

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE GOALS,
ORGANISATION, AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS
IN SOCIAL EDUCATION AND ETHICS IN THE
8-4-4 EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN KENYA

BY

© ASMAN S.M. MAKOKHA

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF EDUCATION

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ASMAN S.M. MAKOKHA

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of
the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated
to Pam Arush

and

All those classroom teachers who toil each
weekday to push further away the frontiers of
ignorance, for as Derek Bob, former president
of Harvard University, said "if you think
education is expensive, try ignorance".

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation, and instructional materials in Social Education and Ethics in the 8-4-4 educational system in Kenya. Teachers from thirty two secondary schools in three districts were subjects of the study. Schools were randomly selected from Kakamega, Bungoma and Trans-nzoia districts. Data was collected using a questionnaire supplemented by an open-end structured in-person interview from January to April 1988.

It was established, amongst other things, that teachers perceive the goals of Social Education and Ethics to be realistic and relevant to the nature of the subject. Although most teachers follow the Social Education and Ethics Syllabus, they thought that it needed to be restructured. Instructional materials were considered to be inadequate, sketchy and in some instances completely unavailable. Generally, teachers felt that they were not well prepared to effectively teach Social Education and Ethics.

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CHAPTER 1

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation and instructional materials in the 8-4-4 secondary school Social Education and Ethics programme in Kenya. In order to do this, three main tasks will be addressed. First, the study will include a survey of teachers' perceptions of the goals of the subject. Second, the study will focus on gauging teachers' views of the organisation of the subject. And lastly, the study will endeavour to come to grips with an understanding of the teachers' perceptions of instructional materials. All these tasks will be undertaken in order to better understand the implementation process as it applies to the curriculum of Social Education and Ethics and the problems that have been encountered in implementing this curriculum.

1.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

In 1985 a new subject, 'Social Education and Ethics', was launched in the secondary schools of Kenya. Its launching coincided with the advent of a new educational system characterised by eight years of primary schooling, four years of secondary, and four years of University education. This system is popularly referred to as the 8-4-4. It is widely seen as a radical departure from previous educational practices and a major restructuring of education to suit the country's manpower

development needs.

Prior to the implementation of the new Social Education and Ethics Curriculum in the secondary schools, a series of seminars for teachers were organised. These seminars, at which every school was represented by one teacher (the investigator attended one of them), served as fora for unveiling the curriculum to be followed in the new subject. It was expected that these teachers would teach the new subject starting gradually with form one up to form four. But in the event that a teacher did not end up teaching the subject, then, he/she would inform another teacher designated by the headmaster to teach it.

One might have expected a comprehensive in-service programme (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Common, 1980, Leithwood, 1982; and Fullan, 1982). Such a programme would have been desirable since the whole cadre of secondary school teachers expected to teach the subject had taken neither a formal course nor teacher education (pre-service) in the subject which they were expected to implement.

In this context, it is useful to examine the teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation and instructional materials, in Social Education and Ethics in the 8-4-4 secondary school education system. Given the minimal preparation of teachers, along with the novel nature of the subject, and the

materials they were expected to use, a study of this sort can serve the purpose of identifying the problems that teachers have encountered with their attempt to implement the curriculum of this subject.

It should be emphasized that this study will encompass only implementation as a process in a narrow rather than broad sense, as the term is understood in curriculum theory. Whereas the term will be used frequently, the conception of implementation as used with respect to Social Education and Ethics only focuses upon two elements of the process of curriculum implementation (Fullan, 1982).

The first element is the curriculum of the discipline itself. In this respect it is postulated that if teachers perceive the curriculum of S.E.E. to be clear, to embody the needs of learners or society and to be understandable to them, then there is a greater chance that it will be effectively implemented. The organisation of the curriculum would constitute the second element. This refers to the adaptation of the curriculum to various institutional conditions including its effective instructional practices.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To state the problem more precisely, the study will survey and establish teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation

and instructional materials in Social Education and Ethics (S. E. E.). In order to fulfil this task, four questions will be investigated. These are:

- (a) How do teachers perceive the stated goals of S. E. E.?
- (b) Given these perceptions in (a), what are the (teachers') view(s) of the way the S. E. E. syllabus is organised?
- (c) How are the instructional materials perceived in terms of appropriateness and adequacy?
- (d) What problems do teachers report themselves as facing?

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study can be justified both on practical and theoretical grounds. Practically, it will be useful to curriculum developers, especially for the improvement of the current procedures and policies of formulating and implementing a new curriculum. The study will be of interest to teachers by helping them to understand some of the efforts their fellow teachers are making as well as problems they are encountering in implementing the S.E.E. syllabus. Theoretically, it is hoped that the study will generate increased awareness within S.E.E., and serve as a basis for further research and studies in curriculum implementation in so far as it involves the classroom teacher. To put this another way, this study is both a study of a particular topic: the introduction of S.E.E. in the secondary school system, and it is also a contribution to the wider topic

of curriculum implementation.

1.5 RESEARCH APPROACH AND RATIONALE

This study examined the teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation and instructional materials in the 8-4-4 secondary school programme in Kenya using both a theoretical and an empirical approach. Being a perceptual study, the theoretical approach was necessary in order to establish the contextual background and framework of the problem. The implementation of the S.E.E. programme is therefore analysed through a review of both its actual context and of related research and theory.

The other dimension of the study was carried out using two instruments: a self-designed questionnaire and an interview schedule. Although other research approaches such as participant observation or action research would have been equally suitable, they would have proved too time consuming given the fact the investigator worked within a limited time-frame and on meagre financial resources. Quantitative and qualitative data obtained by the questionnaire and interview schedule respectively were analysed using the univariate technique and, content and concept analysis methods. These methods were suitable to this study because each variable pertinent to this study was examined as a concept and this made it possible to establish the extent to which the key variables had determined the implementation of the S.E.E. programme by teachers.

Teachers of S.E.E. were selected for this study for a number of reasons. Firstly, in any scheme of curriculum implementation, classroom teachers are the actual agents of change (Connelly, 1972; McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978; and Ben-Peretz, 1980). Teachers cannot be shunted aside because they have the real as opposed to the professed knowledge and experience of classroom practice. They are, therefore, better placed to discern practical classroom problems of an instructional nature. Ben-Peretz says that

Teachers are the immediate agents of change who, by their instructional activities can implement appropriate curricular solutions. The perception of teachers as independent implementers demands that their own needs relating to awareness of prerequisites for implementation, anticipation of difficulties and consideration of interpersonal difficulties be taken into account. (p. 54)

Secondly, individual classroom teachers may not necessarily be initiators of curriculum change, but their coordinated strengths and support (Stenhouse, 1975) become crucial for implementation to take off at the level of the school. This underlines the fact that for any implementation of a new curriculum to be effective, the role of teachers is indispensable. Klein (1983) has put it quite bluntly that

First, we know that teachers cannot be bypassed in effective curriculum change. The teacher must have an important and active role in curriculum development if a curriculum is to accomplish all that is hoped for it. (p. 198)

Thirdly, in centralized educational systems, there is often a tendency to view curriculum development as ending with the development of materials (Berk, 1974). This situation puts unrealistic burdens on the classroom teacher who is expected to utilise such materials without getting any direction or clarity from curriculum developers. It is against this background that Anderson and Tomkins (1981), say that teachers naturally look for materials that fit their pedagogical styles and find prescribed curricula less constricting than prescribed materials.

Given these arguments, that attest to the importance of classroom teachers in the implementation process, this study assumed that the way the S.E.E. curriculum was introduced in the schools is likely to have posed problems of implementation for classroom teachers in terms of planning their courses for instruction, and of utilising instructional materials. Furthermore, it was assumed that a perceptual study of this nature would solicit valid information from teachers of S.E.E. which would be useful in answering research questions and also serving as a possible basis of recommendations for future studies in the field and areas appertaining to this study.

On the other hand, S.E.E. as a subject, was chosen for this study because since it was introduced three years ago, teachers instructing it have not had any thorough preparation including

pre-service and in-service courses. Teachers of S.E.E. were just appointed from amongst the available teachers of various subjects to teach S.E.E. regardless of their willingness, ability or academic background. In addition, teachers were neither involved in the selection nor validation of instructional materials which they are supposedly using, and no comprehensive seminars were organised to familiarise teachers with the available instructional materials. And yet the fact that S.E.E. has been made an examinable subject in the secondary school external examinations means that sufficient importance is attached to this subject and the role it is hoped to play in the school curriculum. Generally this subject is seen as serving the needs of social and ideological control amongst the youth (The Weekly Review, Jan. 10th, 1986). Writing on the Nigerian experience about the role that Social Studies is supposed to play in An African Context, Udofot (1986) says

Apparently, social studies is a sensitive subject which each society could manipulate to give their children the kind of experiences and awareness they want the children to acquire. Individual societies could express different ideologies through different approaches to their social studies curriculum, with a view to help produce at the end the kind of individual children they want for their societies. (p. 1)

That such importance is attached to S.E.E. on the one hand, and the problematic manner in which it was launched on the other hand, would make a study of this nature worthwhile. Therefore, this study was undertaken to investigate teachers' perceptions of

the goals, organisation and instructional materials of S.E.E. in the 8-4-4 secondary school programme in order to ascertain the type of problems teachers have faced in implementing the S.E.E. curriculum.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF REMAINING CHAPTERS

Chapter 2 deals with the background of the study. In this chapter an overview of the socio-economic and political characteristics of Kenya is presented. This is followed by a discussion of the launching, definition and goals of Social Education and Ethics. Finally factors which have affected the expansion of secondary education since independence, including two case studies of curriculum innovation, are discussed.

Chapter 3 discusses the theoretical framework upon which this study is premised. It contains a section on the theoretical role of the teacher in curriculum implementation and explains the elements which constitute the process of curriculum implementation.

Chapter 4 presents the review of literature. A variety of literature from the United States, Britain, Canada and Australia as well as studies from Africa are reviewed. This review revolves around variables such as teacher preparation, implementation and instructional planning, use of instructional materials, goals of curriculum and finally, school-based

curriculum development.

Chapter 5 contains the methodology of this study. The set-up, population and sample of the study are explained. Sampling procedures used are also indicated. In addition the main instruments used for data collection namely, the self-designed questionnaire and an interview schedule are discussed. Then finally, techniques used in analysing both quantitative and qualitative data are explained.

Chapter 6 presents the analysis and findings of the study. This chapter contains four sub-sections through which results and findings are presented. These are the demographic characteristics of the schools and respondents, the attendance of Social Education and Ethics seminars, the instructional materials used and finally the Social Education and Ethics syllabus and instruction.

Chapter 7 deals with the discussion of the findings of the study. This section is organised around the factors which affected the implementation of Social Education and Ethics. These factors are discussed in the following sequence. The first factor is the teachers' perception of the goals of Social Education and Ethics. The second factor is the perception of the organisation of this subject. Third, is the perception of the impact on teachers' roles. And fourth, is the perception of

instructional materials used in S.E.E.

Chapter 8 contains a discussion of the implications obtaining from the study. Three issues which are addressed with regard to implications are teacher preparation, resource materials and teacher involvement in the change process. Also presented in this chapter are conclusions which are drawn from the study plus a suggestion for further research. Lastly this section presents the recommendations relevant to the findings of the study and the implementation of change.

CHAPTER 2:
CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

2.1 KENYAN CONTEXT

Independent from Britain one quarter of a century ago, Kenya is a relatively stable de jure one party state. Attainment of political independence in 1963 spelt an end to colonial rule which spanned a period of seventy years. The most radicalised era of colonialism was the decade extending from 1952 to 1962. This time saw the consolidation of nationalism and more vigorous demands for self-government which culminated in the outbreak of the "Mau Mau" war and the subsequent declaration of a state of emergency as well as mass detentions of Kenyan leaders. Kenyans fought against colonial oppression, political subjugation and land alienation.

At independence, Kenya became a multi-party state. The Kenya African National Union (K.A.N.U.) which had won the general election became the ruling party under the leadership of Jomo Kenyatta as the country's first prime minister while the Kenya African Democratic Union (K.A.D.U.) became the official opposition party in the national assembly - the supreme legislative organ of government. However, in 1964 the opposition voluntarily dissolved itself and its members joined the ruling party. Then the country's constitution was amended to make it a republic with Kenyatta as the first executive president. But in

1966 political differences within senior party ranks erupted into the open with the then vice president (Oginga Odinga) quitting the party with his supporters and forming a new opposition party called the Kenya Peoples Union (K.P.U.). This prompted the ruling party to declare what was dubbed as "the little general election" so that K.P.U. members could be given a mandate by the people before assuming the status of an official opposition party.

However, K.P.U. as an opposition party was shortlived. In 1969 the party was officially proscribed and its leaders placed under preventive detention. The banning of K.P.U. resulted from civil disturbances which erupted in Kisumu (Odinga's stronghold) during Kenyatta's visit to this lakeside town on the shores of Lake Victoria. Kenya once again became a de facto one party state. This has been the case until 1984 when the national assembly legislated to make K.A.N.U. the sole political party, thus making Kenya a one-party state de jure.

Politically, Kenya pursues a foreign policy of non-alignment. However, it belongs to a number of international and regional bodies and groupings. It is a member of the United Nations Organisation (UNO), and is the headquarters of such UNO agencies as the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the United Nations Agency for Human Settlement (HABITAT). It also belongs to the non-aligned movement and the Organisation for

African Unity (OAU). In addition, Kenya is a staunch supporter of the British Commonwealth and the recently launched economic and commercial body in East and Central Africa called the Preferential Trade Area (PTA). Geographically, it is a tropical country located south of the Sahara Desert stretching roughly from 4°N and 4°S of the Equator. It is situated on the East Coast of Africa, and roughly extends between longitudes 34° East and 42° East, and 4 1/2° degrees on either side of the Equator. Kenya is bordered on the East by the Indian Ocean and Somalia, to the West by the Republic of Uganda, to the North by Ethiopia and Sudan, and to the South by Tanzania. It spans an area of 583,000 square kilometres and has a geographical altitude range from sea level to 2,800 metres. Administratively Kenya is divided into eight provinces and 41 districts. Nairobi is the largest and capital city with a population in excess of 1.2 million people. The country comprises 52 African, Asian and other communities which exhibit different cultural, social, and economic lifestyles. Kiswahili is the national language, but is used alongside English as the common media of expression.

Kenya is economically dependent upon, and influenced by, external aid and technical assistance from Western States and donor agencies (Leys, 1975; Swainson, 1980; and Ake, 1981). This economic dependence has been seen by some observers as a major factor behind either the establishment of, or duplication of economically non-viable projects. Multilateral aid from western

donors is a case in point. Writing on multilateral aid to Kenya, Sifuna (1983) observed that

Kenya has had to share the blame in this situation because it has been ideally seen as useful in playing off one donor against the other. This has had the unfortunate effect of duplication or overlapping of activities and a tendency to embark on prestigious projects. (p. 485)

Pursuant to Sessional Paper No. 10, 1965, the government promotes a mixed economy which is a blend of national control, private enterprise, and private foreign investment. Society is divided into a small middle class and a majority of rural dwellers. In between the two categories are workers of sorts, some of whom strive for the trappings of the middle class status while others are lumpen proletarians in the Marxian sense of the word. According to the World Bank's World Development Report (1987), Kenya has a Gross National Product (GNP) per capita of U.S. 290 dollars, with an annual growth rate of 1.9% between 1965 and 1985. The average annual rate of inflation within the same period is estimated to be 10.0%. The country has been experiencing a rising cost of living. It has sharp, uneven distribution of incomes and a majority of those in the lower-income brackets live below the poverty line. Kenya has a population of 20.4 million (1985 figures) people, and this population is projected to be 25 million by 1990 and approximately 36 million in the year 2030. However, the bulk of this population is largely what can be called the school-age

population, for about 60% of the total population is made up of young and active school-goers. The population is also unevenly distributed. More than 3/4 of the total population reside on less than 1/3 of the Arable land predominantly in the south western parts and the coastal strip (Ojany and Ogendo, 1973 and Ominde, 1984).

About 80% of the total population live in the rural areas where a majority are small scale farmers, and the remainder reside in urban centres. Urbanization, however, is a recent phenomenon, yet it is steadily being compounded by the rural-urban migration. For instance, in 1965, only 9% of the total population lived in urban centres as compared to 20% in 1985. Kenya relies heavily on the export of primary products like coffee, tea, sisal and pyrethrum to earn its foreign exchange and service the external debt. Statistics show that the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for the period 1980 - 1985 has been realizing an annual growth rate of 3.1%. Writing on the Kenyan economy, Cameron and Hurst (1983) observed that

Although industry has made a strong start and tourism is emerging as the country's biggest foreign exchange earner, agriculture remains the mainstay of the economy. It contributes 30% of GDP, 65% of exports, is the largest employer of labour and provides subsistence or employment for the population. (p. 143)

This description of the socio-economic and political background of Kenya since the colonial period now leads to a discussion of

the development of education.

During the colonial era formal education for Africans in Kenya was very much restricted. The only Africans who managed to get access to formal education were functionaries who were supposed to service the colonial machine as interpreters, clerks and artisans. In most cases, the beneficiaries of this type of education were sons of colonial chiefs and homeguards. In fact the philosophy behind the establishment of colonial institutions like the Jeans schools (for training in vocational skills) and government African schools was to turn out cheap African labour for the colonialists. In contrast, the education that was provided for the whites at the time in racially segregated schools was replicated upon the English public school system. This type of education prepared them for white collar jobs in the colonial Civil Service.

Because of this selective and racially segregated education, opportunities of schooling for Africans were limited even though there was an increasing demand for education. In response to this demand for formal education, the first breed of indigenous Africans who had had exposure to Western schooling started community schools called independent schools especially in Central province. These schools were an expression of the growing disenchantment of indigenous people towards colonial education. People, therefore, sought alternative means of

providing literacy to their own folks through communal efforts. The need for independent schools also arose from people who wanted their children to cope with the rapidly changing times through the acquisition of the basic literacy skills of the 3Rs. The only agencies during the colonial period which supported the African educational endeavour through the financing, construction and maintenance of schools were missionary societies.

At independence, the new government faced pressure from the people for the provision of desegregated education and expanded opportunities and facilities for schooling. Indeed the government pledged to do exactly that and going by available statistics, the financing of education has been claiming the largest and ever increasing portion of the government's recurrent expenditure. According to the current Development Plan (1984-1988) "Government spending on formal education rose from £K 6 million in 1963 to £K 194 million, a rise of 18 per cent of the national recurrent budget at independence to 30 per cent in 1983" (p. 148) and physical expansion in secondary schools rose from 27,000 students in 1963 to 465,000 in 1981. However, this steady growth in student enrolment was not matched by the growth in personnel and other educational facilities. This disparity has remained a constant source of concern to the government. As stated in the plan,

Overall growth in the number of teachers was somewhat slower than the number of students, resulting in the rise in the student/teacher ratio from 19.7 in 1963 to 27.9 in 1981. Of

more serious concern is the trend in the student/trained teacher ratio, which rose from 24.1 in 1964 to 54.0 in 1981. The percentage of untrained teachers almost doubled between 1964 and 1981, from 26 per cent to 48 per cent. (p. 37)

Within the first decade of Kenya's independence, education became completely desegregated and all schools operated under one national curriculum (Development Plan, 1984 - 1988). The educational system became centrally organised and coordinated. In this set-up curriculum policy is determined at the centre with peripheral levels of the educational system expected to perceive curricular changes and innovations through the trickling or filtering effect. This means that the individual schools do not decide, choose or determine their own curricula to follow, but rather they are bound to follow one curriculum prescribed for all schools in the republic by the central organs of the Ministry of Education.

The pattern of assessment in secondary schools since the colonial period has witnessed major transformations. It has evolved from a dependence upon Cambridge University in Britain, to a regional cooperative venture involving neighbouring Uganda and Tanzania, and finally to an independent and professional national body. At present, all secondary school external examinations are organised and certified by the Kenya National Examinations Council. However, one feature of the examination system that has not fundamentally changed is its summative

nature. Summative examinations are administered at the end of each cycle of secondary schooling. These examinations are used for certification purposes and are also considered a necessary yardstick in determining the number of students who either merit advancing to higher levels of the educational system or going into paid employment against the backdrop of increasing numbers combined with limited openings.

Since independence the goals of education have been consistently stated and re-stated in various reports of national commissions on education and development plans. In the current Development Plan (1984 - 1988),

Education continues to be a dominant sector in the economy . . . its objectives have been identified as the provision of equal educational opportunities for all, the enrichment of the heritage, the production of skilled manpower to meet the growing and changing demands of the economy. (p. 148)

To explicate this further, the government sees education as a vehicle for fostering national unity by designating some schools as national institutions which admit students from various ethnic groups. Education is also seen as a means of promoting respect for various indigenous cultures and developing the individual talents and abilities of learners.

Secondary schooling can be defined in relation to the Addis Ababa Conference of African States on the Development of

Education in 1961. This conference defined secondary education as

The level of education which 'with the variations required by particular circumstances, may consist of a further six years of school life in two stages.' The two stages envisioned are the lower and the higher stages of secondary education, about 12 - 15 and 16 - 18 years respectively, with slight variations. (Makulu, 1971, p. 63)

In Kenya, secondary schooling is a 4 - 2 year cycle. The first four years can be referred to as secondary schooling at ordinary level, and the next two years involve secondary schooling at the advanced level. However, mobility from the ordinary level to the advanced level is not always guaranteed for students; as with mobility into secondary school itself. There are tight bottlenecks for all students who seek to advance from one stage to the next. For instance, before the end of the eighth and last class of primary (elementary) schooling, candidates sit an external examination called the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE). This examination is used as a yardstick for selecting candidates who can then proceed to secondary school. And before the end of the fourth year of ordinary secondary schooling level students are again subjected to yet another external examination called the Kenya Certificate of Education (KCE). This examination is the basis for selecting the 'lucky' few who qualify for limited chances at the second cycle of advanced secondary schooling. Now at the end of this latter stage, students again take another external examination in

order to select those who can proceed to any of the Country's four public universities. This examination is known as the Kenya Advanced Certificate of Education (KACE).

The necessity of summative evaluation in the form of external examinations, in the Kenyan context, derives from a number of factors. Chief amongst them is the question of standards. It is the expectation of the government and of the Ministry of Education that access to the higher echelons of the educational system should be decided by academic merit, which is reflected in the high standards of the achievers, as measured by performance on examinations. This would make formal education in Kenya compare favourably with other countries in educational standards. Thus, external examinations are considered to play a useful role in selecting learners who have the ability to move from one cycle to the next.

Secondly, external examinations are determined to a large extent by the economics of supply and demand in education. This is not an issue that is peculiar to Kenya alone, but rather is characteristic of most Less Developed Countries (LDCs). The educational systems of most LDCs are pyramidal in nature. The widest opportunities for schooling are located at the base of the pyramid, which can be referred to as primary education. Mid-way through the pyramid occurs secondary education, and towards the narrower apex of the pyramid, post-secondary education and

training can be found. In the Kenyan case, primary education is free. Parents are not charged tuition or other fees to send their children to school. This concept of 'open doors' has meant that all those who desire formal schooling can get it. But, at the secondary school level, there are fewer opportunities and facilities to cater for all and sundry. Therefore, examinations are used as a mechanism or a sieve in order to ensure that the limited places are assigned to the most meritorious, who have distinguished themselves as the most academically talented by doing exceptionally well in examinations.

Thirdly, examinations serve the purpose of credentialism. Secondary school education in Kenya lays strong emphasis on tested and certified academic achievement as the criterion for advancement within the educational system. At the same time, all wage-earning jobs require minimum educational qualifications and certification for recruitment. And as the floodgates of demand for education and employment keep swelling, the government has imposed stringent conditions around external examinations and certification at every cycle of education. This has resulted in a lot of funds being expended to do research on how to make the examination machine more efficient. (Court, 1979)

Furthermore, educational opportunities tend to expand more rapidly than the job opportunities for school leavers. The net effect of this expansion is the devaluation of academic

qualifications received through schooling. There are cases where jobs which required secondary school qualifications now go only to those with university credentials. In addition the rapid growth of the population has also had the effect of raising selection levels for all cycles of the educational system. For instance, entry levels into primary schools with good facilities and personnel now require attendance and certification from pre-primary institutions. And those who wish to pursue secondary education, are required to have passed the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education examination with upper credit or distinction.

Therefore, in spite of disparities amongst schools, personnel and facilities, students are nonetheless subjected to the same type of external examinations. The attendant consequence here is that a majority of students are schooled to fail. And for the majority who end up failing examinations, school becomes a harrowing experience, because it spells doom for them socially and economically. Most employers would prefer to hire school leavers from high cost schools rather than from 'Harambee'* schools even if both had similar credentials. The probable explanation for this is that the qualifications of a school leaver from a Harambee institution are suspect in terms of authenticity.

* Kiswahili word for pulling together, denoting schools which were built through self-help effort through communal voluntary funds-drive.

Proponents of examinations insist that in the face of cut-throat-competition for fewer school opportunities and openings in the labour market, examinations are about the best yardstick for selecting of those who can make it through the system. In response, opponents of examinations argue that external examinations are not good predictors of performance on the job. They are also highly skeptical that secondary school examinations in Kenya are a fair predictor of performance in subsequent levels of the educational system. They insist that secondary school examinations only help to compound the existing inequalities by guaranteeing success to those from particular class backgrounds and regions. In this view examinations have a gate-keeping and recruiting function for a few who are filtered by the educational system in order to be assigned the limited occupational roles in society. Bowles and Gintis (1976) have commented on this form of credentialism:

Educational credentials enter here as well: employers find it desirable to vest hierarchical authority in well-educated workers, not because higher levels of schooling may enable an employee to better do the work at hand or because the more-educated seem more fit by their demeanor to hold authority, but also simply because educational achievement - as symbolized by one sort of sheepskin or another - legitimates authority according to prevailing social values. (p. 82)

It is difficult to deny that the external examinations at secondary school reinforce rather than alleviate the pre-existing inequalities of educational opportunity.

Generally, secondary schools in Kenya are classified (Cameron and Hurst, 1983) into categories ranging from A, B, C to D. This classification is an indication of the potential of the schools in the process of improvement. Roughly interpreted, 'A' schools have the best facilities and staff, and these features diminish in descending order so that 'D' schools have the poorest or no facilities at all. According to a Ministry of Education publication Curriculum Guide For Secondary Schools,

Before a school is graded it must be fully registered. Registration gives the school the legal basis for existence, while grading indicates its national standing. (p. 19)

Within this grading of schools into A, B, C and D categories, there are also three types of secondary schools which are inclusive of the four categories. Most Harambee schools fall in either category C or D. In other words secondary schools can be typified generally as falling under any of these three groups. These are: general secondary schools, technical secondary schools and special schools. According to the Ministry of Education publication Curriculum Guide for Secondary Schools, general secondary schools offer a non-specialized academic curriculum from form 1 to form 4 (an equivalent of Canadian grades 7 to 10), with the exception of Agriculture. As pupils work towards their Kenya Certificate of Education examinations, some subject choice may be introduced. This choice may be made in areas of business education, science subjects or arts

subjects. All in all, this flexibility or choice depends upon the availability of teachers, facilities and the prevailing local conditions.

Technical schools offer academic as well as technical subjects. In some technical schools, students spent 45 per cent of the time on technical subjects, while in others 25 per cent of the time is spent on technical subjects, with the remainder of the time in both cases being spent on selected academic subjects. The third type are referred to as vocational schools. These schools are relatively few. They offer special courses in vocational skills and mainly cater for blind and deaf learners.

However, since the inception of the 8-4-4 system of formal education, the structure described above has, to a great extent been overtaken by events. The academic curriculum in secondary schools has been radically changed. The technical schools for instance, have been transformed into colleges which offer post-secondary training in a variety of technical and professional courses. And the curriculum for all secondary schools has been integrated and standardized. The main thrust behind these changes is to produce students who have practical skills that can make them self-reliant in matters of employment. It is hoped this will help to curb the trend whereby school-leavers have been flocking to urban centres in search of white collar jobs. The government's view as expressed in the current Development Plan

(1984 - 1988) is that

The existing 15 government technical schools offer a curriculum which has nearly 60 per cent academic content. They therefore need to be restructured so as to produce graduates with marketable skills and/or prepare them for further skill training in higher institutions of technical training. Enrolments are projected to rise from 8,800 in 1983 to 10,200 in 1988 with classes increasing from 236 to 273. (p. 151)

As a result it was decided that

In a move to maximize the social benefit from the use of expensive resources, a phased programme will be introduced to convert existing technical schools into post-secondary technical training institutes to meet the national requirements of middle-level manpower. (p. 150)

2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION IN THE POST-INDEPENDENCE ERA

This section explores the developments in secondary school education which also impinged upon curriculum policy since 1963 to the present. In particular four factors are identified and discussed. Firstly, the forces which inspired the development and expansion of secondary education are discussed. This is followed by a description of the expansion of secondary and teacher education in Kenya. Thirdly, the key agencies which were involved in curriculum change or revision are identified and discussed. Lastly this section examines the constraints and

limitations of curriculum policy in Kenya.

As has been discussed elsewhere in this thesis, secondary education for Africans during the colonial period was restricted. The dawn of independence brought with it calls for the expansion of educational facilities and opportunities. Of major importance at independence was also the racial desegregation of the former 'European only' schools and the provision of a standard curriculum for secondary education, so that learners would be exposed to a uniform content of education and also uniform assessment.

However, not all these post-independence aspirations for secondary education were met. Nevertheless, the major success of secondary education during this era was the quantitative expansion of opportunities and facilities. In an attempt to discuss the salient characteristics of secondary schooling that informed the process of curriculum continuity, change or revision; four factors will be surveyed. These factors played and still continue to play an important role in matters of general curriculum policy in secondary school education.

The first factor concerns the inspirational forces that have given impetus to the expansion of secondary schooling in Kenya since independence. One main source of inspiration for the expansion of secondary education in Kenya, as in other African

countries, was the result of the Addis Ababa Conference of African states in 1961. This conference was a milestone in the development of African secondary education. The conference not only defined secondary education, but also urged African countries to adapt what was largely a western education to the African environment and to national socio-economic and cultural conditions. The commitment of most African countries to the ideals expressed by the conference about education was bolstered by the forces of African nationalism and political self-determination, stimulated by the realization that a majority of countries had acquired political independence. For instance, the conference declared that

As the present content of education in Africa is not in line with either existing African conditions, the postulate of political independence, the dominant features of an essentially technological age, or the imperatives of balanced economic development involving rapid industrialisation, but is based on a non-African background, allowing no room for the African child's intelligence, powers of observation and creative imagination to develop freely and help him to find his bearings in the world. African educational authorities should revise and reform the content of education in the areas of curricula, textbooks and methods so as to take account of the African environment, child development, cultural heritage and the demands of technological progress and economic development, especially industrialisation. (UNESCO, 1961, p. 23)

In short, the educational systems that had been bequeathed to African states after the demise of colonialism were not relevant to the African polities. But this notion of relevance

did not go beyond this mooted stage, for no African country has explicated in simplistic terms how relevance can be achieved by adapting education to uniquely African conditions.

In an attempt to discuss relevance in the context of adapting western education to African situations, Yolo (1986) identified and elaborated upon three criteria. These criteria relate to both learners and African societies vis-a-vis the African environment and the African cultural heritage. Therefore African needs, characteristics and resources are considered to be the criteria or screens through which the relevance of education can be assessed. For instance, the needs of an African environment, would include such concerns as national identity, national unity, language policy and equal opportunities for the citizenry in education. Conversely, needs related to an African cultural heritage comprise such goals as the identification and preservation of desirable African values, integration and development. As for the means of pedagogy which should be adopted in line with the above criteria, Yoyole (1986) postulates that

Relevance in curricula, textbooks and methods of education must, therefore have a now component as well as a hereafter component. It calls for flexibility, adaptability and cummulativeness in the content of education.
(p. 152)

For a summary of the criteria for relevance, see the table 1 below.

Framework for Evaluating Relevance in the Content of Education
Table 1.

Major Elements in Relevance	Criteria of Relevance		Content Media		
	Relevance	Educational Processes	Curriculum	Textbook	Methods
African Environment	Needs National identity; national unity; ideology; language policy; equalization of opportunity	Learning for the environment	X	X	X
	Characteristics Demography; political structure; economy, social structure; culture	Learning about the environment	X	X	X
	Resources Manpower; material; financial; cultural	Learning from the environment	X	X	X
African Cultural Heritage	Needs Identification; preservation; integration; development	Learning for the culture	X	X	X
	Characteristics Traditional; transitional; modern	Learning about the culture	X	X	X
	Resources Knowledgeable manpower; folklore; history; music; dancing; crafts; medicine; agriculture	Learning from the culture	X	X	X

Source: Yoyole (1986)

Within the Kenyan situation the inspirational forces which have shaped educational policies are invariably the five year development plans and the Presidential Commissions on Education. These publications have unequivocally spelt out the goals of education and recommended most of the structural changes that

have taken place as the educational system evolved from 1963 to date. For instance the goals of education have been stated and re-stated (Ominde Commission, 1964; Ndegwa Commission, 1971 and Gachathi Commission, 1979) as follows:

- (1) To foster a sense of nationhood and promote national unity.
- (2) To serve the people of Kenya and the needs of Kenya without discrimination.
- (3) To be an instrument of the secular state, in which no religion is privileged, and to respect the religious convictions of all people.
- (4) To respect the cultural traditions of the people of Kenya, both as expressed in social institutions and relationships.
- (5) To restrain an excessively competitive spirit in the schools which is incompatible with our traditional beliefs. Every young person coming from our schools must be made to realise that he has a valuable part to play in the national life.
- (6) To ensure that education is regarded, used, as an instrument for the conscious change of attitudes and relationships, preparing children for those changes of outlook required by modern methods of productive organisation. At the same time

education must foster respect for human personality.

- (7) To serve the needs of national development.
- (8) To promote social equality and remove divisions of race and tribe and religion. To pay special attention to training in social obligations and responsibilities.
- (9) To ensure adaptability to change.

From these objectives of education and those already indicated elsewhere in this thesis as emanating from the current Development Plan (1984 - 1988), it is clear that the government lays strong emphasis on education as a triple agent of economic prosperity, social transformation and political unity. But the extent to which education has effected these changes may be a useful area for further research. However, Court (1979) cites comparative research which was carried out in Kenya and Tanzania which established that education tends to follow rather than determine social, economic and political structures. This actually means that whatever goes on in the schools is a reproduction or a mirror of the practices within the economy, the social fabric and the prevailing political ideology. Bowles and Gintis (1976) state categorically that no educational theory, however sophisticated, can overlook the fact that schools prepare learners for prevailing economic life in society. To quote these

authors:

By attuning young people to a set of social relationships similar to those of the work place, schooling attempts to gear the development of personal needs to its requirements. (p. 131)

Given this perspective, it would suffice to describe the expansion of secondary education and secondary teacher education as a second factor. Taken together, both the expansion of secondary school enrolment and teacher education have had ramifications which have had a bearing on curriculum policy. At independence in 1963, there were only 95 secondary schools as compared to 783 schools in 1970 and 1486 in 1977. Of these institutions, only 4 were secondary technical schools and 8 secondary vocational schools. According to Bessey (1972), up to 1970, total student enrolment in secondary schools stood at 126,855. Of these total, 74,561 were learning in government aided schools while the remainder were either in Harambee or private schools. At this point in time 37,528 places at secondary schools were taken by girls and the rest were boys. Table 2 below shows the statistics of both government aided and unaided schools.

The Number of Secondary Schools up to 1977

Table 2.

Year	Aided	Unaided	Total
1963	82	13	95
1964	154	90	244
1965	186	181	367
1966	199	266	465
1967	266	366	542
1968	232	369	601
1971	331	478	809
1973	380	522	902
1974	404	668	1072
1977	444	1042	1486

Source: Lillis (1983)

A remarkable feature of this quantitative expansion is that whereas there were only 12.4 percent of unaided schools in 1963, their numbers had grown so steadily that by 1977 a vast majority were government unaided schools. According to Nelson (1984),

Enrollment in secondary schools, including those devoted to teacher and vocational training, grew by nearly 130 percent between 1973 and 1980, an overall rate greater than the 116 percent growth of primary enrollment in the same interval. (p. 124)

Most government aided schools were single sex boarding schools. But unaided schools were varied. Whereas a majority were either Harambee or private schools, they fell in any of the following groups. They were either mixed (co-educational) day, or mixed boarding and day schools. Others were single sex boarding or single sex boarding and day schools. Most Harambee schools,

however were mainly mixed day schools.

One uncontrolled factor of the general expansion of secondary schools was the pivotal role that came to be performed by the Harambee movement in Kenyan secondary education. This movement is premised on the concept of communal funds-drives in order to build, staff and maintain schools where the government could not do so. Funds-drives are organised by powerful politicians on a routine basis whereby large sums of money is donated generously by the people. Some observers think that Harambee schools are the only hope for achieving not only equitable access to secondary school education, but also ensuring that education remains the only legitimate source of upward social mobility. However, opponents of Harambee see it as a misguided movement that is only serving to divert money from other worthy causes. They point out that Harambee schools with their poor facilities and inadequate personnel tend to accentuate rather than alleviate pre-existing inequalities in education.

Related to expansion in secondary school enrolment was the expansion of secondary teacher education over the years. A general problem that has plagued the educational system is the inadequate supply of professionally trained teachers. While most government aided schools use trained teachers, a majority of the unaided schools utilize untrained teachers and volunteers. According to Bray et al. (1986) in 1972, all teachers in high-

cost government aided schools were trained university graduates, while 68 percent of the teachers in unaided schools were non-university graduates. In the previous system of education most of what was taught in unaided schools, especially Harambee institutions, whether in the arts or science curriculum was determined to a large extent by whether teachers could teach particular subjects.

Generally, the morale of teachers in Harambee schools is low and they frequently quit because of low pay or sometimes prolonged periods of non-payment. It has not been uncommon for students to stay in school for days without learning a particular subject before the management could hire another teacher. Generally, these schools have produced a pool of school-leavers who become economically disadvantaged because of correspondingly high drop-out rates and examination failure. By implication, since the students had not acquired any particular skills, they have only to join the mainstream of the jobless in society. It can therefore be hypothesized that a majority of these school-leavers and drop-outs are exploited for cheap non-skilled labour to continue their alienation which had its roots in the educational system. In elucidating this fact, Bowles and Gintis (1975), observe that

Alienated labour is reflected in the student's lack of control over his or her education, the alienation of the student from the curriculum content, and the motivation of school work through a system of grades and other external rewards rather than the

student's integration with either the process (learning) or the outcome (knowledge) of the educational 'production' process. (p. 131)

This description of the nature of schools is also related to the development and expansion of teacher training.

At present there are several secondary teacher training institutions. Table 3 below shows the expansion of these institutions since independence. In addition to those institutions shown in the table, four primary teacher training institutions were upgraded with the inception of the 8-4-4 system of education to train arts-oriented teachers at diploma level in education. These institutions are Siriba Teachers' College, Moi Teachers' College, Kagumo Teachers' College and Kisii Teachers' College.

Table 3.

Evolution of Secondary Teacher Education

Makerere College B.Ed. Programme (1963);
 Kenyatta College S1 Programme and Graduate Programme (1966),
 University of Nairobi Graduate Programme (1966);
 Kenya Science Teachers' College S1 Programme (1967);
 Egerton College S1 Programme (1969),
 Graduate Programme (1987)
 Kenya Polytechnic (1969)
 Kenya Technical Teachers' College (1979).

Adapted from: Lillis (1983)

In addition to the above institutions, the other source of secondary school teachers were Christian Missions. These missions supplied teachers especially to schools under their sponsorship from their congregations.

The third factor constitutes agencies of curriculum change or revision in Secondary School Education. Since the colonial period up to 1968, the main agency of secondary school curriculum and assessment needs was the Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate of the United Kingdom. The content and assumptions about knowledge which informed the secondary school curriculum during these formative years were based on English traditions. What was at play, according to Lillis (1985), was the assumption that blocks of knowledge could be channelled from the Metropolis to the former colony. This is exemplified in massive packages of curriculum materials that were fashioned for Kenyan schools in Mathematics and Science. The assumption was that Kenyan institutions and teachers had the capacity to adapt to, and utilize such curricula materials.

Although the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) was established in 1964, it never became effective as an agent of curriculum development until the early 1970s. Until then, its role had been subsumed by the Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate and, it was permeated and controlled by British

expatriates and value-systems. Apart from KIE, the other notable agency of curriculum development at secondary school level was the East African Examinations Council (EAEC) which was established in 1968. But long after Cambridge was no longer directly involved in the operations of KIE and EAEC, the British values still thrived because the African personnel who took over were still imbued with the same values and there was still a strong workforce of expatriate teachers in high-cost schools who remained opinion-leaders on curriculum trends in the country. To a certain extent the Ministry of Education's inspectorate division and some teacher training colleges also played both a pivotal and collaborative role in curriculum matters.

However after the demise of EAEC, Kenya formed its own professional body, the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC) to take charge of all secondary school assessment and certification needs. KNEC prepares specific subject syllabuses and sets, administers and marks all external examinations both at primary and secondary school level. At this juncture some mention again should be made of the Cardinal role of KIE in curriculum development. The main responsibility of KIE is the general development of new curricula and instructional materials. In order to accomplish this mammoth task, the KIE utilizes members of the inspectorate and teacher members of subject panels (Bessey, 1972). According to Oluoch (1979), a former director of KIE, subject panels

are made up of persons who are interested in the development of their subjects or curriculum areas. These subject panels are usually chaired by subject inspectors in the Ministry of Education inspectorate. (p. 35)

But due to the expanding role of KIE, there are now two types of panels: the course panels, and specific research and evaluation panels. While the former deals with academic and professional curricular affairs, the latter handles and reviews the basic needs for research with a view to initiating and guiding education projects (Oluoch, 1979). When KIE was established in April 1964, its functions were outlined (Bessey, 1972) as:

- (i) To administer a scheme of examinations on behalf of the Ministry of Education and to make recommendations for the award of the teachers' certificates.
- (ii) To be a centre of professional activity for teachers, officers of the government and others engaged in educational work.
- (iii) To promote and cooperate in the provision of conferences and in-service courses for teachers and others engaged in or intending to engage in educational work.

- (iv) To arrange for lectures and course of lectures or demonstrations and the like for member institutions and for interchange of teachers between member institutions.
- (v) To promote educational research and secure due publication of the results and to foster improvements in educational practice.
- (vi) To provide advisory services to the government and other organisations as requested from time to time by the Minister for Education.

In 1968, through government legislation in the national assembly, an education act gave the KIE new legal status. The new functions of KIE involved the take-over of the curriculum development and research centre. Then the re-organisation that followed created four key departments. These departments (Bessey, 1972) were:

- (a) Curriculum development with seven sections.
- (b) Educational research with four sections.
- (c) In-service education and professional development with

four sections.

- (d) General services including pre-service education with five sections.

The last factor comprises the constraints to curriculum change and revision. In Kenya curriculum changes arise from a combination various factors and interest groups. Bessey (1972) describes some of these as community pressure, teacher attitudes and government initiatives. Such pressures are, however, not often evenly spread out, but vary from one region to another. More often than not, whenever a new curriculum is introduced in the school system, programmes of experimentation and evaluation are carried out only in some selected high-cost schools. Such institutions are former 'whites' schools like the former Prince of Wales (now Nairobi School), the former Duke of York (now Lenana School) and the Alliance High School. These are institutions that were characterised by celebrated English values diffused through the equivalency model (Lillis, 1983) and replicated closely upon the English public school system. Even after independence these institutions, maintained, fostered and cherished these traditions in spite of having been racially desegregated.

Teachers in other schools are hardly made aware of such pilot schemes, neither are they consulted, and by implication,

when they are required to adopt new curricula, they are not offered ample time to make their views, comments and feedback known. As a result, curriculum changes are perceived as having been externally imposed, as opposed to evolving genuinely within the dictates of the educational system.

Secondary school curriculum has certain discernible weaknesses which can be criticized. In fact some of these weaknesses constitute the agenda for the change from the previous system to the 8-4-4 system of education. In the old system, the methodological thrust was operant learning verging on the cram-system where students and teachers alike are involved in inculcating a wide range of textbook facts and reproducing them. This approach is occasioned by competitive external examinations which have been, and still are, a distinct feature of upward educational mobility.

The necessity and pressure of examinations meant that viable practical and manual skills that were needed for the country's predominantly informal sector (rural farm and non-farm activities) were generally neglected. Emphasis was instead placed upon a preparation for white-collar jobs in the cities. Parents and pupils increasingly came to look upon formal schooling as a means towards this end. In the current development plan (1984 - 1988) for instance, it is stated that

The attitudes of both parents and students to formal education as a route to modern sector

employment need to be changed since many school-leavers will be forced to look for employment in the informal sector, non-urban activities, especially small-scale agriculture and rural non-farm activities. (p. 149)

Inequality is yet another problem that militates against the adoption and diffusion of new curricula in secondary education. This problem is manifested in various forms. For instance, there are unequal proportions of qualified teachers within institutions, regions and provinces. Many students especially in rural areas without good social amenities and infrastructure are taught by unqualified or underqualified teachers. Connected with these manpower problems are also problems of physical facilities and educational facilities. Shortages of instructional materials abound in most institutions, and therefore there is an unequal access and the actual exposure to, formal schooling which cuts across region and class structures of society.

Furthermore, there are bureaucratic and ideological limitations that can also explain the ineffectiveness of curriculum change. Within the central organs of the curriculum policy machine, change or revision of curriculum is either poorly conceived of, or, because of conservative elements, change is never attempted and carried out systematically. Two curriculum projects which were problematic, the Mathematics project and the Literature in English project, serve as examples of this.

The School Mathematics Project (SMP) was developed in the United Kingdom and then introduced through expatriate teachers into secondary schools in 1963. It was later to be adopted by KIE between 1968 and 1970 and recommended for use in schools as the School Mathematics Project of East Africa (SMPEA). The project was mainly materials-based. Curriculum packages were made available for secondary school teachers, but there was insufficient in-servicing of teachers prior to the adoption phase. In addition the content and concepts of the subject had not been mastered by the teachers so that they were unable to effectively implement it. Furthermore, teachers found the heuristic methodology recommended for SMPEA cumbersome and unsuited to the assessment needs of students. The heuristic approach by this time was a popular teaching model in the United Kingdom, but with the Kenyan emphasis on external examinations, the method was found inappropriate both by teachers and students. The programme largely failed and was discontinued in 1980 because its assumptions about what constituted valid knowledge for Kenyan students with regard to milieu, its transmission and assessment were found wanting.

Between 1974 and 1976 there was also an attempt to Africanize the English literature syllabus which was being offered for instruction and assessment at secondary school level. The thrust of the Africanization crusade came from the University of Nairobi's Literature department. The argument was that the

content of the curriculum was too Eurocentric and that it needed an infusion of African literature, with a component of African oral literature. For some time it looked as if these changes in literature would be adopted, but no attempt whatsoever was made in that direction. The proposals were rejected outright by both EAEC and the government.

The reasons given for the rejection (Lillis, 1985) were, firstly, that the curriculum which had been designed in the change proposal was poorly done and the component of oral literature which had been included was "of dubious value". Secondly, it was claimed that the changes which had been suggested were "radical" and inconsistent with the contemporary ideology and status quo. According to Lillis (1985), the proposed literature curriculum failed largely because it

had a critical African dimension, but lacked a substantial audience beyond the initial protagonists at the University of Nairobi and their reference groups. Indeed, they themselves challenged the equivalency standard but failed to shift the values and assumptions on which it was built. (p. 88)

In sum, both the mathematics and literature programmes failed due to bureaucratic and ideological problems. The mathematics project was adopted and diffused in schools, but its assumptions, values and orientation were not attuned to the Kenyan milieu involving preparation of teachers and shifting the balance of assessment. But in contrast, the literature

curriculum was never implemented (it never took off) because it was seen by conservative educational planners as a challenge to their cosmopolitan values and traditions as well as a threat to the status quo. Lillis (1983) observes that

Many African decision-makers of the immediate pre- and post-independence era, emerged from the equivalency schools, especially Alliance High School ('the African elite'). As a result, many of them perceived knowledge, the transmission of knowledge and the educational system itself as non-problematic, accepting that what was good for UK was good for Kenya; accepting, in addition to the instrumental value of the European curriculum, its supposed intrinsic worth. (p. 234)

Unlike S.M.P.E.A. mathematics (an external innovation) and Literature in English (an attempted internal transformation), S.E.E. was introduced into the secondary school curriculum by the central organs of the Ministry of Education. S.E.E. was a brainchild of the government. Therefore, the decision to introduce it as a completely new addition into the schools was very much political as it was also educational. However, one common feature shared by all the three subjects is that they were all adapted (or sought to be adapted - in the case of Literature in English) to an educational system which is basically the same, save for the modifications that may be introduced by the debut of the 8-4-4 Programme.

2.3 SUBJECT CONTEXT

LAUNCHING

Social Education and Ethics (S. E. E.) was launched in the Secondary School curriculum in July, 1985. This coincided with the start of a restructuring of the educational system from primary school to higher education. Previously, the educational system reflected a 7-6-3 cycle. This meant seven years of primary schooling, six years secondary, and three years University education (for most basic degree courses). The rationale for introducing S. E. E. in secondary schools was to equip learners with necessary social skills and instil in them a sense of the community and the wider society in which they would operate upon leaving school. The introduction of Social Education and Ethics was also ascribed to the necessity for youth to become responsible and patriotic citizens who would have regard for other peoples' welfare. To a certain extent S.E.E. was regarded as a subject that would address the deteriorating problem of discipline in the schools. Cases of indiscipline involving student strikes and wanton destruction of school property (The Weekly Review, Jan. 10th, 1986) had been on the increase. Seen from this perspective, Social Education and Ethics would thus be used to inculcate in students social awareness of the roles that each and every individual had to play as a contribution towards the overall betterment of society. Furthermore, through S.E.E. students would be enabled to

understand how their own physical developmental patterns unfold and relate to each other more freely and meaningfully. As an indication of the content that S.E.E. covers, some of the topics are as follows:

- * The Family
- * Human virtues
- * Family needs and management
- * Physical and psychological development of a person
- * Personal health
- * The School
- * Human dignity
- * Leisure
- * Drug use and Abuse
- * Ethnic traditions
- * Religious Ethics
- * Courtship and Marriage
- * Marital relationships
- * Population and environmental education

As a detailed example of content, the following topics and units are taught in the form one (equivalent of Canadian grade 7) S.E.E. course (Njorge and Bennaars, 1986).

- (i) The family.
 - Home in the family.
 - The family as a group.
 - The family as an institution.

- Change and continuity in the family.
- Conflict and harmony in the family.
- (ii) Virtues and the family.
 - The family and Social Education.
 - Human virtues.
 - Parental and filial love.
 - Fraternal love.
 - Virtues related to love.
 - Virtues of obedience.
- (iii) Growth and development.
 - Childhood.
 - Adolescence.
 - In search of identity.
 - Adulthood.
 - Old age.
 - Learning by experience.
- (iv) Personal health.
 - Personal health.
 - Social health.
 - Physical health.
 - Mental and social health.
 - Keeping our community healthy.
 - Keeping our environment clean.
 - Virtues and personal health.
- (v) Family needs and resource management.
 - The family and the school.

- Basic needs and the family.
- Basic needs and growth needs.
- Family needs and management.
- Needs of special persons in the family.
- Members and family needs.
- Work and family needs.

(vi) The school.

- The school as an institution.
- The school as a place of learning.
- The school as a community.
- Traditions of the school.
- Functions of the school.
- Environment of the school.
- School problems.
- School virtues.

When Social Education and Ethics was introduced into the secondary school system, the first time ever, that such a subject was to be taught, not much groundwork was done in preparation for its launching. For instance, teachers had never taken a formal course related to the subject, nor were they pre-serviced in order to teach S.E.E. Consequently no in-service courses were conducted for would-be teachers of the subject. Certainly, some short, two-week induction courses were conducted throughout the country which were attended by at least one teacher from each school, but there was no follow-up in the form of comprehensive

At the level of the school, it was up to the head to designate one member of staff to teach S.E.E. More often than not the teachers were chosen to teach S.E.E. regardless of their motivation, interest and academic background. Two eminent teachers at Kenyatta University who drafted the first S. E. E. syllabus, later wrote that

Not only is this particular syllabus new to pupils, it is also new to the teachers and the schools. But, although new as a subject in the schools, the content prescribed by the syllabus is not new at all; most of it is in fact very old, going back to traditional times (Njoroge and Bennaars, 1986, Preface).

The rationale for the introduction of the 8-4-4 system of education was to equip the learners with necessary and useful practical and social skills. Implied here is that these skills were not properly catered for in the previous system of education. It was expected by the government that within the 8-4-4 system of education, students leaving at the end of each cycle would be self-reliant and sufficiently prepared to work effectively within the informal sector even if they failed to get gainful employment in the formal sector. It is accordingly declared in the current Development Plan (1984 - 1988) that

To ensure that the momentum of educational growth continues during the plan period without sacrificing quality or relevance the following strategies will be used

(i) A full 8 year basic education programme will be established commencing 1985, as the first phase in the 8-4-4 system of formal education.

(ii) Curriculum development will be used to influence those changes needed to make education more relevant to the needs of the majority of school-leavers.

(iii) Because the cost of these ambitious programmes, particularly the 8-4-4 programme and the on-going school milk programme, will strain the available financial resources, ways and means will be found for passing on a larger share of the cost of post-primary education and training through 'cost-sharing' schemes to those who benefit from them and seeking the support of local communities.
(p. 150)

The Weekly Review (January 10th, 1986) quotes the former director of higher education, Peter Kinyanjui, at the time of inception of the 8-4-4 programme as saying that the philosophy behind the 8-4-4 system of education is to develop in learners a sense of "self-reliance, training and further education." Accordingly, the curriculum was to be geared towards the promotion in learners of "firm foundations for the development of discipline, integrity, adaptability, cooperation and patriotism."
(p. 3)

A number of changes were introduced with the inception of this new system of formal education. Whereas the students in the old system were taking an average of 6 to 8 subjects for their Kenya Certificate of Education examinations, in the 8-4-4 system students are required to study 13 subjects. Out of these at least 11 are compulsory for the new Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education examinations beginning in 1989. These

compulsory subjects include English language, Lugha ya Kiswahili, Mathematics, Biological Sciences, Physical Sciences, History and Government. However, S.E.E. is not compulsory in this sense, but optional to either Christian Religious Education (C.R.E.) or Islamic Religious Education (I.R.E.). Therefore, the decision to enter candidates for either S.E.E., C.R.E. or I.R.E. for external examinations of the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Examination (K.C.S.E.) rests squarely with each individual school as it deems it necessary and exercises its discretion on behalf of students.

Many of the subjects have been standardized and integrated in the 8-4-4 system, although they were not in the previous system. For instance, students cannot make a choice for examination purposes in science subjects and mathematics. In addition subjects like physics and chemistry have been integrated to form physical sciences. And there is just one variety of mathematics in all schools instead of varieties of mathematics that schools could offer in the previous system such as Mathematics Alternative S and Alternative B. All schools are required to take physical and biological sciences regardless of whether they have teachers and facilities like laboratories or not. In the Arts section, English and Literature in English have been integrated to form English language, while Kiswahili and Fasihi ya Kiswahili have also been merged to form Lugha ya Kiswahili.

DEFINITION, GOALS AND APPROACH OF S. E. E.

What is implied in S. E. E. is actually the teaching of social life education and social ethics. These two together are considered under the umbrella term of S. E. E. The substance or content of the course is drawn mainly from the context of Kenyan institutional life, but nevertheless having aspects which can be generalised to a wider social context beyond the Kenyan setting. In this course, therefore, social education would refer to the induction of the learners into an understanding of their own lives and those of others in the community. According to Njoroge and Bennaars (1986), this entails "helping the youth to grow up, not just physically, but also mentally, socially and emotionally." (p. 190) In addition, social ethics deals with people's conduct in society. To quote Njoroge and Bennaars (1986) again, social ethics involves "studying what kind of rules and laws people have to guide them in living together and what they consider to be important for life in society (p. 21)". Pertinent here are the values of people in various institutions including the school and the family.

The type of approaches adopted for teaching this course are varied, but mainly depend upon individual teachers, so that no emphasis is laid on any single approach or technique. The course syllabus, however, indicates that through explanation and appreciation, the course should equip learners with social skills

to enable them to function effectively within the social fabric. In a nutshell, the following are some of the goals of S. E. E. (Njoroge and Bennaars, 1986):

- (a) Students should understand and appreciate themselves as being members of the family, school and the larger community.
- (b) Students should recognise and comprehend change and continuity, as well as conflict and harmony in the family and society.
- (c) The course ought to enable learners to become aware of human virtues related to the family, and appertaining to love, obedience, needs and resource management.
- (d) S.E.E. would enable students to realize their own growth from childhood through adolescence, and to identify their responsibilities as adults to the aged.
- (e) The course would enable students to understand and appreciate their own personal, social, physical, and community health; as well as the fact that environmental health is a necessity, and therefore, it requires a collective effort.

For fuller details concerning the aims of S.E.E. and its content for K.C.S.E. examinations, see Appendix B.

The approach of S.E.E. would fit into the citizenship tradition (Barth & Shermis, 1970) and the knowledge of the past

as a guide to good citizenship (Brubaker et al, 1977) frameworks for conceptualizing social studies programmes in North America. Barth & Shermis (1970) argue that according to the citizenship transmission framework, the content of what is taught is presumed to be known and self-evident. Learners are expected to internalise "values which reflect the accepted behavior of the community that the school services." (p. 83) Implied here is the inculcation of values such as obedience and good conduct as a basis for creating a law-abiding citizenry out of the young generation, who are presumed to be vessel-like receptors in the learning process.

Brubaker et al. (1977), expand upon the three traditions propounded by Barth & Shermis (1970) and identified five frameworks. Of these frameworks, knowledge of the past as guide to good citizenship, which is heavily laden with moral prescriptions relates more to S.E.E. than the others. For instance, the learners are exposed to factual knowledge about societal norms and values in a manner that gives an impression that there is general consensus on the usefulness or authenticity of such norms and values. This means there is an absence of critical inquiry by both teachers and students. Instead, authority derives from the subject matter itself, which is treated as being sacrosanct. Evaluation in this case rests on the assumption that all ends are amenable to measurement. Learners are expected to reproduce the facts that they are taught

concerning cultural values, and the expectation is that they eventually grow into being good citizens.

CHAPTER 3 - THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

AND THE THEORETICAL ROLE OF THE TEACHER

The nerve centre of any educational system is the curriculum. In a broad sense curriculum can be seen as a continuum. At one extreme, it relates to matters of educational policy. At this point policy decisions are taken that are supposed to permeate the rest of the continuum. For instance, decisions about the nature of knowledge and the conceptual orientations for imparting such knowledge are taken. What would follow is the systematic process of curriculum development. This is the stage of formulating procedural guidelines and support materials. The next stage can be referred to as a pilot-testing or verification. Here the concern is to ascertain the practical viability of the theoretical design. The stage which follows and which is crucial in any curriculum design is the implementation or adaption of a curriculum for use in an educational setting. Evaluation is the last stage of the design process. It is concerned with ascertaining whether the implementation took place and if the desired goals of the curriculum are being attained. This last stage is not necessarily the end-point of curriculum design, but rather informs the other preceding stages of the necessary alterations or adjustments to be made. It means that for a curriculum to be successfully constructed, adopted and utilized in accordance with its initial goals, evaluation should

be a continuous process.

The concept of implementation in curriculum theory, like curriculum itself, can be seen from a variety of perspectives. But what determines the perspective from which one may view implementation depends upon one's concept of, and assumptions about knowledge as well as the ontological presuppositions held about learners and learning. In the context of this study implementation refers to the translation of curriculum guidelines or theoretical proposals into workable realities in the classroom. Michael Fullan in The Meaning of Education Change has given one of the most comprehensive definitions of implementation. He writes that implementation

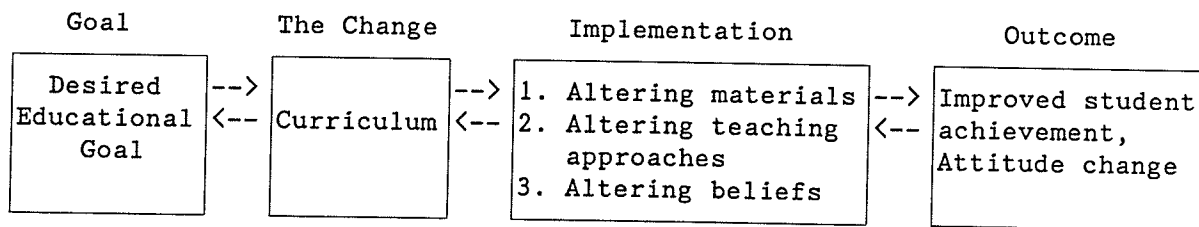
Consists of the process of putting into practice an idea, program, or set of activities new to the people attempting or expected to change. The change may be externally imposed or voluntarily sought; explicitly defined in detail in advance or developed and adapted incrementally through use; designed to be used uniformly or deliberately planned so that users can make modifications according to their perceptions of the needs of the situation. (p. 54)

Implementation as an aspect of curriculum design and development depends solely on what people do and what they fail to do (Fullan and Park, 1981). These people could be the schools' boards of governors, headmasters and headmistresses, classroom teachers, students and parents. What these, and other people are supposed to do in the context of implementation is to

adapt a change or revision in previous practices in order to attain or move in the direction of outcomes intended by the curriculum goal(s).

Implementation, however, is not a single-faceted occurrence. It is a multidimensional process. According to Fullan and Park (1981), three fundamental dimensions of curriculum implementation that underlie change or revision are teaching approaches, beliefs or philosophical assumptions and materials. The diagrammatic representation of the change or revision process is summarized in figure 1 below.

Figure 1



Source: Fullan and Park (1981).

Figure 1 represents a non-linear process of implementation. Each stage from goal to outcome is interdependent upon the other stages so there is continuous adjustment and revision until the desired educational outcome which is commensurate with the initial goal is achieved.

However, certain key factors or elements impinge upon the process of curriculum implementation. Fullan (1982) identifies four major elements. First is the curriculum itself. There are

four ways in which the curriculum itself can facilitate or impede implementation. These are its clarity, priority, complexity and practicality (Fullan, 1982). Clarity refers to the precision and understandability of the curriculum to those who must implement it. Priority is the perceived need. For instance, if the curriculum is perceived as embodying the emerging needs of learners, teachers, or the community then chances are that it is likely to be implemented. Complexity on the other hand refers to the demands that a curriculum may have upon users. If its use requires major changes in the practices of users, then it stands little chance of being implemented. Finally practicality is the actual utility that a curriculum may be perceived to have.

The second element of implementation is organisation. Organisation is characterised by adaptation to various conditions at the school level. These conditions which may vary from one school to another and are dependent upon variables like the experiences of previous changes, the nature of professional development of administrators and teachers, and the necessary support from other school-based factors. Above all the dictates of organisation require that good channels of communication exist between those who develop and those who receive and translate the new curriculum.

Thirdly, the base level relations at the school are important. These relations can be viewed along three axes. The

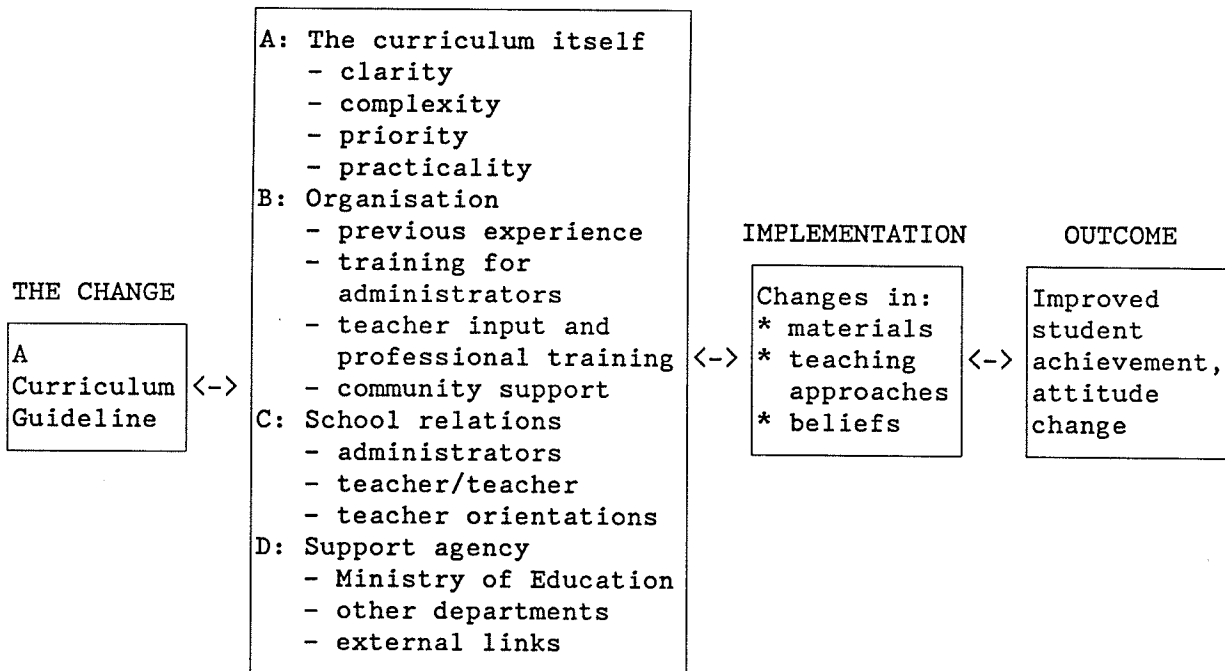
first axis consists of school administrators. The second is made up of peer relationships amongst teachers; and the third can be considered as teacher orientations. All the three axes ought to function in a collegial and interdependent relationship. Such a relationship underlines the notion of mutual support and resourcefulness.

The fourth major element in the implementation process is the role of support agencies external to the school. Examples of such agencies are school divisions, departments, and the Ministry of Education, which are involved in supervisory matters of the school and general curricular affairs. It is important to note that one overriding factor within all these fundamental elements of curriculum implementation is the significance of meaningful communication and feedback channels.

Figure 2, below summarises the main elements of curriculum in the implementation process.

Figure 2

Factors Affecting Implementation



Adapted from: Fullan and Park (1981).

This examination of the elements of the implementation process leads us to consider the functions of the classroom teacher. The teachers' role has often been obscured or sidelined, especially with reference to educational change and improvement, leading to addressing wrong issues in educational policy. According to Connelly (1972), one major factor for curriculum failure is the lack of regard for teachers as arbitrators between the demands of curriculum materials and instructional situations.

In situations where teachers grapple to implement curricula handed down to them by developers, there are rarely any meaningful support structures. It is as if teachers are expected to behave like automatons, whereby they receive curriculum packages and are expected to translate the curriculum into classroom practice without a hitch. Unruh and Unruh (1984) assert that

The initial curriculum reforms of the 1950's and 1960's failed to a large extent because teachers were not involved in developing the innovations and did not have the sufficient support and leadership from supervisors and administrators. (p. 86)

Most curriculum theorists (Berman and McLaughlin, 1976; Common, 1980; and Darr, 1985), concur that the classroom teacher has unique functions and characteristics which cannot be taken for granted in the implementation stage of the curriculum. Klein (1983) asserts that

First, we know that the teacher cannot be bypassed in effective curriculum change. The teacher must have an important and active role in curriculum development if a curriculum is to accomplish all that is hoped for it. (p. 198)

There are three functions that a teacher has to fulfil in implementation. First, the teacher has to plan for the use of the new curriculum in his/her own instructional situations. This planning aspect is important because it involves envisioning

possible bottlenecks in the process of using a new curriculum. The second function is putting the curriculum to use with the adept use of correctional measures to suit the instructional situation. At this stage actual implementation is carried out following closely on systematic planning. Lastly, a presumed end-point of the whole process, but which ought to be continuous, is teacher evaluation. This involves self-monitoring to ascertain the degree of success of the implementation process within the classroom with whatever modifications to the initial planning stage. What these functional roles tell us is that the teacher ought to have both conceptual and practical skills in order to implement a curriculum with any degree of success.

Aspects of teacher functions with respect to curriculum implementation have a direct bearing on this study. Assuming that S. E. E. teachers have successfully implemented the new curriculum is not enough. Rather, one needs to understand and establish to what extent and with what difficulties, the curriculum has been implemented. One avenue for getting to grips with this problem is, therefore, to investigate teachers' perceptions about the goals, organisation and instructional materials of the new curriculum which they were expected to implement.

CHAPTER 4 - LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review contained in this chapter examines previous research findings of studies from the West, notably the United States, Canada and Australia, as well as studies emanating from Africa in general and Kenya in particular. These studies will relate to the following variables: in-service teacher preparation, implementation and instructional planning, instructional materials, curriculum goals and school-based curriculum development. Each of these topics (in part or as a whole) relates to the research questions of this study, and an effort will be made to show how the research findings under review relate to questions being addressed by the study.

4.1 IN-SERVICE PREPARATION

Changes in curricula which are initiated by external agencies (the Ministry of Education, the government etc.) require considerable preparation and coordination through elaborate in-service programmes. Uncoordinated and underresourced in-service programmes are not only likely to fail, but are also bound to affect teacher morale. Diagnosis of low esteem for in-service programmes by Lippitt and Fox (1971) revealed that teachers considered many of the experiences at such programmes as not having been relevant to their needs. In this study most teachers felt that the in-service programme activities were impractical. Subsequently, those teachers who attempted to initiate change as a result of their participation in the programme activities

experienced either frustration or lack of support at the moment of critical need, especially when the changes were first being tried out. In situations where the efforts at change by teachers did not result in success, they either gave up or just accepted a change that had little significance. Therefore successful implementation of externally sponsored change requires continued in-service programmes over a period of years (Stallings, 1979 and Emrick, 1980).

In-service programmes which offer practical skill-specific training only as a beginning have minimal impact unless this training is further supplemented by staff support for the application and adaptation of innovation to individual contexts (Joyce, 1980). According to McLaughlin and Marsh (1978), teachers need to develop personal understanding of the mainstream ideas with practical learning on the job. They argue that this learning could be fostered by packaged materials and tutoring from curriculum experts, plus a continuing discussion as problems emerge and personal thinking develops.

Studies by Mallan, 1978; Elliot, 1980; and Tikunoff et al, 1980 found that the practical knowledge of teachers about education can be shared or extended through their significant involvement in action research and in-service programmes as a form of professional development and a means of improving teacher efficacy in curricular innovation situations. And in a survey of

in-service programmes in the United States, Howey and Joyce (1978) established that teachers viewed fellow teachers and other school related personnel as more appropriate instructors in in-service activities which focused on job-specific and related training. In a related study Drummond and Lawrence (1978) found that most in-service programmes were perceived by teachers to be problematic because they were organised by people who had escaped from the classroom, but still seemed to claim that they knew more about teachers' students and situations than do the teachers themselves.

In a survey of teachers at elementary, junior high and senior high schools in the United States, Goodlad (1984) identified, amongst other things, that teachers regarded lack of interest on the part of the administration and inadequate resources as the most difficult problems beyond their control. Teachers perceptions about their own preparation were found to be inadequate. Goodlad (1984) says that

Teachers' perceptions of their preparation square with an estimate of what teachers need to know about a subject, a hypothetical conclusion is that shortcomings lie more in pedagogy than in academic background. However, only some aspects of pedagogy are relatively universal; others reside in the characteristics of the subject to be taught. It may be, then, that a gap exists in teacher preparation programs. (p. 183)

What is implied in this case is that remedying the problem of disinterest by the school administration, adequate supply of

resources and effective programmes of teacher preparation would increase teacher satisfaction and productivity.

In-servicing is necessary in a situation of change for teachers to re-align their beliefs, teaching styles, and acquaintance with new materials as well as the knowledge, skills and attitudes which are part of the desired curriculum change. Narrowly conceived in-service programmes which have no follow-up for their ideas or practices often fail. According to Fullan (1982):

Like many other single-factor solutions to multifaceted phenomena, the general endorsement of in-service education means nothing without an accompanying understanding of the characteristics of effective as compared to ineffective in-service education efforts . . . part of the reasons offered for failure or ineffectiveness of certain workshops is that no follow-up or evaluation occurs. (p. 263)

Furthermore, Fullan (1982) identifies 'conceptual clarity' as the main cause of the ineffectiveness of in-service programmes which in turn affects the success of implementation of change. Conceptual clarity is manifested in the general planning, execution and evaluation of in-service schemes on a broad-based approach rather than offering 'one-shot' programmes that fail to have an impact on desired change.

One of the most comprehensive studies of teacher preparation was done by Lortie (1975), who identified three stages which

impinge on the professional capacity of teachers. These were formal schooling, mediated entry, and learning while doing. Formal schooling grounds teachers in the foundation and philosophical orientations of the profession. Mediated entry has to do with the acquisition of practical experience which is commensurate with the roles and responsibilities of the classroom teacher. And learning while doing is seen as the development of the necessary knowledge, skills, and competencies as well as values and norms that the challenges of teaching require.

Writing on the school-based in-service model, Stenhouse (1975) cites a successfully implemented project which had four-pronged objectives. This project sought to familiarise teachers with the use of audio-visual equipment, development of team teaching and integrated studies, other school visits, and coordination and communication. These objectives were determined after assessing teachers' needs. And whereas some sessions of the project utilized visiting teachers, most of the sessions were staffed with teachers within the school.

It was a successful project in that participant teachers broadened their ideas and experience in relation to the innovation that was being implemented. However, Stenhouse (1975) acknowledges that although school-based in-service programmes have more advantages and strengths, they are financially more expensive to operationalise than centralised in-service

programmes. This is the case particularly when such innovations involve new books and materials. In addition he also identified parental pressure and social opinion as well as the moral authority of the school as additional impediments to school-based innovations in Britain. Parental pressure and social opinion are both seen as influential because they constitute important support elements for the school and therefore are crucial in any change situation. On the other hand moral authority refers to the hierarchy of status and power within the school. If the innovation threatens to upset or reverse the structure of status and power that defines teachers' relations then it is also bound to fail.

In a study similar to Lortie's (1975), but carried out in Kenya, Kang'ata (1986) sought to ascertain whether social studies teachers in primary schools were thoroughly prepared for their roles in the classroom. She sampled teachers in primary schools in Nairobi and student-teachers in two teacher-training colleges, using two sets of questionnaires and an interview schedule. This study established that social studies teachers, firstly, need in-service education in order to inform them of any changes in the curriculum. Secondly, even in cases where a minority of the teachers had attended some form of in-service courses, they (teachers) complained that the courses were too short-lived. Teachers also complained that the materials supplied by the Kenya Institute of Education were sketchy.

So far the literature reviewed on in-service teacher preparation reveals that certain things are basic to the effectiveness of any in-service programmes. Firstly, in-service programmes should be organised in such a way that they exemplify the clarity of the change warranted in the innovation, and this clarity should be sustained through the planning, execution and evaluation or follow-up stages of its mainstream ideas. Secondly, teacher input and involvement in the whole enterprise is important for the sustainability of the implementation of change or revision. Thirdly, demonstration of commitment and modelling by curriculum planners and experts is important in boosting teacher morale and receptiveness to change. And finally, the emphasis in in-service programmes should be on the practical realities of classroom practices and challenges that may be encountered in operationalising change.

4.2 INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

A number of studies dealing with resource materials and their role in curriculum implementation have been documented. Taylor (1970) found that the availability of adequate resource materials and teaching aids determine the success of implementing a curriculum. He underscored the fact that teachers have to be acquainted with such resource materials and the roles that their use or application will require of them. In Darr's study (1985) it was established that the degree to which a new curriculum is

adopted depends upon the availability of materials and the effect the new curriculum would have upon teachers' roles. The adoption phase of such a curriculum, this study found, would also be determined by its perceived benefits by the teachers and the overall importance of the communication process from the developers to the implementers. Darr notes that "As the teacher's stage of concern moves from the informational and personal to the consequence and collaboration levels the teacher will be more likely to adopt the new curriculum" (p. 11).

In a study of the implementation of the 1981 elementary social studies programme in Lesotho, Maloi (1983) identifies the failure of the Ministry of Education to provide supportive materials and school facilities as having been the major cause of problems. In third world countries like this one, financial problems often over-ride educational plans, change and innovation. Two studies similar to Maloi's (1983) were carried out in Kenya by Chege (1986) and Chumba (1986). An acute shortage of textbooks as basic reference materials, and a virtual absence of libraries, were identified as problems which hampered the economics advanced certificate of education curriculum in Kiambu, Kenya (Chege, 1986). This study also found that teachers never used any visual aids, a factor which confounded the teaching of economics. Chumba (1986), similarly found that an adverse shortage of resource materials was a major complaint in a survey of teachers of history in Nandi district, Kenya.

Studies of teachers' perceptions about curriculum materials (Marker, 1980; Connelly et al, 1982; Marsh, 1984; and Marsh et al, 1985) indicate that teachers desire to be involved rather than sidelined in the selection and analysis of instructional materials to be used in the classroom. Teachers are more prone to abandon instructional materials if their expectations are not in tune with the nature of materials they are eventually given by curriculum designers to use (Marker, 1980). The underlying notion here is that teachers need to be thoroughly acquainted with the instructional materials in order to develop the confidence to use them in the classroom.

Furthermore, Connelly's (1982) study also established that most teachers in Ontario, Canada, obtain information about new instructional materials from fellow teachers and to a lesser extent through circulars. The fact that teachers are not initially involved in the selection of instructional materials which they are eventually bound to use leads to the assumption that there are experts at the Ministry of Education who are the only ones capable of selecting the materials (Marsh, 1984). This also explains the reason why materials which are often found or perceived to be complex are unlikely to be used by teachers in a situation of implementing a new curriculum.

In a nutshell, the literature dealing with resource

materials emphasizes certain commonalities. One of these is that the availability and adequacy of resource materials are pertinent to, and determine the implementation of, change or innovation. Secondly, teacher involvement in the selection, analysis and distribution of resource materials is crucial. This gives teachers a sense of collaboration and cooperation with curriculum developers in implementing change. Lastly, follow-up support of both the external agencies developing curriculum innovation and the school establishment to the teachers in the process of utilising resource materials is vital. This provides a monitoring and feedback effect so that the problems being encountered by teachers in the actual use of materials can be circumvented.

4.3 CURRICULUM GOALS

The initiative of curriculum development and specifically the determination of curriculum goals and activities vis-a-vis the teacher provides the key to the understanding of implementation. However, for a study which involves a new subject in the school curriculum as is the case of S.E.E., teachers' perceptions of goals can only be viewed from one perspective. Such a perspective would be the extent to which they perceive the goals of a curriculum from the developers' point of view. In any case, an externally developed curriculum assigns the role of detached implementors to classroom teachers

as receptors of curriculum packages, guidelines and syllabuses. Ghubrial (1979) conducted a comparative study of teachers' perceptions of fundamental social elements of curriculum in relation to American and Egyptian schools. Questionnaires with 58 closed-end items were administered to teachers in Pittsburgh and Cairo respectively. This study established, firstly, that both American and Egyptian teachers felt that their societies require changes in the school curriculum that would enable the individual and his/her society to develop dynamically. Secondly, it was found that teachers wanted the selection of curriculum activities to be developed at the local level. Lastly, this study established that teachers thought that curriculum changes should enable the learners to acquire the basic notions of social transformation and recurrent development of their respective communities.

One main implication of Ghubrial's study which is relevant to the S.E.E. situation is that useful curriculum activities should be identified and selected at the local institutional level if those activities (expressed through curriculum goals) are to serve the needs of social transformation and development. The presupposition being made is that teachers ought to have a voice directly or in a collaborative/consultative capacity in deciding upon curriculum goals which they are to translate into viable instructional activities.

4.4 SCHOOL-BASED CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

With the increasing focus on the teacher, the school and local initiative in the development and operationalisation of curriculum activities, it is necessary to look at studies that have dealt exclusively with school-based or local curriculum programmes rather than externally developed and externally based curriculum projects. Studies by Oluoch, 1977; Leithwood et al, 1982; and Bolam, 1983 have dealt with school-based programmes. These studies underline the fact that teachers' participation in curriculum decision making is crucial for any programmes of school improvement. Teachers, it is noted, have the competence to adapt curricula to specific needs of learners in a school setting. Leithwood (1982) and Bolam (1983) indicate that the ability of teachers to undertake and successfully fashion out school curricula is determined by the requirements of the curriculum task, collegial support and interaction with other teachers as well as the nature of the school administration.

The work of Stenhouse (1975) and Skilbeck (1982) also add an important corollary to the conception of school-based curriculum development. Both studies argue that curriculum development has in-built notions of improving school practices through encouraging interaction between teachers and learners. Curriculum development at the school level need not preclude other agencies and interest groups, but it should promote participatory decision making for all those involved. Both

Stenhouse (1975) and Skilbeck (1982) agree that in order for teachers to be effectively involved as curriculum developers at the school level, they require suitable training, extensive in-service programmes and necessary institutional, administrative support and adjustments.

Two case studies where school-based curriculum development was first advocated as an initial reaction against the failure of the top-down hierarchical forms of national control in British curriculum policy (Skilbeck, 1982) are cited. The first case relates to the resistance of British teachers to national syllabus making between 1963 - 64 by the Schools Council. The second case relates to the United States and in particular to the resistance of teachers to national curriculum control just prior to the 'Eight Year Study'. This resistance arose from the feeling that nationally controlled curricula "treated the teacher as a functionary in a technically bureaucratic system whose alleged incapacities could be surmounted by that system's producing 'teacher proof' learning packages." (Skilbeck, 1982, p. 21).

Stenhouse strongly advocates the dual role of the classroom teacher as a curriculum researcher and as a developer-instructor. The main factor which underpins his argument is that curriculum research and development is a means of "studying the problems and effects of implementing any defined line of

teaching" (p. 143). Therefore an attempt to extend the teachers' professional competence in the classroom will be necessary. This necessity arises from the fact that classroom teachers are supposed to acquire new conceptions of knowledge and the significance of change that this knowledge will define in terms of practical pedagogical modes and related social structures in the classroom. He cites three curriculum projects, including the Schools Council Humanities Project of 1973 which successfully involved classroom teachers as curriculum researchers.

The concept of school-based curriculum development is brought under further scrutiny by Henderson (1979) who developed three in-service models for teachers which are congruent with school-based curriculum development. These are the course-based, the school-based model, and the school-focused model. In the course-based model, teachers are taken out of the school and instructed in groups so that a vast body of information is disseminated to them. The school-based model involves in-servicing of teachers within a school site or the school environment. And in the school-focused model, in-servicing concentrates on the problems of the school, with emphasis on the programme which is to be taught by the teachers being in-serviced. The in-servicing in the latter case can also be provided by the school itself or by agencies outside of the school.

According to Rampaul (in Press), the school-focused model is more appropriate because "Teachers are involved with teacher trainers, and other groups of educators in the planning process, thereby providing the best opportunity for meeting the legitimate, even if conflicting requirements of the individual teacher, the school, the local community, and the wider national context." Perhaps it may be presumptuous to recommend one model over the others because the effectiveness of any one of them depends upon a number of variables. For instance, the receptiveness of the teachers to a particular model will definitely determine its success or failure. Such receptiveness may also be aggravated by the extent to which the model prescribes certain alterations in teachers' ideas about teaching. In addition, the success of any or all of these models would depend on such factors as the flexibility or supportiveness of the school establishment to change, and the provision of the financial resources which would make it possible to provide resource materials which could be relevant for facilitating appropriate instruction.

Two implications follow from the literature on school-based curriculum development. First, there is a compelling need for training teachers so that they are not only professional instructors in the classroom, but also curriculum developers. Secondly, by adopting school-based curriculum development, we shall be adopting a micro-curricular approach in curriculum study

which utilises the schools directly as internal frames of reference. The notion of school-based curriculum development can be regarded as one of the avenues available not only to increase teachers' participation in curriculum decision making and minimise their alienation, but also as a way of lessening the gap between the theoretical intent of nationally developed and controlled curriculum and actual classroom practice.

CHAPTER 5 - METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the organisation and methods used in investigating teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation and instructional materials in Social Education and Ethics in the secondary school 8-4-4 programmes in Kenya, within Kakamega, Bungoma and Trans-nzoia districts. The main sample and subjects of the study as well as the sampling procedure used are described. Instruments of data collection, namely an investigator designed questionnaire and a structured face-to-face interview schedule, are discussed. Detailed procedures of how these instruments were operationalised are laid out. Finally details of how the quantitative and qualitative data obtained were analysed are given.

5.1 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The target population for this study was Kenyan secondary school teachers of S.E.E., teaching forms one up to three (an equivalent of grade seven to nine). Teachers instructing S.E.E. in the three grades were targeted for the study because, since the inception of the 8-4-4 programmes, S.E.E. has only been taught in secondary schools up to, and including, form three. However, by the start of 1989, the S.E.E. programme will be full-fledged, covering the whole school curriculum from forms one to form four (grade 7 to 10). At the end of the fourth form, students of S.E.E. will be assessed for the first time by an external examination, the Kenya Certificate of Secondary

Examination.

The three districts, Kakamega and Bungoma (in Western province), and Trans-nzoia in Rift Valley province were selected for this study because they are representative of a majority of secondary schools in Kenya. These districts constitute schools which are mainly located in rural and agricultural-based communities. A majority (80%) of Kenya's population live in the rural areas, and are also small-scale farmers. To a great extent, Trans-nzoia district also caters for an intermixture of various ethnic groups and people from different strata of Kenyan society. Therefore schools in this region bring people together of various socio-economic backgrounds.

5.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDY AREA

Rift Valley is the largest province in Kenya with 13 districts, and Western province is one of the smallest (excluding Metropolitan Nairobi provincial area) with three districts. Geographically, Rift Valley is a fairly diverse province. It ranges from low lying, dry, sparsely populated areas to high mountaineous, wet and moderately populated areas. On the other hand, Western lies in the plateau areas that gradually rise towards Mount Elgon. Unlike Rift Valley, Western province receives moderate to high rainfall, with some areas like Vihiga in Kakamega district being the most populous in the country, having over 700 persons per square kilometre. Rift Valley's

ethnic composition is fairly heterogeneous, although the Kalenjin community outnumbers the other groups; but Western is largely occupied by the Luhya community. Like the rest of Kenya, most people in these provinces depend on agriculture, ranging from peasant farmers in western province to large scale farmers in Rift Valley province. Unlike Western, Rift Valley experienced an upsurge of white settlers prior to, and during the colonial period. This is partly the reason why there are large scale commercial farms in this area. During the period of active colonialism, most indigenous people in this area were herded into the 'reserves' in order to make room for white settlers. This was a deliberate policy of land alienation that was enforced by the colonial regime. At independence, the government bought back most of the farms from the white settlers and re-distributed some to the needy people.

5.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

In order to identify the actual sample for the study, the investigator visited the respective district education offices in Kakamega, Bungoma and Trans-nzoia districts. At these offices, all the names and mailing addresses of schools in each district were provided and copied out. Schools from each district were grouped separately and listed sequentially by serial numbers. The cluster random sampling technique (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1981; and Moore, 1983) was used to select schools for this study. For instance, from each sequential list of schools in one district,

schools were selected in the order of skipping every two numbers down the list.

Initially, thirty five schools were selected from the three districts. Then questionnaires, (see Appendix A) accompanied with the letter of consent, and the letter of introduction (see Appendix A), were mailed to these thirty five schools. The letter of consent introduced the investigator, and the study to the respondents and reminded them their participation in the study was voluntary. It was also indicated in the letter of consent that confidentiality would be guaranteed for those who would agree to participate in the study. The introduction letters to the teachers in charge of Social Education and Ethics in each of the selected schools were sent through the headmasters or headmistresses of the respective schools. In these letters the type of study being carried out was re-stated and the attention of the respondent was drawn to the questionnaire as the principal instrument of the collecting information in the study, and the fact that this was to be supplemented later by an interview schedule. Tentative dates were also suggested in the letter of introduction when the investigator hoped to visit the schools selected in person and collect the questionnaires, and conduct interviews with the respondents. For purposes of convenience to the investigator, the collection of questionnaires and interviews were scheduled on the same dates in the initial programmes. Furthermore, it was pointed out that should the

interview date be inconvenient to the respondent, then he or she could notify the investigator through his postal address in Nairobi or a telephone message could be left with the investigator's friend in Nairobi; so that an alternative date could be scheduled.

From the initial thirty five schools where questionnaires were mailed, thirty two schools agreed to participate in the study. Teachers of Social Education and Ethics in three schools declined to participate, citing, among other things, problems such as busy schedules and illness. Therefore, thirty two teachers, one from each school, were subjects of this study. In schools where two or more teachers were teaching Social Education and Ethics, the head of department was interviewed. There were a total of four schools where two or more teachers were teaching S.E.E. In three of these schools the investigator learned that the heads of department of S.E.E. responded to the questionnaire and therefore were subsequently interviewed. In one school, two S.E.E. teachers jointly responded to the questionnaire, but the head of department agreed to be interviewed. One of the two teachers who responded to the questionnaire had taught in the school for one year, and the other had taught for two and a half years, but the head of department had taught in the same school for five years.

5.4 QUESTIONNAIRE

An investigator-designed questionnaire (see Appendix A) was the principal instrument of data collection in this study. The construction of this instrument was based on the assumption that respondents could read and understand the items. It was also assumed that respondents possessed valid information to answer the questions and that they would be willing to answer the questions honestly (Husen and Postlethwaite, 1985). Information sought from the respondents through the questionnaire included factual details about their gender, age range, academic and professional qualifications as well as their teaching experience.

The questionnaire contained four variables which were of primary interest to the investigator. It is upon these four variables that the study sought to gauge teachers' perceptual attitudes, opinions and comments. The variables were: attendance at seminars or workshops, the goals of S.E.E., the nature of the syllabus, and finally instructional materials. For instance, the study sought to establish whether or not teachers of S.E.E. attended seminars or workshops which were organised prior to the introduction of the subject in the schools and the themes covered as well as the overall assessment of those seminars by teachers. Teachers' views were also sought on the relevance of the theoretical goals of S.E.E. to the actual practice in their individual institutional settings. Related to the goals, were also their (teachers') opinions on the nature and

organisation of the syllabus of S.E.E., and any problems that they might have been experiencing in following such a syllabus in planning and instructing their classes. Lastly, the questionnaire sought to get teachers' views on instructional materials.

All items on the questionnaire were open-ended, including those on a five point Likert scale. During the analysis and reporting of data, the five point scales were collapsed into three point scales. This meant that the strongly agree (SA) and agree (A) were collapsed into one scale as strong agree, agree (SA/A) and regarded as one: positive agreement. The marginal category of those who were neutral was considered as undecided (U). Then the last category combined "disagree" and "strongly disagree" (D/SD) to form a negative agreement scale.

Quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires was analysed using the univariate frequency distribution and proportions of percentages technique (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1981). Using this technique, responses to each item were computed to determine the distribution of each observation. Then the frequencies obtained from each observation were converted into proportions of percentages. These percentages made it possible for certain categories of observations to be compared and inferences in response differences drawn. The frequency distribution of categories of responses and proportions of percentage is also tabulated particularly in reporting of

quantitative data generated from most items dealing with background attributes of respondents.

5.5 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

An open-ended, structured interview (see Appendix A) was administered as a supplement to the questionnaire. Most interviews were conducted when the investigator visited the selected schools to collect questionnaires. However in a few instances this arrangement never worked. In five schools, the investigator was compelled either to schedule interview dates or conduct interviews, but had to revisit the schools to collect questionnaires. In two such cases the teachers concerned happened to be heads of their schools and were involved in routine staff meetings and administrative duties. In three schools the teachers concerned had responded to the questionnaires, but misplaced them, so the investigator furnished them with extra copies then revisited the schools again.

Interview sessions lasted approximately forty five minutes, and all except two teachers were interviewed at the school offices. Two teachers were interviewed at their residential houses because they suggested to the investigator that it would be more convenient to them. Upon arrival at the school and meeting the interviewee, the investigator established rapport by introducing himself and reminding the interviewees that he was visiting in connection with the research in Social Education and

Ethics, and was interested in teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation and instructional materials in S.E.E. in the 8-4-4 secondary school programme in Kenya. The investigator then briefly explained to the interviewees that research being undertaken was part of his academic programme at the University of Manitoba and that the agreement of interviewees to take part in the study was a welcome contribution towards the success of the investigator's academic project as well as a contribution to the S.E.E. field. Before the interview commenced, the investigator also assured the interviewees that whatever they said during the interview was to be held in complete confidentiality and would only be used for the research in S.E.E.

Once this rapport was established, the interviews commenced in an atmosphere of friendliness and relaxation. This also helped to iron out some misconceptions. For instance, initially some teachers assumed the investigator was an official either from the Ministry of Education or from K.I.E., but such impressions were corrected this rapport. Writing on "Interviewing in Social Surveys", Miller (1985) say that elaborate introduction "Essentially . . . means the interview must be perceived as worthwhile, the interviewer as legitimate, and the undertaking as sufficiently valuable to make an effort to diligently." (p. 2,684)

During interview sessions, the investigator put the

questions to the interviewee, and as the latter responded he jotted down notes. At the end of each interview session the investigator read back to the interviewee what had been written down. This helped to confirm that what had been put down was an accurate version of what the interviewee had said. It also helped the investigator to confirm what he had written and if necessary request the interviewee to elaborate on anything that seemed unclear.

The qualitative data obtained through these interviews was analysed using the univariate concept and content technique. To explicate this further, the response of each of the thirty two interviewees to each item category were listed down, so that each interview item generated thirty responses and therefore formed one content cluster, and this was done for all the eleven items in the interview schedule. Then each content cluster was analysed in order to identify common themes, opinions, comments and suggestions. These commonalities were then identified and re-written with the key variables being investigated in mind. In addition, this univariate concept and content analysis helped to identify and select from each group representative views that are reproduced verbatim in relation to some quantified data generated from the questionnaire. Specifically, the qualitative data obtained from the interviews was used in interpreting or elaborating upon quantified data. Moreover, the opinions and suggestions of interviewees also became important referral points

in making the recommendations related to this study.

In summary, this chapter has described in detail the methodology employed in the collection of data. The population and sample as well as the sampling procedure have been discussed. Main instruments of data collection and how they were operationalised have been discussed. There has also been discussion concerning how the quantitative and qualitative data obtained was analysed.

CHAPTER 6 - ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS

This chapter contains the analysis of data and findings of the study. The mode of presentation of this analysis and findings involves four subsections. Firstly, the demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented. Secondly, the attendance of seminars by the respondents is also diagnosed. Thirdly, instructional materials used in S.E.E. are analysed and findings presented. Lastly, the perceptions of the S.E.E. goals and organisation are presented.

6.1 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

The thirty two schools from which teachers were drawn for this study consisted of fifteen schools from Kakamega district, ten schools from Bungoma district and seven schools from Trans-nzoia district. The actual breakdown in terms of sex and size of schools is shown in table 4. Frequency counts of schools in each category are shown in terms of frequency (F) distribution and proportions of percentage (%). It can be noted from table 4 that most schools from which the sample of teachers were drawn were girls' schools with a size of "under 400 students". These schools accounted for 25.0 percent of the total sample.

The next largest number of schools were girls' schools in the category of "400 - 600 students" and boys' schools "600-1,000 students". Both of these categories of schools represented 12.5 percent of the total sample, while the least number of

teachers were drawn from mixed schools representing 3.1 percent of the total sample and found in the category of "over 1,000 students".

Table 4.

Secondary Schools Surveyed n = 32

SIZE	BOYS SCHOOLS		GIRLS SCHOOLS		MIXED SCHOOLS	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
over 1000 students	-	-	-	-	1	3.1
600 - 1000 students	4	12.5	1	3.1	2	6.3
400 - 600 students	2	6.3	4	12.5	2	6.3
under 400 students	3	9.4	8	25.0	5	16.6
TOTAL	9	28.1	13	40.6	10	31.3

Furthermore, from all categories of schools, girls' schools collectively accounted for 40.6 percent of the total sample. Next to girls' schools were mixed schools with 31.3 percent, and least were boys' schools with 28.1 percent of the total sample.

A majority (46.9%) of the schools surveyed on the basis of district distribution were from Kakamega district, while Bungoma had 31.3 percent and Trans-nzoia had 21.9 percent. Numerically, Kakamega had the highest number of secondary schools, followed by Bungoma and Trans-nzoia had the least number. These

differentials in each district were taken into consideration when randomly selecting schools which constituted the sample for this study. As indicated in the previous chapter, the cluster random sampling technique was used in selecting schools from serial lists of schools in each district. The fact that Kakamega has the highest number of schools is partly due to the high density of population in the district. For instance, some areas of this district like Vihiga division have over 700 persons per square kilometre.

Table 5 shows the type of schools from which S.E.E. teachers were drawn. All these were general secondary schools which offer an academic curriculum. This excludes technical schools and special schools. As indicated in chapter two of this thesis, technical schools were converted into technical colleges when the 8-4-4 secondary school programme was launched. Therefore, like special schools (for the deaf and blind), technical colleges offer courses only in vocational training.

Table 5.

n = 32

TYPE OF SCHOOL	KAKAMEGA		BUNGOMA		TRANS-NZOIA	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
B Boarding	5	16.3	2	6.3	-	-
G Boarding	3	9.4	2	6.3	1	3.1
M Boarding	1	3.1	-	-	2	6.3
B Boarding & Day	1	3.1	3	9.4	-	-
G Boarding & Day	2	6.3	1	3.1	1	3.1
M Boarding & Day	-	-	1	3.1	2	6.3
M Day	3	9.4	1	3.1	1	3.1
TOTAL	15	46.9	10	31.3	7	21.9

The schools shown in Table 5 are either boarding, day schools or a blend of both boarding and day. Moreover, boarding schools are also differentiated on the basis of the sex of students. For instance there are boys' (B) boarding, girls' (G) boarding, mixed (M) boarding, boys' boarding and day, girls' boarding and day, mixed boarding and mixed day schools. In the Kenyan educational context mixed schools are co-educational institutions in which girls and boys learn together.

Of the total sample of S.E.E. teachers, the largest proportion, representing 16.3 percent, came from boys' boarding schools in Kakamega district. This was followed by a proportion

of 9.4 percent of girls' boarding schools from Kakamega and an equal proportion of percentage of boys' boarding schools from Bungoma district. However, the proportion of the least number of teachers from the schools representing different sexes were evenly spread on cross-district basis. For instance, there was no marked concentration of fewer teachers from any category or type of schools in one district alone, but there was a fair distribution over the three districts.

The sample of teachers surveyed was comprised of eighteen males representing 56.3 percent and fourteen females representing 43.8 percent of the total sample. Their ages ranged, as shown in table 6, from twenty to fifty years. Teachers within the 31 - 40 age bracket represented 43.8 percent and those within the 20 - 30 age bracket accounted for 40.6 percent of the total sample. Only 15.6 percent of the teachers fell within the 41 - 50 age range. This means that a majority of the teachers teaching S.E.E. are aged between 20 and 40 years.

Table 6

Gender and Age of Subjects.

GENDER	AGE RANGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Females			
14 = 43.8%	20 - 30 yrs	13	40.6
	31 - 40 yrs	14	43.8
Males	41 - 50 yrs	5	15.6
18 = 56.3%	over 50 yrs	-	-
n = 32			

Subjects of this study had varied academic and professional qualifications and teaching experiences. Academically, most subjects, constituting a proportion of 37.5 percent, had qualifications below 'A' level labelled as "other". Teachers in this category indicated that they had attained Ordinary ('O') level (equivalent to grade 10) qualifications and then went for secondary school teacher training, and eventually qualified as secondary one (S1) teachers. After a period of distinguished service in the teaching profession, some of this calibre of teachers were promoted on merit to approved teacher status (APPT. status). Teachers having Advanced level qualifications, an equivalent of grade twelve, accounted for 31.3 percent, while the least number were those with postgraduate qualifications who accounted for only 3.1 percent.

Untrained teachers, representing 31.3 percent of the total sample, constituted the biggest proportion of the professional qualification of subjects. This was followed by subjects with a diploma in education (Dip. Ed) comprising of a proportion of 25.0 percent. The least represented number of teachers were graduate untrained (Grad. Untrained) who accounted for a percentage of 6.3. Table 7 below gives more details. One general observation is that most trained teachers improvised extra materials and drew upon external sources for their instruction of S.E.E. On the other hand, untrained teachers appeared more inclined to follow the organisation of content in available textbooks in teaching

the subject.

Table 7.

ACADEMIC			PROFESSIONAL			TEACHING EXPERIENCE		
	F	%		F	%		F	%
BEd	7	21.9	GRAD TRAINED	7	21.9	1 - 5 YRS	16	50.0
BSc/BA	2	6.3	GRAD UNTRAINED	2	6.3	6 - 10 YRS	6	18.8
MA/MED	1	3.1	APPT. STATUS	2	6.3	11 - 15 YRS	6	18.8
'A' LEVEL	10	31.3	DIP. ED.	8	25.0	16 - 20 YRS	3	9.4
OTHER	12	37.5	S1 STATUS	3	9.4	OVER 20 YRS	1	3.1
			UNTRAINED	10	31.3			

From Table 7, it can also be noted that half of the teachers surveyed had only taught for less than five years, as compared to 3.1 percent of the teachers who had taught for "over 20 years". Teachers with teaching experience of "6 - 10 years" and "11 - 15 years" were evenly spread in all schools. Both groups accounted for an equal proportion of 18.8 percent each. In terms of the measures of central tendency, the mode of S.E.E. teachers was found to be 4 years of teaching experience, the corresponding mean was 8.0 years and the median was 5.5 years of teaching experience. This means that most of the S.E.E. teachers have only recently made a debut in the teaching profession and as such they do not have proven teaching experience.

The study also found that 68.8 percent of S.E.E. teachers either studied for, and/or teach humanities and social sciences. These areas include Lugha ya Kiswahili, Christian religious education, History, Geography and English Language. Other

teachers of S.E.E. representing 25.0 percent of the total sample either studied for, and/or teach science related programmes such as Chemistry, Biology, Business Education and Economics. However, 6.3 percent of the teachers, indicated that they teach Music and Home Economics besides S.E.E. No basic criteria were followed in assigning the type of teachers suited to teach S.E.E. It all depended upon the headteacher who assigned whoever he or she thought could teach the programme. This is the reason why both the arts-oriented and the science-oriented teachers are teaching S.E.E.

There were no significant differences of opinion amongst teachers in boys, girls or mixed schools on the main variables of this study. However, dissimilar impressions of teachers were noted in the area of students' responses to the teaching of S.E.E. For instance, teachers constituting 9.4 percent in boys' schools indicated that students found some topics sensitive and therefore would not freely engage in discussion on them. The oft cited topics were those related to issues such as personal health, adolescence, and single parent families. These topics were considered sensitive by teachers because they touch upon the problematic background and upbringing of the youth.

For those teachers teaching in girls' schools, 16.6 percent, said that their students were not keen to discuss openly S.E.E. topics related to human sexuality, reproduction and male/female relationships. Most teachers attributed this to the lack of

exposure of the students to a free discussion of issues like family life education and sex education amongst the students. At the moment issues of this nature have no place in the secondary school curriculum.

In mixed schools, 6.4 percent of the teachers cited the inexperience of students as a possible factor that makes them fail to actively partake in discussing certain areas of the S.E.E. content. For example, topics that teachers thought fell outside the students' scope of understanding were ethics for international life and trans-national bodies and organisations. Furthermore, 3.1 percent of the teachers in mixed schools found that in their classes, girls were less inclined to discuss issues related to family life and human sexuality than boys. In these schools, teachers said they had to prod the girls in order to draw them into discussion.

6.2 ATTENDANCE AT SEMINARS

A majority (65.6%) of the teachers indicated they had never attended S.E.E. seminars or workshops. The reasons given for non-attendance at seminars or workshops were strikingly similar. Most teachers said that since they started teaching S.E.E. they had never heard of seminars being organised. Others said that they only heard of seminars before they were assigned to teach S.E.E. As to how they started teaching S.E.E., teachers indicated that they were assigned by the headteachers, or requested to do so at staff meetings. In both of these cases all

that teachers were given were the subject syllabus and whatever book(s) that was available on S.E.E.

Eleven teachers (34.4%) said that they had attended S.E.E. seminars. For those in this category who attended the seminars, they disclosed that they were organised during school holidays in August and December of 1985. Most respondents cited three themes which were discussed at these seminars. These were the general introduction of S.E.E., the importance of the programme in the school curriculum, and a discussion of the syllabus outline to be followed starting with form one classes. However, there were a couple of teachers who indicated that they attended S.E.E. seminars, but could not remember what issues were discussed. Seminars, which lasted two weeks in both August and December sessions were addressed by officials from K.I.E., the Inspectorate section of the Ministry of Education and some local headteachers. At these seminars outline syllabuses of S.E.E. (in booklet form) were issued together with type-written hand-outs on the introduction and importance of the programme in the schools to the teachers.

But in an apparent contradiction of response, 75.0 percent of the S.E.E. teachers said they regard S.E.E. seminars as being useful, as opposed to 25.0 percent who were undecided. On a different item related to seminars, 25.0 percent of the teachers indicated that the S.E.E. seminars were useful. Given the fact

that only 34.4 percent of the teachers attended S.E.E. seminars, then any evaluation of the usefulness or otherwise of such seminars should only be based on this proportion of percentage. Considering other extraneous factors, this contradiction becomes more apparent than real. The fact that 24 (75.0%) of the teachers said seminars are useful instead of 11 (34.4%) underlines the fact that a majority of the teachers felt that in the instructional context of S.E.E., seminars or workshops on the programme could have been useful to them. This impression is brought out when teachers were asked to suggest the type of preparation they thought would be best suited for S.E.E. teachers. Suggestions such as these were commonly forthcoming:

- * Teachers should get formal learning of S.E.E. as well as disciplines related to humanities like psychology and philosophy and have the ability to communicate. This should be followed up with seminars in the subject.
- * S.E.E. teachers ought to be well versed with ethics in general in addition to seminars to update their knowledge of ethical issues in order to tackle and simplify certain ethical principles.
- * A formal course should be taught to would-be S.E.E. teachers plus well organised seminars and

practical field familiarisation tours where teachers visit other schools to see how their colleagues are doing and to learn from them.

- * Frequent in-servicing of teachers is necessary to equip them with the necessary practical skills and issues. Formal training should involve aspects of areas like Christian Religious Education and Literature in English.
- * Teachers should be formally taught S.E.E. at college level and be grounded in fields like Psychology, Sociology, Philosophy and practical aspects of the subject through seminars.
- * Experience and background are necessary as well as exposure to fields like Human development and generally the Social Sciences. Teachers should also be exposed to practical situations through seminars and workshops.

The general yearning for formal learning, training and in-servicing of S.E.E. expressed through suggestions like those above were reflected in views of virtually all teachers, trained and untrained, as well as the less experienced and the more experienced in teaching.

6.3 INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS USED

Textbooks were cited by 56.3 percent of the respondents as the main resource material used in the schools. In addition 25.0 percent of the respondents used charts and diagrams, plus 9.4 percent who indicated they used visual aids as well. These materials, according to 37.5 percent of the respondents, are supplied by the school, while 28.1 percent said they are provided by K.I.E. In addition to what the schools and K.I.E. provided, 21.9 percent of the respondents improvised and used their own materials. From these responses, it would appear that the only available resource materials supplied to the schools for S.E.E. are textbooks.

Of the respondents who said that they use textbooks as their main instructional material, 34.4 percent used only one title, as compared to 25.0 percent who used two titles, 18.8 percent who used three titles, and only 3.1 percent who used four titles. However, 15.6 percent of the respondents indicated that they do not use any textbooks because they are unavailable in their schools. Rather, they just improvise on their own in order to instruct S.E.E.

The five schools (15.6%) in which teachers indicated that they have no textbooks were found to possess certain characteristics. Firstly, only one out of the five teachers

indicated that she attended seminars organised for S.E.E., while the rest did not attend. Secondly, all teachers in these schools have teaching experiences of between one year and three years, and apart from one graduate teacher, the rest were S.I. and 'A' level teachers. Thirdly, all except one school, are mixed day schools with a student capacity of "under 400." One school was a boys boarding school having a capacity of between four hundred and six hundred students.

Above all it can also be observed that teachers in most schools do not have a variety of textual references given the fact that at most, teachers use only one title and at least two titles, as compared to a significant proportion (15.6%) of the teachers who have no single textbook in their schools.

Regarding how teachers found out whether Social Education and Ethics materials had come into the school, 25.0 percent of the respondents said they found out through the headteachers, while 18.8 percent cited book displays and 6.3 percent could not identify their sources of information. Table 8 below gives more details on the teachers' sources of new materials

Table 8.

Teachers' Sources of Information on New Materials

SOURCE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Headteacher	8	25.0
Book displays	6	18.8
Commercial Companies	3	9.4
Salesmen	4	12.5
Circular	4	12.5
Other teachers	2	6.3
Circular & book displays	1	3.1
Headteacher & Salesmen	2	6.3
None of the above	2	6.3

The observation which can be drawn from this table is that most teachers rely upon the headteachers and book displays for information on new materials related to Social Education and Ethics.

Whereas 40.6 percent of the respondents said that they do not encounter any problems with the instructional materials, the rest of the respondents cited a number of problems. For instance, 25.0 percent complained that the textbooks they used were sketchy, 9.4 percent indicated that the books were inadequate and an equal proportion of percentage said that the language used in the textbooks was not understandable. However

15.6 percent gave no comments, apparently because they do not use any textbooks in their school. Some of the comments reflecting the complaints about materials by the teachers in interviews were as follows:

- * We experience a lack of books especially reference books for students and we have no teaching aids whatsoever.
- * There is lack of reference material and whatever is available is brief and sketchy.
- * My main problem is the unavailability of literature in the form of useful textbooks. The only available book which I use has a difficult approach to the subject and generally teaching aids are not just there.
- * Reference materials are too limited and sketchy, for instance, the authors of the only book I use do not even state the aims and importance of the course.
- * There is an acute lack of comprehensive textbooks particularly on Ethics as well as teaching aids. Even the available ones are not up to the expected

standard and I have to improvise in order to teach.

As for structural problems inherent in the use of instructional materials, most respondents (50.0%) remained non-committal, 25.0 percent indicated that the materials could not easily be comprehended, whereas another 25.0 percent found the materials satisfactory. At the conceptual level (with respect to interpretation), 37.5 percent said that the concepts stipulated in the textbooks could not be grasped by the students because of difficult language. However, on this score 21.9 percent of the respondents said that the concepts were "averagely understandable," and 40.6 percent offered no opinion. In relation to students' level of experience, 37.5 percent felt that the materials were appropriate meaning that they were suitable and relevant to S.E.E., while 18.8 percent disagreed that they were appropriate, and a significant proportion of 43.8 percent offered no opinion on this.

It can be noted that most teachers did not have an idea or reaction to make with respect to structural and conceptual problems they encountered with the use of instructional materials vis-a-vis students' experience. One plausible reason why teachers could not commit themselves was the fact that the very materials which they were to evaluate through classroom use were not available except in a few institutions. Therefore their

perceptions of what would be rated as problematic with the use of materials were confounded. Secondly, in the absence of reference texts and class readers for students, they found it difficult to make impressions of experiential problems students would otherwise have faced in using S.E.E. materials. In essence, those who reacted to structural, conceptual or experiential problems related to students' use of S.E.E. materials only did so from one perspective: their own teaching and use of available textbooks. Interview responses of teachers attest to the above position. A sample of some of the views of teachers ran as follows:

- * I find that some ideas expressed in the textbooks are not suited to students.
- * Generally, I would say that concepts are difficult to teach and this problem is complicated by the lack of visual aids and reference books.
- * Apart from a shortfall of textbooks, there is also the difficulty of grasping some aspects of the course related to African modes of conduct and ethnic traditions as well as religious ethics.
- * Understanding the cultural background is difficult especially in the absence of comprehensive books.

There are no reference books at all for the students and one has only got to improvise for teaching aids.

6.4 THE S.E.E. SYLLABUS AND INSTRUCTION

A total of nineteen (59.4%) of the teachers said that they follow the S.E.E. Syllabus systematically in their teaching as compared to 40.6 percent who said that they do not follow the syllabus. This latter group gave various reasons. One reason cited by virtually all the teachers was that they do not follow the syllabus systematically because of the time constraint, that the time allocated for S.E.E. in the school curriculum is inadequate to enable them to cover the content prescribed for one term, let alone for a whole school year. The Ministry of Education formally recommended two periods a week for S.E.E. during the launching of this programme. Most teachers contend that this time is not enough and needs to be doubled. In interviews with teachers, it transpired that some schools even offer only one lesson a week instead of two which were recommended by the Ministry.

A second reason commonly cited by those teachers who do not follow the S.E.E. Syllabus systematically was lack of reference materials on certain topics and units within the syllabus. Such teachers, therefore, tended to teach selectively by picking upon the content on which they had published references. In addition,

teachers also cited the organisation of the syllabus itself as presenting instructional inconveniences. For instance, some teachers pointed out that it would have made more practical sense if some units of topics like the school and the family were merged and taught under one topic. They felt that teaching such topics across school terms involved repetitiveness. The following are some of the representative views teachers expressed with regard to the organisation of the syllabus:

- * There is need for more time in order to cover the syllabus because there is spurious content that has to be compressed within the allocated time.
- * The syllabus is okay and can be easily followed, except there is too much expected within too short a time; that is only two lessons a week is not enough to cover work for one term.
- * 'Physical and Psychological development' should come early. In other words emphasis should be put on the origins and development of life before branching out into other areas.
- * I do not follow the syllabus systematically, but rather depends on which topics warrant a particular situation.

- * Some units are split and it involves teaching bits and pieces which could have been lumped together for coherence and continuity. For example, in form one, topics on the family and the school are split, and one has to keep coming back to them.
- * Some topics on the family and the school could have been introduced at the lower level starting from standard seven and eight, then when it comes to form one, topics like virtues can be covered.
- * Some topics like reproduction overlap and can be taught in Biology or Health Science instead of being taught in Social Education and Ethics.

As far as the nature of the S.E.E. Syllabus is concerned, all teachers surveyed considered its aims and objectives to be relevant, but a majority (65.6%) felt that teaching it placed extra demands on them. Besides 84.4 percent of the teachers indicated that the school attaches importance to S.E.E. and an equally similar proportion of percentage said that teaching S.E.E. required making adjustments in their teaching approaches. Table 9 below gives the details on this.

Table 9.

Regrouped Scale Responses.

ITEM	SA/A	U	D/SD
	F(%)	F(%)	F(%)
16. Seminars/workshops are useful	24(75.0)	8(25.0)	-
17. Aims and objectives are relevant	32(100)	-	-
18. Teaching places extra demands on teachers	21(65.6)	2(6.3)	9(28.1)
19. School attaches importance to S.E.E.	27(84.4)	3(9.4)	2(6.3)
20. Teaching requires adjustments in approach	27(84.4)	3(9.4)	2(6.3)
21. Possible to cover syllabus on time	14(43.8)	4(12.5)	14(43.8)
22. Instructional materials are adequate	4(12.5)	5(16.6)	23(71.9)
23. Can effectively teach S.E.E. concepts	26(81.3)	4(12.5)	2(6.3)
24. Instructional materials are sketchy	12(37.5)	12(37.5)	8(25.0)
25. Seminars attended were useful	8(25.0)	22(68.8)	2(6.3)
26. Books used are relevant to subject	26(81.3)	5(16.6)	1(3.1)

Most of the teachers who responded that teaching S.E.E. requires adjustments in their teaching approaches explained these adjustments in terms of commitment to the programme. Commitment to them involves teacher-modelling of morally and ethically acceptable behaviour by the teacher, in which case they viewed

S.E.E. as more than just an academic course, but one which involves inculcation of social norms and mores. An example of representative opinions from teachers were:

- * The teacher ought to be exemplary to the students by providing a practical example, and should also have conviction in the teaching of this subject.
- * The teacher should show a positive attitude towards the subject by setting a personal example to the students by way of interest and personal involvement.
- * Personal life of the teacher should involve some conviction that travels beyond mere academic pursuits.
- * S.E.E. requires the teacher to utilise external sources and expertise - use external speakers who are competent in various areas - and there has to be personal interest and involvement.
- * It goes beyond the classroom, the teacher has to have the interests of the students at heart, because he will be dealing with the moral development of the students.

- * One should be personally involved in what he or she teaches - that is, the teacher has to be disciplined and exemplary, and where possible have some background or training in guidance and counselling.

Incidentally, although teachers said that they have to make adjustments in their approaches to teaching S.E.E., most (81.3%) believe they can nevertheless teach the concepts stipulated in the S.E.E. syllabus. This proportion of teachers seemed to reflect those who are committed to the teaching of the programme rather than resulting from their expertise in this area.

For instance, most teachers felt that the response of the students to S.E.E. in general, and their instruction in particular, encouraged them more than anything else. Teachers comments indicate that the students are keen and enthusiastic during S.E.E. lessons, a factor that gives them a boost. This is what most teachers said about students' response in S.E.E. classes:

- * Students are active and like it very much because it exposes them to many things they didn't know in life. They are enthusiastic whenever it's time for S.E.E. and ask questions as well as giving

their points of view.

- * During S.E.E. lessons students communicate freely unlike other subjects. Students are easily provoked into discussion and find the subject interesting because it deals with issues in daily life experiences.
- * I am impressed with the students' response because I give practical examples and this has changed the attitude of students towards education. They appear keen to discuss issues.
- * Students are alert and ready to contribute to some topics, but not others where they are lacking in experience.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION OF THE FACTORS WHICH AFFECTED THE
IMPLEMENTATION OF S.E.E.

Implementation of the S.E.E. curriculum in the schools involved a lot of commitment from teachers. The process was beset by problems, foremost of which was the fact that teachers were never adequately prepared or trained for the task. Secondly, the S.E.E. curriculum itself was found by teachers to be difficult and complex to operationalise. And lastly, instructional materials in the form of textbooks, reference books, teachers' guides, readers and other resource materials were another major stumbling block to the effective implementation of S.E.E.

This chapter therefore presents teachers' perceptions of the implementation process in four different but interrelated stages. Foremost, is a presentation of the perception of the goals. This is followed by teachers' perception of the organisation and then the perception of the impact of the change on their instructional roles. Lastly, a discussion of the teachers' perception of the instructional materials is presented.

7.1 PERCEPTION OF THE GOALS

As far as S.E.E. is concerned, teachers felt that its aims and objectives, as expressed in the course outlines and syllabuses, are relevant and worthwhile. Teachers also considered this course per se to be relevant to the needs of the students in the school curriculum. For instance, apart from the fact that 100 percent of the teachers affirmed that the goals of S.E.E. were relevant, there was also a noticeable convergence of opinion on the validity of the course. Views expressed by teachers can attest to this:

- * The goals are worthwhile because they entail a student going through a situation where one has acquired the academic knowledge and necessary social skills for individual decision making.
- * They are, there is some kind of theoretical approach even if one does not practice what obtains therefrom.
- * Goals are relevant because they appertain to practical aspects of lives of students aside from its academic pursuits.
- * The aims of S.E.E. are highly relevant not only to

Kenya, but the whole world because they set about helping to make people become more conscious about their contributions to society.

Whereas most teachers seem to attach special importance to the teaching of S.E.E., they largely remain skeptical that the goals of S.E.E. can be attained within the school setting. This skepticism appears to arise from the fact that until only recently (1987), S.E.E. was a non-examinable subject in the secondary school curriculum, and therefore, according to teachers, although most students were found by teachers to be quite enthusiastic and interested in the subject, in the long run, teachers point out, S.E.E. might not be taken seriously as the students might pay increasingly more attention to examinable subjects. Even after S.E.E. was made examinable in the external national examinations, it was still an alternative to Christian Religious Education (C.R.E.) and Islamic Religious Education (I.R.E.). In other words, candidates who would wish to take S.E.E. as one of the core courses for the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Examination (K.C.S.E.), could still opt for either C.R.E. or I.R.E. It would therefore appear that students who are not good performers in S.E.E. would opt for either C.R.E. or I.R.E. But given the competitive nature of the K.C.S.E. examinations, and the fact that these examinations hold sway upon the future of students, C.R.E. would be the most likely choice for form four students because it has been taught and examined in

the external examinations since the colonial period. The examinable status of a subject in this case is important because prior to the external examination teachers and students alike often tend to gear their teaching and learning respectively, towards examination-oriented cramming in order to ensure success. Conscious of this fact teachers and students might not cherish the idea of adventure, which involves dealing with a novel subject like S.E.E. for which they cannot be able to follow the examining trends of the most recent years or indulge in pre-examination testing using examination questions of the most recent years. For the most part, teachers have often been on the receiving end when they are harangued by politicians for not making students pass especially when the examination performance is not good in one region or the other.

In essence, most teachers interviewed emphasized the fact that schools have to show more demonstrable commitment to S.E.E. by allocating to the subject more time on the timetable. In some schools, teachers said that S.E.E. is only allocated one period a week, while others indicated they have two periods for S.E.E. in a week. However, all teachers concur that even two lessons are not enough, and in order to cover the prescribed syllabus for a term and a year, the duration of two periods a week has to be increased twofold.

S.E.E. is also seen by teachers as important and unique

because it addresses issues that no other subject in the school curriculum had addressed sufficiently before. Most teachers cited issues like Social Awareness, values and positive attitudes which are inculcated through S.E.E. Furthermore, teachers also indicated that issues such as individual responsibility, social obligations to others in society, and moral-ethical virtues which are addressed by S.E.E. had never been dealt with by any other subject. The cumulative impact of teaching S.E.E., going by impressions of teachers, is that it will mould the characters of students into becoming responsible, disciplined and well-behaved people. One of the views which succinctly summarized the responses of other teachers was stated thus:

- * Social Education and Ethics is unique because it is about life experiences. In the traditional past there were dos and don'ts, but due to liberal and permissive attitudes, nowadays everything is open to question, so there should be some kind of direction for the youth. There is need for pillars of society to hold things together for some direction through the school system.

In summary, S.E.E. is seen by respondents as fulfilling the following specific needs of society. First, it proposes shaping the characters and personal experiences of students by regulating certain areas of their behaviour as people in society. Second,

it addresses unique areas like the worthwhile use of leisure and virtues of the family that have not been dealt with anywhere. Third, S.E.E. advocates inculcating desirable attitudes and social values that will help to clarify the principal aims of education in general. These perceptions of S.E.E. teachers relate only scantily to Ghubrial's (1979) findings, particularly the notion of social transformation as a goal of education. Other perceptions of teachers would seem to relate more to the discipline of the students and the idea of understanding of the self within the social nexus of the school. However, whether S.E.E., unlike in Ghubrial's study, would be a useful vehicle for dynamic development of society is questionable.

7.2 PERCEPTION OF ORGANISATION

Although it was established that 59.4 percent of the respondents follow the syllabus of S.E.E. systematically in their teaching as compared to 40.6 percent who do not, both categories of respondents expressed a need for changes to be made in the syllabus. Most changes suggested in the syllabus relate to the priority and chronology of certain topics and units.

Most of the teachers who followed the syllabus systematically were found to be trained (professional) teachers who opined that changes should be made to topics in the syllabus which deal with "the family" and "the school". They explicitly suggested that the school and the family should be taught at the

beginning of the course in order to provide a useful background for the rest of the course. Furthermore, it was suggested that units of these two topics should be merged and taught together. As it is arranged in the S.E.E. syllabus, units on the topics of the family and the school are split, so that some are taught in different terms while some are taught in form one, and others are taught in form two. This split meant that teachers of S.E.E. taught bits and pieces of the same topic which, they pointed out, was not good for continuity and coherence.

A second suggested change had to do with some topics and units overlapping with those taught in other subjects. For instance, specific cases pointed out by most trained teachers were twofold. They felt that topics on religious ethics could be covered in C.R.E. and therefore it might be useful for it to be deleted from S.E.E. altogether. In addition, topics on individual growth, development and human reproduction are covered in both the secondary school Biology and Health Science syllabuses, and therefore, teaching such topics again in S.E.E. involves unwarranted repetitiveness, particularly if it is the same teacher instructing the two or three subjects in which the topics are prescribed. Some typical examples of representative suggestions by teachers were:

- * In the Social Education and Ethics syllabus some areas on the topics like the development of the

individual should be removed because they are covered in Biology particularly sections starting from adolescence.

- * I find the form one syllabus okay, but some topics like 'the school' are repeated in forms one and two. These two could be covered exclusively in one class for better understanding.
- * Some topics in the syllabus should have come first before the others, for example, in form one the family should come first before issues like starvation.

A majority of those who do not follow the syllabus systematically were found to be teachers who had not yet received any professional training. What transpired from interviews with teachers in this category is that they tended to pick upon and teach those topics and units in the syllabus that they were more familiar with, while sidelining those they did not know well enough. To a great extent, the selection of what was taught and skipped depended on the available references in the form of textbooks which these teachers had. Another general complaint and/or reason why teachers in this category never followed the syllabus systematically was that the topics and units are not elaborate enough and do not define the extent to which a teacher

in the classroom should go. This meant that the syllabus does not specify the depth and scope of content which should be covered, two illustrative comments of teachers who hold this position are as follows:

- * I think that some areas of the Social Education and Ethics syllabus require more than what is contained in the syllabus, and thus require more time than is prescribed.
- * The syllabus is sketchy and needs to be more elaborate in order to indicate in most areas the limits to which a teacher can go.

Collectively both categories of teachers complained of lack of adequate time and resource materials for S.E.E. For the time factor, teachers felt that they were constrained by limited time of only one or two periods in a week for S.E.E., which would not suffice to cover work prescribed for one term, let alone covering work for a whole school year. In this regard teachers in fact had no power to determine how much time a subject like S.E.E. should be allocated, the decision on this being purely an administrative matter determined by the Ministry of Education. But the anomaly whereby some schools have one period while others have two periods in a week for S.E.E., whereas the Ministry initially recommended two, seems to have been occasioned by the

headteachers in the schools concerned. However, the fact that teachers of S.E.E. emphasized the constraint of time factor, gave the impression that, with more time allocated to S.E.E. lessons, then they could complete the prescribed content on schedule. As a corollary to this aspect of the time factor, it might also do well to mention, as a relatively small number of teachers did, the factor that cooperative or team-teaching of S.E.E. could alleviate the problem of the inability by one teacher to complete the syllabus on time. But team-teaching must be seen in the context of the feasibility and nature of the staffing of personnel at the school level. At the moment, there is an ever increasing demand for more personnel at secondary school level, even in more established academic subjects than S.E.E., that have not been met by the Ministry of Education and its employment agency, the Teachers' Service Commission (T.S.C.). This explains why many teachers without professional training are deployed in our school system. One complaint which apparently summarizes this situation was expressed as:

- * It is actually quite difficult to be able to complete the Social Education and Ethics syllabus because we lack a lot of facilities and the time factor - only two periods a week are not enough, and hence there is need for more time to be allocated and perhaps employ teamwork teaching.

To summarise, these teachers perceived the organisation of the S.E.E. curriculum to have had certain impediments to meaningful instruction. First, the syllabus requires some changes in terms of priority so that some topics are taught first in lower classes before others. Second, some topics which overlap with similar topics in other subjects should be deleted as they involve unnecessary repetitiveness. Third, the syllabus cannot be completed on schedule unless more time is allocated for S.E.E. and adequate resource materials are made available to teachers. These perceptions of S.E.E. teachers have a direct bearing on Fullan's (1982) work concerning the nature of how the curriculum of a programme would determine its own implementation. Clearly, and inkeeping with Fullan's study, teachers found the S.E.E. course curriculum complex for them to operationalise in the classroom and thought that it was also lacking in clarity.

7.3 PERCEPTION OF IMPACT ON TEACHERS' ROLES

Since S.E.E. was a new subject which had never been taught in secondary schools before, 84.4 percent of the teachers indicated that teaching it required making adjustments in their pedagogical approaches. Adjustments here would not so much refer to an alteration in the teaching strategies that had been hitherto used, but rather that teaching S.E.E. requires more preparation on the part of teachers. Most teachers explained the adjustments in terms of coping with change whereby they teach a new subject which enunciates a new approach of looking at social

phenomena, but which is complex by virtue of the fact that there are no useful resource materials for it, while, at the same time, teachers themselves are not clear what the new programme involves. What compounds the lack of clarity about the teaching of S.E.E. and therefore makes the subject complex for teachers lies in the fact that they were not trained or prepared for this change.

Teachers indicated that unlike other, more established subjects in the school curriculum, S.E.E. has no teachers' guides or workbooks which often assist them in preparing schemes of work and subsequent lesson plans. A corollary to this problem of adjustments has to do with a shortage of textbooks as reference material for teachers. In a situation where successful teaching is tied to the success of students in external examinations, teachers have tended to prize the textbook method of teaching. Textbooks, then, are seen by teachers not only as a valuable component of their instruction, but also as an indispensable asset which provides the necessary factual information which they are supposed to inculcate in their instructional roles. This central role which textbooks play explains why teachers, when asked what could be done to remedy the situation, readily suggested that they needed comprehensive books to be supplied from K.I.E. Teachers had this to say:

* There is need for textbooks which comprehensively

address the content of Social Education and Ethics and perhaps some visual and audio-visual aids so that students can practically visualise what they are taught.

- * It would be important to have seminars which can familiarise teachers with the problems encountered in teaching Social Education and Ethics and also up to date books and reference materials. Teachers also need to be tutored on the types of aids so that they can improvise some and others be provided by the school.
- * The Ministry should set up a panel of experts to write out books which are comprehensive enough for the subject and develop appropriate teaching aids.
- * Through the school, the Kenya Institute of Education should supply the needed books and teaching aids. Social Education and Ethics should also be assigned to older and more experienced teachers.

Other limiting factors as far as instructional roles of teachers are concerned were perceived to be the multifarious nature of the S.E.E. content. The content, according to

teachers, required wide exposure to different fields and practical experiences which they felt they did not have. To use the words of one teacher, to be a successful instructor of S.E.E. one needs to be "a jack of all trades". Apart from a sound understanding of the content of S.E.E., teachers also indicated that an understanding of the cultural backgrounds of students was crucial. Certain ethical and moral aspects of S.E.E. are supposed to be expounded with an awareness of the learners' cultural practices and if a teacher lacks it, then it becomes equally problematic. One sentiment which precisely summed up the attitudes of most teachers was:

- * Personally, I think that effective teaching of Social Education and Ethics requires that a teacher should have some knowledge of African traditions, an understanding of theological, social and psychological aspects as well as the philosophical aspects which related to universal and student cultures.

More resourceful teachers, however, indicated that they tried to circumvent these problems by improvising their own materials and occasionally made use of the services of guest tutors or speakers whom they invited from the professions to help out in certain areas. Some teachers also used collegial support from amongst the members of staff. For instance an S.E.E.

teacher could invite a fellow colleague to instruct for him/her a lesson related to an S.E.E. area on which he/she did not have adequate personal knowledge and experience. Alternatively in teaching an area on religious ethics, some S.E.E. teachers invited clergymen from the vicinity of the schools to give a talk to the students. And a couple of teachers said they used their knowledge of theatre arts to improvise mimes and other theatrics in order to enliven the practical situations of some of the theoretical things they teach in the absence of audio-visual aids.

In summary, teachers of S.E.E. perceived their instructional roles as problematic because of complex and diverse content of the subject. Essentially, they saw themselves as having lacked the necessary preparation and exposure to the challenges which they faced in the instruction of S.E.E. and this was compound by a shortage of useful resource materials. The fact that teachers perceived their instructional roles to be problematic due to lack of training in preparation for the launching of S.E.E., corroborates the findings of McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) that in-service preparation enables teachers to develop personal understanding of the mainstream ideas with practical learning on the job.

7.4 PERCEPTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Instructional materials for S.E.E. were perceived by teachers to be inadequate and sketchy. In some (15.6%) instances, teachers indicated that they had never been supplied with any instructional materials. In virtually all schools surveyed, teachers never used any audio-visual aids.

Textbooks were just about the only instructional material upon which S.E.E. teachers relied. Even for those teachers who mainly used textbooks for their instruction, there was a noticeable lack of variety. For instance out of 56.3 percent of the teachers who used textbooks, 34.4 percent used only one title of a textbook compared to 25.0 who used two titles, 18.8 percent who used three titles and 3.1 percent who used four titles. Although teachers accepted that the books used were relevant to S.E.E., they felt that they were sketchy in so far as they do not explore the actual depths and scope of concepts in S.E.E. Explicated further, this meant that the available books, according to teachers, do not contain adequate factual information on various topics and units which are enunciated in the S.E.E. syllabus.

As to how this problem can be remedied, teachers were under the impression that experts at the Ministry of Education and K.I.E. could write "more comprehensive" books and also devise instructional materials which could then be distributed to the

schools. Because of the pressure to prepare students for external examinations starting from 1989 in spite of the newness of the subject and, therefore, lack of established status in schools for S.E.E., some teachers even suggested that in addition to the necessity for them to be provided with teachers' guides in the subject, sample questions could also be worked out the same way by the experts and made available to schools. Such questions, the teachers contended, could form a useful basis of evaluation. This indicated that teachers appear to be unsure of the precise nature of evaluation which they ought to employ in S.E.E. classes. Specific reference to sample questions being supplied to S.E.E. has two dimensions. The first dimension relates to the fact that, in the absence of professional training as a prerequisite to the implementation of the S.E.E. syllabus, teachers have no clearcut evaluation skills in the subject which they can usefully employ in monitoring or assessing their own teaching independently. The second dimension of sample questions projects to the fore the assumption that characterises teaching primarily as a means of supplying factual knowledge geared towards success in external examinations. In this latter case, S.E.E. teachers, like their counterparts in other subjects do not want to share the blame of being seen as producing examination failures in their subject. Thus, the greater the need for comprehensive textbooks and sample questions.

A majority of the schools in which teachers indicated that

the textbooks were unavailable were mixed day schools with less than 400 students. Most of these schools are either Harambee schools which are managed through communal financial contributions or run by individuals who are private entrepreneurial managers. These institutions had a discernibly high proportion of professionally untrained teachers who had predominantly "A" level or lower academic qualifications.

Furthermore, teachers were not able to make any effective assessment nor offer any critical comment on the structural and conceptual problems in relation to students' experience. Behind this facade of silence lies the explanation that in the absence of reference books and class readers for students, it becomes understandably difficult for teachers to make any valid assessments.

Each of these reactions of S.E.E. teachers to interview questions constitute an important element of the problematic areas of the implementation of the S.E.E. curriculum and can, therefore, provide a useful summary to this chapter.

- * The time allocated to S.E.E. of only two lessons is not enough and so there is need for more time given the fact that it is a complex area, in addition to the problem of lack of textbooks and teaching aids.

- * We have a problem of teaching aids and the subject itself involves thorough preparation on the part of the teacher in terms of sociological and psychological preparedness plus textbooks.
- * Planning of lessons is difficult especially as it is a new subject and lack of reference materials as well as teaching aids.
- * Concepts are difficult to teach. There are no visual aids and no reference material for the students.
- * Being a new subject, there is lack of experience on the part of the teacher and it is difficult to handle some areas of the syllabus because you cannot refer anywhere.

Problems encountered by S.E.E. teachers with the use of instructional materials as expressed in these views validate the findings of Taylor (1970). Taylor's study found that the availability of adequate resource materials and teaching aids determine the success of implementing a curriculum. Explicitly, S.E.E. teachers indicate that such materials were inadequate and aids were lacking. Definitely these materials, then, hampered

the effective implementation of the S.E.E. programme.

CHAPTER 8

IMPLICATIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter contains the implications, conclusions and recommendations arising from the findings of this study. Three factors are discussed under implications. These factors which include teacher preparation, resource materials and teacher involvement in the curriculum implementation effort, emanate from inferences related to the findings of the study. Conclusions provide a general and precise summary of the intent of the study and the main findings obtaining therefrom. Lastly, six recommendations are made which have a bearing upon emerging issues in this study, and, above all, a suggestion for further research is also included in this chapter.

8.1 IMPLICATIONS

School improvement efforts have to be seen in the context of the educational system as it exists in each country (Bolan, 1983). This observation is quite realistic especially in the context of curriculum implementation in most third world countries. For instance, most published research which comes from the United States reflects the values and conditions of the political and socio-economic context in which it was produced, and a similar situation may not necessarily apply to third world countries.

Generally, the United States, Canada and Australia have

decentralized educational systems. In these countries, the states or provinces (whichever is applicable) have responsibility over education, although the federal governments provide financial subsidies to complement regional efforts. In Kenya, the educational system is centralized and curriculum change or innovation is initiated by agents at the centre. Teachers at the base level of the educational system perceive change through the top-down hierarchical structure. Commenting on the situation in centralized educational structures, Bolam (1983), observed that

Certainly the introduction of centralized curriculum innovations ought, in principle, to present distinctive dissemination problems. For example, the individual teacher is merely required to understand the new requirements and then acquire the necessary implementation skills. He or she is not required to exercise professional judgement about the desirability and usefulness or otherwise of the centrally developed curriculum package. (p. 57)

Implementation of a completely new curriculum, as was the case of S.E.E. in the Kenyan secondary school system, was viewed from the teachers' perspective. This is because teachers provide the most vital link between the aspirations of the developers of the S.E.E. curriculum, the goals of the subject itself, and the actual teaching/learning situation in the classroom. Through this avenue, therefore, it was possible to establish the problems engendered in operationalising the curriculum through the investigation of the teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation and instructional materials of the S.E.E. secondary

school 8-4-4 programme in Kenya.

From this study, a number of implications can be inferred. Firstly, teachers of S.E.E. never received any training in preparation for the change engendered in operationalising the curriculum from the drawing board to the classroom. They were not therefore attuned to the anticipated change in terms of new instructional roles, strategies and attitudes which were to be commensurate with the challenges of the new subject. Instead, teachers were just assigned to teach the new subject regardless of their academic background, interest or motivation. In this context the course-focused (Henderson, 1979) approach of inservicing teachers would have been useful for S.E.E. teachers. This approach would have provided a focus on the content of the subject and the instructional roles to be adopted by the teachers. In addition Lortie's (1975) postulate of learning while doing and mediated entry would have been significant for S.E.E. teachers. Significance would be derived from the fact that, if properly conceived and executed through a supervisory and well coordinated system, teachers are exposed to the basic skills that would have enabled them to deal with the challenges involved in teaching this course.

Secondly, a shortage of instructional facilities hampered the implementation of S.E.E. It would appear that the anticipation and timing of this change was not properly conceived

and executed. The fact that curriculum packages and other vital resource materials, which are technically indispensable in an externally initiated change, were noticeably inadequate and lacking means that this change was not feasibly monitored and evenly spread within the educational system. Unlike what studies like those of Fullan (1982) on curriculum implementation have demonstrated, no discernible changes took place in relation to materials, teaching approaches and teachers' beliefs in S.E.E. Such changes, ideally, should have constituted prior and necessary preconditions for the implementation of this new curriculum. Furthermore, this also underlines the fact that the S.E.E., in its pre-implementation stages, was not properly piloted and its materials validated by teachers prior to the launching of the subject in the schools.

Thirdly, there was a noticeable lack of involvement of teachers in the change effort. For instance, teachers were never involved in the selection, analysis and validation of instructional materials which eventually they were bound to use. This means that there was an absence of negotiation for change between the developers of the S.E.E. curriculum, on the one hand, and teachers, on the other hand. Lack of negotiation bespeaks of a major flaw in the organisation for the change that was desired by the introduction of S.E.E., because, the result of sidelining teachers in the change process was that no meaningful feedback from them was or could be provided to the curriculum developers

in these formative stages. This situation not only demoralizes teachers because they perceive change as having been imposed on them, but also creates and consolidates notions in teachers that solutions to their instructional problems lie outside the classroom: with the expert curriculum developers at the headquarters.

Given the fact that organisation for change involving elements which Fullan (1982) identified to include previous teacher training and teacher input, the S.E.E. programme should have involved teachers more actively at the in-service (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978; Stallings, 1979 and Emrick, 1980) stages in disseminating and discussing the new curriculum. This would have had the advantage of making the curriculum itself appear less complex to teachers and therefore more manageable for them to translate it into instruction.

8.2 FURTHER RESEARCH

Although the 8-4-4 system of education, perhaps, has yet to make its impact on Kenyan society in general, this study on S.E.E. has identified significant elements of the curriculum implementation process that might have been taken for granted. Therefore in the light of the problems which beset the effective implementation of S.E.E., it is suggested that further research could be carried in the following areas:

- (a) Research in the administration of educational

change in the 8-4-4 system in Kenya would be necessary in order to arrive at an understanding of the priorities and problems involved.

- (b) It is also suggested that it would be useful if there were a study of the effects of preparing students for external examinations by teachers on their instructional roles and strategies.

8.3 CONCLUSIONS

This study set out to investigate teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation, and instructional materials in Social Education and Ethics in the 8-4-4 educational system in Kenya, in order to identify the problems of implementation which teachers may have encountered. A number of conclusions concerning teachers perceptions, therefore can be drawn from the study.

The goals of Social Education and Ethics were perceived to be relevant and worthwhile. However, it was found that these goals, according to teachers, cannot be achieved within the school setting unless there is more demonstrable seriousness and commitment on the part of the schools towards S.E.E. The examination status of S.E.E. was also seen as an important factor that would determine the attitudes of the students towards the subject.

The organisation of the S.E.E. syllabus was perceived as

requiring changes that would involve prioritizing some topics and units over others within the instructional sequence and pace. Such changes were considered to be necessary in streamlining instruction in order to achieve more coherence and continuity. Teachers also felt that the syllabus needs to be more elaborative in its description of content so that they are precisely aware of what to include in planning their lessons as well as what to exclude. It was found that teachers were constrained by the limited time provided for S.E.E. in the schools; and therefore there was an urgent need for more time to be allocated to the subject in the form of periods of instruction per week.

Teaching of S.E.E. was perceived by teachers to be difficult, challenging and complex. This resulted from the fact that they were not prepared for the new instructional roles expected of them. The most challenging areas cited in this regard were those areas of lesson development and the fact that S.E.E. concepts are not clearly understandable to teachers. Teachers also acknowledged that S.E.E. required practical knowledge of a wide range of issues in the social sciences and experience which most of them did not have.

A serious shortage of instructional materials was complained of by virtually all teachers. And complaints by teachers were strongly indicative of the fact that even the materials available, mainly a few textbooks, were sketchy. Need therefore

was expressed for the supply of comprehensive and appropriate materials from the relevant sources within the educational system.

8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Having submitted the main conclusions of this study, it is necessary to make certain recommendations that would help to alleviate some of the most problematic areas of the implementation of the S.E.E. curriculum. This study, therefore, makes the following recommendations:

(i) IN-SERVICE PROGRAMMES

Comprehensive in-service would not only be desirable for all S.E.E. and would-be S.E.E. teachers, but they would be indispensable. These programmes would be useful in a number of ways. Firstly, they would expose teachers to a wide spectrum of issues related to the content background of the subject and its pedagogical approaches to instruction. Secondly, such programmes would also equip teachers with the necessary skills and expose them to probable challenges they may face in instructional situations. And lastly, in-servicing teachers helps to instil in them a psychological preparedness for the tasks ahead as well as a sense of professional commitment to the subject they are expected to teach.

(ii) SEMINARS

These could be organised on a periodic and rotational basis especially during the time when schools are on recess. Ideally, seminars would be useful fora of bringing together curriculum developers from the Ministry of Education, K.I.E., and classroom teachers of S.E.E. in order to share ideas on the problems and challenges in the field. Such occasions would also be used to get feedback from the teachers in terms of the progress teachers would be making in the field. This type of face to face communication would also enable the curriculum developers to monitor implementation situations much more realistically and closely. This would help them to make vital adjustments in future planning rather than merely operating from the legendary 'ivory towers'.

(iii) RESOURCE MATERIALS

This is one of the most crucial areas that may spell a death knell for the S.E.E. programme. Resource materials including textbooks, reference books, class readers, visual and audio-visual as well as teachers' guides and workbooks should be devised. Such materials, if they are clearly understandable to the users (teachers), would go a long way in helping them draw up elaborate schemes of work and lesson plans. The presupposition here is that during in-service programmes and seminars, the operational technicalities of such materials would have been explicitly demonstrated to teachers.

(iv) TIME ALLOCATION FOR S.E.E.

There is need for the Ministry of Education through its supervisory agencies in consultation with relevant school administrators to rethink the time allocated for S.E.E. on the schools' timetables. The current one or two periods a week allocated for S.E.E. does not enable teachers to complete the prescribed content in the syllabuses on time. It is therefore, necessary to increase the time of two periods a week twofold.

(v) STATUS OF S.E.E. IN EXAMINATIONS

Previously, when S.E.E. was not examinable in the national K.C.S.E. examinations, teachers and students alike never took it seriously. It was seen as being inconsequential. Although it was later made examinable, it was nevertheless an alternative to C.R.E. and I.R.E. The latter are more established subjects in the school curriculum and there is therefore a tendency for students, eager for success in external examinations, to opt for them rather than S.E.E. In order to forestall this trend, while recognising the importance of S.E.E., the latter should be made an examinable subject in its own right.

(vi) TEAM-TEACHING

Inspite of manpower constraints within the Kenyan secondary school system, there is a recognisable need to utilize the available manpower expediently for team-teaching in respect of

S.E.E. Social Education and Ethics is more or less an interdisciplinary subject, and since teachers in the field never took any form schooling or training in it, team-teaching can help to ease hardships placed on one teacher. This will entail cooperative teaching from resourceful teachers who are knowledgeable in various content aspects of the course in order to do a nice job.

In sum, this study set out to investigate teachers' perceptions of the goals, organisation, and instructional materials in Social Education and Ethics in the 8-4-4 Educational System in Kenya. It was established that teachers perceive the goals of S.E.E. to be realistic and relevant to the nature of the subject. Teachers were also found to favour a restructured S.E.E. syllabus and instructional materials were considered to be inadequate, sketchy and in some instances completely lacking. Generally teachers felt they were not well prepared to effectively teach S.E.E. Therefore the implementation of the S.E.E. curriculum in the schools involved a lot of commitment on the part of teachers in spite of the problems they encountered.

APPENDIX A(i) QUESTIONNAIRE

Please check (✓) whichever is applicable.

1. Gender: Male _____
 Female _____
2. To which age range do you belong?
20 - 30 () 31 - 40 () 41 - 50 () Over 50 ()
3. Your academic qualifications:
B.Ed. () B.Sc./B.A. () M.A./M.Ed. () 'A' Level ()
4. Your professional qualifications:
Graduate trained () Graduate untrained ()
Appt./Teacher Status () S.I. ()
'A' Level untrained () Dip. Ed () Other ()
5. You teach Social Education and Ethics in:
Form 1 () Form 2 () Form 3 () Form 4 ()
6. Indicate your major subjects studied:
(i) _____ (ii) _____ (iii) _____

7. How many years have you been teaching? _____

8. (a) Which other subjects do you teach besides Social Education and Ethics?

(i) _____ (ii) _____

8. (b) In which of the following sex, size and type of school do you teach? Check (✓)

Size	General Secondary			Technical			Special		
	Boys	Girls	Mixed	Boys	Girls	Mixed	Boys	Girls	Mixed
Over 1000 Students									
600 - 1000 Students									
400 - 600 Students									
Under 400 Students									

9. (a) Have you attended any seminars or workshops on Social Education and Ethics? _____

(Yes or No)

9. (b) If yes, indicate approximate dates and themes of the workshops or seminars:

Approximate

Date

Theme

Check (✓) which is applicable to you.

10. The instructional materials I use for teaching Social Education and Ethics are:

Books () Visual aids () Audio-Visual aids ()
 Diagrams () Charts () Other (specify) _____

11. The instructional material I use in (10) are:

Self-designed () Supplied by school ()
 Supplied by K.I.E. () Other (specify) _____

12. Amongst the materials you have indicated, list any titles of books which you commonly use with students in the classroom.

13. How do you find out whether new Social Education and Ethics materials have come into the school? Check (✓)

Through circular () Book displays ()

From headmaster () Releases from commercial companies ()

Other teachers () Salesmen ()

14. What instructional problems do you encounter with the use of these instructional materials?

15. (a) Do you follow the prescribed Social Education and Ethics Syllabus Systematically in your teaching of the subject?

(Yes or No)

15. (b) If No, elaborate why?

Circle the one category which best describes your agreement with each statement. 1 = Strongly agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = disagree, 5 = Strongly disagree.

16. The seminars or workshops organised for Social Education and Ethics teachers are useful.

1 2 3 4 5

17. Social Education and Ethics has aims and objectives which are relevant to the needs of students.

1 2 3 4 5

18. The teaching of Social Education and Ethics places extra demands on the teacher.

1 2 3 4 5

19. The school attaches special importance to the teaching of Social Education and Ethics.

1 2 3 4 5

20. Teaching Social Education and Ethics requires making adjustments in my approaches to the teaching of the subject in the classroom.

1 2 3 4 5

21. It is possible to cover the Social Education and Ethics Syllabus within the prescribed time frame.

1 2 3 4 5

22. Instructional materials used in teaching Social Education and Ethics are adequate.

1 2 3 4 5

23. I can effectively teach the concepts stipulated in the Social Education and Ethics Syllabus.

1 2 3 4 5

24. The instructional materials used in teaching Social Education and Ethics are sketchy.

1 2 3 4 5

25. The seminars and/or workshops I attended in relation to the teaching of Social Education and Ethics are useful.

1 2 3 4 5

26. The books I use for Social Education and Ethics with students in the classroom are relevant to the nature of the subject.

1 2 3 4 5

27. What instructional problems do you encounter with the use of these instructional materials, in relation to structure? Comment appropriately.

- (i) Reading level _____

- (ii) Conceptual level _____

- (iii) Relation to students' experience _____

- (iv) Other (specify) _____

(ii) INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. (a) What problems have you encountered in teaching Social Education and Ethics?

(b) What, in your view, can be done to overcome these problems?

(c) What do you regard to be successful as far as your teaching of Social Education and Ethics is concerned?
2. What do you expect a successful Social Education and Ethics teacher to do in order to cope with the requirements of the

subject?

3. Do you think the goals of Social Education and Ethics are attainable within the school setting?
4. What do you regard to be the major strengths of this subject?
5. What recommendation would you make about the lay-out of the syllabus?
6. What suggestion do you have for the procurement and use of instructional materials?
7. What type of preparation do you think Social Education and Ethics teachers require in future?
8. Are Social Education and Ethics goals worthwhile in your view?
9. Given a chance what improvements would you make in relation to content of the subject?
10. Do you find some units and topics of the syllabus better than others?
11. How do your students respond to your teaching of Social

Education and Ethics?

(iii) LETTER SOLICITING PARTICIPATION

Asman Makokha

Education Building, Room 258

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a graduate student in the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba. In order to complete my masters programme I have to undertake a study and submit a thesis. My study will involve teachers of Social Education and Ethics responding to a questionnaire and a brief interview session. Your school has been selected as part of the sample for this study. I am therefore writing to give you time to consider whether or not you might be willing to take part in this study. If you agree to take part, your anonymity is guaranteed and any information you give will only be used for the purposes of this study. Your agreement to take part is voluntary, and if you wish, you are also free to withdraw from the study at any time.

Thanking you in advance.

I have read this letter, I understand the procedure to be followed, and I consent to participate in this study.

Date

Signature of participant.

Mr. Asman Makokha,

P.O. Box 78598,

NAIROBI.

DATE: _____

The H/M,

THROUGH

The Directorate of Personnel Management,

General Training Fund (G T F),

Office of the President,

NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RESEARCH IN SOCIAL EDUCATION AND ETHICS.

I am writing to request you to pass on the enclosed questionnaire to your teacher who is in charge of "Social Education and Ethics." Thanking you in advance for your co-operation.

Yours truly,

Asman Makokha.

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Mr. Asman Makokha,
P.O. Box 78598,
NAIROBI.

DATE: _____

Dear Subject Teacher,

RE: RESEARCH IN SOCIAL EDUCATION AND ETHICS.

Kindly respond to the items in this questionnaire. I would also like to indicate to you that I am due to collect the questionnaire in person on _____ and if possible have an oral interview with you on the same day.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

Yours truly,

Asman Makokha.

(iv) BUDGET

(In Kenyan Currency)

(a) Transport for visiting schools	Kshs.	10,000.00
(b) Purchase of cassette recorder	Kshs.	4,000.00
(c) Purchase of calculator	Kshs.	600.00
(d) Purchase of blank cassettes	Kshs.	500.00
(e) Stationery	Kshs.	600.00
(f) Cost of mailing questionnaires	Kshs.	200.00
(g) Subsistence allowance	Kshs.	15,000.00
(h) Services of a Research Assistant	Kshs.	2,000.00
(i) Miscellaneous	Kshs.	<u>1,000.00</u>
GRAND TOTAL -	KSHS.	<u>=====<u>33,900.00</u>=====</u>

(v) TIME-TABLE

- (i) May to June - 1987 - Library search and review of literature at Kenyatta and Nairobi Universities in Nairobi.
- (ii) July 1987 - Mailing the first draft of the proposal to Prof. John W. Seymour to Winnipeg, Canada.
- (iii) September 1987 - Second draft of the proposal presented to members of the advisory committee, department of C.H.S.S. - University of Manitoba.
- (iiia) Submit study to the Ethics and Research Committee
- (iv) December 1987 - Mailing out questionnaires to respective schools.
- (v) January to March - 1988 - Carrying out research amongst selected schools in Western and Rift Valley, Kenya.
- (vi) April - May 1988 - Writing out first draft and presentation to the advisory committee by end of May.

APPENDIX B

The following are elaborate objectives and content of S.E.E. for K.C.S.E. examinations released by the Kenya National Examinations Council (1988).

(I) GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF SOCIAL EDUCATION AND ETHICS

Social Education and Ethics course should help the learner to:

- (a) develop a harmonious ethical/moral relationship between himself and the home, the school, the neighborhood, Kenya and other nations.
- (b) appreciate the necessity and dignity of moral education in Kenya and other societies
- (c) base his decision on sound ethical principles as an integral part of his personality development
- (d) develop a rational attitude and outlook towards life
- (e) acquire, appreciate and commit himself to universal values and virtues that cement unity and understanding among the various ethnic communities in Kenya
- (f) rationally sort out conflicts arising from the traditional, extraneous and inner directed moral values
- (g) understand and appreciate the social fulfillment and moral rewards accruing from cultivating and adopting virtues and values offered by moral/ethical education.

(II) CONTENT

1.0 THE FAMILY

1.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define a family;
- (b) explain and appreciate the importance of a family;
- (c) explain and appreciate the roles, basic rights and obligations of different members of a family;
- (d) explain and appreciate different types of families;
- (e) identify common conflicts that arise among different members of the family.

1.11 Definition of a family.

1.12 Members of a family.

1.13 Types of families

- * Nuclear
- * Polygamous
- * Extended
- * Single-parent families

1.14 Roles, rights and obligations of different members of the family in the:

- (a) traditional society
- (b) modern society.

1.15 Rights, obligations and conflicts arising from the following relationships:

Parents - Children

Children - Parents

Family - Friends

Friends - Family

1.16 The family as a basic unit of society.

2.0 HUMAN VIRTUES RELATED TO THE FAMILY

2.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define a virtue;
- (b) identify and appreciate virtues which promote the dignity of the individual members of the family;
- (c) explain and appreciate the importance of developing virtues related to family life;
- (d) understand and appreciate the importance of the struggle to bring to an end vices related to family life;
- (e) develop virtues which foster openness to other families.

2.11 Definition of a virtue

2.12 Love

(a) Dimensions of love in the family:

- * Parental love
- * Filial love
- * Fraternal love

(b) Virtues related to love:

- * Sympathy
- * Generosity
- * Understanding
- * Mutual helpfulness

2.13 Obedience

Virtues related to obedience

- * Respect
- * Honesty
- * Trust
- * Humility
- * Loyalty

3.0 PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) explain and appreciate the physical and psychological changes that take place in a person from conception to adulthood;
- (b) identify and appreciate factors that influence human growth and development.

3.11 Common characteristics at different stages of physical and psychological development:

- * Conception to six years
- * Seven years to the beginning of adolescence
- * Adolescence
- * Adulthood

* Old age

3.12 Inherent potentials and problems at different stages of physical and psychological development.

3.13 Common factors that influence physical and psychological growth and development:

- * Hereditary factors
- * Physical and environmental factors
- * Social and cultural factors

4.0 PERSONAL HEALTH

4.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define physical, mental and social health;
- (b) understand and appreciate the moral responsibilities in promoting and maintaining his and environment cleanliness.

4.11 Definition of:

- * Physical health
- * Mental health
- * Social health

4.12 Ways and means of improving and maintaining physical, mental and social health.

4.13 The moral responsibility in, and social importance of:

(a) Preventing communicable and other diseases

* Small pox

* Measles

* Mumps

* Ring worms

* Cholera

* Sexually transmitted diseases

(b) Keeping the environment clean.

4.14 Human virtues which enhance the physical, mental and social health.

* Temperature

* Modesty

5.0 FAMILY NEEDS AND RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

5.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

(a) identify and appreciate the importance of human needs in the context of the family;

(b) identify the social, physical and psychological needs of special persons in the family;

(c) identify and appreciate ways and means of acquiring family resources;

(d) explain and appreciate the importance of preserving and

sharing family resources.

5.11 Basic family needs

5.12 Physical, psychological and social needs of special persons in the family;

- * The sick
- * The expectant mother
- * The aged
- * The orphan

5.13 Roles of family members in satisfying family needs.

5.14 Ways and means of acquiring family resources; work as a resource of satisfying family needs.

5.15 The importance of preserving and sharing family resources.

5.16 The family size and family resources.

6.0 THE SCHOOL

6.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define a school;
- (b) identify and appreciate the roles played by different

members of the school community and explain their independence;

- (c) identify, appreciate and make good use of the available facilities in the school;
- (d) identify and appreciate the relationship with, and influence of the wider community on the school;
- (e) identify and appreciate the importance of co-curricular activities and participate in some of them.

6.11 Definition of a school as:

- * an institution
- * a community.

6.12 The history and motto of the school (discuss the history, the traditions and motto of your school).

6.13 The value and good use of school and school facilities:

- * Value of school subjects
- * Value of good study habits
- * Appropriate subject and career choice
- * Value of physical amenities

6.14 The school community:

- * Parents
- * Teachers
- * Students

- * Administration staff

6.15 Relationship with, and influence of the wider community:

- * The school and parents
- * The catchment area and the school
- * The school and the neighbourhood
- * The students and peer groups outside the school.

6.16 School activities which promote inter-school relations:

- * Sports
- * Games
- * Clubs
- * Societies

6.17 Virtues which strengthen inter-school relations:

- * Friendship
- * Sociability
- * Optimism
- * Order and discipline

7.0 HUMAN DIGNITY

7.1 Special Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define and analyse human nature;
- (b) explain and appreciate the importance of dignity of the

human person from conception to death;

- (c) analyse the successes and setbacks in contemporary society which promote or undermine human dignity and identify ways and means of coping with them;
- (d) appreciate and respect other members of the community;
- (e) identify and appreciate special traits of man and woman.

7.11 Importance and dignity of the human person from conception to death.

7.12 Basic human rights.

7.13 Successes and setbacks in contemporary society which promote or undermine human dignity.

7.14 Ways and means of coping with successes and setbacks which promote or undermine human dignity in the contemporary society.

7.15 Care of people with special needs:

- * The handicapped
- * The orphan
- * The aged
- * The sick.

7.16 Special traits of man and woman.

8.0 PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOUR

8.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define personality and behaviour;
- (b) distinguish between self and self-concept;
- (c) identify and appreciate the different stages of moral growth up to adolescence;
- (d) explain the external forces and their consequent positive and negative influence on behaviour;
- (e) identify forces that promote or hinder self-identify;
- (f) understand and appreciate the moral responsibility of his behaviour;
- (g) define a deviant;
- (h) identify different types of deviants in the society;
- (i) explain how one would show understanding, tolerance, assistance to, and care for the deviants;
- (j) explain some ways of reducing deviant behaviour in the community.

8.11 Definition of personality and behaviour.

8.12 Self and self-concept.

8.13 Different stages of moral growth up to adolescence.

8.14 Factors that influence personality.

8.15 Factors that promote or hinder self-identity:

- * Affection
- * Appreciation
- * The peer group
- * Authoritarianism
- * Fanaticism
- * Democracy

8.16 Moral responsibility to personal behaviour

8.17 Meaning and types of deviants

8.18 Causes of deviant behaviour:

- * Some child rearing practices
- * Peer influence
- * Disparities between societal expectations and individual ability.

8.19 Ways and means of preventing and correcting deviant behaviour.

9.0 DIGNITY OF WORK

9.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define work;
- (b) identify and explain the value of work;
- (c) identify and appreciate different types of work;
- (d) explain and appreciate the importance of personal responsibility to work;
- (e) explain and appreciate the need to develop and exercise self-discipline and other virtues in work.

9.11 Definition of work

9.12 Reasons for work

9.13 Types of work

9.14 Importance of all types of work

9.15 Personal responsibility to work

9.16 The need to develop and exercise virtues in work:

- * Self-discipline
- * Diligence
- * Perseverance
- * Industriousness

10.0 LEISURE

10.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define leisure;
- (b) explain the importance of leisure;
- (c) describe and evaluate various forms of leisure;
- (d) identify and define ways in which leisure can be used and misused.

10.11 Definition of leisure

10.12 Importance of leisure

10.13 Forms of leisure:

- * Active
- * Passive

10.14 Advantages and disadvantages of various forms of leisure, their use and misuse.

11.0 DRUG USE AND ABUSE

11.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define a drug;
- (b) identify some useful and dangerous drugs;
- (c) identify use and abuse of drugs and alcohol;
- (d) explain and appreciate laws governing possession and

use of drugs and alcohol;

- (e) explain and appreciate the importance of refraining from drug and alcohol abuse;
- (f) identify causes of drug and alcohol abuse and explain ways and means of preventing and remedying these.

11.11 Definition of a drug

11.12 Some useful and dangerous drugs

11.13 Common use and abuse of drugs and their physical, psychological and social effects

11.14 Importance of refraining from drug and alcohol abuse

11.15 Laws governing possession and use of drugs and alcohol

11.16 Causes and remedies of drug and alcohol abuse.

12.0 THE SCHOOL

12.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define and appreciate the roles played by different bodies in the school system;
- (b) identify and appreciate law and order within the

school;

- (c) define different types of leadership and their corresponding attitudes;
- (d) identify and appreciate virtues required for making a positive contribution to the school as a community and the society at large.

12.11 Different roles in the school

(a) Administration

- * The head teacher
- * The teacher
- * The student bodies
- * The prefects

(b) Organization and management

- * The board of governors
- * The sponsors
- * The parent-teacher associations
- * The proprietor(s)

12.12

(a) Leadership styles in schools

- * Authoritarian
- * Democratic
- * Laissez-faire

(b) Some attitudes of these styles

- * Elitist

* Egalitarian

* Respectful

12.13 Student's personal and collective responsibilities to the school

12.14 The school routine, the school rules and their application to the society

13.0 THE NEIGHBOURHOOD AND THE IMMEDIATE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

13.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define neighbourhood;
- (b) identify and appreciate types of neighbourhood;
- (c) assess the influence of the neighbourhood on the individual person;
- (d) identify and assess the influence of the institutions of society on the individual person and the neighbourhood;
- (e) explain and appreciate values that promote social cohesion and identify their positive contribution to the neighbourhood.

13.11 The meaning and types of neighbourhood and environment

13.12 The influence of the neighbourhood on the individual person

13.13 Institutions of society and their effects on neighbourhood:

- * Religious institutions
- * Educational institutions

13.14

(a) Values that promote social cohesion:

- * Justice
- * Loyalty
- * Truthfulness
- * Responsibility

(b) The role of the individual person in fostering values that promote social cohesion.

14.0 ETHNIC TRADITIONS AND AFRICAN RELIGIOUS ETHICS

14.1 Special Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) identify, explain and appreciate the major beliefs and practices of various Kenyan communities;
- (b) explain and appreciate the major traditional development stages of an indigenous Kenyan's life;
- (c) explain and appreciate the basic moral principles in African religions;
- (d) assess the importance and validity of the basic moral

principles in African religions.

14.11

(a) Traditions related to the stages of an indigenous Kenyan's life in:

- * Conception and birth
- * Youth and education
- * Initiation
- * Adulthood
- * Courtship and marriage
- * Responsible parenthood
- * Old age
- * Death and burial

(b) Other traditional practices related to:

- * Kinship and political systems
- * Law and justice - reward and punishment
- * Rights and duties of the individual person in the society
- * Property ownership and distribution of benefits
- * Trade and other inter-ethnic relations
- * Medical practices
- * War and peace

14.12 African religious ethics

(a) Religion and ethics

- (b) The concept of the Supreme Being
- (c) The spirits
- (d) The ancestors
- (e) Prophets
- (f) Priests
- (g) Diviners
- (h) Medicine-men
- (i) Religious rituals and ceremonies

15.0 OTHER RELIGIOUS ETHICS

15.1 Special Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) explain the importance and significance of the main historical events of the major religions in Kenya;
- (b) explain and appreciate the basic moral principles governing the major religions in Kenya;
- (c) identify and appreciate the basic religious practices of the major religions in Kenya.

15.11 Christian ethics

- (a) Brief history of Christianity
 - * The person of Jesus Christ
- (b) Basic moral principles of Christianity
 - * The Ten Commandments
 - * The Sermon on the Mountain
 - * The Golden Rule

(c) Major Christian practices with regard to:

- * Life
- * Love
- * Marriage
- * Charity
- * Property ownership
- * Law and justice
- * Death

15.12 Islamic ethics

(a) Brief history of Islam

(b) Basic moral principles of Islam

- * The Five Pillars of Faith

(c) Major Islamic practices with regard to:

- * Life
- * Love
- * Marriage and divorce
- * Charity
- * Law and justice
- * Property ownership
- * Death

15.13 The ethics of Hinduism, Buddhism, Jainism and Sikhism

(a) Brief history of:

(i) Hinduism

(iii) Jainism

- (ii) Buddhism
- (iv) Sikhism
- (b) Basic moral principles of:
 - (i) Hinduism
 - (iii) Jainism
 - (ii) Buddhism
 - (iv) Sikhism
- (c) Major practices of Hinduism, Buddhism, Jainism and Sikhism with regard to:
 - * Life
 - * Law and Justice
 - * Love
 - * Property ownership
 - * Marriage
 - * Death
 - * Charity

16.0 COURTHSHIP AND MARRIAGE

16.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) explain what is desirable boy/girl relationship;
- (b) explain and ethically evaluate points one would consider when choosing a marriage partner;
- (c) explain and appreciate the purpose of marriage;
- (d) explain and appreciate the steps one should take to prepare for and preserve marriage.

16.11 Ethically desirable boy/girl relationship before marriage

16.12 Purpose of marriage

16.13 Ethical evaluation of points to consider in choosing a marriage partner

16.14 Preparation for marriage and married life:

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------|
| * Love | * Tolerance |
| * Fidelity | * Children |
| * Understanding | |

17.0 HUSBAND AND WIFE RELATIONSHIP

17.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) explain and appreciate the rights and duties of married partners to themselves;
- (b) identify factors that contribute to a healthy husband/wife relationship.

17.11 The rights and duties of married partners to themselves

17.12 Factors that contribute to a healthy husband/wife relationship

- * Appreciating each other's differences
- * Taking pride in each other
- * Planning together
- * Understanding each other
- * Communication

- * Acceptable relationship between the couple and the children, other members of the family and friends.

18.0 RURAL, URBAN AND SCHOOL PLURALISM

18.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) identify major ethical issues arising from school, rural and urban environments;
- (b) explain and evaluate the positive and negative influence(s) arising from his school, rural and urban life;
- (c) identify the causes of the positive and negative attitudes arising from school, rural and urban influence;
- (d) explain the role of individual talents in coping with ethical issues related to school, rural and urban life.

18.11 Major ethical issues arising from school, rural and urban environments

18.12 Positive and negative influence(s) arising from school, rural and urban life

18.13 Factors that influence the moral outlook of youth with regard to:

- * the parents

- * the teachers and other adults
- * religion and ethnicity
- * the nation and national history.

18.14 The role of individual talents in coping with ethical issues related to school, rural and urban life.

19.0 THE NATION AND ETHICS FOR NATIONAL LIFE

19.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define and describe the terms: society, nation, country, state, government;
- (b) explain the meaning of nation building;
- (c) identify factors that promote or hinder nation building;
- (d) explain and appreciate the virtue of patriotism;
- (e) explain and appreciate the meaning and role of Harambee and Nyayo philosophies within the context of Kenyan politics;
- (f) explain and appreciate the interaction of the traditional and contemporary values in the quest for sound Kenyan values;
- (g) contribute towards national development.

19.11 Definition and description of:

* Society

* Country

* Nation

* Government

* State

19.12 The meaning of nation building

* Factors that promote or hinder nation building

19.13 Patriotism

19.14 National philosophies:

* African Socialism

* Harambee

* Nyayo

19.15 Traditional and contemporary ethical values in nation building:

* Communalism and individualism

* Traditional wisdom and scientific knowledge

* Love for children and population growth

19.16 The role of youth in national development

19.17 Contribution of some organizations and institutions in national development:

* Trade unions

* Co-operatives

* Religious bodies

- * Educational organisation
- * Family welfare organisation

20.0 ETHICS FOR INTERNATIONAL LIFE

20.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) identify the major diplomatic issues between Kenya and other nations;
- (b) explain and appreciate the ethical aspects of the relationship between Kenya as a sovereign state and other states;
- (c) explain the extent to which Kenyan values contribute to international life;
- (d) explain and assess the aims of regional and international organizations.

20.11 Major diplomatic issues between Kenya and other nations

20.12 Ethnical aspects of the relationship between Kenya and other states

20.13 Kenyan ethical values and approach to international life:

- * Independence and equality of nations
- * Pursuit of peace

- * Hospitality
- * Trade and cultural exchange
- * Foreign aid and ethical principles governing it

20.14 Ethical assessment of the aims of regional and international organizations:

- * East African Community
- * Organization for African Unity
- * United Nations Organization

21.0 PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOUR

21.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define person, personality and human behaviour;
- (b) explain person and personality in the context of philosophy, religion, law and other social sciences;
- (c) explain and appreciate the importance of personal responsibility in one's actions;
- (d) explain and appreciate the importance of self-knowledge;
- (e) explain and appreciate moral growth towards autonomy;
- (f) analyse and appreciate the African personality;
- (g) explain the social and cultural factors that influence personality and behaviour;
- (h) identify and explain personality crises in contemporary Africa in general and Kenya in particular.

21.11 Definition of person, personality and human behaviour

21.12 Person and personality in the context of philosophy, religion, law, and other social sciences

21.13 Personal responsibility in one's actions

21.14 Importance of self-knowledge with reference to: talents, deficiencies, improvement capacities

21.15 Different stages and aspects of moral growth from adolescence to adulthood:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| * Freedom | * Law |
| * Responsibility | * Conscience |
| * Positive uses of autonomy | * Ethical systems and decisions |

21.16 The African personality

21.17 Social and cultural factors that influence development of personality and behaviour.

22.0 POPULATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION

22.1 Special Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define the concepts population and environment;
- (b) identify different types of population and ecosystems;
- (c) explain and evaluate socio-economic and ethical implications of population change on the individual, environment and the nation;
- (d) compare and contrast population change patterns in Kenya and other developing countries with those of developed countries;
- (e) explain and appreciate the need for personal responsibility in developing the individual, the family and the national resources;
- (f) explain the importance of environmental conservation at individual and national level;
- (g) explain and appreciate the government population policy and programmes and their ethical implications as they relate to the individual, the environment and the nation.

22.11 Definition of the concepts population and environment

22.12 Types of population

(a) The human population

- * Births and deaths
- * Fertility
- * Migration
- * Age structure

(b) Distribution of population

- * Census

- * Density and carrying capacity

22.13 Social, economic and ethical implications of changes in population and ecosystems with reference to:

- * Education

- * Food

- * Housing

- * Health

- * Employment

- * Water Supply

- * Energy

National resources: management and conservation

Family resources: land, income, shelter, food, clothing

22.14 Importance of environmental conservation at individual and national level

22.15 Personal responsibility in developing the individual, the family and national resources

22.16 Comparison of population patterns in:

- * Kenya and other developing countries

- * Developing and developed countries

22.17 The Kenya government population policy and programmes and their ethical implications as they relate to the individual, the environment and the nation.

23.0 HUMAN VIRTUES

23.1 Specific Objectives

At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:

- (a) define virtue and vice;
- (b) explain the importance of human virtues;
- (c) evaluate the merits of common human virtues and demerits of the corresponding vices in the context of the individual person, family and society;
- (d) explain ways and means of acquiring virtues.

23.11 Definition of the terms virtue and vice

23.12 Importance of human virtues

23.13 Merits of different kinds of human virtues and demerits of the corresponding vices on the individual, the family and the society:

Virtue

(a) Justice

- * Distributive justice
- * Commutative justice
- * Obedience
- * Sincerity
- * Order

(b) Fortitude

Vice

* Injustice

* Cowardice

- * Perseverance
- * Patience
- * Responsibility
- * Generosity
- (c) Temperance * Intemperance
- * Modesty
- * Sociability
- * Friendship
- * Respect
- * Simplicity
- * Trust
- (d) Prudence * Imprudence
- * Flexibility
- * Understanding
- * Loyalty
- * Daring
- * Humility
- * Optimism
- * Patriotism
- (e) Charity * Selfishness
- * Love of God
- * Love of neighbour
- * Love of self

23.14 Ways and means of acquiring virtues.

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