HISTORY RESOURCE MATERIALS IN TRANSKEI SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS: THEIR AVAILABILITY AND USE

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Abstract

This dissertation, which was motivated by high failure rate in senior secondary history, is primarily an attempt at identifying some of the possible causes for poor performance in high school history in Transkei schools. One possible cause of the weak performance was identified as outmoded teaching methods which were encouraged by lack of adequate facilities and resources for history teaching and learning.

The investigation took the form of a survey of both human and material resources in 30 of the then 210 senior secondary schools in Transkei. The survey questionnaire, which was directed to history teachers, covered aspects on personal information about the teachers, material resources and facilities for teaching history, and teaching methods related to history teaching. A total of 55 teachers responded to the questionnaire. The survey included all the three senior secondary school class levels, that is standard 8, 9 and 10.

By looking at the nature of history as a discipline and the way in which students learn, it was discovered that at school level history could be learnt best through the 'experiential' approach. This is mainly because in dealing with time-past as it has to, history usually comes up with 'strange' concepts which cannot be easily grasped by present-day senior secondary teenagers. This is because understanding of historical concepts tends to develop slower than would generally be expected, unless it is re-enforced. In Transkei schools this problem of concepts understanding is made worse by the foreign language medium (English) in which the subject is taught. It is felt that these constraints could be partly aleviated with the use of audio-visual aids and self-activity teaching methods. However, this study revealed a gross inadequacy not only in facilities for teaching history but also of both human and material resources. This automatically discourages the 'new history' approach and teachers (most of whom are underqualified) tend to cling to the old-style lecture-textbook method to the detriment of their students.

This study suggests that to improve this situation it is essential to upgrade both pre-service and in-service teachers' academic and professional standards. In addition history facilities and audio-visual materials should be generously

supplied to afford ample opportunities for pupil activity. This then would be line with modern history teaching theories and, hopefully, would improve performance in history in this region.

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PREFACE

At this time of knowledge explosion and during an era when 'relevance' is a household term at learning institutions, every subject must have good grounds for claiming a place in the curriculum. Moreover, subject masters have to ensure that the good objectives for which their discipline enjoys a place in the curriculum are diligently fulfilled. In a society which is growing increasingly utilitarian and technological, the place of history and its worth in the school curriculum have to be firmly established for it to retain its position as a school discipline.

Since history per se is essentially part of man's existance there can be little fear of its extinction in human affairs. However, as a discipline in the school curriculum, considerable apathy towards history has already been expressed by many teachers and authors. Research has indicated a variety of areas for the waning position of history in the school curriculum. Usually included among these are: the complex nature of the subject; the irrelevance or bulkiness of syllabus content; archaic and inappropriate methods used for teaching history; and constraining assessment/evaluation requirements.

Varied and complex though history problems may be, ways and means to improve its status must needs be devised. It is in this spirit to pursue such improvement that this effort at research has been undertaken. Since this work is based on 'resources' special emphasis had to be made on the nature of the subject and its methodology. It is hoped that by indicating some new developments in history teaching traditional errors can be eradicated and immediate improvement can be effected to bring history to life in schools.

It must be remembered though that a supply of knowledge about techniques and strategies of teaching is one aspect. However, to teach successfully each individual must practise the various skills in an appropriate curriculum to discover the most effective in a given situation. But if the teacher uses methods at variance with the ways in which the pupils learn, the class is likely to remain apathetic despite constant practice of new skills.

The crux of the matter, therefore, seems to be in being aware of modern developments in the thinking and teaching of history and in understanding how students learn in order to adapt the curriculum and teaching methods

accordingly. In a small way in this dissertation an attempt to underscore these sentiments is made by emphasising the extent to which the 'new history' can augment the 'traditional approach'.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION:

Words, like water in containers of various shapes, can assume various meanings and be given different connotations which may be even out of content. Hence to be on par with the reader it is important to define the premises of this thesis and such words as 'resources'.

A resource in education is basically a system, a set of materials or situations,that is deliberately created to enable an individual student to learn (Percival & Ellington, 1984, p.124). In referring to resource-based learning Clarke (1982, p.200) asserts that "almost anything can be considered to be a resource for education and training, be it human, enviromental or material". Hence we must be aware that resources present themselves in various forms. People can be and are resources because the teaching staff are a source of knowledge for the student. So they make themselves flexible and available to attend individual student's difficulties as and when they arise (Percival & Ellington, 1984 p.125). So can places be resources, as is the History laboratory or a battlefield or monument of some historical importance. Not least, however, is a whole range of instructional media or teaching aids of which it is often though when reference to resource materials is made. Therefore on resource materials we concur with Beswick (1972, p.10) that:

> A resource includes anything which may be an object of study or stimulus for the pupil, including books, periodicals, newspapers, press cuttings, pictures, diagrams, maps, charts, photocopies and microforms, worksheets, slides, filmstrips, film loops, films, records, audio-tapes, radio and television programmes, video-tapes, slide-tapes and filmstrip-record combinations, multi-media kits, programmed materials, models, specimens and realia, as well as individuals and objects in the community.

In a school situation the educative process obtains when full cognisance is taken of the importance not only of the educator and the educand, but also of the environmental and/or material resources such as audiovisual aids. Hence in this thesis the human element will be investigated together with the means whereby elements of study in history

are presented. Thus the adequacy of history teachers' qualifications in relation to their effeciency in the use of instructional media will also not be neglected. For,to make the knowledge structures and their aims explicit, it is necessary to devise teaching strategies and select materials which would suit local conditions and levels of ability. It should also be borne in mind that the succesful employment of these materials would partly depend on the adequacy of teachers (Tunmer, 1980, p.16).

Such a multifaceted investigation seems the more necessary since the position of history as a school subject has been widely questioned in recent years. Consequently, history seems to have become increasingly unpopular. Steele (1976, p.64) agrees that much of the voluminous criticism of history teaching is justified, and he quotes several British history teachers and academics who decry the boring and uninspiring staple lecture as a teaching method for history. Consequently, history is "languishing" as a subject in the British school curriculum. Dance (1970,p.117) also points out that the still broader general uncertainty about the position of history in education in Europe is quite an embarrassment. Liebenberg (1972, p.23) notes that the growing negative attitude towards history at secondary school level has been voiced in European countries such as Netherlands and various parts of the USA. While Green (1963, pp. 87-102) laments the unpopularity of history in Indian schools, he advocates visualisation as the only method which seems likely to stimulate interest among pupils.

It was because of the awareness of the danger of the position of history in British schools that the Schools Council embarked upon the "History 13-16" project in 1972 to "provide stimulus support and materials to ... revitalise their (the teachers') own practice in general and more particularly help them encourage more pupil participation in their study of history" (Schools Council, 1976, p. 8).

The waning status of history in South African Secondary Schools has been widely noted (Liebenberg, 1972, p. 23). Van den Berg and Buckland (1983, pp. 1-4) show that history in South African Secondary Schools is in a sorry state. Suggested causes for this plight range from unreasonable syllabuses and their examination demands, through biased

textbooks and their prejudiced presentation of facts, to predominantly teacher-centered teaching methods. The percentage of pupils taking history in Standard 10 in the four South African Provincial Departments dropped significantly by over 11% over the ten years between 1956 and 1966. It is again striking that of the two major reasons given by both teachers and students for this decline in the popularity of history, one was the unacceptability of the rote learning demanded by the traditional teaching methods which sought to satisfy the old-fashioned examination requirements (Liebenberg, 1972, p. 25). Students' rejection of the subject in South Africa was, for instance, demonstrated by the ritual burning of history texbooks during the 1976 school riots and the 1980 class boycotts. This turn of events is most disquieting. Such a trend would seem to support the assertion that history is the "worst taught subject in the curriculum" (Van den Berg & Buckland, 1983, p.1).

The position of history in Transkei cannot be expected to be much different from that of the Republic of South Africa because although Transkei got its own Department of Education at self-government in 1963, for all intents and purposesthe senior secondary education in Transkei remained under the South African Department of Bantu Education (later known as the Department of Education and Training) until 1978 when Transkei formed its own examinations board which adopted the Cape Education syllabus. During part of this period the popularity of history in the Cape schools, whose syllabus was adopted by Transkei after its independence in 1976, had declined by over 9% between 1956 and 1965 (Liebenberg, 1972, p. 24).

At the Junior Certificate level, which has been assessed by examinations set by the Transkei Education Department since the start of differentiated system of education in 1974, (over the five years between 1980 and 1984) an average of about 70% of the candidates took history in their curricula. There was no noticeable decline in the popularity of history over this period in this class level. The average pass rate was about 60%. However, the Std 10 statistics relate a definite decline both in the popularity of history and in its perfomance. The five years from 1980 to 1984 reveal that about 56% of the candidates did history. This drop, however, may be partly explained by the fact that during these years Std 8 pupils had to present seven subjects while the the standard 10 pupils had to do six subjects. It seems clear therefore that in standard 9, where

one subject had to be eliminated from the seven-subject curriculum, history was the most likely to be affected. The average pass rate over the same period (1980-1984) is most disquieting at about 42%. Causes of such a challenging situation cannot just be left unexplored as it must be a cause for great concern to the history teacher and the education department at large.

Many history scholars have laid the greater part of the blame for the generally poor performance in history on inadequate teaching methods which fail to address the nature of history as a school subject. Since history is often largely time past and involves other peoples or cultures, many of its concepts are usually foreign to the young learner. Secondly, modern developmental psychology has discovered that historical concept development normally takes place at middle to late adolescence. This, therefore, implies that in history the learner has to overcome both inherent and methodological difficulties. It is believed, however, that if the inherent problems of the subject are appreciated, teaching methods can be so adapted as to enhance the understanding of historical concepts even among pre-adolescent pupils. In fact, methodologically much blame has been leveled against the traditional lecture or telling method of teaching which fails to create and re-inforce concrete lasting historical impressions for the learner.

To save history from traditional lecture-regurgitation model of teaching, Van den Berg and Buckland (1983, p.39) suggest that the learner must be led "to participate in the process that makes possible the establishment of knowledge". In other words the learner must be stimulated into being interested in and mastering the central concepts of history. On this point Steele (1976, p. 35) suggests that "the primary purpose is to develop the child's understanding of the nature and methods of history". How to achieve this reality and bring history to life is the question. Recent research and modern technology seem to suggest that some help can come through audio-visual instructional materials and new teaching strategies. In fact Dance (1970, p. 64) says that although the lecture teaching method is still the most commonly used in a number of European countries it is, however, always "necessary to enliven the instruction by introducing educational aids which will help the pupils better visualise the subject, and with aids through which the pupil himself can actually participate".

But is the Transkeian history teacher aware of the value of these instructional gadgets and is he able to use them efficiently?

CHAPTER II

RATIONALE FOR RESOURCE MATERIALS IN HISTORY TEACHING

Before even examining methods of improving history teaching, the fundamental question is whether history is necessary at all in the senior secondary curriculum. Booth (1971, p. 76) suggests that in spite of the difficulties, history has an essential part to play in the school curriculum. It is perhaps for this reason that at least in about ten European countries history is to an extent a compulsory subject (Dance, 1970 pp. 28-29). For the Germans in particular, historical education is considered as a "part of general culture, and to lack a knowledge of history is to that extent to be lacking in general culture" (Dance 1970 p. 16). Burston (1972, p. 3) also notes that history is important for providing a perculiar way of thinking which is most valuable to the reader if applied to modern problems. He further points out that history is differently looked at and valued by various people. It is important as "knowledge of origins and development or evolution of contemporary matters"; or is valued as "contrast which past societies and institutions afford with our present" or its interest is "the past situations which are parallel to some in the present" (Burston, 1972, p. 7). The uniqueness of the discipline of history therefore gives the historian knowledge of what in fact happened as a result of past practices, thus enabling him to better understand the people of the past. Burston (1972, p. 12) maintains that it is this aspect which justifies the place of history in education, whatever additional direct studies of the contemporary world are undertaken. Trevelyan (Steele, 1976, p. 11) also sees history as "the house in which all other subjects dwell" - a basis without which these subjects would loose depth.

Further, for any curriculum it is important to take into consideration classifications of realms of knowledge. Among the various writers Hirst and Phenix seem quite useful classifiers for curriculum construction (Tunmer, 1980, pp. 8-12). It is significant that both these writers maintain that among most knowledge classification schemes, history is necessarily one of the basic forms for general education. In fact, as Phenix presents six realms of knowledge, of which history is one, he asserts that without one of these six realms of meaning "in terms of which man's nature and conscious experience is defined,... a person cannot realise his essential humanness. If one of the six is missing the person lacks a basic ingredient of experience" (Whitfield, 1971, p.19).

Regardless of any justifications (either cultural or as a way of thinking) for the inclusion of history in a secondary school curriculum, there are psychological difficulties which face children as they learn the subject. Two closely related facets shall be alluded to. These are: the type of thinking and understanding demanded in school history learning and the intellectual development and capacity of a secondary school pupil. The general accusation that history lacks life probably stems from two problems: the complex and abstract approach in its teaching, and the too difficult conceptual understanding expected of the pupil. Thompson (1972, p.20) observes that "much history teaching, particularly at secondary school level, seems insensitive to this fundamental point, and it is responsible for a limited (pupil) involvement and response". So to devise successful methods of approach to history teaching we need must know how children's understanding of historical material develops.

In his efforts to stimulate effective learning and logical reasoning in his pupils, the history teacher must appeal in various ways to the development of historical understanding. This implies that the child's success in learning depends much on his thought processes and the nature of the subject matter. By appropriate methods the teacher must, at increasing levels of sophistication, reconcile the child's development in thought capabilities and the nature of the history material presented to him. In this regard Peel (1972, p.21) points out that it is fortunate that junior children can appreciate the description of human acts and their consequences without the need to refer much to their intentions. Intentions for historical events should therefore be introduced to the child "gradually and appropriately, not expecting penetrating and imaginative inferences until about mid-adolescence". In other words, as Dance (1970, pp. 62-63) observes, "history teaching in the lower intermediate sections should be descriptive, as factual and concrete as possible" having as its core lively reports of men and events. It is not surprising therefore that, according to Thompson (1972, p.21) many teachers and historians assert that history cannot be seriously taught before at least age fourteen and that at this stage history cannot be imaginative or analytic. This seems to suggest that since the concrete and sensory experience must be the basis of history for the young, local history which can easily exploit the tangible in economic and social themes, is more suitable for younger children than political topics

(Burston, 1972, p.21). But are all these assumptions about the child's mental abilities proven or are the solutions appropriate? A look at recent research on children's thought processes may give us better understanding of the problem.

It is almost impossible to think of intellectual growth and development without mentioning the theories of Piaget. Piaget established that thinking characteristically progresses through stage-levels, one level having to develop and be consolidated before the child can progress to the next stage. He distinguished four major developmental epochs or periods (Flavel, 1962, pp. 85-257). These major stages are: the sensory-motor period at 0-2 years old; the stage of pre-operational representations at 2-7 years of age; the period of concrete operations at 7-11 years old; and the period of formal operations at 11-15 years of age.

The period of sensory-motor intelligence (0-2 years) ranges from a neonatal reflex level to a relatively coherent sensory-motor interaction to the immediate environment. It is a period which simply involves "perceptual motor adjustments to things rather than symbolic manipulations of them" (Flavel, 1962, p.86). The stage of pre-operational representations (2-7 years) develops when in early childhood the individual makes relatively unorganised attempts at coming to grips with the strange world of symbols. At this stage logical or systematic thinking is lacking. Solution of problems is largely a hit and miss affair because the inter-relation of parts to the whole or total situation cannot be understood.

From about seven years of age starts the operational level of thinking, the stage with which formal schooling is more concerned. Thinking now gradually becomes systematic and logical with data used selectively in tackling a problem. The first stage of this epoch is that of concrete operational thought at 7-11 years of age. During this period the child begins to construct related groupings and co-ordinate relations. Concepts of space, time and the material world begin to develop. But these concepts and operations can be mastered "only in concrete situations where the child is actively manipulating material he can touch and see" (Little and Mackinolty, 1977, p.25). Thompson (1972, p.22) also points out that thinking at this level is characteristically "limited to the immediate evidence available to solve the problem", centred on the concrete world of sense experience as it is. If a child at the concrete operational

stage is to be asked to successfully solve a problem involving grouping, arranging and selecting material, then the materials need to be concrete, and the variables in the problem restricted.

The final period is the formal operational thinking at about 11-15 years of age. At this stage the child is now able to focus beyond the immediate task. He can formulate a theory on the basis of which he can classify, combine and reverse manipulative operations, noting both contradictions and implications, and making inferences and logical conclusions. In other words the adolescent now can, in addition to concrete operations, effectively reason in propositional statements and hypotheses. Now he operates in terms of possibilities and deals effectively with abstract situations or relatively complex relationships which can be understood as part of an intelligible totality. He can organise relationships between conceptual elements of all kinds. Thus he becomes aware that a chance event can distort the picture or results. At this level thinking is stable, highly mobile, reversible and decentred and can now continue for comparatively long periods.

Let it be noted, however, that this seemingly neat and orderly development of intelligence is not really so. It is a gradual process, with advancement to a more complex level appearing in one area of knowledge before another. In other words these stages can overlap. In a learning situation it is important to remember that there are differences in the nature of thinking at the different stages; that each stage has its potentialities and constraints, and that for a specific problem or form of knowledge movement from one stage to the next is possible (Coltham, 1971, p.16). This cognitive state is a result of the equilibration process which continuously operates in all exchanges between the growing child and his environment, thus acting as a propellant for change and transition. Simply stated equilibration "is the process of bringing assimilation and accommodation into balanced co-ordination" (Flavel, 1962, p. 239). This overall equilibration-equilibrium model insures continuity of development by explaining the relation between adjoining stages wherein "components of the lower stage are abstracted and intergrated into the new totallity which define the higher one" (Flavel, 1962, p. 240). So equilibrium has to be established at each stage of development before permanent progress can be expected. It is also important to be aware that chronological age is not always an exact guide to stages of thought development since cultural, social

and educational background variables significantly affect intellectual development (Burston, 1972, p. 25). Peel (1972, p. 24) has also suggested that at adolescence there is a definite development in thinking from a 'describer' to an 'explainer' level. Characteristic of the former level is the relating of parts of a problem to each other mainly employing immediate data to answer questions. 'Explainer' thinking on the other hand brings in ideas, experience, influencing possibilities and generalisations from without to solve a given problem. This analysis is not unlike Piaget's distinction between the concrete operational stage and the level of formal operations.

Selection of topics and choice of methodology are obviously going to be affected by an understanding of the psychological development of children. There is, however, another psychological problem which needs careful consederation. This concerns language development and the acquisition of concepts. By 'concept' we refer to both mental constructs of individuals and identifiable public entities that form part of the substance of the different disciplines. Klausmeier (1974, p.4) defines a concept as "ordered information about the properties of one or more things - objects, events, or processes - that enables any particular thing or class of things to be differentiated from and also related to other things or classes of things". As public entities, concepts can be seen as societally accepted organised information that corresponds to the meaning of words. In history, as Gunning (1978, p.14) points out, there are specifically historical concepts - ideas usually expressed in words to describe either concrete or abstract objects, people, feelings and actions. This is what Edwards refers to as a 'register' - "a 'style' as explained by the participants' sense of what constitutes appropriate usage in a particular context". History, being time past, poses a special difficulty for the student both because of its register and of things not directly observable or experienced. Secondly many historical concepts are not only abstract but their meanings have changed, and frequently present day colloquial use of these terms is not the same in all periods of the past. And Edwards (1978, p.59), in pointing out that most terms in historical narrative are not esoteric but of 'normal educated usage', he suggests that these key terms are less likely to be taught as happens in other subjects. Therefore history pupils usually depend more on their everyday language. So such prevalent abstractions as 'trade', 'transport', 'revolution' and others often "raise not only general linguistic difficulties but the danger that they are so detached from any context in 'real' (past) life that pupils may read in their own everyday meanings in ways which destroy

their historical understanding". For example, in dealing with the French Revolution the concept of kingship is central and wide. If the pupil's language and conceptual thought is not well developed, however, he may think of the king only in concrete terms of his crown, his palatial home and perhaps the ceremonial gatherings which the present day constitutional monarch often graces. Such a limited concept excludes vital facts such as that most eighteenth century kings were absolute rulers in whom all the governmental powers rested. Thus the pupil's limited interpretation of 'king' in his present day usage may give him a different connotation of history. Again the teacher may glibly refer to the church having in mind 'a body of ecclesiastical persons' with rights and previleges, whereas to the pupil 'church' may signify only a building (Coltham, 1971, p.30). Several experiments in language and concept formation in history reveal poor understanding of these by the students.

Important transformations in the child's abilities take place at early and mid-adolescence, especially at ages 13 to 15. It is at this stage, according to Bernbaum (1972, p.41), that the pupil's development of historical understanding should be especially encouraged through the comprehension of language. Concept understanding largely depends on the pupil's experience, itself being influenced by such variables as age and social class. Honeybone's investigation (Steele, 1976, p.23) revealed that success in history at school demands a high verbal I.Q. Peel (1967, p.161) also suggests that penetrating and imaginative history in school can only be expected at mid-adolescence. Hallam (1967,pp. 64-66) discovered that pupils think characteristically at the formal operational level in history at age 16.2 to 16.6 years. Using a similar method of testing as Hallam's, but with different evaluation criteria, Stones (Thompson, 1972, p.30-31) also concluded that abstract and explanatory responses in history were characteristic only at age 15 and over. De Silva (Thompson, 1972, p.28), in testing pupils' understanding of historical terms in a contextual setting, also found that clear understanding of history concepts at the formal operational level develops only at 14 to 15 years. Like Peel's, Wood's investigation (Thompson, 1972, pp. 27-28) suggests that conceptual development in history is a stage late in the Piagetian stages of thought development. These and other experiments on language and concept development, suggest that in historical work children reach a mature stage of thinking much later than in other subjects or their thinking is a stage late in

Piaget's chronological sequence of the development of thought processes. However, as Hallam (1967, p.163) points out, in addition to language development other factors such as heredity, social and cultural conditions, the type of physical and intellectual stimulation and the material being studied influence the child's progress through the developmental stages. Reference to some experiments on the influence of some of these factors on the development of the child will now be made.

In his investigation of aspects of social relationships Wood (Burston 1972, p.27) found that only 37% of fifteen year-old could be classified as operating at the level of formal operations. On the influence of socio-economic background upon pupils' understanding Bernstein (Burston, 1972, pp.42-43) observes that the middle-class pupils display an 'elaborate code' of linguistic ability which "makes possible the transmission of unique experience in a verbally explicit form" involving verbal differentiation, qualification, reservation and modification. However, children from working-class homes have a 'restricted' linguistic code of implicit meaning expressing shared understanding in which uniqueness might be transmitted extra-verbally. History as a cognitive discipline is a verbal expression of a unique way of ordering experience, and thus needs an elaborated code which employs abstractions and universal classifications to formulate an imaginative reconstruction of the past (Burston, 1972, p.43). This abstract feature of history presents most of the difficulties especially to pupils from the lower socio-economic class-groups.

Jahoda (1963) investigated the children's concept of time in history. After finding out that only 50% of a group of thirteen-year-olds could understand abstract time, he points out that the problem of understanding abstract time is another restricting factor in the pupils' correct concept of history. He suggests that it is at about age 11 that the notion of dating, periods and eras starts.

On investigating children's contextualisation and their ability at making logical and moral judgements in historical situations, Fitzgerald (1977, pp.18-25) observes that pupils think characteristically at the formal level only at age 15-16 years. Before this age only simple historical situations, containing no more than four immediately available variables, can be handled.

The above research results all suggest that children's conceptual understanding in history is significantly limited by various factors until at least about age fifteen years and possibly later. Thompson (1972, p.33) blames children's contextualisation defects on inadequate explanations of the interrelatedness of historical events and the shallow undevelopmental testing commonly used in history. He recommends excercises of varying complexity which can be based on original sources, secondary information or visual material. Hence abstract treatment of history must be avoided at school level as "sensory knowledge must precede cognitive, the descriptive emphasis the analytical, and the concrete the abstract" (Burston, 1972, p.34). Steyn (1981, p.107) also points out that "the child perceives better when the teacher proceeds from the concrete to the abstract". To unlock reality the teaching aid helps bridge the gap between the pupil and the subject matter, thus facilitating both the teacher's explanation and the child's understanding. In concurrence the IAAM (1965 p.136) underscores that teaching aids, when used with a clear sense of purpose, are invaluable for stimulating imagination, clothing abstract generalisations with realistic details, forging relations among previously isolated facts and, by pointing out contrasts, evoke both interest and discussion. For intelligibility of history at school level Steele (1972 p.22) also suggests that in addition to employing a vast variety of pupil-centred classroom techniques, "there must be a heavy concentration on the use of teaching aids". Dwyer (1964, p.25) and Coltham (1971, p.39) emphasise the need for the child to 'experience' history through audio-visual source materials for a better understanding of its concepts. When properly and skilfully used to demonstrate and stress particular points and/or present different facets of a subject, these aids will motivate the pupils and whet their appetite for history. For effective use of teaching aids, however, the objectives of each lesson should be clearly set out to help the teacher select the most appropriate aid (Steyn, 1981, p.110). As a basis for defining objectives and then structuring teaching material around them, or even constructing a classroom kit to fulfill the objectives, Coltham and Fines' objectives for the study of history (1971) will be referred to.

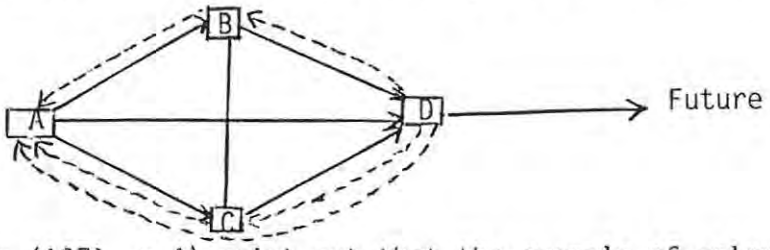
The foregoing analysis by developmental and educational psychologists seem to suggest that the problem of effective history teaching at the school level is what could be termed communication crisis or breakdown. Harris (1979, pp. 15-17) noted the following barriers to total communication with the pupils: limitation of the pupil's receptive capacity; the unstated and often unsubstantiated assumptions by the teacher about the pupil's basic knowledge; incompatibility of schema of the more experienced teacher

and the inexperienced pupil from different socio-economic backgrounds; and absence of communication facilities. In spite of these barriers, however, the contention of many classifiers of knowledge such as Phenix and practical classroom experience indicate that inclusion of history in the school curriculum is actually an advantage as it improves conceptual understanding. Therefore instead of interpreting the seemingly negative research findings as implying that no serious history can be taught before the age of fifteen years, for intelligibility history teaching should be made appropriate to the pupils' mental and linguistic ability. As Maitland (Little and Mackinolty, 1977, p.23) puts it: "The history syllabus is being tailored more nearly to fit the learner and his needs. The emphasis has shifted from 'what' is to be taught to 'who' is to be taught". Implied therefore is that the history teacher must make "a fundamental reappraisal of the nature, purpose and methodology of school history" (Little and Mackinolty, 1977, p.5).

One of the most influencial writers to encourage that pupils should be made to simulate the historian's mode of inquiry for better appreciation of history was Bruner. Bruner (1960, p.33) contended that "any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development". He pointed out, however, that this could only be possible if proper attention was given to the structure of the discipline and its characteristic mode of inquiry. In addition the developmental level of the child must also be closely considered. Although Herbst (Little and Mackinolty, 1977, pp. 10&11) criticises Brunerian discovery method and the mode-of-inquiry teaching of having deepened the communication gap between teacher and student and between the general student and the slow learner or socio-economically underprivileged, reformers such as Fenton, Fines and Jones enthusiastically embraced the Brunerian-based 'new history' as an alternative to the drudgery of traditional history teaching.

To the search for specific educational objectives around which 'new history' could be taught, Coltham and Fines (1971) contributed by modifying Bloom's (1956) hierarchically arranged cognitive and affective objectives. Coltham and Fines (1971, pp. 3-4) define their behavioural educational objectives as describing "what the learner can do as a result of having learned", and secondly, ... what an observer (usually the teacher) can see the learner doing so that he can judge whether or not the objective has been successfully reached; and ... in describing what the learner will have achieved, also indicates what educational experience he requires if he has

to achieve the objective". Then a framework of objectives and a general description thereof is given the following headings: A. Attitudes towards the study of history; B. Nature of the discipline; C. Skills and abilities; and D. Educational outcomes of the study. Under A the affective aspects of the learners' personalities are explained and their emotional involvement indicated. Section B analyses history as a form of knowledge towards which the affective behaviours are to be directed. Then the skills and abilities relevant to history are dealt with in section C. Therefore both section B and C are concerned with cognitive behaviours of the learners. Then section D. describes the outcomes of the study and practice of history in terms of their contribution to the personal development of the learner. The interconnectedness of the various sections of the framework is diagramatically illustrated by the authors thus (1971, p.6) :



Coltham and Fines (1971, p.4) point out that the example of relevant educational objectives given in each section are meant to "inspire and guide teachers in the framing of other objectives appropriate to their own pupils and to their own school situation". In fact the article's detailed description of the various sections and the examples given for the attainment of the specified objectives, seem to offer a good opportunity for a profitable application of the discovery history methods and a maximum use of resource materials.

Although behavioural objectives are often criticised for advocating training rather than education in that in their specificity they often ignore the learner's motivation and expect all lesson outcomes in quantifiable measurements, Coltham and Fines' work has been much discussed and used in recent years to tailor the history syllabus 'to fit the learner and his needs'. The Schools Council History 13-16 Project (1976) is one example of a successful application of the 'new history' approach. It demonstrated that children's historical understanding can be much deepened by minimising the comunication crisis if appropriately chosen teaching methods are employed to exploit the environment and available resource materials.

To be able to apply the correct teaching methods, however, the history teacher must be aware of the resource materials that can be used in his subject.

CHAPTER III

SOME RESOURCE MATERIALS IN HISTORY

In the previous chapter it has been suggested that concept formation is a key factor in the effective learning of history, and that language is therefore of crucial importance in this learning. To overcome delayed conceptual development in the learning of history, use of audio-visual aids and resource teaching has been suggested as a possible solution to these problems. In this chapter, therefore, some resource materials which can be used in history will be examined. These include human resources, accommodation, audio-visual aids, and some machines for the production of audio-visual aids.

(A) HUMAN RESOURCES:

(A.1) The teacher: This is one single most important resource in a teaching situation. There may be all the equipment and aids for teaching history, but without the teacher to guide and encourage the learner, little can be achieved. IAAM (1965, p.63) points out that "it is the history teacher's task to experiment, to vary and adjust his methods to ensure that this area is mapped, walked over, climbed and conquered". Therefore adequate knowledge is a pre-requisite for good teaching. Without a rich and functional background, the teacher will fail to find meaning in the facts or to select and structure the essentials and then present them vividly. This means that the teacher must be well-equiped to present the subject matter at the child's level of thought, and the pupil must be encouraged and guided to assign his own meaning to it (Vrey, 1979, p.208). This implies that the teacher must keep abreast with developments both in teaching methods and in technical and technological aids for complementing his methods. As Dance (1970, p.117) observes, the history taecher must be a specialist since a non-specialist, "with the best will in the world, cannot find as much time as specialists for keeping either their history or their teaching methods up to date". Steele (1976, pp. 105 & 116) also points out that the character of the teacher is of crucial importance in successful teaching and that as the ultimate agent determining what actually happens in the classroom, it is he who must be persuaded to become more professional in his outlook and approach to history through self-development. It would be proper to remember that in themselves the possibilities of teaching aids are limited. But in the hands of an expert teaching aids are auxiliaries multiplying the ways in which the teacher can best work on the child (Mialaret, 1966, p.191).

(A.2) Other people: Apart from the history teacher other members of the staff and the community can be useful sources of information. Of particular importance are the school librarian who will have the data on various history topis, and the resource centre director who can help the pupils especially with the use of technological learning aids. Other bodies which can be information sources include the public library's schools service, the local authority's audio-visual department, the museum and archives departments, publishers and commercial suppliers of audio-visual aids and local teachers' centre (Beswick, 1972, p.9). Suffice to just mention these human resources since their importance will be made clearer in the methodology section.

(B) Accommodation:

(B.1) History-room and library: For complete effectiveness the history teacher needs specialist equipment and therefore specialist accommodation. Dwyer (1964, p.24) has strongly stressed this point thus: "Every (history) teacher ought to point out to his headmaster and to his local education authority that low standards of accommodation for his subject have been accepted for too long, and that new teaching methods make a fully equiped history room an educational necessity rather than a luxury."

Such a history room with an adjacent stockroom should be the ideal in every school as this can make the teaching "more effective and economical in terms of the staff and resources". This room can permanently house such equipment, Hodge (1977, p.252) remarks, as projectors, epidiascope, hanging rails, book-shelves, filing chest, map-cupboard and tracing table. Listening posts must also be available to make individual research possible. In fact the history room can be more aptly referred to as the history library resource centre as it should store, display and disseminate all available history material in the school.

(B.2) Classrooms: Apart from the history library room the regular history classrooms should be spacious to facilitate such teaching techniques as group work, simulations, games and drama. With these techniques there is often need for a quick re-arrangement of sitting positions and ease of movement. There are various plans for flexible classroom arrangements. The small group-work arrangements include the controlled discussion groups, the brain-storming and buzz-groups, the problem-centred groups, the case-study groups and the free-group discussions. In an overcrowded

classroom individual attention to pupils and groups is not easy. Most teaching aids cannot be effectively used in overcrowded classrooms.

(C) TEACHING AIDS:

It has already been pointed out that history teaching is faced with the problem of children's late conceptual and linguistic development. However, it was also suggested that children's historical understanding can be accentuated through a judicious use of teaching aids which make new historical concepts relate directly to the pupil's own experience (Steele, 1976, p.22). These aids may be visual or auditory or audio-visual, and range from textbooks, teaching units, charts and slides, through the radio and tape-recorder to films, television and computors.

(C.1) Visual teaching aids: To the school's common equipment of the chalkboard and books may be added a variety of aids such as the bulletin boards, flannel boards, plastic boards, wall charts and pictures, slides, film strips, episcopes, overhead projectors and models. Green (1963, pp. 2-3) classifies visual aids into the following categories:

i) Reality and experience include real things such as specimens in nature or in museums. Direct experience occurs in school visits and expeditions, while indirect experience may be found in dramatic reconstructions.

ii) Three-dimentional materials such as models which may be representational, working or non-working scale models, sectional models, low-relief and contour models.

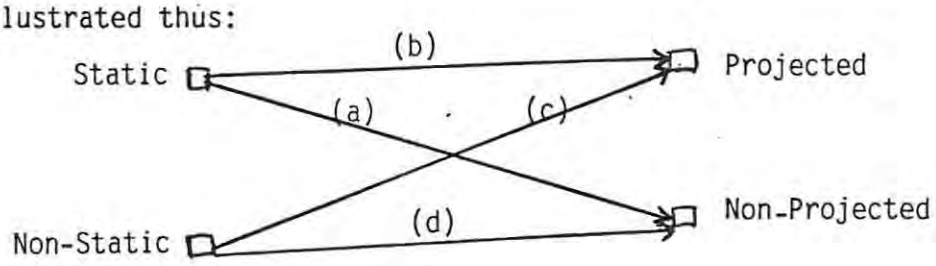
iii) Pictorial materials of representational work as found in copies, likenesses, original work by artists, pupils or teacher. Others may be reproductions and photographic material. These materials may also be optically projected as still pictures on the epidiascope, on a film strip, or as moving film pictures.

iv) Graphic material which may be diagnostic (pictograph and picture map) ; or diagramatic (e.g. diagrams on chalkboard and textbooks, charts and graphs); or symbolic (e.g. maps) ; or stereographic to give an illusion of solidarity.

For practical purpose, however, Green suggests that these subdivisions can be cut down to two major divisions namely, the static teaching aids and the moving visual aids.

For our purpose, however, the categories will be classified as the static, the non-static, the projected and the non-projected visual teaching aids.

Although so categorised, it will be noted that these sub-divisions are interconnected. Diagramatically the interconnectedness can be illustrated thus:



(C.1.1) Static non-projected visual aids: These are mainly two-dimensional but there are also three dimensional aids. We can look at these, hang them on the classroom walls and even handle the models. The two-dimensional non-projected still aids are perhaps the most common in our schools. Pictures, maps, photographs, charts and chalkboard drawings are all so common as perhaps to loose their impact. As these are readily available aids, they should be simple to use. Cable (1970, p.11) points out that these non-projected aids are the backbone of all the classroom visual aids.

Chalkboard: In itself the chalkboard is not a visual aid. But in the hands of a good teacher the chalkboard is a piece of apparatus which aptly conveys a visual message. Clarke (1982, p.28) remarks that even "the most austere (teacher) is likely to employ a blackboard and books". Being an economical and versatile aid in schools, the chalkboard is the most common aid. It can be effectively employed to draw attractive illustrations in coloured chalk. The pupil's interest is easily captured and he can be encouraged to participate in the lesson. The pupil can be further involved if he is required to label a sketch map, graph or picture to represent, for example, the abstract socio-economic concepts so common in history. Again when students discuss among themselves or give chalkboard summaries of their report-backs from their group assignments, many of their misconceptions easily surface at the chalkboard. These can then be remedied by the class with the teacher's guidance. In short the step by step progress of a lesson can be easily illustrated in the teacher's chalkboard summary thus leaving his expression on the chalkboard for a lasting visual impression in the child's mind. In this way, as a synthesising aid which can be used even in remote and isolated areas, the chalkboard is probably the teacher's best friend.

Bulletin Board: History is always in the news. A cutting from a newspaper or a magazine appearing on the bulletin board can always be used to trigger off discussion. Sometimes a teacher can list a few questions below the cutting. For example the current South West Africa/Namibia question which

is often in the newspapers can be used to trace the advent of the League of Nations or even the colonies of Africa; the Arab-Israel conflict can be traced from biblical times through to the two world wars and beyond; and the present Black-White conflict in South Africa started with the beginning of white settlement at the Cape. The bulletin can thus be a good stimulus for motivating the pupils into active thinking about complex present day historical issues.

Reconstruction in pictures and cuttings of certain themes by the teacher can be displayed on the bulletin board. Picture boards or picture books created by small groups of pupils or individuals can also reveal the the pupils' attitudes, interpretations and misinterpretations.

To give space, Steyn (1982, p.112) urges that once a cutting has been read, discussed and noted, it should be removed from the bulletin board either to be filed away or destroyed.

Charts, pictures and maps: Like the chalkboard, these form one of the most common and readily available teaching aids. In dealing with complex events or those spreading over a period of time, it is common to illustrate with charts. The word 'chart' includes a variety of diagrams which may be 'process' or 'flow' diagrams (Green, 1963, p.183). A flow chart refers to a graphical representation of a process such as a manufacturing operation wherein the various steps in the production line are shown. But a process diagram is a series of pictures which depict a sequence of developments such as the stages of development from primitive arms to modern armourments.

A variety of wall charts and pictures are obtainable either as readymade commercial issues or they can be produced both by the teacher or the pupils. Although commercial charts and pictures are usually attractively designed, they often have either insufficient relevant information or too many irrelevant details. Teacher-made charts and pictures, however, are often more meaningful as they include only those necessary and relevant pieces of information needed for the teacher's specific purpose. The details can be filled in by the class in co-operation with the teacher and so produce class participation. Such charts are also ideal for revision. After a reasonable time on the wall to allow for familiarisation, the charts should be stored away for later use.

Models; Models are three-dimensional, solid and exist in space (not on a plane surface). Examples are cast or plaster copies of fossils or

low relief maps. The basic intention of models is to demonstrate what cannot be readily brought to the classroom because it is too large, too costly or very rare (Green, 1963, p.200). They are also used to enlarge something that may be microscopic in its original form.

Models are very useful visual and tactile aids for the younger children, especially working models which can be manipulated by the pupils. Pupils may also be encouraged to make clay or plasticine models which are not very complicated. Understanding can be facilitated by models as they often simplify complex processes and movements. Models may be described as impressionistic if they illustrate a point in structure or function without necessarily reflecting the actuality of structure. They are representational if they reflect the real structures and processes as in simplified or true-to-scale models (Green, 1963, p.229).

Models of certain artefacts and structures found in historical museums can be made. The mould-and-cast method with plaster of Paris can be used to get exact copies of the original - say a rare fossil. However, this method may damage the original artefact if it is used by a novice. Thick cardboard, polysterene and plywood are also good modelling media. A sand tray with a drawn diorama can be used for setting up an appropriate and realistic background for displaying historical models. The sand can be modelled to represent mountains and rivers and small twigs can be planted to suggest vegetation. In making models it is wise to include only what is necessary to ensure that pupils grasp what is taught (Steyn, 1981, p.116). For an example of a model, the life of the trekboers could be demonstrated with spans of oxen struggling with loaded wagons across dangerous mountain passes, the boers' farming activities and their day to day life. Another example could be dated models of the various machines in the development of, say, the textile industry, could bring to life the usually dull account of such inventions.

The greatest advantage of all these visual aids is that they can be easily procured or made either by the teacher or the student. They do not need complicated machinery, nor do they need electricity for operation. However, like all teaching aids, they do demand diligent planning and well thought-out execution by a knowledgeable teacher.

(C.1.2) Static projected visual aids: This category depends on the use of projectors for production of an enlarged picture. These machines include the episcope, epidiascope, and the slide, the filmstrip and the overhead projectors. With these machines printed material, pictures,

photographs, maps and small specimens such as medals can be projected on the classroom screen. Cable (1970, p.40) distinguishes between opaque projection and transparent still projection. The former group refers to those machines which can project non-transparent materials such as a book or a piece of rock. The projection of static transparent pictures such as from a slide or film strip, is referred to as transparent still projection.

Episcope and epidiascope: An episcope can project an image of an opaque or a solid object. An epidiascope is a refinement of an episcope whereby it is combined with a slide projector for micro-projection. Therefore an epidiascope can be used with opaque objects as well as transparencies. As this machine can magnify and project any picture from any flat original printing, it is ideal for group viewing. This is extremely useful in history because maps, charts and diagrams from reference books, may be easily shown for comparison and additional information without the extra labour of having to reproduce them in enlarged form. To avoid having to page through many books during the lesson, episcopic pictures can be prepared on a series of separate cards or on a paper-strip which can be pulled through the machine as the lesson progresses (Green, 1963, p.10). Small solid projects such as fossils and artefacts can also be viewed from an episcope albeit from no more than one plane at a time.

Projection from an episcope allows for superimposition of details from various sources, and small charts can be projected onto large sheets of paper. Thus a series of wall maps and pictures can be prepared easily, accurately, quickly and cheaply. The class can view even microscopic diagrams through the epidiascope. However, flimsy material may be damaged by the heat of the projector. (Cable, 1970, p.49).

Slides: Picture slides fall under the transparent still projection group and can be viewed through a slide projector. Picture slides add to the realism of what is taught. Although some slides are commercially manufactured, every teacher can produce his own slides by taking pictures with a slide camera. Educational slide pictures of historic places and important personalities or statues can be arranged and re-arranged according to the demands of a particular lesson. To avoid confusion, Steyn (1981, p.116) warns that only a limited number of well-selected slides, say about ten, should be used in a single lesson. The advantages and simplicity of operation of the slide projector has made the educational world slide-minded (Cable, 1970 p.43).

Filmstrip: The filmstrip operates in the same principle as the slides, except that each strip consists of a number of consecutive pictures. The fixed arrangement of the pictures in the strip may be helpful to illustrate a lesson in which strict sequence of stages is essential as for example, the manufacturing of a product. The still picture allows the pace of the lesson progress to remain in the hands of the teacher . The essential rapport between the teacher and the class is maintained since the normal flow of communication is not restricted.

The disadvantage of the filmstrip is that among the pictures there may be some irrelevant ones. As it is inflexible, the re-arrangement of the pictures in the desired order to exclude the irrelevant ones is not possible. Except for its inflexibility, the filmstrip can be repeatedly shown and can be changed at any stage during the lesson (IAAM, 1965, p.142). To overcome the problem of inflexibility, however, the filmstrip can be cut into separate pictures and put into slide amounts. Then they can be used as ordinary slides (Cable, 1970, p.42).

Overhead projector: The overhead projector can project large transparencies on to a screen behind the teacher. The material can be in black and white or colour. Working models and silhouttes can also be projected.

This aid adds to the advantages of the chalkboard as the teacher can construct diagrams or write notes facing the class as the lesson proceeds. The teacher can present visual material at will in large or small units, while always watching and assessing the reaction of the class to the various illustrations. The overhead projector, in addition to the chalkboard advantages it has, combines those of the slide or filmstrip projector and "can take on the functions of the episcope, and pictures can be presented in full daylight" (Vincent, 1970, p.3). In this way the overhead projector can be employed simultaneously with the chalkboard, textbooks, atlases and wall charts. Another advantage is that the transparancies may be erased with water, or they may be preserved for future use.

The production and preparation of the transparancies needs some artistic skill, care and effort before one can really enjoy the many advantages of the overhead projector.

(C.1.3) Non-static projected aids: Examples of this category of teaching aids includes the film-loop and the silent film. They operate in the same principle as the filmstrip with the difference that they are moving

pictures.

Film loop: This is usually found in the 8mm cassetted loop. When placed in a special projector pictures covering a single concept or topic are projected for up to four minutes. The cassette can be started or removed at any part of the loop. (Cable, 1970, p.54).

Film loops are specially useful in showing continuous action, for example, working of a machine, or stages of development such as military tactics. Thus the moving picture makes a 'live' performance more realistic and convincing to the child, and animation can be used to illustrate abstract concepts (Cable, 1970, pp.53-54). The disadvantage that the loop has a predetermined lesson pace can be overcome since any frame of the film can be held static on the screen while the teacher explains more about it. Further, one can shoot a film of one's own and have it loaded in a cassette.

Silent moving film: Silent cine-projection works just like the loop except that it is a longer film which is usually not cassetted. The earliest films were silent productions. In the film the logical continuity of meaning is preserved by the picture sequence and the use of sub-titles or explanatory notes projected on the screen. The silent film has the advantage that the teacher gets a better chance to make his own commentary while the film is playing. IAAM (1965, p.142) comments that "the moving film can bring history to life by introducing times past or places far distant into the classroom more vividly than any other aid". Introductory discussion by the teacher should supply the necessary background to the lesson, while a recapitulatory lesson will deepen the impressions gained by the class.

Mute films are unsatisfactory because of the absence of expert aural explanation. Another problem is that not many good historical films are available, probably because of the expense involved in producing them. Although they are normally hired, the problem of getting the films at the right time makes them unpopular.

The general disadvantages of projected aids are that they are rather expensive, require electricity and knowledgeable people for operation.

(C.1.4) Non-static non-projected visual aids: This category of teaching aids includes mobiles, puppets, real specimens in nature or museums and dramatisation.

Mobiles: Mobiles are wall charts which, instead of lying still on a flat wall surface, hang separately and independently on fine threads where they can move in the eddies of the classroom air (Cable, 1970, p.32). In its mobility the slowly turning two-dimensional chart comes to life as a three-dimensional 'mobile' aid which attracts the pupils' attention. A model or even the article itself can be suspended as a mobile.

Construction and hanging of mobiles can offer the pupils useful and educative participation in group work and revision. Once suspended the mobile refuses to be absorbed in the flat mural decoration of the classroom and few chldren can resist the appeal of movement and action. This is an ideal aid for reinforcing concepts and for revision.

Puppets: For the younger children puppets and puppet theatres can be a great fun and yet be of immense instructional impact. The puppets are motivated into action either by hand, finger or string. The commonly used types of puppets include marionettes, hand, glove-and-finger, rod, and shadow-puppets. The activating element is usually concealed from the viewers. Many pupils with an artistic touch can demonstrate their thoughts and lessons through creative puppetry (Brown, 1977, pp.307-309).

Dramatisation: Under this subtopic is included simulation games and role-playing activities, wherein the pupil himself or his classmates are involved. Simulations are in many respects models of the real world in which participants are assigned specific roles involving making decisions and solving problems (Brown, 1977, p.292).

Although a simulation game usually combines the decision-making with real life elements of the simulation, "it also includes the clearly specified rules for interaction and competition that are characteristic of games" (Brown, 1977, p.293). The outcome of the game may or may not require a winner.

The participants are able to gain insight into the complexities, conflicting interests and emotional potentials of a given situation. Although there are some prepared simulation games such as 'Crisis', 'Ghetto','Democracy' and 'Propaganda',the history taecher can prepare many topics for such games (Brown, 1977, pp.294-301).

In informal dramatisation role-playing activities are emphasised.

Role-playing activities can be described as unstructured impromptu simulation games and usually grow out of problems concerned with people's actions and beliefs. In dramatisation the participants "identify with and become involved with the roles they are playing" (Brown, 1977, p.304). All these activities are and should be highly motivating to the participating pupils who should seek to achieve the objectives set for each activity. If well prepared and practised regularly these role-play activities will not only evoke natural pleasure among the pupils, but will also encourage creativity and free communication. In the social sciencesthe students can, through simulations, gain insight and knowledge about social processes, problems and personal responsibilities in contemporary society (Brown, 1977, p.310).

Real experience: Real experience occurs during school visits or expeditions when pupils gain direct experience of some things taught at school. On these occsions the pupils get a direct experience of meeting some historical figures such as premiers and monarchs and witnessing procedures in a house of parliament in session. An experience in a military base, ship or aircraft is likely to leave a clearer picture of what is involved in a modern warfare. Very few teaching aids would beat real life experience.

The problem with real life visual aids in history is that it is not always possible to get the real life experiences because of lack of time and the expense involved in transporting whole classes to these places.

(C.2) Aural teaching aids: The sense of hearing is often the most exploited in the school teaching-learning situation. Brown (1977,p.201) observes that 90% of the time in high schools and colleges is likely to be spent by the student in listening. However, only a fifth to a third of the stuff is retained. The most commonly used aural teaching aids are the record player and the radio.

Record players: Record players appear in many forms and shapes, such as the gramophone and cassette tape recorder. There is a wide range of pre-recorded audio materials in study kits and cassettes. Voices of important political figures such as Roosevelt, Hitler or Smuts can be brought 'live' to the pupils through such recordings. Or the significance and tenseness of a historical event such as the rout of the Spanish armada, Churchill's appeals to the nation during the Second World War, or Kennedy's commands during the Cuban Crisis can be recreated and help the class to

be audio witnesses to these remote events (Brown, 1977, p.198). A recording or parts thereof may be used to initiate a discussion, recapitulate or conduct a postlistening lesson and even for self-instruction (Cable, 1970, pp.68-69).

Teachers may exchange or acquire audio aids materials mainly from regional or national resource centres. The recording equipment is fairly cheap and easy to operate.

Radio: A radio education service may either be an enrichment broadcast when it gives a background scene or additional follow-up information to a curriculum lesson, or be direct teaching when a school curriculum topic is treated. The biggest advantage of the radio lesson is that specially selected experts provide countrywide tuition to thousands of pupils - even those in remote and isolated places (Brown, 1977, p.216). A broadcast becomes more helpful if the radio teacher gives a forecast of the lesson content and treatment so that the subject teachers may prepare some complementary notes, illustrative materials and follow-up or evaluation excercises (Cable, 1970, pp. 75-77).

The radio, however,has several limitations, namely, inflexible fixed broadcasting times, lack of lesson control by the teacher, inability to cater for the different ability or developmental groups and bad reception in more remote rural areas. In spite of these limitations and the competition from the television, educational radio services continue to grow in popularity (Brown, 1977, p.216).

Telelecturing and telephone teaching: These devices employ telephone lines to convey a voice or other sounds to remote areas. In tele-lecturing a two-way communication permits listeners to exchange views with the lecturer. With some adaptation telelecturing may permit private conversation or may be amplified for group teaching (Brown, 1977, p.218).

Telephone teaching allows telephone participation in lessons to 'shut-ins' or house-bound students. These audio teaching aids, however, are designed mainly to overcome the special problem of inability to attend regular classes.

(C.3) Audio-visual teaching aids: Advance in technology has so developed as to produce aids which appeal simultaneously to both the visual and the auditory senses. These include the sound film and sound strip,

the television, closed circuit television and the video tape. These techniques present images of living things to viewers.

Sound film and sound strip: To a great extent these teaching aids work in the same principle as the projected non-static visual aids discussed earlier, except that these are accompanied by sound production. Added advantages of the cine-sound films are that to the visual image the sound track lends realism in the form of genuine sound impressions as it also admits the voice of the expert in the lesson (Cable, 1970, p.81). In other words the advantages of the motion picture and recorded sound are combined in these audiovisuals. The major disadvantage of the sound film is that the teacher is completely excluded from its presentation of the lesson. Moreover it is difficult to adapt the rather cumbersome presentation machinery to ordinary classroom conditions. However, for the teacher's comments the sound can be faded out or the film may be stopped intermitently. Cable (1970, p.81) asserts that the cine-sound film, with its colour and clarity of presentation, "provides one of the closest approximations to actual experience that an aid can give".

Television, closed circuit television and video film: These teaching aids employ television technology for transmission of sound-accompanied pictures to the viewers. Television technology permits transmission of live programmes by cable, microwave, satellite or conventional broadcasting (Brown, 1977, p.248). Despite limitations similar to those of the radio above, the television "has the greatest potential of all the audio-visual aids in the field of education" (Cable, 1970, p.88).

As a combination of motion picture and sound, television experience comes closer to reality than the other contrived teaching techniques. As a result it is more absorbing to the child and thus claims his total attention. As a person, television teacher is more real than the hollow voice of the radio teacher. In television teaching all the other teaching aids mentioned above can be effectively employed in the best possible combinations for illustrative teaching. Hence IAAM (1965, p.146) says that a television broadcast can offer much more in resources than even the most competent teacher. From it pupils can see and listen to an international scholar treating a field of his speciality, and see historical personalities and localities without visiting them.

Broadcasts can either be listened to directly by the pupils or the teacher

can record the programme for later treatment and play back to the class. Such recorded lessons become a valuable asset of the history department. Over the printed word these audio-visual media have the advantage of immediacy as they present simultaneously all the features of a scene. Harris (1979, p.34) observes that as a dynamic audio-visual medium the television has a potential for a high degree of involvement because the child easily identifies with what he sees and hears.

Television has been most successfully used for replay of human interactions, in presentation of visual material for analysis, and in presenting ideas and materials which are not accessible to students within their own situation.

Regarding the video it could simply be said that it is a pre-recorded film, usually in cassettee, which can be transmitted onto a television screen for the viewers. The closed circuit television on the other hand is simply an extended transmission of a television signal by a closed cable to a limited number of receivers to an area where another audience can view what is showing on the television. So both the video and the closed circuit television are subject to the flaws and strengths of the television.

(C.4) Machinery to produce teaching aids: Worth mentioning in this chapter is also a range of copying and photographic machines used to produce some of the teaching aids referred to above. This is because although there are many ready-made educational and commercial products, it is often necessary for the teacher to produce teaching aids which will suit his own situation.

Among the machines for copying may be mentioned the spirit duplicator, the scanner or mimeography, the photocopier and off-set printing (Brown, 1977, pp. 416-428). While off-set printing is only used for preparations of a copy for the masters from which many copies can be made, the other techniques can produce multiple copies from whatever is printed. So these are very useful for quickly reproducing map outlines, pictures, charts or cartoons and exerpts from reference books or past examination question papers either for reference, classwork or homework.

Another useful form of reproduction in teaching aids is photography. Photographic equipment and techniques include slide, cine and video camers and how to process the films (Brown, 1977, pp.429-442,149-168).

It is important for the history teacher to know how to capture any image, scene or picture of interest for future use in his class. Hence the teacher must know the basic photography techniques. However, the problem of the use of the more technological aid-producing machines by untrained people would result in amateurish reproductions of low quality and thus defeat the educational ends.

Yet it is perhaps the neglect of these teaching aids that history teaching in school has often been condemned as "dull and irrelevant to life; (where) there is so mich teaching and so little learning" (IAAM. 1965, p.163). As Green (1963, p.247) so aptly put it: being victims of our schooling as teachers and "steeped in a verbal tradition, we remain verbalists rather than visualists".

With practice each teacher will find that he is more adapt in using some aids than others; that different topics are better treated through the use of one particular aid rather than other one; and that some classes respond more to visual than aural aids; or that static visual aids are often more effective during the course of a lesson than in an introduction or as an end summary. The teacher's technical repetoire will also increase with use. Yet the history teacher should be warned not to be overwhelmed by the variety of aids at his disposal;

> "Nor should he become too humble before them. There is still no machine which can achieve all that a teacher can. (Hence while) the teacher should be technically competent, aware of the aids available, conscious of the value of such aids,....
>
> he should not become a blind worshipper of the machine" (IAAM, 1965 p.152).

Timing, pace and awareness of individual needs must remain important considerations whenever teaching aids are used.

Literature on audio-visual aids falls into two main types. The first describes the aid, its general use and its limitations. The second type of article, often found in a teaching journal, describes a particular use of an aid for a particular lesson topic. In the journal, Teaching history, for example, a total of forty three articles have appeared since the journal's inception in 1969. With the exception of the use of computors in history teaching, all the articles fall into the second category and are not concerned with any fundamentally new approach to the aid itself.

CHAPTER IV

SOME METHODOLOGOCAL STRATEGIES

Consideration must now be given to how the teaching aids mentioned in the foregoing chapter can be effectively utilised for the teaching of history. There are several general and specific methods for history teaching. Although some of these will be referred to, three broad approaches to history teaching are worth special mention, namely, the traditional, the audiovisual and the 'new history' or activity approach. An attempt to emphasise that in all these approaches lessons should constantly be approached audiovisually shall be made. This audio-visual approach seems the one able to equip the child to cope with the modern generally rapid development wherein the individual is expected to know more than he ordinarily can remember. This approach seems to have the potential to assist the individual to acquire more knowledge more rapidly because the pupil becomes involved and therefore experiences the situation as a reality. In fact modern research has shown that "a child acquires 72% of his knowledge through seeing (and only) 14% through hearing" (Oosthuizen 1981, p.100).

(A) Traditional approach

(A.1) Narrative method: The so-called traditional approach is more teacher-centred and often relies on the narrative method. It aims at presenting more subject matter than the learner can discover independently. In the hands of a good story-teller this method provides a wonderful opportunity for the teacher to touch the emotions of his pupils. But to a novice and a less gifted teacher, the narration often drones to a lifeless monotony for the passive pupils. It is at such times that the chalkboard can come in handy as a teaching aid to involve the child.

In the talk-chalk approach the narrative is punctuated by recording of the main points, quick sketches and drawing of maps. The pupils get involved as they take down what is on the board or ask questions where they do not understand. Wall charts, pictures, diagrams and maps can also be progressively displayed to illustrate a specific point or topic or a particular situation or development that took place (Oosthuizen, 1981, p.105). It can hardly be overemphasised that most history topics should be taught with the aid of a map to localise events and places.

The use of an overhead projector would also have a similar effect, although class control and assessment of understanding would be better monitored as the teacher remains facing the class.

As the teacher necessarily pauses here and there to stress a point, an epidiascopic flash of a picture or a cartoon of the individual or situation in question often drives a point home as the pupils' interest is captured. Along with the pictures quotations by or about the personalities being treated can also be projected for the class. Such quotations (some humorous) from original sources such as diaries and letters, make the historical figure more natural and human than most fact-congested textbooks tend to portray them.

The slide and filmstrip are also useful complements to the traditional lecture method. As the lesson continues pictures of the people, places and situations in the lecture can be progressively shown, explained and commented on by the teacher. With slides the teacher can arrange the order of the pictures to suit his prepared lesson. The pace of viewing can also be adjusted to the needs of the class.

Auditory aids can also be used during a lecture. A recorded voice of a statesman, the bangs and roars of modern warfare, and the drumming rhythm of a marching song could appeal to the emotions of the pupils and make the narrative livelier and real. Dramatisation of important historical events or speeches may be played at the beginning or end of the lecture. The pupils may be required to answer a list of questions while listening to the playback.

Because history is necessarily narrative in nature, the lecture method is likely to remain the core of history teaching. But if it is remembered that 72% of the child's knowledge is acquired through sight, by itself the narrative method in history will remain inadequate to the adolescents unless it is supplemented with audiovisual aids (Dance, 1970, p.64).

With the characteristically wide history syllabuses for the large classes, the emphasis of the traditional narrative approach was on content-the acquisition and the memorisation of extensive factual knowledge. Encouraged by examination methods which largely required repetition of given facts the traditional approach showed an almost total disregard of a conscious development of historical understanding (Burston, 1972, p.224).

(A.2) Textbook method: The textbook is in itself a teaching aid. But in the hands of the inexperienced and lazy, the evils of unsupplemented or unimaginative narrative approach are likely to be encountered in the textbook method. This happens when the teacher simply reads to the class the story from the textbook without trying to elucidate and explain the key points, or when he ignores the many pictorial aids usually found in

modern textbooks. Some modern textbooks often include such features as copies from original sources and secondary sources, photographs, cartoons, drawings and statistical data. Further guidance is often available for the pupil in the form of possible assignments and questions.

Oosthuizen (1981,p.41) warns that the teacher must be aware that "the facts of the textbook are dead and static" and no single textbook is complete. It is the task of the teacher to present these facts in a digestible form. Hence it is advantageous to use several reference books in addition to the textbook so as to draw the pupils' attention to the various view points of the different authors. As a teaching aid the textbook can be used as a source for a discussion lesson. After an introductory lesson pupils may be required to solve a set problem by referring to their textbooks. In preparing for such a class discussion pupils should be encouraged to make their own notes. In this way the textbook makes a handy and concise source for reference purposes.

Secondly, materials such as pictures, cartoons, maps and photostatic exerpts from original sources may be supplied as a mental stimulus to the pupils. Interpretative questions may be asked on the given materials. For revelent background reading for such assignments, the pupils can be referred to their textbooks. Such an exercise may be given as a homework assignment, or as a preparation for a class discussion.

Thirdly, the textbook serves as a common source of knowledge which can be a basis and general guide for assignments and other class activities. Compiling of notes, quizzes, dramatisations and interpretation of source materials can be based on the textbook information. Programmed instruction where thought-provoking questions based on consecutive paragraphs are drawn up, is easy where a common textbook is used. Apart from the above intergrated uses of the textbook, others such as the open-book tests can be employed for comparative excercises and the development of critical thought. Comprehension excercises set from history textbooks are also useful. Furthermore, most of the teaching aids mentioned under the narrative approach above can be protitably employed with the textbook. So the text-book, being but a tool in history teaching, needs the touch of a master to achieve the desired results.

(B) New history - Activity approach

The scope of the so-called 'new history' for schools has as its basis the pupil conducting an inquiry on historical sources, recorded or

concrete. Thus as far as possible the pupils confront history at 'first hand'. Thereby it is hoped that the stress on methods of work adopted by professional historians should inculcate greater understanding of what is characteristic of history as a subject (Burston, 1972, p.232). This experiential approach to history teaching mainly employs self-activity methods such as the project and problem-solving approaches. The commonly used teaching strategies include simulations, games and dramatisations. Original source materials, local and environmental history, and classroom kit packages afford good opportunity for implementing the 'new history' (Steele, 1976, p.56).

(B.1) Original source material: Bruner (1968) attracted more attention to the use of original sources in history when he expounded on his assertion that a school child of any age can learn something of the structure of the subject in question. After this a drive for the pupils to work in the style of the professional historian gathered momentum (Steele, 1976, p.55). Coupled with Coltham and Fines taxonomy of skills-and-abilities objectives for history teaching (1971),Bruner's idea led to a vigorous use of original documents and source materials in classroom history. History teaching units based on the principle of original source investigation were also developed. The popularity of history teaching packages of this nature such as the 'Jackdaw' kits, the 'Archive teaching units' and the 'broadsheet' has increased rapidly especially in Britain (Steele, 1976, p.55).

The use of original source materials seeks to overcome the problem of the remoteness of time and place in history. In source teaching the pupil is confronted with archive and other documentary materials including historical extracts, statistics, maps, films and tapes in order to work out solutions to problems, or to complete a project using the evidence that is at his disposal (Shemilt, 1980, pp.2-4). In this way the pupil is required actually to investigate, somewhat in the style of a historian, in the hope of developing the historian's skills, attitude and interest (Steele, 1976, p.56). The pupil is thus trained in the method of enquiry and intellectual skills such as the formulation of questions, giving explanations and evaluation of evidence. Pupil participation can be further achieved if they are involved in making their own 'original' sources in the form of imaginary historical letters, scrolls and diaries. The class may also be required to produce a newspaper supposed to have been printed during a certain period of history in the past (Oosthuizen, 1981, p.122). Group and individual class collections of these 'original sources' can trigger a healthy

spirit of competition. According to Shemilt's evaluation (1980), through the use of such techniques, the Schools Council has been very successful in its efforts to revitalize history teaching and to encourage pupil participation in learning. However, Green's warning (1963, p.345) about the importance of conducting own research programmes in such matters rather than rely upon studies made in entirely different conditions, may be pertinent to Transkei since as a Third World country she is socio-economically far behind the western countries from which these research results come.

(B.2) Local and environmental history: The study of local history involves much fieldwork in the form of visits to historical sites and on-the-spot investigations. Apart from examining concrete objects, environmental history also involves interviews with old community members about matters such as the origins of the community, names of streets, townships, mountains and rivers. Such information can be recorded as a history of that society. Therefore local history has a special appeal to those who advocate that history in school should be studied in the style of a professional historian. Through it pupils are practically involved in tangible history. They experience "real contact, tangible evidence and concrete history far removed from the textbook" - a transformation from the dull and boring to the active and practical in the exciting world of reality (Steele, 1976, p.53). This technique makes use of both careful investigation and assessment of printed materials, and of practical investigation of the environment. However, although the value of local history studies in schools is self-evident, it is surprising that by 1976 this area of study had not yet generally been adopted even in British schools where much about it had been published. Steele (1976, p.53) diagnosed the problem in the teachers' critical attitude towards local history because they themselves lacked confidence and expertise in this field as most had never been exposed to such experience during their training. The difficulties of local history should not be under-estimated because the teacher requires fieldwork skills and a wide knowledge of the range of available local history sources in libraries, museums and record offices. Thorough preparation for each outing in the form of background teaching, pre-visits and worksheets to stimulate the child and help him organise the historical information offered by the site is essential (Nicholas & Thompson, 1972 p.230)

The Schools Council (1977, pp.9-10) emphasises the value of firsthand contact with history in the conceptual development of the adolescent. Douch (1976, p.7) has much to say about the sociallising effect of local history and its potential to integrate with other school disciplines. Local history

studies sharpen the inquiry discovery initiative of the pupils.

(B.3) Simulations, games and dramatisations: Taylor and Walford (1972, p.32) observe that from all class levels there is an increasing demand "for curriculum material which is seen to be relevant to the society in which they live". This demand is in line with the Brunerian dictum that 'the value of any piece of learning over and above the enjoyment it gives is that it should be relevant to us in the future'. To meet these demands calls for problem-based or issue-oriented curricula have resulted in increased use of simulations and dramatisations as activity teaching methods (Taylor and Walford, 1972, pp.32-33). Children appreciate being involved . There are many who can narrate, dramatise, act and draw. These talents can be exploited to illustrate history in the classroom situation. Pupils can even produce their own scripts by compiling individual or group picture books on certain themes. Class discussions can be led through dramatisation of exerpts or situations as the pupils interpret them. Thereby pupils will not only be involved in the search for knowledge but will also demonstrate their knowledge in games, drama, drawings and debates. Such pupil participation imbues the child with a sense of achievement and belongingness to history.

As activity methods games and simulations have been widely used in USA and Britain (Steele, 1976, p.58). Games are clearly structured with well-defined roles, and therefore are especially suitable for and popular with younger pupils. However, many games have been designed for the upper classes. Many games usually take the cultural-historical approach where the child is occupied with games related to the various stages of development. As he matures the pupil has to produce and work with toy tools and pieces of machines of the different stages, for example, arrows, assegais, hoes, ploughs, spinning and weaving machines (Oosthuizen, 1981, pp.30-31).

Simulations on the other hand are usually more complex and open-ended in that individual responses determine the direction and outcome of the excercise. Such an excercise, maintains Steele (1976, p.59), acts as a practical demonstration of some academic concepts, and pupil participation produces "a depth of realism and a sense of involvement" which often result in co-operation and intense discussion. In this activity method the teacher's role as an adviser rather than a fountain of information is more defined. The greater element of oral work

in simulations enables the less able pupils to make a more positive contribution. Both Vygotsky and Bruner (Taylor and Walford,1972, p.32) have suggested that insufficient language practice may restrict the development of the child's thought processes. Furthermore Oosthuizen (1981, p.34) reports that an experiment in Britain proved that "whereas people remember 20% of what they hear, and 50% of what they see, they remember 70% of what they say".

About dramatisation similar comments as those on simulation can be made, except that in addition pupils perhaps enjoy the play more and indulge in more historical thinking (Steele, 1976, pp.60-61). Pupils can be encouraged to dramatise scenes with adequate opportunities for interesting dialogues. For the play to be as authentic as possible, the characters must project themselves back into the past. This requires adequate research by the pupils and the teacher about each character portrayed.

Instructional simulation is particularly advantageous in developing student motivation and provides relevant learning material (Taylor and Walford, 1972, pp.34-44). Motivational advantages include claims that interest and excitement in learning are heightened, the dynamic nature of simulation restricts appeal to 'conventional wisdom' as it demands originality from the participant, and the traditional student-teacher polarisation is removed by this self-monitoring excercise. With regard to relevance in learning simulation is acclaimed to promote exchange of views among students of different ability levels. While the gifted are motivated to greater heights, yet the less gifted are not adversely affected as they learn from their classmates at their own pace. Understanding of decision-making processes, the vagaries of chance and the effect of human relationships in group organisation or individually is deepened. Since there have to be total approaches to problems, simulations are a vehicle for free inter-disciplinary communication where for example, human, economic, political and moral factors impinge on the simulated situation. Their concrete approach to situations also bridges the gap between the schoolwork and the 'real world', the participants make their decisions under the protection of the risk-free learning environment of the school.

However, Steele (1976, p.59) notes that these techniques may be criticised for some distortions of time, place and personality. Other disadvantages are that simulations are time-consuming to construct and perform, prepared kits are expensive, and operational problems of logistics and general acceptance both to the teacher and students may be posed by simulations.

(C) Small-group work: Sometimes because of feelings of anxiety and intimidation towards direct teacher tutoring, some students respond best in learning situations wherein they are involved with their peers. Such students may be stimulated by their friends' encouragement in a team effort for the attainment of group goals. To provide such a unity of effort in which students can learn from each other, small-group work is ideal. Group work is considered by Dunn and Dunn (1978, p.55) as the first step towards independence in the instructional setting. Small groups further provide structures with auditory and visual experiences. In these circumstances, therefore, motivation, persistance and responsibility are likely to be enhanced (Dunn and Dunn,1978, p.57). Therefore a variety of small-group work arrangements is another problem-based self-activity teaching method. The six small-group work divisions that will be referred to are: controlled discussion, step by step discussion, brain-storming and buzz-groups, problem-centred groups, case-study groups, and free or leaderless group discussions. In the above list each successive group-work variety makes greater demands on the pupils' responsibility, his initiative and his autonomy as a learner. The teacher on the other hand has to do thorough advance planning so that on presentation of the lesson he can easily withdraw from his clearly defined leadership role after introducing the lesson to allow the pupils to learn on their own.

(C.1) Controlled discussion: In this group-work the teacher guides the discussion with calculated questions to elicit response from as many pupils as possible. The group is then encouraged to discuss the comments on its own.

(C.2) Step-by-step discussion: By challenging groups with well graded problems or questions, the teacher gradually leads the pupils to more complex excercises. This teacher directed Socratic method is often teacher-centred and convergent in that all the individuals or groups are expected to come up with a single 'right answer' (Lindgren and Suter, 1985, p.319). The process alternates between teacher-talk and pupil activity as the pupils have to engage at solving a problem at each step.

(C.3) Brain-storming and buzz groups: These are two closely related methods. In these methods students are encouraged to find divergent solutions to a posed problem. In brain-storming the group's previous knowledge, experience and attitudes on a topic are rapidly pooled at the beginning of a lesson. Groups of not more than six pupils each are asked a single question from which multiple answers and creative responses or alternative solutions are possible. Spontaneous responses with the aim of positive image

building are encouraged (Dunn and Dunn, 1978, p.71). This helps to open up the pupils' minds to new ideas, contrary opinions and to develop a critical mind. During this brief brain-storming session the teacher can also assess the group's level of knowledge and where to start the next lesson. At the report-back the ideas of the various groups are classified to recognise overlaps and irrelevances.

The buzz-group also calls for a critical response because a quick answer or solution to a problem or summary of previous work or information is required. This speed excercise of five to ten minutes can be done with most teaching aids such as written material, still and moving pictures, artefacts and aural materials. This helps to train the group in quick and keen observation and comprehension. It also affords maximum spontaneous participation to the class.

(C.4) Problem-centred groups: Here a group of up to ten pupils is confronted with a definite problem which can occupy up to a whole period. For example a group may be given some original material or artefacts to investigate according to a prepared worksheet; or the problem may be a search for the correct answer sometimes including an element of selection and organisation (Bligh, 1972, p.34). If it is a multi-choice excercise good reasons must be advanced for the choice of each answer and for the rejection of each distractor. In this way the group co-operate in learning and are likely to develop better understanding of some concepts. As this is a time-consuming exercise, it requires expeditious students so that a report-back can be done within the period to maintain interest.

In another variant of the problem-centred method, the fish-bowl, the observer-assessors form a circle around the discussants. The observers comment on the order of the discussion, noting any illogical or irrelevant points and omissions. The inner group has to defend their position. At intervals the participating group may exchange positions with the observers.

On the other hand cross-over groups tackle the same problem simultaniously. Then a member from a group crosses over to another to report on the progress of his group. Transfers occur at the same time and the host group has also to give an account of their progress. This varient trains the pupils in succinct reporting and encourage interaction in working together among unlike-minded individuals and groups.

In associative discussion pupils associate their own experience with those of some historical figures, a kind of role playing. The pupils' imaginative experience is pooled to influence attitudes through participation.

(C.5) Case-study groups: An even longer period of operation is often required for this group-work. The group may be asked to apply acquired knowledge or theory to practice, or perform some simulation. A considerably complex case on which questions are posed is presented to the group. By applying laws, generalisations and implications derived from previous similar cases, and considering particular variables and priorities the group usually arrives at open-ended solutions. Much discussion and argument is often sparked off when assessment is made by other groups and the teacher at a report-back session. Varieties of this technique include the syndicate, gaming, and role-play.

In a syndicate or group project a group of four to six pupils works by itself in the library or at home, only bringing a written report to the teacher and the rest of the class for discussion. Through this technique analytical skills in problem-solving, teamwork, committee procedure, library skills, interdisciplinary thinking and the beginning of empirical enquiring are stimulated and developed (Bligh, et al, 1980 p.34).

In games definite rules are set to direct the course of the game. For example to demonstrate such economic concepts as found in the Great Depression principles of the game of 'monopoly' can be modified or the Johannesburg Stock Exchange game can be used.

Role play involves setting a plot and acting out of a situation wherein a principle, attitude or value is represented by each character. At the end of the play the relationships, the solution or the interaction of the characters are noted to assess the group's appreciation or understanding of the intricacy of situations involving human relationships.

(C.6) Free group and leaderless group discussions: In this category of group discussion the teacher keeps himself occupied at the periphery or is absent. He makes no authoritative exposition except at the end of the period if the group fails to correct their errors and reach a sound conclusion. Bligh, et al (1980 p.34) observe that objectives of free group discussion are concerned with attitude change, powers of reasoning, and the development of perceptual skills through rational

discussion.

Powell (1974) notes that where the teacher was absent students participated more freely and doubled their contribution especially on critical argument. Many students showed more confidence and readiness to expose their ignorance to colleagues by raising those questions which worried them. They found the discussion atmosphere more candid and relaxed; but they also noted that there was more fooling around, irrelevance and insufficient correction of mistakes.

Regarding the more advanced techniques of group work more time and greater difficulty both for the teacher and the students is likely to be experienced. The class may be disturbed by the teacher's refusal to occupy his traditional authoritarian position. Consequently a period of resentment and hostility often lapses before the students willingly take responsibility for their learning through group work. However, despite the frustrations and even failures that one may experience with some of the group teaching methods, the techniques are important to train senior secondary students to think and accept some responsibility for their own learning as this will be expected more of them at tertiary education.

There are various classroom sitting arrangements which can be used for the different group-work schemes. The following are some sitting arrangements that may be adopted according to need:

CLASS ARRANGEMENTS FOR GROUP-WORK ACTIVITIES:

Thefollowing classroom arrangements, or their smaller fascimiles,for small groupwork, could be adopted and adapted for controlled discussions, step-by-step discussions, brain storming and buzz groups:

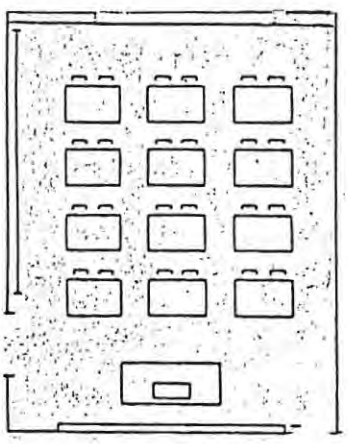


Fig.1: Lectures, Report, & Audio-visual projections

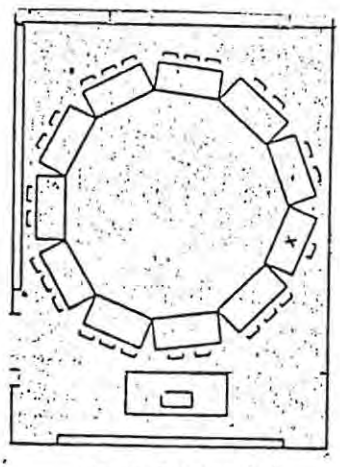


Fig.2: Teacher-led discussions.

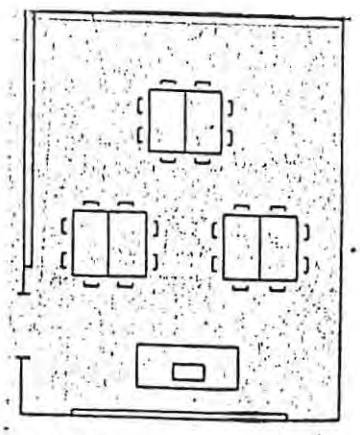


Fig.3: Simultaneous group discussions, Committee projects, & Smallgroups.

For problem-centred groups such as in case-study, the syndicate, associative discussion, cross-over groups or role play and the fish-bowl, the following patterns of class arrangements or their modifications may be relevant:

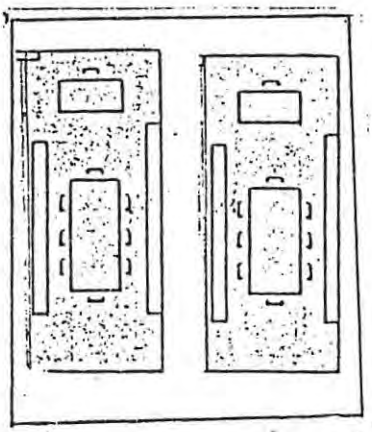


Fig.4: Syndicate, case-study, and Committee projects.

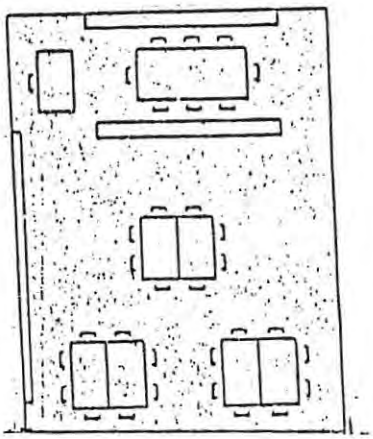


Fig.5: Associative discussions, Cross-over groups, Syndicates.

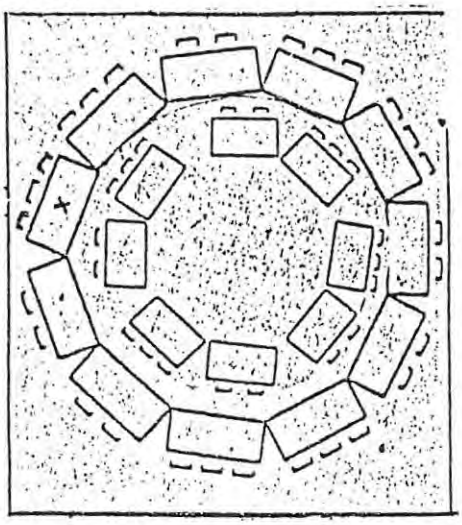


Fig.6: The Fish bowl.

This last range of classroom organisation may be ideal for dramatisations, simulation games, and symposiums:

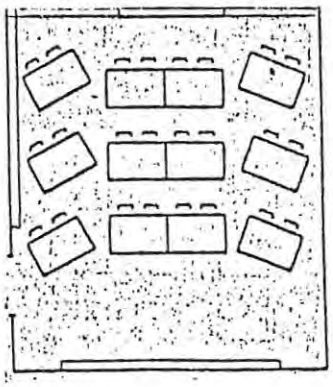


Fig.7: Dramatisation - Proscenium style.

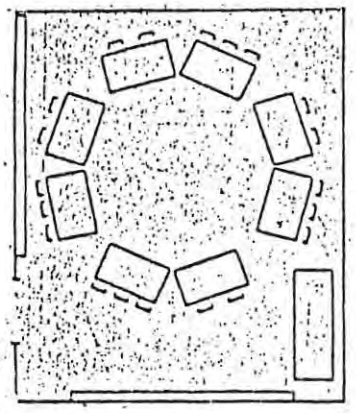


Fig.8: Dramatisation - Arena style.

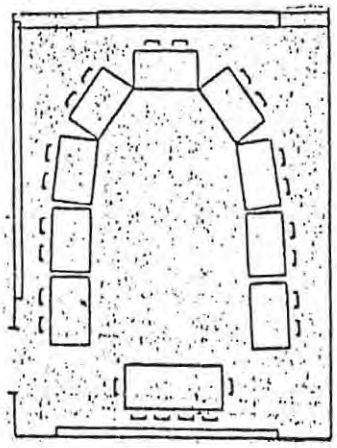


Fig.9: Symposiums, Panels, & Interpretative reading.

From the above it can be observed that self-activity offers individual pupils a chance of exploring history in depth by searching for evidence, comparing and selecting material to reconstruct and interpret past events. The child's active engagement in self-activity historical processes helps him to assign to the facts meanings in their context. Knowledge thus acquired becomes part of the pupil's living consciousness, his mental structure, and his ever-expanding and growing personality.

For activity historical methods in general Oosthuizen (1981, pp.131-133) suggests some important advantages:

(i) Pupils get the opportunity to use the library intelligently;
(ii) they develop responsibility and can study independently;
(iii) pupils learn to support their opinions by evidence;
(iv) they appreciate that historical truth is found not in one interpretation, but rather in a grasp of all the different interpretations available at one particular time;
(v) the pupil is exposed to mental processes similar to those who originally experienced the events;
(vi) the child gradually learns to express what he has learnt or what is in him, thus improving self-confidence;
(vii) the pupil is enabled to extend himself intellectually.

The Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters (1965, p.153) observes that these activity teaching strategies demonstrate with emphasis that history as the study of humanity which "is concerned with movements and institutions, with ideas and principles, and has as its core men and their lives" , must not be divorced from men and the world by the school bell. It is perhaps from this wider, more leisurely and enjoyable out-of-school routine activity that most of the riches of life can be tapped. Through such study of history beyond the confines of the textbook and classroom, "the flesh and blood of history take shape".

In this chapter the referrence to the various methodological approaches has been made to try to demonstrate that the traditional, the audio-visual and the 'new history' approaches to teaching history should be seen as complementary rather than mutually exclusive. By itself none of these approaches would seem to be capable of fulfilling all the aims of teaching history, nor of embracing all aspects of historical education. For instance over-emphasis on 'new history' may lead to a neglect of general historical knowledge (i.e. content); or may result in unwarranted

manipulating of the syllabus to accommodate original sources or preference for local history.

Having outlined the relevance of teaching aids and the importance of various approaches in teaching history at school level, the pertinent question is how much of these resource materials does Transkei possess and utilise in her senior secondary schools. Can she boast of being in step with the latest developments in the teaching of this important yet illusive subject?

CHAPTER V

TRANSKEI : THE LAND AND ITS EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

MAP V. i : THE TRIBES OF TRANSKEI

The map shows the Transkei split into its constituent districts and the principal tribes inhabiting the districts.

(Source: Campion, 1976, p.x)

MAP V. ii : THE DISTRICTS OF TRANSKEI

The districts of Transkei

(Source: Campion, 1976, p.x - modified)

CHAPTER V

TRANSKEI : THE LAND AND ITS EDUCATION SYSTEM

1. Demographic factors:

Transkei is situated in the south-eastern part of the Republic of South Africa. It is a land of broken landscapes with mountain ranges and deeply incised perenial rivers. With a coastline of 270 km and a land surface of about 4 500 000 hectares, Transkei is about the size of Denmark and double that of Israel (Campion, 1976, p.3; Van Rensburg, 1978, p.2). Three quarters of the surface can be described as hilly or mountanous and only about 11% of the surface is flat or rolling (Prinsloo, 1976,p.6). The boundaries are the Umzimkulu/Umtamvuna Rivers in the north, the Great Kei River in the south, the Indian Ocean in the east and the Drakensburg Mountains in the west. The Republic of South Africa and the Mountain Kingdom of Lesotho are Transkei's immediate neighbours. Transkei is inhabited by 3,6 million people, of whom only 4,4% are urban (1985 Sample Census). Of the total population 96% are Xhosa-speaking, who are divided into twelve different tribes (Du Preeze, 1980 p.44).

2. Historical Development:

Although Jan Van Riebiek landed at Table Bay in 1652, contact between the Whites and Xhosas at the Cape did not occur until the years between 1730 and 1778. In the latter year the Fish River was declared boundary between the white colonists and the Xhosas. However, missionaries and traders infiltrated into the Black areas and white farmers continued moving towards the present Transkei. This led to a series of wars and 'treaties' which often ended up with the annexation of further Black territory by the White Cape government. In 1847 the Kei River finally became the Cape's boundary with the Transkei Xhosas, hence the country's name.

Between 1879 and 1894, however, the Transkeian territories were gradually annexed to the Cape by the British government. By the Glen Grey Act of 1894 the British legalised their indirect rule in the area east of the Kei River through the so-called Council System and local self-government. The first Transkei General Council was introduced in the southern districts in 1895. This was systematically extended from area to area until in 1926 the system was functioning in the whole of Transkei. In 1931 an amalgamation of the various councils resulted in the United Transkeian General Council or'Bunga'

for the twenty six districts in the Transkei (Campion, 1976, p.78). In 1955 the Bunga recommended that the Nationalist Government's provisions contained in the Bantu Authorities Act of 1951, which was being applied to the rest of the Union of South Africa, should take the place of the council system. Consequently, in 1956 the Bunga was then replaced by a territorial authority, while tribal, district and regional authorities were established in the area's twenty six districts. After the passing of the Bantu Self-Government Act of 1959 the Transkei Territorial Authority resolved to accept internal self-government in 1963. Thus in 1963 the region's territorial authority was replaced by an elected and nominated legislative assembly with jurisdiction over certain internal affairs. In 1974 the Legislative Assembly decided to ask for Transkei's full independence from the Republic of South Africa. This was granted in October 1976.

3. Educational System:

At independence, of the 2,5 million people in Transkei, 47% were under fourteen years of age. In the 15-64 age group there were twice as many women as men, mainly because of the migrant labour system, which drained most economically active men into the mining and industrial areas of South Africa (Van Rensburg, 1978, p.26).

Transkei has a tradition of about 150 years of western education. At independence, the Transkei Department of Education controlled about 500 000 pupils and 10 000 teachers in 2 000 schools (Van Rensburg, 1978, p.51). Western education arrived in Transkei with various white missionary societies shortly after the settlement of the 1820 British Settlers in the Eastern Cape. Among others the Methodist Missionary Society, Church of Scotland, the Moravians, Anglicans, the Roman Catholic and the Dutch Reformed Churches played a prominent role in starting missionary schools. Many of these grew to be secondary and high schools. In fact the Wesleyans established the first of these schools in Transkei in 1923 (Magewu, 1983, p.2). For these early missionaries, education and Christianity were inseparable, since the former was seen as a tool for evangelisation. Although prominance was given to English, the missionaries also developed Xhosa into a written language with its first formal grammar book written in 1933. The mission school curriculum emphasised the three Rs and Bible reading. The arrival of Sir George Grey as Cape Governor in 1854, with his policy of 'civilizing' or westernising the Blacks, put education in Transkei under dual control. The Cape Government, under which the Transkei fell, now subsidised the missionary schools. Industrial training was introduced in schools and Blacks were encouraged to train as interpreters, evangelists and teachers.

By Act No.13 of 1865 the missionary schools for Blacks were integrated into the Cape education system. Now teachers' salaries, buildings and equipment were government-subsidised. This encouraged growth in education. However, as recently as 1910, Transkei provided only primary education (Magewu, 1983, p.3).

Up to 1922 the Cape colonial administration syllabi were also used in Transkei, both for White and Black schools. In 1922, a two-year course after standard 8 and a three-year course after standard 6 were introduced to train Black teachers (Magewu, 1983, p.4). In 1925 the use of government funds for education in Transkei increased educational facilities rapidly. In 1932 there were 1149 schools with 2302 teachers and 69 000 pupils. By 1940 pupil numbers had jumped to 120 000 (Magewu, 1983, p.4; Van Rensburg, 1978, p.57). In 1945 financial control of education for Blacks was given to the Minister of Education, Arts and Science in the Union Government. With such increased government control of educational finances, circularisation of education was stepped up and missionary influence rapidly diminished.

In the 1940s the Institute for Christian National Education (ICNE) principles came to the forefront. The CNE movement which had started Afrikaner schools in opposition to Milner's anglicization of boer (Dutch) education after the Anglo-Boer War of 1899-1902, was presented in 1948 as an education policy and a "blueprint of contemporary Afrikaner thinking...." (Rose and Tunmer, 1975, pp.113, 114; Behr, 1978, p.29). Clarifying and expatiating on the Afrikaner CNE view point in the 1960s Professor J.C. Coetzee (one of the original panel members of the CNE manifesto) re-affirmed that article 14 and 15 of the manifesto made it basic Afrikaner policy to advocate establishment of separate schools with distinctive characteristics to the communities they were to serve, and that education for other racial groups should not occur at the expense of white education. In fact with reference to Black education article 15 openly advocates "the principle of trusteeship, no quality and segregation" (Rose and Tunmer, 1975, pp.118, 119,127). The objection and fear of the non-Afrikaner, however, was that what the ICNE declared to be their sectional beliefs on education could (as they did) become national policy through Afrikaner political dominance.

Significantly in 1948 the Afrikaner Nationalist government took over power on a race separateness or an apartheid ticket. In the following year a commission to make plans for "education for natives as an independent race (bearing in mind) their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitude, and their needs under ever changing social conditions" was set up under Dr. Eiselen's chairmanship (Rose and Tunmer, 1975, p.244). When the commission's report appeared in 1951 the influence of the CNE policy was obvious. Of the commission's recommendations some of the unacceptable

to the Blacks were that black education had to be separate and different from the rest of the Union of South Africa; to be in mother tongue throughout the primary school up to standard six; and to be taken from provincial administration to central government where the Blacks could play a more direct role in financing their education (Rose and Tunmer, 1975, pp. 250, 257). To the Blacks the implication of these recommendations was interpreted as a move for inferior education for pertual service under the dominant Africaner section.

Black and liberal protests against implementation of some recommendations of the Eislen Commission were, however, fruitless as was proved by the Bantu Education Act of 1953. This legislation veiled the details of the more criticised recommendations of the Eislen Commission by vesting wide powers on the minister in control of Bantu Education. It could be easily recognised, however, that the act embodied many of the principles of the CNE manifesto and the Eislen report regarding race relations. The 1953 act for example provided for the transfer of Bantu education control from provincial administration to the Union central government; establishment of subsidised government schools and gradual reduction of subsidies to private and mission schools; prescription of medium of instruction and control of funds collected in Black schools (Behr, 1978, pp.169-170; Rose and Tunmer, 1975, pp. 258-260). With these provisions, therefore, Bantu education became a sub-department of the Ministry of Native Affairs from 1954. In 1958 a separate Department of Bantu Education was established by the Union government. Under its own director, Transkei became one of the six more or less ethnically-demarcated administrative regions of this Department until 1963, when self-government was granted to Transkei by the Republic of South Africa.

From its take-over the Nationalist government had ruled that, for efficiency and co-ordination, missionary schools should be given over to government control or suffer a decrease in subsidies. Those state-aided private and missionary schools which would not let go were granted only 75% government subsidy which sum gradually diminished until it completely stopped in 1958. Thus, education control and management in Black education had shifted from the missionary to local committees or boards and the central government.

One of the most controversial issues of this period in Black education was the question of medium of instruction. In 1922 Black schools in the Cape Province were directed to use mother tongue instruction up to standard two. This arrangement was altered by the advent of the Bantu Education Act of 1953. From 1956 Bantu Education syllabi were introduced in Transkei primary and secondary schools up to form III or standard 8. One prescription was that mother tongue was to be the medium of instruction up to standard six instead of stopping at standard 2;

and then one or both official languages (i.e. English and Afrikaans) would be used up to form III. In formulating these educational policies the White government acted without consulting the affected people. Consequently, contrary to expectations of policy makers, the Bantu Education Act met a widespread negative reaction "especially in Transkei" (Magewu, 1983, p.6). The problem of curriculum relevance to national needs and aspiration had been negated, while the strongly discriminatory connotations of the policy led to its complete rejection. Many teachers who had been trained in English were now faced with the unpleasant situation of having to switch over to mother tongue instruction with newly coined unfamiliar expressions. Moreover, the prospect of having to give instruction in Afrikaans to half of the content subjects at secondary school level suggested Afrikaner oppression to some teachers. Many did not have sufficient skill in Afrikaans to use it as a medium of instruction, and for most of the time this regulation could not be, and never was, applied. Its pupils were not sufficiently fluent in either English or Afrikaans by the end of the primary school; an extra year was added to the secondary school, giving a total cycle of thirteen years. Therefore many teachers decided to resign rather than to be instruments of this legislation. Referring to history teaching in particular, Vena (1987, p.31) remarks that a notable feature during the Bantu Education era in Transkei (1954 - 1962) was "loss of interest in the part of teachers as well as pupils".

In 1962 Transkei set up the Cingo Commission to investigate the problem of medium of instruction in schools. The commission report (Rose and Tunmer, 1975, pp. 193-200) emphasised that evidence was unanimous in favour of re-introduction of English as medium in primary schools, at least from standard two. Consequently the commission recommended retention of mother tongue instruction up to standard four, with a gradual introduction of either of the official languages intended as medium for secondary school. This would start at the rate of two subjects per year from standard five. When in 1965 this matter was given to the people, they were unanimous in choosing English as medium of instruction from standard three (Behr, 1978, p.178). For application of its recommendations the Cingo Commission also suggested reduction of the secondary school span by a year, thus reducing the thirteen year school system to twelve years in line with White education.

Regarding the question of a medium of instruction, in 1973 the K-N-N (the initials of the surnames of the commission members) Commission raised the topic again and argued strongly for mother tongue instruction at primary school level. This commission also pointed out that the standard of tuition and attainment over the era of Transkei self-government was very low due mainly to outmoded methods of teaching and lack of adequate resources and facilities (Vena,1987,

p.33). The language recommendations were not, however, implemented and the basic structure laid down by Cingo has been retained.

There is no doubt that the self-governing Transkei Department of Education inherited a confused and difficult situation in 1963, and many matters have still to be settled. From the beginning of self-government, however, it was realised that the development of a country depends much on its education. The Department of Education immediately took steps to move away from the disliked Bantu Education. From 1965 mother tongue instruction was up to standard two, after which English was used. The Transkei Education Act of 1966 empowered the government to provide for and control all types of education. The education budget allocation has always since been significantly high as the accompanying percentage allocations of the national budget indicate. The education department receives about 20% of the national budget, ussually the highest departmental vote. The situation over the previous ten years, since Transkei obtained autonomy, is shown in table V.1.

TABLE V.1 : EDUCATION BUDGET ANNUALLY

Year	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Vote in R million	24,9	41,7	55,5	43,6	77,5	83,4	98,1	138,7	148,8	238,7	252,2	343,5
% of Budget	18,3	17,5	16,9	17,2	24	22,3	21,5	22,1	18,6	24,3	19,2	21,4

Transkei education is based on a three-tier system; primary, post-primary or secondary, and tertiary or University or technical or teacher education. Up to 1974 a thirteen year school programme with the following divisions was followed:

TABLE V.2 : 13 - YEAR SCHOOL PHASES

Year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Class	Sub A	Sub B	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	Std 6	Form I	From II	Form III	Form IV	Form V
Phase	Lower Primary				Higher Primary				Junior Secondary			Senior Secondary or High School	

Together with other homeland governments, in 1975 Transkei accepted the twelve year structure of schooling (as a result of the changes in language policy). This was also followed by education departments in the Republic of South Africa. This new structure is divided into four three-year phases, namely:

TABLE V.3: 12 - YEAR SCHOOL SYSTEM

Year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Class	Sub A	Sub B	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10
Phase	Junior Primary			Senior Primary			Junior Secondary			Senior Secondary		

In practical implementation of this structure, however, the primary school phases are often treated as one unit, so that a 6 - 3 - 3 school system emerges. In the primary school phases, concentration is on creating situations which enable pupils to acquire new modes of thinking, and develop intellectual and personal skills, as well as attitude that will lay the foundation and provide tools for future learning. At the junior secondary phase some diversification in the choice of subjects is introduced; while at the senior secondary level pupils are streamed into definite fields of study which can be persued at tertiary level or as careers after passing standard ten.

To pursue these objectives, the Transkei Department of Education immediately embarked on developing its own syllabi for the primary school. Mother tongue was adopted for the first four years of schooling. Then a gradual switch is made to English which is the medium throughout secondary and tertiary education. Mother tongue, however, continues to be offered as a subject throughout the school programme. After independence in 1976, for secondary education Transkei adopted the syllabi of the Cape Education Department as an interim measure while Transkei syllabi were being compiled. Up to now, however, only minor adaptations have been made to some of the Cape syllabi

National or external examinations are written and certificates issued to the successful candidates by the Department of Education in the terminal standards of the junior secondary (standard 7) and the senior secondary (standard 10) phases. However, up to 1987 the old Junior Certificate was still issued to the standard 8 candidates since it was still an entrance qualification to many trade and vocational institutions.

High school or senior secondary syllabi have remained virtually

the same as those of the white schools so as to meet matriculation exemption certificate requirements of the Joint Matriculation Board. This Board, to which the Transkei Education Department is affiliated, is a statutory South African examining body charged with the maintainance of acceptable university entrance standard (Van Rensburg, 1978, p.58). It is composed of university representatives of affiliated examining bodies and Education Departments. At the time of writing, however, the Joint Matriculation Board is being changed to a new certification body.

The rate at which physical growth has accelerated in schools since the attainment of independence has been impressive. The following table which indicates the position in Transkei schools between 1975 and 1986 bears this out.

It has already been stated that secondary education developed only fairly recently in Transkei. As recently as 1963, 267 000 pupils were registered in 1 600 primary schools. In secondary schools, however, only 8 000 pupils were registered - about 3% of the school population. The growth of schools, teachers and pupils in the primary and secondary levels since independence is shown in Table V.4.

TABLE V.4 : SCHOOL PHYSICAL GROWTH 1975 - 1986

Year	Primary Schools			Junior Sec. Schools			Senior Sec. Schools		
	No. of schools	No. of pupils	No. of teachers	No. of schools	No. of pupils	No. of teachers	No. of schools	No. of pupils	No. of teachers
1986	1324	714523	11976	1503	142668	6726	246	59689	2419
1985	1324	689634	10777	1497	137823	6220	220	54819	2243
1984	1242	677521	10153	1444	131061	6015	211	47253	2013
1983	1186	638505	10193	1383	120183	5488	153	47903	1760
1982	1194	619727	9052	1271	118342	4809	119	46203	1447
1981	1177	589322	9452	1173	114899	4311	118	40889	1447
1980	1149	582091	8714	1174	114143	4484	112	36581	1426
1979	1148	564650	8875	1150	109237	4295	110	39944	1369
1978	1114	546421	8512	1142	101564	4115	110	33636	1176
1977	1029	513014	7909	1137	91313	3967	105	29307	1023
1976	1094	487444	7284	1102	81897	3491	99	26094	1113
1975	905	413270	7857	1003	78517	2110	83	13209	1030

(Source: Education Statistics Bureau)

First of all, it should be noted that the percentage of secondary school pupils had hardly increased between 1963 and 1975. In fact, in the latter year it was just 2,6%. Some improvement has occurred in the last decade. In 1986 the percentage of secondary school pupils was 6,5% of the school going population. Clearly this figure is still very low. However, considering that the pupil growth in this phase has more than doubled in only a decade some staffing and/or accommodation problems can be expected.

These statistics further indicate that in secondary schools growth was gradual in the 1970s. But it seems that in the 1980s growth in this level suddenly went out of hand and galloped in long strides. For instance, junior secondary schools increased by 28% between 1980 and 1986 with a 25% increase in pupil population, whereas senior secondary schools increased by 120% with a 63% pupil increase. In proportion to the schools' increase junior secondary teachers also increased by 28% during this period. Senior secondary teachers' number rose by 69%. This increase is far below the 120% increase in schools. Such enormous physical growth raises interest about the quality of personnel in these schools. An idea about the quality of teachers who handle this fast rising senior secondary school population is given in the following table of teachers' qualifications.

TABLE V.5: TEACHER DISTRIBUTION IN SEN. SEC. SCHOOLS BY QUALIFICATION

1 Year	2 Std 10 only	3 Std 6 + NPL	4 Std 8 + PTC	5 Std 10 + PTC	6 Std 10 + JSTC	7 Incomplete degree + SSTC	8 Degree only	9 Degree + prof.	10 Post-grad. prof.	11 Total
1983	27	17	82	418	786	167	128	216	107	1946
1984	90	-	33	392	629	251	183	422	98	2098
1985	41	-	15	390	561	439	190	463	148	2247
1986	43	40	84	344	388	615	427	356	122	2419
1987	38	5	46	337	388	721	157	717	110	2519

This table of teachers' qualification distribution from 1983 to 1987 (the years for which statistics were available), indicates an uneven decrease of the professionally unqualified in column 2 and the unmatriculated teachers (column 3 and 4) in senior secondary schools. This decrease of these categories is probably due to the matriculation entrance requirements for teacher training since 1983. There is also a decrease in the number of teachers holding those post-matriculation certificates meant for primary and junior secondary school phases (column 5 and 6). This is probably because, in trying to raise the

standard of education these two-year post-matriculation courses were abolished in favour of the three-year Primary and Secondary Teachers' Diplomas. These changes seem to have significantly encouraged the increase of teachers with Senior Secondary Teachers' Course (column 7) which also affords an opportunity for enrichment to students through private studies towards a degree. It will be observed that by 1987 senior secondary teachers who had no degrees (and therefore were academically unqualified to teach at this school level), were still more than 60%.

Now an analysis of how Transkei senior secondary schools were staffed with graduate teachers between 1983 and 1987 will follow. It is worth noting, in the foregoing table, however, that after a steady rise in the number of graduate teachers (column 8, 9 and 10), in 1987 there was a sudden drop among those with degrees only, while the number of graduates with professional certificates generally increased. The poor supply of graduate teachers is indicated in table V.6.

TABLE V.6: GRADUATE TEACHERS IN SEN. SEC. SCHOOLS - 1983 - 1987

Year	1983 : %	1984 : %	1985 : %	1986 : %	1987 : %
Degree & Prof.	323 : 17	520 : 25	611 : 27	478 : 20	827 : 33
+ Degree only	451 : 23	703 : 34	801 : 36	905 : 37	984 : 39

From this table the average percentage of academically qualified teachers for this school phase (i.e. graduates) works out to 34% over this five-year span. If, however, the graduate teachers without professional qualifications are excluded the average of professionally relevant teachers drops down to a mere 24%. In fact, as can be observed from the table, the number of teachers who could be considered as both academically and professionally qualified to teach in senior secondary schools only reached 33% in 1987 - a very sombre picture indeed.

Several other general questions are brought to mind by such a rapid increase of schools and their population. Can a developing country like Transkei match these increases with suitable accommodation, appropriate equipment (e.g. laboratories and teaching aids), and standard tuition? Doubts about adequacy of educational provisions are further suggested by the weak performance of standard ten candidates as the following table indicates. (In the table an M pass stands for a matriculation exemption pass which is a degree entrance requirement, whereas an S pass grants the lower school-leaving certificate).

TABLE V.7: STD 10 RESULTS 1978 TO 1986

Year	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Entered	3425	5631	7329	7704	8350	10299	11100	12853	11742
Pass M	700	832	505	550	686	1038	1136	1440	1993
Pass S	1706	2392	2464	2539	2788	3939	3169	3709	3503
Total pass	2405	3224	2969	3089	3474	4977	4305	5149	5476
% Pass	70,3	57,3	40,5	40,1	41,6	48,3	38,8	40,1	46,8

(Source: Carsterns, et al, 1986, P.17).

This table reveals that before the rapid growth of the 1980s started in senior secondary schools the matriculation pass rate was fair, even exceeding 70% in 1978. However, with the uncontrolled school expansion of the 1980s at this school phase, the standard 10 pass rate has dropped to below 50%, with the lowest achievement being just under 39% in 1984. In fact Gazi (1985, p.331) also observes that (albeit from a perspective of the bodies controlling the examinations) the performance of the matriculation candidates has on the average significantly fallen since 1981 when the Transkei Department of Education assumed control of these examinations.

These observations lead directly to the position of the specific field of interest in this thesis: history. What is the position of history as a subject in Transkei senior secondary schools, and how have history teaching methods fared in the prevailing conditions of rapid growth in this last school phase? To appreciate the position of history the subject would have to be looked at in the context of the other subjects. The accompaning table of entries and results of the various matriculation subjects indicates the position of history in the curriculum over a period of four years, for which detailed statistics were available.

Some of the interesting general observations from this table (table V.8) include eratic performance across the subjects over the years. Some good examples of this uneven performance are found in Geography and Physical Science. Secondly, performance in Afrikaans and Mathematics has persistantly been poor. Thirdly, unusual performances can be observed wherein, for instance, achievement in Physical Science is better than that of History.

TABLE V.8 : SUBJECT POPULARITY AND PASS RATE - 1981 TO 1984

Subject positions per average entries for popularity rate	1981 candidates N=7704				1982 candidates N=8350				1983 candidates N=10299				1984 candidates N=12853				1981-1984		Subject positions at average performance rate
	No. entered	% of total entries	No. passed	% passed	No. entered	% of total entries	No. passed	% passed	No. entered	% of total entries	No. passed	% passed	No. entered	% of total entries	No. passed	% passed	Average % entries (popularity rate)	Average % passes (pass rate)	
1 English	7270	94,4	3174	43,7	8200	98,2	4087	49,8	10115	98,2	6109	60,4	9545	74,3	5259	55,1	91,3	52,3	3
2 Biology	7200	93,5	1001	13,9	7109	85,1	2713	38,1	9900	96,1	5638	56,9	9270	72,1	3946	42,6	86,7	37,9	7
3 Xhosa	7340	95,3	7275	99,1	7974	95,5	7760	97,3	7657	74,3	7165	93,6	9352	72,8	8768	93,8	84,5	95,9	1
4 Afrikaans	6481	84,1	533	8,2	5630	67,4	328	5,8	7200	69,9	402	5,6	5325	41,4	311	5,8	65,7	6,4	13
5 History	4534	58,9	620	13,7	4216	50,5	716	17,0	5997	58,2	963	16,1	5729	44,6	2339	40,8	53,1	21,9	11
6 Agricultural Science	3889	50,5	1340	34,5	3877	46,3	1412	36,4	4811	46,7	2082	43,3	5068	39,4	2683	52,9	45,7	41,8	4
7 Mathematics	2478	32,2	275	11,1	2533	30,3	146	5,8	3618	35,1	320	8,8	3328	25,9	527	15,8	30,9	10,4	12
8 Physical Science	1973	25,6	234	11,9	2010	24,1	449	22,3	2860	27,8	914	32,0	2633	20,5	743	28,2	24,5	23,6	9
9 Geography	1504	19,5	475	31,6	1727	20,7	49	2,8	2211	21,5	456	20,6	2598	20,2	1042	40,1	20,5	23,8	8
10 Biblical Studies	1059	13,7	226	21,3	1260	15,1	629	49,9	1940	18,8	1204	62,1	2214	17,2	607	27,4	16,2	40,2	6
11 Sotho	335	43,0	327	97,5	350	4,2	348	99,4	329	3,2	300	91,2	351	2,7	321	91,4	3,6	94,9	2
12 Economics	298	3,9	60	20,1	181	2,2	48	26,8	330	3,2	117	35,5	310	2,4	244	78,6	2,9	40,3	5
13 Accountancy	291	3,8	45	15,5	108	1,3	35	32,7	253	2,5	53	20,8	228	1,8	54	23,7	2,4	23,2	10

(Source: Computed from Gazi, 1985, pp. 136, 138)

With specific reference to history the foregoing comparative statistics indicate that out of thirteen commonly offered subjects in senior secondary school history is the fifth most popular. According to percentage entries of candidates history has registered an average of 53,1% of the total Standard 10 candidates over the years 1981 to 1984. In fact, if the two compulsory languages (Xhosa and English) are excepted, history is the third most popular matriculation subject, and as a content subject second only to Biology. This indicates that, contrary to the reported worldwide apathy towards history as a school subject, history has a strong claim in the curriculum of Transkei senior secondary schools. It is well liked by most pupils.

On comparing the average pass rates of the thirteen subjects, however, history rates very low. At number 11 in the list, history is the third most badly done subject with an average of 21,9% pass rate. Worse than it in performance are only two subjects: Mathematics and Afrikaans. With a record of such a poor attainment, it could be asked why history seems so popular in Transkei senior secondary schools.

It could be that both the pupils and their teachers may be under-estimating the many problems cited in previous chapters which are inherent in history. The poor achievement shown in history must be a frustration to the many candidates who go for it.

Over the years, however, a steady improvement in history performance is evident as the following table shows:

TABLE V.9 PERFORMANCE OF STD 10 HISTORY CANDIDATES 1981 - 1985

Higher Grade				Standard Grade			Total Candidates			
Year	Entered	Passes	%	Entered	Passes	%	Entered	%	Passes	%
1981	4419	578	13,1	115	42	36,5	4534	58,9	620	13,7
1982	4041	697	17,3	175	19	10,8	4216	50,5	716	17
1983	5713	855	15	284	108	38	5997	58,2	963	16,1
1984	3970	1880	47,4	1759	459	26,1	5730	44,6	2339	43,8
1985	5290	1717	33	2142	1442	67	7432	58	3159	43

(Source: 1981 - 1984 - Gazi, 1985, pp.135 & 168 - computed; 1985, Vena, 1987, p.39).

With the increase in the numbers registering for standard grade, which is correctly interpreted as being at a lower standard, the number of passes has also gradually risen. This suggests that better placing of candidates according to their ability could improve the examination results. Other factors, which are likely to influence history teaching and performance in Transkei schools, will be examined in the following chapters.

CHAPTER VI

RESEARCH DESIGN AND LIMITATIONS

As pointed out in Chapter II the position of history as a school subject has generally been under considerable question in curriculum development circles. The generally waning position of history (although this does not seem the case in Transkei) is made more precarious among other things, by the general lack of understanding of its concepts, a problem which often results in under-achievement in this subject. Although it is general assumption that,in the type of educational system that obtains in Transkei, successful teaching is usually measured through end-year examinations conducted by the Department of Education or its agents, it should be recognised that various factors affect the performance of the different candidates in examinations. Among the many factors that may adversely affect pupil performance are disadvantaged socio-economic conditions, unavailability of adequate facilities and resource materials, and poor teaching methods.

In view of these limitations and being aware of the low achievement rate among Transkei senoir secondary candidates, it was hypothesised that poor facilities and the subsequent failure to support or encourage historical concept formation through adequate use of teaching aids could be one of the leading causes for the high failure rate. The availability of facilities for teaching history and use of teaching aids by history tutors therefore was investigated. However, since the human element is all-important in a teaching situation as a resource and facilitator of learning, an investigation of the human resources had also to be done. Thus the research crystalised into an investigation of the Transkei position concerning:

(a) the quality of history teachers and students;
(b) the quality of history facilities and teaching aids; and
(c) methodology in the interaction between the human resources and the material resources in the senior secondary school classroom.

To collect information on these aspects a questionnaire, divided into the three parts to be investigated, was planned and was submitted to all history teachers in the sample. The questionnaire was identical for the standard 8, 9 and 10 teachers, but the respondents were expected to respond in terms of the particular class or classes they taught. In addition to the general questionnaire, however, a special letter to the senior history teacher was also included.

In this, he was asked to indicate the available teaching aids in that particular school. This was done to prevent duplication, by all the history teachers in a particular school, of the aids commonly available to all teachers. The questionnaire to the senior history teacher and the general questionnaire appear as appendix A and B respectively.

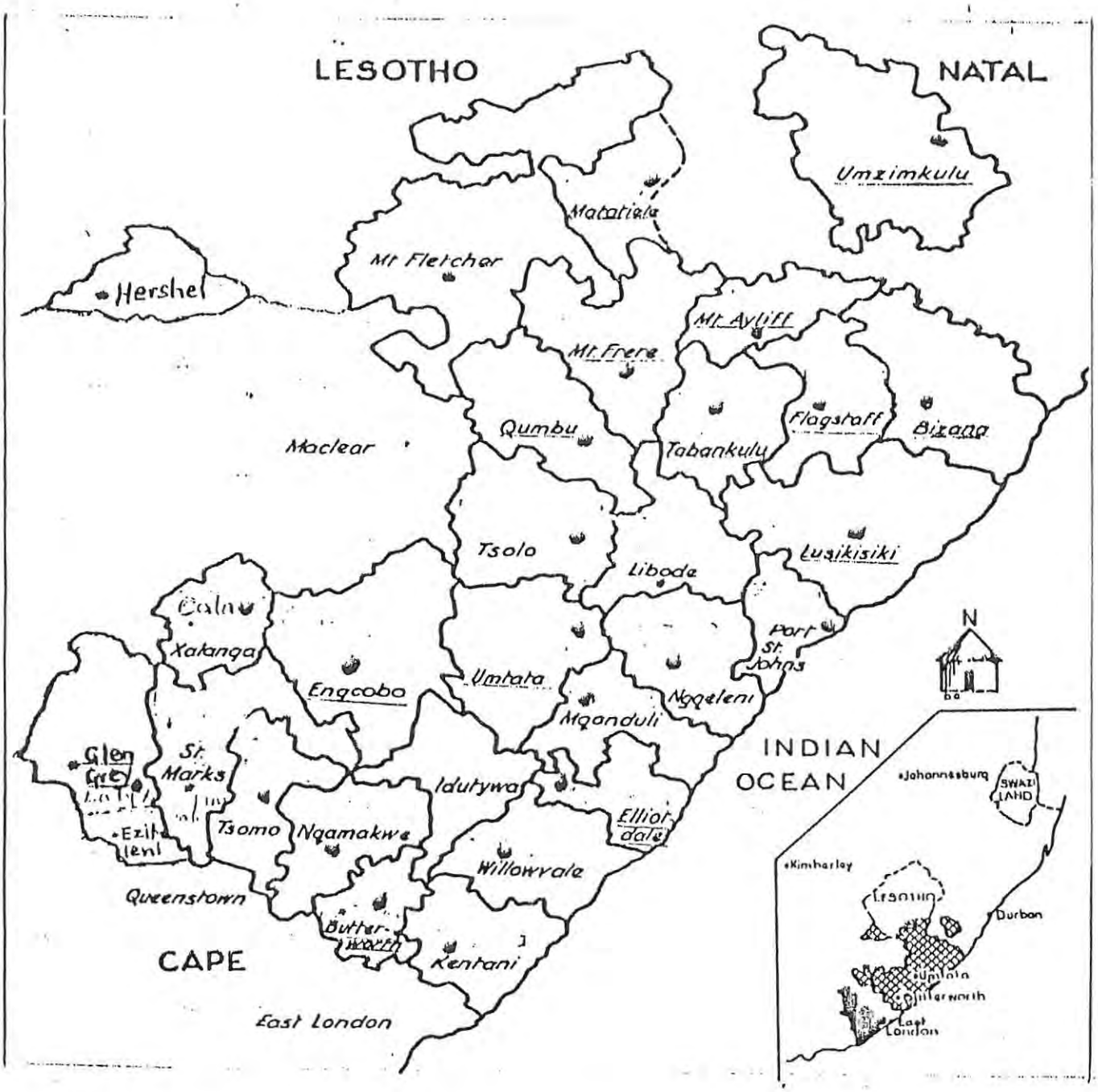
Part I of the questionnaire dealt with personal information about the teacher and his pupils and was covered by sixteen questions. The second part of twelve questions concentrated on material resources such as teaching facilities and aids. Part III dealt with methodology. Questions in this section tried to determine which teaching or learning methods and strategies were preferred or used by history teachers and pupils. This section was covered by twenty questions of varying types, Thus, in all, the three-sectioned questionnaire was composed of forty eight questions most of which, however, could be answered by nothing more complex than a tick or circle.

Apart from collecting data on human resources, material resources and teaching strategies used or preferred in history teaching, it was hoped that through cross-linking and comparisons of the data, more general information concerning history teaching in Transkei senior secondary schools could be deduced, some weaknesses identified, and possible improvements suggested.

Postal questionnaires were used. This seemed the most appropriate research method because of the wide area that was to be covered and individual visits would, therefore, be very time consuming. In addition to the questionnaire survey, a study of primary sources, including Transkei's Department of Education statistics, circulars and official publications was made. Secondary sources on teaching methods with emphasis on the use of source and resource materials were also studied. Other general publications on Transkei education were also consulted. Finally, personal observations in the author's experience of teaching history in the senior secondary school have also had an influence on the interpretation of the data collected.

Transkei is divided into twenty eight magisterial districts of varying sizes (see Diagram - Map VI.i). The number of schools in each district also varies. Most of these districts are rural settlements. There are only three districts which, having been earmarked as industrial growth points, have sizeable urban settlements. Hence the total urban population in 1985 was as low as 4,4%. The Department of Education has, since 1983, grouped the 28 districts into five regions for purposes of decentralisation of administration.

MAP VI.1: TRANSKEI DISTRICTS



(Source: Campion, 1976, p.x - modified)

The research questionnaires were sent to 14 of the 28 circuits or districts. For the location and easy identity these districts are underlined on map VI.1. Several factors and variables influenced the selection of the districts investigated. Initially, the investigation had been intended to cover only the five districts of the Eastern Region where the researcher was resident, as proximity was the primary consideration of the original plan. But the Eastern Region districts (Flagstaff, Lusikisiki, Mount Ayliff, Mount Frere, Tabankulu) all lacked a reasonable urban element. So the three industrial growth districts of Butterworth, Lady Frere (Ezibeleni), and Umtata were included mainly to cover this kind of settlement.

Because of possible influences from the neighbouring states (Lesotho and Republic of South Africa) some districts bordering these states were added, for example Bizana (on the Natal border), Umzimkulu (entirely surrounded by Natal) and Matatiele (on the southern Lesotho border). However, it was also felt that rural districts from regions other than Eastern should be included to have a representative sample. Hence Elliotdale and Qumbu were also included in the sample.

In 1984 there were 211 senior secondary schools in the country. (It was noted in Table V.4 that this number had grown to 246 by 1986). Most of these schools had been recently established, as there were only 110 senior secondary schools in 1979. Since information was needed on all three senior secondary classes, the questionnaires were sent only to select schools which had presented the terminal standard 10 class at the end of 1984 (Laboretur, Vol.3, No.1, 1985 pp.53 - 55). Of the 120 such fully-fledged schools in the country, 75 schools fell within the sample's geographical area of investigation. Of the 75 schools sent questionnaires, 30 responded, giving a total return of 55 answers. The table that follows on the next page shows how the districts eventually responded.

This table reveals that of the 120 senior secondary schools with standard 10 at the end of 1984, 63% (75) were approached but only 40% (30) of the sample responded or 25% of the possible geographical area of investigation. Response from the country's three industrial growth points of Butterworth, Glen Grey and Umtata was good only from one district, that of Umtata. The vast Glen Grey circuit has since been divided into Ezibeleni and Lady Frere circuits. From Ezibeleni, which is the actual industrial growth-point, and largely urban, no response was received. From the schools in the peripheral circuits such as Glen Grey, the response was too poor to enable the research to deduce any clear influences from the neighbouring states. Only nine responses could be considered to be from the periphery of these circuits.

TABLE VI.1: Response from Districts approached

District	Characteristic	Schools approached	Schools responded	No. of responses
Flagstaff	Interior-rural	4	4	10
Umtata	Interior-urban	6	5	10
Lusikisiki	Interior-rural	5	5	8
Butterworth	Border-urban	5	2	4
Matatiele	Border-rural	6	2	4
Mt Ayliff	Border-rural	2	1	3
Mt Frere	Interior-rural	6	1	3
Qumbu	Interior-rural	5	2	3
Bizana	Border-rural	5	2	3
Tabankulu	Interior-rural	3	1	2
Umzimkulu	Border-rural	4	2	2
Glen-Grey	Border-urban	16	3	2
Elliotdale	Interior-rural	5	-	-
Engcobo	Border-rural	3	-	-
Total 14		75	30	55

When analysed according to class standard, of the 55 returned questionnaires there was a maximum response from 34 standard 8, 24 standard 9 and 30 standard 10 history teachers. Although it was hoped that all the history teachers in each school would answer on their own accord on separate copies, in some instances only one answer was received from a school, which made a detailed analysis of varying teaching opinions and styles impossible in the circumstances.

When the questionnaire is examined in detail it can be seen that there is potential for very complex analysis of results. In particular cross comparisons between answers to different questions in the questionnaire could have been undertaken. For example questions about teaching styles could have been related to age, sex, training and experience of the teachers. Because of the comparatively small number of returns the conclusions from such analysis would have to be extremely tentative and the effort to undertake the cross-tabulations would not necessarily be repaid in the quality or the applicability of the answers. From observations, furthermore, it did not seem likely that major differences in attitude among various group of teachers were present. In these circumstances simple rounded-up percentages have been preferred for most of the time.

Some limitations emerged during the course of the research. Since no pre-test was done with the questionnaire, it later became apparent that although the population was 'history teachers in Transkei senior secondary schools', their widely different qualifications, training and experiences could produce widely divergent responses. For example, some teachers knew nothing of some of the teaching aids listed in the questionnaire: among these were the scanner, epidiascope and video recorder. Others seemed confused by the rating of some textbook aspects in question III.8.

In some items of the questionnaire, direct responses from the pupils could have given a more valuable picture, but the thesis design confined the investigation to teachers alone. For instance, the pupil's proficiency in English and their understanding of historical concepts could have been assessed by an independent test applied to the pupils themselves, rather than taking the teachers' assessment of their attainment. However, such tests would have been very time-consuming and costly because of the extensive geographical area of the research.

It can also be mentioned that instead of employing complicated statistical techniques such as the Chi-square and T-tests for the computation and analysis of the data collected, simple rounded up percentages have been preferred. This has also been done in the belief that for a practical contribution towards improving the performance of both the inservice and preservice teachers (the majority of whom may be unacquinted with scientific statistical computations) an ordinary layman's language would be more meaningful.

Another difficulty was an administrative one. It concerned statistics for examination results for the various subjects commonly offered by the Transkei Department of Education. On applying for these statistics the Examinations Section authorities replied that such information was confidential to the Department and could therefore not be released to 'outsiders'. For such statistics, therefore, the researcher had to depend on published sources, which did not always cover the desired period. Thus, comment on the latest trends in history examination results, in comparison with the other subjects, was constrained. Nonetheless, it is hoped that from what has been gathered the reader will obtain some picture of the problems and implications emerging from the research.

CHAPTER VII

THE HISTORY TEACHER IN TRANSKEI SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

Since the position of the teaching personnel is believed to be crucial in schools, their statistics will be treated first. It will be appreciated, however, that raw score totals in the various questions vary according to the response to each particular question since in not all cases did the respondents record response to all the questions or sections of the questions. For easy reference numbers of the questions in the questionnaire (Appendix B) are given in brackets next to the table titles.

At the time of collecting this data in 1985, there were 2243 teachers manning 220 senior secondary schools with 54819 pupils, an average pupil-teacher ratio of 24:1. This would seem to be a very favourable pupil-teacher ratio. This can be accounted for, however, when it is remembered that a large number of senior secondary schools in Transkei had only recently been opened and such schools had not yet reached their full complement. In fact, contrary to this impression of a low pupil-teacher ratio Vena (1987, pp.79,176) discovered that high pupil-teacher ratio in this school phase in Transkei was one of the major complaints of both the history teachers and subject advisers.

It should be remembered, however, that to ensure that the respondents had reasonable numbers of pupils upon whom they could base their replies, newly opened schools had to be eliminated from the sample. In the sample's schools, therefore, the pupil-teacher ratio was much higher than 24:1. In Transkei as a whole in 1985 the pupil-teacher ratio was 45,9:1 as compared to the 41,6:1 of the Black South African schools (SAIRR, 1986 p. 427).

A question on the teachers' sex was included to investigate whether sex differences were of any significance in teaching history. The study sample indicated that 65% of the history teachers were males. This seems to be in line with the general preference for history by senior secondary school boys. History is often associated with public life in political and legal careers, which have for long been regarded as being reserved for the men among Blacks. Table VII.1 shows the sex ratio of senior secondary school history teachers.

TABLE VII.1 : TEACHERS' SEX RATIO IN HISTORY CLASSES (1.2)

SEX	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Female	19	35
Male	36	65
Total	55	100

The age level of teachers may also influence productivity in a subject. Hence the teachers were asked to indicate their ages. The age-range of the teachers is reflected on Table VII.2. For purposes of analysis the ages were arranged into clusters of five year groups.

TABLE VII.2 : TEACHERS' AGE RANGES (1.1)

AGE-RANGE	NUMBER	: PERCENTAGE
20-24 years	5	: 9
25-29 "	22	: 40
30-34 "	9	: 16
35-39 "	9	: 16
40-44 "	4	: 7
45-49 "	1	: 2
50-54 "	3	: 6
55-60 "	2	: 4
TOTAL	55	: 100

This table shows that 81% of the teachers fall within the productive work-force age bracket of 20-39 years. This could raise hopes for a high class-room productivity from the relatively young and energetic teachers, who might be expected to employ the latest and most effective methods in history teaching. On the other hand, youth and relatively short teaching experience could have an adverse effect on the teachers classroom performance and militate against high quality productivity. This is re-enforced when the years of experience of the respondents are considered.

TABLE VII.3 : EXPERIENCE OF TEACHERS IN YEAR RANGES (1.3)

YEAR-RANGE	NO. OF TEACHERS	: PERCENTAGE
1-5	37	: 67
6-10	12	: 22
11-15	4	: 7
16-20	2	: 4
Total	55	: 100

The table reflects that the majority of the teachers (67%) had five years or less of history teaching experience. As would be expected from the information given in the previous table, the large number of teachers with relatively short teaching experience coincides with the relative youthfulness of these teachers.

As significant as the age and experience of respondents is their academic qualifications. Table VII.4 shows that the qualifications of senior secondary teachers range from matriculation (std 10) to masters degree level. However, the spread of qualifications suggests that most teachers were underqualified for the class levels they were handling.

TABLE VII.4 : TEACHERS' ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS IN HISTORY (1.5)

ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS	NUMBER	: PERCENTAGE
Matriculation	26	: 47
University B.A. Course 1 & 11	11	: 20
University B.A. 111	12	: 22
Honours B.A.	4	: 7
Masters Degree	2	: 4
TOTAL	55	: 100

It is clearly of concern that nearly half the teachers in the sample had no further content training in history at university level. This situation becomes of even greater concern if the claim that"the present teacher training course in history content is nothing more than just a repetition of work already done" in senior secondary school is accepted (Vena 1987, p.178).

When a comparison is made with the Republic of South Africa as a whole, where the percentage of teachers with degrees, as part of a total teaching force at all levels, was as low as 2,9% in 1985, Transkei's 4.7% graduate teachers at all school levels could be considered to be better. It can also be assumed that in almost all the cases the teachers with degrees would be found in the secondary schools. This comparatively better position of Transkei teachers' academic qualifications should by no means, however, be interpreted as satisfactory. In fact the low academic qualifications of the Transkei teachers would be well appreciated if it is viewed against that in other South African racial groups, where graduate teachers comprised 11,4% of the total in Coloured schools and 33,6% in Indian schools (SAIRR, 1986, 439, 440).

For the White schools the percentage is, of course, much higher. As early as 1974, for instance, over 30% of the White teachers had degrees and professional qualification (SAIRR, 1982, p.143). The underqualification among Transkeian teachers in the sample becomes more glaring if it is compared with the position in White South African schools over twenty years ago when 72% of history teachers working with Std 7 and 8 were graduates and Std 9 and 10 received tuition from 87% of history teachers who were graduates (Lienbenberg, 1972 p. 3).

These statistics for history qualifications can be compared with Rely's (1987, p. 80) observation that more than 70% of teachers at all school levels in Transkei were underqualified for the duties they were expected to perform. Even if the situation is better in secondary education, it immediately casts doubt on the possibility of a wide or depth understanding of the subject by many staff, particularly those whose academic training in history stopped at the end of the secondary school.

It has already been noted that there were more men than women in the sample. If academic qualifications are compared according to sex it can be seen from Table VII.5 that men had better academic qualifications than women.

TABLE VII.5 ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS BY SEX (1.2 + 1.5)

ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Matriculation	15	42	11	58	26	47
B.A. Course 1 & 11	8	22	3	16	11	20
B.A. Course 111 to Masters	13	36	5	26	18	33
Total	36	100	19	100	55	100

The figures show that undergraduate and graduate male teachers comprised 58% of the sample whereas female teachers in this category were 42% - a difference of 16%. This is in line with the greater interest of boys in history which was pointed out earlier.

As a developing country, Transkei has a high rate of urbanisation. For example between 1980 and 1985 the country's urban population increased by about 20%. Such rapid changes in population distribution may affect educational trends and for proper planning such variables have to be considered.

The teachers' qualifications were, therefore, also examined from the urban-rural comparison point of view. Although in Table VI.1 districts were characterised as either rural or urban, in making this comparison schools were classified by their actual locality. For instance, in a rural district there could be a response from a school in town and such a response would, therefore, be classified 'urban'; whereas a response from a rural school in an 'urban' district would be considered as rural. According to this classification, responses were received from only ten urban teachers and forty five rural ones. Table VII.6 reflects the spread of history teachers' qualifications by locality.

TABLE VII.6 : ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS BY LOCALITY (1.5)

QUALIFICATION	URBAN		RURAL		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Matriculation	2	20	24	53	26	47
B.A. Course 1 & 11	3	30	8	18	11	20
B.A. Course 111 Masters	5	50	13	29	18	33
TOTAL	10	100	45	100	55	100

The table shows that the urban schools had 80% university-trained teachers in contrast to 47% such teachers in rural schools. This suggests that rural schools are at a disadvantage in the supply of well-qualified teachers.

It must also be argued, however, that the possession of good academic qualifications cannot guarantee good teaching methods. It was necessary therefore, to assess the professional qualifications of the teachers and these are shown in Table VII.7

TABLE VII.7 : HISTORY TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (1.7)

CERTIFICATE	NO. OF TEACHERS	PERCENTAGE
UED/HED (Secondary Training)	9	16
SATD/JSTC/STD (Sec.Training)	28	51
NPH/PTC/PTD (Primary Training)	10	18
NPL (Primary Training)	1	2
No professional qualification	7	13
Total	55	100

The names of the various teachers' diplomas are linked with academic entrance requirements for that training and with class levels for which training was geared. For example the Native Primary Lower (NPL) was granted at the end of a three-year course after standard 6 and was geared for the lower primary school section. The next group of Native Primary Higher (NPH) and the Primary Teachers' Course (PTC) was a post-junior certificate (Standard 8) two-year course meant for all levels in the primary school. More recently a post-matriculation three-year Primary Teachers' Diploma (PTD) has been introduced. The next category is the two-year post-matriculation diplomas such as the South African Teachers' Diploma (SATD), the Junior Secondary Teachers' Diploma (JSTC) and the recently introduced three-year Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) which prepare teachers for junior secondary school phase. However, because of the lack of better qualified teachers, people trained in this category have been the main pool for the senior secondary school phase. The last group is that of the post-graduate diploma, with titles such as the University Education Diploma (UED) and the Higher Education Diploma (HED) which prepare teachers for senior secondary schools.

One disturbing feature of Black teachers' backgrounds has been note-worthy in the recent past. Most teachers were trained for primary school or at best for junior secondary school regardless of where they ultimately taught. Table VII.7 reflects that situation in that only 16% of the sample teachers were specifically trained for senior secondary school. The bare majority of the teachers (51%) were trained for the junior secondary school. However, with 67% of the sample having had training for some form of secondary school, it can be claimed that this presents a fairly satisfactory picture. Only 20% of the teachers were qualified for the primary school, although they now held posts in the senior secondary school. With increasing opportunities for upgrading and promotion, however, some teachers have been able to make some adjustments to their training to make their services more appropriate to secondary schools.

Another characteristic among Black teachers in the recent past has been the high percentage of teachers with no professional qualifications at all. In 1985, for example, over 20% of teachers in African schools in the white-designated areas and semi-independent homelands had no professional qualifications and over 10% of these had academic qualifications of Std 8 or lower (SAIRR, 1986, p. 439). This situation was the result of many years of financial stringency which restricted teacher training provisions and forced Black schools to employ unqualified people. In 1985 Transkei had only 2,4% of the total teaching force who were professionally unqualified but almost

half of these had the advantage of a degree (SAIRR, 1986, p.439). If the senior secondary phase is considered separately, however, the professionally unqualified teachers constituted 10.3%, most of whom were graduates (cf. Table V.5 supra).

In the sample it can be seen that as many as 13% of the teachers had no professional qualifications. This high percentage must be cause for concern, even though all these were university graduates.

In contrast to the advantage which the men had over the women in academic qualifications, the situation for professional training favoured the women. This is shown in Table VII.8.

TABLE VII.8 : PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS BY SEX (1.2 + 1.6)

QUALIFICATION	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
No professional certificate	7	19	-	-	7	13
Primary certificate	5	14	6	32	11	20
Jun. Sec. certificate	19	53	9	47	28	51
Sen. Sec. certificate	5	14	4	21	9	16
Total	36	100	19	100	55	100

It will be noted that all the teachers who had no professional certificate (7 in all) were males. Of these teachers, two had senior degrees and four were undergraduates who were furthering their studies. Although a high percentage of females held primary teachers' certificate (32%), the percentage of the women whose training had been geared for senior secondary school (21%), was still better than of men (14%). As was the case in the urban-rural comparison of academic qualifications, the urban schools still have an advantage as Table VII.9 reflects.

TABLE VII.9 : PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS BY LOCALITY (1.6)

QUALIFICATION	URBAN		RURAL		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
No professional certificate	3	30	4	9	7	13
Primary school certificate	-	-	12	27	12	22
Junior secondary certificate	3	30	24	53	27	56
Senior secondary certificate	4	40	5	11	9	19
Total	10	100	45	100	55	100

The high percentage of unqualified teachers in urban schools (30%) is compensated for by the higher percentage of teachers who held appropriate certificates for the senior secondary school (40%). Moreover, two of the three unqualified teachers in the urban group held senior degree certificates. With underqualification in rural schools (both academically and professionally) so prevalent, these schools would generally be expected to have a lower standard of achievement in history than their urban counterparts.

The extent of teacher training in the use of teaching aids could be an important factor in influencing the teachers' attitude towards their use. Such teacher training both ,at pre-service and in-service training courses, is reflected on Table VII.10.

TABLE VII. 10 : TEACHER-TRAINING IN THE USE OF TECHNICAL AIDS (II.12)

RESPONSE	PRE-SERVICE TRAINING		IN-SERVICE TRAINING		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Yes in all	3	5	-	-	3	3
Yes in some	23	42	3	5	26	24
Yes in few	9	16	5	9	14	13
In none at all	14	26	13	24	28	25
Unstated	6	11	34	62	40	36
TOTAL	55	100	55	100	110	100

The foregoing table indicates that history teachers lack adequate training in the use of most of the modern teaching aids. This is true of their basic pre-service training, but even more so at in-service training courses. This is demonstrated by that only 5% teachers have had training in the use of all the aids listed and just 42% had been trained in the use of some of the teaching aids at pre-service level. Although such training seems to be inadequately done at pre-service teacher training, this aspect has been almost totally neglected at in-service training courses. In fact, more than 60% of the sample had had no training in the use of the listed teaching aids. However, perhaps since this equipment have been part of teacher training in modern countries for over twenty years (and the majority of the sample had no more than five years teaching experience), in a developed country the teachers could have reasonably been assumed to have been orientated in these technical teaching aids. But Transkei is an underdeveloped state and therefore in-service training should attend to this important aspect.

The influence of educational qualifications on training and use of the teaching aids was also probed. Table VII.11 indicates that the University-trained teachers were better trained in the use of technological aids than their college-trained counterparts.

TABLE VII.11 : TRAINING IN TECHNICAL AIDS COMPARED BY QUALIFICATION (11.12+1.5)

PRE-SERVICE TRAINING	UNIVERSITY-TRAINED		COLLEGE-TRAINED		TOTALS	
RESPONSE	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Trained in all	3	10	-	-	3	6
Trained in some	13	45	10	39	23	42
Trained in few	5	17	4	15	9	16
Trained in none	7	24	7	27	14	25
Unstated	1	3	5	19	6	11
TOTAL	29	100	26	100	55	100

Whereas in pre-service training 66% of those with university courses had had some kind of training in the use of some or few or all these teaching aids, only 54% of the matriculant teachers got some training in some or few of the technological teaching aids. The better facilities at universities and deeper understanding of the subject matter by university students could explain their advantage over the college-trained group.

The teacher is often the most crucial factor in teaching situations. Innovative teaching strategies from those teachers whose training was geared for teaching younger pupils at lower levels, or who have only their own memories of their school days to guide their teaching strategies (if they have had no formal training), cannot necessarily be expected. It can be mentioned, however, that some teachers were improving their qualifications in history. This is indicated in Table VII.12.

TABLE VII.12 : TEACHERS FURTHERING HISTORY STUDIES (1.7.i)

STATEMENT	NO. OF TEACHERS	PERCENTAGE
Furthering studies	11	20
Not furthering studies	44	80
Total	55	100

It will be found that the further-study question in the questionnaire was phrased as broadly as possible so that any form of training could have been included. In effect the only training included by the eleven (20%) teachers who were studying was linked with further university work. Eight of the eleven teachers were doing under-graduate course (only two of whom were working at first year level) and two others were involved in post-graduate studies. From the figures in this table it would seem that more opportunities might be made for further in-service training particularly if this could lead to recognised qualifications for salary purposes. (Further consideration will be given to this later in this thesis).

When the table on further education was further analysed to examine sex differences it was found that the picture, as Table VII.13 shows, revealed no important differences between the sub-groups.

TABLE VII.13 : FURTHERING HISTORY STUDIES - SEX DIFFERENCES (1.2+7 ii)

STATEMENT	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Furthering studies	7	19	4	21	11	20
Not furthering studies	29	81	15	79	44	80
Total	36	100	19	100	55	100

In the urban-rural comparison of this aspect of further education, the urban teachers still showed greater initiative and therefore urban schools were manned by better qualified staff. Table VII.14 reflects the situation.

TABLE VII. 14 : FURTHER STUDIES BY LOCALITY (1.7.1)

STATEMENT	URBAN		RURAL		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Furthering studies	3	30	8	18	11	20
Not furthering studies	7	70	37	82	44	80
Total	10	100	45	100	55	100

The table shows that 30% of the urban teachers were furthering their history studies whereas only 18% of the rural staff were studying further in their subject. This difference could be partly because of better facilities for studying in most urban areas from which the majority of the urban responses were received. There is, for instance, a university in Umtata and a university branch in Butterworth.

In human resources it is believed that the teachers' academic and professional qualifications play an important role in the effectiveness of their teaching. This was made clearer when a comparison between those teachers with university degree or course in history and those who were only matriculants revealed that those with no university experience were at a big disadvantage even in the motivation for further studies as Table VII.15 shows.

TABLE VII.15 : ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS AND FURTHERING HISTORY STUDIES COMPARED (1.5 + 1.7.i)

STATEMENT	UNIVERSITY EXPERIENCE		MATRICULATION		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Furthering studies	9	31	2	8	11	20
Not furthering	20	69	24	92	44	80
TOTAL	29	100	26	100	55	100

Most discouraging is that only 11 (20%) of the whole sample were furthering their history studies. Of these eleven, nine were from the group who already had some university experience whereas only two came from the matriculation group. The possible market for in-service or correspondence courses to improve history content and/or methodological expertise emerges more clearly from the foregoing table, wherein over 90% of those teachers with matriculation alone are not continuing any studies. It might be argued that if there is, as it seems, a general lack of motivation towards further studies especially among the underqualified teachers, the problem of inadequately qualified history staff in Transkei senior secondary schools is likely to be long-lasting.

The lack of motivation for further studies by the teachers seems to stem from their attitude towards their teaching of history. Their attitude is indicated in Table VII.16.

TABLE VII.16: TEACHERS' ATTITUDE TO HISTORY TEACHING (1.12)

ATTITUDE EXPRESSED	NO. OF TEACHERS	PERCENTAGE
Contented	29	53
Very contented	9	16
Neutral	6	11
Discontented	11	20
TOTAL	55	100

The apparent acceptance of conditions by this sample of teachers is disturbing. 69% of them were contented or very contented with their history teaching, and

only 20% expressed discontent. However, the 11% neutral group and the 20% discontented lot are a significant contigent as teachers' attitudes play a very important role in successful teaching. It is interesting to note that of those who were furthering their studies, only two were discontented, and those two were working on their masters and doctoral degrees.

On comparing the attitude of the two sexes towards history teaching, a higher percentage of women expressed contentedness as the following conflated table shows.

TABLE VII.17 : ATTITUDE TO HISTORY TEACHING BY SEX (1.2 + 1.12)

ATTITUDE EXPRESSED	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Very contented & contented	23	64	15	79	38	69
Neutral and discontented	13	36	4	21	17	31
TOTAL	36	100	19	100	55	100

The table shows that 79% of the women were contented with their history teaching as compared to 64% of the men. The observed lack of motivation for furthering history studies among women may be due to the already mentioned traditional sex differences in professional aspirations of history students.

In this aspect of attitude, the comparison between the urban and the rural teachers again reflects stronger positive attitude among the urban staff.

TABLE VII.18 : ATTITUDE TO HISTORY TEACHING BY LOCALITY (1.12)

ATTITUDE EXPRESSED	URBAN		RURAL		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Very contented & contented	8	80	30	67	38	69
Neutral and discontented	2	20	15	33	17	31
TOTAL	10	100	45	100	55	100

The table shows that 80% of the urban teachers were contented in their history teaching, whereas among their rural counterparts it was 67% who had the same attitude. It should not be surprising that more urban teachers felt satisfied with their history teaching since most of them were better qualified or were furthering their education, mainly at undergraduate level. As was already noted in the comment for Table VII.15 it would be expected that those teachers

at post-graduate level might have more critical attitude towards, and therefore, be less contented with the poor conditions under which they taught history. It can be seen that in all the foregoing tables on the teachers' attributes the picture is clearly brighter in the urban schools and unsatisfactory in the rural areas.

The question of attitude in relationship to qualifications deserves some further consideration. In Table VII.19 the teachers' attitudes (conflated into three broad categories) are compared with their levels of qualification.

TABLE VII.19 : COMPARISON BETWEEN ATTITUDE AND QUALIFICATION (1.5+1.12)

ATTITUDE EXPRESSED	UNIVERSITY-TRAINED		MATRICULATION		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Very contented & contented	21	72	17	65	38	69
Neutral	1	4	5	20	6	11
Discontented	7	24	4	15	11	20
TOTAL	29	100	26	100	55	100

It might have been expected that those with higher qualifications might have had higher expectations about their teaching subject and would have had more things to criticise and have had more ideas about how the situation might be improved. In fact, when the figures in this table are examined, this does not seem to be the case. Whereas 65% of those with matriculation qualifications were contented, a larger percentage of those with university training (72%) had the same attitude. Some difference between the groups is suggested when the percentages of those who were "neutral" were compared, (20% of the lower qualified as opposed to the 4% of the higher qualified teachers). Perhaps those with lower qualifications had not been exposed to the idea that questioning and appraisal are an appropriate attitude in a teacher. It could be reflected that when the figures for matriculation passes are remembered (see Table V 9) the fact that only one in five of all the teachers expressed discontent is worrying.

The reasons for discontent with history were asked about in the next question to be discussed. In some circumstances those who were discontented gave more than one reason. In other cases, some of the teachers who had not expressed

discontent in answer to the earlier question, nevertheless, took the opportunity of voicing their concerns. A total of 43 points were made and these can be grouped into four broad categories: complaints about the pupils' negative attitude to history, syllabuses which are too long or uninteresting, inadequate training of teachers and non-availability of teaching aids. Table VII.20 shows the spread of these complaints.

TABLE VII.20 : REASONS FOR TEACHERS' DISCONTENT WITH HISTORY TEACHING (1.13)

COMPLAINTS	NUMBER	: PERCENTAGE
1. Pupils' negative attitude to history	14	: 33
2. Syllabuses long and uninteresting	11	: 26
3. Teacher training inadequate	11	: 26
4. Teaching aids (and textbooks) inadequate	5	: 12
5. Others	2	: 4
TOTAL	43	: 100

Over half of the complaints (59%) were attributed to factors outside the teachers themselves: the attitude of the pupils and the nature of the syllabus. It is interesting to note, however, that a quarter of the teachers (26%) showed concern about their own qualifications. Only 5 teachers (12%) at this stage were concerned about the materials which they had at their disposal. However, one can wonder: could the pupils' apparent lack of interest not be the result of limited use of teaching aids and thorough preparations? Could the shallowness of the under-qualified teachers' presentation not also contribute to lack of life in history lessons? The generally negative contribution of underqualified teachers to Transkei secondary schools has been emphasised by most examiners and researchers in this field (Gazi, 1985, pp. 296-297; Vena 1987, pp. 79, 178).

From the analyses already made, it seemed important to examine the areas of discontent in relation to the academic level of those who complained. This comparison is shown in Table VII.21.

It was to be expected that those with no university training in history would be most concerned about their own training, and this is shown to be the case. Two out of every five of the causes of discontent expressed by the lower qualified group fell into the category of personal training (43%). Those with university experience transferred their concern to the standard of their pupils (38%) or to the syllabus (31%), in almost equal numbers, and these categories comprised 69% of their causes of concern as opposed to 35% of the less qualified teachers.

TABLE VII.21: CASES OF DISCONTENT RELATED TO QUALIFICATIONS (1.5+1.13)

COMPLAINTS	UNIVERSITY-TRAINED		MATRICULATION		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Pupils' negative attitude	11	38	3	21	14	33
Syllabus long % uninteresting	9	31	2	14	11	26
Teacher training inadequate	5	17	6	43	11	26
Teaching aids inadequate	3	10	2	14	5	12
Others	1	4	1	7	2	5
Total	29	100	14	100	43	100

The possibility of in-service help to teachers has already been raised in this chapter. A question about the teachers' experience of this is clearly important. Information about departmental in-service courses is given in Table VII.22. This gives information both on attendance at in-service courses and whether these included specific help about teaching aids and resources.

TABLE VII.22 : ATTENDANCE & LECTURES AT IN-SERVICE COURSES (1.14;1.15)

RESPONSE	TEACHERS ATTENDED		LECTURES ON TEACHING AIDS AND RESOURCE MATERIALS	
	NO.	%	NO.	%
Yes	45	82	24	53
Not	10	18	21	47
Total	55	100	45	100

In Transkei the normal pattern is for a history in-service course to last two or three days. A substantial number of teachers (45 or 82%) had attended in-service courses. However, only 24 or 53% of the attendants had had lectures dealing with teaching aids and history resource materials. From the writer's own experience, and this is supported by Vena (1937 p.177), content material is often heavily emphasised at such courses. The teachers were divided once again into the two categories linked with educational levels, and the comparison is shown in Table VII.23.

TABLE VII.23 : IN-SERVICE COURSE ATTENDANCE BY QUALIFICATION (1.5+1.14)

RESPONSE	UNIVERSITY-TRAINED		MATRICULATION		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Yes attended	23	79	22	85	45	82
Not attended	6	21	4	15	10	18
Total	29	100	26	100	55	100

It is clear that there were no major differences between attendance at such courses when this is related to previous educational level tables. It should be noted, however, that attendance by at least one teacher from a school is mandatory at courses organised by the Department of Education, so that those teachers who had not attended the courses might not have been selected to represent the school. Nearly three quarters (32 or 71%) of the teachers who had had the opportunity of attending in-service courses found these generally helpful. Those who claimed attendance at in-service courses were divided into the usual two educational categories, and their responses to the question of the helpfulness of the courses compared. This is shown in Table VII.24.

TARLE VII.24 : IN-SERVICE COURSE RATING BY QUALIFICATION (1.5+1.16)

RESPONSE	UNIVERSITY-TRAINED		MATRICULATION		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Courses helpful	15	65	17	77	32	71
Courses not helpful	8	35	5	23	13	29
Total	23	100	22	100	45	100

It might have been argued that even more university-trained teachers might have found content orientated courses less helpful than college-trained people. When the percentages are compared, however, it can be seen that there are no major differences between them. The advantaged position of university-trained teachers was, however, further demonstrated in the question of training in the use of technical aids at in-service courses.

TABLE VII.25 : TRAINING IN TECHNICAL AIDS COMPARED BY QUALIFICATION (11.12+1.5)

IN-SERVICE TRAINING	UNIVERSITY-TRAINED		COLLEGE-TRAINED		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Trained in all	-	-	-	-	-	-
Trained in some	2	7	1	4	3	6
Trained in few	3	10	2	8	5	9
Trained in none	7	24	6	23	13	24
Unstated	17	59	17	65	34	62
Total	29	100	26	100	55	100

The table reveals how generally neglected training in the use of technical teaching aids is at in-service courses. It shows that teachers with university experience were better trained in the use of technological teaching aids than the college-trained teachers. Since the same in-service courses are attended by all history teachers irrespective of qualification, however, the advantage of the university-trained group could derive mainly from their pre-service exposure to those teaching aids.

Another point of interest in matters related to staff qualifications was the relationship between the teachers' academic qualifications and the class level taught. Table VII.25 gives a picture of this interaction.

TABLE VII.26 : QUALIFICATION-CLASS LEVEL INTERACTION (1.5+1.4)

QUALIFICATIONS	CLASS LEVELS TAUGHT BY THE TEACHERS								TOTAL
	BELOW STD 10		SUB-TOTAL	INCLUDING STD 10				SUB-TOTAL	NUMBER
	8	9	8/9	%	8/9/10	8/10	9/10	10	%	NO.
Matriculation	11	3	1	58	2	6	-	3	42	26
BA Course 1+11	2	1	1	36	2	2	1	2	64	11
BA Course 111 to Masters	3	1	1	28	1	-	6	6	72	18
TOTAL	16	5	3	44	5	8	7	11	56	55

In this table a distinction has been made between those who teach standard 8 and 9, and those who have all or at least some of their responsibilities at the matriculation level. Of the 24 teachers who taught standard 8 and 9, 28% were graduates, 36% undergraduates and 58% matriculation only. The high percentage of academically underqualified teachers even at this level is a cause for concern, especially when the depth of the subject is considered. It is doubtful if the students can have a good foundation in history when they are taught by teachers who are only a class-standard or two better. However, the table shows that there is some relationship

between academic qualification and teaching level. Of the teachers with no university training, 42% had some Std 10 duties; 64% of those with some undergraduate history courses had similar responsibilities; while of those with full degrees, 72% were at least partly concerned with matriculation work. Nevertheless, the relationship is not perfect, nor are its practical implications. At least some of the eleven teachers with lower academic qualifications but with standard 10 responsibilities must experience difficulties in interpretation and might lack some self-confidence.

It is equally of concern to note that five teachers with full degrees, and a further four with partial degrees were not working at the standard 10 level. If the two extremes are combined (the level of teachers without university study working with standard 10 pupils, and the nine teachers with university study who did not take such classes) there were 20 or 36% teachers whose qualifications did not appropriately match their responsibilities. Obviously individual circumstances or explanations could be masked in these figures. Some teachers might prefer the lower standards where they might be more effective. In some cases the principal or the history teachers themselves might have a policy of placing well-qualified teachers with younger pupils to give them good grounding rather than meeting them for the first time in their matriculation class. One wonders, however, if such circumstances could be used to explain more than one third of the teachers in the sample. Some evidence seems to exist, therefore, that the relationship between training and responsibility deserves closer attention in the schools.

Nevertheless, the picture is not entirely bleak. As was suggested earlier, there is some relationship in the allocation of teachers to their duties. Other factors must play their parts when attempts are made to account for the poor matriculation results in history.

There is, of course, another possible explanation for the way teaching responsibilities had been allocated to the sample - the situation of the length of a teacher's experience. This relationship is shown in Table VII.27, where experience is added to the information presented in the previous table, and is allocated to one of two categories - five years or fewer and more than five years of experience.

TABLE VII.27 : QUALIFICATION-EXPERIENCE INTERACTION (1.5+1.3)

Qualifications	Experience in years	Class levels taught by the teachers: Below Std 10			Sub-Total	Including Std 10				Sub-Total	Total Number
		8	9	8/9		8/9/10	8/10	9/10	10		
Matriculation	1-5	10	3	1	14	-	6	-	2	8	22
	6+	1	-	-	1	2	-	-	1	3	4
Sub-total		11	3	1	15	2	6	-	3	11	26
B A Course 1&11	1-5	2	1	1	4	1	2	1	1	5	9
	6+	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	2	2
Sub-total		2	1	1	4	2	2	1	2	7	11
B A Course 111 to Masters	1-5	2	1	-	3	-	-	2	1	3	6
	6+	1	-	1	2	1	-	4	5	10	12
Sub-total		3	1	1	5	1	-	6	6	13	18
GRAND TOTAL		15	5	3	24	5	8	7	11	31	55

The pattern revealed in this analysis must modify to some extent the tentative conclusions reached after the examination of the previous table. The table shows that the majority of the least experienced teachers (i.e. 1-5 years) in the least qualified category (matriculation), 14 out of 22 or 64% were relegated to the lower classes of Standard 8 and 9. Of the more experienced teachers (6+ years) in this category three quarters or 75% included standard 10 in their history teaching duties. It could be assumed that it was only where a complete lack of better qualified or more experienced personnel that the less-qualified and relatively inexperienced teachers were allocated matriculation history.

Among the less experienced undergraduate history teachers, the number of those whose duties included standard 10 exceeded their counterparts who were teaching in the lower classes (4) by just one. In other words, five out of nine or 56% of this group handled standard 10 classes. Otherwise both the two more experienced teachers in this category had some teaching duties in standard 10, a factor which suggests that experience is an important variable in allocating teaching duties.

Of the history graduates, half of the less-experienced (3) had duties in the lower classes of the senior secondary phase: but 10 out of 12 or 83% of the more experienced teachers taught the prestigious and more advanced matriculation class. Generally the table shows that the trend is to allocate

higher classes to better qualified and more experienced history teachers.

The propotion of time spent in teaching history, as opposed to other subjects, could clearly affect the teacher's planning and preparation. It was possible to analyse this from question 1.8 and the information is given in Table VII.28.

TABLE VII.28 : PERCENTAGE TEACHING TIME FOR HISTORY (1.8)

% TIME SPENT TEACHING HISTORY	NO. OF TEACHERS	PERCENTAGE
75% and more	14	26
65 - 75%	12	22
55 - 64%	14	26
45 - 54%	2	4
35 - 44%	3	5
25 - 34%	3	5
Less than 25%	5	9
Unstated	2	4
TOTAL	55	100

A trend towards specialist teaching in history seems evident as 75% of the sample had over 55% of their teaching time allocated to history teaching, and a further 9% had at least had a third of their teaching duties in history classes. It is surprising, therefore, that despite this specialist teaching trend, there seems no strong enthusiasm for further studies in the subject. It would be of interest to find out what the relationship is between qualifications and specialisation in history teaching.

TABLE VII.29 : QUALIFICATION-SPECIALISATION RELATIONSHIP IN HISTORY (1.5+1.8)

% TIME SPENT IN TEACHING HISTORY	MATRICULATION	UNDERGRADUATE	GRADUATE	TOTAL
75% and more	4	3	7	14
65 - 74%	6	4	2	12
55 - 64%	6	-	8	14
45 - 54%	-	1	1	2
35 - 44%	1	2	-	3
25 - 34%	3	-	-	3
Less than 25%	4	1	-	5
Unstated	2	-	-	2
TOTAL	26	11	18	55

It would be expected that there should be a positive correlation between higher qualifications in history and specialisation in teaching the subject. This table shows such a relationship in that, whereas 39% of the matriculation group of teachers and 27% undergraduate spent less that 45% of their time in teaching history, all the graduates spent over 45% of their teaching time in in history. In fact, the percentage of teachers who could be considered to be specialising in history teaching (because of their higher percentage time of more than 54% spent in teaching the subject), rises with the rise in academic qualifications. 'Specialists' in the matriculation category were 62%; 64% among the undergraduate teachers and 94% among the graduates. This re-emphasises the importance attached to adequate academic qualifications in teaching history.

In the next chapter, data related to material resources and facilities in the teaching of history will be examined and their relationship with the human resources in the sample analysed.

CHAPTER VIII

HISTORY MATERIAL RESOURCES AND THEIR USE IN TRANSKEI SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

It has already been shown in the previous chapter that some teachers were concerned about the pupils' attitude towards history and about their own ability to present history material effectively because of their training. It was also argued in chapter 2 to 4 that pupil-centred history instruction and appropriate employment of audio-visual aids could be an answer to a more effective history teaching. To investigate this question in the Transkei situation, several questions on resource materials and teaching methods were included in the questionaire and these will now be examined in this chapter.

To assess the position of history fairly, however, some information regarding the history student was necessary and the teachers were asked to indicate something of the background of the classes they were teaching. As has been mentioned in the previous chapters, language in history is one of the biggest problems related to understanding the subject. The pupils' maturity and efficiency in the language was assessed from the teachers' opinions of this aspect. Since it was suggested that language development is closely related to the chronological age of the child, the average ages of the history classes were first determined and were as follows:

TABLE VIII.1 : AVERAGE AGES OF HISTORY CLASSES IN 1985 (I.11)

Age	Std 8		Std 9		Std 10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
15 yrs	3	9	-	-	-	-	3	3
16 "	6	18	1	4	-	-	7	8
17 "	17	50	5	21	2	7	24	27
18 "	5	15	7	29	4	13	12	18
19 "	2	6	3	13	14	47	19	22
20 "	1	3	4	17	9	30	14	16
Unstated	-	-	4	17	1	3	5	6
Total	34	100	24	100	30	100	88	100

This table indicates that 56% of the pupils were in the 15-18 year age group, a stage during which, according to the Piagetia developmental theory, historical concepts still require considerable concrete support to enhance formal understanding. Therefore more emphasis on illustrative aids and wider reading exercises would be expected at this stage for adequate conceptualisation to develop.

Since history is highly literary and as such requires a fair command of English prose (Macrae, 1987, p.65), it was necessary to probe pupil proficiency in the language. For an opinion on this the teachers were required to indicate the extent of their pupils' problems in understanding history language. The following table reflects the teachers' assessment of their pupils' mastery of English, which is a second language and medium of instruction.

TABLE VIII.2 : PUPILS' UNDERSTANDING OF HISTORY LANGUAGE (III.9)

Response	Std. 8		Std. 9		Std.10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
a. Most have language problems	9	27	9	38	13	43	31	35
b. Some have language problems	9	27	3	13	11	37	23	26
c. Few have language problems	1	3	-	-	2	7	3	3
d. None had language problems	1	3	-	-	-	-	1	1
e. Unstated	14	41	12	50	4	13	30	34
TOTAL	34	100	24	100	30	100	88	100

This table indicates that most pupils (35%) experienced language difficulties, while 26% of the pupils had 'some' language problems in their history. It is, however, strange that the highest record of most language problems (43%) is in the standard 10 class which should have familiarised and adapted to senior secondary history language by this level. It is again significant that the second-highest percentage (34%) is that of teachers who did not give their assessment of this important question of the

pupils' language ability. Perhaps this could be interpreted as indicating lack of certainty in many of the teachers as far as language understanding is concerned. Nonetheless, if for white English speaking pupils the language problem can be described as "central" (Macrae 1987, p.65), for the blacks the English language could be a major setback in grasping historical concepts.

To assess the influence of language and teaching methods on understanding history, the level of the pupils' understanding of history concepts was also probed. The following table shows how the teachers rated their classes.

TABLE VIII.3: PUPILS' UNDERSTANDING OF HISTORY CONCEPTS (III.10)

Response	Std. 8		Std. 9		Std. 10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Fair	24	71	9	38	20	67	53	60
Weak	7	21	6	25	6	20	19	22
Poor	3	9	4	17	1	3	8	9
Unstated	-	-	5	21	3	10	8	9
Total	34	100	24	100	30	100	88	100

Teachers thought that their pupils generally had a fair grasp of history concepts. That about 31% of the pupils were rated from weak to poor still reveals the magnitude of the language problem in understanding history. The teachers' assessment in this aspect, however, may be underestimating the pupils' problems since history language studies among native speakers of English have revealed that they have considerable difficulties in understanding many historical concepts (Macrae, 1987; Shelmilt, 1980, p.42). So, for the Transkei child who has to struggle to master English as a foreign language, the level of concept understanding in history could be even lower.

When this assessment of the pupils' understanding of history is examined generally with the teachers' education level in mind, could there be a significant difference of oppinion between teachers with university education and those without? This aspect was investigated and the results are tabulated in table VIII.4.

TABLE VIII.4 : TEACHERS' ASSESSMENT OF PUPILS' UNDERSTANDING OF HISTORY - COMPARED BY QUALIFICATIONS (1.5+II.9410)

Language Problems	University-trained		Matriculation only		Total	
Response	No. (29)	%	No. (26)	%	No.(55)	%
a.Most have problems	21	72	15	58	36	66
b.Some " "	8	28	9	35	17	31
c.Few " "	-	-	1	4	1	2
d.None " "	-	-	1	4	1	2
Concept understanding						
a. Good	-	-	-	-	-	-
b. Fair	12	41	21	81	33	60
c. Weak	13	45	3	12	16	29
d. Poor	4	14	2	8	6	71

From this table it is clear that most university trained teachers were more aware of the pupils' language problems than their underqualified counterparts. Of this group 72% rated most pupils as having language problems whereas 58% of the matriculation-only teachers thought so. The rest of the university-trained teachers (28%) rated the remainder of their students as having "some" problems, whereas in addition to the 31% matriculation-only teachers who rated their students as having "some" language problems, a further 4% thought their students had few or no language problems.

This difference of opinion in the two qualification groups was more starkly demonstrated when contrasting their response on concept understanding. As could be expected the university-experienced teachers rated their students quite low in this aspect when contrasted with the rating of the other group. For example, only 41% of the university-trained group returned a "fair" rating on students' concept-understanding as compared to 81% of the matriculation-only teachers. Further, 59% of the university-trained group rated their pupils' understanding of concepts as either weak (45%) or poor (14%), as contrasted to the 20% parallel rating from the matriculation-only group. This may

suggest that the underqualified group of teachers were not much better in language proficiency and in their interpretation of history concepts than their students.

Just as in the case of physical maturity, language development is generally believed to be faster among females. If sex differences are a factor in language development, it could be asked whether female teachers can significantly influence their classes positively in their understanding of historical language and concepts. The data on this aspect is given on Table VIII.5

TABLE VIII.5: HISTORY LANGUAGE & CONCEPT UNDERSTANDING ASSESSMENT BY SEX (1.2+111.9,10)

Language problems	Male (36)		Female (19)		Total (55)	
Response	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
a. Most have language problems	26	72	10	53	36	66
b. Some have language problems	9	25	8	42	17	31
c. Few have language problems	1	3	-	-	1	2
d. None have language problems	-	-	1	5	1	2
CONCEPT UNDERSTANDING:						
a. Good	-	-	-	-	-	-
b. Fair	20	56	13	68	33	60
c. Weak	13	36	2	11	15	27
d. Poor	3	8	4	21	7	13

This table shows that most male teachers (72%) rated most of their pupils as having many language problems and 25% said their students had some language problems. However, contrary to logical expectation, the male teachers rated over half of their pupils (56%) as 'fair' in their understanding of history concepts. On the other hand, just over half (53%) of the female teachers thought that most of their pupils had language problems and not much lower than half (42%) of this group said their pupils had 'some' language problems. In addition 5% of the females in the sample felt that their pupils had no language problems

in history in contrast to the 3% males who said that only a few of their students had language problems. Therefore, for the females to give a 68% 'fair' rating, as was done, could be expected. Their 11% 'weak' and 21% 'poor' ratings in concept understanding balanced well with their language understanding rating. The figures suggest a slight advantage in the understanding of history language and concepts for classes handled by female teachers.

Since for any teaching situation human resources must interact with material resources in a given environment, an attempt to to present an analysis of available facilities and resources for history in Transkei senior secondary schools will be made. First an attempt to find out what teaching aids the schools had was made by approaching the senior history teachers in each sample school. He/she was asked to indicate from the list (in questionnaire Appendix A) the history teaching aids available at the school. However, just 19 of the 30 sample schools returned this questionnaire and 33 (60%) of the 55 questionnaires were received. This, therefore, gave only a partial picture of the teaching aids available in schools from which the rate of their use, in comparison with their availability, could be determined. Moreover, it became clear from the analysis of the teaching aids mentioned by the various history teachers in many of the schools that even those Senior History Teachers who had responded had not indicated all the available aids. This discrepancy is demonstrated in the table which follows where a comparison is made between the number of responses from Senior Teachers and assistant teachers in the 19 schools in question. The figures pinpoint items which, although available, were under-utilised since they were not mentioned either by Senior Teachers or the assistant teachers. The last column of the table underscores the discrepancy by providing numbers by which assistant teachers' claim on existing aids exceed the figures supplied by the Senior Teachers.

TABLE VIII.6 : AVAILABLE AIDS ACCORDING TO SENIOR HISTORY TEACHERS COMPARED TO USED ONES ACCORDING TO THEIR ASSISTANTS (APPENDIX A + II.10)

Teaching aids items	Available aids according to Senior Teachers in 19 schools		Used aids according to assistants in 19 schools		Available but under-utilised according to assistant teachers		Claimed to exist by assistants bu not mentioned by Senior Teachers	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
a. Wall maps	16	84%	19	100%	-	-	3	16
b. Ready-made charts	4	21	10	53	-	-	6	60
c. Self-made charts	10	53	17	90	-	-	7	41
d. Photocopier	6	32	3	16	3	50	-	-
e. Duplicator	18	95	12	63	6	33	-	-
f. Scanner	6	32	8	42	-	-	2	25
g. Slide camera	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
h. Episcope/diascope	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
i. Overhead projector	5	26	2	11	3	60	-	-
j. Slide projector	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
k. Filmstrip projector	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
l. Film project	5	26	1	5	4	80	-	-
m. Television	2	11	-	-	2	100	-	-
n. Closed circuit TV	-	-	1	5	-	-	1	100
o. Video recorder	1	5	-	-	1	100	-	-
p. Tape recorder	-	-	1	5	-	-	1	100
q. Radio	3	16	1	5	2	67	-	-
Total	75	23	75	23	21	28	20	27
Possible total	323	100	323	100	75	100	75	100

The last two columns of this table show an overall statistical descrepancy of 55%, which is a combined effect of the number of under-utilised teaching aids and the Senior History Teachers' understatement of available aids. From these nineteen schools it appears that only 23% of the possible teaching aids were available and used. Of these aids the under-utilisation column indicates that 28% were not used although they were available. Most of the under-utilisation, which ranged between 33% and 100%, obtained among the technological aids. The last column under-statement figure of 27% suggests that the Senior History Teachers were either unaware of or did not use the teaching aids they did not mentioned as available. Because of these statistical discrepancies in the Senior History Teachers' returns, Appendix A could not be reliably depended upon to assess the

rate at which teaching aids were used in teaching history in Transkei senior secondary schools. To assess the extent to which teaching aids were used in history teaching, therefore, the list of commonly used history teaching aids given in the questionnaire was taken as the expected standard for successful history tuition. The extent of use of the aids (which in this context could not be much different from those available) could then be determined by comparing the number of actual users to the total-possible users according to respondents in that particular section of the questionaire.

To determine how these teaching aids were used to facilitate history teaching in the various senior secondary school classes, therefore, the list of seventeen commonly used visual, auditory and audio-visual aids was further analysed. The list included both teacher aids and learner aids. The teachers were to indicate which of those aids they used in teaching history. It will be noted that where questionaire responses concerned the schools investigated the maximum number is 30, for the individual teachers it is 55, and for the three senior secondary classes (i.e. standard 8, 9, 10) the maximum number becomes 88.

Table VIII.7, which follows, reflects the extent to which those teaching aids were available and used in history teaching in the three senior secondary class levels. They are presented in descending order of their use in the 30 schools investigated from which 55 teachers responded. It will be observed that in the totals there is a marked difference in the rate at which teaching aids were used in the three class levels. Teaching aids were least employed in standard 9 (15%); this improved to 18% in standard 8 and they were used most in standard 10 at 21%. This could be explained in that,as an internally examined class. standard 9 received less attention than the two externally examined classes. Of the two externally examined classes, however, standard 10 performance in examinations was generally the standard by which a school was judged and therefore was usually allocated the best teacher available.

TABLE VII. 7: USE OF AVAILABLE TEACHING AIDS PER CLASS LEVEL (II.10)

Teaching aids	Maximum teacher response per item: No.55		Use in Std 8: No.34		Use in Std 9: No.24		Use in Std 10: No.30		Totals: No.88	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No	%	No.	%
1. Wall map	44	80	27	79	16	67	24	80	67	76
2. Self-made charts	41	75	26	77	12	50	19	63	57	65
3. Duplicator	29	53	18	53	11	46	18	60	47	53
4. Ready-made charts	18	33	9	27	8	33	11	37	28	32
5.Scanner	14	25	9	27	6	25	11	37	26	30
6. Photocopier	10	18	6	18	3	13	5	20	14	16
7. Overhead projector	6	11	4	12	-	-	5	17	9	10
8. Television	2	4	1	3	1	4	2	7	5	6
9. Slide projector	2	4	1	3	1	4	2	7	4	5
10. Video recorder	1	2	1	3	1	4	2	7	4	5
11. Radio	1	2	-	-	1	4	3	10	4	5
12. Tape recorder	1	2	1	3	-	-	2	7	3	3
13. Film projector	1	2	-	-	1	4	-	-	1	1
14. Episcope/diascope	1	2	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	1
15. Closed circuit TV	1	2	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	1
16. Slide camera	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	-
17. Filmstrip projector	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	-
TOTALS	172	18	104	18	63	15	105	21	270	18
Possible Totals	935	100	578	100	408	100	510	100	1496	100

Respondents in the first column suggest a very limited availability of modern technological teaching aids, other than wall maps and charts. Duplicated material even if it comes as no more than modified notes, is an important aspect of history teaching. The difficulties for the teachers are clear w hen it is noted that approximately half the schools had no duplicating facilities. Although wall maps are not particularly expensive, it is worrying that one in five teachers did not have any. Visual stimulus, in the form of pictures and slides is often extremely important in establishing concepts of ideas and practices in the past. For teachers with most pupils from isolated rural backgrounds and studying through a second language, such visual stimulation becomes even more important.

It could be argued that the ability to give visual re-enforcement to history lessons is probably one of the most important asserts of a history department. It can be seen that only 4% had slide projectors and 11% had overhead projectors.

Obviously a number of the aids listed require electricity. It was established that 63% of the schools had electricity. This clearly precludes the use of some of these aids in two-fifths of the schools investigated. When the teaching demands not only of history but also of geography and science are considered, it could be argued that a major need is for the extension of the power supply to schools.

Just as important as the availability of aids is the extent to which the teachers use them. The second part of Table VII.7 gives some indication of teacher use in the different class levels. (Variation in the number of responses in these columns was governed by the number of class groups handled by the different teachers.) From these columns it can be deduced in some cases that facilities that actually existed were not fully utilised in some schools. Such situations can be clearly seen where an available facility had never been used for some classes; for example, the overhead projector for standard 9, the radio for standard 8, the film projector for standard 8 and 10, the episcope and the closed circuit television for standard 8 & 9. Almost all of these, however, are modern technological aids that need electricity and expertise for operation. Nevertheless, maps, charts of various types, manual duplicators and battery-operated tape recorders are not dependent upon electricity and could therefore be expected to have high percentages of usage. But with only three of the listed aids topping 50% in their extent of use and none of these touching 80% the under-utilisation of teaching aids becomes even more evident.

As an underdeveloped country, one of the reasons for the lack of the more expensive technological teaching gadgets in Transkei could be financial constraints. But added to this could be lack of innovative spirit and initiative on the part of the predominantly underqualified teachers. The question of the use of those teaching aids that were available was therefore further

examined comparatively in the light of the respondents' qualifications, sex and locality to find out whether these variables had any significant influence. To investigate the influence of these variables on the various types of teaching aids the list of aids was demarcated into five divisions according to their nature or function. From the questionnaire listing (Appendix B, question II.10) items a, b and c comprising wall maps, ready-made charts and self-made charts or maps are regarded as 'non-projected pictures'; item d to g which includes photocopier, duplicator, scanner and slide camera becomes 'teacher aids'; item h to j falls under 'still picture projectors' and comprises epidiascope, overhead projector, slide projector and filmstrip projector; the fourth group from item k to O is that of 'audio-visual' aids and includes the film projector, television, closed circuit television and video recorder; and the last category is that of'aural aids' such as the tape recorder and the radio.

The possibility of an influence of the sex variable in the use of teaching aids was investigated and Table VIII.8 shows the data.

TABLE VIII.8 : USE OF TEACHING AIDS COMPARED BY SEX (II.10 + 1.2)

Teaching aid	Male (N=58)		Female (N=30)		Total (N=88)	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
a. Wall maps	46	79	21	70	67	76
b. Ready-made charts	15	26	13	43	28	32
c. Self-made charts	35	61	22	73	57	65
d. Photocopier	8	14	6	20	14	16
e. Duplicator	33	57	14	47	47	53
f. Scanner	10	17	16	53	26	30
g. Slide camera	-	-	-	-	-	-
h. Epidiascope	-	-	2	7	2	2
i. Overhead projector	2	4	7	23	9	10
j. Slide projector	-	-	3	10	3	3
k. Filmstrip projector	-	-	-	-	-	-
l. Film projector	-	-	2	7	2	2
m. Television	-	-	5	17	5	6
n. Closed circuit TV	-	-	1	3	1	1
o. Video recorder	1	2	3	10	4	5
p. Tape recorder	2	4	1	3	3	3
q. Radio	4	7	-	-	4	5
Total	156	16	116	23	272	18
Possible total	986	100	510	100	1496	100

The table shows that female history teachers generally outclass male teachers in their use of teaching aids. There is only one item, the radio, that was not used by the females but used by the males. On the other hand the males did not feature in five items which were used by the females. In comparing the totals advantage of the female teachers becomes even clearer. The quantity of teaching aids used by the males (16%) is 7% lower than that of the female teachers (23%). The better utilisation of teaching aids by female teachers could be one of the contributing factors for the better performance of female-taught pupils in understanding history language and concepts (as noted in Table VIII.5).

The possible influence of academic qualifications was also probed. Teachers with matriculation only were compared with those who had some university courses in history. Table VIII.9 shows the influence of the qualification variable in the use of teaching aids in history teaching.

TABLE VIII.9 USE OF TEACHING AIDS COMPARED BY QUALIFICATION (I.5+II.10)

Teaching aid	Matriculation only		University		Totals	
	No.38	%	No.50	%	No.88	%
a. Wall maps	34	(90)	33	(66)	67	(70)
b. Ready-made charts	11	(29)	17	(34)	28	(32)
c. Self-made charts	26	(68)	31	(62)	57	(65)
d. Photocopier	1	(3)	13	(26)	14	(16)
e. Duplicator	18	(47)	29	(58)	47	(53)
f. Scanner	7	(18)	19	(38)	26	(30)
g. Slide camera	-		-		-	
h. Epidiascope	-		2	(4)	2	(2)
i. Overhead projector	6	(16)	3	(6)	9	(10)
j. Slide projector	-		3	(6)	3	(3)
k. Filmstrip projector	-		-		-	
l. Film projector	-		2	(4)	2	(2)
m. Television	1	(3)	4	(8)	5	(6)
n. Closed Circuit TV	-		1	(2)	1	(1)
o. Video recorder	-		4	(8)	4	(5)
p. Tape recorder	1	(3)	2	(4)	3	(3)
q. Radio	-		4	(8)	4	(5)
Total	105	(16)	167	(20)	272	(100)
Possible total	646	(100)	850	(100)	1496	(100)

This table shows that the matriculation-only teachers fared better than their university-trained counterparts only in the section of non-projected pictures where their average use was 62% as compared to the 54% of the other group. Otherwise the table clearly shows that the university-trained teachers appreciated the use of a variety of teaching aids more than the less qualified teachers. Overall the better qualified group utilised 20% of the possible arsenal of teaching aids, whereas the underqualified group used only 16% of the aids. At 4% difference the qualifications comparison was almost half that of the sex variable influence. Most disturbing, however, is the revelation that only 19% of the possible range of history teaching aids were used by the sample. This could indicate the need for more emphasis on the practical approach in the training of history teachers.

A further comparison was made between urban and rural schools to determine whether environment influenced use of teaching aids. Since most of the previous environment comparisons have favoured the urban schools, and with facilities such as electricity more readily available in urban areas, it could be expected that these schools could be better equipped (especially in electric-power driven machines) than the rural schools. The urban schools could, therefore, be expected to be far advanced in their used of electric-driven teaching aids. The following table reflects the situation as predicted.

This predictable urban advantage is especially relevant if it is remembered that previous statistics (Table VII. 9) had clearly indicated that urban schools also employed more better qualified teachers than rural schools. Table VII.10 reflects the difference in the use of teaching aids in history between urban and rural schools.

TABLE VIII.10 : USE OF TEACHING AIDS COMPARED BY LOCALITY (II.10)

Teaching aid	Rural (N.70)		Urban (N.18)		Total (N.88)	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
a. Wall maps	58	83	9	50	67	76
b. Ready-made charts	24	34	4	22	28	32
c. Self-made charts	50	71	7	39	14	65
d. Photo copier	7	10	7	39	14	16
e. Duplicator	35	50	12	67	47	53
f. Scanner	17	24	9	50	26	30
g. Slide camera	-	-	-	-	-	-
h. Epidiascope	-	-	2	11	2	2
i. Overhead projector	9	13	-	-	9	10
j. Slide projector	-	-	3	17	3	3
k. Filmstrip projector	-	-	-	-	-	-
l. Film projector	-	-	2	11	2	2
m. Television	2	3	3	17	5	6
n. Closed circuit TV	-	-	1	6	1	1
O. Video recorder	1	1	3	17	4	5
p. Tape recorder	2	3	1	6	3	3
q. Radio	4	7	-	-	4	5
Total	209	18	63	21	272	18
Possible Total	1190	100	306	100	1496	100

It is only in the non-projected pictures that the rural schools had an average advantage of 26%. With the general lack of electricity in rural areas the rural school teachers could be expected to concetrate on non-projected pictures and maps. Nevertheless, maps and charts are essential whether the school is in a favoured area or not. The poor performance of the urban school in this division must be regretted. Otherwise in all the other types of teaching aids the urban schools still retain their position of advantage. The difference in the overal use of teaching aids, however, is only 3% in favour of the urban teachers. Another negative factor militating against a wider use of technological teaching aids in rural areas could be related to the previously noted predominance of underqualified teachers in those schools. Hence the non-use of most technological teaching

aids could partly be due to ill-information and lack of proper training in the use of those aids.

For a summary of the influence of the variables examined above (i.e. sex, qualification, locality) Table VIII.II reflects these comparisons in percentages.

TABLE VIII.II : USE OF TEACHING AIDS COMPARED BY SEX QUALIFICATION LOCALITY PER PERCENTAGES

Variable	Sex	Qualification	Locality
Teaching aids	Male : Female	Matriculation : University	Rural : Urban
a. Wall maps	79 : 70	90 : 66	83 : 50
b. Ready-made charts	26 : 43	29 : 34	34 : 22
c. Self-made charts	61 : 73	68 : 62	71 : 39
d. Photocopier	14 : 20	3 : 23	10 : 39
e. Duplicator	57 : 47	47 : 58	50 : 67
f. Scanner	17 : 53	18 : 38	24 : 50
g. Slide camera	- : -	- : -	- : -
h. Epidiascope	- : 7	- : 4	- : 11
i. Overhead projector	4 : 23	16 : 6	13 : -
j. Slide projector	- : 10	- : 6	- : 17
k. Filmstrip projector	- : -	- : -	- : -
l. Film projector	- : 7	- : 4	- : 11
m. Television	- : 17	3 : 8	3 : 17
n. Closed circuit TV	- : 3	- : 2	- : 6
O. Video recorder	2 : 10	- : 8	1 : 17
p. Tape recorder	4 : 3	3 : 4	3 : 6
q. Radio	7 : -	- : 8	7 : -
Total	271 : 386	277 : 334	298 : 352
Average %	16 : 23	16 : 20	18 : 21

The table shows that generally it is predominantly the non-projected pictures (a-c) and, to a smaller degree, some teacher-aids (d-f) which are used in teaching history in Transkei

Senior Secondary Schools. The use of still projected pictures (h-j), the audio-visuals (k-o), and the aural (p-q) teaching aids is virtually negligible. This could be partly attributed to lack of permanently available electricity in many of the schools and the expensiveness of most of the electrically-operated items. However, some of the cheaper and non-electrically operated items such as the slide camera were not used at all.

It is of interest that in the sex column the females outclass the males by a good 7% in their use of teaching aids. The column seems to suggest that females are all-round better users of history teaching aids. The qualifications column indicates better utilisation of teaching aids by university-trained teachers, even though they hold only a 4% advantage over the matriculation-only teachers. The environment variance seems the least pronounced of the three comparisons. The performance of the urban teachers in the use of history teaching aids is just 3% higher than that of the rural teachers. Better performance of the urban teachers could be expected if it is remembered that their quality and the urban school facilities indicated an advantage over the rural schools.

Working on the assumption that the seventeen teaching/learning aids items listed in the questionaire are some of the most useful in teaching history, the overall picture reflected by the table on the use of these aids is a bleak one. The table reflects that only 19% of the possible arsenal of teaching aids was utilised by senior secondary school teachers. This raises a question as to how well-provided other history teaching facilities were to enhance concept understanding.

As was argued earlier, understanding of historical concepts is closely related to, if not dependent on, age-language maturity. To attain such language maturity in history it was suggested earlier that extensive reading and such activity teaching strategies as role play, dramatisation and various group work scheme are helpful. In view of this,, therefore, facilities such as classroom accommodation and library facilities were also investigated.

Among the facilities for history teaching adequacy of classroom and laboratory accommodation were examined, not only for housing pupils but also for equipment and activity teaching. Table VIII 12 indicates the extent of availibity of classroom and laboratory space for free movement of pupils, and possibility of unimpeded use of teaching aids.

TABLE VIII.12 ADEQUECY OF HISTORY ACCOMMODATION (11.1,2,3)

Response	Free classroom Movement		Space for aids		Laboratory	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
Yes enough space	69	78	62	70	-	-
Not enough space	17	19	21	24	-	-
None	-	-	-	-	55	100
Unstated	2	2	5	6	-	-
Total	88	100	88	100	55	100

The table shows that 78% of the sample senior secondary schools had suffient space for free movement of pupils. It was further claimed that 70% of the classrooms had enough space for history teaching aids and equipment. This implies that in most schools the activity teaching approaches in which pupil involvement could be maximised could be succefully applied. However, not a single school ran a history laboratory. This is not suprising if it is remembered that only 19% of the possible teaching aids were available in these schools.

Reading facilities to encourage maximum involvement of pupils in history learning were also investigated. Such facilities for promotion of discovery learning, however, seemed to be grossly inadequate. The condition of library facilities is reflected on Table VIII.13:

TABLE VIII.13: LIBRARY FACILITIES (II.4,5,6)

Response	Any Library		Any History class collection		Any History journal	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	23	42	9	16	4	7
No	32	58	43	78	51	93
Unstated	-	-	3	6	-	-
Total	55	100	55	100	55	100

The table reflects that schools were badly lacking in library facilities. Less than half (42%) of the schools had general libraries, a mere 16% had history classroom collection and only 7% claimed to be regularly receiving history journals. These statistics immediately suggest that history was generally under-supplied in Transkei Senior Secondary Schools and it might therefore be very difficult to promote discovery learning. Even the claim for regular supply of a history journal by 7% schools may be invalid as only a general educational journal, Educamus was mentioned by the claimants.

The paucity of history reference facilities is further confirmed by the following analysis of history reference materials in the few available school libraries.

TABLE VIII.14: ADEQUACY OF HISTORY REFERENCE MATERIALS IN LIBRARIES (II.5)

Response	Number	Percentage
Good	-	-
Fair	9	16
Poor	14	26
Not applicable	26	47
Unstated	6	11
Total	55	100

At the few schools where there were general libraries (42%) a fair supply of history reference materials obtained in only 16% schools. In the remaining schools a poor supply of history reference materials was recorded. Such a state of affairs should make library project assignments and development of independent study skills impossible in most schools. Moreover it was also discovered that, as the next table reflects, there were very few history classes which read newspapers regularly.

TABLE VIII.15 : NEWSPAPERS/MAGAZINES READ (II.9)

NAME	NUMBERS	PERCENTAGE
The Daily dispatch	21	38
Imvo	1	2
Natal mercury	1	2
Natal witness	1	2
Plain Truth	1	2
South African Digest	1	2
Sunday Times	1	2
Time Magazine	1	2
Up-beat	1	2
No response	26	47
Total	55	100

From this table it can be seen that just over half (54%) of the investigated classes read newspapers or magazines. Of these 38% read the "East London Daily Dispatch", a border region daily. This still emphasises how poorly supplied with reading materials history classes were.

Another problem of history concerns the spatial relationship of events. Although textbooks often try to meet this problem by providing illustrative sketch maps, these are often sectional maps and therefore fail to give a global relationship of events. Use of atlases in history classes was also investigated. The following table reflects the supply of atlases in history classes.

TABLE VIII.16: SUPPLY OF ATLASES IN HISTORY CLASSES (II.2)

Response	Std 8		Std 9		Std 10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Sufficient	9	26	2	8	5	17	16	18
Not sufficient	17	50	12	50	15	52	44	51
None	8	24	10	42	9	31	27	31
Unstated	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	1
Total	34	100	24	100	30	100	88	100

The atlases were inadequately supplied in 51% of the classes while in 31% cases there were no atlases at all. This indequate supply of atlases suggests little regard for relating historical events to their location when teaching. Such disregard for the spatial relationship of history makes the subject lose much of its significance and meaning. The poor library supplies observed above, leaves the history students with only the textbooks to rely on. This makes the textbook to be likely to be the most important aid in history for both the teacher and the student.

The availability of history textbooks in schools is indicated in the following table.

TABLE VIII.17 : AVAILABILITY OF HISTORY TEXTBOOKS (II.1)

Response	Std 8		Std 9		Std 10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Sufficient	18	53	17	71	21	70	56	64
Not sufficient	15	44	6	25	8	27	29	33
None	1	3	-	-	-	-	1	1
Unstated	-	-	1	4	1	3	2	2
Total	34	100	24	100	30	100	88	100

From this table it will be observed that on the average, 64% of the senior secondary classes had enough textbooks. This might seem a fair percentage if other reading materials were available. But, if it is considered that in most situations the textbook was the only reading and reference source to which the pupil was exposed (since libraries were few and poorly supplied), the 33% classes with insufficient textbooks should be alarming: to say nothing of the standard 8 class which had no textbook. Thus some pupils might go through high school having missed out in developing love for history or even acquaintance with historical writings.

Since the textbook seems to be the most common resource for history, it was of interest to know which history textbooks were used (especially in standard 8 where there was a syllabus change in 1985). In this way an assessment of how much adequately they could cope with being the only chief teaching aids available could be possible. The actual textbooks series used for standard 8 are shown in their descending frequency in Table VIII.18. It will be noted that the series include books which were prescribed for standard 9.

TABLE VIII.18 : TEXTBOOKS USED IN STANDARD 8 (11.3)

Title	Date published	Author	Frequency	%
1. New structure std 8	1975	Mocke & Wallis	24	30
2. Active history std 8	1975	Schoeman et al	17	21
3. Timelines std 8	1985	Lintvelt et al	9	11
4. History std 8	1977	Joubert	7	9
5. History std 8	1985	Lambrecht et al	6	7
6. History for std 8	1985	Smit et al	5	6
7. Legacy for the past		Boyce	5	6
8. Senior history for S.A. school std 9	1975	Van Schoor et al	3	4
9. Europe and South Africa Part 1	1974	Boyce	3	4
10 History for std 9	1974	Joubert	2	2
TOTAL			81	100

The textbooks by Mocke and Wallies and by Schoeman et al led in popularity,even though they did not adequately cover the new 1985 syllabus. Several questions arise from this table. One wonders if the teachers were aware of the new syllabus and its contents. Did they really prefer these textbooks or did the teachers simply give to the pupils whatever was available by way of previous years' government-subsidised textbooks? If the new syllabus was adequately prepared for by the Education Department, why did the new syllabus publications in number (3) and (5) in the table rate so low in availability or popularity? One could safely assume that the new syllabus publications were not adequately supplied, hence std 9 textbooks (numbers 8,9,10) were used to supplement the old-syllabus Standard 8 textbooks for those topics which were formely prescribed for Standard 9. For the Standard 9 and 10 textbooks, the same procedure was followed.

TABLE VIII.19 : TEXTBOOKS USED IN STANDARD 9 AND 10 (III.4,5)

Title	Date published		Author	Std 9	Std 10	Total
	Std 9	Std 10		No. %	No. %	No. %
1. Europe & S.A. 9/10	1974	1974	Boyce	17 : 40	22 : 30	39 :34
2. History 9/10	1974	1975	Joubert & Britz	8 : 19	19 : 26	27 :23
3. History std 9/10	1975	1976	Smit et al	8 : 19	19 : 26	27 :23
4. Active History 9/10	1980		Schoeman & Van Rensburg	5 : 12	6 : 8	11 :10
5. Senior History for S.African Schools 9/10	1975	1976	Van Schoor et al	4 : 10	5 : 7	9 : 8
6. S.A. and modern world	n.d.	n.d.	Breitenbach	-	2 : 3	2 : 2
TOTAL				42 : 100	72 : 100	115: 100

The popular textbooks in Standard 9 and 10 are those series by Boyce, Joubert and Britz, and Smit et al respectively. It is again of interest that, as was the case with Standard 8, the earliest published or oldest series took the lead in popularity even though they might not necessarily have been the best publications for those class levels or the current syllabus.

For the teachers' opinion about their textbooks and to assess their awareness of changes in the syllabus for std 8, the teachers were asked to rate the textbooks in relation to syllabus coverage The teachers' opinion about the adequacy of the textbooks on which they so much depended is reflected in the following table.

TABLE VIII.20: TEXTBOOK ADEQUACY TO SYLLABUS (III.7)

Comment	Std 8	Std 9	Std. 10	Total
	No. %	No. %	No. %	No. %
Very adequate	6 : 18	2 : 8	7 : 23	15 : 17
Fairly adequate	17 : 50	17 : 71	18 : 60	52 : 59
Partially adequate	6 : 18	3 : 13	2 : 7	11 : 13
Definitely inadequate	3 : 9	- -	1 : 3	4 : 5
Unstated	2 : 6	2 : 8	2 : 7	6 : 7
TOTAL	34 :100	24 :100	30 :100	88 :100

With the syllabus adequacy range of very and fairly adequate at 76%, the foregoing table indicates that the teachers were generally confident of the textbooks on which they were so heavily dependent. The textbook adequacy-to-syllabus, as could be expected in view of the indicated short supply of new in-syllabus textbooks in table VIII.18, was least satisfactory in standard 8 where a new syllabus was being introduced in 1985.

To assess the areas in which the textbooks used were strong or weak, the teachers were asked to comment on certain aspects of their main textbooks. These aspects included rating of facts according to their clarity and the manner or mood of their presentation, the standard of language used, readability of the print used, appropriateness of the illustrations, explanation of new concepts and supply of supplementary reference works to the topics treated. The rating table spread from 'very adequate' through 'fairly adequate' and 'partially adequate' to 'not adequate'. Since the textbook seemed to be the major history resource for the Transkei pupil, such a rating could be indicative of the role played by the textbooks in use in stimulating promotion of concept understanding. For an overall impression of the scores the 'very adequate' and 'fairly adequate' columns were together taken for a positive impression, while the 'partially adequate' and 'not adequate' columns gave the negative impression. The scores for the different classes are given in the tables that follow.

For standard 8 textbooks the adequacy rating index in the following Table VIII.21 (A) is not encouraging with the positive impression only reaching 48%. Thus these textbooks could never be satisfactory only-major-aids for teaching history. Moreover, the high number of those who did not respond (30%), giving the impression that they could not rate their textbooks, is disturbing.

TABLE VIII.21 (A): STD 8 TEXTBOOK ASPECTS RATING BY TEACHERS

Aspect rated	Positive impression			Negative impression				
	Very adequate	Fairly adequate	Sub-total	Partially adequate	Not adequate	Sub-total	Total response	Not responded
a. Facts: Is it concise and concrete?	10	11	21(62%)	8	-	8(24%)	29	5
b. Language: Is it simple and explained?	10	9	19(56%)	7	-	7(21%)	25	9
c. Presentation: i. Are the facts given to be swallowed? or	3	4	7(21%)	6	-	6(18%)	13	21
ii. Are facts stated to be digested.	8	8	16(47%)	4	-	4(12%)	20	14
d. Illustrations: Are they supplementary & well positioned	8	11	19(56%)	7	2	9(26%)	28	6
e. Visual impact: Is the print readable with clear captions?	11	7	18(53%)	8	3	11(32%)	29	5
f. Glossary: Are new concepts explained?	9	5	14(41%)	5	4	9(26%)	23	11
g. Bibliography: Is this supplied?	11	5	16(47%)	4	4	8(24%)	24	10
Average totals			16(48%)			8(23%)		10(30%)

If we take 'very adequate' and 'fairly adequate' as fair indicators of the teachers' approval of the rated aspects in table VII.21(A), an impression of average acceptance of the standard of standard 8 textbooks is reflected by the foregoing table. Except for the last two items on glossary and bibliography, all the other positive items scored around average when the first two columns were combined. In fact the average percentage of the combined first two positive columns is 48%. However, some dissatisfaction is recorded with regard to relevance of illustrations, readability of print, supply of glossary and provision of bibliography. The average score in in the negative columns is 23%, while 30% abstained from expressing an opinion.

TABLE VIII.21(B): STD 9 TEXTBOOK ASPECTS RATING BY TEACHERS

Aspect rated	Positive impression			Negative impression				
	Very adequate	Fairly adequate	Sub-total	Partially adequate	Not adequate	Sub-total	Total response	Not responded
a. Facts: Is it concise and concrete?	1	1	2 (8%)	4	-	4(17%)	6	18
b. Language: Is it simple and explained?	-	12	12(50%)	3	1	4(17%)	16	8
c. Presentation: i. Are facts given to be swallowed? or	2	6	8(33%)	3	2	5(21%)	13	11
ii. Are facts stated to be digested?	1	10	11(46%)	4	-	4(17%)	15	9
d. Illustrations: Are they supplementary and well positioned?	-	11	11(46%)	9	-	9(38%)	20	4
e. Visual impact: Is the print readable with clear captions?	6	13	19(79%)	2	-	2(8%)	21	3
f. Glossary: Are new concepts explained?	3	5	8(33%)	7	5	12(50%)	20	4
g. Bibliography: Is this supplied?	5	7	12(50%)	3	6	9(38%)	21	3
Average totals			10(43%)			6(26%)		8(31%)

Unlike the standard 8 table, this one reflects low positive scores especially in the 'very adequate' column. When the scores of the first two columns are combined, only two aspects score 50% and one is rated above average (79%). So the standard 9 textbooks could be said to rate below average and therefore unsatisfactory to their users. The average positive score is 43%, whereas 26% rejected the textbooks. A whole 31% did not express their opinion.

TABLE VIII.21(C): STD 10 TEXTBOOK ASPECTS RATING BY TEACHERS

Aspect rated	Positive impression			Negative impression				
	Very adequate	Fairly adequate	Sub-total	Partially adequate	Not adequate	Sub-total	Total response	Not responded
a. Facts: Is it concise and concrete?	7	12	19(63%)	3	-	3(10%)	22	8
b. Language: Is it simple & explained	6	15	21(70%)	1	2	3(10%)	24	6
c. Presentation i. Are facts given to be swallowed? or ii. Are the facts stated to be digested?	3	2	5(17%)	1	-	1(3%)	6	24
d. Illustrations: Are they supplementary & well positioned	6	13	19(63%)	7	-	7(23%)	26	4
e. Visual impact: Is the print readable with clear captions?	14	9	23(77%)	3	-	3(10%)	26	4
f. Glossary: Are new concepts explained	7	6	13(43%)	5	7	12(40%)	25	5
g. Bibliography: Is this supplied?	10	6	16(53%)	3	5	8(27%)	24	6
Average totals			17(55%)			5(18%)		8(27%)

The table shows that the 'very adequate' score are generally not high but are higher than the standard 9 ratings. The standard 10 scores, however, reflect a generally above-average acceptance rating if the first two positive columns are put together. An average positive score of 55% was registered. The negative opinion is the lowest in this class at an average of 18% and a 27% abstainers.

If the textbooks for the three classes are compared according to the above evaluation, the standard 10 textbooks seem to be the most satisfactory, the standard 8 were fairly satisfactory,

whereas the Standard 9 were the least accepted group. An item-for-item analysis scores for the three classes showed consistency in discrediting the textbooks for supplying no glossary and bibliography. The weakness of failing to explain new concepts when writing school history has also been observed by Macrae (1987, p.63) with regard to some Standard 7 textbooks. With the Transkei pupil confronted by a foreign language for presenting strange historical concepts where no appropriate teaching aids are available, the lack of glossaries in the textbooks should be a severe handicap to the promotion of concept understanding in history.

Having observed the inadequancies pointed out above and with a view to improving the position, the teachers were asked to indicate five unavailable teaching aids they would most like to have for their history teaching. The response depicted a general desire for many of the technological aids listed in the questionaire as the following table shows in descending order:

TABLE VIII.22 : FREQUENCY OF NEED FOR LISTED AIDS (II.11)

Item	Frequency (55)		Percentage (100)
1. Overhead projector	28	:	51
2. Video recorder	22	:	40
3. Ready-made wall charts	21	:	38
4. Slide projector	21	:	38
5. Photocopier	20	:	36
6. Tape recorder	18	:	33
6. Television	18	:	33
8. Filmstrip projector	16	:	29
9. Film projector	15	:	27
10.Radio	14	:	26
11.Slide camera	11	:	20
12.Closed circuit TV	10	:	18
13.Episcope/epidiascope	9	:	16
14.Wall maps	8	:	15
14.Scanner/stencil cutler	8	:	15
16.Duplicating machine	4	:	7
17.Self-made charts/maps	2	:	4

Realistically and logically enough, the five most wanted teaching aids were,in their descending order, the overhead projector, video recorder, ready-made wall charts and slide projector, the photocopier,and television and tape recorder. All but two of these most needed teaching aids are electrically operated and quite expensive for most of the newly established small schools. This emphasises the need for the government to provide electricity in all the schools and subsidise teaching aids. An element of ignorance about some of the listed teaching aids, however, was manifested in illogical requirements by some of the teachers. For example, some teachers would most like to have radios and film projectors rather than overhead projectors and epidiascopes which could be more useful in most history classroom situations. The perculiar cases of those two teachers who would most ardently love to get"self-made wall charts/maps" should also be noted. In short the table shows that although the teachers were willing to enrich their lessons by using a variety of teaching aids, they were constrained by unavailability of most of the technological machines and of electric power. This view was confirmed when the teachers were probed on the value they attaached to audio-visual aids in history concept formation. This is reflected in Table VIII.23

TABLE VIII.23: EFFECTIVENESS OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS FOR HISTORY CONCEPTS (II.11)

Response	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10	Total
	No. %	No. %	No. %	No. %
a. Very effective	8 : 24	4 : 17	10 : 33	22 : 23
b. Effective	10 : 29	11 : 46	12 : 40	33 : 38
c. I don't know	13 : 38	6 : 25	8 : 27	27 : 31
d. Not effective	- -	- -	- -	- -
e. Unstated	3 : 9	3 : 13	- -	6 : 7
Total	34 : 100	24 : 100	30 : 100	88 : 100

The attitudes expressed in this table were also expected to be indicative of the trends teachers were likely to follow in their teaching methods. In this table admission by 61% that for concept formation in history audio-visual aids were desirable suggested their readiness to employ such aids if available. It is disturbing, however, that 31% of the teachers admitted ignorance of

the role played by teaching aids in historical concept formation. In addition 7% of the teachers did not respond to this important question. From this it could be assumed that up to 38% of the history teachers would not strive to secure relevant audio-visual aids to clarify new historical concepts in the textbooks.

The implications of the inadequate human resources and poor supply of material resources observed will now be examined by looking into some of the teaching methods preferred and/or employed by the teachers. This could give a picture of what educational interaction takes place in the classroom learning situation in Transkei senior secondary school history classes since resources (both human and material) always play an important role in determining teaching methods. To relate the quality of human resources to types of teaching methods, the attitude of teachers towards audio-visual aids was first examined against their educational background.

TABLE VIII.24: OPINION ON ROLE OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS IN HISTORY CONCEPT FORMATION COMPARED BY QUALIFICATION (III.11+1.5)

Opinion expressed	University-trained			Matriculants			Totals		
	No.	(29)	%	No.	(26)	%	No.	(55)	%
Very effective	9	:	31	4	:	15	13	:	24
Effective	12	:	41	9	:	35	21	:	38
I don't know	7	:	24	11	:	42	18	:	33
Unstated	1	:	3	2	:	8	3	:	6
Total	29	:	100	26	:	100	55	:	100

The table indicates that the university-trained teachers were more convinced about the effectiveness of audio-visual aids in history concept formation. Of these teachers, 31% thought that audio-visuals were very effective whereas just about half this number (15%) had a similar opinion among the matriculant teachers. On the whole, while the positive opinion (very effective and effective) of the better qualified teachers was 72%, that of the underqualified group was 50%. This low opinion about audio-visual aids by the less qualified teachers was also reflected in

their limited use of teaching aids in Table VIII.9
The teachers' attitude of little-concern about audio-visual aids is also observable in the following table of their choice regarding textbook-related teaching methods.

TABLE VIII.25: TEACHERS' IDEALS ON TEXTBOOK-RELATED METHODS (III.6)

Method	Response	Percentage
1. A basic textbook with occasional use of other resources (e.g. printed materials and audio-visuals)	29	33
2. Use of a number of textbooks	20	23
3. Use of a series of thematically treated topics or books.	10	11
4. A basic textbook to be used exclusively	9	10
5. A basic textbook to be used only for outline with much information from other resources.	8	9
6. No textbook but use of other sources in printed materials and audio-visual aids	3	3
7. Unstated	9	10
TOTAL	88	100

The above data show that the majority of teachers of history preferred most either the use of a basic textbook with occasional employment of source materials and audio-visual aids (33%), or the use of a number of textbooks (23%). The less textbook-reliant methods together were rated fairly low in the table. For instance methods 1, 5 and 6 which allow more chances for audio-visual aids constitute only 45% of the sample. This shows how textbook-dependent the teachers were (as indicated in Table VIII.23). They did not appreciate the role of audio-visual aids in history teaching. But when even the very textbooks were of short supply and inadequate in some important respects as indicated earlier, how could the standard of history be expected to be high? What the teachers thought of and how much they used other pupil-activity teaching methods to facilitate better understanding of history are the questions.

The teachers were, therefore, asked to indicate their attitude towards the use of discovery learning for promoting understanding. Their responses are recorded in table VIII.26.

TABLE VIII.26: EFFECTIVENESS OF DISCOVERY LEARNING (III.13)

Response	Std 8		Std 9		Std 10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Very effective	4	12	3	13	4	13	11	13
Effective	17	50	14	58	20	67	51	58
Not effective	4	12	2	8	3	10	9	10
I don't know	6	18	3	13	3	10	12	14
Unstated	3	9	2	8	-	-	5	6
TOTAL	34	100	24	100	30	100	88	100

The table reflects that only 15% of the teachers often required their pupils to do assignments using books other than their textbooks, while 47% seldom used this method. A whole 34% of the teachers had never tried to promote discovery learning through such independent assignments. Although the Standard 8 syllabus prescribe an alternative theme in which pupils should write a project on local town history or on Transkei up to 1984, the under-utilisation of the discovery learning method is the worst at this class level.

Another method of promoting discovery learning could be to encourage pupils to collect cuttings, pictures and cartoons of historical interest. The general lack of wide reading among senior secondary school pupils is, however, re-emphasised in the following table on this self-activity learning method on the collection of historical writings.

TABLE VIII.28 ; CLASSES COLLECTING PICTURES, CARTOONS AND WRITINGS FOR HISTORY (III.14)

Response	Std 8		Std 9		Std 10		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	10	29	4	17	12	40	26	30
No	19	56	18	75	18	60	55	63
Unstated	5	15	2	8	-	-	7	8
Total	34	100	24	100	30	100	58	100

As can be observed, this aspect shows that there was little extra reading done by the pupils. Only 30% of the teachers had their classes collect these pieces of historical information. The 70% classes who did not engage in historical collections were deprived of a simple but rewarding self-activity. In fact, some teachers commented that the pupils failed to respond positively to this self-activity learning method. This could, however, be because the schools failed to provide newspapers and magazines to motivate pupils to read widely.

Since methodology is closely related to training, the teachers' opinions about the effectiveness of discovery learning was compared by qualification. Table VIII.29 indicates thedifference.

TABLE VIII.29: OPINION ON EFFECTIVENESS OF DISCOVERY LEARNING COMPARED BY QUALIFICATIONS (III.13+1.5)

Response	University-trained		Matriculants		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Very effective	5	17	3	12	8	16
Effective	19	66	13	50	32	58
Not effective	4	14	2	8	6	11
I don't know	-	-	5	19	5	9
Unstated	1	3	3	12	4	7
Total	29	100	26	100	55	100

The table shows that of the university-trained group, 24 of the 29 teachers or 83% appreciated the positive role of discovery learning in history as against 62% (16/26) of the lower qualified group. It is also significant that of the underqualified group 19% registered "I don't know" in this question of the effectiveness of discovery learning, while 8% believed this method to be ineffective. Thus 27% of this group would certainly not employ discovery teaching and the further silent 12% are likely to be teacher-centred in their history teaching methods since they, most likely, had never been exposed to this method. These tables on possible classroom self-activity learning methods, therefore, indicate that very little use was made of these classroom self-activity approaches.

If classroom conditions are so bleak, what other chances are there for these disadvantaged pupils to enjoy history? Fortunately the 1985 standard eight syllabus prescribes fieldwork as an alternative section. Therefore, more than merely being another pupil activity method, fieldwork became an important topic. Table VIII.30 gives the teachers' opinions on the desirability of fieldwork.

TABLE VIII.30: DESIRABILITY OF FIELDWORK (FIELDWORK 1)

Response	Standard 8		Standard 9		Standard 10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
(a) Essential	6	18	4	17	6	20	16	18
(b) Desirable	15	44	8	33	11	37	34	39
(c) Of little value	5	15	3	13	3	10	11	13
(d) Useless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(e) Unstated	8	24	9	38	10	33	27	31
Total	34	100	24	100	30	100	88	100

A total of 57% teachers thought positively about fieldwork. Of these 18% thought that fieldwork was essential, while 39% said it was desirable. It was only 13% who thought that fieldwork was of little value. But the 31% unstated opinion is a cause for concern as this may suggest lack of knowledge or experience in this method on the part of these teachers. In fact most teachers did not seem to consider fieldwork as a teaching method as lack of follow-up exercises is shown in the following table.

Table VIII.31: FIELD TRIP FOLLOW-UP WITH ASSIGNMENTS OR WORK SHEETS (FIELDWORK.2)

Response	Standard 8		Standard 9		Standard 10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
(a) Yes	4	12	-	-	2	7	6	7
(b) No	8	24	3	13	3	10	14	16
(c) Not applicable	18	53	12	50	15	50	45	51
Unstated	4	12	9	38	10	33	23	26
Total	34	100	24	100	30	100	88	100

The above table reflects that only a negligible number (7%) of the teachers conducted follow-up programmes on their field trips. The other 16% who went out on fieldtrips seem to view them as jolly rides for their pupils as no follow-up exercises were done during or after the excursions. A whole 51% of the teachers considered the question as not being applicable to them as they probably did not have any field trips, while a further 26% preferred not to respond to the question. So most pupils did not have any chance for supplementing the generally inadequate classroom facilities with meaningful first hand experiences in the field.

Further proof of ignorance about fieldwork activity is indicated in the teachers' opinions about the effectiveness of fieldwork in history, demonstrated in the following table:

TABLE VIII.32: EFFECTIVENESS OF FIELDWORK (FIELDWORK.5)

Comment	Standard 8		Standard 9		Standard 10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
(a) Very effective	4	12	3	13	4	13	11	13
(b) Effective	10	29	6	25	6	20	22	25
(c) Not effective	-	-	1	4	-	-	1	1
(d) I don't know	12	35	7	29	11	37	30	34
Unstated	8	24	7	29	9	30	24	27
Total	34	100	24	100	30	100	88	100

The table reveals that only 39% of the teachers could make a comment on the effectiveness of fieldwork studies,38% of whom were positive. Of the remaining group 34% confessed their ignorance about fieldwork, while 27% did not record their responses.

On the question of the pupils' attitude towards fieldwork, only 27% of the teachers could venture a comment as very few teachers undertook field excursions The following table reflects the pupils' attitude towards fieldwork as assessed by the teachers.

TABLE VIII.33 : PUPILS' ATTITUDE TO FIELDWORK EXPERIENCES (FIELDWORK.4)

Comment	Standard 8		Standard 9		Standard 10		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
(a) Most enjoy it	2	6	-	-	1	3	3	3
(b) Some enjoy it	3	9	4	17	5	17	12	14
(c) Few enjoy it	2	6	4	17	-	-	6	7
(d) None enjoy it	1	3	1	4	1	3	3	3
(e) Not applicable	24	71	12	50	19	63	55	63
Unstated	2	6	3	13	4	13	9	10
Total	34	100	24	100	30	100	83	100

The table shows that a fair majority of those who undertook field trips enjoyed fieldwork experiences. At least a total of 17% teachers thought that most (3%) or some (14%) pupils enjoyed field trips. However, a significant percentage (7%) of the teachers thought that few pupils enjoyed field trips, while a further 3% thought that no pupils enjoyed the trips. Again the table indicates that this avenue of field excursions was not exploited by most history teachers.

The position regarding fieldwork could, as in the other aspects, be looked at comparatively according to qualification and locality. Therefore, the teachers' opinions on the desirability of fieldwork in history were first compared according to the respondents educational qualifications. The following table gives the picture.

TABLE VIII.34 : DESIRABILITY OF FIELDWORK BY QUALIFICATION (FIELDWORK 1+I.5)

Opinion	University-trained		Matriculation		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Essential	8	28	4	15	12	22
Desirable	12	41	12	46	24	44
Of little value	2	7	4	15	6	11
Unstated	7	24	6	23	13	24
Totals	29	100	26	100	55	100

As could be expected the better qualified teachers had a higher opinion about fieldwork than their less qualified coleagues - 28% as against 15%. Furthermore, whereas just 7% of the better qualified group thought fieldwork was a useless excersise, more than double this number (15%) had the same thought among the underqualied group. It is amazing, however, that the silent or unstated opinion is almost equal (24% and 23%) in the two groups whereas the less knowledgeable underqualified group would be the one expected to abstain by reserving their comments.

In comparing the urban and rural opinion on this aspect, it could be deduced from the previous comparative tables that the likehood would be for more positive responses to come from the urban sector because of their observed favourable resources. In urban areas fieldwork excursions could be undertaken more easily and frequentlly because many towns have traceable historical records and historical sites and museums are usually in or near urban areas. This situation was confirmed in the analysis of responses on whether pupils did assignments on fieldwork experiences in the following table.

TABLE VIII.35: DOING ASSIGNMENT ON FIELDWORK EXPERIENCES BY LOCALITY (FIELDWORK 2)

Response	Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	2	20	2	4	4	7
No	1	10	8	18	9	16
Not applicable	4	40	24	53	28	51
Unstated	3	30	11	24	14	26
Total	10	100	45	100	55	100

The table shows that even though there was generally little work done by way of fieldwork assignment, the position was worse in the rural school. Whereas 20% of the urban teachers employed this teaching method, only 4% did so in rural schools. In all only 7% of the teachers gave assignments on fieldwork experiences as against the 16% who did not do follow-up studies on fieldwork. Of the rest 26% did not respond to the question while 51% considered the question inapplicable to them as they did not engage in fieldwork.

This section on methodology has re-emphasised the earlier observations regarding a general lack of adequate resources and facilities. Transkei history classes were heavily dependent, if not exclusively reliant, on the textbook. Consequently the textbook teaching method predominated at the expense of the vitally important self-activity and enquiry-discovery methods. It is also significant that the teachers' opinions and their practices with regard to many of the teaching methods referred to often differed because of the dicrepancy between the teachers' theoretical knowledge and the availability (or non-availability) of teaching aids. This state of affairs cannot augur well for history as a school subject. The pertinent question is: what could be done to improve the situation?

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Blyth (1982, p.72) comments that "it may seem a truism to emphasize the value of visual evidence.....but in recent years teachers of all ages of pupils have found that 'seeing is believing' and that many pupils can understand and remember better from a visual approach." It is again clear that what is taught (content) and how it is taught (method) is dependent on and effective when there are 'tools of the trade' for classroom operation (Blyth, 1982 p.126).

This study has tried to emphasize the same sentiments or thoughts. This survey has revealed that there is a crying need for a better provision of history resource materials of all types and a better use thereof. If financial constraints prevent acquisition of the expensive ready-made material aids, creation of less expensive supportive teaching aids from cheap and easily obtainable materials would have to be devised. Since history demands more from the teacher than from any other resource (Blyth 1982, p.127; Mialaret 1966, p.191), the teacher has a central position and in the end "all else is pointless without a good teacher" (Blyth, 1982, p.135). As the first order resource, therefore, the teacher must know his work, be able to handle children and then provide appropriate activity to the class (Mialaret, 1966, pp.192-193).

The problem of lack of suitable teaching personnel which has long been a menace to the Black man's education, has also affected Transkei. In 1970 Jones (1970, p. 79) expressed it thus: "a key barrier to quality education in the (Transkei) primary and secondary schools is the limited production of well-trained teachers". In the 1980s the situation had not improved. In this 1981 policy speech the Transkei Education Ministry declared itself fully committed to the principle of working for "full realisation of the capabilities and skills of our children" (Debates of the National Assembly, 1981,p.190). In the same speech the Minister of Education further observed that the teacher as the "creator of the educational environment of the

child and the chief source of his inspiration should be a specialist in the knowledge of the pupils, an excellent technician..... (who) can make learning attractive".

Therefore, to produce many specialists, the necessity to upgrade teacher training staff and colleges cannot be over-emphasized. Only well qualified training college personnel can be in a position to produce properly qualified teachers for the country's senior secondary schools. In fact, one and perhaps the most effective way of adequately equiping teachers would be to set high academic entrance requirements for teacher-trainees and to use the most modern history teaching techniques during the actual course of training. However, by 1984 there were only 59% graduate teachers in the nine Transkei teacher training colleges (Transkei Education Annual Report, 1984, p.49). With the realisation and admission by the Education Department that it was "experiencing a real problem of shortage of properly qualified staff, with the result that inedequately qualified units are employed with disastrous consequences in the education of the Transkeian senior secondary school child" (Debates of the National Assembly, 1981, p.193) one would have expected a much bolder step towards remedying the situation. But this position had not improved much by 1986 as the Secretary-general for education reported that the increase in senior secondary schools brought untold staffing and accommodation problems (Department of Education Annual Report 1986, p.24). In the field of history this survey confirms the inadequate staffing mentioned here.

To minimize this staffing problem more menticulously planned in-service training courses are essential. The courses should aim at up-grading the teachers so that they may be efficient in coping with the new trends and developments in historical education. Since the 1960s the trend in history teaching has been much towards pupil-involvement through emphasis on audio-visual aids and more practical approaches such as use of original documents, projects and outdoor lessons or trips (Schools Council History 13-16, 1972). Yet, as was pointed out, this survey indicates that about half (47%) of the teachers who had attended history in-service courses claimed that none of those courses had dealt with history resource materials (Table VII.22).

Further analysis shows that 88% of the less qualified (matriculated) teachers had either complained of not being conscientised to these new developments or did not express an opinion (Table VII.25). Furthermore 35% of those teachers with history university courses declared that they found the present departmental in-service courses unhelpful in guiding them to history resource materials (Table VII.24).

Findings:

For a summary of the findings of the investigation it can be mentioned that in Transkei senior secondary schools

(a) Most history teachers are underqualified and much has to be done to upgrade the senior secondary history teacher, especially academically.

(b) Methodologically the teachers are constrained to, and rely on, the textbook - lecture methods. Many teachers either ignore, or are blind to, the modern 'new history' approaches.

(c) History facilities and teaching aids are poor and in acutely short supply.

(d) Underqualification among most history teachers and the lack of supportive history teaching material resources are heavily responsible for poor teaching methods of the teachers.

(e) These factors together produce weak history students who, in their struggle to understand the foreign language (English) medium of instruction, do not have any audio-visual support to help them master historical concepts.

(f) The result is that history has one of the highest failure rates of all the subjects in the Transkei senior secondary schools.

(g) In the comparative studies on locality it became clear that urban schools enjoy considerable advantages over rural

schools in both human and material resources.

Recommendations:

In the light of these findings the following recommendations could be suggested:

1. Upgrading history teachers:
   To upgrade the serving history teachers the following possibilities could be considered:

(i) Like most senior secondary school subjects history needs specialist adviser-lecturers to orientate and upgrade the subject teachers. History has not had any departmental advisor/inspector to monitor and guide its progress for a long time. At the in-service centre only one lecturer mans the history department with responsibility to guide all teachers from Std. 7 to 10. If this subject's popularity rate and its high failure rate are considered (Table V.87) it is obvious that this department is grossly understaffed or neglected..

(ii) The answer to the problem of unavailable qualified staff could be in on-going in-service training courses. With permanent in-service centre established in 1986 this is possible. The in-service upgrading and updating programmes could be so designed that they enrich the teachers academically. Special certification for professional up-grading with a bias for history methodology could also be offered as an incentive. To encourage the teachers' continued reading and research in their subject, in-class experiences and experimentations, reports on high-yield teaching strategies and aspects of research, and production of history teaching kits could form part of such structured programmes for further in-service part-time training of history teachers.

(iii) The in-service training centre could also be made a resources centre which could be staffed with technician-lecturers to train the teachers and demonstrate to them the use of various modern technological audio-visual history teaching gadgets. For a start audio-visual producing and distributing firms could be invited periodically to run demonstration courses on how to employ their products.

Audio-visual manufacturing houses would be eager to assist in this aspect since the schools could offer a large market for their products. At the in-service centre teachers would not be only taught a topic of history but methods and resources for the topic would also be given and demonstrated.

For the resources centre to adequately discharge these services an adjoining boarding establishment would be ideal to facilitate after work and week-end crash courses in new history approaches, both for individual studies and for group training.

(iv) As an initial step towards ensuring better academic competence, no senior secondary history teacher should be allowed to rest on his laurels without having at least two degree courses in the subject. In other words there should be coercion on teachers to do further studies either through correspondence or by granting paid study leave to qualifying teachers. In this way most of the "inadequately qualified units" employed in the senior secondary schools would have to improve academically to hold their posts permanently, otherwise they would have to face automatic replacement at the availability of suitably qualified candidates for the post. However, to keep the better qualified teachers from running for promotion posts in junior secondary schools and colleges, a trend which is presently a scourge to Transkei senior secondary schools, comparable emoluments would have to be offered at senior secondary school level.

(v) Subject associations could be another answer to professional upgrading. With a better organisation and more purposefulness of subject associations for history, more professionalism could be encouraged and achieved. Such subject associations organised on circuit, regional and national levels could offer good chances for their members' exchange of views on the subject's problem areas. Their reports,

recommendations and individual articles could also form material for a much needed historical journal for this discipline. In addition a standard history teachers' handbook could also be compiled wherein the aims of teaching history could be explained and suggestions on planning of assignments and practical work, on some of the more effective teaching methods and use of teaching aids and equipment can be offered. This could facilitate the control and supervision of the subject by both principals and inspectors some of whom may know little about history. To improve pupil interest and performance in the subject organisation of vacation courses for keen history students could be done by or in consultation with such subject committees. (For an example of such courses since 1985 the Teachers Christian Fellowship has successfully conducted a two weeks' Winter School during the winter school vacations - an intensive instruction in five matriculation problem subjects, history included).

(vi) For better guidance and orientation in this regard and in class performance of teachers, the quality of the schools' inspectorate would have to be improved. This is mentioned in the light of the fact that in 1985 eleven (38%) of the twenty nine circuit inspectors' posts were occupied by underqualified non-graduate assistant inspectors(Transkei Education Annual Report, 1985, p.7). This means that about 84 of the 220 senior secondary schools are likely to have suffered lack of adequate professional guidance, as envisaged by the system of resident circuit inspectors, from their underqualified inspectors.

(vii) Improving pre-service training of teachers would also have to be attended to. The above-mentioned suggestions would be fruitless and an endless exercise if the teacher training institutions lagged behind in their academic standards and methodology. Firstly, the teacher training institutions should be adequately equiped not only with quality training facilities but also with well-qualified lecturers, i.e. lecturers with post-graduate studies in their fields of specialisation.

Such lecturers could motivate their students to upgrade themselves in the content of their subjects of specialisation. With well-equiped laboratories arguements such as that "history has no teaching aids" (Gazi, 1985, p.285), could never obtain and the classroom techniques would move away from the outdated teacher-talk pattern.

To supplement the short teaching practice time (Vena, 1987, p.178) and to be able to establish a proper rapport with their classes, student-teachers might have to spend at least a full quarter each year at a given school during which time guidance and reports can be given by the subject teachers, the principal, the subject inspectors and the college lectures. In addition certification, which could depend on the teacher-trainees satisfactory application of his theoretical knowledge, could be delayed for the probation year which could form part of the practical examination. This could greatly improve the initial training of teachers and prevent the vicious circle of having to send annually all teachers for in-service training in the same aspects of the work instead of progressive in-service training.

2. Balancing urban and rural school service conditions:
Regarding the urban-rural supply of history teachers, the bias for town among the better qualified teachers seems to be a trend influenced by availability of better facilities such as access to university and the general rise of the middle class urban population. Or perhaps could it be a result of a calculated biased placement of teachers? If it is remembered that in spite of the fast growth in urbanisation over 95% of Transkei population is still rural, a variety of practical incentives for rural schools may have to be considered. As it happened in Cuba (Unesco, 1968, p.246) university scholarships could have to be offered to teachers who had served in rural schools; or provide rural school teachers with subsidized holiday-refresher courses at the best holiday resorts. For another way of retaining quality rural service, one condition for promotion could be a set period of teaching in rural schools. More than 90% of Transkei schools serve rural communities Alternatively the teacher-attracting

facilities such as adequate school and living conditions, higher educational facilities (university, in-service centre, correspondence facilities) would have to be decentralised to some of the remoter areas for better and stable services in the senior secondary schools that have mushroomed in these areas.

3. Upgrading of history facilities and supply of teaching aids: With regard to facilities this study has tried to show how poorly equiped the Transkei senior secondary schools are for effective teaching of the 'new history'. The staple diet of most of the pupils is the textbook, from which may be created the idea that only one person is the fountain of knowledge with a single format, type of illustration and class activities. As mentioned earlier, no really informative history can be learnt where textbooks, libraries and electric power for operating modern audio-visual technological equipment are inadequately provided. If the Department could supply such basics for audio-visual teaching, the schools could most likely be motivated, through the subject advisers and the influence of a resources centre, to purchase some of the more urgently necessary aids. If the government did not supply these equipments as it should, schools should be allowed to levy teaching aids fees from the pupils, or the present meagre school fund of R16.00 per year (and which was promulgated in 1971) from which not only teaching aids are purchased by schools but is also a source of revenue for all extramural activities and school needs, would have to be appreciably raised.

At the end of chapter 3 a passing reference was made to computors in the teaching of history as being the one entirely new teaching aid that has become available in the last quarter-century. To the best of the author's knowledge few, if any, computor programmes suitable for local history syllabuses have been devised. This was one reason why computors were not listed in the questionnaire. A second reason is that very few history teachers, if any, have had personal experience on computors as the use of this aid tends

to be confined to the commerce and science departments in our educational institutions. When the teachers' responses to the more conventional technological aids is considered (as described in chapter 8), it is extremely unlikely that any meaningful comments on this very complicated aid could have been made by any of them. The Exclusion of the computor from the questionnaire, therefore, became justified because of the limited experience of the teachers who were surveyed. Furthermore when the cost of these machines is considered, they could hardly be justified in the limited financial resources available for Transkei schools.

In the supply of textbooks it would be better for the responsible authorities to expedite approval of school requisitions to be ready for the opening of schools in January rather than delay until the start of the ensuing financial year in April. This often forces schools to totter along throughout the whole first session with insufficient or no textbooks. Again supply according to need rather than approving only one-third of the registered total in a four year cyle could be more adequate. To avoide possible wastage textbook or equipment inspectors attached to circuit offices could collect excess textbooks and equipment for re-issue to needy schools. Alternatively a system of granting buying vouchers to schools could ensure that all pupils do have text books in good time. Such a system would, however, demand tightening up of supervision and accounts inspections in schools. Otherwise the Department may have to revert to the old system, expensive though it would be on the generally poor Transkei parent, whereby the parent paid for the textbooks. To raise the education quality the Department would have to build, and stock the senior secondary school libraries with a variety of history reference books and regular journals. In fact free education is long overdue.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, the writer is aware that some of these recommendations would require capital spending for implementation. But in spite of the expenses that would be incurred, the urgency of these improvements in Transkei schools calls for prompt attention.

For so crucial a venture as education whereon the country's entire development rests, it would be money well spent.

Secondly, a clearly defined educational policy wherein priority targets are set out on professional recommendations is essential and this should not be twisted by petty political jealousies, tribal ambitions and quibblings. For example, in spite of the expert and well considered Taylor Commission (1979 p.113) recommendation against any increase of senior secondary schools, in just four years after the recommendation the number of these schools had leaped from 110 in 1980 to 220 in 1985 - a 100% increase! One of the reason for this abnormal increase as the Minister of Education complained, is that each small tribal enclave wants a high school put up in its area (Budget speech 1985, p.5). Consequently many young graduates are depleted in the older senior secondary schools to these new schools, (many of which are in shacks, have no equipment and whose enrolment remains at around 100 pupils for years), to the detriment of the poor high school child and the nation at large. So unless the Education Ministry's appeal for a halt in the establishment of new senior secondary schools is heeded (Budget speech 1985, p.5), this school phase shall remain bedevelled by shortages of equipment and qualified staff and poor examination performances.

Another example of inadvertent disregard of professional advice was in the lack of the new syllabus textbooks for Std 8 for the better part of 1985. This position obtained in spite of the warning by the Taylor Commission (1979, p.105) that "any change (of syllabus) should not be made as a rule, until the necessary facilities, e.g. textbooks, have been put in matching order".

To summarise, this study has tried to draw attention to some of the predicaments facing history as part of the senior secondary curriculum. Most of the weaknesses have been traced to the needs and inadequacies in 'the tools of the trade' - the source and resource materials for history teaching. Having referred to some of the more important and useful history teaching resources and strategies, the human resource has stuck out as the most

crucial and basic for improved performance in the subject. The need for improved personnel in class must needs involve discussion of certain policy aspects of the Department of Education. It is in this regard that the national aspirations and goals seem to be exaggerated out of all proportion of the available human and financial resources.

Finally, it is hoped that a serious consideration of the possibilities cited above could lead to a timeous salvation for the history discipline which is part of the basic realms of knowledge. This study, although particular both to history as a discipline and to Transkei as geographical area would, hopefully, contribute positively to education in general and especially to the betterment of the Black child.

This task has been undertaken with one major object in view: an attempt to help fellow teachers do their work of equiping tomorrow's child better than the children of today.

APPENDIX A

Langa Sen. Sec. School
P.O. Box 123
FLAGSTAFF
20 August 1985

The Senior History Teacher
.....
.....

AVAILABLE AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS - HISTORY

The Senior History teacher is kindly requested to indicate whether the following teaching are aids available in his school. Please circle the letter next to those items which are available.

a. Wall maps for countries and continents
b. Ready-made wall charts/maps
c. Self-made wall charts/maps
d. Photocopier
e. Duplicating machine
f. Scanner or stencil-cutter
g. Camera for making slides
h. Episcope/epidiascope
i. Overhead projector
j. Slide projector
k. Filmstrip projector
l. Film projector
m. Television
n. Closed circuit television
o. Video recorder
p. Tape recorder
q. Radio
r. Electricity power supply
s. Slides
t. Transparencies for overhead
u. Filmstrips
v. Films
w. Video films
x. Tapes for recorder.

Then attach this to the main questionnaire to "The History Teacher" which you are also requested to answer.

If there are different teachers for Std 8, 9 & 10 or classgroups thereof, ask a History teacher from each of these classes to answer a separate questionnaire. But if one teacher handles all the classes (8,9,10) he/she will answer only one questionnaire and respond to the sections for all the classes.

Now send all the completed questionnaires in the self-addressed envelop provided.

Thank you for your kind co-operation.

Yours sincerely

A. T. Flatela, P.O. Box 123, FLAGSTAFF

APPENDIX B

Langa Senior Sec. School
P.O. Box 123
FLAGSTAFF

TO: ALL HISTORY TEACHERS IN SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

HISTORY RESOURCE MATERIAL IN TRANSKEI SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS: THEIR AVAILABILITY AND USE

QUESTIONNAIRE

°Kindly answer the following questions in the best possible way.
°Please fill in the requested information in the space indicated with dots or enclosure.
°Where several possibilities for an answer are listed, just encircle the letter(s) of your choice e.g. a (b) c; or tick in the square provided e.g. Std

8	9	10
	✓	

°Where an opinion is sought please feel free to express it fully but concisely.

I. Personal Information

1. Please indicate your age by circling the letter next to the group into which it falls.

Age-range

a. 20 - 24
b. 25 - 29
c. 30 - 34
d. 35 - 39
e. 40 - 44
f. 45 - 49
g. 50 - 54
h. 55 - 60

2. Indicate your sex by encircling the relevant letter. a. male b. female

3. Indicate your number of years history teaching experience in senior secondary school. (Encircle the relevant number).

Years

1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24 +

4. Encircle the standard levels you are teaching this year. Std 8/9/10

5. Encircle the letter of your highest academic qualification in History

a. J.C.
b. Matric
c. Course I
d. Course II
e. Course III
f. Honours
g. Masters
h. Doctorate

6. Encircle the letter next to your professional qualification

a. None
b. N.P.L.
c. N.P.H./P.T.C./P.T.D.
d. J.S.T.C./S.T.D./S.A.T.D.
e. U.E.D./H.E.D.

7. i. Are you furthering your studies in History during 1985

a. Yes; b. No

ii. If so what studies are you undertaking

.....

8. Of your total time-table what percentage is spent in teaching History?

a. 75% & more;
b. 65-74%
c. 55-64%
d. 45-54%
e. 35-44%
f. 25-34%
g. -25%

9. Fill in your percentage History passes over the last five years.

Std	1980	'81	'82	'83	'84
8					
9					
10					

10. Estimate the average amount of time you spend per week preparing History teaching materials. (Encircle the relevant number of hours).

HOURS

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23 +

11. Encircle the average age of your 1985 History class(es)

Std	Ages						
8	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
9	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
10	14	15	16	17	18	19	20

12. What statement gives the best indication of your attitude to your history teaching? (Encircle the letter which applies to you.)

a. very contented
b. contented
c. neutral
d. discontented
e. very discontented

13. If your answer is d. or e. in question 12 above, which of these statements best reflect the cause(s) of your discontent? Encircle the letter(s) which apply to you,

a. There is too much other work to do
b. History classes are too large
c. I cannot motivate my pupils.
d. Pupils are not interested in History.
e. It is mainly the weaker pupils who choose History.
f. I teach the subject by force of circumstances.
g. I do not have sufficient knowledge of History.
h. The syllabus is too long.
i. I do not like the topics in the syllabuses.
j. The syllabuses require too much memorisation.
k. My training did not equip me for teaching modern syllabuses.
l. Other reasons (Specify) .....
.....
.....

14. Have you attended any Departmental in-service courses in History? a. Yes; b. No

15. Has any of the courses you have attended dealt with History resource materials e.g. extra reading materials maps/charts, slides, filmstrips. a. Yes;/ b. No

16. Do you find departmental in-service courses helpful in guiding you to History resource materials? a. Yes;/ b. No

II. FACILITIES

1. Is there enough space in your classroom for free movement of pupils? (Encircle the letter in the appropriate square).

Std	
8	a. Yes/ b. No
9	a. Yes/ b. No
10	a. Yes b. No

2. Is there enough space for use of History teaching aids or equipment?

Std	
8	a. Yes / b. No
9	a. Yes / b. No
10	a. Yes / b. No

3. i. Does your school have a special History room or History laboratory? a. Yes / b. No

ii. If so, do you teach in this room? a. Yes / b. No

4. Do you have a school library? a. Yes / b. No

5. How would you describe the supply of History reference materials in your library?
   a. Good
   b. Fair
   c. Poor
   d. Not applicable

6. Do you have a class library or collection for History? a. Yes / b. No

7. Is there any society catering for History interests in your school? a. Yes / b. No

8. i. Do you have a regular supply of a History journal(s) ? a. Yes / b. No

ii. If 'yes' please name it/them .....

.....

9. List the newspapers read by your class(es) regularly .....

.....

10. In the column for the class you are teaching make a tick opposite those items you use as teaching aids in History teaching.

	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10
a. Wall maps for continents and countries			
b. Ready-made wall charts			
c. Self-made wall charts/maps			
d. Photocopier			
e. Duplicating machine			
f. Scanner or stencil cutter			
g. Camera for making slides			
h. Episcope / epidiascope			
i. Overhead projector			
j. Slide projector			
k. Filmstrip projector			
l. Film projector			
m. Television			
n. Closed circuit television			
o. Video recorder			
p. Tape recorder			
q. Radio			

11. Look back at the aids listed in question 10 above. Put a circle around five letters next to the aids which are not available in your school but which you would most like to have available for your History teaching.

Teaching aids

a	b	c	d	e	f	g
h	i	j	k	l	m	n
o	p	q				

12. Have you ever been trained to use the technical aids mentioned in question 10 above? Put a tick in the appropriate square.

	Yes in all	in some	in a few	in none at all
At Training College				
In in-service courses				

III. TEACHING METHODS / STRATEGIES

TEXTBOOKS

1. Are there sufficient textbooks for your pupils?
   Encircle the appropriate answer.

	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10
a.	Yes	Yes	Yes
b.	No	No	No
c.	None	None	None

2. Do you have sufficient atlases for all pupils?

a.	Yes	Yes	Yes
b.	No	No	No
c.	None	None	None

3. Encircle the letter/s next to the textbook/s used by your Std 8 class.

	Title	Author
a.	New Structure - History for Std 8	Mocke & Wallis
b.	Active History Std 8	Schoeman et al
c.	History for Std 8	Smit et al
d.	Legacy of the Past	Boyce
e.	History Std 8	Joubert
f.	Timelines	Lintvelt et al
g.	History 8	Lambrechts et al
	Others	.....
	.....	.....

4. Encircle the letter/s next to the textbook/s used by your Std 9

	Title	Author
a.	History for Std 9	Smit et al
b.	History for Std 9	Joubert & Britz
c.	Europe and South Africa Part I	Boyce
d.	Senior History for S. African Schl	Van Schoor et al
e.	Active History	Schoeman & Van Rensburg
	Others	.....
	.....	.....

5. Indicate with a circle the letter/s next to the textbook/s used by your Std 10 class

Title	Author
a. History for Std 10	Smit et al
b. History for Std 10	Joubert & Britz
c. Europe and South Africa Part II	Boyce
d. Senior History for S. African Schls.	Van Schoor et al
e. Active History Std 10	Schoeman & Van Rensburg
f. South Africa & the Modern World	Breitenbach
Others	.....
.....	.....

6. Encircle the letter/s next to the statement/s describing what you would most prefer in teaching History.

   a. A basic textbook to be used exclusively
   b. A basic textbook with occassional use of other resources (i.e. other printed material and audio-visual aids).
   c. Use of a number of textbooks.
   d. Use of a series of thematically treated topics/books.
   e. A basic textbook to be used only for outline with much information from other resources.
   f. No textbook but use of other resources in printed materials and audio-visual aids.

7. Is the textbook you are using adequate for the syllabuses you are teaching?

	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10
a. Very adequate			
b. Fairly adequate			
c. Partially "			
d. Definitely not			

8. How adequately does the main textbook used by your pupils cope with the following aspect? (Tick in the appropriate column the grade you asign to each aspect).

	Very adequate			Fairly adequate			Partially adequate			Not adequate		
Std=	8	9	10	8	9	10	8	9	10	8	9	10
a. Facts: Is it concise & concrete?												
b. Language: Is it simple & explained?												
c. Presentation: i. Are facts given to be swallowed or ii. Are facts stated to be digested?												
d. Illustrations: Are they supplementary to the text and well positioned?												
e. Visual impact: Is the print readable with clear captions & other means to attract attention?												
f. Glassary: Are new concepts explained?												
g. Bibliography: Is this supplied?												

9. Do your pupils experience any language problems in History? Tick opposite your answer in the appropriate column.

	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10
a. Most have them			
b. some have them			
c. few have them			
d. none have them			

10. What statement sums up best your opinion about your pupils' adequacy in understanding historical concepts, (e.g. revolution, state, feudalism, capitalism, etc.) (Tick opposite the answer which applies in the relevant class.)

	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10
a. Good			
b. Fair			
c. Weak			
d. Poor			

11. Encircle the letter preceeding the statement which describes best your opinion about the effectiveness of audio-visual aids in History concept information.

a. very effective
b. effective
c. not effective
d. I don't know

12. Do your pupils do any assignments using books other than their textbooks? (Tick your answer in the relevant column).

	Std 8	Std 9	Std 10
a. Often			
b. Seldom			
c. Never			

13. What statement describes best your opinion about the effectiveness of discovery learning of the kind referred to in number 12 above? (Encircle the letter of the relevant answer).

a. Very effective
b. effective
c. not effective
d. I don't know

14. Do your pupils engage in collecting pictures/cartoons and cuttings of historical interest?

a. Yes b. No

FIELDWORK

The new Std 8 syllabus (1985) prescribes a study of local/regional history. This implies involvement in fieldwork. (Fieldwork involves observing, measuring and recording data in the field environment,which data are then analysed, explained and interpreted).

1. Encircle the letter preceeding the statement which sums up best your opinion about the desirability of fieldwork in History teaching.

a. Essential
b. desirable
c. of little value
d. useless

2. Do you give your class assignments or worksheets on their field trip experiences?

a. Yes
b. No.
c. Not applicable

3. If they do assignments, do they do them by themselves?

a. Yes
b. No
c. Not applicable

4. What statement sums up best the attitude of your class to fieldwork experiences? (Tick opposite your answer in the relevant class column).

a. most enjoy it
b. some enjoy it
c. few enjoy it
d. none enjoy it
e. not applicable

Std 8	9	10

5. What statement sums up best your opinion of the effectiveness of fieldwork? (Encircle the relevant letter).

a. Very effective
b. effective
c. not effective
d. I don't know

Thank you very much for your kind co-operation. Now enclose the answered questionnaire in the self-addressed envelop to; A.T. Flatela, Box 123, FLAGSTAFF.

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