudes, emotions, and values. The psychomotor domain is concerned with physical outcomes, manipulative operations, motor skills, and conduct.

Professor Benjamin S. Bloom and a group of his colleagues provided much help to educators by giving them a framework in which they could think

realistically and specifically about what learning outcomes were desired. The product of their labors was classifications, taxonomies, of educational objectives. Their original intentions were to develop ". . . a complete taxonomy in three major points--the cognitive, the affective, and the psychomotor domains."⁴⁵ They actually produced a handbook for the cognitive and affective domains and changed their minds about the motor-skills area. They stated:

Although we recognize the existence of this domain, we find so little done about it in secondary schools or colleges, that we do not believe the development of a classification would be very useful at present.⁴⁶

The levels specified in the cognitive domain were: (1) knowledge, (2) comprehension, (3) application, (4) analysis, (5) synthesis, and (6) evaluation.⁴⁷ The five levels of the affective domain were: (1) receiving, (2) responding, (3) valuing, (4) organizing, (5) characterization by a value or value complex.⁴⁸ While the professors working on these committees did not develop a taxonomy for the psychomotor domain, and saw no need to do so, others since then have attempted to develop such a taxonomy.⁴⁹ None of

⁴⁵Benjamin S. Bloom, ed., Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook I: Cognitive Domain (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956), p. 7.

⁴⁶Ibid., pp. 7-8.

⁴⁷Ibid., pp. 62-200 passim, 201-207.

⁴⁸David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Masia, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook II: Affective Domain (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964), p. 35, pp. 95-175 passim, 176-185.

⁴⁹Three examples of efforts to classify the psychomotor domain are: Anita J. Harrow, A Taxonomy of the Psychomotor Domain (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1972); E. J. Simpson, The Classification of Educational Objectives in the Psychomotor Domain (Washington, D. C.: Gryphon House, 1972); and Ann E. Jewett and Marie R. Mullan, Curriculum Design: Purposes and Processes in Physical Education Teaching and Learning (Washington, D. C.: American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1977).

these efforts has met with the acceptance of the previous works, however.

With the aid of the taxonomies, teachers can specify their teaching-learning objectives to the desired domains and at the desired levels of learning. They, then, can meaningfully design a program of instruction to achieve the specified objectives. Objectives which have been so specified also give learners knowledge of the specific changes they are expected to make as a result of the teaching-learning encounter, and thereby become a guide to the learning process.

Relational Elements of Teaching

Teachers who are interested in improving their effectiveness must give consideration to how learning takes place. In recent times this pursuit has led some educational psychologists to focus their attentions on what takes place in social situations. Their research has caused them to believe that learning happens when learners actively model, or imitate, what they observe done and said. Association with significant others and interpersonal relationships appear to be an important factor in the teaching-learning process. Lawrence Richards, a respected contemporary Christian educator, wrote, "It has been long suggested that the deep-seated motivations and attitudes which characterize persons are essentially 'caught' from others from whom one feels a strong emotional bond."⁵⁰ Jesus emphasized this truth when he said, "But everyone who is fully trained will be like his teacher" (Luke 6:40).

Research has shown that observation and imitation of others have a powerful impact on learning. Richards stated:

⁵⁰Lawrence O. Richards, A Theology of Christian Education (Grand Rapids, Michigan: Zondervan Publishing House, 1975), p. 82.

In fact, it is modeling (or identification) that is fastened on as the most significant source of likeness communication. It is not so much power or rewards that shape behavior as the striving to be like another person: "a motivated attempt to resemble a specific person."⁵¹

The research in social learning theory done by Albert Bandura led him to believe that much of what we learn occurs through modeling. He stated:

In our research at Stanford University, we have found that almost any learning outcome that results from direct experience can also come about on a vicarious basis through observation of other people's behavior and its consequences on them.⁵²

Bandura believed that learning results from the learner actively imitating what he observed others doing and that learning results even when the reinforcement is vicarious.⁵³ Richards explained that more than imitating is involved in modeling.⁵⁴ He argued that modeling or identification involved striving to be like the other person rather than merely doing what the person does, that it involves strong emotional bonding. Richards also identified seven factors of modeling relationships. He listed:

1. There needs to be frequent, long-term contact with the model(s)
2. There needs to be a warm, loving relationship with the model(s)
3. There needs to be exposure to the inner states of the model(s)
4. The model(s) need to be observed in a variety of life settings and situations
5. The model(s) need to exhibit consistency and clarity in behaviors, values, etc.
6. There needs to be a correspondence between the behavior of the model(s) and the beliefs (ideal standards) of the community

⁵¹Ibid., p. 83.

⁵²Albert Bandura, "Behavioral Psychology," Scientific American 216 (1967): 78-86.

⁵³Albert Bandura, Principles of Behavior Modification (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1969), pp. 118-120.

⁵⁴Richards, Theology of Christian Education, p. 83.

7. There needs to be explanation of life style of the model(s) conceptually, with instruction accompanying shared experiences.⁵⁵

The effort of a learner to take on the likeness of another is not to please the model, but to please the learner in his desire to be like the model.

The teacher's life is an important aspect of the teaching-learning process. Teachers should seek to be the kind of persons who are worthy of emulation, and they should encourage students to attach themselves to them in modeling relationships.

These insights suggested that persons who would relate well to the seminar leader should be chosen as participants for the field study of this professional project. The insights also suggested that the seminar leader should relate to the participants in a worthy and transparent way. Most of those selected as participants were known by the instructor, and they were individuals with whom he already enjoyed a degree of relational attachment.

Conclusions

In this review of selected literature, it was shown that a considerable amount of research has been done in various aspects related to helping teachers develop their teaching competencies. It was shown that college teachers need to develop teaching competencies as well as know the content of the subjects they teach. It was shown that the concern for helping college teachers develop essential teaching competencies is important and that many are working with this problem. It was shown that an in-service approach was an appropriate model for helping teachers develop essential teaching competencies.

It also has shown by the relevant research that a conceptual under-

⁵⁵Ibid., pp. 84-85.

standing of instructional design is helpful to competent teaching. Three representative models were surveyed, and the model by Popham and Baker was chosen to be taught in the field study of this project. The matter of learning objectives was examined, and it was found that much of the contemporary thinking about objectives reflects a behavioristic bent. An assessment was made of behavioristic psychology, and it was found that some objections to the approach seemed legitimate. It also was found that the approach offered some helpful understandings. Helping teachers develop competencies in specifying learning objectives seemed to be an important part of improving their teaching skills. The levels of learning were considered, and it was discovered that teachers can identify specifically what learning changes are to be expected to occur as a result of instruction. In the review of research, it was shown that teachers can identify what learners will be able to do after instruction that will indicate that the learning goals have been achieved.

It, also, demonstrated in the review of literature that modeling is an important part of teaching. The importance of interpersonal relationships on the teaching-learning situation was found to be profound.

The research selected for review informed this present study in many important ways. Some of the benefits included the expanding of a broader and fuller understanding of the college teacher's task. Some of the research became the basis for identifying competencies that needed to be taught in the field study. Some of the studies facilitated making choices regarding the type of approach to use for the field study. Some of the literature served to facilitate choices regarding methods to be used in the field study.

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURES FOR DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROJECT

The basic questions underlying this study were: (1) what teaching competencies were essential for faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines? and (2) how could those essential competencies be developed in a selected group of faculty members? This two-pronged problem called for two products: (1) identifying the essential teaching competencies, and (2) projecting a plan to help a selected group of faculty members develop those competencies. The purposes of this chapter were to report on the procedures used in the identifying process and to highlight the results of the research that was conducted.

Preliminary Study

In determining if there was sufficient need and interest to warrant this study, a questionnaire was circulated in October 1981 among thirty-nine faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines.¹ Thirty-three of these were nationals, five were missionaries, and one did not indicate which he or she was. Of those who responded, seven were in their first year of teaching, seven had three to five years of teaching experience, seven had five to eight years experience, three had eight to twelve years of experience, and nine had more than twelve years of

¹This questionnaire and its results are exhibited in appendix B. The tallies of the responses are shown on the lines of the questionnaire in the exhibit.

experience. This was understood to suggest that those responding to the questionnaire represented a fairly good cross-section of the teachers of Bible institutes sampled.

Thirteen of the respondents indicated they intended to make Bible school teaching their lifetime ministry. Nineteen indicated they were not sure, and only four responded that they did not intend to make Bible school teaching their lifetime ministry.² It was suspected that some of the nineteen who indicated they were not sure if Bible school teaching would be their lifetime ministry actually were inclined to give their lives to this ministry, but for cultural reasons could not indicate yes. Perhaps they may have felt that their futures were in God's hands and that they should not make that kind of choice. Filipinos tend to be fatalistic in world-view. Many feel their lives should fit into the flow of things as willed by higher powers. Another reason some may have indicated that they were not sure, when they actually desired to remain in teaching throughout their lifetime, is because of the Oriental concept of "saving face." If one were to declare that he intended to remain in teaching for the rest of his life and this did not actually come to be, that person would be shamed or "lose face." If, however, the person indicated he was unsure and yet did remain in teaching throughout his lifetime, there would be no loss of face. So it was interpreted that most of those who responded to the questionnaire were serious about the ministry of teaching and had genuinely devoted themselves to it.

Question ten asked, "When you began to teach, what areas of your work did you find most difficult?" A blank space was left for the respon-

²A discrepancy in the totals resulted from the fact that not all thirty-nine faculty members responded to every question.

dents to write in their own feelings. Only four respondents failed to write an answer in the blank. All of the rest gave responses dealing with various aspects of the teaching task. Ten indicated they had difficulty in various aspects of academic planning and syllabus preparation. Some, though not a large number, gave responses relating to teaching methodology. Eight indicated they had experienced difficulties with some aspect related to educational psychology, motivating students to learn, individual differences varying levels of academic readiness, or securing learner involvement. Some experienced time pressures, feeling they did not have enough time for proper preparation. Two indicated they had difficulties in preparing exams. Of the various role tasks Bible institute teachers perform, the greatest difficulties were experienced in areas related to the teaching tasks.

The finding from question 10 was interesting when compared with the responses to question eleven. This question asked, "Of the many tasks required of you as a Bible school teacher, where do you feel weak and in need of further training?" Six options were given from which the respondents could check one or more. Only three indicated they felt weak in understanding Bible school work, twelve felt some weakness in their knowledge of subject content, twenty felt weakness in academic planning, two felt weakness in classroom management, fourteen in teaching skills, and twelve in preparing and interpreting tests. This further suggested that the teachers who responded to the questionnaire felt their greatest weaknesses to be in areas related to the teaching, or pedagogical, aspects of their role. Question ten dealt with feelings when the teachers began to teach, while question eleven dealt with their current feelings. It would appear that the same areas of weakness were felt. One might wonder if this may imply that years of experience did not solve the problems experienced at

the beginning. This leaves one to wonder if instruction in academic planning and teaching skills would be more effective than years of teaching experience without such instruction.

Question fourteen hints at an answer to this question. It asked, "If you could get additional training to help you be more effective, would you want such training?" Five alternatives were given and the respondents could mark the one that best described their feelings. Thirty-three indicated they definitely would want such training if it were available. Five indicated they probably would, and only one indicated no. None responded to the "maybe" or the "not sure" options. That the teachers who responded to the questionnaire wanted additional training was beyond question.

Based on the results of this preliminary study, it was concluded that there was sufficient need and interest to warrant continuing with this project. It was felt that a valid need had been identified and that the need was sufficiently worthy to continue the investigation. It also was felt that the results of this survey hinted at some areas that would give priorities in directing the remainder of the study.

Design of the Study

As this study developed, it was assumed that ultimately a faculty training program would be developed that would help teachers develop or improve the teaching competencies essential to the performance of their role tasks. If this training program was to address real needs, the essential teaching competencies first must be identified. To discover what were the essential teaching competencies, the procedures chosen were to (1) discover what role tasks were being performed by faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines, (2) organize these data into a task

profile, (3) identify from this profile those role tasks which related primarily to the teaching function, and (4) identify those aspects of the teaching task where faculty members seemed to be weakest and in need of the most help. Then it was possible to develop an in-service faculty training program which addressed the needs felt by those who served as faculty members in Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines. This study, by design, was a descriptive study that was not involved in explanation or hypothesis testing. The following is a report of the procedures used.

Discovering Teacher's Role Tasks

The first step in this study was to discover what role tasks were performed by faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines. Methodology for gathering this information followed the guidelines given by Davis, Alexander, and Yelon. Their application to task descriptions was for the purpose of developing a learning system which was different from the purpose of this study. Nevertheless, their methodology seemed appropriate for the purposes of this project. They described three methods of gathering information for task descriptions: (1) individual or group interviews, (2) direct observation, and (3) technical manuals.³ The first two of these involve norm referenced data and the third involves criterion referenced data. For this project the norm referenced model was chosen; therefore, information was gathered by individual interviews and by direct observation of teachers at work. Few Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines had adequate task descriptions for their faculties. The few schools which had attempted to articulate this tended to be idealistic and unrealistic. Therefore this source was not used in this study.

³Davis, Alexander, and Yelon, Learning System Design, p. 143.

Faculty Interviews

Personal interviews were conducted with twelve faculty members from five Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines. Four of these were from Bethel Bible Institute, three from Immanuel Bible College, three from Luzon Bible Institute, one who served South Central Bible Institute and was also serving as a part-time instructor at Bethel Bible Institute, and one who at the time of the interview was serving at the Bible Institute for the Deaf but also had given many years to both Luzon Bible Institute and Bethel Bible Institute. The accumulative years of teaching experience of these twelve persons equaled 124 years.

There was a variety of questions which could have been asked in conducting faculty interviews. To give the interviewee maximum flexibility and to avoid leading the interviewee, the open-ended, descriptive, grand-tour type of question was chosen. The initial question asked each interviewee was:

As part of a doctoral project I am doing, I am trying to learn more about what Bible college and institute teachers do in their work. Your experience is valuable and I am sure you have many insights which will help me. Could you list and describe the many things you do in the course of a typical school year?

When the need for further clarification was felt, such questions as the following were asked: "Can you tell me in more detail how you. . .?" or "Can you show me an example of how you. . .? Perhaps you can show me step by step how you do it." Each response of the interviewees was recorded in writing as the information was given.

The individual responses varied and were personalized. The number of responses given by each person ranged between seventeen and thirty statements. While the number of responses varied considerably, the actual content was quite similar. Some listed in more detail, while others tended

to generalize. The responses covered a wide range of activities such as selecting textbooks, determining objectives, planning student assignments, making daily lesson plans, grading term papers, assigning grades, attending chapel services, praying and counseling with students, serving on various committees, fostering spiritual growth and development, deciding what teaching methods to use, attending faculty meetings, promoting the school, reading and researching, and living an exemplary life before the students.

Numbers of the respondents identified the same role tasks, yet there were a few tasks that were mentioned by only a few persons. In discussing the size a sampling group should be, Davis, Alexander, and Yelon wrote:

One of the best ways to determine the size of the sample is empirically. When the same points are repeated over and over again, you can assume that you have collected all of the relevant information.⁴

It therefore was concluded that the twelve interviews conducted provided an adequate and representative list of the role tasks performed by faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines.

Direct Observation of Faculty Members

This researcher had considerable opportunity to learn from direct observation what role tasks faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes performed. He served as a faculty colleague⁵ and as administrative dean for two and one half years at Immanuel Bible College and as a part-time faculty member at Bethel Bible Institute for two years. The close relational contacts of these positions afforded many opportunities to

⁴Ibid.

⁵He also served for six years on the faculty of Northwest College of the Assemblies of God at Kirkland, Washington, prior to receiving overseas appointment. He served as an adjunct professor at the Asian Theological Seminary and at the Far East Advanced School of Theology, both located at Manila.

observe faculty members at work and to participate actively in many of the same role tasks. This researcher also served as the education coordinator for the Assemblies of God Missionary Fellowship in the Philippines and had occasion to visit the campuses of eleven of the twelve different Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines. These contacts afforded many informal opportunities to observe faculty members in the process of carrying out their various role tasks.

While these observations involved several different faculty members, no effort was made to preserve impressions about particular individuals. Instead, composite opinions were formed. These general impressions seemed to be more representative of the actual situation than impressions based on individual particulars and specific situations would have been. It was these composite impressions that were recorded and reported. This approach also served to preserve the anonymity of the faculty members involved.

One of the observations that related to this study was that a holistic approach existed in the training of students who enroll at Assemblies of God Bible institutes. In most cases faculty members and their families lived on campus. Their homes generally were open to the students. There was considerable opportunity for teacher/student contacts outside the classroom. Close interpersonal relationships had developed. Students viewed their teachers with esteem and affection. Faculty members seemed to perceive the exposure of their private lives as part of their ministry, the modeling of the Christian life.

This openness to relational encounter was considered important to the fulfillment of the total teaching task. Filipinos, by cultural composition, tend to be more relationally oriented than do people whose cultural education has been American or Western. Personal interest and interpersonal

contact were highly valued in Filipino culture, so this accessibility of Bible school teachers to their students was essential in their cultural setting.

Another observation was that teachers and students of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines shared a common sense of spiritual identity. The teachers felt a divine call to Christian ministry and they shared this openly and freely. They also expected the majority of their students to have felt a similar divine call to ministry. Teachers tended to affirm those students who had felt a call to ministry, and they encouraged those who were uncertain about a call to ministry to pray and seek God for direction for their lives. Students who had not experienced a call to the ministry were not viewed as inferior to those who had, but every possible opportunity was arranged for them to encounter experiences where God could make known His will for their lives. This sense of common commitment to God for ministry bred a special camaraderie between teachers and students.

Some of the teachers who were observed tended to display excitement and enthusiasm for the schools in which they taught, for the students, and for the processes taking place. Others seemed less excited and enthusiastic. It was quite obvious that the students responded to the teachers in direct proportion to the teachers' enthusiasm. Students responded positively to such things as rapid and varied vocal delivery, wide-open eye contact, emotive facial expressions, frequent gestures and dramatic body movements, careful selection of descriptive words and terms and an over-all exuberance by their teachers. Those who were excited about the material elicited enthusiasm and excitement from the students. However, the students seemed bored and appeared to display little interest in classes where the teachers gave the impression that their teaching was routine business. It was obvious

that some of the teachers genuinely wanted to help the students learn, and it was equally apparent that the students were aware of this and that they responded positively to it. Even in the schools where English was the medium of instruction, students were at liberty to ask in their local dialects for explanations to points that were not understood, and the teachers frequently reverted to the dialect to ensure that the student truly learned. The teachers' excitement for the learning process and for the content of their particular courses seemed to be shared by the students.

Generally the students displayed a deep respect for their teachers, and they worked hard to please their teachers. When speaking or writing about their schools and their teachers, students frequently expressed feeling of devotion and allegiance and often referred to their teachers as "beloved." Students usually considered it a great honor to introduce their teachers to their parents and friends. A sense of pride in the teacher/student relationships seemed to run deep. Undoubtedly this resulted from the teachers' acceptance of the students.

The teachers fostered a sense of accomplishment and success. This frequently seemed to promote within the students a sense of self-worth, self-acceptance, and self-approval. Students seemed to feel good about themselves when they were affirmed by their teachers.

This researcher's observations of faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines revealed that an important aspect of the total instruction of the students was accomplished in the relationships that were built between the teachers and the students. These relationships were nurtured both in and outside the classroom. These warm human relationships appeared to result in positive motivation to learning and to affirmation of the students with a concomitant result being that the

students experienced positive feelings of self-worth and commitment to the work of ministry.

Observations of teachers performing the academic aspects of their work led to insights concerning the role tasks teachers performed and shed light on the tasks where they needed to improve their competencies. On numerous occasions this researcher watched faculty members struggle at the beginning of a term with tasks related to instructional planning. Great difficulty in specifying desired learning objectives was observed. Decision-making regarding what to include in a course and what to exclude was observed to be a difficult task. Syllabus preparation appeared to be a drudgery. Not only did the teachers experience difficulty in performing these tasks, but the products they produced were poor. Instructional objectives were poorly stated. Course syllabi were incomplete and carelessly prepared, and, in some cases, none were prepared.

Some teachers gave evidence of not understanding teaching-learning theory. Some had no idea of what to expect in terms of learning changes as the result of the teaching-learning encounter. Several, quite obviously, did not know how to design an instructional sequence. Not even one teacher was observed to plan consciously learning activities based on an understanding of the levels of learning of Bloom's taxonomy. Use of teaching methods was limited, often to the lecture method only. Hardly ever was a teacher observed to venture into participative and interactive techniques.

Observations showed that evaluating learning achievements was another problem area. Any relationship that may have existed between stated learning objectives and test items was purely happenstance.

The faculty members who were observed seemed to be more competent in the relational aspects of their tasks than they were in the academic aspects.

The impressions drawn from these direct observations served to help identify what role tasks were performed by faculty members and to help identify those areas of their role tasks in which the teachers lacked competence. By and large, the direct observations confirmed what was learned through the faculty interviews.

Task Profile

The information gathered through these faculty interviews and direct observations was compiled into a task profile showing what faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines do in the fulfillment of their roles. The same or similar activities were grouped together and organized to reflect tasks with from two to six sub-tasks each. Care was taken to preserve the insights gleaned from the contacts with the various faculty members, but no effort was made to retain their wordings. The resulting task profile, showing that what faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines do, was as follows:

Task Profile

WHAT BIBLE INSTITUTE TEACHERS DO

1. Plan and organize learning encounters
 - a. Specify learning objectives
 - b. Prepare an organized course syllabus
 - c. Prepare individual lesson plans
2. Prescribe learning activities
 - a. Determine what learners do to achieve objectives
 - b. Sequence activities into logical order
 - c. Motivate learner interaction with material
3. Manage classroom procedures
 - a. Invite learner interest in discipline and course
 - b. Generate material related to course content
 - c. Present material and/or supervise learner centered activities
4. Develop learning resources
 - a. Design models, paradigms, and/or outlines to aid learning
 - b. Prepare appropriate audio-visuals for courses taught
5. Evaluate learning achievements
 - a. Check student assignments
 - b. Prepare and administer tests and examinations
 - c. Interpret learning achievements from test results
 - d. Consider other signs of growth and progress
 - e. Assign student grades
6. Recommend learning resources
 - a. Inform library of current materials related to teaching area
 - b. Help librarian evaluate and prioritize purchases
7. Recommend academic equipment, media, and materials
 - a. Call attention to need for such related to teaching area
 - b. Provide expertise concerning particular needed functions and quality standards acceptable
8. Model the Christian life
 - a. Maintain a growing Christian experience
 - b. Seek to yield more fully to the control of the Holy Spirit
 - c. Maintain personal devotional life
 - d. Participate in worship services and church activities
 - e. Seek to maintain Christian family relationships
 - f. Maintain Christ-honoring relationships with all
9. Help formulate curriculum and academic policies
 - a. Attend and participate in faculty meetings
 - b. Serve on standing and/or special committees as assigned

10. Model his teaching discipline
 - a. At school
 - b. In the church community
11. Support cocurricular and extra-curricular activities
 - a. Attend chapel services regularly
 - b. Minister in chapel as assigned
 - c. Participate in Christian service program
 - d. Cooperate with such programs as missions convention, etc.
12. Counsel and advise, formally and informally
 - a. Perform assigned counseling duties at registration
 - b. Counsel students about personal concerns
 - c. Refer cases beyond own competence to more qualified person
 - d. Serve as class or interest group advisor as assigned
13. Share responsibility for students' spiritual formation
 - a. Exert personal influence
 - b. Guide in spiritual matters when possible
 - c. Live an exemplary life worth emulating
 - d. Nurture and supports the faith of others in every possible way
14. Share responsibility for institutional public relations
 - a. Promote the school's welfare and good will
 - b. Represent the school at functions as requested
 - c. Recruit students when possible
 - d. Solicit funds for the school as possible
15. Inform the constituency relative to their teaching area
 - a. Write for publications
 - b. Speak or participate in conventions and workshops
 - c. Advise church leaders as requested
 - d. Participate in local church ministry
16. Lead students to develop abilities and maximize potentials
 - a. Challenge students to pursue excellence
 - b. Require presentable, high-quality work
 - c. Sets example of rigorous self-discipline
 - d. Share new discoveries regularly
17. Relate meaningfully to all sectors
 - a. Community at large
 - b. Constituency
 - c. Board of Control
 - d. Colleagues
 - e. Students
18. Research and keep current in teaching area and related disciplines
 - a. Read and/or review books
 - b. Read journals and periodicals
 - c. Attend professional conferences as possible
 - d. Maintain professional memberships and associations as possible

After this task profile was developed, it was shown to the Reverend Eliezar Javier, Academic Dean at Bethel Bible Institute, and to the Reverend Mrs. Grace Artuza, Academic Dean at Immanuel Bible College. Both affirmed that the task description was a fair representation of what the faculty members of their respective institutions did in their work. Mrs. Artuza said: "It seems to me that the task profile I examined fairly and accurately represents what I do and what I expect from those who serve on the faculty I direct."⁵ This profile was therefore accepted as the basis for the continued development of this project.

Identifying Teaching Tasks

It can be seen in the above task profile that a teacher's job involves many different tasks. That all of these directly or indirectly affected the students learning was taken for granted. In this respect all of these could have been considered teaching tasks. But in another sense, the teachers' role included teaching and other role tasks. The particular concerns of this study were those aspects which related strictly to the planning and execution of student instruction. Therefore it was necessary to identify from the eighteen tasks those tasks which specifically related to teaching.

Items numbered one through five of the task profile were identified as being most related to teaching per se. These included: (1) planning and organizing learning encounters, (2) prescribing learning activities, (3) managing classroom procedures, (4) developing learning resources, (5) evaluating learning achievements. The competencies needed to perform these tasks were the specific concerns of the remainder of this study.

⁵Interview with Mrs. Grace Artuza, Academic Dean, Immanuel Bible College, Cebu City, Philippines, 15 July, 1982.

Identifying Felt Weaknesses in Teachers

To gather the data for this part of the study, two questionnaires were circulated. One was circulated among twenty faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines, the other was circulated among 118 students. Both of these were circulated while the researcher was not in the Philippines. All questionnaires were sent to an associate,⁶ resident in the Philippines, who distributed them to the appropriate officers of the designated schools. Faculty members from Luzon Bible Institute, Bethel Bible Institute, Immanuel Bible College, and Zion Bible Institute participated in this survey. Students from these same four institutions and the Assemblies of God Bible Institute of Mindinao participated in the student survey. The officers of the various schools returned the marked questionnaires to the assistant who returned the lot to the researcher.

Survey of Faculty Members

The questionnaire for faculty members⁷ was comprised of four typewritten pages. The first page contained cover instructions, the second asked questions of relevant personal background data of the respondents, and pages three and four contained twenty-five statements structured as a Likert scale⁸ with five options for the respondents to express their degree of agreement with each statement: strongly agree; agree, but not strongly; undecided; disagree; strongly disagree. On all statements except numbers eight and twenty, the option "strongly agree" meant feelings of

⁶Miss Ruth Waldenmaier, an Assemblies of God missionary who teaches at Faith Academy, located in suburban Metro Manila.

⁷This questionnaire is displayed as Appendix C.

⁸Rensis Likert, "A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes," Archives of Psychology 140 (June 1932): 1-55.

great weakness and need for much improvement in competencies. Likewise, "strongly disagree" implied feelings of well developed competencies and little need for improvement. Questions eight and twenty were structured in such a way that the responses had to be reversed to equate with the others. With twenty persons responding to twenty-five statements, there was a total of 500 responses. After reversing statements eight and twenty, these 500 responses were distributed as shown in table 1 and the complete distribution is shown in appendix D.

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES

Strongly Agree	Agree, but not Strongly	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
223	181	34	55	4

Based on this distribution, it was concluded that the faculty members who participated in this survey expressed feelings of overall competency deficiency and need for improvement. With 404 responses strongly agreeing and agreeing compared to fifty-nine disagreeing and strongly disagreeing, it would appear that the feelings of incompetency on the matters included in the survey ran quite high.

Nine males and eleven females participated in this survey.

Comparison of male responses with female responses revealed no substantial differences in results. Six of the faculty members had taught one to three years, three between four and six years, two between seven and nine years, five between ten and fifteen years, one between sixteen and twenty years and two had taught more than twenty years. Years of teaching experience appeared to make no appreciable difference in the results of this survey.

Teachers throughout the experience range indicated feelings of weakness and a need for improvement in teaching competencies.

The statements of this survey were designed to gain information about various aspects of the teaching task. Table 2 shows which statements related to which aspects.

TABLE 2
STATEMENTS RELATED TO ASPECTS OF TEACHING

<u>Statement #</u>	<u>Aspect of Teaching</u>
1 - 2 - 3	Planning and Organizing Learning Encounters
4 - 10 - 22 - 25	Prescribing Learning Activities
6 - 7 - 12	Managing Classroom Procedures
8 - 9	Teaching Methodology
11 - 21 - 24	Application of Content
14	Developing Learning Resources
13 - 15 - 16 - 17	Teacher/Learner Relationships (includes role modeling)
18 - 23	Testing and Evaluation
5 - 19	Knowledge of Educational Theory
20	Assessment of Own Competencies

The teachers strongly expressed a need to improve their competencies in planning and organizing learning encounters. These statements dealt with selecting what the students should learn, with formulating well-stated learning goals and with syllabus preparation. The teachers expressed stronger feelings on the statements about academic decision making and objective formulation than they did about the statement involving syllabus preparation. Yet their feelings of need for help on all three of these were significant.

Prescribing what the learners do to achieve the learning objectives is an integral part of the teacher's role task. The statements dealing with this aspect included such matters as giving assignments which directly relate to the course and which facilitate learning, leading learners to discover truth for themselves, perceiving relationships between what is known and new material being taught, and exposing learners in a fair way to views different from the teacher's own views. By adding the responses for the four statements dealing with this category, it was discovered that sixty-five out of eighty possible responses expressed a feeling of some need for improvement of their competencies with thirty-two of these expressing strong feelings and thirty-three expressing feelings of need.

The teachers who participated in this survey expressed feelings of need for help in developing their competencies in matters related to prescribing learning activities. They expressed the strongest feelings related to giving appropriate assignments and leading students to discover truth for themselves. Strong feelings of need in this area might well have been expected since much Filipino education emphasizes the mastery of information rather than the ability to reason.

The three statements dealing with managing classroom procedures dealt with such matters as proper utilization of each class period, involving the students actively in the learning process, and making the classes interesting enough to motivate students to want to study the material in more depth. Nineteen, sixteen, and eighteen out of the twenty respondees felt need for improvement in the respective aspects of this area. On each of these, ten strongly felt need for improvement of their competencies, and the balance felt the need but not so strongly. There was little doubt that managing classroom procedures was an area of the teacher's task where the participants

of this survey felt need for improvement of their competencies.

Two statements were made concerning the use of teaching methods. Statement eight dealt with the teacher's feelings when students asked questions for which the teacher did not immediately know the answer. Twelve out of the twenty strongly disagreed that such a situation would prove embarrassing and threatening, and seven indicated disagreement but not strongly. Perhaps this was a difficult statement for the teachers to respond to in honesty. One participant, indicating strong disagreement with this statement, commented at the end that to date he or she had not experienced a situation where a student had asked a question for which the teacher did not have a ready answer, but admitted that such a situation indeed would be embarrassing. This one respondent's honesty caused some question about the responses to this statement. Since the statement dealt with personal feelings, it may have limited value in informing a teacher training program.

The other statement dealt with knowing which teaching methods were most appropriate for the subjects being taught. Fifteen out of twenty respondents indicated feeling a need to improve their competencies in this area, seven strongly felt this, and eight felt it but not strongly. So the respondents felt a need to improve their competencies in teaching methods.

Three statements involved application of content to the students' lives. One focused on motivating students to apply the material to their lives and ministries, another on assigning learning activities which are similar to what the students will do after graduation, and the other on applying the material to solve practical life problems. Responses to the three of these were nearly the same. Perhaps the respondents' feelings of competency in this area were not quite as strong as on some of the other statements. Yet when combining the responses that were in strong agreement

with those merely in agreement, there was about the same number of responses as on the other statements. Again, the teachers who participated in this survey felt their competencies in applying the content of their courses to their students' personal lives needed improvement.

One statement centered in developing learning resources, specifically visual resources to reinforce the lessons. Seven strongly agreed with the statement, and eight agreed with it. It may be possible that not recognizing the value of using visual reinforcement could lead to not feeling a need to prepare visual reinforcements. When the "strongly agree" and "agree" categories are combined, fifteen out of the twenty felt need to improve their competencies.

Since teacher/student relationships and role modeling are such important aspects of the teaching task, four statements dealt with this. One statement focused on the teachers' personal interest in the students, another focused on the teachers' own excitement for the courses as motivating the students to desire to learn more about the subject; another dealt with expressing the qualities of the Christian life for the students to imitate; and one centered in modeling a proper relationship with the Lord. Only five felt strong agreement that they needed to take more personal interest in their students, and another twelve felt agreement with that. Significant numbers of the respondents felt they needed to improve their competencies in relating to their students and in living lives worthy of emulation.

Teachers are required to test student performance, evaluate learning progress, and assign grades which indicate the progress made. Two statements were designed to learn how competent the teachers felt regarding this task. One dealt with test construction and the other with interpreting evaluation

to assign grades. The participants showed greater agreement that they needed help in test construction than they did with assigning grades. Many Filipino teachers tend to grade by a straight percentage system based on a criterion based reference. This may account for the fact that their feeling of need for help with grading was not quite as strong. Yet on both statements there is sufficient feeling of need for help to suggest that a teacher training program should not ignore this area.

Two statements focused on the teachers' feelings concerning their knowledge of educational theory. One of these dealt with planning learning experiences which are built on an understanding of human learning psychology, and the other was concerned with the need to be brought up to date with current trends in education. On the first of these two, ten respondents strongly agreed that they needed improvement, and six agreed. On the other one, fifteen strongly agreed, and five agreed. This was the only statement for which all twenty agreed or strongly agreed. The teachers who participated in this study felt real need to improve their competencies in knowledge of educational theory.

The one remaining statement centered in the faculty members' assessment of their own competencies as compared to university professors. Only one strongly agreed with this statement, and only three agreed with it. Five, the largest number of any statement, were uncertain, and the eleven remaining responses disagreed or strongly disagreed. It seemed evident that the faculty members who responded to this survey perceived themselves as not having developed competencies equal to others who practice the teaching profession at a similar academic level.

By way of summary, then, the faculty members who responded to this study felt a need to improve their competencies in every area sampled by

this questionnaire. There was not one area in which a majority of the participants expressed feelings of adequacy regarding their teaching competencies.

Survey of Students

The questionnaire for students⁹ was comprised of four typewritten pages. On the first page, cover instructions were given; the second page was used to gather personal background data about the respondents, and pages three and four contained thirty-two statements structured on a Likert scale with five options for the respondents to express how often they felt their teachers did the things identified in the statements. Five choices, (1) almost always, (2) often, (3) sometimes, (4) seldom, and (5) almost never, were given, and the respondents were to encircle the one which best expressed their feelings.

After the original instrument was prepared, two Filipinos,¹⁰ one male and one female, completed the questionnaire. Both of these had attended Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines and had been in classes taught by the researcher. Both of these also had enrolled at Northwest College of the Assemblies of God at Kirkland, Washington. The male had graduated from that institution, and the female was a student there when she completed the questionnaire. The intended purpose of having these two complete the questionnaire was to ensure that it was free from terms that might be misunderstood when read by those of Filipino culture and thus was culturally relevant to Filipinos.

⁹This questionnaire is exhibited as appendix E.

¹⁰These were Mr. Jonathan Cubing, alumnus of Immanuel Bible College, and Miss Merriam Cueto, alumna of Bethel Bible Institute.

After they completed the questionnaire, the researcher met personally with each of these and went over each statement, item-by-item, to ensure that they had understood the statement as it was intended and that their responses represented their true feelings. Slight rewording of a couple of statements was done as a result of this procedure. The responses of these two persons were not included in the tabulations reported below.

A total of 118 students from Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines completed the questionnaire. Forty-eight of these were males, sixty-three were females, and seven failed to indicate their sex. Forty-three of the respondents were second year students, forty-five were in their third year, and twenty-nine were fourth year students. Since first year students would have had less than one year of exposure to the teachers, their responses would have been based on limited experience. Therefore no first year students were included.

All except one of the schools represented in this study offered three year programs leading to the diploma in Bible. The one exception was Immanuel Bible College, a four year institution granting the Bachelor of Christian Ministries degree. All twenty-nine of the fourth year students included in this study were from this institution.

All statements except two were structured in such a way that a one rating meant that the students perceived the teachers as almost always performing the task indicated in the statement. The other responses progressed downward to a five rating, which meant that the students perceived their teachers as almost never performing the task. Hence a one rating would imply that the teachers had already developed their competencies, and a five would imply they needed a great deal of improvement of competencies in that area. The two statements which were exceptions were numbers ten and

fifteen. These were worded in such a way that the responses must be reversed to be compared with the others. This was done, and all tabulations in this report reflect that fact. With 118 persons responding to thirty-two statements, there was a total of 3776 responses. The sum of the distribution of these responses is shown in table 3.¹¹ The total of the sums shown in table 3 is 3751. The discrepancy between that and the total possible responses is explained by the fact that some respondents failed to mark one or more statements or marked more than one response, thus rendering the response unacceptable.

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES

Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never
844	1,440	1,067	316	84

In processing the data from this survey, each answer was tabulated; then all responses for each question were averaged. Finally, the sums for all thirty-two statements averaged, and that average was 2.29275. This was interpreted to mean the students gave their teachers a rating slightly better than half way between one and five.

Using the average of the sums, male responses were compared with female responses. The male average was 2.32757, and the female average reflected a slightly higher evaluation at 2.27895. The difference was considered to be only slight, and it was concluded that there was no substantial difference in male and female responses.

¹¹The full distribution of responses is exhibited in appendix E.

Twenty three respondents were in the sixteen through nineteen year old bracket. Their average rating was 2.4822. Forty respondents were in the twenty through twenty-two year old bracket, and their average was 2.2624. Thirty-one respondents were in the twenty-three through twenty-five year old bracket, and their average rating was 2.2807. Sixteen were in the twenty-six through thirty year old age, and their average rating was 2.0095. It was observed that the averages of the two middle brackets were very similar, and there was some difference between the younger and older groups. The younger group rated their teachers somewhat lower than did the older group. Even this difference is not large, and so it was concluded that the age of the respondents made no important difference in their responses to the questionnaire.

Comparison by schooling background revealed that fourteen respondents had not finished high school, fifty-one had graduated from high school as their highest level of schooling prior to enrolling at the institution where they were enrolled when participating in the survey, and fifty had attended another Bible institute, a college, or university prior to enrolling at the Bible institute. The average of the group who had not completed high school was 2.1784, the high school graduate group was 2.3450, and the post-secondary group was 2.2925. Again, the differences did not seem meaningful.

Another comparison was done based on the respondents' academic grades. Grades given by academic institutions in the Philippines differ greatly from those given by American institutions, 1.0 being the highest (compared to an A or 4.0 in American schooling), 2.0 being considered an average grade, and 3.0 being the lowest passing grade. Fractions of these whole numbers were also used, 1.25, 1.50, 1.75, 2.25, 2.50, and 2.75.

Sixteen respondents indicated that their grade point average (GPA) was 1.50 or better. Their average rating of the teachers was 2.2930. Forty-six indicated their GPA was 2.0, and their average rating was 2.199. Twenty-nine indicated that their GPA was 2.25 or below. Their average ratings of their teachers was 2.3535. It was observed that the respondents with the lowest GPAs tended to give the teachers the lowest ratings. The average students, however, gave the teachers higher rating than did the respondents with higher GPAs. Yet the differences in these ratings did not seem to affect significantly the results of this survey.

Another comparison was done based on the students' years of attendance. Forty-three second year students participated and rated their teachers at a 2.4610 average. Forty-five of the participants were in their third year, and they rated their teachers at an average of 2.2036. There were twenty-nine participants who were fourth year students, and their average teacher rating was 2.1493. It was observed that the ratings of the teachers progressively were higher the more advanced the students were. Yet from 2.46 to 2.15 did not seem to be a really important difference.

Neither sex, age, academic background, grade point average, nor year in school made an important difference in the results of the study.

As was true on the survey of faculty members, the statements were structured to survey various aspects of the teaching task. These are identified on table 4.

Table 4

Statements Related to Aspects of Teaching

<u>Statement #</u>	<u>Aspect of Teaching</u>
1 - 2 - 3 - 8	Planning and Organizing Learning Encounters
4 - 12 - 25	Prescribing Learning Activities
6 - 7 - 9 - 25	Managing Classroom Procedures
10 - 11 - 13	Teaching Methodology
14 - 24	Application of Content
21 - 27	Testing and Evaluation
19	Developing Learning Resources
16 - 17 - 18 - 20 - 22	Teacher/Learner Relationships (includes role modeling)
5 - 23 - 31	Knowledge of Educational Theory
28 - 30	Assessment of Teacher Competencies
25 - 26 - 32	Developing Thinking Processes

To help gain a perspective on how the students rated their teachers' competencies in each of these areas, the averages of the statements dealing with each aspect were averaged. The results of this process are exhibited in table 5. It was observed that the ratings of each of the categories fell within a reasonably close range. Planning and organizing learning encounters rated highest, and developing learning resources was lowest. All others were quite close in rating.

Comparison of the students' ratings of their teachers' competencies with the teachers' ratings of their own competencies shows that the students rated their teachers higher than the teachers rated themselves. While this study does not provide data to analyze the difference, one possible explanation may be that the teacher/learner interpersonal relationships were so

positive that the students felt good about their teachers and were therefore unable to recognize their teachers' weaknesses. Another possible explanation may center in the high regard which students in general in the Philippines have for teachers.

Table 5

Averages of Ratings of Aspects of Teaching

<u>Aspect of Teaching</u>	<u>Average Rating</u> ¹²
Planning and Organizing Learning Encounters	1.9430
Prescribing Learning Activities	2.0692
Managing Classroom Procedures	2.2879
Teaching Methodology	2.3616
Applications of Content	2.1792
Testing and Evaluation	2.2373
Developing Learning Resources	3.0339
Teacher/Learner Relationships (including role modeling)	2.3582
Knowledge of Educational Theory	2.4633
Assessment of Teachers Competence	2.2826
Developing Thinking Processes	2.2900

What does seem to be significant from this comparison is that the teachers themselves voiced feelings of incompetencies in every aspect related to their teaching ask. The fact that teachers felt a need for improving their competencies seemed to be justification to help them do so. And further, since the data suggested that the feelings of inadequacies by

¹²The highest possible rating was 1.0 and the lowest possible rating was 5.0. A rating of 3.0 was mid-point between the highest and lowest possible ratings.

the teachers covered all areas of the teaching task, the in-service teacher training program that was to result should seek to help the teachers improve in all areas related to their teaching task.

Conclusion

In the studies reported in this chapter, the role tasks performed by faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines were discovered. The studies made it possible to identify those role tasks which were related to the teaching function. From the studies, it, also, was revealed that the faculty members surveyed experienced felt weaknesses in their competencies to perform the role tasks related to the teaching function.

It was concluded, therefore, that a training program should be designed to help a selected group of faculty members develop the teaching competencies essential to the performance of their role tasks. It further was concluded that this training program should provide opportunities to develop competencies related to: (1) understanding teaching-learning theory, (2) designing instruction including specifying learning objectives, planning learning sequences to achieve the objectives, and syllabus preparation, (3) teaching methodology, and (4) evaluating learning achievement including preparing test items and computing grades.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS OF FIELD STUDY

The field study portion of this project involved a two-week seminar led by this researcher. This seminar was designed to help a selected group of faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines develop and improve the teaching competencies found to be essential to the performance of their teaching role tasks. The purpose of this fifth chapter is to report the results of the field study. It is intended to describe the advance preparations, to report about the seminar, and to present the evaluations that were made.

Advance Preparations

The advance preparations for the seminar included choosing the location, selecting and inviting the participants, and developing the materials, including the registration and evaluation forms.

Seminar Location

The site chosen for the seminar was the campus of Immanuel Bible College located on Banawa Hill at Cebu City. Cebu City is centrally located in the Philippine archipelago and is easily accessible by plane, inter-island passenger ship, and bus service. It was known that the college had adequate facilities for housing and food services for the participants. The campus also offered a comfortable environment for intensive learning, and the administration of the college was willing to accommodate the seminar by

making the facilities available. Since this researcher had previously served Immanuel Bible College as its Administrative Dean, the environment and personnel were already well-known. This served to facilitate the seminar.

On the I. B. C. campus, the specific venue for the seminar was the Conference Room in the Edwin Brengle Administration Building. The room was comfortable, well ventilated, properly lighted, and equipped with two large ceiling fans. It offered a conducive environment for serious study and learning in that it was located away from the areas where the main functions of everyday campus life were conducted. A table, measuring approximately three feet by two feet, and a chair were provided for each participant. The room contained a large chalkboard, a projection screen, and an overhead projector. All seminar activities took place in this room.

Seminar Participants

Selection of the persons to be invited to participate in the seminar was considered to be an important issue. It was determined early in the planning that all participants would be Filipino nationals and that no expatriate missionaries would be invited. It also was determined that the group should be between eight and twelve persons, with the expectation that unplanned circumstances might prevent one or two from attending. There was a desire for the group to include both males and females; younger, middle-aged, and older persons; some teachers with few and others with more years of teaching experience; some from schools in different geographical and dialect regions of the country; and that some teachers come from the jointly owned schools and some from the schools which were district owned.¹

¹Appendix A shows which schools these were.

With these factors in mind, a list of twelve possible participants was drafted.² The individuals were hand-picked, and there was no attempt at random selection or achieving any kind of balance. A major consideration in the choice of the individuals was the likelihood that the seminar would benefit their teaching ministry. All of those chosen were personally known to this researcher with the exception of two who were chosen through the recommendations of other persons acquainted with these individuals and with the nature and intent of this project.

A letter of invitation to be a participant in the seminar was sent to the twelve faculty members selected.³ All except two of these persons accepted the invitation and attended the seminar.⁴ Alternates were selected to replace the two who had declined.⁵ A follow-up letter also was sent to each person who was to be a participant.⁶

The group included six males and six females. Eight were married, and four were single women. Three were members of the faculty of Immanuel Bible College, three of Zion Bible Institute, two of Bethel Bible Institute, two of Luzon Bible Institute, and one each from South Central Bible Institute and the Assemblies of God Bible Institute of Mindinao.

The teaching experience of the group ranged from three to fifteen years. One had taught for fifteen years, one for thirteen years, one for

²Their names and addresses were exhibited as appendix G.

³A sample of this letter was exhibited as appendix H.

⁴The two exceptions were Mrs. Lydia Bernales Wilson, who declined because pregnancy made it impossible for her to travel from Manila to Cebu, and Rev. Fred Raceles, who had terminated his service as a faculty member.

⁵Miss Gelita Italia was chosen in place of Mrs. Wilson and Mrs. Lydia Lucena replaced Mr. Raceles.

⁶A sample of this letter was exhibited as appendix I.

eleven years, one for seven years, three for six years, one for five years, and four for three years. These years of teaching experience averaged 6.75 years. In addition to their teaching responsibilities, seven also held administrative positions in their schools.

The choice of the individuals to participate in the seminar was vindicated once the people came together. The individuals quickly formed into a cohesive group. Fellowship was freely exchanged, even though some of the individuals had not met each other prior to the seminar. Interpersonal interactions took place and dynamic relationships developed. A special sense of camaraderie existed because the participants saw themselves as fraternally sharing an important and valuable career mission: preparing others for Christian service. Various participants came to refer to the other participants as "my classmates," a highly valued relationship in Filipino society.

Seminar Materials

The basic material used in the seminar was an auto-instructional course which was designed and written for the seminar by this researcher. This course was supplemented by assigned and collateral readings selected from a list prepared by the researcher.

This basic course was titled, "Developing Essential Teaching Competencies: An In-Service Training Seminar for Bible Institute Faculty Members."⁷ It was 119 typewritten pages in length and was composed of fifteen lessons organized around five unit themes, as was shown in the Table of Contents of the course. The material was bound in red loose-leaf notebooks. Index tabs were inserted in the notebooks to divide each unit of

⁷This material was exhibited as appendix J.

material. Each participant received his own copy of the notebook and a packet of looseleaf paper for notetaking.

Earlier in this study it was found that the proposed training course should provide opportunities for the participants to develop competencies related to: (1) understanding teaching-learning theory; (2) designing instruction, including specifying objectives, planning learning sequences to achieve the objectives, and syllabus preparation; (3) teaching methodology; and (4) evaluating learning achievement, including preparing tests and computing grades. These findings shaped the content of this training seminar. The course was composed of five units dealing with each of the above four areas and an introductory unit dealing with the importance of Bible institute teaching and the need for competency in the task.

Three organizing principles guided the development of the seminar material. These were: (1) the seminar should develop the competencies essential to the performance of faculty members' expected role tasks; (2) it should develop the competencies needed to function as teachers in the context of Filipino culture; and (3) it should provide opportunities for appropriate practice of the concepts being taught.

The third design element which shaped the seminar material was the performance objectives needed for teaching. This meant that the seminar should seek to develop the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed to teach competently.

Figure 1 showed the curricular design of the course and the relationships of the content elements, organizing principles, and the performance objectives.

FIGURE 1

CURRICULAR DESIGN OF SEMINAR MATERIALS

<u>PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES</u>	Knowledge					
	Attitudes					
	Skills					
<u>ORGANIZING PRINCIPLES</u>	Role Task Expectations					
	Filipino Cultural Context					
	Appropriate Practice					
<u>CONTENT ELEMENTS</u>	Bible Institute Teaching	Learning Theory	Instructional Design	Teaching Methodology	Evaluation of Learning Achievement	

The material also was structured to provide learning experiences throughout the six levels of Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain.⁸

The individual lessons were designed on an auto-instructional model. Each lesson included an organizer, the instruction, and a conclusion or practice assignment. The lesson organizers included a statement of the main point of the lesson, a listing of the learning objectives stated in performance terms specifying what the learner should be able to do after

⁸Bloom, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives 62-200 passim.

studying the lesson, and an introductory paragraph designed to focus attention on the content of the lesson.

The instruction included explanatory text with appropriate learning reinforcement activities interspersed. Immediate reinforcement of the correct responses was built into the lessons. The lessons were designed to lead the learners through the necessary enroute objectives that led to the achievement of the terminal objectives.

The assignments directed the learners to perform tasks that were a part of their overall role tasks. They led the learner through the process of specifying learning objectives for a course he or she taught at his or her school. Other assignments included designing a learning sequence, preparing a course syllabus, and preparing lesson plans. The assignments were planned to help the learners learn by doing under guidance and supervision.

To supplement the basic course of the seminar, a reading list of eighteen relevant books was compiled. This reading list was included in the notebook as the bibliography for the course.⁹ Not only was the list of resources compiled, but the researcher gathered together copies of all the expected items. As a part of the reading, the participants were assigned to read Symonds' chapter titled "Learning is Reacting,"¹⁰ and at least fifty pages from LeRoy Ford's book Design for Teaching and Training. The participants chose the rest of their reading based on their own interests.

Three articles from Christianity Today also were assigned to be read by all participants. These articles were: "The Bible College Story: Past, Present, and Future" by Kenneth O. Gangel, November 7, 1980; "Bible Colleges

⁹This bibliography was exhibited at the end of appendix J.

¹⁰Percival M. Symonds, What Education Has to Learn from Psychology, 3rd ed. (New York: Columbia University, 1960).

and Institutes: "Chronicling the Vision of a Century" by George Sweeting, February, 5, 1982; and "To Build a Better Bible College" February 5, 1982. Photocopies of these articles were made in advance of the seminar so each participant could immediately proceed with the assignment.

Other advance preparations included preparing the registration forms, the pre-test/post-test, and the evaluation forms. The seminar leader arrived at the seminar location at Cebu City four days before the seminar was scheduled to begin. This gave opportunity to ensure that all of the on-site preparations were made and the seminar could begin on schedule.

In-Service Training Seminar

The proposed in-service training seminar was held the two weeks of August 20-31, 1984, with the twelve invited participants in attendance. Sessions were conducted Monday through Friday each week. Each day's scheduled activities began at 7:45 A.M. and ended at 5:00 P.M. Two breaks were observed, a mid-morning recess from 10:30 A.M. to 10:45 A.M. and a lunch and siesta break from 12:15 P.M. to 2:00 P.M. Evening hours from 7:00 P.M. to 9:30 P.M. were designated for reading and private study. Often the participants remained in the conference room later than 9:30 P.M. to continue their reading. The period from 7:45 A.M. to 8:30 A.M. was scheduled for devotions and spiritual inspiration. The seminar leader directed this time on the opening morning, and the various participants led it the other mornings.

Opening Day

On the opening morning, the first activity after the devotional time was registration. Each participant completed a prepared registration form. The form was used to gather some very basic data about the participants,

including their educational background and teaching experience.¹¹ Space was reserved on the form to record the participant's attendance and completion of the expected assignments. All participants attended each session, except one person who, due to a transportation delay, arrived late the opening morning. Every participant completed all of the seminar assignments.

Following the registration period, the seminar leader spent forty-five minutes giving an overview of the professional project that had led to the seminar. Steps that had already been completed to that time were detailed, and the relationship of the seminar to the total project was explained. Benefits expected from the seminar to the researcher and to the participants were discussed. Grateful appreciation to the participants for their commitments to the success of the seminar was expressed by the leader.

At this early point in the seminar, a pre-test was administered. The purpose of this test was to provide a basis for determining how much cognitive change resulted from the seminar. The test consisted of 140 true-false items appearing on eight typewritten pages.¹² The statements covered important facts and concepts which would be taught in the seminar. Seventy of the statements were true, and seventy were not true. The first person to finish the pre-test completed it in thirty minutes. The others took between forty and fifty-eight minutes to complete it.

Out of the possible 140 responses, the participant who scored the highest got 118 correct, and the one who scored the lowest got 103 correct. The distribution of right responses was shown on table 6.

¹¹This form was exhibited as appendix K.

¹²This pre-test was exhibited as appendix L.

TABLE 6

DISTRIBUTION OF RIGHT RESPONSES

SCORE	118	117	115	112	111	109	104	103
No. of Participants	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	3

The scores of all males averaged was 107.33 right responses, and the scores of all females averaged was 111. The slight difference seemed inconsequential.

A comparison was also made of the frequency of incorrect responses. Of the 140 statements on the test, only two statements were missed by all twelve participants, while fifty-one statements were correctly marked by all twelve of the participants. Table 7 showed the frequency of missed responses grouped in intervals.¹³

TABLE 7

FREQUENCY OF INCORRECT RESPONSES

Number Who Responded Incorrectly	Frequency
0	51
1 - 2	36
3 - 4	20
5 - 6 - 7	16
8 - 9	11
10 - 11	4
12	2
N = 140	140

¹³A complete frequency tally was exhibited as appendix M.

The statements which eight or more participants marked incorrectly were examined to see if something in the statement may have been unclear or if an area of weakness among the majority had been found. Seventeen statements were examined. It was found that a correct response to three of these was dependent on knowing the definition and particular usage of a term that appeared in the statement. One statement was worded in a way that may have been misleading. It was believed that the other thirteen were sufficiently clear to conclude that the respondents truly missed answering them correctly rather than having misunderstood the statement.

Generally, the participants scored higher on the pre-test than might have been expected in view of the teachers' feelings of incompetency recorded earlier in this study. Yet, each participant missed enough responses to show that there was room for the improvement which the seminar had been planned to facilitate.

The above described activities were completed before the scheduled mid-morning break. Coffee, tea, and refreshments were served each morning at this break.

Following the mid-morning break, a period of forty-five minutes was devoted to group participation. During the break, the following problem was written on the chalkboard: "What needs or problems do you face in your teaching which you hope to have met during this seminar?" The major intended purpose of this activity was to ensure that the seminar as planned truly would deal with actual and relevant felt needs. These needs had been studied earlier as already reported in this paper, but this provided additional and more current input. In this sense, it served to verify what had already been learned.

Although not as important, another intended purpose was to lead the

participants to identify their needs and problems with the hope that they would recognize more readily the helps which had been built into the seminar's instruction.

The session was conducted as a brainstorming session. As the participants voiced their problems, each need was written on the chalkboard. There was no analysis or attempt at finding solutions--only a listing of their problems and needs. Analysis and application were planned for the last day of the seminar.

Since this was the first interaction activity of the seminar, participation began rather slowly, but every participant became involved before the session ended. Not all offered new insights, some only confirmed that they too faced the problems mentioned by others. The list of needs that resulted seemed to be representative and shared by several, if not all, in the group. The following nineteen needs were listed:

1. How to plan and organize instruction that works
2. How to write learning objectives
3. How to cope with the readiness gap when you have students in your classes whose educational backgrounds are very different
4. How to choose appropriate textbooks, especially when given the problems of distance from sources, costs, and import restrictions
5. Inadequate resources for teachers to prepare properly for classes and to stay current in their disciplines
6. How to select what materials should be included and what should not be included in a course
7. How to teach effectively when necessity requires that you teach in a diversity of disciplines
8. What is a fair teaching load?
9. How to go about preparing to teach a course or a lesson
10. How to manage the classroom experience and learning environment to promote good learning

11. What are the best methods and how to choose the best ones for your courses
12. Would standardizing courses between schools be desirable? If so, how could it be done?
13. How to have good teacher-to-teacher and teacher-to-administration relationships
14. How to write good test questions
15. How to ensure appropriate sampling of content in exams
16. How to establish validity and reliability of exams
17. How to test in the various domains and levels of learning
18. How to interpret test results
19. How to grade fairly, including what grading systems are best

It was observed that many, but not all, of the problems the participants listed had already been anticipated. Material that would help solve most of the problems had been included in the seminar course.

The final forty-five minutes of the opening morning were used by the leader presenting a lecture on "Bible Institute Teaching." The lecture stressed a theology of the teaching ministry, the importance of this ministry, and the need for developing teaching competencies, as well as knowledge of the content of the subject. The outline for the lecture was written on the chalkboard, and the participants wrote notes during the presentation.

A syllabus was prepared for the seminar. It described the seminar; gave the learning objectives and objective indicators; listed the materials, requirements, and methods for the seminar; and explained about the exams, the outline, and the bibliography.¹⁴ The syllabus was included in the red notebooks along with the seminar lessons. Since syllabus preparation was part of the instruction, this syllabus was intended to serve as a model for

¹⁴This syllabus was exhibited in this paper as appendix N.

the participants to follow in completing this part of the assigned work, as well as a reference for future use.

After the lunch and siesta break, the red notebooks were distributed, and from 2:00 P.M. to 2:45 P.M. the participants worked through lesson one. Because of the way the materials were structured, each participant proceeded at his or her own pace and was able to hurry through familiar material and to concentrate more on less familiar material.

The time from 2:45 P.M. to 3:30 P.M. was used to read the articles from Christianity Today, which were listed earlier in this chapter. A discussion-interaction, led by the seminar leader, followed from 3:30 P.M. to 4:15 P.M. During this time the participants identified what they considered to be the important information in lesson one and in the reading of the articles. Several participants expressed a new appreciation for their work and a renewed desire to improve their performance. As the first day progressed, an increased excitement for the seminar and a deepening resolve to get as much as possible from it was observed on the part of most of the participants. There was a general feeling that "This is just what I have been needing."

From 4:15 P.M. to 5:00 P.M., the leader introduced the second unit of material with a lecture presentation on "Basics of Learning Theory." The main focus of this presentation centered in the concept that learners learn through personal involvement and interaction with the material. The lecture also stressed the fact that the teacher's task was to facilitate learning by planning and directing instructional opportunities and activities which guide the learners in their interaction with the material.

For the first evening's reading, the chapter "Learning is Reacting" from Percival Symonds' book, What Education Has to Learn from Psychology,

was assigned. A copy of the chapter was made available for each participant.

Succeeding Days

On each of the succeeding days, the participants worked through the assigned lessons. After each lesson, group discussions and question and answer periods were held to reinforce the important highlights of the lessons. For some lessons, the leader structured in advance the discussion periods. For example, the following questions guided the discussion period which followed lesson two: (1) What is the central truth of this lesson? (2) Who is responsible for the outcome of the teaching-learning situation? (3) What is the learner's responsibility? (4) What is the teacher's responsibility? (4a) Does this mean that the teacher will never give information orally? (4b) Have you been carrying too much weight of responsibility or maybe the wrong weight? (5) What does this lesson mean to you and your teaching? (5a) What changes may you need to make in your approach to the teaching task? Some of the discussions were not structured in this way, but they grew from a question or comment from a participant. Good interaction generally took place in these discussion times. One or two of the single ladies tended to be a little reserved and did not become as involved as others. Perhaps this phenomenon would have been observed in many such groups.

The study of the fifteen lessons was scheduled as shown in table 8. After the instruction all of the participants appeared to understand this part of the work. Not every participant's indicator written by each participant was acceptable after the first writing. After a bit of revision, all of the statements were good enough to demonstrate competence in this aspect of their role tasks.

TABLE 8

SCHEDULE OF LESSONS

Day of Seminar	Day of Week	Calendar Date	Lessons Studied
1	Monday	Aug. 20	Intro. 1
2	Tuesday	21	2-3
3	Wednesday	22	4-5
4	Thursday	23	6
5	Friday	24	7 & Begin 8
6	Monday	27	Finish 8 & 9
7	Tuesday	28	10-11
8	Wednesday	29	12-13
9	Thursday	30	14-15
10	Friday	31	Evaluations

Beginning with lesson 6, assignments were given to be completed as part of the instruction of the seminar. In one of the pre-seminar letters, the participants were asked to bring a syllabus for a course they taught. During the seminar, they revised this syllabus. After lesson 6, with the aid of provided worksheets, they prepared learning objectives and objective indicators for the course. The seminar leader examined these and found that after the instruction all of the participants appeared to understand this part of the work. Not every objective and indicator written by each participant was acceptable after the first writing. After a bit of revision, all of the statements were good enough to demonstrate competence in this aspect of their role tasks.

Lesson 7 taught how to design an instructional sequence to achieve the learning objectives. At the end of the lesson, the participants prepared learning sequences to achieve the objectives they had written. Once they had completed this assignment, they were asked to team up with another participant to share mutually what they had produced. In discussing together their work, they refined their instructional sequences. The experience was enjoyable for the participants, for it facilitated learning from each other.

Lesson 8 taught how to prepare a course syllabus. The instruction of lessons six and seven had taught how to do important aspects of syllabus preparation, but this lesson brought all of the parts together. After studying the lesson, the participants revised the syllabus that had been brought for this purpose. When the task was completed, the twelve participants were divided into four small groups of three each. The task of these small groups was to evaluate the syllabi prepared by the members of the groups. The three criteria that were to guide this effort were written on the chalkboard. They were: (1) Is everything that should be included actually there? (2) Do the objectives and indicators meet Ford's criteria as taught in lesson six? (3) Does the instruction seem likely to cause the desired learning changes to occur? As was expected, this group process took considerable time, but the learning reinforcements which resulted made it a good use of the available time.

After lesson nine, guided by a set of work sheets, the participants prepared a lesson plan for one of the lessons of the course for which they had prepared the revised syllabus in the previous lesson. A self-evaluation sheet was included. It was intended to be used after teaching the lesson.

No assignment to generate material was given in lesson ten.

Instead, the lesson led the participants to evaluate factors in their use of the lecture method. Throughout lesson eleven, the participants were writing sample questions at the different levels of learning. These questions could be used in teaching the lesson prepared in lesson nine. Following lesson twelve, the assignment was to prepare another lesson, using discussion as the primary method of teaching. A visual teaching resource was prepared following lesson thirteen, and various kinds of test items were written throughout lesson fourteen.

During the last few days of the seminar, Typhoon Oring, reported to be the worst to hit the archipelago in a hundred years, was approaching from the east. The homes of some of the participants were in line for a direct hit, as was the city of Cebu, where the seminar was being held. The whole country was to experience transportation cut-backs as ships, planes, and buses took shelter. Therefore, the session for Thursday afternoon was cancelled to allow the participants to revise their travel plans to get back home before the storm unleashed its fury. The participants came back and finished their assigned work on Thursday evening. By the time they left the conference room that night, every one of them had finished all expected work for the seminar except the evaluations. Because the approaching storm required some of the participants to book homeward transportation on Friday afternoon, all closing activities were rescheduled for Friday morning.

Closing Day

The closing day's activities began with the usual devotional time, followed, from 8:30 A.M. to 9:30 A.M., by the participants taking the post-test, and, from 9:30 A.M. to 10:15 A.M., completing a program evaluation form. After the mid-morning break, from 10:30 A.M. to 11:30 A.M., a

group discussion was held. From 11:30 A.M. to 12:15 P.M., the participants completed another evaluation form. This one was titled, "Seminar Participants' Professional Growth Evaluation: A Self-Assessment."

The purpose of the group discussion was to consider the relevance of the seminar to the felt needs of the participants. Material from the problem-posing session of the opening day was brought back into focus. The list of nineteen needs and problems was placed again on the chalkboard. The discussion centered on what had been studied in the seminar that helped meet those needs and offered solutions for the problems. It was recognized that many, although not all, of the matters introduced on the opening day had been considered in the instruction. This proved to be a helpful experience in that it related the content of the seminar studies to the particular needs of the participants. The repetition involved in going over the material one last time further reinforced what had been learned.

After the scheduled seminar activities ended, the participants and leader posed for a group photograph, and the participants invited the leader to a surprise appreciation dinner in the I. B. C. dining hall. At this dinner a beautiful plaque of appreciation, signed by all of the participants, was presented to the seminar leader. The pride of a big job completed and the pleasure of having had a part in helping these teachers improve their teaching competencies made this a not soon to be forgotten moment.

Evaluations

Four different approaches were used in the evaluation of the in-service faculty training seminar. A pre-test/post-test was administered to determine the cognitive changes. As self-assessment was administered to determine the participants' perceptions of their own progress made through

the program. The participants also evaluated the seminar itself. Lastly, this researcher evaluated the program and its apparent results.

COMPARISON OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES

Pre-Test/Post-Test

The pre-test was administered on the opening day and has already been reported in this study. The post-test, administered the final morning, was a helpful instrument in evaluating whether the seminar had met its intended goal of helping the participants improve their teaching competencies. The purpose of the post-test was to determine the cognitive change that occurred by comparing the scores earned on the post-test with the scores earned on the pre-test. The post-test was the same instrument of 140 true-false items used for the pre-test. The comparisons of pre-test and post-test scores and the changes that were evident were shown on Table 9. It was noted that the highest score on the pre-test was 118 right responses out of the total of 140, and on the post-test the highest score was 136 right responses out of the total 140. The lowest score on the pre-test was 103 right responses, while the lowest score on the post-test was 113 right responses.

It was noted that all participants scored higher on the post-test than on the pre-test. The composite score of all participants on the pre-test was 1310 out of a total possible of 1680, and the composite score on the post-test was 1515, an improvement of 205 responses. The percentage of the number correct to the total on the pre-test was 78 percent. The percentage of the number correct to the total on the post-test was 90 percent. This represented a rise in score of 12 percent.

Based on the comparison of post-test scores to pre-test scores, it was concluded that the participants improved in their cognitive knowledge of

TABLE 9

COMPARISON OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES

	Pre-Test Score	Post-Test Score	Change	Percentage of Change
1	118	136	+18	13%
2	117	129	+12	9%
3	115	133	+18	13%
4	112	124	+12	9%
5	111	133	+22	15.7%
6	111	128	+17	12%
7	109	125	+16	11%
8	104	130	+26	18.5%
9	104	120	+16	11%
10	103	127	+24	17%
11	103	117	+14	10%
12	103	113	+10	7%

the teaching function by participating in the seminar. This was true for each individual as well as for the group as a whole. Since this was the first time the seminar had been offered and the test administered, there was no basis for comparing the amount of improvement that was made. Nevertheless, it is clear that in this one experience improvement was made.

Self-Assessment of Professional Growth

Another instrument that was used to determine if the seminar had met its goal of helping the participants improve their teaching competencies was called "Seminar Participants Professional Growth Evaluation: A Self-Assess

ment."¹⁵ This form was generated by the researcher. It was two pages in length and composed of twenty-five statements structured as a Likert scale. The participants indicated their degree of agreement or disagreement with the statements. The purpose of this evaluation was to gain data concerning the participants' perceptions of their growth in teaching competencies as a result of the seminar. The question in focus was, "Did the participants perceive themselves as having developed essential teaching competencies by participating in the seminar?" Statements were prepared from the various aspects of the seminar's instruction. It was recognized that the participants' perceptions of their improvement or lack thereof may not square with reality. Nevertheless, their own perceptions of their competencies seemed important.

The statements were written in such a way that they asserted improvement as a result of the seminar. Five alternative degrees of agreement were provided. To "strongly agree" (SA) meant a strong perception of improvement. To "agree, but not strongly" (A) meant a perception of positive progress. The "undecided" (U) meant that the participant was not certain if improvement was made or not. To "disagree" (D) meant that the participants did not perceive improved competency, and to "strongly disagree" (SD) meant strong feelings of perceptions of no improvement.

Each statement was tallied separately, and the sum of each of the five categories was totaled.¹⁶ With twelve participants responding to twenty-five statements, there was a total of 300 responses. The totalled sums of each category were shown on table 10.

¹⁵This form was exhibited as appendix O.

¹⁶The tally of each statement was exhibited as appendix P.

TABLE 10

TOTALLED SUMS OF RESPONSES TO THE
PROFESSIONAL GROWTH EVALUATION

Strongly Agree	Agree, but not Strongly	Undecided	Disagree, but not Strongly	Strongly Disagree
151	132	16	0	1

Table 10 reveals that slightly more than one half of the responses were indications of strong agreement, and that a very strong percentage agreed, but not strongly. By combining these two, it was revealed that 283 out of the total 300 responses were indications that growth in essential teaching competencies was perceived. This became quite significant when compared to the disagreement side, with only one response registered there.

It was concluded that the participants in the seminar left with positive feeling that the instruction had indeed served to develop their essential teaching competencies. Their perceptions of themselves was that they now were better fitted to perform their role tasks. Because of the surprise nature of the appreciation dinner that was given in honor of the seminar leader, no records were made of the comments there, but the expressions of the various speakers were personal testimonies of this conclusion.

Participants' Evaluations of Seminar

The participants were given opportunity to express their evaluation of the seminar and its learning experience. This evaluation was done on a three page form, designed by the researcher. It asked sixteen questions about the seminar and gave opportunity for the participants to write in

their own words their evaluations.¹⁷ The participants were not asked to put their names on the form or to identify themselves in any way. Since each person answered the questions in his own words, the responses varied in actual wording. It was concluded that no purpose would be served by reporting each participant's full answer to each question. The following represents a summary of what was written concerning each question.

The first question inquired about the adequacy of the advance preparations and what could have been done better. Nearly all of the participants considered the advance preparations to have been adequate, some enthusiastically so. One wished for more advance notice, two commented that the preparations were generally adequate, but that the timing was not the best in that the seminar came during the academic term in the Philippines. This indeed did cause some inconvenience. One participant indicated that the preparations were adequate except that the limited copies of the books caused some inconvenience. This participant indicated that good planning would have foreseen this problem and that more copies would have been provided.

Question two asked if the content of the seminar dealt with "real needs." All of the participants expressed that the seminar did deal with real needs. Such comments as "very much," "expressly so," "very relevant," "very real needs," and "for sure" were part of the responses.

The next question, number three, asked about the clarity of the purpose and objectives for the seminar. Without exception, all participants indicated that the purpose and objectives were clear to them.

The fourth question asked if the learning activities enabled the participants to achieve the objectives. All gave positive responses. Two

¹⁷This form was exhibited as appendix Q.

participants expressed that they liked the nature of the self-study activities because they felt more involved than in predominately lecture situations. Two persons also expressed that they generally considered that the activities enabled them to achieve the objectives, but also that they wished for more practice exercises in some areas which had been particularly difficult for them.

The intent of question five was to find out if the participants thought they had achieved the desired objectives of the seminar. Ten out of the group stated that they considered that they had achieved the objectives. The others were not certain, but indicated that they had learned what to do and thought that with more practices the skills would be actualized more fully. Some who answered positively also expressed a realization of their need for more practice. Others wrote that attending the seminar had rekindled the desire to be a better teacher and taught them how to teach more competently.

The participants' evaluation of the material in the study guide was the subject of question six. All responses were very positive. One comment was "excellent-like eating 'Gold Label' ice cream." Another was that the material was "easier to comprehend than other education books I have read." Several answered that the content was simply presented and that the English vocabulary used made it easy for them to comprehend the ideas quickly. One commented that the materials were fine, but that some more practice exercises in a lesson or two would have been an improvement. Several wrote words of thanks and appreciation.

The seventh question asked if the participants considered the self-study approach to have been helpful. Eleven found it helpful, and one did not like the approach. The major reason cited for finding the approach

helpful was the self-pacing of the materials. The immediate knowledge of correct responses to the exercises was appreciated, as was the ability to go back over the material as much as needed. Two mentioned that they found the approach helpful, but also found that interaction with the other participants and teacher explanations were important. The one negative response felt that interaction between the teacher and learners facilitated learning more than the self-study approach did.

Question eight was concerned with whether the instruction in the lessons enabled the participants to do the practice exercises. All responded in a positive way, but nearly half of the group were cautiously positive. There seemed to be some feeling of need for more practice exercises. The participants seemed to be saying, "Yes, we made it this time, but until we have more opportunity to try, we are not really certain if we have practiced enough."

The number of practice exercises was the subject of question nine. Five of the group found the practice exercises ample; six found them ample for most lessons, but insufficient for others. One person found them to be insufficient.

Question ten concerned the organization of the materials and logic of the sequence. Ten of the twelve persons answered positively and gave very little explanation. Several just wrote "yes." The other two did not reply to the question.

The eleventh question dealt with recognition of expectations: whether the participants were pleased with what they had learned. All twelve were very positive in responding to this question. Terms such as "more than I had expected," "very well pleased," "yes, very much so" appeared in the responses.

The next question, number twelve, asked about the participants' over-all impression of the seminar. No two answers were alike, but all were very positive. One considered the seminar to be "God sent" and described praying for such practical training. The seminar was viewed as God's answer to the prayer. A couple of persons said it was the best seminar they had ever attended. One person particularly noted the affective changes that had taken place in deepened appreciation for the teaching ministry and a commitment to do a better job. Three were impressed with the rapport that developed between peers and leader, and they found the interaction richly rewarding. This may say as much about the persons who made up the group as it does about the group experience itself. Possibly the same program administered to a different group would have netted a different effect.

Question thirteen asked if the participants were glad they had participated in the seminar. Every participant was glad to have attended. It was viewed as a great privilege, with no regrets.

The fourteenth question asked how the participants planned to integrate what they had learned into their teaching. Several remarked that they planned to become much more learner oriented than they previously had been. Several also indicated that they expected to revise the syllabi for all of their courses to conform to the way they were taught in the seminar. One person commented that he planned to begin preparing written lesson plans. Defining goals more clearly and planning instruction to achieve these goals were also mentioned. "Seeing students learn and achieve the desired learning goals is a thrilling experience," one participant wrote. The general tone of the replies was that the participants did expect to integrate what they had learned into their teaching; they expected to do so at once, at least by the beginning of the next semester, about two months in the future.

Question fifteen asked if the participants would recommend that their faculty colleagues attend a similar seminar if the opportunity were available. Again, the answers were all affirmative. "Yes, indeed," "highly recommend," "yes, even urge," "absolutely, all faculty should attend," "I surely would recommend that they attend" were typical responses to this question. Probably it should be understood that the participants found the experience satisfying enough to themselves that they could strongly urge their associates to participate in a similar seminar should the opportunity be available.

The final question was open-ended and invited the participants to write any comments they may have wished to make. Because of the nature of the question, answers varied widely. Some wrote personal notes of appreciation and gratitude to the leader expressing the sentiment that they felt privileged to have been able to attend. Among the comments were pleas to offer similar seminars across the Philippines on a regional basis, and appeals to offer other seminars dealing with other matters peculiar to Bible institute faculty members. All comments were enthusiastic and revealed an excitement to return home to begin to implement the new learning and to share it with their teaching colleagues who had not attended. Expressions of gratefulness to God for the seminar and for the leader also were made.

Within several months after the seminar, the leader received unsolicited letters of appreciation from various ones of the seminar participants. These letters reflected that the enthusiasm expressed at the seminar continued. Reports of how valuable the concepts learned were proving to be when used in day-by-day classroom experience were expressed in these letters. The letters again expressed appreciation for the opportunity to attend the seminar. Some of these letters reported that the

teachers who had attended were leading in-service training sessions among their faculty colleagues who had not attended. They were teaching the same materials they had studied at the seminar.

The leader also received letters from other faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible Institutes in the Philippines asking if they could be put on a waiting list to be included in a future seminar, should more be held later. It was assumed that these had learned about the seminar from those who had attended. It also was assumed that the description by those who had attended was exciting and inviting enough to motivate others to want to attend. Perhaps the material was viewed by those who saw it as sufficiently relevant to their teaching needs that it was assumed that attending such a seminar would help them to develop their essential teaching competencies.

Leader's Evaluation of Seminar

The assessments of this researcher concerning the advance preparations are that they were adequate for the purpose. The maximum number of persons desired for the seminar actually did attend. The two changes from the original invitation list were understandable. The persons who participated were considered ideal. Their backgrounds varied both in previous educational achievements and in teaching experience. Bonding took place very early in the seminar, and the rapport that developed between the participants and the leader and among the participants bore evidence of deep spiritual oneness resulting from the sharing in common of new life in Christ as well as sharing in a common vocational fraternity.

The choice of venue was considered to be a good one. Everything was accommodating and comfortable. The administration, faculty, and

students of Immanuel Bible College were most gracious hosts. The forms that were designed and used for the seminar proved adequate.

The scheduling of the seminar admittedly was at the convenience of the researcher. Because of teaching responsibilities, his only available time was during summer vacation by American school scheduling. This fell during the first semester of the school year in the Philippines. This undoubtedly inconvenienced some of the participants and the schools where they taught. The extra work the teachers did to make up the classes missed during those days was deeply appreciated. The daily schedule was full and the workload was heavy, yet without being burdensome. The fact that all participants completed all expected activities indicated that the schedule was not too heavy. The full schedule afforded more learning than a lighter schedule probably would have afforded, given the brief time available for the seminar. The nature of the instruction afforded each participant opportunity to spend as little or as much time as needed on each lesson and on each assigned activity.

The total format of the seminar was deemed to be quite good. The combination of self-study, lectures, group discussions, and appropriate practice activities seemed to enhance the learning experience. By having the practice assignment involve actual preparation for courses the teacher taught, motivation ran high. Relevance to real-life situations was obvious.

The first lesson was viewed as primarily setting the stage for what was to come. Yet it was considered an important lesson. Some people in the Philippines do not have a very high appreciation for Protestant ministers, while Roman Catholic priests are valued highly. Also, those who teach at seminaries which prepare Roman Catholic priests are valued highly, while those who prepare Protestant ministers do not enjoy any comparable level of

recognition. Added to this is the fact that the pay some teachers in Bible institutes received was substandard. Put all of this together, and it becomes understandable that some teachers had developed low estimates of their ministry. This lesson served to say that their work was important, so important that they should do the best possible job. Motivation to improve their essential teaching competencies did result from the first lesson. It intensified throughout the seminar.

In the evaluation by the researcher, the major learning experience for the participants in the second unit, which dealt with learning theory, was the discovery that instruction should be learner-centered. As this concept began to be comprehended, a new excitement began to take hold of the discussion times. One might have expected reticence in accepting such a concept when it was new to the group, and in some ways it was opposite of what had been traditionally held. Instead, the concept was readily accepted. There seemed to be an almost immediate realization that here was one of the important keys to effective teaching which had been missing previously.

The lesson on instructional planning further elucidated the learner-centered concept. The lesson helped the learning situation because it began to add the how-to-do-it aspect to the concept. The participants had little difficulty comprehending this lesson.

Specifying learning objectives was something about which most of the participants had heard, and most had had some experience in writing objectives. Mostly, the experience had been neither good nor satisfying. As taught in this lesson, the learner orientation was new, and so was LeRoy Ford's concept of specifying indicators to demonstrate learning achievement. By the time this lesson came, the learner-centered concept was sufficiently

clear that what was taught was the logical extension of the total concept. The participants caught the idea quickly. They experienced relatively little difficulty in specifying objectives in the cognitive domain. This was demonstrated by the objectives they wrote for the syllabus they revised. Specifying objectives in the affective domain caused a bit more difficulty. This researcher examined the objectives written by each participant and was generally pleased with their performance. He discussed specific concerns with various individuals as needed.

Because the orientation of the participants had been so strongly content-centered, some experienced difficulty in deciding what to teach. Some confusion existed about the role of the subject content in learner-centered objectives. This matter was discussed in one of the sessions and the difficulties were cleared up. Upon further examination of this lesson, it was deemed that this matter needed to be taught better. Perhaps a couple of paragraphs, some examples, and a practice exercise dealing with selecting teaching points should have been included in the lesson.

The worksheets at the end of the lesson proved to be helpful in guiding the participants in learning by doing. By the time they finished the exercises, they had written objectives for a course and had specified what behaviors they could accept as indications that the objectives had been achieved.

By the time the lesson on sequencing instruction was reached, the principle of learner-centered instruction was well accepted. The desire for creative expression in planning instruction was observed as the participants began to ponder possibilities of what could be done to teach their courses using this newly learned approach. The comment, "This makes teaching fun instead of drudgery," was overheard. Several of the participants admitted

that they usually did not prepare a budget of the class periods. They worked out the time as they moved along and readily acknowledged that they remembered times when important elements got too little time and less important elements were treated with greater time commitments. The list of questions that was provided was beneficial to the participants as they prepared the assignment for this lesson.

Most, if not all, of the participants had prepared course syllabi before attending the seminar. Frequently the product was less than superior, and the people were aware that they were not doing a good job with this role task. Before the seminar, the values of the course syllabus were not well understood. The concept of using the syllabus to guide the instruction was new to several. Planning at this in-depth level represented more than most were accustomed to doing.

The participants had been asked to bring to the seminar a syllabus they had prepared for some course they taught. After studying this lesson, they were assigned to revise completely the syllabus they had brought. This researcher examined the revisions and found them to be quite acceptable. A few suggestions for improvement were offered to different individuals.

The teachers had been accustomed to planning what the teacher would do and say in teaching individual lessons. As they studied the lesson on lesson planning, there were questions about how to implement the learner-centered concept. The difficulty seemed to lie in uncertainties about what would cause the learning objectives to be achieved. Some were unclear about how to plan activities which actively involved the learners with the material. Their past orientation involving teacher-centered activities which left the learners passive created some blind spots. These difficulties were discussed, and the leader taught the participants how to analyze a

learning task using a pyramid approach and illustrating the approach on the chalkboard. A sample task was analyzed in the discussion. After this instruction, completion of the assignment went well. This researcher's opinion is that some material, examples, and exercises to teach how to analyze a learning task would improve this lesson. The worksheets at the end of the lesson helped the participants complete the assignment.

The intention behind the instruction on methods of teaching was to help the participants develop the competencies needed to use properly three widely used methods. It was not the intention of the lesson to introduce other, less widely used methods. Discussion concerning the lecture method primarily centered in how to lecture and still keep the approach learner-centered. After reassessing this lesson, it was considered desirable to have included in the lesson more help concerning this matter.

The instruction on question and answer was intended to develop competencies needed to ask questions at the desired levels of learning. This obviously was a new concept to the participants, but they readily comprehended the consistency of the concept to the learner-centered principle. This lesson generated considerable interest, as questions are a basic stock in trade of Filipino education. The method was recognized as familiar but with new interpretations and applications.

The group discussions which the leader had led during the seminar were helpful introductions to the lesson on discussion. Discussion is not usual in Filipino education, particularly at lower levels of education. Nevertheless, the participants realized the values of the method and appreciated the instruction in how to use it competently.

Most of the participants had seen projected visuals used in teaching, and they had developed a suspicion that projected visuals were superior

or more effective than non-projected visuals. The conviction that teachers can very effectively develop useful non-projected resources from inexpensive, locally available materials was not shared at first. After the leader demonstrated some non-projected visuals that were useful in teaching, the idea became more accepted. There was a noticeable enjoyment as the participants prepared visuals they could use in their teaching.

Because of the threat of the impending typhoon described earlier, time spent on the last two lessons was rushed. It was believed that the content of lesson fifteen was appropriate and that it would have been adequate under different circumstances. The test items the participants wrote were quite good, although the participants did not seem to feel as competent in this area as they did in other areas. Actually the performance indicated higher level of competence than the participants felt they had developed. For their reassurance, the lesson could have included some more guided practice exercises. On the other hand, under different circumstances, the existing exercises may have seemed adequate.

It was noticed that the lesson does not include any instruction on giving instructions when administering exams, nor does it include any instruction on how to mark or grade tests. Some instruction on these matters should have been included. Also, it should have spelled out more clearly in the lesson how to select test items which are representative of what was taught. The problem of a balanced sample was not discussed. Perhaps a bit more emphasis on keying the test items to the learning objectives and further instruction on how to do this would have strengthened the lesson.

The lesson on computing grades was considered to be the poorest in the course. The author failed to achieve his objectives in preparing this lesson. To begin with, the author attempted to convert an American letter

grading system into a Filipino system built on numeric increments. To further complicate the issue, the values are reversed. The American system recognized an A as the highest grade and accorded that four grade points. This is followed by a B with three grade points, a C with two grade points, a D with one point, then failure. But the Filipino system recognized a numeric grade of 1.0 as the highest down to 3.0 as the lowest passing grade. Also, the Filipino system makes use of fractional increments between the whole numbers; 1.0, 1.25, 1.5, 1.75, 2.0, 2.25, 2.5, 2.75, 3.0, and failure. In writing this lesson, this problem was not sufficiently solved. The attempt was to teach how to compute grades on the curve using the Jenkins short-cut method. Actually, the lesson was complicated and missed the mark. Because of the decision to end at noon on Friday due to the typhoon, there was inadequate time to redeem the lesson in class. Perhaps some valuable information was taught by the lesson, but certainly less than as desired. It was recognized that parts of this lesson needed to be rewritten.

It is the assessment of this researcher that, by participating in this seminar, all participants made appreciable achievements in developing essential teaching competencies. Some participants made greater achievements than others, but all made improvements. Based on observable signs, it was the opinion of the researcher that all participants were more competent as teachers after participating in the seminar than they were before attending. In this respect, the assessments of the researcher confirmed the other evaluations that were presented.

Summary

The purpose of the fifth chapter was to report the results of the field test portion of this professional project. The field test involved a

two-weeks in-service training seminar intended to help a selected group of faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible Institutes in the Philippines develop and improve their teaching competencies found to be essential to the performance of their role tasks.

Contained in the chapter were descriptions of the advance preparations which were made. These involved the selection of the location and venue, the selection and invitation of the seminar participants, and the preparation of the materials. The seminar was conducted in a conference room on the campus of Immanuel Bible College at Cebu City, Philippines. Twelve faculty members, six males and six females, from six Bible institutes were the seminar participants. The seminar materials included an auto-instructional course which was prepared by the researcher, lectures and discussions, and selected appropriate readings.

The activities of the seminar were described in the chapter also. The procedures of the opening day were presented in detail. On the succeeding days, the participants completed the fifteen lessons of the training course, and various instructional discussions were conducted. On the closing day the participants completed various evaluation forms.

A presentation of the four evaluations of the seminar also was included in the chapter. A pre-test/post-test was administered to measure cognitive changes. Each participant made a self-assessment of his professional growth in teaching competence resulting from the seminar. The participants also evaluated the various aspects of the seminar. And the researcher offered opinions and observations of an evaluative nature.

References in footnotes to extensive exhibits in the form of appendixes were made throughout the chapter. Included among these exhibits was the auto-instructional course which formed the backbone of the seminar.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was begun with a desire to improve the quality of instruction in Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines. Through the researcher's involvements with these schools, he had observed faculty members struggle to perform role tasks which are usual to the teaching profession. He also had examined some of the products of their labors and realized that many of the faculty persons had not had opportunity to develop the essential teaching competencies needed to perform their role tasks. It also was discovered that these essential competencies had not yet been identified; therefore, training programs to help teachers develop the competencies essential to the performance of their role tasks could not be developed meaningfully.

In considering this problem, several questions surfaced: What role tasks did faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines perform? Which of these role tasks were related primarily to teaching functions? What competencies were essential to the performance of these tasks? How could faculty members be helped to improve these essential teaching competencies? Therefore, the purposes of this study were to begin to identify the essential teaching competencies needed by faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines and to prepare and field test a program intended to enable a selected group of faculty members to develop and improve these essential competencies.

Summary of Procedures

The desire which motivated this project was to help a selected group of Bible institute teachers develop the competencies needed to perform the actual tasks required by their work. The intention was not to inform the teachers what tasks they should perform. Therefore, it was necessary to identify what role tasks were being performed by those functioning as faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines. Two procedures were employed to gain this information: (1) personal interviews were conducted with twelve faculty members from five Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines, and (2) this researcher directly observed faculty members performing their role tasks. The data collected from these two sources were organized into a task profile showing what Bible institute teachers do. From this task profile, those tasks which were related to the planning and execution of instruction were identified.

To learn with which of these tasks the teachers experienced felt weaknesses in their competencies, a survey was prepared and administered to twenty faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines. Another survey was administered to 118 students of the same schools. This survey was intended to discover if students felt their teachers had weaknesses in areas similar to those in which the teachers felt their weaknesses. Analysis of these data revealed that the proposed training program should provide opportunities to develop competencies related to: (1) understanding teaching-learning theory; (2) designing instruction including specifying learning objectives, planning learning sequences to achieve the objectives and syllabus preparation; (3) teaching methodology; and (4) evaluating learning achievement including preparing test items and computing grades.

Based on the information discovered by this procedure, an in-service faculty training program intended to help teachers develop their competencies was developed and field tested with a group of twelve selected teachers. Evaluations were conducted to determine whether the program actually helped the teachers improve their essential teaching competencies.

Conclusions

The basic assumption underlying this study was that an in-service training program which would enable faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines to improve their teaching competencies could be produced. It also was assumed that faculty members performed certain identifiable role tasks including a host of academic and teaching tasks. It was believed that these tasks could be identified by learning what faculty members actually do and that these could be grouped into categories of labor and organized into a role task profile. Further, it was assumed that to perform these role tasks certain competencies were essential. It was believed that these competencies could be identified and that appropriate activities could be prescribed to enable faculty members to develop and/or improve these competencies. And it was assumed that within the Assemblies of God in the Philippines there were sufficient interested and capable faculty members who were willing to participate in such a study that a valid and profitable study could result. It was expected that the training program which would be developed as part of this study would help facilitate the development of these essential teaching competencies in the group of faculty members selected to participate in the field study.

In this study the envisioned in-service faculty training program was developed in the anticipated manner. The role tasks performed by faculty

members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines were identified through the process that was proposed. A task profile showing what Bible institute teachers do was developed by organizing the information that was gained. From this task profile, those tasks which were distinctively teaching tasks were identified. The competencies essential to the performance of these tasks were identified. Appropriate activities which were intended to enable faculty members to develop and/or improve their essential teaching competencies were prescribed. Materials for an in-service training seminar were produced and gathered from existing resources. Within the Assemblies of God of the Philippines, sufficient faculty members were identified to participate in a seminar for the field study, and the seminar was held.

It was concluded that the in-service faculty training program that was developed did serve to help the participants improve their essential teaching competencies. This conclusion was supported by the cognitive evidence as demonstrated by the pre-test/post-test. Also the teachers who participated considered themselves to be better fitted to perform their teaching role tasks after the instruction of the seminar than they felt before attending it. They felt that the instruction served to develop their essential teaching competencies. And it was the assessment of the researcher that all participants made appreciable achievements in developing their essential teaching competencies as a result of receiving the instruction of the training program. Therefore, it was concluded that the in-service faculty training program that was developed did result in the participants of the field study seminar being more competent at performing their teaching role tasks. The program that was developed did, at least to some degree, accomplish the goal for which it was planned.

Recommendations

In view of the findings of this study, several recommendations are made. It is recommended that the matter of teaching competence be given more attention by those who assume roles as faculty members and by those who select and employ those who will function as faculty members. It is believed that the matter of teaching competencies should be considered more seriously before assigning either national ministers or missionaries to posts of Bible institute faculties.

It is recommended that the same program as was offered in this study be offered again to a different group of faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines. This would provide data for a cross check of this study. Perhaps the weaknesses or problems in the program noted in chapter 5 in the section titled "Leader's Evaluation of Seminar" should be corrected prior to such a reoffering.

Another recommendation for further study is that the seminar be offered to a selected group of teachers by self-study only. This would help to determine how essential the presence of a teacher is to the outcome of the seminar. To offer the instruction by self-study would certainly be more economical if the teachers become equally competent to perform their teaching role tasks. It is recommended that this possibility be studied.

Since the Assemblies of God has Bible institutes in so many countries of the world, it is recommended that the problem of teacher competency also be explored in countries other than the Philippines. If a similar problem exists in other places, then it is recommended that the program developed in this project be considered as a beginning point for developing a similar in-service training program tailored to the specific needs of the geographical-cultural area under study.

This study was limited to nationals who serve as faculty members. Yet many missionaries function as faculty members too. It is recommended that further study be given to the matter of whether these missionaries have been prepared better for the teaching role tasks they assume. If not, then particular attention should be given to helping these people develop the essential teaching competencies they need to do the teaching aspects of their role tasks.

It is recommended that seminaries, both those in the United States and those abroad, study the problem of helping people develop the competencies needed to perform teaching role tasks essential to the performance of their ministry as faculty members. Such institutions as the Assemblies of God Theological Seminary at Springfield, Missouri, and the Far East Advanced School of Theology in the Philippines might be appropriate institutions to take the lead in the study of this matter.

Local Church Owned and Operated

1. Assemblies of God Bible Institute of the Philippines
Santa Maria, Ilocos Sur
2. Northern Mindanao Bible School
Libertad, Butuan City
3. Pamona Bible Institute
Pamona City, Bohol
4. Discipleship Bible Institute
Lapa Lapa City, Nactaw

*P.G.C.A.G means the Philippines General Council of the Assemblies of God.
D. F. M. means the Division of Foreign Missions of the General Council of the Assemblies of God, U. S. A.

APPENDIX A

ASSEMBLIES OF GOD BIBLE INSTITUTES IN THE PHILIPPINES

Jointly Owned and Operated by P. G. C. A. G. and D. F. M.*

1. Bethel Bible Institute
Malinta, Valenzuela, Metro Manila
2. Immanuel Bible College
Banawa, Cebu City
3. Assemblies of God Bible Institute of Mindinao
General Santos City
4. Bible Institute of the Deaf
Malinta, Valenzuela, Metro Manila

District Owned and Operated

1. Luzon Bible Institute
Binalonan, Pangasinan
2. South Central Bible Institute
Santiago, Iriga City
3. Zion Bible Institute
Tacloban City, Leyte
4. Bethel Bible School
Oroquieta City, Misamis

Local Church Owned and Operated

1. Assemblies of God Bible Institute of the Philippines
Santa Maria, Ilocos Sur
2. Northern Mindinao Bible School
Libertad, Butuan City
3. Pamona Bible Institute
Pamona City, Bohol
4. Discipleship Bible Institute
Lapu Lapu City, Mactan

*P.G.C.A.G means the Philippines General Council of the Assemblies of God.
D. F. M. means the Division of Foreign Missions of the General Council of
the Assemblies of God, U. S. A.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

For Bible School Teachers

This questionnaire will provide valuable information which is needed in the planning of training programs for Bible college personnel. Your assistance in providing this confidential information is greatly appreciated.

1. Please complete the following personal data:

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Status</u>	<u>Age</u>	<u>Role</u>
<u>16</u> Male	<u>9</u> Single	<u>2</u> 20 to 25	<u>5</u> Missionary
<u>22</u> Female	<u>30</u> Married	<u>9</u> 25 to 30	<u>33</u> Nationals
	<u>10</u> Widowed	<u>3</u> 30 to 35	
		<u>4</u> 45 to 50	
		<u>4</u> over 50	

2. For how many years have you been a Bible school teacher?

first year	1 to 3 years	3 to 5 years	5 to 8 years	8 to 12 years	more than 12 years
<u>7</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>9</u>

3. Do you serve the school 28 full-time or 11 part-time?

4. What academic training have you received? (Mark only the highest you have attained. If you hold more than one degree at any level, please indicate this by writing the number of degrees you hold at that level.)

Not High School Grad.	High School Graduate	Bible School Diploma	Bachelor's Degree	Masters' Degree	Doctoral Degree
<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>0</u>

5. In what types of schools have you studied? (Check as many as needed.)

Secular College or University	Bible School	Graduate or Advanced School	Theological Seminary	Other
<u>21</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>0</u>

6. What is the major field of your academic training? _____

7. How much do you teach in this area?

Exclusively	Mainly, but teach other subject too	Mainly in other subject areas	Not at all
<u>7</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>0</u>

8. Do you intend to make Bible school teaching your lifetime ministry?

13 Yes 7 No, it is only temporary 19 Not sure

9. Are you satisfied with your on-the-job performance?

12 Yes 22 Generally 0 Seldom 3 No

10. When you began to teach, what areas of your work did you find most difficult?

PLEASE READ THIS INFORMATION CAREFULLY

11. Of the many tasks required of you as a Bible school teacher, where do you feel weak and in need of further training?

Understanding Bible School Work	Knowledge of Subject	Academic Planning	Classroom Management	Teaching Skills	Preparing and Interpreting Tests
<u>3</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>12</u>

12. State in your own words where you experience your greatest frustrations.

13. Did your academic training adequately prepare you for the actual tasks your work requires you to perform?

11 Yes 23 Generally 3 Minimally 1 Not at all

14. If you could get additional training to help you be more effective, would you want such training?

33 Definitely 5 Probably 0 Maybe 1 No 0 Not Sure

15. With your own experience as a background, if you could design a training program for Bible school teachers, what would you include?

(Please proceed to the next page and give the information requested.)

(The original questionnaire as presented to the teachers had blank lines. The numbers shown on the lines in this exhibit represent the tallies of the responses to each item.)

APPENDIX C

ASSEMBLIES OF GOD BIBLE SCHOOL TEACHERS SURVEY

PLEASE READ THIS INFORMATION CAREFULLY

This survey is part of an in-depth study of teaching in Assemblies of God Bible schools in the Philippines. The data gathered from this survey will be the basis for planning teacher training programs. Teachers, like yourself, are participating in this study.

The nature of this survey is an analysis of your feelings about your own needs for further growth and development of competencies. The questionnaire asks for two kinds of information: (1) personal information about your background, and (2) information about areas where you feel the need for help. To help us get the personal information, you are asked to answer some questions about yourself and your background. You will do this on page 2. Then, you are asked to indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with a list of statements concerning various aspects of your work as a teacher. Simply follow the directions on the top of page 3 in marking this section.

The success of this study depends on honest responses to all statements. Please give your feelings just as you experience them. You will not be identified individually in any way. Your responses will be compiled with those of other participants. Conclusions will be drawn from the total composite of all of the responses.

Thank you for your valuable help with this important study.

(Please proceed to the next page and give the information requested.)

PERSONAL BACKGROUND DATA

Please answer the following questions about your background.

SEX	YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE		
Male	1-3	7-9	16-20
Female	4-6	10-15	More than 20

Please list all schools you have attended since high school graduation.

INSTITUTION	LOCATION	DEGREE	MAJOR	YEAR GRAD.	CREDITS EARNED IF NOT GRAD.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Did you take any teaching or education courses in the schooling listed above?

Yes No If yes, how many courses? _____

Have you attended teaching or education related seminars in the past 5 years?

Yes No If yes, approximately how many hours of instruction did you receive in these seminars? _____

In the past 3 years how many books related to teaching or education have you read? _____

(Please proceed to the next page and follow the instructions given there.)

DIRECTIONS: Please express your degree of agreement with each of the following statements by circling the SA if you strongly agree; A if you agree, but not strongly; U if you are undecided; D if you disagree, but not strongly; and SD if you strongly disagree.

Strongly Agree	Agree, but not strongly	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
SA	A	U	D	SD

* * * * *

- SA A U D SD 1 I need to learn how to carefully select what I want the students to learn from the courses I teach.
- SA A U D SD 2 I need help with learning how to prepare clear, attainable, well-stated learning objectives for the courses I teach.
- SA A U D SD 3 I need help with preparing course syllabi which show the students what they will learn and what activities they must do to learn the material.
- SA A U D SD 4 I would like to learn how to give assignments which are directly related to the courses I teach and which will enable the students to learn the material better.
- SA A U D SD 5 I need help with planning learning experiences which are built on an understanding of human learning psychology.
- SA A U D SD 6 I would like to learn to plan each class period to be productive and to avoid wasting valuable time.
- SA A U D SD 7 I need help with knowing how to involve my students actively in the learning process.
- SA A U D SD 8 Because I fear being embarrassed by not knowing the answers, I feel threatened if my students ask questions during my classes.
- SA A U D SD 9 I need help with knowing which teaching methods are most appropriate for the subjects I teach.
- SA A U D SD 10 I need to learn how to lead my students to more effectively discover truth for themselves.
- SA A U D SD 11 I need help with learning how to motivate my students to discover ways to apply the material to their own lives and ministries.
- SA A U D SD 12 I need to learn how to make my classes more interesting so the students will want to study the subject in more depth.
- SA A U D SD 13 I need to take more personal interest in my students.

- SA A U D SD 14 I need to learn to use visual resources more effectively to reinforce what I teach.
- SA A U D SD 15 My own excitement for my courses causes my students to want to learn more about the subject.
- SA A U D SD 16 I need help with learning how to express the qualities of the Christian life which I hope my students will see in me and want to develop in their own lives.
- SA A U D SD 17 I need to be more effective at modeling a proper spiritual relationship with the Lord.
- SA A U D SD 18 I need to learn how to write test questions which accurately measure how well the students have achieved the learning objectives set for the classes I teach.
- SA A U D SD 19 I need to be brought up-to-date on current trends in education.
- SA A U D SD 20 I feel that I am as competent in teaching skills as the university professors are.
- SA A U D SD 21 I need to learn how to assign learning activities which are similar to the things my students will do after graduation.
- SA A U D SD 22 I need help with guiding my students to perceive relationships between what they already know and the new material I want to teach them.
- SA A U D SD 23 I need to learn how to interpret test scores to determine my students' grades.
- SA A U D SD 24 I need help with guiding the students in applying the material being studied to solve practical life problems.
- SA A U D SD 25 I need to learn how to expose my students in a fair and honest way to views about the subjects which are different from my own views.

APPENDIX D

Distribution of Responses to Faculty Members Questionnaire

	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	12	5	1	2	0
2	11	6	1	1	1
3	8	7	2	3	0
4	10	6	2	2	0
5	10	6	2	2	0
6	10	9	0	1	0
7	10	6	2	2	0
8	0	1	0	7	12
9	7	8	1	4	0
10	10	5	3	2	0
11	8	7	1	4	0
12	10	8	1	1	0
13	5	12	1	2	0
14	7	8	2	3	0
15	10	9	1	0	0
16	8	5	2	4	1
17	11	5	2	2	0
18	12	6	0	2	0
19	15	5	0	0	0
20	1	3	5	6	5
21	9	7	2	2	0
22	8	9	1	2	0
23	7	8	1	4	0
24	8	8	1	3	0
25	4	13	0	3	0

APPENDIX E

ASSEMBLIES OF GOD BIBLE SCHOOL STUDENTS SURVEY

Male	16-17	20-22	25-30
Female	18-19	23-25	over 30

Before coming to this Bible school, how much schooling had you received? (Mark an X on each line before each level of schooling you have received)

I did not attend school.

I completed elementary school.

I attended another Bible school but I did not graduate from it.

This survey is part of an in-depth study of teaching in Assemblies of God Bible schools in the Philippines. The data gathered from this study will be used as a basis for planning teacher training programs. Students, like yourself, from Bible schools across the country are participating in this survey.

This questionnaire asks for two kinds of information: (1) personal information about you, and (2) information about how often you feel your teachers do certain things. To help us get the personal information, you are asked to answer some questions about yourself. You will do this on page 2. Then, you are asked to indicate how often you feel your teachers do the things listed. Choose the alternative you feel best applies and indicate it as the directions explain. To answer these questions best, think of all of your Filipino teachers (do not include missionaries) and give your feelings. Do NOT think of any one teacher in particular. Your answer should reflect your general feelings about all of the Filipino teachers you have had since coming to Bible school.

The success of this study depends on honest responses to all statements by all who take part in the study. Please give your feelings just as you experience them. Your teachers will NOT see your answers. You should NOT put your name on the questionnaire. You will not be identified individually in any way. Your responses will be compiled with those of the other participants. Conclusions will be drawn from the total of all the responses.

Thank you for your valuable help with this important study.

At the present time, what year of student are you?

First year Second year Third year Fourth year

(Please proceed to the next page and give the information requested.)

Please proceed to the next page. Read the directions carefully before you begin to answer the questions.

Please give the following personal information about yourself:

SEX	AGE		
<u> </u> Male	<u> </u> 16-17	<u> </u> 20-22	<u> </u> 26-30
<u> </u> Female	<u> </u> 18-19	<u> </u> 23-25	<u> </u> over 30

Before coming to this Bible school, how much schooling had you received?
(Mark an X on each line before each level of schooling you have received)

- I did not complete elementary school.
- I completed elementary school.
- I attended high school but did not graduate.
- I am a high school graduate.
- I attended another Bible school but I did not graduate from it.
- I attended a college or university but I did not graduate from it.
- I am a college or university graduate.
- I have attended a graduate school.

What grades do you earn? Circle the figure on the following line which is closest to the average of the grades you earn.

 1.0 1.25 1.5 1.75 2.0 2.25 2.5 2.75 3.0 below 3.0

If you attended a college or university, did you take any education courses?
 Yes No If yes, how many courses did you take?

Have you ever been employed as a teacher? Yes No
If your answer is yes, at what level did you teach?
 Elementary High School College/University Bible School

At the present time, what year of student are you?
 First year Second year Third year Fourth year

(Thank you for this helpful information.)

Please proceed to the next page. Read the directions carefully before you begin to answer the questions.

DIRECTIONS: Express your feelings about how often your teachers do the following things by circling 1 if you feel they ALMOST ALWAYS do it, 2 if you feel they do it OFTEN, but not almost always, 3 if you feel they do it SOMETIMES, and 4 if you feel they do it SELDOM, but more often than almost never, and 5 if you feel they ALMOST NEVER do it.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never
--	------------------	-------	-----------	--------	-----------------

	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

* * * * *

- 1 2 3 4 5 1. My teachers have carefully thought out before each course begins what I am expected to learn by studying the course.
- 1 2 3 4 5 2. My teachers plan our courses to achieve a carefully planned list of learning objectives.
- 1 2 3 4 5 3. My teachers provide and follow a course syllabus which outlines the course content and shows what I must do to achieve what is expected of me in each course.
- 1 2 3 4 5 4. My teachers give assignments which are interesting and helpful in learning the material.
- 1 2 3 4 5 5. My teachers plan learning experiences which are built on a good understanding of how people learn.
- 1 2 3 4 5 6. My teachers plan each class period carefully and make wise use of the allotted time.
- 1 2 3 4 5 7. My teachers lead their students to become involved actively in the learning process.
- 1 2 3 4 5 8. My teachers organize the material of the courses well.
- 1 2 3 4 5 9. My teachers cover all the material for the course during the term.
- 1 2 3 4 5 10. My teachers feel threatened if students ask questions during our classes.
- 1 2 3 4 5 11. My teachers use a variety of teaching methods.
- 1 2 3 4 5 12. My teachers lead me to discover truth and to determine for myself what I believe.
- 1 2 3 4 5 13. My teachers ask thought-stimulating questions which help me understand the subject being studied.

- 1 2 3 4 5 14. My teachers help me discover ways to apply the material to my own life and ministry.
- 1 2 3 4 5 15. My teachers are so boring that when I finish the classes I do not want to study the subjects again.
- 1 2 3 4 5 16. My teachers take a personal interest in me as an individual.
- 1 2 3 4 5 17. My teachers show interest in my spiritual development.
- 1 2 3 4 5 18. My teachers' lives provide appropriate examples of how to live the Christian life.
- 1 2 3 4 5 19. My teachers use visual aids to help me understand what is being taught.
- 1 2 3 4 5 20. My teachers' excitement for their subjects makes me want to learn more about the material.
- 1 2 3 4 5 21. My teachers give tests which accurately measure how much I learn.
- 1 2 3 4 5 22. My teachers want me to talk to them when I have personal or spiritual problems.
- 1 2 3 4 5 23. My teachers show an awareness of up-to-date teaching methods.
- 1 2 3 4 5 24. My teachers give assignments which are very similar to what I will need to do after graduation.
- 1 2 3 4 5 25. My teachers help me distinguish between what is known and what is assumed to be true about the subject being studied.
- 1 2 3 4 5 26. My teachers train me to assess and evaluate things I read or hear presented.
- 1 2 3 4 5 27. My teachers are fair and impartial in assigning grades for course work.
- 1 2 3 4 5 28. My teachers are as competent as teachers at the university.
- 1 2 3 4 5 29. My teachers expose me to ideas about the subjects which are different than their own views.
- 1 2 3 4 5 30. My teachers are preparing me well to enter into some form of Christian ministry.
- 1 2 3 4 5 31. My teachers know what to do to create conditions which enable me to learn easily.
- 1 2 3 4 5 32. My teachers help me see relationships between what I already know and the new material they are teaching me.

APPENDIX F

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO
STUDENTS QUESTIONNAIRE

	Almost Always	Often	Some- times	Seldom	Almost Never	MEAN
1	42	50	18	4	2	1.91379
2	42	52	21	2	1	1.88136
3	59	40	14	4	1	1.71186
4	25	59	31	2	0	2.08547
5	17	51	37	12	1	2.39831
6	19	50	38	9	2	2.36441
7	30	53	28	5	1	2.09402
8	21	57	27	11	1	2.26496
9	21	50	30	8	7	2.39655
10	49	29	23	10	6	2.08475
11	14	39	40	20	5	2.68644
12	35	55	22	4	1	1.98291
13	27	36	48	5	2	2.31356
14	34	51	25	8	0	2.05932
15	32	28	39	14	2	2.29661
16	16	31	41	21	8	2.77778
17	50	36	23	7	0	1.88793
18	26	41	44	6	0	2.25641
19	7	28	48	24	11	3.03390
20	16	40	50	8	3	2.50427
21	30	59	22	6	1	2.05932
22	29	38	31	19	1	2.36441
23	15	43	40	18	2	2.56780
24	29	39	37	9	3	2.29915
25	23	58	31	4	0	2.13793
26	19	44	45	9	0	2.37607
27	22	44	37	11	4	2.41525
28	18	36	38	15	10	2.68376
29	9	35	47	17	7	2.80870
30	41	55	17	5	0	1.88136
31	15	50	42	10	1	2.42373
32	12	63	33	9	1	2.35593

APPENDIX G

THOSE TO WHOM LETTER OF INVITATION WAS SENT

Rev. Jamie Balista
Zion Bible Institute
P. O. Box 187
Tacloban, Leyte 7101

Rev. Cruz Lapura
Zion Bible Institute
P. O. Box 187
Tacloban, Leyte 7101

Miss Maria Gonalongo
Luzon Bible Institute
Binalonan, Pangasinan 0714

Mrs. Lydia Bernales Wilson
Bethel Bible Institute
P. O. Box 20
Malinta, Valenzuela, M.M. 2627

Rev. Julito Balista
Immanuel Bible College
P. O. Box 170
Cebu City 6401

Mrs. Rosanny Delfin Engcoy
Immanuel Bible College
P. O. Box 170
Cebu City 6401

Rev. Segundino Ladura
Assemblies of God Bible Institute of Mindinao
P. O. Box 51
General Santos City 9701

Miss Lilia Tan
Zion Bible Institute
P. O. Box 187
Tacloban, Leyte 7101

Miss Florentina Baobaoen
Luzon Bible Institute
Binalonan, Pangasinan 0714

Rev. Fermin Bercero
Bethel Bible Institute
P. O. Box 20
Malinta, Valenzuela, M.M. 2627

Rev. Fred Racelis
South Central Bible Institute
Santiago, Iriga City

Rev. Ignacio Cortel
Immanuel Bible College
P. O. Box 170
Cebu City 6401

Yours in His Service,

Wayne E. Turner

APPENDIX H

SAMPLE OF INVITATION LETTER

June 20, 1984

Rev. Jamie Balista
Zion Bible Institute
P. O. Box 187
Tacloban, Leyte 7101
Republic of the Philippines

Dear Brother Jamie:

For many years I have been interested in Bible school education in the Philippines. The professional project for my doctoral program deals with faculty training. As a part of this project I will be leading a training seminar for a very select group of about ten faculty members. Selection of persons who will be "just right" is important to the success of the project. Your background makes you such a person, so I am inviting you to be one of the participants at this important seminar. You will help me and I believe the seminar will be most helpful to your teaching ministry too.

The seminar will be held August 20-31, 1984 on the campus of Immanuel Bible College at Cebu City. Your lodging and food are being provided and I will pay for your boat/bus tickets to Cebu and back to your home. I realize this time is during your school semester and I apologize for asking you to arrange to leave your duties at this time, but these are the only possible dates.

The seminar will involve classes and study similar to what you may have done at a FEAST on-site session. I will provide all of the materials for the study and you will be able to take home much to share with your fellow teachers, should you desire to conduct a similar seminar at your school.

I am reserving a place for you at the seminar and I need to ask that you send me a letter of confirmation immediately. Also since it is difficult and unsafe to send money through the mails, please let me know if you can arrange to get your tickets to Cebu and then I will reimburse you when we are together. Grace Artuza is helping me with the local arrangements, so if you need, feel free to contact her.

Again, I am looking forward to this seminar and to having you as one of the participants. I will anticipate receiving your letter of confirmation very soon, and thank you for your kindness in this matter.

Yours in His Service,

Dwayne E. Turner

APPENDIX I

SAMPLE FOLLOW-UP LETTER

July 20, 1984

Miss Lilia Tan
Zion Bible Institute
P. O. Box 187
Tacloban, Leyte 7101
Republic of the Philippines

Dear Sister Lilia:

I'm getting excited about our up-coming faculty seminar which starts one month from today at I. B. C. in Cebu. I'm busy every day preparing the materials I want to share with you. You will receive a loose-leaf notebook which will contain the fifteen lessons of the study course, and of course you will want to add your own notes too.

I have one request of you. Please bring a copy of a syllabus you have developed for some course you teach. Part of the seminar activities will include you revising it. This is an important aspect of the seminar, so please don't forget to bring one along.

Again, we are trying to make everything as comfortable and convenient as possible. We want you to be able to concentrate on the learning experience of the seminar. If you have any special needs, feel free to contact Grace Artuza at I. B. C. She will be happy to help you.

I am praying that we will have a profitable and enjoyable time together. I am very pleased to be able to share this experience with you. I have invited twelve teachers and I am looking forward to being together for these important days. Until then, I remain,

Yours in His service,

Dwayne E. Turner

APPENDIX J

DEVELOPING ESSENTIAL TEACHING COMPETENCIES

An In-Service Training Seminar

for

Bible Institute Faculty Members

There are many competencies needed by classroom teachers. Obviously, they must know their subject matter. They must be able to relate well with their peers and their students, and the list goes on. But the concern of this seminar is teaching competencies. This seminar has been designed to help the participants develop the teaching competencies essential to their role performance. If improvement is made in this objective, the seminar will have been a success.

by

Dwayne E. Turner

of Foreign Missions of the General Council of the Assemblies of God.

for making this venture possible. Without their support and confidence, this seminar could not be.

Believing that He whom we serve will be pleased to enable us, we accept this effort. May He be supreme, may His church be edified, and may He be richly glorified by our humble efforts.

PREFACE

Expectations run high for faculty members of Bible institutes. And well they should! The Bible institute movement was born with a sense of destiny. There was a growing realization that a new breed of Christian workers was needed. Existing training institutions were too stodgy and inflexible to produce workers who met the felt needs. Men of unusual vision, firm, resolute, stalwart, leaders in every respect, gave birth to a new idea which now has grown into a global phenomenon. Certainly the men and women who continue in their tradition should be of highest caliber. Their lives should be impeccable; their character sterling; their relationship to God through Jesus Christ vibrant and growing, ever yielding control to the indwelling Holy Spirit; their experience in ministry proven. And their competencies in teaching should be professional in every respect.

There are many competencies needed by classroom teachers. Obviously, they must know their subject matter. They must be able to relate well with their peers and their students, and the list goes on. But the concern of this seminar is teaching competencies. This seminar has been designed to help the participants develop the teaching competencies essential to their role performance. If improvement is made in this objective, the seminar will have been a success.

I wish to express heartfelt gratitude to the brethren in the Division

of Foreign Missions of the General Council of the Assemblies of God, U. S. A., for making this venture possible. Without their support and confidence this seminar could not be.

Believing that He whom we serve will be pleased to enable us, we attempt this effort. May He be supreme, may His church be edified, and may He be richly glorified by our humble efforts.

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Lesson 1

BIBLE INSTITUTE TEACHING

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Faculty members of Bible institutes need to develop their teaching competencies.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. State the primary purpose of Bible institutes.
2. Explain the importance of the role played by Bible institute faculty members.
3. Discuss the need for faculty members to develop their teaching competencies.

INTRODUCTION

So you are involved in Bible institute teaching. Congratulations! This is a high calling and a marvelous opportunity for ministry to Jesus Christ and His Church. You are part of a very select fraternity. Your work is demanding because it requires special qualifications and particular training to equip you for the tasks you must perform.

PURPOSE OF BIBLE INSTITUTES

The Bible institute movement is a global phenomenon involving hundreds of institutions, thousands of people as faculty members, and scores of thousands as students. Some of these schools have finely appointed campuses complete with excellent libraries, modern classrooms, and the latest of

educational equipment. Others have much less in terms of material assets. Some enroll several hundred students, others enroll just a few students. The measure of a school is not determined by such things, however. Regardless of what your school may have in material assets or how many students are enrolled, you have an important mission. Bible institutes exist to prepare students for Christian ministries or church related vocations. Bible institute graduates take up their places as pastors, evangelists, church administrators, missionaries, Christian educators, church musicians, Christian journalists, church office workers, and lay workers in their local churches. Perhaps you are a graduate of a Bible institute. Many faculty members are alumni of schools similar to the ones where they now teach. That is consistent with the purpose of Bible institutes--to equip people for various kinds of Christian service.

Write here what is the primary purpose of Bible institutes.

You probably wrote something like, "Bible institutes exist to train people for Christian service." That is a correct answer. Now think of several persons who have graduated from the Bible institute where you teach. In what kinds of positions do they now serve? List several of them here.

IMPORTANCE OF BIBLE INSTITUTE TEACHERS

The work done in Bible institutes around the world is important to the work of God, the salvation of lost people, and the planting and develop-

ing of the Christian church. The importance of this work emphasizes the significance of your work as a Bible institute faculty member. Bible institutes are places where faculty members help students grow and mature spiritually toward the likeness of Jesus Christ. Teachers' lives are examples for students to use as patterns for their lives. By instilling the Word of God in the students' lives, by developing sound doctrinal beliefs, and by equipping the students with skills needed for ministry, faculty members mold and shape the direction of tomorrow's ministry.

You have already thought of and listed the names of several of the graduates from your school and the ministries in which they are now involved. You had a part in shaping their lives and your ministry continues to produce fruit through them.

How does having a part in the training of these Christian workers make you feel? Describe your feelings here.

Maybe the ministries in which your graduates now serve make you feel a degree of satisfaction and pride. That would be a normal response. After all, through them, your ministry is being multiplied. That can be a gratifying realization. You also may feel a certain degree of humility. The realization of the awesome responsibility that is yours may cause you to feel inadequate. All of us who are involved in this ministry often are made to realize our dependence on the Lord's enablement. That too is a normal response. However, you also may have expressed feelings of incompetence.

Perhaps you realize how important your ministry is, yet you realize that you have not been well-prepared for certain aspects of your work.

NEED TO DEVELOP TEACHING COMPETENCIES

Bible institutes exist as educational institutions. Therefore teaching is one of the primary duties faculty members must perform. Yet often faculty members have not had training to equip them for their teaching tasks. Many times faculty members are chosen from among the ranks of local church pastors. For training others for ministry, this may seem like a good source from which to draw, but we have learned that competencies needed for successful pastoral ministry are different from competencies needed to train others for ministry. Joseph Gettys, in 1949, vividly showed this.

Think of the college teacher who is called out of a position as a pastor and thrust suddenly into the classroom. His sermon-building habits may have been satisfactory for the pulpit, but how this daily discipline of preparation for the classroom torments his soul! He grasps here, there, and yonder for available helps. Some may be good, others poor. Yet his teaching load requires him to be ready for his classes six days a week. He does the best he can but realizes that he is trying to do a job for which he has not had adequate preparation.¹

Ten years later, Hubert Reynhout, Jr., in discussing some of the weaknesses of Bible institutes on the mission field, wrote:

The lack of preparation for educational work on the part of teachers is another common weak point. The teachers are frequently quite well trained in Bible and theology, but very few are trained in education. Yet their job is an educational one. To know the subject is one part of teaching; to know the students, and to know how to teach effectively are other and just as valuable parts.²

Reynhout's statement focuses on one of the major tensions of higher education including Bible institute education--the tension between what to

¹Joseph Gettys, How to Teach the Bible (Richmond, Virginia: John Knox Press, 1949), p. 44.

²Hubert Reynhout, Jr., The Bible School on the Mission Field (Barrington, Rhode Island: Barrington College, 1959), p. 13.

teach and how to teach, between knowledge of subject content and teaching skills. Neeley D. McCarter aptly described the situation:

On numerous occasions I have witnessed a strange phenomenon. A group of professors from the same or several theological schools were engaged in a discussion. In a formal or informal fashion the conversation turned to the teaching task. Suddenly one could feel the level of hostility rise. Voices become sharp and critical. In one such setting a professor exclaimed, "Why do we always talk about how to teach? Why don't we talk about the substance of our courses?" I had been a member of that faculty for some years and had never heard a good or even lengthy discussion of how we teach; I had heard many discussions of content.³

McCarter further stated:

There are no doubt reasons for faculty members to resist a discussion of teaching. Most of us were not trained to teach; we received our degrees in a discipline and probably never studied about or worked on the tasks of teaching as such.⁴

Reynhout hit the nail squarely when he stated, "Teachers should be specialists trained for this ministry both in their subject matter and in education. . . ."⁵ Many teachers feel competent in the subject matter they teach, but feel they are not competent in teaching skills. Many times this is because they have had opportunities to study the subject content but have not had opportunities to develop competencies in teaching the material. This may have been your experience.

APPLICATION

How do you feel about your knowledge of the courses you teach? On a scale of one to ten, with ten being the highest possible development and one being the lowest, where would you rate yourself? (It is okay to be honest.)

³Neeley D. McCarter, "Teaching in Theological Schools," in The Contours of Ministry and Professional Education: 1974 Report of the Thirteenth Biennial Meeting of the Association for Professional Education for Ministry, ed. LeRoy E. Kennel (n.p., n.d.), p. 55.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Reynhout, p. 18.

Lesson 2

UNDERSTANDING TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESSES

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Effective teaching involves guiding learners to discover truth and make desired responses to it.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. State definitions for teaching and learning.
2. Explain what is meant by teaching-learning.
3. Describe what is the teacher's role in teaching-learning.

INTRODUCTION

When you accepted your first teaching assignment, you probably became aware, almost at once, that you were responsible to help your students learn. Whether or not you had a clear understanding of what that involved, you probably felt the weight of that responsibility. After trying to explain a concept your students could not comprehend, you may have wondered, "What am I doing here? Maybe I was not meant to be a teacher." You have undoubtedly discovered that learning does not automatically result because you meet with a group of students. Teaching and learning are based on principles and procedures. When these are understood and followed a greater degree of success is assured. This lesson introduces you to some of the basics of teaching-learning processes.

WHAT TEACHING-LEARNING IS

Being a teacher you perhaps have thought many times about the meaning

of teaching and learning. To help you focus your attention on this matter, write a simple definition of each term as you presently understand them.

Teaching is _____

Learning is _____

Many people hold one of two common viewpoints on this matter. I'll explain them, and you compare what you wrote to discover which view is more like what you wrote.

Those who hold the first view would say that teaching is imparting knowledge and that learning is imbibing information. This viewpoint associates teaching with telling and learning with listening. If a teacher gives a lecture, states facts, cites information, or tells a story, he has taught. If a learner listens, he will learn. The student also may be expected to write or copy the teacher's words and memorize them. If the learner can later restate or recite the material in the teacher's exact words, he has demonstrated that he has learned the material.

This approach is called the "transmissive" approach because it thinks of teaching as transferring information from the teacher's head into the students' heads. The teacher is expected to possess a great storehouse of knowledge, to be filled to overflowing with the pertinent facts and ideas related to the subject. The student is viewed as knowing little, as having little of significant value to contribute to the teaching-learning situation. Teaching involves the teacher transferring what he knows to the student. The teacher is active in the process while the learner is more or less passive. The material is what is important, hence the teacher teaches lessons.

Those who hold the other viewpoint would say that teaching is helping people learn and that learning involves the students discovering information and making desired responses to it. Those who hold this viewpoint believe the students should be equipped to do more than merely recite the information correctly. They want the learners to understand the material, to relate it to what they already know, to be able to use it in solving life's problems, and to develop values based on the information.

This approach assumes that teaching involves leading the students to discover truth for themselves and guiding them to interact with what they discover. It recognizes that the teacher, in fact, cannot learn for the student, nor can he force the student to learn. The teacher cannot fill the students' minds with knowledge, but he can, and indeed should, help them internalize it, and help them make wise use of it for building a better life and in serving God and their fellow mankind.

In this approach teachers teach learners (persons) rather than lessons. The learners are the important elements. Teaching effectiveness is judged by what happens to the learners.

In the following situations, imagine that a teacher is speaking. Which approach to teaching-learning is held? Mark an X on the appropriate line.

1. Class, sit quietly while I teach you the lesson.

transmissive	discovery
--------------	-----------
2. Let's search the passage together to find the answer.

transmissive	discovery
--------------	-----------
3. Here is what the book teaches and what you should believe.

transmissive	discovery
--------------	-----------
4. I'll tell you all about it.

transmissive	discovery
--------------	-----------
5. Research the matter and share with someone what you find.

transmissive	discovery
--------------	-----------

6. I brought these resources to help you look for it.
transmissive discovery
7. See if you can find the answer in Galatians 3.
transmissive discovery
8. Copy what I have written on the chalkboard and memorize it.
transmissive discovery

Statements 1, 3, 4, and 8 are examples of what a teacher who holds the transmissive approach might say. Statements 2, 5, 6, and 7 are examples of what a teacher who holds the discovery approach might say. Notice how the transmissive approach focuses on what the teacher does while the discovery approach focuses on what the learners do.

In the past, the transmissive approach was popular. However, psychological and educational research has shown that the discovery approach is generally superior. Because of this, the discovery approach is the basis for this in-service seminar.

Before you read further in this lesson, memorize these definitions.

Teaching is helping people learn.

Learning is discovering information and making desired responses to that information.

When you think you have them memorized check yourself by writing them on a piece of paper.

Perhaps you are beginning to comprehend that teaching and learning are interrelated and inseparable. If teaching takes place, learning results. It may help you to think of them as two sides of one coin. The two go together. They are inseparably related into one whole concept. Because of this, we refer to this as "teaching-learning."

To help reinforce what you have learned and to help ensure that you understand the concept, explain to one of the other seminar participants

what is teaching-learning. Does this person agree that you understand the concept? If so, continue on in this lesson. If you had difficulty, reread this section again before continuing on.

WHAT IS THE TEACHER'S ROLE

You have learned that the learner must discover truth for himself through interaction with the information. The teacher cannot fill the learners with knowledge. Teaching is helping people learn. If the learners are responsible to do the learning, what is the teacher's responsibility?

May I suggest three important things which are important aspects of the teacher's role? First, the teacher designs and directs learning situations which result in the desired teaching-learning changes taking place. Teachers should arrange situations which will cause learning to occur. The learner must make the discoveries but the teacher guides along the path of discovery.

Place an X on the line preceding the statements which describe activities a teacher might do to facilitate and guide learning.

- a. Bring to class interesting books which relate to the lesson.
- b. Ask a student to share his discovery with the rest of the class.
- c. Ask a student to leave class because his recitation was incorrect.
- d. Explain a concept more fully to a learner who does not understand.
- e. Tell the students what a Bible passage says and what it means.

Statements a, b, and d are examples of things a teacher might do to guide a class of learner to make meaningful learning discoveries.

Statements c and e do not help the learner discover and learn.

Second, the teacher must motivate learning. Humans learn only when they want to learn. Therefore, teachers should help students want to learn.

This can be done by appealing to the learners' desire to know, or by offering external rewards, such as prizes or other symbols of approval, for accomplishment.

Place an X on the line preceeding the statements which describe things a teacher might do to motivate learning.

- a. Choose a teaching method which appeals to the learners' interest and natural curiosity to know.
- b. Require all students to do the same activities, with no regard for what they want to do.
- c. Present information in a way that excites involvement and interaction.
- d. Show how information can be used to solve real-life problems.
- e. Give high grades for any worksheet which shows improvement since the last grades were given.
- f. Publicly scold a student for an incorrect response to a question.

However it is accomplished, learning should be inviting, interesting, and satisfying. Statements a, c, d, and e are examples of things a teacher might do to motivate learning. These should help the students desire to achieve the teaching-learning goal.

And third, the teacher must be a model of the lesson. His own life should be a prime example of the truth being taught. Showing is more forceful than telling. The teacher should demonstrate the quality of life, the attitudes, and the values he wants the learners to develop. As the teacher shares the results of his own discoveries, the learners will make their own discoveries too. The teacher modeling the truth is teaching at its very best.

Describe on a sheet of paper a situation when you learned a powerful lesson from a teacher's example. What made the situation memorable?

CONCLUSION

Understanding what teaching-learning is and what is the teacher's role will help you be a better teacher. The teaching task involves helping people learn, helping them discover information and make desired responses to it. Comprehending these concepts is basic preparation for effective teaching and it is foundational to what you will study in the rest of this seminar.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to

1. Explain what is meant by "Change is essential to learning."
2. List and describe the three domains in which changes occur.
3. Discuss the kinds of experiences which produce learning change.

INTRODUCTION

Based on our definitions, learning involves the learner's acquisition of information and responding to it. Therefore, we put our learning objectives in terms of change. All efforts to help someone learn are attempts to cause him to change. For the learner to make desired changes in response to what he is learning, he must become actively involved with the materials. He must internalize it and allow it to control his own behavior. As a teacher, you may wonder, "How do I teach to produce learning?" That is an appropriate question. This lesson is designed to help you answer that question. You will study more about change as the result of learning, the areas of life in which changes take place, and the kinds of experiences which lead to change.

LEARNING IS . . .

Educational theorists have taught us that learning happens not by what a teacher thinks or does, but by what the learners think and do. They believe that one learns only what he does, hence educators frequently say, "learning

Lesson 3

TEACHING THAT PRODUCES CHANGE

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Change in the learner is essential to teaching-learning.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Explain what is meant by "Change is essential to learning."
2. List and describe the three domains in which changes occur.
3. Discuss the kinds of experiences which produce learning changes.

INTRODUCTION

Based on our definitions, learning involves the learner discovering information and responding to it. Therefore, we can say learning involves change. All efforts to help someone learn are attempts to cause him to change. For the learner to make desired changes in response to what he is learning, he must become actively involved with the material. He must internalize it and allow it to control and shape his life. As a teacher, you may wonder, "How do I teach to produce change?" That is an appropriate question. This lesson is designed to help you answer that question. You will study more about change as the result of learning, the areas of life in which changes take place, and the kinds of experiences which lead to change.

LEARNING IS . . .

Educational theorists have taught us that learning happens not by what a teacher thinks or does, but by what the learners think and do. They believe that one learns only what he does, hence educators frequently say, "Learning

is doing." This idea is popularized by the statement, "Experience is the best teacher." These are ways of expressing the idea that if learning is to happen, the learner must become actively involved with the material.

Percival M. Symonds, an educational psychologist, argued that "Learning is reacting."¹ He believed that people learn by the acts they perform, words they repeat, and thoughts and feelings they experienced. He thought that the only things a person learns were what he does. He considered his concept to be in contrast with the idea that learning involved accumulating knowledge, gathering facts, absorbing, or taking in passively. To Symonds, the learner must react and adjust to his environment, he must become involved personally with the material.

Another educator, a Christian, Martha M. Leypoldt believed that change is essential to learning. She wrote, "To learn is to change! Learning is changing!"² Her point was that when a person has learned his entire person is changed. She believed in a holistic view of man. Therefore, change in one facet of his being results in change in the whole person. So gaining new information, changing attitudes, or acquiring new skills makes a different person. Because he has learned, he is changed. Change is essential to learning.

Today, most educators are agreed that the learners must be actively involved in the teaching-learning process if learning is to occur. Learner interaction with the material may be intellectual, emotional or physical; and learning is increased when the involvement comes in all three of these

¹Percival M. Symonds, What Education Has to Learn From Psychology (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 37-48.

²Martha M. Leypoldt, Learning is Change (Valley Forge, Pennsylvania: Judson Press, 1971), p. 27.

ways. For teaching to be effective, it must lead the learners to the material, guide them in the process of discovery, and persist until the material is internalized and change results. The teacher's task is not completed until this happens.

Write on a sheet of paper answers to the following questions:

1. Why is it important for the learner to become actively involved in the teaching-learning process?
2. How can the learner become actively involved in the teaching-learning process?
3. What does the statement, "Change is essential to learning," mean?

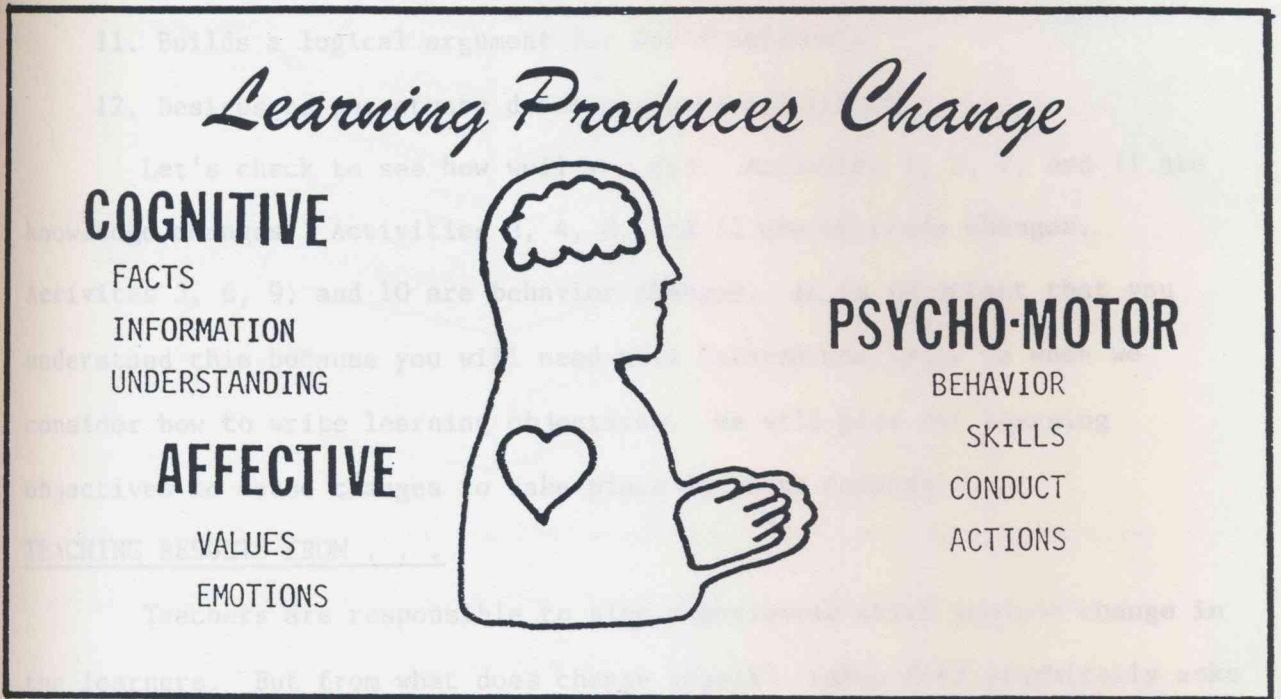
To check your comprehension of these concepts, compare your answers to what you have read here in this study guide. If you are unsure you understand the concepts you have studied in this section, discuss it with another seminar participant or the seminar leader.

EXPECT CHANGE IN . . .

Learning change is generally described as growth, maturing, modification, or adjustment. Educators have identified three areas, called domains, in which learning changes take place. As a person learns, he grows or makes adjustments in these three areas of life. These are knowledge, attitudes, and behavior. The scientific names for these are the cognitive, affective, and psycho-motor domains. It may help you to remember these by thinking of them as the head (knowledge), heart (attitudes), and hands (behavior). All learning change occurs in these three areas.

Change in the cognitive domain results in discovery of new facts, acquiring information, or similar kinds of things that center in remembering. Affective changes involve forming values, experiencing emotions, and similar things related to feelings. Changes in the psycho-motor domain include

acquiring new skills, changes in behavior patterns, modifying actions, and all things related to doing.



Classify the following learning changes by indicating into which category each fits best. If the activity calls for change in knowledge, write a K on the line. Use the letter A for attitude changes and B for behavior changes.

1. Memorizes Bible verses
2. Love for God deepens
3. Types a letter
4. Feels sorrow about another's problems
5. Changes view on a doctrinal issue
6. Learns to direct a Bible study group
7. Gains new facts to support a belief already held

8. Senses urgency of task more intensely
9. Develops technique for effective witnessing
10. Acquires skills for teaching a Sunday school class
11. Builds a logical argument for God's existence
12. Desires to perpetuate denominational traditions

Let's check to see how well you did. Activities 1, 5, 7, and 11 are knowledge changes. Activities 2, 4, 8, and 12 are attitude changes. Activities 3, 6, 9, and 10 are behavior changes. It is important that you understand this because you will need this information later on when we consider how to write learning objectives. We will plan our learning objectives to cause changes to take place in these domains.

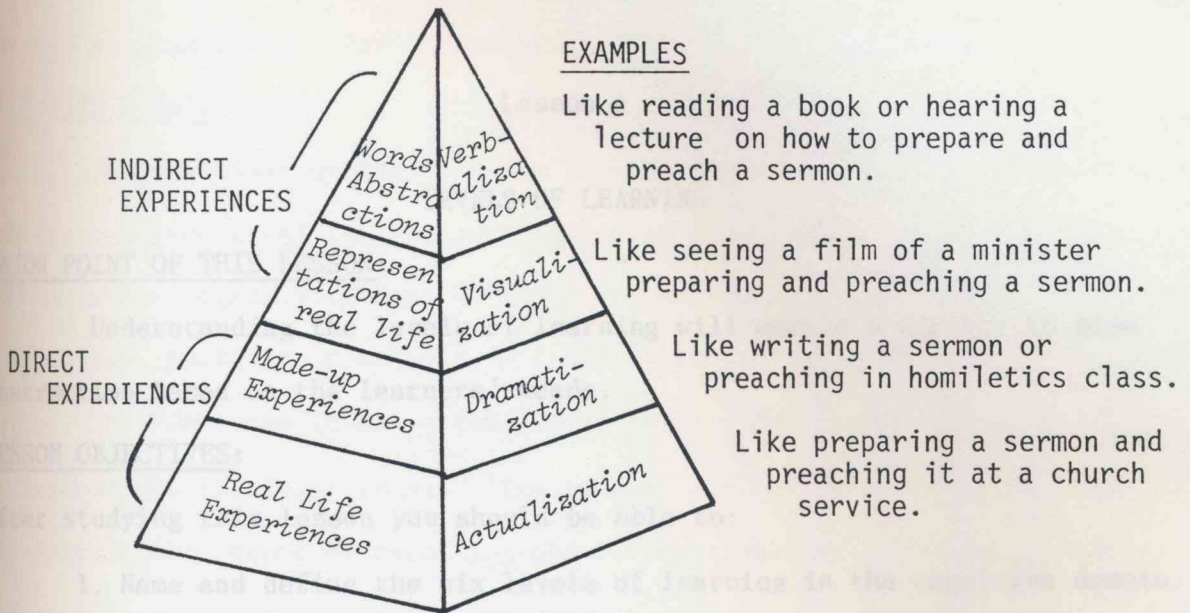
TEACHING RESULTS FROM . . .

Teachers are responsible to plan experiences which produce change in the learners. But from what does change result? LeRoy Ford graphically asks essentially the same question, "How does the learner learn?"³ He continues to show that we learn through our experiences, many, but not all, of which come through our five senses. Researchers have determined that we learn through our senses in the following proportions: 83% - sight, 11% - hearing, 3 1/2% - touch, 1 1/2% - smell, 1% - taste. Learning usually is more effective when more than one of the senses are involved at the same time.

Some learning experiences are more effective than others. Generally, the closer the learning encounters are to real life experiences, the more effective they will be. Study the pyramid of learning at the top of the next page carefully. Some learning experiences are direct and others are indirect. Some learning will result at each level, but the closer the

³LeRoy Ford, A Primer for Teachers and Leaders (Nashville, Tennessee: Broadman Press, 1963), pp. 19-21.

PYRAMID OF LEARNING



learning experiences are to the bottom of the pyramid the more effective they will be. This is because the closer the experiences are to the bottom of the pyramid, the more senses are involved, while the closer the experiences are to the top of the pyramid the fewer senses are involved.

Write a learning activity you might assign which would be an example of each level of the learning pyramid. These examples should NOT be the ones given above. You should think of others which are just as appropriate.

Verbalization -

Visualization -

Dramatization -

Actualization -

If you do not understand any of these concepts, reread this section before going on to the next lesson.

Lesson 4

LEVELS OF LEARNING

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Understanding the levels of learning will enable a teacher to plan instruction based on the learners' needs.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Name and define the six levels of learning in the cognitive domain.
2. Name and define the five levels of learning in the affective domain.
3. Identify learning activities appropriate to both of these levels.
4. Discuss learning in the psycho-motor domain.

INTRODUCTION

When can you say you know someone? Do you know someone after having met him just once? You may know him well enough to recognize him when you see him again and you may remember his name, but do you really know him? Many encounters under a variety of circumstances are required to know someone well. We might think of our growing acquaintance with another person as marked by degrees of levels of friendship. In a similar way there are levels of learning. We learn some information at one level and other information at another. Some learning tasks are simple and require little effort, while others are more complex, require us to rely on what we have already learned, and are more difficult.

In this lesson you will study the levels of learning in the three

domains where learning changes occur. By learning this information you will be able to plan instruction at the level of your students' needs.

COGNITIVE DOMAIN

The cognitive domain includes knowing and understanding information, and the development of intellectual abilities and skills. There are six levels in the cognitive domain.¹ These are knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

The knowledge level is the lowest level. The learner memorizes facts or information for later recall. The learner can demonstrate his learning accomplishments either by recalling and reciting what he has memorized or by recognizing the information when he sees it again.

The comprehension level involves understanding the meaning of facts or information. When a learner comprehends information, he can express the material in his own words or in new forms. He also could demonstrate his comprehension by recognizing the information in a different form, by explaining what it means or by summarizing it.

The application level refers to putting into practice what is learned. It involves the ability to use the material in new situations. Application is sometimes called "transfer of learning" because it involves the learner transferring to a new situation what he has learned. Many times application includes using, or putting into action, concepts, rules, principles, laws, theories, or methods that are learned.

Analysis refers to the ability to break down material into its components parts, and it may include solving problems in a systematic way.

¹This discussion is based on Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain, edited by Benjamin S. Bloom; David McKay Co., Inc, New York, 1956.

Analysis involved determining how something complex is organized and how the component parts relate to the whole. Analysis represents higher intellectual processes than comprehension or application because it requires an understanding of both the material and its structural form.

Synthesis refers to the ability to put together component parts into a whole. It involves the learner producing something new, a creative new piece of work. The learner pulls together all he knows about the subject and uses that to produce a new product.

Evaluation refers to the ability to judge the value or worth of something. The learner determines whether it meets certain standards or criteria. This is the highest level or most complex because it contains elements from all of the other categories and the making of value judgments based on clearly defined criteria.

Write the six levels of learning in the cognitive domain and a brief definition of each one in the appropriate boxes below. Try to do it from memory. If you can't get them that way, you may look in your notes.

LEVEL	DEFINITION
6	
5	
4	
3	
2	
1	

Match the two lists below by writing the letter preceding the levels of learning on the line before the statement that best describes each level.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>___ 1. The learner writes a sermon based on Ephesians 4:11-16.</p> <p>___ 2. The learner writes a paraphrase of the twenty-third Psalm.</p> <p>___ 3. The learner rates a sermon on correct use of homiletical procedures.</p> <p>___ 4. The learner helps an elderly neighbor after studying about the Good Samaritan.</p> <p>___ 5. The learner outlines the book of Romans.</p> <p>___ 6. The learner memorizes the Lord's Prayer.</p> <p>___ 7. The learner writes from memory in correct order the books of the Old Testament.</p> <p>___ 8. The learner develops a grammatical chart of a Bible verse.</p> <p>___ 9. The learner determines which of three presentations differs most from his church's doctrinal statement.</p> <p>___ 10. The learner summarizes the truth taught in Psalm 91.</p> <p>___ 11. The learner presents a short speech on the practice of baptizing believers in water.</p> <p>___ 12. The learner identifies the sinful behavior of a character in a given story.</p> | <p>a. Evaluation</p> <p>b. Synthesis</p> <p>c. Analysis</p> <p>d. Application</p> <p>e. Comprehension</p> <p>f. Knowledge</p> |
|--|---|

I hope you got these all correct. The correct order is 1-b, 2-e, 3-a, 4-d, 5-c, 6-f, 7-f, 8-c, 9-a, 10-e, 11-b, 12-d. If this is the first time you have considered these levels of learning, they may seem difficult, but as you work more with them, they will become easier and you will be able to use them effectively.

AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

The affective domain includes attitudes and values. There are five

levels of learning in the affective domain.² These are receiving, responding, valuing, organization, and characterization.

Receiving, the lowest level, involves the learner simply becoming aware that an idea or situation exists. He begins to focus his attention on it. The learner is willing to receive it.

Responding is the level at which the learner becomes interested in the subject. This goes beyond merely paying attention to it. While the learner does not take action yet at this level, he does commit himself to some small degree to what he receives.

At the valuing level, the learner integrates the person, idea, or situation into his mental grid to the point he attaches value or worth to it. It becomes significant to him. He identifies himself with it and is willing to speak for it or to represent it because he believes it has inherent worth.

Organization involves the learner in integrating the valued person, idea, or situation into a consistent system. He commits more than one value to it. He sees how the new value relates to what he already values and it comes into ordered relationship in his life.

Characterization, the highest level, involves the learner in developing a life style that is consistent with his philosophy of life. He acts at all times in light of his values. His convictions control how he acts. He does and lives what he believes.

Write the five levels of learning in the affective domain and a brief description of each one in the appropriate boxes below.

²This discussion is based on Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain, edited by David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom, and Bertrand B. Maisa; David McKay Company, Inc., New York, 1964.

LEVEL	DEFINITION
5	
4	
3	
2	
1	

Modifying, or changing, values is the most difficult part of teaching-learning and it requires considerable time to accomplish. Also, it is very difficult to measure or assess accurately attitudinal changes. A teacher cannot develop values for the learners. The learners must develop their own attitudes and values, but the teacher can help them clarify their values. Consistent personal example is a most powerful tool in helping learners develop desired values. The teacher's life must exemplify the ideals he wants his students to develop.

Circle the letter before the term which correctly identifies the level of attitudinal learning described in each statement below.

1. The learner hears a sermon about the spiritual needs of a group of people living in a remote jungle.

- a. Receiving
- b. Valuing

2. Since learning about the spiritual needs of a group of people living in a remote jungle, the learner becomes a missionary to them.

- a. Responding
- b. Characterization

(Continued on top of next page.)

3. The learner considers for a few minutes the spiritual needs of a group of people living in a remote jungle.

- a. Organization
- b. Responding

4. The learner worked out a plan for helping a group of spiritually needy people living in a remote jungle receive the gospel.

- a. Organization
- b. Receiving

5. The learner commits to read and learn more about the spiritual needs of a group of people living in a remote jungle.

- a. Characterization
- b. Valuing

I hope you got these all correct. It is important that you understand this, because much Bible institute teaching involves helping students develop a value system and a life style that reflects Christian priorities. The correct answers are: 1-a The learner is merely made aware. 2-b The learner acts on what he believes. 3-b The learner is slightly interested. 4-a The learner integrates his new value. 5-b The learner gives worth to the idea. If you did not get these all correct, reread this section before continuing.

PSYCHO-MOTOR DOMAIN

The psycho-motor domain includes learning to perform physical acts. Such things as learning to ride a bicycle, playing the piano, and directing a choir are examples of activities which involve motor skills. Motor skills require coordination of body muscles. They involve things we do, behavior, or action.

Educators have not identified the learning levels in this domain as clearly as they have with the other domains. Nevertheless some teachers, including Bible institute teachers, must teach in this domain. Teaching students to conduct a choir or lead a song service, to baptize converts, to

preach sermons, to play musical instruments are some examples.

Although the levels of learning have not been clearly spelled out, we know of some things which facilitate learning in this domain. Learners begin to develop skills by observing a teacher properly demonstrate how to do it. It is helpful when the learner sees both a complete overview of the process and a step-by-step detailed demonstration.

Learners also develop skills by trying it for themselves and through repeated practice. At first the practice should be carefully guided, then as the learner develops the skills less guidance and more independence is needed. Repetition of practice is most helpful.

Circle the T before each true statement. Circle the F before each statement that is not true.

- T F 1. Educators have agreed on five levels of learning in the psycho-motor domain.
- T F 2. The psycho-motor domain involves skills, behavior, and action.
- T F 3. Bible institute teachers teach for change in the psycho-motor domain.
- T F 4. Development of motor skills comes naturally and need not be taught.
- T F 5. The psycho-motor domain requires muscle coordination.
- T F 6. Educators do not know what activities help develop motor skills.
- T F 7. A teacher demonstrating how to perform correctly a given skill helps the learners learn to perform it.
- T F 8. Learners who have observed a teacher perform a skill can immediately repeat the skill competently.
- T F 9. Carefully guided practice of a skill helps a learner learn to perform that task well.
- T F 10. Repetition facilitates learning motor skills.

Check your answers. Statements 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, and 10 are true and statements 1, 4, 6, and 8 are not true. How did you do? Well, I hope.

FIELD OF INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING

Lesson 5

PLANNING INSTRUCTION

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Effective teaching-learning is the result of careful instructional planning.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Explain what is the major concern of instructional planning.
2. List the four elements of an instructional model developed by Popham and Baker.
3. Discuss practical procedures in instructional planning.

INTRODUCTION

Planning is the beginning point of nearly every successful endeavor. We plan a trip by deciding where we want to go, on what kind of conveyance we will travel, and what route we will follow. We try to plan every detail to ensure our desired intent. Engineers and architects carefully plan buildings before construction begins. Likewise, teachers plan instruction to ensure desired results. Perhaps no other aspect of the teacher's role task is more important. Careful planning is essential to effective teaching-learning.

In this lesson you will study how to plan instruction that produces results. You will gain a perspective on instruction and you will learn a model of instructional planning that you can apply either to course planning or to individual lesson planning.

FOCUS OF INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING

Often as a teacher thinks about instructional planning, the first question to come to mind is, "What shall I do in this course?" While this may seem like a realistic place to begin, it focuses attention on the wrong things. It focuses on the teacher and the things he may do, when the focus should be on the learner and what is desired to happen to him as a result of the instruction. A better first question would be, "What do I want to happen to the learner?" Instructional planning should determine what the learners are to become and what is needed to help them become that.

Instructional planning that focuses on the learner is totally consistent with what you have already learned in this seminar. Teaching is helping someone learn. Learning involves discovering information and making desired responses to it. Teaching-learning results in change in the learners. This change may occur in any domain and at any level. Instructional planning, therefore, focuses on the desired outcome in the learners' lives. It seeks to anticipate the desired changes in the pupils and plans how to cause that to happen. The focus of instructional planning is on the learner and what he will become, rather than on the teacher and what he will do.

Which of the teachers in the following situations understands properly who (or what) should be the focus of instructional planning? Circle the letter which designates the teacher who understands properly.

1. Teacher A: "The first thing I'll do in planning my new course is make a list of the topics on which I want to lecture."

Teacher B: "The first thing I'll do in planning my new course is make a list of the changes I hope will occur in the learners."

A

B

2. Teacher A: "In planning for this course, I am trying to determine what activities will be most interesting."

Teacher B: "In planning for this course, I am trying to determine what activities will be most effective in bringing about the changes I want to occur."

A B

3. Teacher A: "I have done a good job of planning because I know what I will do in each class meeting for the entire term."

Teacher B: "I have done a good job of planning because I know what I want to happen to the learners as a result of the course."

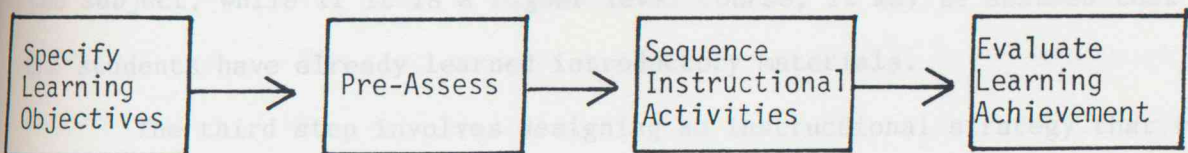
A B

Perhaps by now you are coming to understand that what the teacher does is important, but it is not a first consideration. The first consideration focuses on the learner and his learning. What the teacher does is determined by what he wants the learners to learn and by what best will cause that to happen. If you understand this significant point, you recognize that in each of the above exercises teacher B was the better response.

MODEL FOR INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING

Instructional design has become in recent years a topic for considerable discussion. The different educators who write on this subject advocate their own models, often differing only slightly from others. In this seminar, we are advocating a basic model developed by Popham and Baker.¹

A GOAL-REFERENCED INSTRUCTIONAL MODEL



The first step calls for the learning objectives to be specified.

¹W. James Popham and Eva L. Baker, Systematic Instruction (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), p. 13.

This involves pre-determining what will be the learning outcomes, deciding what changes in the learners are desired. You will learn how to specify learning objectives in the next lesson of this seminar.

The second step is to pre-assess the learners' current status in relation to those instructional objectives. The objectives are like an end goal; where you want the learners to be after instruction.

It is recognized that teaching-learning must begin where the learners are, and it must proceed from what is known to what is unknown. It is recognized that the learners may come to class with some knowledge of the subject. To attempt to reteach the learners what they already know would be a waste. So to properly plan instruction the teacher needs to know where the learners are before instruction. That is what pre-assessment is.

Pre-assessment may take the form of pre-testing. A test, similar to a final exam, may be given before instruction begins. Obviously, the learners are not expected to do nearly as well as they would after instruction. The purpose is to let the teacher, and the learners, know how much the learners do not know that is desired for them to know.

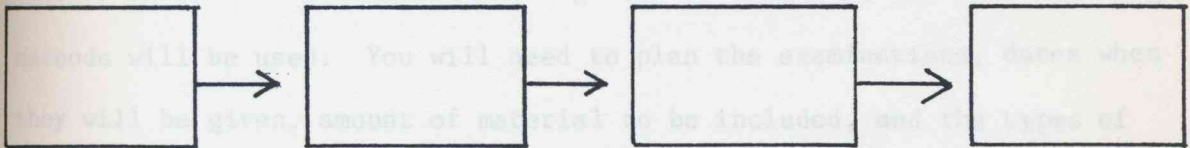
Pre-assessment does not always take the form of testing. As an overview of the subject is discussed, observation of the students will often provide this information. If the course is the first one of a discipline, an introductory course, it may be assumed that the students know little about the subject, while if it is a higher level course, it may be assumed that the students have already learned introductory materials.

The third step involves designing an instructional strategy that will realize the learning objectives. It should lead the learners from where they are to where they should be. This instructional strategy will need to take into account all of the principles of learning and it will need to be orga-

nized in a systematic way that will lead the learners step-by-step toward discovery and learning. This includes determining the learning activities and making assignments of them. You will learn how to do this in lesson 7.

Fourth, the learners' learning achievements are evaluated. The criteria for evaluation are the learning objectives. How much progress have the learners made at achieving what was intended for them? The final unit of this seminar is devoted to evaluating learning and it will teach you how to evaluate learning progress, how to construct and interpret examinations, and how to determine students' grades.

Fill in the four blank boxes to correctly identify the four elements of Popham & Baker's instructional model.



As you can see, this approach is not subject-content centered. This is not to suggest, however, that the content is unimportant, but it does suggest that the content must fit in its proper place. The content is a means to an end rather than the end itself. The end is desired changes in the learners.

PROCEDURES IN INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING

In practical terms, instructional planning primarily is a process of decision making. The teacher must decide: (1) What will the course seek to accomplish? (2) What will be included? (3) What will be excluded? and (4) How do we proceed? Examination of your school's curriculum will help you answer some of these questions. You will be helped in answering others by reading the official course descriptions your school has written.

To thoroughly plan a course, you need to decide what changes you want to occur in the students and write these as your course objectives. You will need to decide how much you will try to teach the students. There is always more material than can be taught in one course, so you will teach some and you will not teach some. This decision should not be left to chance. It should be carefully planned as part of the design of the course. You will need to plan what learning activities you will assign for the students to do, what textbook they will read, what other materials they should read, what written exercises are to be completed, or what projects are to be done. These activities should lead toward the achievement of the learning goals. You will need to plan dates when work is required to be submitted. You will need to decide how each class meeting will be conducted and what teaching methods will be used. You will need to plan the examinations, dates when they will be given, amount of material to be included, and the types of questions to be asked. And you will need to plan how you will determine the students' grades, what amount of the learning objectives is the minimal acceptable for a passing grade, how much weight will be given to what items, and the method to be used for computing grades.

If you are initially planning a course you have not taught before or if it has been some time since you have studied the subject, you may need to develop a reading list for yourself and do some reading in the subject. Thorough reading will help you organize your thinking about the subject and it will help you discover the current thinking about the subject. Read yourself full, jotting down plenty of notes and references.

In actual practice, considerations of the content and specifying learning objectives for the learners to achieve will flow together. The teacher will find it necessary to consider these together. The same will be

true at each succeeding step of the planning process.

Write a brief paragraph, or make a listing of notes, indicating what changes you need to make in your instructional planning procedures. What do you presently do that you should continue doing? What do you need to start doing that you do not currently do? What things do you currently do that you need to stop doing?

Specifying learning objectives involves writing statements which indicate the desired learning intent.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Write learning objectives which include four essential characteristics.
2. Write learning objective indicators which include three essential characteristics.
3. Explain what terminal and enabling objectives are.
4. Describe the procedural steps in specifying learning objectives.

INTRODUCTION

Teachers are responsible for the outcomes that result from their efforts. Since teaching is helping people learn, then the teacher is responsible to ensure that the students learn. But what are they to learn?

I hope you are not confused or discouraged at this point of the seminar. You have been introduced to so many concepts that you may be wondering if you will ever keep them straight, how they fit together, and if you know enough to change your habits. Many of the ideas will become clearer as you learn more about them. The rest of the seminar is designed to help you learn in more depth many of these things. Great rewards in terms of professional competence await, if you persevere. I know you can make it!

Lesson 6

SPECIFYING LEARNING OBJECTIVES

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Specifying learning objectives involves writing statements which indicate the desired learning intent.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Write learning objectives which include four essential characteristics.
2. Write learning objective indicators which include three essential characteristics.
3. Explain what terminal and enabling objectives are.
4. Describe the procedural steps in specifying learning objectives.

INTRODUCTION

Teachers are responsible for the outcomes that result from their efforts. Since teaching is helping people learn, then the teacher is responsible to ensure that the learners learn. But what are they to learn? To desire that people learn is noble, but to be more specific in stating precisely what they are to learn is much better. This brings us to the matter of specifying learning objectives, the first step of Popham and Baker's instructional model.

All educators are concerned about setting goals and specifying learning objectives. Yet there is considerable difference in their

discussions about how learning objectives should be constructed. In planning this lesson, I had to choose whether to teach you several different educators' views, one specific educator's view, or one of my own. I chose to expose you to a specific educator's approach. So in this lesson, you will learn the approach of LeRoy Ford,¹ a Baptist Christian educator. I think you will find his method helpful.

UNDERSTANDING LEARNING OBJECTIVES

An objective is an end toward which one strives. It is a goal toward which one directs his efforts, a target toward which one aims. Goals are what we want to accomplish. In teaching-learning, learning objectives are statements of desired learning intent, statements of what is expected to happen to the learners as a result of the teaching-learning encounter, statements of the expected changes in the learners.

Memorize Ford's definition of a learning objective:

A learning [objective] is a relatively broad statement of learning intent which expresses from the viewpoint of the learner the primary learning outcomes.

The word "objective" is in brackets because I substituted it where Ford used the word "goal." Some educators have attempted to make a distinction between goals and objectives, yet they do not agree on the distinction. Some educators use one of the terms and not the other. I think of goals and objectives as synonyms and prefer to use the term "learning objectives."

Ford identifies four characteristics of well-stated learning objectives: (1) Learning objectives tell in relatively broad terms what the learner should learn. They do not state what the learner will do to prove he has learned, as some educators call for. But they set in relatively

¹LeRoy Ford, Design for Teaching and Training (Nashville, Tennessee: Broadman Press, 1978), pp. 13-65.

broad terms the direction of learning. (2) Learning objectives tell what should happen to the learner, not the teacher. They do not state what the teacher will learn nor what he will do to teach the course or lesson. They tell what is to happen to the learner. (3) Learning objectives indicate the kind of learning change which the learners should achieve. This means that they indicate the domain in which learning change is to occur. These changes are called "primary learning outcomes." (4) Learning objectives state the subject dealt with. They tell the subject being studied and specifically what about the subject is to be learned.

Mark an X on the line before the statements which have these four characteristics. Leave blank the line before the statements which do not have these characteristics.

1. The learner knows Psalm 23.
2. The learner knows the names of the books of the Bible in correct order.
3. To explain the plan of salvation.
4. The learner demonstrates the ability to locate Bible references.
5. To demonstrate how to lead a song.
6. The learner understands the meaning of Romans 3:23.
7. The learner understands the Bible.
8. The learner demonstrates an understanding of the causes of the Babylonian captivity.

Statements 1, 2, 4, 6, and 8 meet the criteria. They have all four characteristics. Statements 3 and 5 tell what the teacher will do to teach the lesson rather than what will happen to the learner. The problem with statement 7 is that it is too general. It does not meet characteristic 4. What about the Bible do you want the learner to understand? The style you

use to express your learning objectives is not important, so long as they have these four characteristics.

DEMONSTRATING LEARNING OBJECTIVE ACHIEVEMENT

A concern to any teacher is knowing whether the learners have learned, whether they have achieved the learning objectives. Just as a traveler looks for landmarks or road signs to indicate his progress toward his destination, so a teacher needs indicators to indicate the learners progress toward achieving the objectives. Indicators are those things the learners do to indicate, or demonstrate, that they have achieved the learning objectives. They tell what the teacher will accept as proof, indication, or demonstration that the learners have achieved, or progressed toward, the objectives.

You may choose to add the indicators to the objective statements or you may choose to list them separately. In example A below the indicator is combined with the objective, while in example B they are stated separately.

Example A: The learner demonstrates the ability to locate Bible references by locating without help five given references.

Example B: Objective - The learner develops the ability to locate Bible references.

Indicator - The learner locates without help five given Bible references.

Indicators state what the learner should be able to do after instruction that shows he has achieved the desired learning intent.

Ford identifies three characteristics of properly stated indicators:

(1) indicators tell what the learner does to indicate or prove he has learned, (2) indicators tell how well the learner should perform, and (3) indicators describe the special conditions or circumstances under which the learner will perform.

In examples A and B above, it is implied that the learners are to be 100% accurate. They are to correctly locate all five references they are given. Recognizing that everybody sometimes makes mistakes, we could have stated, "the learner will correctly locate at least eight out of ten given Bible references." These are ways of stating how well the learner must perform. The specified conditions in examples A and B are that the references are given. The learners cannot locate any references they choose or happen to find. They must locate the ones they are assigned to find.

Mark an X on the line before the statements which are properly stated indicators. Leave blank the lines before the statements which are not properly stated.

1. Recites the Lord's Prayer as given in Matthew 6:9-13.
2. Understands what Ephesians 4:11-16 means.
3. Lists the points of last Sunday morning's sermon.
4. Writes a paraphrase of Psalm 1.
5. Demonstrates awareness of the differences between Catholics and Pentecostals.
6. Knows the names of Jesus' twelve disciples.
7. Explains the meaning of John 1:1-14.
8. Believes the Bible to be God's Word.

Statements 1, 3, 4, and 7 meet all of the requirements of properly stated indicators. Statements 2, 5, 6, and 8 do not meet all of the requirements. Change them so they will be properly stated.

There are many ways you could change each one. As given, statement 2 is an objective. One way to change it to be an indicator is to substitute the word explains for understands. Statement 5 also is an objective. How would you expect the student to demonstrate an awareness of the differences?

Perhaps you might want him to list, discuss, or explain the differences.

Statement 6 is another example of an objective. To change it into an indicator, simply change the action verb to one that can be observed.

Substitute "writes", "lists," or "names" for "knows." Likewise, how would the learner demonstrate that he believes? He might list reasons why he believes the Bible to be God's Word.

Perhaps you are beginning to see a relationship between indicators and examination questions. If you are, you are perceptive. Such a relationship exists. You can look forward to studying more about this in the unit dealing with evaluating learning.

PLANNING LEARNING OBJECTIVES

You will find it necessary to specify learning objectives for your courses, units within those courses, and your individual lessons. Some objectives are "terminal" and others are "enabling." Before learners can achieve some learning tasks, they first must achieve other tasks. Before a person can write his name, he must know his name, know how to spell it, and be able to write the letters that are required. "The learner will be able to write his own name" is a terminal objective. It is the end result. The steps leading to that are enabling objectives. Terminal objectives are the end products of learning. Enabling objectives are goals which must be achieved before the terminal objective can be achieved. These sometimes are called "en route" objectives because they must be achieved on the way to achieving something higher.

Deciding what enabling objectives need to be achieved en route to achieving a terminal objective calls for a task or needs analysis. When I do this, it helps me after identifying the terminal objective to ask, "What must the learner know or be able to do to achieve this?" I keep asking this

until I am down to the tasks I am sure the learners can already achieve.

When specifying learning objectives, the teacher is pre-determining the changes which should occur in the learners. You have already learned that learning changes occur in three domains and at different levels within those domains. You will need to consider "In what domain?" and "At what level is change needed" as you write your learning objectives.

Course objectives usually are broad and general while individual lesson objectives are quite specific. Lesson objectives almost always are enabling, while course objectives are terminal.

It is usually best to limit the number of objectives. Within the time span of a term, it may be possible to achieve several objectives. About five to eight broad, general objectives for a course are considered appropriate, while from one to four specific objectives for a lesson are considered appropriate.

PROCEDURES FOR SPECIFYING LEARNING OBJECTIVES

The first step in specifying learning objectives is deciding what you want the learners to learn. After completing the course or lesson what should the learners know, feel, and/or be able to do? These should be written. I use three questions to help me do this: (1) What do I want the learners to know or understand after completing the course or lesson? (2) How do I want the learners to feel or what do you want them to value after completing the course of lesson? (Some lessons require none) (3) What do I want the learners to be able to do after completing the course or lesson? (Some lessons require none)

The second step is to write these things in the form of objectives. They need not be perfectly stated yet. Just get them into written form.

The third step is to revise and rewrite the objectives being sure

that all four characteristics are present. Now your objectives are correctly specified.

The next step is to develop the indicators for the learning objectives. I ask myself, "What can I accept as indication the learners can perform the intended tasks?" Sometimes more than one behavior could be accepted, so I have to choose which I will accept.

The final step in the procedure is to revise the indicators making certain that the three essential characteristics are included.

I asked you to bring to the seminar a syllabus you use for some course you teach. You will revise it as part of the learning experience of this seminar encounter. You will begin revising it now. Using the worksheets which follow this lesson in your notebook, specify the learning objectives for the course you teach. Then write the indicators you will accept as indication the objectives have been achieved. The worksheets give you directions which will guide you through this process.

WORKSHEET

Specifying Learning Objectives

List the things you want the learners to know after completing this course.

List how you want the learners to feel or what you want them to value after completing this course.

List what you want the learners to be able to do or skills they should be able to perform after completing the course.

State what you wrote above in the form of roughly stated objectives.

Go back through your objectives and add anything that is needed to include all four characteristics. Then write your finished objectives here.

List what the learners could do to demonstrate (indicate) that they have achieved the learning tasks.

Lesson 7

DESIGNING INSTRUCTIONAL SEQUENCES

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Designing instructional sequences involves choosing and organizing learning activities which lead to the achievement of the learning objectives.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. List and explain five principles of instructional sequencing.
2. Prescribe a list of course requirements intended to achieve a set of learning objectives.
3. Develop a course outline showing what will be studied in an effort

What you have just written is your learning objective indicators but they may be in rough form. Revise them making certain that all three characteristics are included. Write your finished indicators here.

Instruction to meet the learning objectives.

INTRODUCTION

We already have observed that traveling has many similarities to teaching. Once a person has decided where he wants to go, he must decide on what conveyance he will travel. He may choose to go by plane, bus, boat, train, or car. The same is true of teaching. After the learning objectives have been specified course decisions of what the learners should do to help them achieve the learning objectives. Not only is it necessary to choose a set of learning activities, but they must be organized into an appropriate sequence. Designing instructional sequences involves choosing and organizing learning activities in a way that leads to achieving the learning objectives.

Lesson 7

DESIGNING INSTRUCTIONAL SEQUENCES

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Designing instructional sequences involves prescribing and organizing learning activities which lead to the achievement of the learning objectives.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. List and explain five principles of instructional sequencing.
2. Prescribe a list of course requirements intended to achieve a set of learning objectives.
3. Develop a course outline showing what will be studied in an effort to achieve the learning objectives.
4. Develop a course budget, allocating the time available for instruction to meet the learning objectives.

INTRODUCTION

We already have observed that traveling has many comparisons to teaching. Once a person has decided where he wants to go, he must decide on what conveyance he will travel. He may choose to go by plane, bus, boat, train, or car. The same is true of teaching. After the learning objectives have been specified comes decisions of what the learners should do to help them achieve the learning objectives. Not only is it necessary to choose a set of learning activities, but they must be organized into an appropriate sequence. Designing instructional sequences involves choosing and organizing learning activities in a way that leads to achieving the learning objectives.

In this lesson you will learn several principles which guide us in designing instructional sequences, and you will learn to develop a course of instruction to achieve the learning objectives you specify.

PRINCIPLES OF INSTRUCTIONAL SEQUENCING

Designing activities to facilitate learning is far from an exact science, such as mathematics and chemistry are. There are no fixed laws of what causes learning. The human learning process is complex and involves many variables. Among those variables are the nature of the subject matter, characteristics and personalities of the learners, characteristics and personality of the teacher, and the dynamics of the group when the teacher and learners come together in group process. While there are many variables, there are some basic principles that guide us in designing an instructional sequence.

One principle that educators of recent times have emphasized may be called the principle of communicated objectives. Simply put, this principle maintains that a teacher should communicate forthrightly to the learners the kinds of changes they are expected to make. Researchers have found that when the learners know specifically what the teacher expects of them they are enabled to achieve those expectations more efficiently. Communicating the expected learning objectives to the students eliminates their efforts of trying to "out-guess," "figure out," or "out-psych" the teacher. Learners do not need to guess what they are expected to learn and they should know on what they will be examined. By communicating the learning objectives, the teacher is permitting the learners to focus their attention on relevant learning tasks rather than on unimportant peripheral matters.

A. Let the inherent values of a subject speak for themselves.

Mark an X on the line before the activities which are applications of this principle.

1. Make no mention of there being any course objectives.
2. Print the course objectives in the syllabus.
3. Do not set any course objectives.
4. State and discuss the course objectives at the first class meeting.
5. Let the students decide on objectives they hope to achieve.

I hope you marked statements 2 and 4. The others are not applications of this principle.

Maybe every student has asked at one time or another, "Why should I study this?" Perceiving how to use what is learned and what are its values is an important motivation to learning. We, therefore, can call this second principle the principle of perceived purpose. The learner should be shown why the objectives are worthwhile, how they will benefit him, and what he can expect to gain from the learning. This principle pertains to motivation of learning. People learn when, and only when, they are motivated to learn. Motivation that comes from an inner desire to know is more powerful than promises of external rewards such as the promise of good grades or the threat of poor grades. When learners understand why they should learn the material, learning is more likely to occur.

Mark an X on the line before the activities which are applications of this principle.

1. Discuss how the learners will use what they learn.
2. Tell the learners they need not make any changes.
3. Help the students answer the question, "Why should I study this?"
4. Let the inherent values of a subject speak for themselves.

Statements 1 and 3 apply this principle.

Another principle is the principle of enablement. The step-by-step learning activities should enable the learner to achieve the intention of the learning objectives. Instruction begins where the learner is. Each activity progresses from there toward the terminal objective. Step-by-step the learners are enabled, or prepared, to achieve the terminal task. If the terminal objective calls for the learner to compare items, the learning activities must prepare them to make the comparison. If the objective is to recognize something, the learners need to see it several times in various forms so they can recognize it when asked to do so.

Circle the T before each true statement. Circle the F before each statement that is not true.

- T F 1. Teaching-learning activities should be designed to emphasize the terminal objectives while they should not be concerned about the enroute objectives.
- T F 2. Teaching learning activities should lead the learners step-by-step from where they begin to the terminal objectives.
- T F 3. Teaching-learning activities should be concerned more about covering the material than about the learners' achievements.
- T F 4. Teaching-learning activities should be designed to enable the learner to achieve the learning objectives.

I am sure you recognized that only statements 2 and 4 are true.

A fourth principle of designing instructional sequences which educators presently emphasize is the principle of appropriate practice. This principle says that learners should be given opportunities to practice the behavior specified in the learning objectives. You already have learned that people learn by doing. So, teaching-learning activities should be designed in such a way that learners get practice doing what is called for in the objectives. Retention is increased by repeating a behavior.

The most effective practice is when the learner does in the teaching-learning situation what he will be expected to do in real life situations. But sometimes it is not possible for the learner to do in the teaching-learning encounter what he will do later. The classroom is an artificial environment when compared to real life situations. For example, the students in a homiletics class are not typical of a local church congregation. The aspiring preacher may preach a sermon in class, but the environment is different from what can be expected in a typical church service. Because it is sometimes impossible to have the learners do exactly what you may want them to learn, you may have to settle for similar or vicarious experiences. Refer back to the "Pyramid of Learning" on page 19 in lesson 3. The closer the learning experience is to real life situations the more effective learning will be.

Mark an X on the line before the activities which are applications of this principle.

- _____ 1. Tell the students how to perform a specified task.
- _____ 2. Demonstrate how to perform a specified task.
- _____ 3. Ask the learners to recite how they would perform a specified task.
- _____ 4. Plan opportunities for the learners to do things similar but not identical to what is specified in the objective.
- _____ 5. Plan opportunities for the learners to practice the behavior called for in the objective.

Statements 1, 2, 3 do not apply the principle while 4 and 5 do.

Yet another principle of instructional sequencing is the principle of knowledge of results. According to this principle, the learner should know the accuracy or adequacy of his responses as soon as possible after making them. Knowing that his responses are correct reinforces learning. The most effective reinforcement is immediate knowledge of correctness. If the

response is incorrect or not adequate, immediately finding out what more was needed helps fasten the correct response in the mind. Thus immediate knowledge of results reinforces learning. You may have noticed that I have provided knowledge of results for each exercise I have asked you to do in this seminar. This is one way I can let you know immediately if your responses are correct. By providing this information for you I am reinforcing learning.

Mark an X on the line before the activities which are applications of this principle.

1. Have the learners exchange papers for correction within the class period the assignment is done.
2. Give students a set of correct answers to compare their own responses to immediately after finishing the assignment.
3. Return corrected papers to students about two weeks after the assignment is received by the teacher.
4. Print the correct responses at the end of an assignment sheet.

Statements 3 and 4 do not apply this principle. The others are all examples of things a teacher might do to provide immediate knowledge of results.

Knowledge of these principles should help you design and organize instructional sequences which lead the learners from where they are before instruction to where the learning objectives specify they should be after instruction. With this knowledge you should be able to choose and organize learning activities in a way that will lead to the achieving of your learning objectives.

PRODUCTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL SEQUENCING

In practical terms, designing instructional sequences results in three important products: (1) a list of course requirements, or assignments, (2) a

course outline, and (3) a course budget or calendar. These three instruments express the design of your instructional sequence by stating what the learners must do to achieve the learning objectives, the order in which you have organized the materials, and the time allotted for each aspect of the course.

In designing an instructional sequence, a teacher must choose how the responsibilities for learning will be divided. Three factors are involved, the teacher, the individual learners, and the group. The teacher will devise ways to use his experience, study, expertise, and background to provide positive learning input without "spoon feeding" the learners by providing all of the material for them. The learners will be required to engage in activities on his own outside of class time. The dynamics of group process which are at work when the teacher and a group of learners meet also will be used to facilitate learning. The learning experience should not be complete without the contribution each of these makes. The entire sequence should be carefully planned so that after the learners have completed all of the requirements they will have achieved the intent of the learning objectives.

In the previous lesson you developed a list of objectives for a course you teach. Now, design a learning sequence to achieve those objectives. You will produce a list of requirements or assignments, a course outline and a table showing how much time is budgeted for each part of the course. I did not prepare worksheets to guide you through this experience. You can work on your own paper. Some of the following questions may guide you. What will the learners study? In what order will they study the material? What activities will they do? Do these activities lead to the achievement of the learning objectives? Do these learning activities take the five principles into account? How much time will be devoted to each part of the course. What

textbook will the students read? What other materials will they read? Will they do term papers? Will you use a workbook? Is there one available for the course? If there is, does it fit the way you are handling the course? Will you prepare study sheets for the students? Will you provide study questions to guide them? I do not expect you to necessarily answer all of these questions. They are intended to help you think through your planning strategy.

When you have finished this exercise, get with another seminar participant and share what you have designed with each other. Discuss what you have produced. This can help you find any rough spots that need refinement.

1. Explain what is in a course syllabus.
2. Identify the component parts of a course syllabus.
3. State who owns a course syllabus.
4. Discuss how a course syllabus is used.
5. Prepare a syllabus for a course you teach.

INTRODUCTION

At the beginning of each term, you are expected to prepare a syllabus for each course you teach. You may assume that you have done it a million times and that you hardly need to waste a lesson studying it. If you have said quietly to yourself, "I have been hoping to avoid this course. I struggle every time I attempt preparing a syllabus," then you are probably not so frank and confidential, many teachers admit that they do not feel competent at this task even though they have had to do it many times. This lesson is planned with you in mind. Studying this will help you develop the skills you need which should ease the anxiety and give you the assurance that you can do the task well.

WHAT IS A COURSE SYLLABUS?

Lesson 8

PREPARING A COURSE SYLLABUS

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Preparing a course syllabus involves producing a document that articulates information about a course, what it includes and how it is taught.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Explain what is in a course syllabus.
2. Identify the component parts of a course syllabus.
3. State who owns a course syllabus
4. Discuss how a course syllabus is used.
5. Prepare a syllabus for a course you teach.

INTRODUCTION

At the beginning of each term, you are expected to prepare a syllabus for each course you teach. You may assume that you have done it so often that you hardly need to waste a lesson studying this. Or you may admit quietly to yourself, "I have been hoping we would get to this. I struggle every time I attempt preparing a syllabus." When given the opportunity to be frank and confidential, many teachers admit that they do not feel competent at this task even though they have had to do it many times. This lesson is planned with you in mind. Studying this will help you develop the skills you need which should ease the anxiety and give you the assurance that you can do the task well.

WHAT IS A COURSE SYLLABUS?

Technically, a syllabus is a compendium or survey outline of a course of study. Practically, it is a document which describes a course of study and guides the teacher and learners in the experience of studying the course. Ethically, it is a binding contract between a teacher and the learners. Once it is published and the course begun, it should be followed and should not be amended. The student has a right to expect this.

The syllabus for a given course tells the one who reads it what the course is about, who teaches it, what objectives the course seeks to achieve, what the learners are expected to do, and where they can research to gain information about the course. A syllabus guides both teacher and learners. It is a written document, produced by the teacher, to inform anyone who would read it what a course is about and how it is conducted. A course syllabus is usually required for every course at post-high school level. (By the way, for a quick English lesson, "syllabus " is singular. The plural is "syllabi." Don't ask, "Why?" I don't know why; that is just the way it is.)

Circle the letter before the statement which best answers the following question.

1. What is a course syllabus?

- a. A book about a course of study.
- b. Another name for a course description.
- c. A guide to a course of study.
- d. A list of learning objectives.

Statement c is the only correct one.

Once a teacher has prepared a syllabus for a course, he should update and revise it from time to time, if he continues to teach the course year after year. These revisions will reflect his own growth in the discipline, changes in the discipline resulting from new findings, changes in emphases

caused by the passing of time and other circumstances, and new literature and resources that have become available.

WHAT GOES IN A COURSE SYLLABUS?

There are no strict rules as to how extensive a syllabus should be. Some teachers produce syllabi which are very exhaustive and detailed. I have seen some with more than 100 pages. Many teachers confine their syllabi to more modest efforts of a few pages each. The following information should appear on every syllabus:

Course Title and Number (if your school uses course numbers)

Instructor's Name

Course Description

Course Objectives including Indicators

Textbooks and/or Required Readings

Required Assignments including Due Dates

Methods of Teaching Used in the Course

Course Outline

Information regarding Examinations

Criteria for Computing Grades

Bibliography

Schools which publish catalogs often list the courses they offer and give a course number and a course description. If this information is published elsewhere, the course description is optional on the syllabus. If it is not published elsewhere, it definitely should be included.

You have already studied about course objectives and their indicators. They state from the learner's point of view what learning changes are intended and what behavior will be accepted as evidence the objectives have been achieved.

Textbooks and supplementary required readings should be presented in full bibliographic form according to an acceptable form and style guide.

The outline is a content outline, and it should indicate the general course content to be studied and its general organization. This may be presented in outline form, sentence or brief descriptive paragraph form, or it may be presented by dates indicating what is to be studied at each class meeting. The amount of detail will vary from course to course.

The statement concerning the exams should indicate how many exams will be given, when they will be given, what parts of the content will be included, and the types of exams to be given.

The bibliography should list materials used by the instructor in his preparation and materials which would help the learners achieve the objectives. Some teachers only include materials available in the school's library, while others include recommended references regardless of whether they are in the library. A bibliography is to be organized alphabetically by the authors' family names and should be presented according to an acceptable form and style manual.

Examine the syllabus I prepared for this seminar and observe how I included each of the expected components. Later, I will give you an assignment to use this information.

WHO OWNS A COURSE SYLLABUS?

The course syllabus is prepared by the teacher, and it and all rights to it belongs to him exclusively. It is his created property, just as much as any other written manuscript he produces is his own. The syllabus does not belong to the institution where the teacher teaches. The institution has no rights to use this material for another teacher or similar purpose without specific permission from the teacher who produced it. For an institution or

a teacher to use another teacher's syllabus without specific permission is to commit a serious breach of integrity and academic ethics. This is a fact widely accepted among professional educators. Likewise, the students receive a copy of the syllabus when they enroll for the course. It is intended only for their use in studying the course. Any other use of it constitutes an ethical violation.

Circle the T before each true statement. Circle the F before each statement that is not true.

- T F 1. The syllabus for a course belongs to the school which employs the teacher who prepared it.
- T F 2. Since a copy of the course syllabus is given to the students, they are at liberty to use it for any purposes they may desire.
- T F 3. The course syllabus and all rights to it belong to the teacher who authored it.
- T F 4. Because an institution employs the teacher, and because the teacher prepares the course syllabus, they both share joint ownership of it.
- T F 5. Use of a teacher's syllabus without specific permission is an ethical infraction.

Only statements 3 and 5 are true. There is no other way, the syllabi you prepare are yours. You own all rights to them. You may wish in the future to publish a book based on one of your syllabi. That is your right, but no one else has that right. So all other statements are not true.

HOW DO YOU USE A COURSE SYLLABUS?

The syllabus is a valuable tool for both teacher and learners. It is a guide to the instruction of the course. The syllabus is a guide to both teachers and learners for advance preparation for the class meetings. By following the syllabus carefully, they can anticipate what is coming up and they can budget their study time accordingly. The syllabus ensures the orderly and systematic coverage of the material and it helps ensure

completion of all of the material by the end of the term. Proper use of the syllabus helps avoid getting detoured on nonessential tangents. The syllabus is a valuable tool for preparing for examinations too.

A copy of all syllabi should be filed in the office of the academic dean for administrative and accreditation uses. These can be used in evaluating curricula and can provide valuable help in over-all planning. When your school applies for recognition by an accreditation association, the visitation team will surely want to examine the syllabi and compare them to the school's curricula.

Your assignment for this lesson is to revise the syllabus you brought to the seminar. You already have done part of the work. You have specified your objectives and your indicators. You have designed the learning sequence, settled on the textbook or decided not to use one, chosen other readings, determined the course requirements, outlined the content, and developed a course budget or calendar. Now you will pull all of that together and add what is yet needed to prepare a finished syllabus.

There is no worksheet for this assignment. You may want to examine further my syllabus for this seminar. It is a model for you to follow. You may reexamine any portion of any lesson if you need help with this task.

After you have completed this assignment, I will tell you what I want you to do next with your syllabus.

PARTS OF A LESSON PLAN

The lesson plan is a written document, prepared by the teacher, which

Lesson 9

LESSON PLANNING

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Lesson planning involves deciding what is to be accomplished in an individual lesson, what activities are to be used, how much time will be devoted to each activity, and how the learning is to be evaluated.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Discuss the component parts of a lesson plan.
2. Given a lesson planning worksheet, plan a lesson you want to teach.

INTRODUCTION

In the last lesson you finished planning a course. That was quite an achievement. I hope you feel good about it. But perhaps by now a startling insight has dawned. Not only good plans are important, they have to be carried through. You not only must plan a good course of study, but you must lead the learners through it too. You will meet the class day-by-day many times throughout the term. What will you lead them to do during these meetings? This calls for individual lesson planning. The details of each lesson need to be planned carefully. This will ensure maximum value from the time available for a given course. In this lesson you will study what goes in a lesson plan, and you will learn the procedures for planning a lesson you want to teach.

PARTS OF A LESSON PLAN

The lesson plan is a written document, prepared by the teacher, which

lists the pertinent information related to the teaching of a particular lesson. Some educators call for very elaborate and detailed lesson plans, while others call for more basic and simpler productions. Obviously, with more detail comes more work in preparation. I generally opt for a modest, basic production. Whether detailed or simple, every lesson plan should contain at least the following: the major concept or focal portion of text to be studied, lesson objectives and indicators, a listing of the learning activities, a timed schedule for the class period, and a listing of the materials or resources needed to teach the lesson. In the event that a major part of the lesson plan calls for teacher activity, such as lecturing, a content outline and notes should also be included.

Mark an X on the line beside the items which are component parts of a lesson plan.

1. Course description

2. Lesson objectives

3. A timed schedule for the period

4. Bibliography

5. Main concept of the lesson

6. Course number

7. List of learning activities

8. Indicators of objective achievement

9. Criteria for grading

10. Lists of resources or materials needed

Statements 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 10 are items which are component parts of a lesson plan. These should appear on every lesson plan. Items 1, 4, 6, and 9 are parts of a course syllabus but not of a lesson plan.

You have already learned how to specify learning objectives. When you

learned to write your course objectives, you learned to state them as broad, general statements of learning outcome. That was true for course objectives but it is not true for individual lesson objectives. Lesson objectives should be stated very narrowly and specifically. They should specify what learning changes should result from the particular lesson. This is a major difference which you must understand and remember if you are to avoid much confusion about specifying learning objectives. The indicators will state what behavior can be accepted as demonstration that the learning objectives have been achieved.

All learning activities should be structured to result in the lesson objectives being achieved. The use of a timed lesson plan helps ensure proper coverage of the material and helps resist the temptation to devote more time than necessary to inconsequential matters.

PROCEDURES FOR LESSON PLANNING

Beginning teachers often need to give more thought to step-by-step procedures than do more experienced teachers. With experience generally comes habits and techniques which can be performed naturally without specific focus of attention. Sometimes, when experienced teachers want to reform their habits, they need to go back to the basics again. So whether you are a beginning or a well-experienced teacher, a review of the procedures of lesson planning should prove helpful.

You need to begin by reviewing your course syllabus and course budget to refresh your memory on where the course is going and how much time is budgeted for the segment under consideration. After getting into perspective the overview of the course and where the individual lesson fits in, I find it helpful to state in one simple statement what I want to teach in a lesson. You may have noticed that I have done that with each of these lessons.

The next consideration is to answer how this relates to the learners' needs. Here you are considering in what domain and at what level change is needed.

Once you have stated what you intend to teach and how this relates to the learners' needs, you are ready to specify your lesson objectives and the indicators which you will accept as indication that the learning intent is achieved. I should reemphasize that you try not to attempt too many objectives in an individual lesson. The time goes by very quickly. It is much better to attempt less and succeed than to attempt more and fail.

The next step is to choose the learning activities. This includes teaching methods as well as what the learners will do. Details need planning. How will you secure the learners attention? How will you introduce the topic? How will you develop the lesson? How will you lead the learners to make personal application? What methods will be needed? What resources or materials will be needed?

A good time to plan your exam questions is as you plan your lessons. How will you know the learners have learned? What situations would *demonstrate that they have achieved the learning intent? Some teachers plan these as they develop their lesson plans and write them in their lesson plans. If you do this, test construction at the time to give a test will be reduced.*

After you have taught the lesson, you should spend a few minutes in self-evaluation. It is best to record these remarks at once. Be honest with yourself whether you think you have done well or not. I find that these self-evaluation remarks help me avoid mistakes next time around.

The lesson plans you develop are for your use. They are not distributed to your students. After the lesson, you will want to file them

for revision and/or reuse if you teach the course again. I find a loose leaf notebook to be a good way to organize and keep lesson plans. I build a lesson notebook for nearly every course. I like to place tabbed dividers between the units of a course or between each lesson.

Using the lesson planning worksheets at the end of this lesson, plan one lesson you may want to teach from the course for which you developed the syllabus in the last lesson. **RELATED TO THE LEARNERS' NEEDS?**

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

LEARNING OBJECTIVE INDICATORS:

LESSON PLANNING WORKSHEET

LEARNING ACTIVITIES	TEACHING METHODS	RESOURCES
SUBJECT OR SCRIPTURE TEXT:		
MAJOR POINT OF THE LESSON:		
HOW IS THIS TOPIC (OR TEXT) RELATED TO THE LEARNERS NEEDS?		
LESSON OBJECTIVES:		

TEST ITEMS: (How will I know if the learners have learned?)

LEARNING OBJECTIVE INDICATORS:

ASSIGNMENT FOR NEXT LESSON:

SELF-EVALUATION

TIME	LEARNING ACTIVITIES	TEACHING METHODS	RESOURCES

TEST ITEMS: (How will I know if the learners have learned?)

ASSIGNMENT FOR NEXT LESSON:

SELF-EVALUATION

(To be completed after teaching the lesson.)

HOW EFFECTIVE WAS I AT ACCOMPLISHING THE LESSON OBJECTIVES? HOW DO I KNOW?

TEACHING METHODOLOGY

WERE THE STUDENTS ACTIVELY INVOLVED IN LEARNING? HOW? IF NOT, WHAT WERE THE HINDRANCES?

WHICH PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING DID I USE AND HOW DID I USE THEM?

WHAT IMPORTANT QUESTIONS DID THE STUDENTS ASK?

Lesson 10

LECTURE METHOD

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

TEACHING METHODOLOGY

Effective teaching involves skillful use of a variety of teaching methods. Educators cannot agree on how many methods there are. One author described forty teaching methods; another wrote about twenty-four methods. Still another educator claims there are six basic methods with sub-topics under some of these. Regardless of how many teaching methods there may be, no teacher, perhaps, uses a large number of methods. Bible institute teachers seem to have some favorite ones. For the most part, these favorites are reliable, proven, basic methods. In this seminar, you will study three widely used methods: the lecture, questions and answers, and discussion. Learning to use these skillfully is essential to a teacher's professional competence.

DEFINITION OF THE LECTURE?

A lecture is an oral presentation of information by a teacher. It may

Lesson 10

LECTURE METHOD

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

A teacher orally presenting information is a popular and effective method of teaching.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Explain what is a lecture.
2. Discuss conditions for effective use of the lecture.
3. List and describe techniques which make for improved lecturing.
4. Identify areas in your own use of the lecture method which need improvements and describe what changes you plan to make.

INTRODUCTION

Someone once said that lecturing is a method of transferring information from a teacher's notebook into the students' notebook without passing through the minds of either. Let's hope that is not what happens. The lecture method is one of the most widely used methods of teaching at collegiate level and it has the potential to be one of the most effective. I do not introduce it in this seminar because I think it will be new to you. I know better; you have given many lectures. Instead, I chose to introduce it because I hope to be able to help you use it more effectively. Since it is common and is potentially effective, why not use it to its fullest advantage?

DEFINITION OF THE LECTURE?

A lecture is an oral presentation of information by a teacher. It may

be a formal or an informal presentation. A formal lecture usually is carefully prepared, systematically organized, well outlined or written, methodically presented, and usually lasts for most of the class period. An informal lecture involves more casual sharing of information. It is rarely specifically planned in advance and frequently takes the form of conversational delivery. It may last from a few to twenty or thirty minutes. Whether formal or informal, the nature of the lecture involves the teacher speaking about a topic with the intention of helping learners learn.

The lecture has its historical roots in the medieval universities of the fifteenth century, before printed books were available. A professor's lecture consisted of reading to the students from handwritten manuscripts, while the students wrote voluminous notes. At that time, this was considered the most practical way to teach. Actually, the lecturer provided the information and the students were expected to learn it on their own. Teaching has changed since then, and it is now considered that teaching is helping learners learn. Lecturing, however, is still considered an economical method for providing information. It is particularly useful for supplementing written materials and for clarifying, interpreting, expanding, and applying information.

Mark an X on the line before the statements that are true about the lecture method of teaching.

1. It is an oral presentation by a teacher.
2. It is a bad method which should not be used.
3. It is a useful method for presenting information.
4. It does not allow for conversational delivery.
5. It is useful for enlarging on written information.

You should have marked statements 1, 3, and 5. They are true statements about the lecture. You should have left the others unmarked because they are not true.

The school where you teach may not have adequate textbooks in sufficient quantities for all of your students to have a copy. If this is the case, you have an unusually heavy responsibility for providing content information. You may often choose the lecture method to meet this unusual need. The need to rely heavily on the lecture method is a powerful reason why you should learn to use the method skillfully and effectively.

VALUES OF THE LECTURE

Several values of the lecture method can be cited. By paying careful attention to these values, you can learn how to use the method productively and to its fullest advantage. The lecture makes economical use of teaching time and resources. When there is considerable material to be presented in a short amount of time, it often is time to lecture. Because the teacher is in control of both the time and the content, you are more likely to stay centered on the subject at hand, where some other methods lend themselves more to opportunity to become sidetracked on controversial or interesting aspects of the total topic.

The lecture method lends itself well to systematic and well-organized presentations of the material. This can lead to a complete covering of the topic in a sequence that is natural to learning. Some other methods require the expenditure of a great deal of time organizing the information that surfaces related to a given topic at hand.

Contrary to some popular opinion, the lecture method is valuable when the teacher has only a minimum mastery of the material. By carefully preparing in advance, systematically organizing the material, and writing

complete outlines, notes or manuscripts, it is possible to teach material that you have not yet fully mastered. It goes without saying, if the teacher knows the material better, he should be able to teach it better. But it is possible to adequately teach material with which you are less familiar by using the lecture method.

The lecture can be adapted to any size of class. It can fit a situation where two people sit down together to talk about a subject when one knows more about the subject than the other, or it can fit with an audience with many people, even several hundreds if amplification is used. The reason it fits both large and small is because the method makes use of the teacher's spoken word through which he projects his personality. Person to person encounter is an occasion to learn from one another. Some students say that a teacher's enthusiasm for the discipline and the subject is what prompts learning most.

A great value of the method is that it most effectively adapts to the learners' needs, abilities, and interests. It can begin where the learners are and lead them on to where the learning objectives specify they should be. It can be used to tie new information to what is previously known, and can direct the thinking of a group of learners along prescribed lines. The lecture is one method which utilizes several known and proven principles of teaching-learning. By properly structuring an oral presentation, a teacher can help eager students learn and enjoy the process too.

Mark an X on the line before the statements in the following list which are values of the lecture method.

1. The lecture leads to becoming sidetracked on tangents.
2. The lecture makes economical use of time and resources.

(Continues on next page)

- _____ 3. The lecture lends itself to systematic coverage of the material.
- _____ 4. The lecture requires the teacher to have mastered the material.
- _____ 5. The lecture method can be used only with large classes.
- _____ 6. The lecture makes use of the teacher's personality projected in speech.
- _____ 7. The lecture uses known principles of teaching-learning.
- _____ 8. The lecture can be adapted to the learners needs and interests.

You should have placed an X on the line before statements 2, 3, 6, 7, and 8.

Statements 1, 4, and 5, however, do not give values of the lecture method.

PROBLEMS OF THE LECTURE

No method, including the lecture, is the perfect one. There are some potential problems of the lecture method. The teacher who wants to use it effectively needs to know what these problems are and how to avoid them.

One of the problems is that it tends to result in non-involvement by the learners. They can simply sit and their minds wander hither and yon while the teacher talks away. To avoid this problem, learners should write notes throughout the lecture, make subjective reactions, attempt to remember, reach decisions, and form attitudes as the teacher speaks. Other appropriate responses may include forming questions to ask, and formulating comments or contributions to offer. Learners who listen openly and become involved with the material in these ways will learn much and will not become bored and nonresponsive.

Another problem that is related to this one is that the learners can get by with little advanced preparation. They may come to sit in class expecting the teacher to be totally responsible for the learning process. This, of course, represents wrong attitudes about the teaching-learning encounter. The learners should be encouraged to prepare well before coming

to the class. The advanced study will make the lecture more meaningful.

A third problem, related to the second one, is that overuse of the lecture leads to the teacher becoming an unquestioned authority on the subject. This is not the purpose of teaching-learning situations. The teacher's task is to help the learners learn. To avoid this problem, it is best to combine the lecture with other methods which involve the students with the material and cause them to think and draw conclusions for themselves.

Yet another problem is that the method makes no room for the individual learner's particular needs. Everyone hears the same information presented in the same ways, but the learners' needs most likely will not all be the same. There is little way that individual needs can be met in a lecture. To minimize the impact of this problem, a teacher can follow a lecture with activities which provide opportunities for individual needs to be met.

The final problem that we will mention is that some kinds of material do not lend themselves to the lecture method. Things like attitudes, feelings, and skills are not best learned by telling procedures. To avoid this problem, use the method when your learning objective calls for retention of facts or understanding of concepts.

While there are some problems with the lecture method, these should not be considered sufficient to cause us to not use the method, but it should alert us to find ways to maximize the strengths and to minimize the problems of the method.

Write answers to the following questions on a sheet of paper. Which of these problems have you encountered in your teaching? Why did these become problems to you? What might have you done to minimize the problems? What changes will you make in the way you lecture?

TECHNIQUES FOR USE OF THE LECTURE

Some techniques for use of the lecture were included in the discussion on how to avoid the potential problems of the method. Yet there are some other suggestions that will help ensure effective use of the lecture.

The lecture should be combined with other methods. We know that a learner can only focus his attention on a given topic for a short period of time. This tells us that variety is needed. And we already have seen that the lecture has the possibility for the learners to be non-involved and even sometimes bored. Neither of these is conducive to learning. Try lecturing for part of the period, maybe to introduce the subject, then involve some other methods for the rest of the period, or begin with some other methods and use the lecture to summarize what has been introduced in discussion, in a question and answer session, or in some other way.

Another way to enhance learning through the lecture is to support it with visuals. You should recall from lesson 3 that we learn through our five senses and that we learn most through the sense of sight. Lesson 13 will be devoted to a study of instructional resources. You can look forward to learning more about developing and using visuals to reinforce your teaching.

Learners tend to learn more from the lecture when the teacher is well-prepared. Carefully specifying your learning objective and structuring your lecture to achieve those objectives will enable the students to learn more. A well-organized and systematic presentation is easier to follow than a haphazard one. You can facilitate learning by giving the learners a printed copy of your lecture outline or by writing your main points on the chalkboard.

As you speak, emphasize the main points you want the learners to remember. This can be done by the outline itself, but repetition, change in

voice intonation and inflection, or by restating the points in different terms also help.

Feedback is important to successful lecturing also. As students listen to an oral presentation, they send signals back to the teacher. A smile, an affirming nod of the head are examples of positive feedback, while repeated yawns, stargazing out the window, and slouching in the chair are examples of negative feedback. When negative feedback occurs, it is time to make some changes. A time following a lecture for the students to ask questions, interact, offer opinions, or suggest applications is another approach to gathering feedback.

Review what you wrote in the last exercise. Add to the list any more changes you want to make in the way you lecture. What other techniques do you want to incorporate into your lecturing?

DELIVERY OF THE LECTURE

The lecture is an oral presentation and therefore is subject to all of the rules of good public speaking. It is generally better for a lecture to be delivered in friendly, casual, conversational style rather than in a formal, stilted style. It is essential that the lecturer be enthusiastic about the subject and about the opportunity to share his findings about subject with those who are eager to learn from him. Enthusiasm motivates learning.

Variations in intonation and inflection of voice enhance the delivery of an oral presentation. Monotone presentations lead to lack of interest and boredom, and detract from important ideas. The rate of speaking is important too. Speech should not be too fast and there should be frequent pauses to allow the learners time to write notes.

Vocabulary should be within the learners' level of comprehension. If

technical terms must be used, they need to be defined and explained in terms the learners can readily understand. It is helpful to use simple and short sentences too.

Lesson 11

Appropriate gestures to emphasize important points and physical movements add to the delivery of a lecture. They stimulate interest and help keep learners alert. Eye contact with the learners helps hold attention and challenges the learners to interact with the material.

What kind of delivery habits have you developed? List your good habits on a sheet of paper. How will you reinforce these? List your bad habits on the paper and write what you plan to do to correct these problems.

learning in the cognitive domain.

INTRODUCTION

Effective teaching-learning focuses on teaching learners how to think more than what to think. It encourages originality and creativity within respected cultural norms. Many subjects have more than one legitimate point of view. Learners at collegiate level should be exposed to the various alternatives and led through the process of thinking through the advantages and disadvantages of the alternatives, thus knowledgeably choosing the alternative that seems best. Skills in decision making need to be developed. Similar skills are used to evaluate what is read or heard. Material should not be accepted merely because it is spoken or put in print.

Appropriate questions help learners develop these essential skills. The question has been called "the mother of learning" and "the teacher's best friend." By asking appropriate questions, a teacher can direct learning at each of the six levels of the cognitive domain. In this lesson, you will learn how to ask questions appropriate for each level.

REVIEW OF THE LEVELS

You learned about the levels of learning in lesson 8. In this lesson,

Lesson 11

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

By asking appropriate questions, teachers can lead learners to learning achievements at each of the six levels of the cognitive domain.

LESSON OBJECTIVE:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Structure questions appropriate to each of the six levels of learning in the cognitive domain.

INTRODUCTION

Effective teaching-learning focuses on teaching learners how to think more than what to think. It encourages originality and creativity within respected cultural norms. Many subjects have more than one legitimate point of view. Learners at collegiate level should be exposed to the various alternatives and led through the process of thinking through the advantages and disadvantages of the alternatives, thus knowledgeably choosing the alternative that seems best. Skills in decision making need to be developed. Similar skills are used to evaluate what is read or heard. Material should not be accepted merely because it is spoken or put in print.

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REVIEW OF THE LEVELS

You learned about the levels of learning in lesson 4. In this lesson, we are concerned with the levels of the cognitive domain. Here is a brief review of the six levels.

1. Knowledge - The learner recalls and recites, or recognizes information.
2. Comprehension - The learner changes information into a different form or into different words.
3. Application - The learner uses information in life situations.
4. Analysis - The learner solves problems systematically based on knowledge of the component parts of a whole.
5. Synthesis - The learner creates a new product by using information learned.
6. Evaluation - The learner makes value judgments of good or bad, right or wrong based on designated standards.

Learners can be led to learn in each of these levels through the use of properly phrased questions.

KNOWLEDGE

Knowledge basically involves memorization of facts or information. The learner demonstrates achievement of a knowledge objective by reciting what he remembers or by recognizing the information when he sees it. While this is the lowest level of the cognitive domain, it should not be considered unimportant. Learning at this level emphasizes what is important.

Questions at this level ask for the learners only to remember information. They do not require the learner to compare facts nor relate them to anything else. Here are some examples of knowledge level questions.

Example: A. Who built the ark to survive the flood?

B. From where was the first missionary journey launched?

C. Does the verse tell us how to please God?

Each of these questions asks the learners to recall or recognize factual information. Often, knowledge questions are narrow and require low level thinking. Observe that the question in example C calls only for a simple yes or no answer. The learner is required to recognize if the verse tells how to please God. These are the simplest kind of questions and are generally considered to be poor questions because the learner has very little opportunity to interact with the material.

Many teachers ask mostly knowledge questions. They require the learners only to recall information. While some factual information must be learned en route to higher levels, you should strive to lead your learners into higher levels of learning by asking questions at higher levels.

Write on a sheet of paper five knowledge level questions you might ask in teaching the lesson you planned in lesson 9.

COMPREHENSION

Information can be expressed in many different forms. Comprehension calls for understanding information well enough to express it in a new form. This requires a certain amount of interpretation. It does not require a full understanding, but it does require a general understanding. Here are some examples of questions which require translation of information into different forms.

Example: A. How would you explain in your own words what is salvation?

B. How would you paraphrase John 3:16?

C. How could you express the idea in a poem? a drama? a song? a story? a picture?

D. If you were a newspaper reporter in Jerusalem on the Day of Pentecost, how would you describe the events?

Each of these questions requires the learner to express the information in some new form. They require a general understanding of the information.

Write on a sheet of paper three comprehension level questions for the lesson you are preparing.

APPLICATION

Teaching-learning should prepare the learners for life. Application level questions present situations which require the learners to use the information they are learning to solve life problems. Application questions should give the learners opportunity to transfer information from the textbook and classroom into daily experience.

Sanders cited three main characteristics of questions at the application level.¹

First, these questions deal with knowledge which has explanatory or problem-solving power. This is the kind of knowledge that is transferable to many new situations. Second, they deal with the whole of ideas and skills rather than solely with the parts. The third characteristic is that application questions include a minimum of directions or instructions, because the questions are based on previous learning and the student is expected to know what to do.

Here are some examples of application level questions.

- Example: A. What do you think gave Peter's Day of Pentecost sermon such power that 3,000 souls were saved?
- B. What are some of the reasons why the church in the Acts grew so rapidly?
- C. How does the Pauline principle of "love for the weaker brother" apply to this situation?
- D. What does the Great Commission say to us about ministry among the Manobos?

Each of these questions asks the learners to recall information they have learned previously and to apply the information to a specific situation. This calls for a higher interaction than merely recalling factual information.

¹Norris M. Sanders, Classroom Questions: What Kinds? (New York: Harper and Row, 1966), pp. 75-76.

Write on a sheet of paper at least two application questions you might ask in the lesson you are preparing.

ANALYSIS

Analysis involves discovering the component parts of a whole. Based on this knowledge of the parts, the learner can solve problems systematically. This calls for a higher level of interaction with the information than does comprehension or application because it requires that special attention be given to how the information is structured. Here are some examples of analysis level questions.

Examples: A. How does the chapter relate to the author's outline for the book?

B. How does the third point of the sermon build on previous points?

C. What are Paul's arguments in Romans 1:18-3:10?

D. What is Moses arguing in Exodus 15?

You may have observed that this level calls for the understanding and use of some logical arguments. It requires the learners to identify the component parts of an idea and to solve problems in light of the parts.

SYNTHESIS

Synthesis encourages learners to engage in creative, innovative, original thinking. This may not mean creating something the world has never known; it may mean discovering knowledge that is new to the learners.

Synthesis thinking is fostered best in an environment which encourages and rewards original discovery. Synthesis thinking begins with facing an unsolved problem. A variety of possible solutions is hypothesized and tested. It requires room for divergent ideas. These are examples of synthesis level questions.

Example: A. What might you do to plant a church among an unevangelized tribe?

B. What would you include in a new converts training course?

C. What would you teach a group of Bible school teachers in a teachers training course?

You should observe that each of these results in the learners using information they have learned to produce a new product.

Write on a sheet of paper at least one synthesis question you might ask in teaching the lesson you are preparing.

Evaluation

The process of evaluation calls for developing or accepting an existing standard for measurement and determining how closely an idea meets the standard. Evaluation may require determining if a statement is true or false, right or wrong, sufficient or insufficient, adequate or inadequate, acceptable or unacceptable. Cultural norms may be a standard of measurement. What is acceptable in one society may be taboo in another. Likewise, in some situations individual taste may be the standard. These are examples of evaluation level questions.

Example: A. Is the statement true? or Which of the statements is true?

B. How does the writer's position on the doctrine of justification measure scripturally?

C. Is the speaker qualified to lecture on the subject? Why?

D. Are the conclusions supported by the evidence presented?

These may not seem like difficult questions, but they require the highest level of interaction with the information. Each of these requires the learners to make a judgment. A standard is established and comparison is made to that standard. A judgment results.

Write on a sheet of paper at least one evaluation question for the lesson you are preparing.

A question and answer session is usually an enjoyable learning experience. Interest tends to run high. In this lesson I have taught you to use the method with the teacher having the prerogative to ask the questions, expecting the learners to provide the answers. The method can also be used with the students asking questions for the teacher to answer. In some cases you may choose to answer the questions directly, but you may use the learners' questions to prompt discussion or you may ask some other questions to lead the asker to answer his own question. All of these uses facilitates learning, which is the teacher's task.

Questions often serve well with other methods. A well-composed question or a series of questions may serve as an organizer prior to a lecture or discussion. After a lecture or discussion a few well asked questions can help focus attention on the major ideas presented and can lead the learners to make decision about how they will apply the lesson or to stimulate further thought about some aspect of the topic.

It is nearly always better to address a question to the whole class before asking someone in particular to answer. By asking in this way, all students try to think of an answer in case they are asked to respond.

Team up with another seminar participant. Discuss together the questions each of you wrote at the different levels. Be prepared to share your questions in a group meeting of all seminar participants.

teacher is learning to shape activities and content. In this lesson you will learn when to change discussion as the teaching method, how to plan for a discussion, and how to lead a discussion.

DEFINING DISCUSSION

Lesson 12

DISCUSSION

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

A group of learners sharing in an exchange of knowledge, ideas, opinions, feelings, and experience facilitates learning, particularly in the affective domain.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Define what is discussion.
2. Discuss the teaching-learning conditions that are favorable to discussion.
3. Describe what is involved in planning and leading discussion.
4. Plan a lesson using discussion as the method of teaching.

INTRODUCTION

Many teachers and students associate discussion techniques with good teaching. Have you heard it said, "That was a good class! We really had a lively discussion"? Few methods stimulate the learners to involvement and participation as does discussion. Discussion is a valuable and worth-while method for affective domain teaching. It often leads to concrete changes in attitudes and values because the learners tend to share their feelings more than their knowledge. By learning to guide a discussion skillfully, a teacher is learning to shape attitudes and values. In this lesson you will learn when to choose discussion as the teaching method, how to plan for a discussion, and how to lead a discussion.

DEFINING DISCUSSION

In an educational setting, a discussion consists of a group of learners sharing in an exchange of knowledge, ideas, opinions, feelings, and experiences. A discussion is guided by a moderator, often the teacher, and is aimed at a definite decision or conclusion. Generally discussion is set in an involved problem or group of problems and develops a line of reasoning to deal with the problem. Discussion involves group participation but it also requires individual thought and mental activity. It involves sharing information, opinions, and experiences; and it involves the formation or modification of opinions and conclusions.

Mark an X on the line before each statement that is true about discussion as an educational method.

- 1. Discussion is teacher active, pupil passive.
- 2. Discussion involves a group of learners sharing information.
- 3. Discussion should be an unguided experience.
- 4. For a good discussion, no predetermined conclusions should be set.
- 5. Discussion is set in trying to solve an unsolved problem.
- 6. Discussion involves group participation.
- 7. Discussion requires individual thought.
- 8. In a discussion, one shares information but never shares feelings.
- 9. Discussion frequently results in sharing and formulating opinions.
- 10. Discussion aims toward a definite decision or conclusion.

You should have marked statements 2, 5, 6, 7, 9, and 10. They are all true statements about discussion. The remaining statements are not true.

CHOOSING DISCUSSION

Rarely would a teacher choose discussion to teach every lesson in a course. Discussion seems to fit some lessons and does not fit others.

Likewise, it seems to fit some classes and not others. You, therefore, may wonder, "When do I choose discussion to teach the lesson I want the learners to learn?"

The goals for discussion include: raising problems or issues and attempting to discover solutions, discovering interpretations and applications, stimulating thought about a subject, and analyzing thoughts, feelings, and values. Anytime your learning objectives involve these activities, discussion may be a good option for your teaching method.

Discussion methods are a good choice when the content deals with social problems and the learning objectives lead toward affective changes. Attitudes and values are shaped in social context. Learners tend to modify their attitudes and values when they are given opportunity to make their feelings known in an accepting, affirming environment. The social interchange of values in a discussion situation is such an environment. A healthy open-minded tolerance of differences and a mutual acceptance of one another are essentials for good discussion.

If your learning goal involves teaching factual information, discussion may not be a good choice. And, if it is important that the concepts be taught in a specific order, you may not want to use discussion. This type of material is taught better by other methods.

When a variety of different views on a subject exists, discussion can be a functional method to explore the views. Through the exchange of ideas, viewpoints, and feelings learners gain an appreciation for views different from their own. This brings another idea into focus. Because of the involvement and sharing of discussion, it is less teacher oriented than other methods, such as the lecture. While this may have learner appeal, it may also have an inherent disadvantage. To share profitably, one must be

well informed about the subject under consideration. If the learners are not well prepared in advance, the discussion time will produce little more than the pooling of ignorance. Choose discussion only when you know your learners are well prepared and are ready to share their findings.

Mark an X on the line before the statements which state when it would be good to choose discussion as a teaching method.

1. When the learning objectives call for problem solving.
2. When the content deals with social situations.
3. When there are many facts and concepts to learn.
4. When it is important that information be presented in a certain order.
5. When the objective is to modify values.
6. When there exists a closed mindedness to new ideas.
7. When there exists a variety of viewpoints on a topic.
8. When you want to teach motor skills.
9. When the topic is unemotional.
10. When the learners are well informed about the topic.

Statements 1, 2, 5, 7, and 10 state situations when discussion would be a good choice of teaching method. Conditions to consider when choosing discussion methods include: content, learning intent, class atmosphere, and learner readiness.

PLANNING DISCUSSION

Sometimes a beginning teacher will assume that discussion will take care of itself and that therefore little planning is needed. This is an erroneous assumption. Effective learning requires thorough planning. You chose discussion because it fitted your learning objectives. So you have planned thus far. Other considerations include how to begin the discussion,

how to keep it focused on the topic, and how to progress toward the desired conclusion. Discussion often is set in a problem solving situation. Some educators view it as a higher form of questioning. You determine the direction and outcome of a discussion by the way you introduce it. Plan to set the problem sharply into focus before the class. You might do this by telling a story that clearly shows the need or exposes the problem. You might spend a few minutes in lecture to expose the sides of an issue, or in some other way help the learners grasp the problem situation. You will want to plan questions to ask along the way. These questions should be designed to expose areas of the problem that are needed to reach the desired conclusion. In some cases you might need to break a larger problem into several smaller sub-problems. Plan how you will do this. As the discussion nears the end, you may wish to summarize what has been exposed, articulate a conclusion, or decide a course of action. Decide in advance what outcome you desire and plan how to lead the discussion to that point.

LEADING DISCUSSION

There are five basic roles a teacher plays in leading a discussion. These are initiator, enlarger, analyzer, summarizer, and implementer. The role of initiator involves setting forth the problem or topic and getting discussion started. As enlarger, you will seek information which will expand the idea and help shape the direction of the discussion. You will "imagine" for the group and perhaps suggest other possibilities to be considered. An analyzer is one who considers how workable an idea may be. He functions as the logician of the group, sorting through what is presented and considering the implications of suggestions. As summarizer, you will review what has been presented and will summarize the progression of development. You will call attention to what has been agreed on and what

has been rejected. You will fill the role of implementer by outlining steps needed to put an idea into action. You will ask and answer, "What do we need to do to implement the solution we have agreed on?"

Successful group process depends on group involvement. If in the process of leading a discussion you observe that someone is not participating, you may want to draw that one out. Even shy people have opinions and it is important that they share in the group experience too.

LESSON In this lesson, I have taught you mainly concerning group discussion with the whole class involved in one discussion. There are several other approaches which call for dividing the group into smaller groups. A helpful resource is Martha Leypoldt's book, 40 Ways to Teach in Groups (published by Judson Press, Valley Forge, Pennsylvania, 1967).

From the course you are working on in this seminar, prepare a lesson using discussion as the method of teaching.

Some of man's earliest efforts at written communication involved pictographs. These represented attempts to communicate information through pictures. Jesus, the Master Teacher, understood the value of visual communication, and he frequently used everyday things to illustrate a point he wanted to teach or to help the disciples visually perceive the impact of his message. A kernel of grain, a coin, a plentiful harvest, a mustard seed, a pearl, a small child, a sower and seed, different kinds of soil, a lost sheep, a camel and a needle's eye, leprosy, bread, a drink of water, birds, foxes, the wind, sheep and goats, and the washing of feet are some of the visual symbols Jesus used to drive home spiritual truth. Humans learn best through sight, more than by any of the other senses. Part of the teacher's task is developing instructional resources. Very often instructional

Lesson 13

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Developing and using instructional resources is an essential part of facilitating learning.

LESSON OBJECTIVE:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Discuss reasons why you should use visual instructional resources.
2. Name and describe several non-projected instructional resources you can prepare using inexpensive, locally-available materials.
3. Prepare effective instructional resources for use in your teaching.

INTRODUCTION

Some of man's earliest efforts at written communication involved pictographs. These represented attempts to communicate information through pictures. Jesus, the Master Teacher, understood the value of visual communication, and he frequently used everyday things to illustrate a point he wanted to teach or to help the disciples visually perceive the impact of his message. A kernel of grain, a coin, a plentiful harvest, a mustard seed, a pearl, a small child, a sower and seed, different kinds of soil, a lost sheep, a camel and a needle's eye, lamps, bread, a drink of water, birds, foxes, the wind, sheep and goats, and the washing of feet are some of the visual symbols Jesus used to drive home spiritual truth. Humans learn much through sight, more than by any of the other senses. Part of the teacher's task is developing instructional resources. Very often instructional

resources are things which enable the learners to visualize the truth they are to learn.

In this lesson you will learn how to develop helpful instructional resources using locally available, inexpensive materials.

WHY USE VISUAL INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

Much research has been done which concludes that visual impact is essential to learning. It has been shown that humans learn through their five senses as follows:

Sight	83%
Hearing	11%
Smell	3 1/2%
Touch	1 1/2%
Taste	1%

The values of the visual and hearing senses for learning are obvious, and learning is increased when the resources involve combinations of the senses.

A second reason for using visual instructional resources is that retention of learning is increased. Learners have the ability to retain about 10% of what is read, about 20% of what is heard, about 30% of what we see, and about 50% of what is seen and heard. Communications which involve both sight and sound increase effectiveness in learning and retention.

Other rationale for the use of visual instructional resources include: they create greater interest, more is learned in less time, they compel attention, they help learners understand time and space relationships, they help clarify what is to be learned, and they help relate abstract concepts to real life. Visual instructional resources are essential to learning.

It is my belief that teachers can very effectively develop useful,

Circle the T before the statements which are true. Circle the F before the statements which are not true.

- T F 1. Visual instructional resources retard learning.
- T F 2. People learn more by sight than by any of the other senses.
- T F 3. Visual instructional resources increase retention of learning.
- T F 4. Researchers are uncertain whether visual resources help learning.
- T F 5. Communications which involve more than one of the senses are no more effective than when only one of the senses is involved.
- T F 6. Visual instructional resources create interest.
- T F 7. Visual instructional resources distract attention from learning.
- T F 8. Visual instructional resources clarify time and space relationships.
- T F 9. Using visual instructional resources is of little value to learning.
- T F 10. Using visual instructional resources is essential to learning.

Statements 2, 3, 6, 8, and 10 are true. The others are not true.

WHAT TO USE AS INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

When asked to think about instructional resources, some teachers think first about multi-media presentations involving several projectors synchronized by computers, closed circuit television, a variety of projectors with transparencies, colored films, and stereo sound on tape recordings. All of these are highly sophisticated and presuppose that your classroom has electrical service and that you have a lot of money to invest in equipment. But many Bible institutes operate on very modest budgets and cannot afford such equipment. This fact, however, should not deter you from developing and using instructional resources effectively. Actually, non-projected resources can be just as effective as projected resources except when you are teaching a very large group.

It is my belief that teachers can very effectively develop useful,

non-projected instructional resources from inexpensive, locally-available materials. The chalkboard is every teacher's right arm. Every classroom should be equipped with one. It is best to have it permanently mounted to the wall, but they can be temporarily mounted on an easel. Chalkboards can be purchased ready-made, or they can be made by applying a special "chalkboard paint" to a flat sheet of pressed board or plywood. This paint is available at local paint or hardware stores and is quite easy to apply. The only caution is to paint smoothly. It is best to apply about three light coats, sanding lightly between coats. The chalkboard should be as large as possible, perhaps about one meter high and two to three meters long.

Perhaps the best use of the chalkboard is spontaneous. A simple diagram, a question, a list, or even a single word grasps attention and clarifies or reinforces important points. You can show comparisons by drawing a line down the chalkboard and listing negatives on one side and positives on the other. Outlines, key words, locations of Bible verses, simple maps, illustrations, and a million more can be put on the chalkboard.

Charts are another favorite. You can use charts, posters, and pictures as effectively as transparencies and films with expensive projectors. Charts can be made on single sheets of poster board or large paper, rolls of newsprint, or on large sized pads. You can put on a chart or poster about anything you can put on the chalkboard. Charts have the feature that they are prepared in advance. This does not allow for the spontaneity of the chalkboard, but they do save class time. Charts have some advantages over the chalkboard in that it is easier to highlight with color, and colored pictures from magazines can be included. If you intend to use the visual more than once it should be remembered that a chart or poster is more permanent and the chalkboard is more temporary.

Other visual resources which you can prepare to enrich learning include maps of Bible lands, bar graphs, line graphs, and pie graphs, for showing relationships, pictures cut from magazines, time lines, objects, and various types of drawings. You may wish to display some of these on a bulletin board in your classroom for use over several class periods, or you may wish to exhibit them as posters in one class meeting only.

The resources mentioned to this point would be used by displaying one large copy to the whole class, but some resources also can be prepared to be distributed to each classmember. These have the advantage that the learners can keep them for future reference. These may include diagrams, models, paradigms, outlines of Bible books or lectures, study questions, work sheets, and study notes. To prepare these you must have access to a limited amount of equipment such as a typewriter and a mimeograph or photocopier.

In some cases, field trips can be valuable instructional resources. Church meetings or chapel services are places where Bible institute students can observe experienced leaders performing the tasks they are learning to do. Current events, both local and international, can be used to emphasize or illustrate a point. Illustrations, poems, and stories also can be used to create mental images, thereby reinforcing learning.

Select from the resources described above two instructional resources which you would like to prepare to use in teaching one of the lessons in the course you are preparing during this seminar. All you need to do at this time is select which ones you wish to prepare. I need to give you a little more instruction before you are ready to prepare them.

HOW TO PREPARE INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

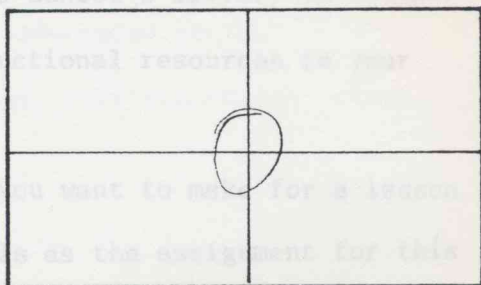
Some teachers think they cannot prepare effective instructional visuals because they are not particularly good artists or cartoonists and

they print poorly. Let me assure you, you can prepare adequate visuals.

First let me offer some general principles. Keep visuals simple and uncluttered. Simple line drawings are best. Use as few words as possible, never more than ten lines and much fewer when possible, and not more than six or seven words to the line. Write with large bold letters. Portray only one idea or comparison per visual. Use color for variety and to emphasize.

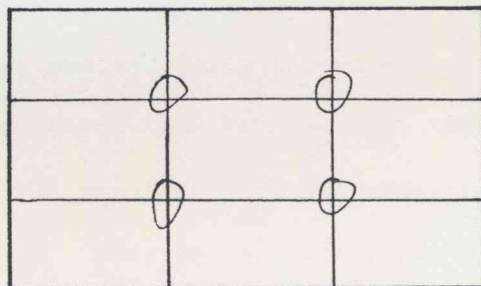
Good composition of a visual is important for maximum impact.

Composition deals with the placement of materials on a layout. The idea is to place the material in such a way that the greatest impact is made. Those who have not studied composition may assume that the center is the most effective place to make the greatest impact, but visual artists have found that this is not the best place for the focus of attention.



Visual artists work with a "rule of thirds."

This simply means that the major focus of attention is off-centered. Divide your sheet into three equal parts vertically and horizontally. The greatest impact points are where those lines cross.



Lettering can be hand done with felt pens, or rub-on lettering can be purchased. For variety, you may clip words or letters from magazines or newspapers and paste up your layout.

Many, but not all, instructional resources are visual in nature. The cassette tape recorder is an example of an audio resource. You can record your lectures on a cassette tape for students to review at their convenience. The cassette tape recorder allows you to present in your

classes the teaching and preaching of outstanding Bible expositors from your homeland and from abroad. You can also record a sermon, a lesson, or a song to be analyzed in class. You can record presentations by your students to help them evaluate and improve their own presentations. In the event you must be absent for a class meeting, you can record a lesson to be played in your absence.

Other valuable instructional resources include books and periodicals. Sharing with your students what you discover in your reading facilitates their learning and helps excite them to read more widely. Helping select the best affordable materials to include in the school's library is another way you can help make available valuable instructional resources to your students.

You have selected two visual resources you want to make for a lesson you are preparing. Prepare one of those visuals as the assignment for this lesson. Write a brief description of how you expect to use it in teaching the lesson.

Part of your work as a teacher is evaluating how much learning your students have done. This often involves you in preparing and administering exams, checking exams, interpreting the results, and assigning grades based on your interpretation. What could be more important? But knowing that the task is important does not make it any easier. If you find exam preparation difficult, you should know that you are not alone. Many teachers find this task difficult. I hope this lesson will help ease the difficulty. You will learn what is the proper criterion for evaluating learning progress and you will learn to construct various kinds of examination questions. We will save the marker of computing grades for the next lesson.

CRITERIA FOR TESTING LEARNING ACHIEVEMENT

Measurement is simplified when a standard is established. In many

Lesson 14

TESTING LEARNING ACHIEVEMENT

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Testing learning achievement involves preparing and administering instruments which indicate how well the learning objectives are achieved.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Explain what is meant by objective-referenced tests.
2. Write objective-referenced true-false, multiple-choice, short-answer, and essay test items.

INTRODUCTION

Part of your work as a teacher is evaluating how much learning your students have done. This often involves you in preparing and administering exams, checking exams, interpreting the results, and assigning grades based on your interpretation. What could be more important? But knowing that the task is important does not make it any easier. If you find exam preparation difficult, you should know that you are not alone. Many teachers find this task difficult. I hope this lesson will help ease the difficulty. You will learn what is the proper criteria for evaluating learning progress and you will learn to construct various kinds of examination questions. We will save the matter of computing grades for the next lesson.

CRITERIA FOR TESTING LEARNING ACHIEVEMENT

Measurement is simplified when a standard is established. In many

areas, we have fixed standards. We measure distance by centimeters, meters, and kilometers, weight by grams and kilograms, and liquid by liters. These standards are fixed and never vary. In measuring learning achievement, you must determine the standard. How will you know if learning happens? By what criteria will learning performance be judged?

In lesson 4 you learned an objective or goal-referenced model of instruction. Now you will learn an objective-referenced model of testing. The instructional model included specifying learning objectives, designing an instructional sequence to achieve those objectives, and evaluating learning achievement. In an objective-referenced testing model the criteria for judging learning achievement are the learning objectives. In specifying the learning objectives, you set forth the learning your students should achieve. So in testing, you want to discover if they achieved the learning intent, or how much of it they achieved. The objectives state what the learners should be able to do after instruction. Your instructional sequence was designed to lead them there. So your tests should find out if the learners can do what they should be able to do. In objective-referenced examinations, the learning objectives are the standard by which learning progress is judged.

If an objective is for the learner to know something, the test item should give him opportunity to demonstrate that he knows it. If an objective is for him to comprehend or apply information, the test items should test those things. The learning objectives specify in what domain and at what level learning changes should take place. Likewise, test items should be structured to test in the same domains and at the same levels as the learning objectives are specified. In the fullest sense the learning objectives are the criteria for measuring learning achievement.

The behavior or performance which you can accept as an indication the learning objectives are achieved are stated in your indicators. It should not be difficult, then, to understand that test items will ask the learners to perform these behaviors. Test items do not have to call for exactly the same behavior as stated in the indicators, but if the performance is difficult, it should be equivalent.

Circle the letter before the phrase which best answers the question or completes the sentence.

1. In objective-referenced testing, what is the criteria for judging learning progress?
 - a. the specified learning objectives
 - b. an arbitrary standard known only by the teacher
 - c. it varies in each situation
 - d. no fixed criteria are needed

2. What should tests be designed to reveal?
 - a. how much homework the learners did
 - b. if the students are smart or dumb
 - c. how well the learning intent was achieved
 - d. if the learners completed their assignments

3. A test item which does not test the learners achievement of the specified learning intent is _____.
 - a. ideal
 - b. acceptable, but not ideal
 - c. permissible under certain conditions
 - d. inappropriate

The correct alternatives are 1-a, 2-c, and 3-d. If you got them all right, you can feel confident that you understand this important concept.

WRITING TEST ITEMS

There are several difficult kinds of test items. In this lesson you will learn how to write four kinds: true-false, multiple-choice, short-answer, and essay.

True-false items consist of statements which the learners must judge to be true or false. Based on their knowledge of the material, the learners are required to recognize the accuracy of each statement. The learner usually is asked to circle the "T" for "true" and "F" for not true. True-false questions are good for slow readers.

True-false questions appear easy to write. Some teachers merely lift statements directly from the textbook and lecture notes for true statement and merely add a negative at a convenient point to form false statements. These are usually poor questions in that they encourage rote memorization of the material. True-false items should require the students to mentally process the information. Although true-false items are appropriate for memory recall of factual information, they may be used for more complex levels too.

When writing true-false items, use simple clear language to avoid ambiguity. Write statements which are totally true or totally false. Avoid trick questions. Sometimes it is necessary to give the frame of reference to clarify the item, such as, "The textbook says . . ." or "Scotfield says . . ." To test cause-and-effect relationships, the first part of the statement should always be true and the second part may be either true or false. In most situations the first part of the statement should be true and the false part should be near the end. Avoid the use of terms such as "usually," "sometimes," "never," "always," "all," and "none." Do not make true statements false by merely inserting the word "not" at a convenient place. It is usually best to avoid copying statements verbatim from the textbook. Avoid making true statements consistently longer than false ones. You should write approximately the same number of true and false items with slightly more false than true.

Write on a sheet of paper ten true-false test items that might be used in the final examination for the course you are revising during this seminar.

Multiple-choice items consist of an incomplete statement or a question followed by a list of possible completions to the sentence or answers to the question. The part which contains the problem is called the stem." The list of possible answers is called "responses." The correct response is the "key." The wrong responses are called "distractors."

The basic requirement of multiple-choice items is that the stem pose a definite problem. The key should be totally correct. The distractors should be plausible to those who do not know the correct answer, but they should be obviously wrong to those who know the material. A response usually includes the key plus three or four distractors, but you may include as few as one distractor, or as many as you like. Usually the stem should be longer than the responses, and the stem must contain a verb. Responses should be arranged in a simple order: alphabetically, from smallest to largest numbers, or by length of response. The wording should be readable by all students and should exclude unnecessary technical terms. The key should be located in all of the alternative positions in a test, some in position a, some in position b, etc. It is best to have approximately an even distribution in all of the positions.

A variation of the multiple-choice items is to ask the student to select the one wrong response rather than the one correct one. In this situation, all responses except one are correct. If you use this kind, you should put the word NOT or EXCEPT in all capital letters.

Write on a sheet of paper ten multiple choice test items that might be used for the course you are revising during this seminar.

Short-answer test items may include either direct questions or partial sentences to be completed. In both situations, the students are expected to supply the answer in their own words. Usually, there is no single word or phrase that is the only acceptable answer. Words which mean nearly the same can be accepted as correct.

It usually is better to use questions than completion sentences. As with true-false items, avoid lifting statements directly from the textbook. This tends to overemphasize rote memorization.

Short-answer test items require the learners to have learned the material well enough to supply the correct answer. This kind of items are, therefore, free from the effects of guessing.

Write on a sheet of paper at least five short-answer test items which might be used in the final text for the course you are revising during the seminar.

Essay test items require the learners to supply information, as do short-answer items. The major difference is that essay items require considerably longer answers. Essay answers may require anywhere from several sentences to several paragraphs. Essay items permit a wide variety of acceptable responses as each learner's approach to the question, knowledge of the subject, and personal background are reflected in their answers. Essay items require the learners not only to know the material well enough to recognize it, but to be able to organize and present the material in written form. This often requires drawing information from a wide knowledge of the subject and may require making critical evaluations about it. This has the advantage of encouraging the learners to learn the subject at large, its broad concepts, and to understand the interrelatedness of the parts rather than learning fragmentary, isolated facts. Many essay items require

the learners to compare, contrast, explain, summarize, or interpret the material. The learners demonstrate their understanding of the information. Because of the complexity of essay items, you will require only a few on each exam. Essay items should be worth several points each, while the other types of items are valued at fewer points.

When writing essay items, be as specific as possible without defeating the purpose of the item. Learners should not be expected to guess what is intended.

When scoring essay items, construct a model of a correct answer before you read any of the students' responses. This model becomes a standard for comparing each learner's response. If possible, it is best to read the learners' responses without knowing whose paper you are reading. This tends to increase objectivity. Some educators advocate correcting all responses for one question before reading the responses of the others. If the exam includes more than one essay item, you would correct all responses to question one, then all responses to questions two.

Write on a sheet of paper two essay items which might be included in a test for the course you are revising during the seminar.

The tests I prepare often include a sampling of different kinds of items. I seldom give a test of all one type. I may include several true-false, some multiple-choice, and a few essay items. I seldom use short-answer type items, although they are legitimate.

CRITERION-REFERENCED SYSTEM

The criterion-referenced system is an approach to computing learners' grades by comparing their performance to an arbitrary criterion. The

Lesson 15

COMPUTING GRADES

MAJOR POINT OF THIS LESSON:

Computing learners' grades involves applying either a criterion-referenced system or a norm-referenced system.

LESSON OBJECTIVES:

After studying this lesson you should be able to:

1. Explain and use a criterion-referenced system for computing your students' grades.
2. Explain and use a norm-referenced system for computing your students' grades.

INTRODUCTION

Grades are intended to be an expression of a student's performance. They should reveal the instructor's evaluation of learning achievement. Grades are the basis by which students qualify or fail to qualify for graduation. A learner's grades are recorded on a permanent transcript and may be considered when applying for further education or for employment.

There are different bases for computing grades. Some teachers use a criterion-referenced system, while others use a norm-referenced system. In this lesson you will learn what each of these is and how to compute grades by both systems. It will be up to you which one you use.

CRITERION-REFERENCED SYSTEM

The criterion-referenced system is an approach to computing learners' grades by comparing their performance to an arbitrary criterion. The

teacher, or the school, sets a standard by which a certain level of performance translates to be a particular grade. An example is:

100-98% = 1.00	84-82 = 2.25
97-95 = 1.25	81-79 = 2.50
94-92 = 1.50	78-76 = 2.75
91-88 = 1.75	75-70 = 3.00
87-85 = 2.00	69-00 = Failure

Using this method, computing learners' grades is a simple process. You merely affix a percentage value to their exams or papers and compare that percentage to the scale.

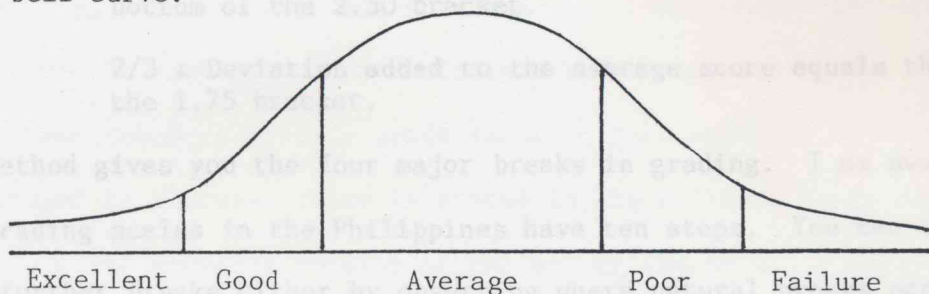
A major problem with this system is that it encourages testing at low levels of learning. The tendency is to ask primarily factual information questions because they are easy to determine a value. The answer is either correct or incorrect. The student earns the points or he fails to earn them. This tends to encourage memorization of the material which is the lowest of all levels of learning.

Another problem with the criterion-referenced system is that it assumes that the teacher has taught the course well enough and has asked the kind of test items so that nearly all of the learners could earn high grades. If the learners do what is prescribed, they should all earn high level grades. Because the teacher's reputation is thusly tied to the learner's achievement, there is the temptation to ask exam questions which are simple and easy enough for nearly everyone to score high. The result is that many of the students have not been tested to the maximum of their ability. Too often the testing experience fails to be a learning experience for the learners.

Using this system is so easy that I don't think you need any practice exercises.

NORM-REFERENCED SYSTEM

The norm-referenced system is an approach to computing learners' grades by comparing the performance of one learner to the rest of the group. The performance of the majority of the learners in the group sets the standard. This system commonly is known as the "curve" method because it assumes that the grade distribution of an average group will fall into a normal bell curve.



The basic idea of the bell curve is that you can expect average performance from the majority of the group. There will be some who will perform above average and some below average, and there will be a few who will do excellent performance and a few who will do poorly enough that their performance must be considered a failure.

This method takes into account the fact that a teacher may not teach a perfect course or prepare a good exam. If the highest score is an 88%, it receives the highest grade. The rest fall in place below that.

The middle average is the comparison reference. To ascertain the average of group performance, simply add together the scores of all learners and divide by the number of students in the group. There are various methods whereby the deviation from the norm can be determined. The regular, though longer, method is as follows:

1. Determine the class average (as described above).
2. Determine deviation by computing differences between each score and the average score. Add up the sum total of differences and

divide by the number of scores compared. This gives you the average deviation.

3. Determine grade steps as follows:

2 x Deviation subtracted from the average score equals the bottom of the 3.00 bracket.

2 x Deviation added to the average score equals the bottom of the 1.25 bracket.

$\frac{2}{3}$ x Deviation subtracted from the average score equals the bottom of the 2.50 bracket.

$\frac{2}{3}$ x Deviation added to the average score equals the bottom of the 1.75 bracket.

This method gives you the four major breaks in grading. I am aware that most grading scales in the Philippines have ten steps. You can determine these further breaks either by observing where natural breaks occur within these broader breaks, or you can divide each step into thirds.

Another method for computing the distribution of grades on a deviation from the norm system is called the Jenkins Shortcut Method. It is as follows:

1. Determine the average score in the same way you did above.

2. Determine the deviation from the mean as follows:

a. Find the average of the top 10% of scores in the class.

b. Do the same for the bottom 10%.

c. Subtract the bottom average from the top average.

d. Divide the answer in step c by 3.4. This gives the standard deviation.

3. To get the grade steps, use the deviation figures obtained in step 2.d as follows:

$1\frac{1}{2}$ x Deviation subtracted from average score equals bottom of 3.00 bracket.

$1\frac{1}{2}$ x Deviation added to average score equals bottom of 1.25 bracket.

Every $\frac{1}{2}$ x Deviation subtracted from the average score equals bottom of 2.50 bracket.

$\frac{1}{2}$ x Deviation added to the average score equals bottom of the 1.75 bracket.

Again, this results in four major breaks. You can further distribute the grades as described above in the discussion of the regular method. We will do some practice exercises using these methods during class time.

It seems important that, whether you choose to use a criterion-referenced system or a norm-referenced system, you be flexible enough to recognize that grading reflects on how you prepared and taught the course as much as it does on how well the students performed. Many teachers compute their grades by both systems and strike a medium between them.

Some teachers affix a grade value to each exercise or exam. These are averaged by whatever value is stated in the syllabus to determine the final grade the students receive at the end of the term. Others affix only a raw score during the term and compute grades at the end of the term only. Either way is valid. Which you use is really a matter of your own choosing.

Grades should be based on fair and honest evaluations of the learners learning achievement. The grades you give your students reflect your assessment of how well they have achieved the learning objectives. Your evaluation will be based substantially on the work the students submit and the scores they earn on their exams. There is, however, room for a subjective factor to be included too. If you feel that a student has performed to the level of his ability, yet has not scored well on the written work or on the exams, you may choose to compensate the student with a higher grade. One factor that may figure into this is if you teach in English as a second language. By all means, however you must not assign grades because you like or dislike the student.

Every teacher should have his own grade record book, and all grades must be entered in it. This becomes the teacher's permanent record of the student's performance and the documentation for how you arrived at the grades

you assigned. These grade record books are to be permanently kept. It may be that years later you will be asked to reconfirm a grade you assigned.

At the end of each term, teachers should submit on an appropriate form the grades assigned to each learner's performance. These forms go to the registrar who inscribes them on the students' permanent transcripts. If the occasion arises that the student needs to have a copy of his grades sent to another institution or to a place of employment, the registrar is the only one authorized to do this, and the official transcript is the only instrument the registrar is authorized to submit.

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Please list all schools you have attended since high school graduation:

Institution	Location	Degree	Major	Year Grad.	Credits	
					Earned	Not Grad.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

How many years have you taught at a Bible school? _____

(FOR OFFICE USE ONLY)

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
AM	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
PM	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Pre-Test Score _____ Self-Evaluation Form _____
 Post-Test Score _____ Program Evaluation Form _____
 _____ Syllabus Revision Completed _____ Lesson Plans Completed _____
 _____ Visual Resource Completed _____ Test Items Completed _____

Comments: _____

APPENDIX K

SEMINAR REGISTRATION FORM

Name _____ Male _____ Female _____

Mailing Address _____

School where you teach _____

Location of school _____

Please list all schools you have attended since high school graduation:

Institution	Location	Degree	Major	Year Grad.	Credits Earned if not Grad.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

How many years have you taught at a Bible school? _____

(FOR OFFICE USE ONLY)

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
AM	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
AM	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
PM	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Pre-test Score _____ Self-Evaluation Form _____

Post-Test Score _____ Program Evaluation Form _____

_____ Syllabus Revision Completed _____ Lesson Plans Completed

_____ Visual Resource Completed _____ Test Items Completed

Comments: _____

APPENDIX L

SAMPLE OF PRE-TEST/POST-TEST

Circle the T before each TRUE statement. Circle the F before each statement that is not true.

- T F 1. The primary purpose of Bible institutes is to equip people for various kinds of Christian service.
- T F 2. The competencies needed for successful pastoral ministry are the same as the competencies needed for Bible institute teaching.
- T F 3. A person who is well trained in Bible and theology has the basic competencies to be a Bible institute teacher whether or not that person has had training in education.
- T F 4. To perform their role well, faculty members of Bible institutes need to develop teaching competencies.
- T F 5. Teaching involves a teacher transmitting his knowledge of a subject to the students.
- T F 6. In a good teaching-learning situation, the teacher will be active and the learners will be more or less passive.
- T F 7. If a teacher tells information to a group of pupils, he has taught them.
- T F 8. Teaching is helping people learn.
- T F 9. Learning is discovering information and making desired responses to that information.
- T F 10. A teacher cannot fill the students' minds with knowledge.
- T F 11. A teacher has not taught until the students learn.
- T F 12. Teaching effectiveness is judged by what happens to the learners.
- T F 13. A teacher may teach whether or not anyone learns.
- T F 14. A person has not learned until he is changed.
- T F 15. For teaching to be effective, the learners must become actively involved with the material.
- T F 16. Learning causes the learner to change in knowledge, attitudes, or behavior.
- T F 17. Cognitive change refers to developing new skills and changes in behavioral practices.

- T F 18. Affective changes refer to forming values and experiencing emotional feelings.
- T F 19. Psycho-motor changes refer to discovering new facts and acquiring information to be remembered.
- T F 20. Of the five human senses, hearing is the most effective in learning.
- T F 21. Learning is most effective when only one of the senses is involved at a time.
- T F 22. Some learning experiences are more effective than others.
- T F 23. Learning experiences which are identical or similar to real life experiences are most effective.
- T F 24. When a learner memorizes factual information for later recall, he has learned at the highest possible level.
- T F 25. Understanding the meaning of information results automatically from memorizing the information for later recall.
- T F 26. Breaking material down into its component parts is a lower level of learning than applying concepts or principles to life problems.
- T F 27. Developing the ability to judge the value or worth of ideas is the highest level of knowledge learning.
- T F 28. Leading learners to develop new values is easier than leading them to develop new skills.
- T F 29. The teacher's own life has little to do with helping learners develop desired values.
- T F 30. The levels of learning pertaining to developing motor skills and performing behavioral acts have not been spelled out as clearly as the other levels have been.
- T F 31. The basic question a teacher should consider in instructional planning is, "What shall I do in this course?"
- T F 32. Instructional planning involves deciding what changes the learners need to make and what is needed to help them make those changes.
- T F 33. The focus of instructional planning should be on what the learners will become rather than on what the teacher will do.
- T F 34. The first step in instructional designing is to specify what will be the learning outcomes.
- T F 35. To give an examination at the beginning of a course would serve no practical purpose.

- T F 36. The learning activities a teacher has his students do should be unrelated to the learning objectives.
- T F 37. The criteria for evaluating learning achievement are the learning objectives.
- T F 38. Covering all of the subject matter in a given course is the most important aspect of teaching the course.
- T F 39. Instructional planning primarily is a process of decision making.
- T F 40. The beginning point in planning a course of study is to decide what content to cover.
- T F 41. It is preferable to begin a course of study without deciding in advance just where the study may lead and where it may end when the term is finished.
- T F 42. It is best to plan the assignments and learning activities for the students day by day rather than before the course begins.
- T F 43. Specifying learning objectives and deciding what content to be included in a course should be separate and independent considerations.
- T F 44. Since learning is an individual personal matter, a teacher cannot be responsible for whether or not the students learn.
- T F 45. Specifying learning objectives involves writing statements which indicate the desired changes in the learners resulting from the instruction.
- T F 46. A list of learning objectives should indicate what a teacher expects to do to teach a course.
- T F 47. Learning objectives should indicate the kind of learning changes the students should achieve.
- T F 48. A teacher need not be concerned about whether his students learn so long as the teacher knows he has faithfully taught the truth.
- T F 49. A teacher should look for signs which indicate that the learners are learning what is desired for them to learn.
- T F 50. A teacher should decide in advance what he will accept as indication that the students have achieved the learning objectives.
- T F 51. Indicators should state what the learners should be able to do after instruction that shows he has achieved the desired learning intent.
- T F 52. "Terminal" objectives are the end products of learning.

- T F 53. "En route" objectives are objectives which call for the learning of new attitudes.
- T F 54. Enabling objectives are objectives which call for the learning of new skills.
- T F 55. Specifying learning objectives involves predetermining what changes should occur in the learners.
- T F 56. Learning objectives should specify the domain and the level at which learning should occur.
- T F 57. Course objectives should be stated as narrowly and specifically as possible.
- T F 58. A teacher should specify many objectives for each course.
- T F 59. Learning objectives should be specified for each individual lesson.
- T F 60. Designing instruction involves selecting and organizing learning activities in a way that leads to achieving the learning objectives.
- T F 61. A teacher should establish learning objectives for his courses and should use them to plan the learning experiences but should not communicate the objectives to the students.
- T F 62. Humans learn only when they are motivated to learn.
- T F 63. External rewards, such as good grades, are more effective motivations to learning than are inner desires to know more.
- T F 64. Students are more likely to learn the material when they understand how they will benefit from the material.
- T F 65. Instruction should be planned to lead the students step-by-step toward the full achievement of the learning objectives.
- T F 66. Instructional activities which give learners the opportunity to practice the same things they will need to do in real life situations are best.
- T F 67. How soon a student learns the accuracy and adequacy of his responses to questions has little or no impact on learning.
- T F 68. Knowledge of proven principles of learning should help teachers plan effective instruction.
- T F 69. The teacher bears full responsibility for each teaching-learning situation.
- T F 70. Instruction should be planned carefully so that after the students have completed all of the requirements for the course they will have achieved the intent of the learning objectives.

- T F 71. A group of learners coming together as a class does little if anything to facilitate learning.
- T F 72. Because of their busy schedules, students should not be expected to engage in learning activities outside of class time.
- T F 73. It is unethical for a teacher to change a course syllabus after the course has begun.
- T F 74. A course syllabus is a document a teacher prepares to show that a course is about and how the course will be conducted.
- T F 75. A course syllabus is for the teacher's personal use but it should not be shared with the students in case the teacher may wish to change it during the course.
- T F 76. A teacher should expect the school to provide him with the syllabus the administration wants used in teaching a course.
- T F 77. It is unnecessary for a teacher to prepare a course syllabus for some courses.
- T F 78. Every course syllabus should be prepared alike using the same format and style for each one.
- T F 79. Although a course syllabus is prepared by one teacher, the administration of the school may give a copy to another teacher to use in teaching the same course with no ethical violation.
- T F 80. The rights of ownership of a course syllabus belong to the institution where the teacher teaches.
- T F 81. One of the most valuable uses of a course syllabus is for the students to use it for daily lesson planning.
- T F 82. A course syllabus helps ensure systematic coverage of all of the course material of a given course.
- T F 83. A course syllabus is of little value to a student when preparing for his exams.
- T F 84. If a teacher carefully plans the course syllabus, the daily lessons will pretty well take care of themselves without thorough advance planning.
- T F 85. The teacher should prepare a lesson plan for each day's lesson.
- T F 86. By looking at a teacher's lesson plan you should be able to know how each minute of the class period will be used.
- T F 87. A lesson objective should be specified for each lesson of a course.

- T F 88. Lesson objectives should in broad and general terms state the expected outcomes for the lesson.
- T F 89. Beginning teachers usually need to prepare their daily lesson plans with more care and detail than experienced teachers do.
- T F 90. A teacher should be able to state in one simple statement what he wants to teach in a lesson.
- T F 91. It is best to plan several objectives for each lesson.
- T F 92. A good time to plan the examination is as you plan the lesson.
- T F 93. While the lecture method is popular, it has been proven to be ineffective and it should be avoided.
- T F 94. The lecture method involves a teacher orally presenting information.
- T F 95. The lecture method is valuable for presenting considerable material in a limited amount of time.
- T F 96. The lecture method makes it difficult to present material systematically and in an organized way.
- T F 97. The lecture method does not fit when teaching a small group.
- T F 98. A teacher's enthusiasm for the subject greatly aids learning by the students.
- T F 99. The lecture method does not adapt well to the learners' needs and interest.
- T F 100. The lecture method utilizes several proven principles of teaching and learning.
- T F 101. When the lecture method is used, it should be used along and not combined with other methods.
- T F 102. Visuals tend to confuse the learners when they are combined with the lecture method.
- T F 103. Teacher preparation has little effect on the learning outcome with the lecture method.
- T F 104. Giving an outline in advance of a lecture facilitates learning.
- T F 105. More learning occurs when a lecture is delivered in a formal way than when it is delivered in an informal conversational way.
- T F 106. If a teacher has mastered the material well, how he delivers a lecture about it will be of little importance.

- T F 107. When giving a lecture, it is good to use words the students do not know because this lets them know that the teacher is well educated.
- T F 108. Appropriate questions will direct learning to each of the levels of the cognitive domain.
- T F 109. The correct way to ask a question is to call the name of the student you want to answer, then state the question.
- T F 110. Questions often serve well when used with other methods.
- T F 111. Discussion is a good teaching method to use when you desire to change attitudes and values.
- T F 112. Discussion is a useful method of teaching for raising and solving problems.
- T F 113. Discussion is a good method for teaching factual information.
- T F 114. The discussion method requires as much advance planning by the teacher as other methods.
- T F 115. The teacher should decide in advance where the discussion is headed.
- T F 116. A teacher should be an active participant in a discussion thereby guiding the discussion in the desired direction.
- T F 117. Humans have the ability to retain much more of what they read than what they hear.
- T F 118. Communications which involve both sight and hearing are no more effective than those which involve hearing only.
- T F 119. Many Bible institute teachers cannot use effective teaching visuals to reinforce their lessons because they require expensive equipment which operates electrically.
- T F 120. Every classroom should be equipped with a chalkboard.
- T F 121. Simple line drawings are better than complicated artistic renditions for use as teaching visuals.
- T F 122. The best place on a visual to place the focus of attention is in the middle of the visual.
- T F 123. Exams and tests should be designed to discover how well the learning objectives have been achieved.
- T F 124. Exams should be structured to test in the same domains and at the same levels as the learning objectives specify.
- T F 125. When writing true-false test items, it is good to copy statements directly from the textbook.

- T F 126. When writing true-false test, it is best to have about twice as many true as false statements.
- T F 127. In multiple-choice questions, the part which contains the problem is called the "stem."
- T F 128. In multiple-choice questions, the correct alternative is called the "key."
- T F 129. In multiple-choice questions, the incorrect alternatives are called "distractors."
- T F 130. Short answer test items require the students to know the material well enough to supply the correct answer.
- T F 131. Essay test items require the learners to give precise answers to the questions.
- T F 132. Essay test items require the learner to demonstrate their understanding to the information.
- T F 133. For an essay test to be valid, you must give many questions.
- T F 134. In objective-referenced tests, there can be no precise standard of right and wrong.
- T F 135. In a criterion-referenced grading system, student performance is measured by comparing the lowest student's performance with the highest student's performance.
- T F 136. The system of grading where the teacher arbitrarily sets a percentage scale for each grade level and compares the students' performance by that scale is called the "curve" system.
- T F 137. The system of grading where the teacher arbitrarily sets a percentage scale for each grade level encourages testing at low levels of learning.
- T F 138. The norm-referenced system of grading compares one learner's performance against the performance of the other class members.
- T F 139. The basic idea of the bell curve is that you expect average performance from the majority of the students.
- T F 140. A student will know how much the teacher likes or dislikes him by the grade he receives from the teacher.

APPENDIX M

PRE-TEST TALLY OF MISSED RESPONSES

Q*	M	Q	M	Q	M	Q	M	Q	M	Q	M
1	1	24	1	47	0	70	2	93	3	117	7
2	6	25	4	48	0	71	1	94	1	118	2
3	7	26	8	49	0	72	1	95	1	119	4
4	0	27	3	50	1	73	5	96	1	120	0
5	11	28	8	51	0	74	0	97	3	121	0
6	0	29	0	52	3	75	0	98	0	122	8
7	2	30	5	53	10	76	0	99	9	123	0
8	0	31	7	54	12	77	2	100	7	124	1
9	0	32	0	55	0	78	3	101	0	125	2
10	5	33	0	56	0	79	7	102	0	126	4
11	0	34	0	57	11	80	10	103	4	127	1
12	0	35	1	58	8	81	1	104	1	128	1
13	4	36	0	59	0	82	0	105	4	129	0
14	0	37	1	60	0	83	5	106	2	130	2
15	0	38	0	61	2	84	6	107	0	131	3
16	0	39	2	62	7	85	0	108	1	132	0
17	6	40	12	63	3	86	6	109	3	133	1
18	2	41	1	64	0	87	0	110	0	134	5
19	7	42	3	65	0	88	4	111	4	135	9
20	2	43	2	66	0	89	3	112	0	136	9
21	1	44	0	67	3	90	1	113	8	137	6
22	0	45	0	68	0	91	2	114	4	138	1
23	0	46	9	69	8	92	1	115	0	139	1
								116	1	140	0

*Q = Question number - M = Number who missed

APPENDIX N

SYLLABUS

Developing Essential Teaching Competencies

Dwayne E. Turner, Instructor

Seminar Description:

This seminar is designed to help faculty members of Assemblies of God Bible institutes in the Philippines develop teaching competencies essential to their role. It deals particularly with the practice of teaching. It includes an overview of learning theory, studies in instructional design, teaching methodology, and evaluation of learning achievement.

Learning Objectives:

Completing this seminar should help you:

1. Understand why Bible institute teachers need to develop teaching competencies.
2. Understand fundamental issues of learning theory.
3. Know how to design instruction.
4. Know how to use three widely used teaching methods.
5. Know how to evaluate learning achievement.

Objective Indicators:

After instruction, to demonstrate your achievement of the learning objectives, you should be able to:

1. Explain why Bible institute teachers need to develop teaching competencies.
2. Discuss fundamental teaching-learning processes.
3. List and describe the three domains in which learning change occurs.
4. List and describe the levels of learning in two of the three domains.
5. Describe a goal-referenced model of instruction.
6. Specify learning objectives and indicators for a course you teach.
7. Design a learning sequence to help learners achieve the learning objectives you set.
8. Revise a course syllabus for a course you teach.

9. Using lesson planning worksheets, plan at least one lesson for a course you teach.
10. Prepare and lead lessons using the lecture method, question and answer, and discussion.
11. Prepare instructional resources to supplement your lessons.
12. Write objective-referenced true-false, multiple choice, short answer, and essay test items for a course you teach.
13. Compute students' grades using a criterion-referenced system and a norm-referenced system.

Textbook for the Seminar:

1. Turner, Dwayne E. Developing Essential Teaching Competencies. Unpublished, 1984.
2. Selected articles from Christianity Today and chapters from various books listed in the bibliography. All participants are expected to read at least 500 pages in addition to the text.

Requirements for the Seminar:

1. Attend all sessions.
2. All assigned reading.
3. Complete all exercises in the text. This includes revising the syllabus for a course you teach, the preparation of lesson plans for the course, and preparing a list of possible test items which might be used in a final exam for the course.
4. Complete the evaluation exercises.

Teaching Methods to be Used:

Teaching methods will include lecture, group discussion, reading, study exercises in the text, question and answer, and small group discussion.

Examinations:

There will be a pre-test and a post-test. Other evaluation tools will be administered, also. No grades will be given for the seminar.

Seminar Outline:

The Table of Contents of the text outlines the seminar content.

Bibliography:

The bibliography is located at the end of the course in the notebook.

APPENDIX O

SEMINAR PARTICIPANTS
PROFESSIONAL GROWTH EVALUATION
A Self-Assessment

The purpose of this evaluation is for you to evaluate your own professional growth as a result of the seminar experience. The evaluation is not of the seminar program, but it is of your growth through it.

Please express your degree of agreement with each of the following statements by circling the SA if you strongly agree; A if you agree, but not strongly; U if you are undecided; D if you disagree, but not strongly; and SD if you strongly disagree.

Strongly Agree	Agree, but not strongly	Undecided	Disagree, but not strongly	Strongly Disagree
SA	A	U	D	SD
* * * * *				

- SA A U D SD 1. I am more aware of the need for Bible institute teachers to develop their teaching competencies than I was before attending the seminar.
- SA A U D SD 2. I have a better understanding of what teaching and learning are than I had before attending the seminar.
- SA A U D SD 3. I have a better understanding of the teacher's role in teaching-learning than I had before attending the seminar.
- SA A U D SD 4. I understand the kinds of changes I should expect in my students as a result of the teaching-learning encounter better than I understood it before attending the seminar.
- SA A U D SD 5. I understand the kinds of experiences which help people learn better than I did before attending the seminar.
- SA A U D SD 6. I know more about the levels of learning than I knew before attending the seminar.
- SA A U D SD 7. I understand the processes of planning instruction better than I did before attending the seminar.
- SA A U D SD 8. I can more effectively plan the courses I teach than I could before attending the seminar.
- SA A U D SD 9. I am better able to specify learning objectives than I was before attending the seminar.
- SA A U D SD 10. I am better able to determine what behaviors indicate that my learning objectives are achieved than I was before attending the seminar.

- SA A U S SD 11. I feel more competent to specify learning objectives for my courses than I did before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 12. I have a better understanding of how to plan an instructional sequence than I had before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 13. I am more competent at preparing a course syllabus than I was before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 14. I am more competent at preparing individual lesson plans than I was before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 15. I understand how to use the lecture method of teaching better than I did before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 16. I have a better understanding of the conditions under which I should use the lecture method than I did before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 17. I have a better understanding of how to ask questions at the desired level of learning than I had before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 18. I am more competent to lead a class discussing than I was before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 19. I have a better understanding of why I need to use visual resources to reinforce my teaching than I had before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 20. I am more competent to prepare visual resources than I was before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 21. I have a better understanding of how to relate my test items to my learning objectives than I had before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 22. I am more competent to write test items than I was before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 23. I have a better understanding of the difference between criterion-referenced and norm-referenced grading systems than I had before attending the seminar.
- SA A U S SD 24. Attending the seminar helped me develop the teaching competencies which are essential to my work as Bible institute teacher.
- SA A U S SD 25. I feel more like a professional teacher than I did before attending the seminar.

APPENDIX P

PROFESSIONAL GROWTH EVALUATION
TALLY SHEET

Statement Number	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	11	1			
2	10	2			
3	8	4			
4	9	3			
5	6	6			
6	9	2	1		
7	7	5			
8	7	5			
9	9	3			
10	7	5			
11	6	4	2		
12	5	7			
13	6	6			
14	6	6			
15	3	9			
16	4	8			
17	3	8	1		
18	2	8	2		
19	6	6			
20	2	9	1		
21	8	4			
22	5	6	1		
23	2	6	3		1
24	10	2			
25		7	5		
N=300	151	132	16	0	1

APPENDIX Q

EVALUATION OF SEMINAR

The purpose of this evaluation is for you to evaluate the learning experience of the seminar. You also will complete another evaluation form in which you will evaluate your own professional growth as a result of the seminar experience. Please keep this distinction in mind as you answer these questions. In this evaluation, you are evaluating the seminar program.

Write in your own words answers to each of the following questions. Please express your true opinions and write something on each question.

1. Were advance preparations for the seminar adequate? What could have been done better?

2. Did the content of the seminar deal with "real needs?" What important areas were omitted that you think should have been included? What could have been omitted that was included? Please explain.

3. Were the purpose and objectives for the seminar clear to you? Explain.

4. Did the learning activities of the seminar enable you to achieve the objectives for the seminar? Explain.

5. Do you think you achieved the objectives of the seminar? Explain why.

12. What is your over-all impression of the seminar? Explain.

13. Are you glad you participated in the seminar? Why?

14. How do you plan to implement in your teaching what you have learned in the seminar? Explain.

15. If opportunity was available to your faculty colleagues to attend a similar seminar, would you recommend that they attend? Why?

16. Please write any comments about the seminar that you may wish to make.

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