THE LACK OF RESOURCES AS A CONTRIBUTORY FACTOR TO THE HIGH FAILURE RATE IN STANDARD 10 HISTORY EXAMINATIONS IN THE ALICE CIRCUIT

THESIS

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CONTENTS

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PREFACE

As the title of this thesis indicates, the researcher was concerned at the high failure rate in the Standard 10 history examinations in the Alice circuit. This problem is confined neither to history as a subject nor to a single area in the Ciskei. The following table shows the number of candidates and the percentage of those who passed the matriculation examination either with exemption or with a school-leaving certificate.

BLACKS

STANDARD 10 EXAMINATION RESULTS 1978-1986

Year	Number of candidates	% with matric exemption	% with school leaving	% pass rate
1978	15 100	29.0	44.5	73.5
1979	23 100	25.0	44.8	69.8
1980	43 200	14.9	37.4	52.3
1981	57 500	11.8	38.6	50.4
1982	70 200	10.0	38.4	48.4
1983	82 400	9.9	38.4	48.3
1984	86 200	11.2	37.4	48.6
1985	82 800	12.0	34.7	46.7
1986	99 700	13.5	38.0	51.5

In the years from 1978 to 1986, although the number of candidates increased over six-fold in this period, the percentage obtaining certificates has declined from 73% to 51%. These figures relate to pupils in the Department of Education and Training schools, the four Independent States (of which Ciskei is one) and the semi-independent homelands. The percentage of passes varies fairly widely from authority to authority: some of the areas where success is lowest are:

Leboa: 41.7%
Qwaqwa: 42.3%
Kwangwane: 44.7%

Areas where success rates are much higher are:

Gazankulu: 60%
Venda: 71.6%

Ciskei itself falls just above the national average, with 53.9% of successful candidates. (Carstens, du Plessis, Vorster, 1987). All these figures relate to the 1986 examinations but do not include the results of any supplementary examinations. It is clear that the broad picture presented by these statistics is very alarming.

The researcher also became aware of this high failure rate as a senior sub-examiner of Standard 10 history for the past four years. The informal discussions that the researcher had with history teachers made him further aware of the enormity of the problem. One of the main sources of this problem seems to be the lack of resources in Ciskei schools and, consequently, an over-reliance solely on prescribed text books. This over-reliance becomes even more inappropriate if the text books themselves make too high a demand upon the reading skills of the pupils.

Recent thinking on the nature of history teaching presents new challenges to teachers of history, and nowhere more so than in its presentation meaningfully and successfully to pupils. The use of resources, therefore, helps to introduce the pupils to the new method (the skills approach) to history teaching.

The purpose of this study is to show that if teachers could use resources in their teaching of history, pupils would be able to understand the past more fully and, consequently, examination results would improve. The teachers also need to know what resources to buy in order to remedy the situation. To this effect, the aims, therefore, are to find out what levels of difficulty the typical Ciskei Standard 10 pupils could handle satisfactorily; and how the difficulty levels of resources that are available could be assessed. For both these questions a way of measuring the difficulty level is necessary. Use was made, initially, of two reading indices: the Gunning Fox index and the Flesch index. In the end, greater emphasis was placed on the Flesch technique. Passages of varying difficulty were selected on which a reading comprehension test was set. Then possible resources that could be used were analysed and suggested, by means of the Flesch formula.

The first chapter discusses the use of resources in the history classroom. The various writers discussed all agree that the skills that are necessary if the 'New History' is to be taught successfully, can only be acquired

through the use of resources. Chapter 2 deals with the various readability formulae that can be used in assessing the difficulty levels of resources that the teachers could wish to purchase for their pupils. Chapter 3 deals with the development and administration of the pre-test instrument. The final changes made in the test instrument, its administration to the sample, the discussion of results and the forming of clusters or groups of pupils on the basis of the results, are discussed in chapter 4. The implications of the test, together with analysis of possible resources that can be used to supplement the prescribed text books are dealt with in chapter 5. The conclusion deals with recommendations to teachers on how to select and possibly purchase appropriate resource materials for their schools.

CHAPTER 1

RESOURCES IN THE HISTORY CLASSROOM

For many years, teachers the world over have relied almost exclusively on traditional methods of teaching, which meant that pupils tended to remain passive and teachers alone were active in a classroom situation. The teachers saw themselves "primarily as fillers of empty vessels, purveying information, instilling standards and conveying skills. The pupil was there to receive, he had nothing to offer but his appetite for instruction and his shame at being ignorant." (Gibson, 1975, p. 5). The main consequence of such methods was that pupils memorized meaningless facts without actually learning or understanding them. In recent years research work done by a number of investigators led to developments which have established new ways in which teachers can best approach the subjects they teach and also make their pupils understand easily.

One of the most important developments within the discipline, history, has been the trend to the 'New History' with its greater stress on the skills of the historian. The 'New History' requires that the teacher of history should be aware that he is inculcating certain attitudes towards the study of history; that he is creating an awareness of the nature of the discipline; and that he is equipping his pupils with a range of skills and abilities. (Hull J, 1979, p. 33).

The nature of history

There have been many research studies concerned with the problems of teaching history and the developments of pupils' understanding of history. These problems reflect the kind of subject history is. According to the Schools Council History 13-16 Project, for instance, history is an activity of enquiry into the past and its raw material is the evidence which has survived from the past. This activity of enquiry has three basic questions in mind: what happened, when did it happen and why did it happen then? It may also be said that history is an activity of enquiry about change in human affairs which takes place in the context of time and chronology. (Schools Council History 13-16 Project).

There is also a growing agreement among historians and history teachers that history involves some attempt to rethink the past, to re-enact it and to empathise with the people concerned in any past situation.

This means that history is different from other subjects in that it cannot be taught by direct experience. History facts can be appreciated by imaginative experience. Men's motives cannot be seen, but can be grasped by intuition or inference. (Schools Council History 13-16 Project). It remains to be seen if such a view of history can be taught in our schools.

The Schools Council Project History 13-16 was established in 1972 as a result of teachers' dissatisfaction with 'traditional history' and their concern at the apparent erosion of its position within the secondary curriculum. The Schools Council History Subject Committee set up a number of objectives:

(a) to examine the role of history in a time of curriculum change;

(b) to revitalize history teaching in schools by giving institutional support to what seemed to be the best aspects of current practice;

(c) to encourage pupil participation in learning;

(d) to investigate ways of assessing in public examinations, understanding rather than rote learning.

The project team identified five ways in which history could prove a useful and necessary subject for adolescents to study:

(a) as a means of acquiring and developing such cognitive skills as those of analysis, synthesis and judgement;

(b) as a source of leisure interests;

(c) as a vehicle for analysing the contemporary world and their place within it;

(d) as a means for developing understanding of the forces underlying social change and evolution;

(e) as an avenue to self-knowledge and awareness of what it means to be human.

(A new look at history, 1976, pp. 16-18).

This view of history is also supported by other educationists, and those ideas are expressed in the introduction to The Provincial Administration of the Cape of Good Hope's Senior Secondary Course Syllabus. History, it claims, is a "systematic study of the past. It is a study based on evidence: a selection of facts and events that are arranged, interpreted and explained. Thus, history, in addition to its content, is also a mode of enquiry, a way of investigating the past which required the acquisition and use of skills." (Provincial Administration of the Cape of Good Hope, Senior Secondary Course Syllabus, 1985).

All these statements about history indicate an extension of the belief in the importance of the skills approach.

Origin of the skills approach

It can be said that the skills approach grew out of the context of a new and systematic approach to education, with an emphasis on more precise objectives as opposed to general aims being used for lesson-planning. One of the earliest pioneers of this approach was Bloom. In 1948, American Psychological Association Convention was held in Boston. Members expressed the need for a theoretical framework which could be used to facilitate communication among examiners and that could stimulate research on examining and on the relations between examining and education. After considerable discussion, it was agreed that such a theoretical framework might best be obtained through a system of classifying the goals of the educational process, since educational objectives provide the basis for building curricula and tests and represent the starting point for most educational research. Bloom was chosen as the editor of the Handbook of the taxonomy, an outcome of these various deliberations. (Bloom, 1956, p. 4).

This taxonomy mentions three domains:

The cognitive domain includes those objectives which deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills.

The affective domain includes objectives which describe changes in interest, attitudes and values, and the development of appreciations and adequate adjustment.

The third domain, the psychomotor, is concerned with manipulative or motor-skill area.

The taxonomy was designed to be a classification of the student behaviours which represent the intended outcomes of the educational process. The ways in which individuals are to act, think or feel as a result of instruction were to be classified. (Bloom, 1956, p. 12).

Since the taxonomy was to be used in connection with existing educational units and programmes, it was agreed that the major distinctions between grades or standards should reflect the distinctions teachers make among student behaviours. These distinctions are revealed in the ways teachers state educational objectives. They are further found in curricula plans, instructural material and instructural methods.

According to Bloom, educational objectives are the explicit formulations of the ways in which students are expected to be changed by the educative process; the ways in which they will change in their thinking, their feelings and their actions. (Bloom, 1956, p. 26).

The formulation of educational objectives is a matter of conscious choice on the part of the teaching staff, based on previous experience and aided by consideration of several kinds of data. The final selection and ordering of the objectives becomes a matter of making use of the learning theory and philosophy of education which the school accepts. (Bloom, 1956, p. 26).

Information about students, such as their level of development, their needs, their interest, problems of contemporary life which make demands on young people and adults and the activities that individuals are expected to perform, are commonly used in thinking about objectives. The nature of the subject matter to be taught and the contribution of each subject to the total educational development of the individual is another source.

Bloom goes on to say that objectives are not only the goals toward which the curriculum is shaped and toward which instruction is guided, but they are also the goals that provide the detailed specification for the construction and use of evaluative techniques. A test of the achievement of students is a test of the extent to which they have

attained these educational objectives. An achievement test is an adequate and valid test if it provides evidence of the extent to which students are attaining each of the major, pre-determined objectives of the unit of instruction.

According to Bloom (1956), "Knowledge (and its acquisition) is the most common educational objective. As a result of completing an educational unit, the student should be changed with respect to the amount and kind of new knowledge he possesses. The student should be able to give evidence that he remembers, either by recalling or by recognising, some idea or phenomenon with which he has experience in the educational process."

Knowledge, as defined by Bloom (1956, p. 28), "involves the recall of specifics and universals, the recall of methods and processes, or the recall of a pattern, structure or setting. For measurement purposes, the recall situation involves little more than bringing to mind appropriate material. The knowledge objectives emphasize most of the psychological processes of remembering. The process of relating is also involved in that in a knowledge-test situation the organization and reorganization of a problem is necessary so that it will furnish the appropriate signals and cues for the learner to assemble the information and knowledge he possesses."

Although information or knowledge is recognised as an important outcome of education, few teachers would be satisfied if this were the primary or sole outcome of instruction. What is needed is some evidence that the students can do something with their knowledge, that is, that they can apply the information to new situations and problems. It is also expected that students will acquire generalized techniques for dealing with new problems and new materials. In the taxonomy, these techniques are referred to as "intellectual abilities and skills."

"Arts and skills" refer to modes of operation and generalized techniques for dealing with problems. The arts and skills emphasize the mental processes or organizing and recognizing material to achieve a particular purpose. (Bloom, 1956, p. 39).

The intellectual abilities, on the other hand, refer to situations to which the individual is expected to bring specific technical information. They represent combinations of knowledge and intellectual arts and skills. In solving problems requiring intellectual abilities, the student is expected to organize what material is appropriate, to remember such material, and to make use of it in the problem situation. In the case of both abilities and skills, the problems are intended to be new and unfamiliar to the student.

Bloom isolates eight skills and intellectual abilities. These, he claims, are in a hierarchical order, each of which makes greater cognitive demands on the learner than the one lower in the order.

(a) Comprehension.

Bloom uses the term 'comprehension' here to include those objectives, behaviours or responses which the individual may use to show his understanding of the literal message contained in what is being communicated to him. In reaching such understanding, the individual may change the communication in his mind or in his overt responses to some other form more meaningful to him.

(b) Translation.

This refers to the ability to translate information from one such level of abstraction to another. This involves, for instance, the ability to understand non-literal statements such as metaphor, symbolism, irony, exaggeration. It also involes the skill in translating mathematical verbal material into symbolic statements and vice versa, or the skill of putting what is seen in pictures, into words.

(c) Interpretation.

This involves the explanation of a communication. It includes a reordering, rearrangement or a new view of the material. It also involves the ability to grasp the information as a whole at any desired level of generality.

(d) Extrapolation.

This involves the individual in forecasting about how a

given situation will develop. It concerns the extension of trends beyond the given information to determine implications, consequences and effects.

(e) Application.

This skill involves the application of data learned, to a new situation. This means that the pupil should be able to remember any abstractions which may be in the form of general ideas, theories, rules of procedure and principals.

(f) Analysis.

This refers to the ability to break down material into its component parts. Such analysis is aimed at clarifying the communication, and indicating how the communication has been organized.

(g) Synthesis.

This is the ability to put together different parts so as to form a meaningful whole. It involves the ability to work with pieces, parts and elements, and to arrange and combine them so as to form a pattern or structure that was not clear before.

(h) Evaluation.

This refers to judgements about the value of material and methods for given purpose. It includes the making and communicating of judgements.

It should be stated that Bloom's account is general, and that from his taxonomy various disciplines have had to compile their own specific skills and objectives. Teachers of history, for instance, in many parts of the world, have tried to formulate objectives for the study of their subject. Coltham and Fines (1971) presented a publication known as the 'Framework of educational objectives for the learning of history' in their attempt to help teachers of history in their endeavour. In their classification, they have included almost all of Bloom's cognitive skills, such as comprehension, translation, extrapolation, analysis, synthesis and judgement. They also came up with additional skills of

their own, which fall under Bloom's cognitive skills:

(a) Vocabulary acquisition.
Since history is a discipline of a highly verbal nature, a grasp of its terminology is an important objective, contributing to the achievement in all aspects of its study. (Coltham and Fines, 1971, p. 16).

(b) Reference skills.
These are required for obtaining, checking and retrieving specific facts and pieces of information. The person possessing this skill should be able to use the alphabetic system to locate items easily; to use quickly and accurately, contents headings as guides to required information; can scan a section of a book or article to locate information needed.

(c) Memorization.
The ability to retain and recall key sequences of events in a period; can recall key dates.

In their framework, Coltham and Fines have a section which deals with the attitudes towards the study of history. In this section mention is made of the following behaviours:

(a) Attending: to show interest in people, places, buildings, events and relationships.

(b) Responding: this indicates a willingness to follow up, reinforce. The pupil or student starts dramatisation, model-making, picture-drawing and asking further questions.

(c) Imagining: this involves sympathy and empathy. This is shown by the learner's personal involvement, by his identifying with the character and understanding his viewpoint.

It is worth noting that attending, responding and imagining are attitudes which were specifically discussed by Coltham and Fines. Bloom did not mention them in his categories.

Coltham and Fines went further and included a section which deals with

the nature of the discipline:

(a) Information - recalls types of primary source material; distinguishes between closely related types of primary source material.

(b) Organisation - can examine documents, artefacts; can recognise their relevance; can evaluate them for authenticity, reliability and consistency; can analyse material for bias, value judgements.

(c) Products - can reproduce material in form of diagrams, plays, models, summary and narrative; can combine two or more of these forms; can give oral or written explanation or interpretation in form of debate, exposition and biography.

The three behaviours are fairly similar to Bloom's cognitive skill of evaluation in the sense that when you examine documents, and artefacts, then you have to evaluate them.

Gunning (1978) also describes and elaborates upon the same skills as mentioned by Bloom and Coltham, and Fines. Gunning, however, is concerned about how these skills can be used to aid concept acquisition. To him the idea of using a concept is virtually inseparable from the idea of practising a skill. The following example can be given to illustrate the task of a pupil who has been given a translation exercise which involves, as has been explained, translating the information given from the relatively abstract language of a textbook to the less abstract own words of the pupil. The pupil is asked "in your own words explain what is meant by a rebellion." If a learner could respond as follows:

> "If people are unhappy like about taxes and a lot of them get guns and start an army to force the rulers to have less taxes"

then Gunning (1978, p. 35) suggests that the learner knows the criterial attributes of a rebellion. The response makes four major points essential to the concept:

(i) rebellions are about expressed grievances - unlike, say, the activities of bank robbers.

(ii) rebellions have to be at least fairly big to count as rebellions.

(iii) rebellions involve weapons - unlike petitions or demonstrations.

(iv) rebellions have large-scale aims - they are not mere protests.

Sylvester (1980) makes mention of the same skills that Bloom mentioned. In the five other skills he mentions, he is in fact elaborating specifically for history on other people's lists of skills.

(a) Inference.
The pupil should be able to tell what the passage says, implies or suggests about

(i) events;
(ii) the writer;
(iii) the intended readers;
(iv) the sources used by the writer;
(v) the reasons for given actions;

(b) Judgement.
One should have the ability to choose between various opinions or ideas and justify one's choice. One should also be able to make an overall judgement on a passage. This skill is clearly related, however, to evaluation.

(c) Chronological sense.
This skill involves the use of evidence to reconstruct the order of events; and the use of given dates and times to evaluate evidence.

(d) Correlation and cross-reference.
This skill involves the ability to identify points where two pieces of evidence refer to each other.

(e) Overview.
One should be able to write one's own overall account. One should also be able to explain events and attitudes which require over-

view for valid explanation. This skill is clearly related to synthesis.

(f) Historiographic.

This skill involves the ability to identify different types of evidence (primary/secondary); to be able to discuss the relative value of different types for historians; to be able to know how the historians use evidence and what problems the historians face. Coltham and Fines mention this in their section which deals with the nature of the discipline. They refer to the skill as information and organisation. The grid on the following page summarizes the skills according to Sylvester (1980, p. 29).

	Reference & Information finding skills	Skills in Chronology	Language	Understanding Evidence	Synthesis	Empathetic Understanding of how	Historiography
12 years old	Can use contents, index and glossary of a book. Can make notes under supplied headings. Can use abbreviations such as e.g., i.e.	Know what a 'generation', 'century' and 'decade' are. Know terms BC and AD, prehistory, ancient, medieval and modern. Be able to put a date in correct century. Can make a simple time chart.	Can use terms which often recur in history such as ruler, king, lord, slave, peasant, law, order, government, citizen, subject.	Can define in simple terms 'evidence'. Can comprehend and make deductions about historical pictures, artefacts and simple documentary extracts.	Can describe in writing some past events or situation.	Can make orally or in drawings, models or writing an imaginative reconstruction of the past which is based on evidence.	
14 years old	Can use a library catalogue. Can make notes using a system of notation which distinguishes main and sub-points.	Know sequence of Roman, Norman, Tudor, Stuart, Hanoverian, Georgian, Victorian. Be aware of some major historical "period" terms such as Renaissance, Reformation.	Can use terms such as motive, cause, change, revolution, progress and have some understanding of the terms 'politics', 'economics', and 'society'.	Is aware of variety of historical evidence. Can distinguish between primary and secondary sources in history. Can compare 2 accounts of the same events and note differences and similarities. Can recognise bias. Can interpret secondary sources such as maps, charts or graphs. Can summarize evidence and draw relevant conclusions. Can distinguish between 'fact', 'opinion' and 'propaganda'.	Can state information in a graph or diagram. Can write an account of some past events in terms of their causes.	Can make imaginative reconstructions of the past which are not anachronistic.	
16 years old			Can use terms which relate to some particular historical period studied, e.g. 19th century, free trader, chartist, evangelical, imperialist.	The above abilities should become progressively more sophisticated.	Can write a clearly structured, credible account of some past events in terms of causes and consequences.	Can consider the viewpoints of opposing sides and of people for whom they may not feel sympathy.	
18 years old	Know how to use and make use of footnotes and bibliographical references.		Acquisition of a more specific vocabulary.		Can develop their own written arguments and use their understanding of different historians' interpretations.	Can discuss different historians' interpretations of some historical characters.	Can understand phrases such as Whig interpretation of history, determine Marxist interpretation of history.

The essence of Sylvester's table is that he attempts to relate skills to chronological ages.

Thompson, in Place, time and society 8-13 (1982) also follows the skills approach in the teaching of history. It can be seen that in his table (1982, p. 20), given below, he mentions intellectual, social and physical skills. It should be noted that there is a very close relationship between Thompson's list and those of Coltham and Fines (1971), of Sylvester (1980) and of Gunning (1978). What is interesting, however, is that Thompson claims that some competence in those skills can be acquired even by primary school children.

PERSONAL OBJECTIVES			
Skills			Personal Qualities
Intellectual	**Social**	**Physical**	**Interests, Attitudes, Values**
1. The ability to find information from a variety of sources, in a variety of ways. 2. The ability to communicate findings through an appropriate medium. 3. The ability to interpret pictures, charts, graphs, maps, etc. 4. The ability to evaluate information. 5. The ability to organize information through concepts and generalizations. 6. The ability to formulate and test hypotheses and generalizations.	1. The ability to participate within small groups. 2. An awareness of significant groups within the community and the wider society. 3. A developing understanding of how individuals relate to such groups. 4. A willingness to consider participating constructively in the activities associated with these groups. 5. The ability to exercise empathy (i.e. the capacity to imagine accurately what it might be like to be someone else.)	1. The ability to manipulate equipment. 2. The ability to manipulate equipment to find and communicate information. 3. The ability to explore the expressive powers of the human body to communicate ideas and feelings. 4. The ability to plan and execute expressive activities to communicate ideas and feelings.	1. The fostering of curiosity through the encouragement of questions. 2. The fostering of a wariness of overcommitment to one framework of explanation and the possible distortion of facts and the omission of evidence. 3. The fostering of a willingness to explore personal attitudes and values to relate these to other people's. 4. The encouraging of an openness to the possibility of change in attitudes and values. 5. The encouragement of worthwhile and developing interests in human affairs.

The skills approach is also being advocated in South Africa. Under 'General remarks', for instance, the Provincial Administration of the Cape of Good Hope (1985) mentions that the syllabus is designed to integrate the teaching of content, skills and attitudes. It goes on to say that "because skills and attitudes are less tangible, the teacher will need to give conscious and systematic consideration, in order to avoid an approach that is based entirely on the acquisition of content." (1985, p. 3).

The exposition just given shows the importance of developing skills and abilities in teaching in general and in history teaching in particular. The essence of the new approach in history teaching, with its emphasis on the use of audio-visual resources, is to develop what is known as the skills of the historian. One may add that even the very nature of the discipline (history) requires the use of resources if its teaching to pupils is to be successful.

The value of resources

It has been determined that the most effective learning takes place when the individual has direct experience with the subject under study. Not all subjects, however, can be taught through direct experience. Hence, there is need for instructual methods and materials that provide an effective substitute for direct experience. It is usually claimed that resources have many values for learning:

(i) they stimulate the pupil's interest and make presentations lively;

(ii) they help to create the 'atmosphere' of a particular period;

(iii) they help to portray historical events as near to reality as is possible and thus help children to become more emotionally involved;

(iv) they can contribute especially to the acquisition of skills such as listening, comprehending, observing, analysing, synthesising, memorizing, imagining, evaluating, inferring, judging information;

(v) they make learning more effective because they involve more than one aspect of sense perception;

(vi) they make the language used meaningful in that the language is initially associated with a concrete object and only subsequently developed into a more abstract concept.

Types of resources

Various authors have classified resources differently. The one adopted for this thesis is that devised by John Chaffer and Lawrance Taylor (1975).

(a) **Books.**

Books are still very much in use for history teaching. One can say that the widening range of syllabuses has encouraged a proliferation of books such as the Penguin and Longmans series, e.g. Making the Modern World: World War I, West Europe, The Cold War by D B O'Callaghan. These books serve as the main source of narrative explanation, information and reference. These books are simple to read and understand. The pictures used are clear and simple: for example, human conditions are easily described and illustrated during the war years. By using such books, skills such as imagination, inference and,most important of them all, empathy, can be developed. The use of maps, graphs and pictures in these books would make it easy to teach new concepts in history such as 'misery', 'destruction', 'propaganda'.

(b) **Games and simulations.**

Games and simulations seem to be well established as a useful method for teaching history. Birt and Nichol (1975) stress the fact that games are not just entertainment, but that they have valid historical value which cannot be easily produced in any other form. They point out that games involving role-play encourage empathy and a real awareness of the character and motivation of people in the past; and that, above all, by showing not only that in any given historical situation there was a choice of actions that could be taken, but that, at the same time, circumstances dictated that some choices were more obvious than others.

Oppenheim (1980) states that history games, carefully constructed, encourage empathy and reduce the "inevitability of History" idea.

In history the need to understand the human and situational complexities has made simulation particularly effective as a method.

(c) **Artefacts**

Knowledge of the past, and so our attempt to re-create it, is essentially experiential. A combination of the use of the sense of touch and the sense of sight in the teaching of history creates a better understanding than the written word. Local places such as churchyards, museums and workplaces are rich in artefacts. Words in the classroom are reinforced by the image of the 'real thing'. Skills such as empathy, inference, imagination and historiographic ability are developed through the use of artefacts. By undertaking a field trip, the child 'experiences' history and the past becomes a reality. (Oosthuizen, 1981, p. 227).

(d) **Visual and aural material.**

(i) Pictures.

Pictures are substitutes for first-hand experiences. They are easy to get from newspapers, magazines and pamphlets. Pictures can be used as evidence and historical knowledge is based on evidence. Skills such as inference, imagination, empathy, deduction, the ability to interpret and the ability to think critically, can be cultivated using pictures.

(ii) Wall charts.

Like pictures, these are used to illustrate a specific topic or particular situation. They also show sequences and can help to give the impression of a 'flow' or a process. Like pictures, they can be used to develop such skills as interpretation, translation, empathy, classification, inference and analysis.

(iii) Slides, filmstrips.

Photography is rapidly becoming more widely used in the classroom as the evidential approach argues for actuality. In filmstrips the sequence of the pictures is fixed. Slides allow the teacher to arrange the order of the

pictures as he wishes. These aids can be used as evidence and the pupils can be asked to make inferences and to interpret what they see.

(iv) Tape recording.

The use of a tape recorder in schools has now become common. It can be used to record important speeches, current news items, interviews with old people and leaders in the community. As can be seen, the use of the tape-recorder can go a long way in helping to re-create the past; in bringing oral evidence into the classroom.

(v) Radio.

The S.A.B.C. provides the teacher with pamphlets on forthcoming programmes and preparatory work is done by the teacher. This preparation includes drawings on the blackboard, the display of maps, and the explanation of difficult words. During the reception phase the teacher assists the radio teacher by displaying pictures and writing on the blackboard. A follow-up lesson, during which a class-discussion is conducted and questions set, should follow.

(vi) Film.

A film portrays movements of events in their natural setting. Most schools show films, especially those based on literature setwork books. The pupils can travel through different countries and in time, without leaving the classroom. The teacher should preview the film in order to be able to point out to the pupils what to look for. After showing the class, the content can be discussed. Various skills can be developed through the use of films. The pupils can be made to identify themselves with the characters shown. They can also get the feeling of being there. The ability to empathise can also be strengthened through the use of films.

(vii) Television.

Television makes it possible to teach content which may be too recent for inclusion in current textbooks. The studio teacher can make use of new techniques, methods and aids,

and teachers can share ideas through television broadcast. Television can be used to support evidential and enquiry approaches. It can also be used to build atmosphere. It can be used as a form of evidence.

These resources, briefly described, can, if used correctly and appropriately, develop skills and abilities so necessary in the teaching of the 'New History'.

CHAPTER 2

READABILITY

Overwhelming survey evidence seems to suggest that the trend is towards the teaching of 'New History' which emphasizes the teaching of various historical skills and abilities. It has also become obvious that this new approach can only be taught effectively through the use of many resources. The question to be asked is whether Ciskei schools are adequately equipped in this regard.

In an attempt to answer this question, interviews were conducted with the inspectorate, principals of senior secondary schools and history teachers of Standard 10 classes in the Alice circuit. The following state of affairs came to light:

In the Ciskei schools, there is a disturbing and total absence of resources, and a reliance on one prescribed history textbook. Another revelation was that the teachers themselves were not only faced with an absence of resources, but were also uncertain about what resources to buy in order to remedy the situation.

With the large amount of reading material being published and available today, the acquisition of resources cannot, and is not, the main problem. One of the main problems, on the contrary, faced by these teachers, is how to tell whether a particular piece of writing is likely to be readable and appropriate to a particular group of readers (in this case, Standard 10 pupils). This means that the teachers need to be able to use an easy and objective method of selecting and organising the resources suitable for their standards. In this regard a knowledge of readability studies may be necessary, in that it may help to provide the beleaguered teacher with an additional guide to help him both to select and to organise material suitable for particular standards.

What is readability.

Various definitions have been given on readability by various writers. In this section extensive use has been made of Gilliland's Survey of Readability (1972).

Dale and Chall (1948) quoted in Gilliland, 1972, pp. 12-13, refer to readability as "the sum total (including interactions) of all those elements within a given piece of printed material that affects the success which a group of readers have with it. The success is the extent to which they understand it, read it at optimum speed and find it interesting." Dale's and Chall's definition emphasizes three aspects of the reading process: comprehension, fluency and interest.

Comprehension is usually thought of as being concerned only with the meaning which we can attach to the print. It is, however, also dependent upon fluency and interest. This definition also lays stress upon the elements which lead to comprehension, that is, upon the understanding of words and phrases and the relating of ideas in the passage to our experience.

Fluency is the extent to which a person can read a given text at optimum speed. The stress here is on the perceptual aspects of reading. We are also concerned here with such aspects of reading as the ease with which the text may be seen and the ease with which letters and words can be identified. The factors relate to primary reading skills which a reader must have already acquired if he is to comprehend what he reads. It also refers to the relationship between the linguistic skill of the reader and the syntactic complexity of the text.

Interest refers to the motivational factors which will affect interest. Interest and motivation play an important role in determining readability.

Dale and Chall further state that the three elements interact with one another to affect readability.

English and English (1958) define readability as "the quality of a written or printed communication that makes it easy for a given class of persons to understand its meaning or that induces them to continue reading." (cited in Gilliland, 1972, p. 14).

In this definition persistence at reading has been combined with comprehension to provide two important aspects of readability. However, it is less useful than the Dale and Chall definition, because it does not mention all the separate components of readability.

McLaughlin (1968) defines readability as "the degree to which a given class of people find certain reading matter compelling and necessarily comprehensible." (cited in Gilliland, 1972, p. 14).

In this definition, characteristics of the reader and the degree of 'compellingness' of the text are emphasized. To McLaughlin, compellingness and comprehension are closely related. He further states that readability should also include characteristics of the readers, because people tend to continue to read only that which they understand.

The definitions just given indicate in different ways that readability has something to do with the interest or the ease with which a book can be read; and that there is an interaction of many aspects of a reader and the books he reads. Gilliland refers to this interaction as "matching". What remains to be done now is to find a way of measuring readability objectively and so increase the effectiveness of the attempts to match reader and print.

Methods of assessing the readability of books.

According to Gilliland (1972, p. 83) the following methods are used to measure readability:

(i) Subjective assessment;

(ii) Objective question and answer techniques;

(iii) Tables and charts;

(iv) Sentence completion and close procedure;

(v) Formulae.

The various measures just mentioned all reflect in some way the various definitions of readability mentioned earlier. The definitions incorporated three main ideas: the ease of reading, interest or compellingness, and the ease of understanding. Gilliland (1972) mentions the fact that most researchers make the mistake of regarding the three aspects as alternatives and as a result they devise a measure that reflects only one of them. This mistake can be corrected by checking what is being measured in each case, and, if necessary, using more than one kind of measure.

When reference is made to the ease of reading, readability is measured by the use of word recognition speed, error rates, number of eye fixations per second, all of which relate to primary skills and are measures of visibility or legibility. When reference to interest or compellingness is made, readability is measured by reference to human interest, density of ideas, and aesthetic judgements of style. When referring to the ease of understanding or comprehension, measures refer to characteristics of words and sentences, such as their length or frequency of occurrence of words and the length and the structural complexity of the sentences. Gilliland further maintains that of the five alternatives, that is, subjective assessment, objective question and answer techniques, tables and charts, sentence completion and close procedure, and formulae, the readability formula has been the most frequently adopted since, for theoretical, technical and practical reasons, it represents fewer problems and offers greater possibilities for wider and frequent usage. He further cautions that when readability is measured, the methods used should be easy to apply, easy to mark, easy to calculate and they should be accurate.

(i) Subjective judgements.

This method involves glancing through the pages using such clues as content, style, range of vocabulary, format and organisation as a basis for judgements. Librarians make use of this method. Teachers, though their position is slightly better than that of a librarian, because of their closer contact with the readers, also make use of the subjective method.

Coltham (1970) also reports that at a conference, 'History in Schools, 8-14', held at C F Mott College of Education from 27th March to 1st April 1969, a subjective assessment of history books was used. At this conference, he reports, a working party was formed with the sole aim of devising a formula for assessing history books. The group produced a guide to a schedule which was to be used to assess books. In assessing a book, for instance, the schedule recommended, among other things, the language used in the book, that is the sentence structure, choice of words and rhythm; special terminology and its explanation. Facts should also be considered to show whether concrete rather than generalised

statements have been used frequently or vice versa. An age span should also be assessed in terms of a combination of chronological and mental age. Thus, 8-10 indicates that a book is thought to be appropriate for an average child of 9, a less able child of 10 or an able child of 8, all ages being approximate.

It can be argued, in the light of what has just been said, that no assessment of material for use in schools is possible, without making use of some subjective criteria. One of the advantages of Coltham's approach is that it suggests some objectively determined controls. Nevertheless, to use this approach alone would force the teacher to rely too heavily upon guesswork. (Some elements of the Coltham approach have been used when discussing the resource materials described in the last chapter of this thesis.)

(ii) Question and answer techniques.

This method has frequently been used, particularly to measure the difficulty of a passage and also as a criterion against which other measures can be compared. This procedure, which is essentially measuring comprehension of content, also has many limitations. Firstly, it is impossible to ascertain whether a given response is a reflection of the complexity of the passage or merely a reflection of the difficulty of the question. For instance, the content of a question may be simple, but complex phrasing may interfere with the reader's ability to provide the correct answer. Alternatively, the phrasing may be simple, but it may call for a very sophisticated interpretation of the text (Gilliland, 1972, p. 88).

This problem was found by the researcher, as will be shown in later chapters of this thesis. Extensive use was made of comprehension questions to assess the ability of pupils to comprehend passages of varying difficulty, which were selected as the test instrument in this research. The results of these test questions were related to the difficulty level of the passages as measured by readability formulae.

The conditions under which the questions are asked will also affect the outcome. For instance, the use of time restrictions has been found to adversely affect many people in test situations. Again, the retention or removal of the passage during questioning will affect the responses, since in the latter case the reader has to rely upon memory to complete the questions. Objective questions of the multiple choice type have frequently been used to test recall of content. These questions have limitations in that they are restricted in their use, since the responses have been found to be affected by the range and type of alternatives offered to the reader. Moreover, multiple choice questions are often influenced by the ability of the reader to make an inspired guess, based upon an imperfect understanding of the content and, therefore, provide an inadequate measure of readability.

In conclusion, this method's main shortcoming is that it assesses only the extent to which the reader can pick out the content of the passage. It does not reflect, however, the other component of readability, namely, fluency.

(iii) Graphs and charts.

This method of measuring readability is gradually gaining ground, although few tables and graphs have, as yet, been produced. It necessitates the selection of samples from texts and of one or more factors. Its advantage lies in the fact that it requires little or no calculation, since the results are related to a set of previously prepared tables. Various people have described the application of this method at various times. Fry (1968) states that this method was developed for use in Uganda as a way of saving the user's time and effort.

Mugford (1969) describes a new Readability Chart which he devised. It uses the common variables of word length in syllables and sentence length in words. It also takes repetition into account. McLeod (1962) also described a method for the assessment of readability of books of low difficulty.

McLaughlin (1968) also proposed a readability table which was based on a number of assumptions about the factors which are useful in measuring readability, the theoretical models for word and sentence comprehension, and the interaction between word and sentence factors.

(iv) Sentence completion and close procedure.

Sentence completion exercises have long been used as a means of assessing comprehension. Sentences are selected from a passage and certain words are omitted. The degree of comprehension is the extent to which a person who has read the passage can replace the omissions correctly.

The cloze procedure is an improvement on the sentence completion method. It is derived from the Gestalt term 'clozure' which describes the tendency for a person mentally to complete or make whole an incomplete pattern and to see complete patterns more readily than incomplete ones. (Gilliland, 1972, p. 102).

This method involves the deletion of a number of words randomly determined or at fixed intervals. A common approach is to delete the fifth word. Subjects are then asked to complete the passages and the number of correct responses is scored. Its advantage lies in the fact that it measures the ability of a reader to use a variety of contextual inter-relationships in supplying any particular missing word. It deals not only with specific word meanings, but also with the ability of the reader to respond to varying language patterns. (Gilliland, 1972, p. 103).

(v) Readability formulae.

Readability formulae are the most widely used and are among the most objective methods for measuring readability because they are based on an analysis of easily identifiable aspects of the text. They aim to predict and quantify the comprehensibility of a text for its intended readership. (Stokes, 1978, p. 23).

The application of a formula invariably involves the selection of a sample or samples from a text, the counting of some easily

> identifiable characteristics, such as the average number of words per sentence or the proportion of polysyllabic words in the sample, and then performing a calculation to produce a score. This score indicates the difficulty of the sample of text. (Gilliland, 1972, p. 89).

A review of the general formulae available reveals that any potential user has many formulae to choose from. For the purpose of this study two formulae have been chosen, namely, the Flesch Reading Ease Formula (1948) and Gunning's Fog Formula (1952).

The Flesch Formula

This is one of the best known American formulae. It requires the user to take the following steps:

(i) Select some 100 word samples from the text.

(ii) Determine the number of syllables per 100 words.

(iii) Determine the average number of words per sentence.

(iv) Apply these factors to the formula -

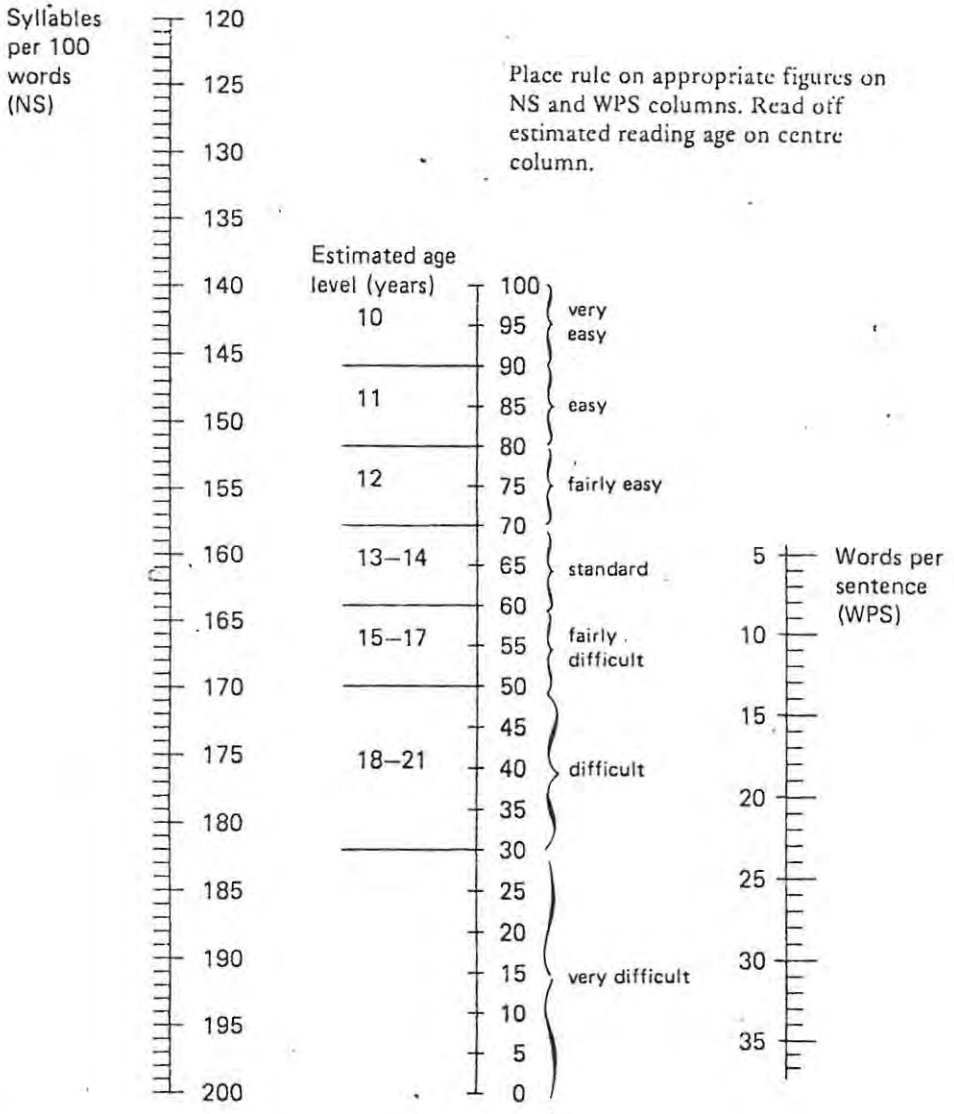
Reading Ease = 206.835 - 846 Wl - 1.015 sl

where wl stands for word length and sl stands for sentence length.

This calculation should be done for each sample. Then the results can be averaged for the final picture to emerge. (Gilliland, 1972, p. 91).

Kerry and Sands (1982) provide the following table that helps in the reading level of a passage on the Flesch formula. (See following page.)

The Flesch Formula Reading Ease Score



In the following table the Flesch pattern of reading ease is expressed in a slightly different way:

Flesch's pattern of reading ease scores

Reading Ease Score	Description of style	Typical Magazine	Syllables per 100 words	Average sentence length in words
0 -30	Very difficult	Scientific	192 or more	29 or more
30-50	Difficult	Academic	167	25
50-60	Fairly difficult	Quality	155	21
60-70	Standard	Digest	147	17
70-80	Fairly easy	Slick fiction	139	14
80-90	Easy	Pulp fiction	131	11
90-100	Very easy	Comics	123 or less	8 or less

The Flesch formula has been claimed to be very valuable as a reliable guide to the degree of abstraction in a particular passage. It has been very widely used in the history of readability measurement, especially in libraries, journalism, business and government agencies.

Gunning's Fog Index (1952)

Gunning's approach also makes use of average sentence length in calculating his index. Rather than counting the number of syllables as the Flesch formula requires, however, Gunning's other measure requires the counting of words of three or more syllables. He gives the following instructions for calculating his formula:

(i) Select systematically, samples of 100 words.

(ii) Determine the average sentence length, that is, the number of words divided by the number of sentences.

(iii) Determine the percentage of hard words by counting the number of words of three or more syllables.

(iv) Obtain the Fog Index by totalling these two factors and multiplying by .4.

The Fog Index gives the reading grade level required for understanding the material. This method is similar to that of Flesch, but is easier in that the counting of three syllable words takes less time than the counting of syllables used by Flesch. Furthermore, the simplicity of calculation required to resolve the equation gives it an added advantage over the Flesch formula.

The account just given of various types of measuring readability indicates that of all the methods, readability formulae may be regarded as the most objective and worthwhile tools for assessing the difficulty levels of a text.

CHAPTER 3

THE PRETEST

This investigation is an attempt to show that resources are essential in history teaching, because the pupils being taught have different levels of ability and motivation. Such divergent levels of ability and motivation, it is felt, could best be catered for by providing the pupils concerned with resource materials of varying difficulty levels. The selection of such resources could be done, as shown in the previous chapter, by, among other things, using readability formulae which provide a systematic basis on which to judge the appropriateness of reading material for children of mixed abilities.

In South Africa the existence of the mixed ability groups can be attributed to the grouping procedures prescribed by the government. The following are the different categories followed in schools for white pupils: In Standards 5, 6 and 7 pupils study the following compulsory examination subjects:

> Official languages, Mathematics, General Science, History-Geography and "Technical Orientation" (i.e. forms of handcraft and housecraft.

Then there are certain non-examination, compulsory subjects, such as Scripture, Physical Education and Class Music. In addition, pupils will take some elective subjects to suit individual interests.

At the end of Standard 5, the pupil has to make a provisional choice as to the study course he eventually wishes to follow in the senior secondary phase. His choice determines to some extent the type of secondary school he will attend after Standard 5. This could be an ordinary secondary school, or a commercial, technical, agricultural or housecraft high school. All these secondary schools offer the same curriculum in respect of compulsory subjects, but differ in respect of elective subjects.

The senior secondary phase (Standards 8, 9 and 10) provides for more extensive differentiation. The pupil chooses one of the following eight fields of study:

(a) Agriculture
(b Arts
(c) Commerce
(d) General
(e) Home Economics
(f) Humanities
(g) Natural Sciences
(h) Technical

Each field of study comprises a curriculum made up of six examination subjects and some compulsory non-examination subjects, such as Scripture, Physical Education. Of the six examination subjects, two must be the official languages, two intrinsic to the field of study and two complementary thereto.

For examination purposes, the subjects may be offered at higher or standard grade.

The Joint Matriculation Board has laid down some requirements for a pupil to qualify for university entrance. These requirements are that the pupil should take six subjects spread over at least four groupings. The groupings are as follows:

A - Official Languages
B - Mathematics
C - Natural Sciences
D - Other Languages
E - Humanities (e.g. History, Geography, Biblical Studies)
F - Miscellaneous (such as Accounting, Agricultural Science, Home Economics, Typing)

The Ciskei schools on which this study is based follow the same grouping requirements for the final public examination. There are, however, slight local differences at the Standards 5, 6 and 7 levels. For instance, some schools offer Functional Mathematics instead of Mathematics; Needlework instead of Agricultural Science; History instead

of Physical Science. In these classes there is no differentiation. The pupils are taught the same syllabus which has to be completed within a year. At the end of each year, the pupils write an examination, which enables them to move on to the next standard if successful, or remain in the same standard if unsuccessful.

In Standards 8, 9 and 10 some differentiation is introduced in the form of higher and standard grades. This arrangement is based on the ability and performance of the pupils in the previous classes. Those pupils who have performed well in their subjects take those subjects at a higher grade. Others who did not perform well enrol for those subjects at a standard grade.

The difference between the two grades is based on the skills imparted and higher grade pupils are expected to show not only the mastery of higher intellectual skills, but also an understanding of the theoretical background of the syllabus topics. Standard grade pupils, on the other hand, are expected to function largely at the lower level of knowledge and detailed or deep theoretical insight and interpretation are not expected. It should also be added that in order to qualify for an exemption, at least three subjects must be taken at the higher grade. For school-leaving certificate, however, only one subject (the pupil's mother tongue) must be taken at the higher grade.

Because of these curriculum requirements, pupils study history for different reasons. Some pupils will study history because it is in their field of study, the humanities. Because history is in their chosen field of study, such pupils could show more interest and consequently better attainment. They will choose to do history at a higher grade. Other pupils will not select humanities as their field of study, but will still choose history because they are short of a subject in order to fulfil curriculum requirements. Such a group is likely not to be as fully motivated as the previous group. This group is likely to do history at standard grade level. History can also be chosen by bright pupils. Such a group could already have three subjects taken at higher level; they need history as one of the remaining subjects, but it is not needed at higher grade. History in such a case could be regarded as an easy option.

The facts just mentioned lend support to the view that history classes in the Ciskeian schools have pupils showing a wide range of abilities, attainment and motivation. This fact has to be taken into consideration in the selection of resource materials appropriate for Standard 10 history classes.

The original comprehension test.

The research is concerned with the use of resources which might improve the performance of Standard 10 history classes. There is clearly a need to be aware of the ability of the pupils concerned to read and comprehend these materials. The investigation dealt with groups of pupils who were expected to show a wide range of reading skills. The pupils were also expected to vary considerably in the comprehension of materials. This made it necessary to look for a way of categorising resource materials into difficulty levels and also for a way of assessing quickly at the beginning of a school year these comprehension levels on the part of the pupils.

Two Masters degree researchers worked together during the initial stage, to devise the testing instruments. The other researcher was working on a topic which concerned ways and means of grouping pupils for history classes, with special reference to Standard 7 in Ciskeian secondary schools. The work also included an examination of methods and strategies which could be employed in mixed ability history groups.

The first stage of the research was to select a series of passages from school history resource materials which were expected to be of varying difficulty. This stage used and applied readability formulae in order to test the varying difficulty of the passages, before these passages could be given to pupils as a comprehension test. In the previous chapter it was stated that the readability formulae were used to measure and predict the comprehensibility of the resources for their intended pupils. For this reason, Flesch Reading Ease Formula and Gunning Fog Index were used in this research, because they were not only similar to each other, they are also reasonably reliable, widely used and involve simple calculations. From the results of this, seven passages of varying difficulty were selected. In order to make the work more streamlined and manageable, the number of passages was reduced to

four. A full text of these passages is given in Appendix 1.

The passages were selected to cover a period which the pupils had not studied before, so as to make the pupils rely on the material presented only. A preliminary selection of seven passages from the American War of Independence and the American Civil War was made. These topics are either not frequently studied and are certainly not covered in any way in Standard 10 classes.

The main aim of such an exercise was to test the extent to which the pupils would be able to understand the ideas, language and thoughts expressed in the passages. This meant that the pupils were going to be required to rely on their own independent reading and comprehension skills without any extra support being given by their teacher's lessons. This would reflect classroom circumstances when different pupils might study materials from a range of extra resource books.

The researcher, mindful of variations in difficulty levels which are commonly found within a book, selected two passages from each book. The use of readability formulae calculations on such passages produced two separate scores. Two scores were averaged to produce a single score for each passage.

The following passages were selected, together with their difficulty levels:

TABLE 1

Reading Ease Scores According to Gunning's Fog Index

Passage	Topic	Score
1	The Loyalists	10.20
2	The Olive Branch Petition	11.52
3	Alliances against Britain	12.58
4	The Boston Tea Party	13.04
5	Abraham Lincoln	13.86
6	President Thomas Jefferson	14.29
7	The American Revolution	16.26

TABLE 2

Reading Ease Scores According to the Flesch Formula

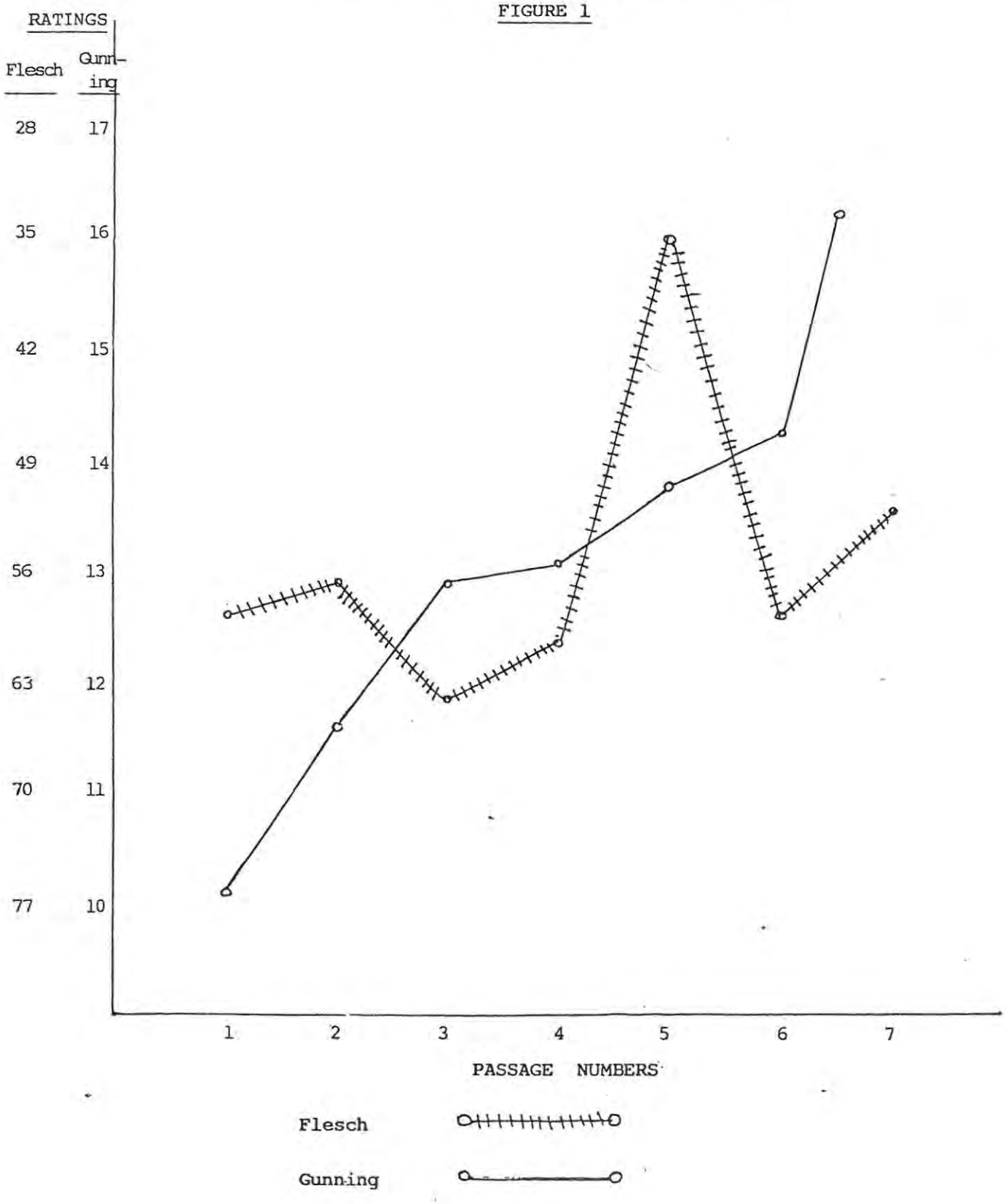
Passage	Topic	Score
3	Alliances against Britain	64.00
4	The Boston Tea Party	60.50
1	The Loyalists	58.50
6	President Thomas Jefferson	58.50
2	The Olive Branch Petition	56.50
7	The American Revolution	52.00
5	Abraham Lincoln	35.00

It should be noted that higher scores, as reflected in the Flesch Formula, represent easier passages, while lower scores represent more difficult passages. Furthermore, if it is taken into consideration the fact that the pupils who are going to deal with the passages are second language pupils, it can be expected that some of the passages, especially the more difficult, will limit the kind of, and the number of, resources that are suitable.

The graph on the following page shows the reading ease scores of the seven passages. Both Gunning and Flesch scores use vertical axes. Although the scores are in different scales, they can nevertheless be interpreted in order of difficulty. The broken line is used to show Flesch scores and the solid line shows the Gunning scores.

READING EASE SCORES FOR THE SEVEN PASSAGES

FIGURE 1



It can be seen that there were some discrepancies in the difficulty levels of Flesch and Gunning. For instance, according to Flesch scores passage 3 was the easiest, with the score of 64.00 and passage 5 the most difficult with the score of 35.00. On the other hand, according to Gunning's scores, passage 1 is the easiest, the score being 10.20, and passage 7 the most difficult, with a score of 16.26. When the passages were arranged from easy to difficult, the following pattern is shown:-

Flesch:	3	4	1	6	2	7	5
Gunning:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The differences between the scores of the two formulae could partly be attributed to the way they do their calculations. As was explained in an earlier chapter, Flesch formula, for example, counts the number of syllables, whereas Gunning's formula measures readability according to the number of words per sentence and counting words of three or more syllables. The differences between the two formulae also show that the readability formulae, though offering objective estimates of text difficulty, are, however, unable to predict precise reading ages. Their scores should be used in conjunction with the researcher's careful judgement of whether the passages are likely to give problems to the respondents.

The following four passages were selected from the original seven passages. These passages were taken from one theme, the American War of Independence. The aim was to minimise problems for pupils by making them follow easily the sequence of events. It was felt that this arrangement would make the pupils better able to answer questions from the passages than if many themes were used, as was reflected in the original seven passages.

TABLE 3

Reading Ease Scores for the Finally Selected Passages

Original Passage	Final Passage	Topic	Gunning	Flesch
4	A	The Boston Tea Party	13.04	60.50
2	B	The Olive Branch Petition	11.52	56.50
1	C	The Loyalists	10.20	58.50
3	D	Alliances against Britain	12.58	64.00

It should be stated that the final arrangement of passages is not according to difficulty levels because of the discrepancies in the ratings of Flesch and Gunning scores. The passages were, therefore, arranged according to the sequence of events so as to make things easier for the pupils. The easy-to-difficult arrangement of the final four passages, according to Flesch and Gunning formulae, is as follows:

Flesch:	D	A	C	B
Gunning:	C	B	D	A

From the selected passages, questions were devised to make a group comprehension test. A full text of the original questions is given in the appendix section.

The comprehension test was composed of both literal and interpretative questions. Literal questions were questions whose answers were clearly provided in the text. Some examples of the literal questions are:

> What did the British government do in 1773 to save the East India Company from bankruptcy?
>
> List the things that Britain did to punish the Americans for their tea parties.
>
> According to the passage, what was the effect of the American Revolution on human relations?

As can be seen, these questions, by their nature, are planned for pupils of low and medium ability. The questions do not demand use of complex analysis because the answers to them are directly extracted from the text.

Interpretative questions were also asked. The aim in these questions was to force the pupils to use higher interpretative and comprehension skills to reach an opinion. In particular, the pupils were asked to make inferences (to "read between the lines") from facts in the text. The following are examples of such questions:

Why would the price be reduced by sending the tea directly to America?

A tea party usually means people sitting in a house and drinking tea. Why were the events in this passage called 'tea parties'?

Why were the Loyalists considered traitors after independence?

Explain why the letter was called the Olive Branch Petition.

As can be seen, answers to the interpretative questions can be answered only by a person who understands the story but also has a reasonably strong command of the language level displayed in the text.

The pupils were also asked one question where the answers had been provided in tabular form. This type of question was asked in order to find out if pupils really understood the passage and more especially the flow of events related to the passage. The aim was to test the ability to understand the facts even if they might have had difficulty in generating the language needed to communicate the answers. The question was:

As the war continued, Britain found she had more enemies. List the countries which were against her and then say why each country was against Britain. Use the table to give your answer.

Country	Reason for being Britain's enemy
American colonies	
France	
Spain	
Holland	
Sweden	
Denmark	
Russia	

Some questions which tested fundamental concepts were included. It was

hoped that the context in which the concepts appeared would help the pupils to determine the meaning. Two examples of such questions are:

> People who are rebellious are called rebels. What does a rebel mean?
>
> Explain what a civil war is.

In other circumstances, words which were likely to cause difficulty were given in a glossary which was provided at the end of the test sheets.

Questions were asked with blank spaces left in the answer sheet to enable the pupils to write down their answers.

When the final comprehension passages had been selected and questions carefully prepared, the next step was to embark upon the pilot test. This meant that the comprehension test had to be administered to a similar group of pupils of the same standard, before it could be administered to the intended group. This was done in order to identify any problems that may arise in the actual research; to improve questions which were ambiguous. In other words, the aim was to identify and eliminate possible snags in connection with any aspect of the investigation (Cohen and Manion, 1980, p. 168).

Consequently, twenty Standard 10 pupils from Jabavu Senior Secondary School in the Alice circuit were randomly chosen for the pilot test. The school chosen was not intended to be included in the final testing. The distribution and supervision of the comprehension test was done by the history class teacher after everything required was explained to him.

The feedback from the pilot test revealed the following:

The majority of pupils performed badly in the interpretative questions. A question, for instance, such as "A tea party usually means people sitting in a house and drinking tea. Why were the events in this passsage called 'tea parties'?", evoked the following responses:

> The results of the tea party were that the war broke out.
>
> They were parties in different parts of America and were against the British tea trade.

Because the main cause of these events was caused by the production of tea which was transported to other countries.

When the question asked why the letter was called the Olive Branch Petition, the responses were:

Because the letter was from the subjects to the King.

Because the people who wrote the letter liked olive branch.

The olive branch petition meant that the people did not like the king.

When the pupils were asked to explain why a Committee for Secret Correspondence was set up, their responses were:

They were secret because they wanted to buy arms and food.

The correspondence was secret because it had no money.

The following table shows the results of the pretest.

TABLE 4

Pretest Results (No of pupils : 20)

Passage	Difficulty order	Maximum score	Mean score	Average percentage	Range
A	2	20	10.45	52.25	4 - 14
B	4	15	2.9	19.3	0 - 6
C	3	10	4.8	48.	1 - 10
D	1	15	7.6	50.6	2 - 13

One interesting point to emerge from the results is the confirmation of the fact that passage 'B' as judged by Flesch rating is the most difficult one. Another point is this, that according to Flesch scores, passage 'D' is the easiest, while the results, on the other hand, show that the pupils scored the highest marks in passage 'A', although the

difference between the two scores (52.25 and 50.6) was not great. On the whole there is a close correlation between the order of difficulty of the passages, based on Flesch scores, and the marks obtained by the pupils from the passages. On the other hand, the percentage scores of the pupils do not relate to the order of difficulty based on Gunning scores. In the table below the passages are arranged so as to reflect the increasing order of difficulty.

TABLE 5

Comparison Between Pupils' Scores and Difficulty Level of Passages

	D	A	C	B
Flesch rating	64.0	60.5	58.5	56.5
Gunning rating	12.58	13.04	10.20	11.52
Average percentage	50.6	52.25	48.	19.3

After the results from the pilot study had been analysed, amendments to the research instrument were made. Instead of providing meanings of difficult words at the end of the passages, these meanings were given immediately below the passage. The aim was to help the pupils understand quickly and easily the content of the passages. Marks were also provided for each question so as to suggest to the pupils the length and complexity of the answer that was required.

An attempt was also made to help those pupils who were experiencing problems in communicating their ideas. This was done by providing pupils with a classificatory type of question, such as:

> If you were to describe Lord North, the British Prime Minister, which of these words would you choose? Underline the words. (worried, seeking revenge, contemptuous, helpful, angry, friendly).

> Up to the time the Americans sent the Olive Branch Petition, most of them (wanted peace with Britain, to still be a colony of Britain, to break with Britain, to defeat Britain in a war, to be treated as equals, to have some say in their own government, to sink all British ships.) Underline the four correct answers.

More literal questions were asked such as:

How long was it between the passing of the Punitive Acts and the sending of the Olive Branch Petition?

According to the passage, how many battles had there been before the Olive Branch Petiton?

More interpretative questions were added, such as:

Why would General Gage be worried about a store of arms owned by the rebels?

What would happen if someone tarred and feathered you?

After all these changes had been effected, the comprehension test was typed and then taken to the schools concerned to be administered. The final version of the test is presented in the appendix section.

CHAPTER 4

THE FINAL TEST

With all the necessary changes to the research instrument effected, the final version was applied to the schools which were to serve as the research sample. There were four Standard 10 history classes involved, selected from four senior secondary schools, out of a total of twelve, all in the Alice inspectorate. The schools were chosen because it was not possible to include all the secondary schools in the district. Some of the senior secondary schools in the area do not offer history as a subject at the matriculation level. Lastly, these schools were chosen for their geographical convenience to the researcher, who was based in the town of Alice itself.

There were 152 pupils involved in the research.

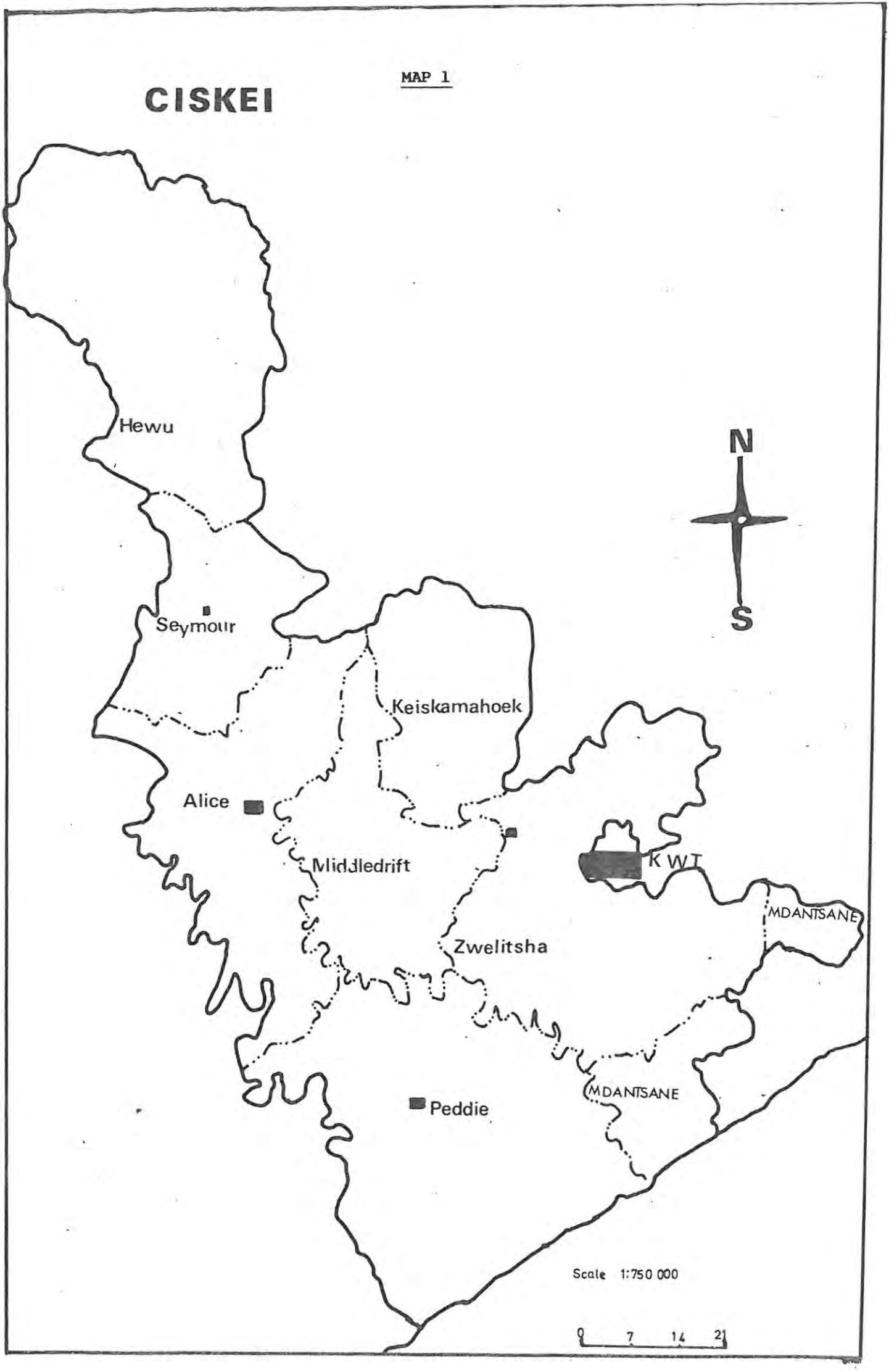
TABLE 6

Distribution of Respondents

Group	School	Village	n
W	Impey Siwisa	Khwezana	14
X	Amabhele	Rwarwa	47
Y	Mpambani	Gaga	35
Z	Dalubuhle	Sheshegu	56

The map of the Ciskei, showing the villages and schools is shown on the following pages as map 1 and map 2.

MAP 1


CISKEI
Hewu
Seymour
Keiskamahoek
Alice
Middledrift
KWT
MDANTSANE
Zwelitsha
MDANTSANE
Peddie
N
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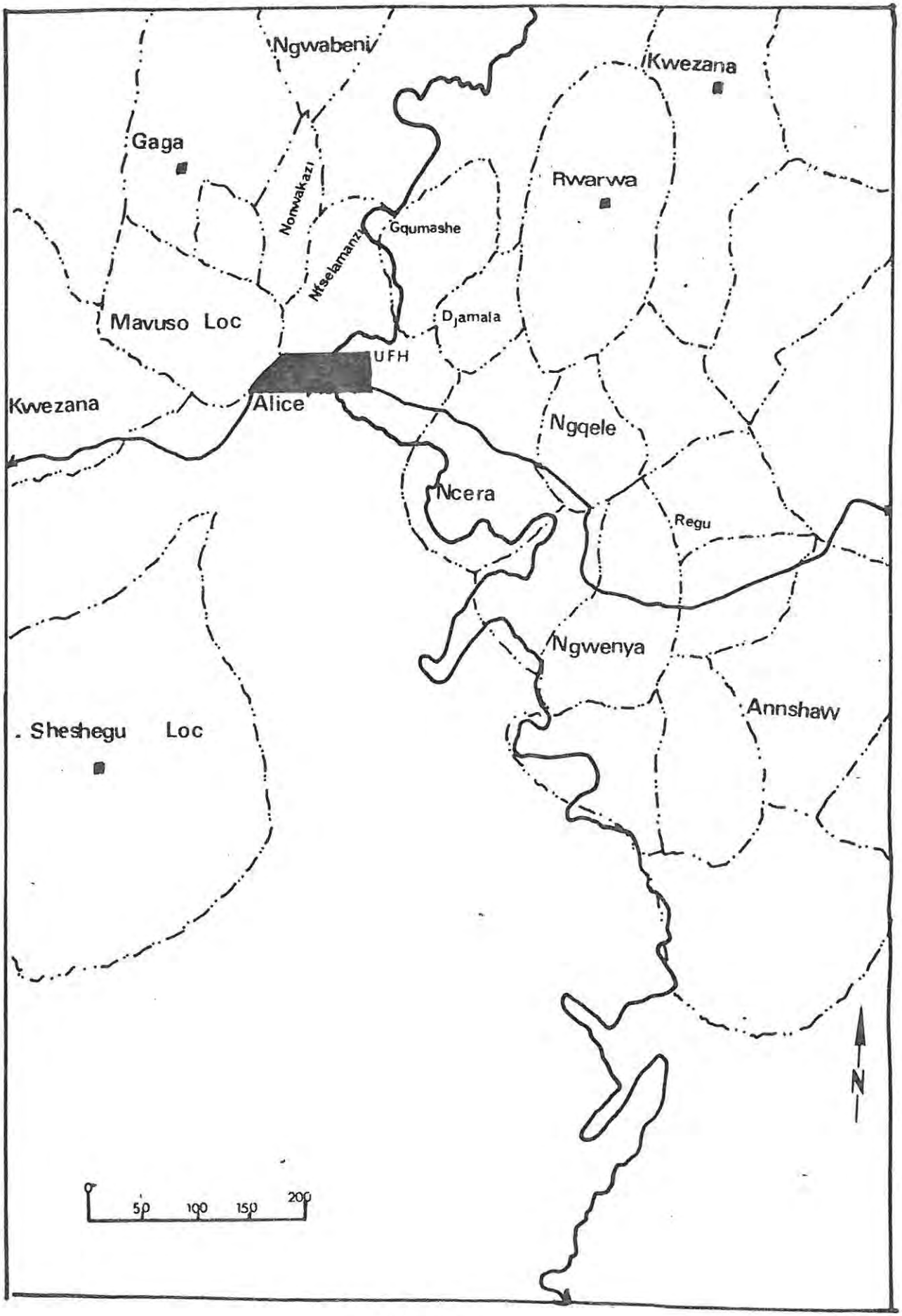
Scale 1:750 000
0 7 14 21

ALICE DISTRICT 3226DD



MAP 2

The class teachers of the schools involved in the research were asked to administer the test after all the necessary explanations were given to them by the researcher. The answer sheets were marked by the researcher, however, in order to ensure uniformity in the marking procedures.

The test results are as follows:

TABLE 7

Passage 'A' Results (Maximum Mark 25)
The Boston Tea Party

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	12.214	48.86	8 - 17
X	47	13.489	53.96	10 - 23
Y	35	13.43	53.72	7 - 18
Z	56	13.178	52.71	4 - 20

TABLE 8

Passage 'B' Results (Maximum Mark 25)
The Olive Branch Petition

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	8.86	35.43	6 - 16
X	47	10.19	40.76	2 - 18
Y	35	8.98	35.92	0 - 17
Z	56	8.45	33.78	2 - 14

TABLE 9

Passage 'C' Results (Maximum Mark 15)
The Loyalists

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	5.28	35.2	1 - 9
X	47	6.40	42.67	0 - 13
Y	56	6.6	44.	3 - 11
Z	56	6.02	40.13	0 - 12

TABLE 10

Passage 'D' Results (Maximum Mark 15)
Alliances Against Britain

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	6.5	26.	0 - 11
X	47	5.89	39.27	0 - 15
Y	35	7.52	50.13	3 - 11
Z	56	5.96	39.73	0 - 11

An analysis of the results shows that the four groups score, broadly speaking, very similarly across the test. Another point is that in all passages, with the exception of passage 'B', group 'W' is the least able group. Group 'Z' is the second weakest group. The best group is 'Y', leading in marks from passages 'C' and 'D'. Even when it comes second, the difference in marks in passage 'A' between 'Y' and 'X' is less than once percent and in passage 'B' less than 5 percent.

TABLE 11

Full Test Results (Maximum Mark 80)

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	33.08	41.35	25 - 51
X	47	36.20	45.25	17 - 61
Y	35	36.26	45.33	5 - 20
Z	56	33.61	42.02	16 - 51

As can be seen in Table 11, the same consistency in the test scoring as found when examining the scores on the individual passages is reflected in this table. Each group's position in relation to other groups is the same. The average percentages of group 'X' and 'Y' are remarkably close.

A second point that emerges, especially when examining Table 11, is the wide range of marks reflected in the results. This is very important for this research. The researcher recognises that a wide range of ability is to be expected in Standard 10 classes in Ciskeian schools. Had the test instrument failed to produce a wide scoring range, its use would be

suspect and clearly limited. The test does seem, in this respect, to reflect the situation in the schools - that of a wide spread of attainment.

It was stated in the previous chapters that the Flesch difficulty scores seemed to provide a better measure than the Fog scores. For that reason, the Flesch scores are used in this research. The ease score according to Flesch, as calculated in chapter 4, is tabulated again for convenience, in Table 12.

TABLE 12

Reading Ease Scores According to Flesch

Original Passage	Selected Passage	Topic	Score
4	A	The Boston Tea Party	60.50
2	B	The Olive Branch Petition	56.50
1	C	The Loyalists	58.50
3	D	Alliances against Britain	64.00

According to the table, passage 'D', with a reading ease score of 64.00, is the easiest, followed by passage 'A' and 'C'. Passage 'B', with a reading ease score of 56.50 is the most difficult. A point to be noted here is that passages 'B' and 'C' rate very closely on the Flesch ratings.

It is important to relate the marks obtained by pupils in these passages to the order of difficulty of the passages themselves. In Table 13 the average scores for each group on each passage are given. In this table, however, the passages are arranged so as to reflect the increasing order of difficulty.

TABLE 13

Comparison Between Pupils' Scores (expressed as percentages) and Difficulty Level of Passages

	D Easiest	A	C	B Most difficult
W	26.00	48.86	35.2	35.43
X	39.27	53.96	42.67	40.76
Y	50.13	53.72	44.00	35.92
Z	39.73	52.71	40.13	33.78

The table shows that for groups 'W' and 'X', passages 'C' and 'B', which rated very closely on the Flesch scores, also rate very similarly in the test scores. In the other two cases, however, the scores for groups 'Y' and 'Z', on passages 'C' and 'B', have wider discrepancies. Another interesting point to emerge from the table is that as passages 'A', 'C' and 'B' increase in difficulty, so the pupils' scores drop, this showing a consistent pattern all the way. One can therefore say that passages 'A', 'C' and 'B' are discriminating reasonably well.

The second point that seems to emerge very clearly from Table 13 is that the results seem to be poorly related to the difficulty level of passage 'D'. According to the Flesch rating it is the easiest, but the pupils consistently scored much lower on this passage than they did on passage 'A', and about as poorly as they scored on the most difficult passages: 'C' and 'B'. It would appear that a similar situation existed about passage 'D', with the Standard 7 pupils, as revealed by a fellow researcher. It is possible, therefore, that the level of questioning for passage 'D' was more demanding than the difficulty level of the writing. It could, therefore, be argued that passage 'D' could be eliminated from the final test instrument. In these circumstances, it seemed advisable to consider including only passages 'A', 'C' and 'B' in the final test instrument.

In the pilot test, it was noted that the pupils were performing badly on interpretative questions. Some of these were, consequently, eliminated. The reason for this was that the pupils might have been more used to rote learning, which did not require a complex understanding of facts. Consequently, it as argued, they were not used to interpretative questions. The pupils, therefore, might have scored poorly on such questions, not because they could not read and comprehend the passages, but because they were not used to exercising the skill of interpreting facts. The results from the passages, it was thus postulated, might have been distorted because of the new experience the pupils were being introduced to.

It was decided, therefore, to see what would happen if interpretative questions were eliminated from the final test results. Such results are shown in Table 14.

TABLE 14

Passage 'A' Results : Literal Questions
(Maximum Mark 18)

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	9.71	53.97	7 - 13
X	47	10.57	58.74	7 - 13
Y	35	10.6	58.88	6 - 13
Z	56	9.89	54.96	3 - 13

TABLE 15

Passage 'B' Results : Literal Questions
(Maximum Mark 10)

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	5.36	53.57	2 - 8
X	47	4.91	49.14	0 - 10
Y	35	4.4	44.00	2 - 10
Z	56	4.98	49.82	0 - 7

TABLE 16

Passage 'C' Results : Literal Questions
(Maximum Mark 6)

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	2.5	41.67	0 - 4
X	47	3.51	58.5	0 - 6
Y	35	3.51	58.57	2 - 6
Z	56	3.16	52.67	0 - 6

TABLE 17

Passage 'D' Results : Literal Questions
(Maximum Mark 12)

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	5.86	36.61	0 - 11
X	47	5.64	46.98	0 - 12
Y	35	7.49	62.38	3 - 11
Z	56	5.64	47.02	0 - 11

The point that emerges here is that even in literal questions, the difference, as would be expected, between the groups' means narrows. Secondly, passage 'D', even in the literal questions, again produces erratic results.

TABLE 18

Full Test Results : Literal Questions
(Maximum Mark 46)

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	14	23.43	50.94	16 - 35
X	47	24.64	53.57	15 -36
Y	35	26.	56.53	14 - 35
Z	56	23.81	51.77	13 - 38

Table 18 shows that the wide range of scores, already commented upon in Table 13, is still apparent when the literal questions alone are taken into account. Table 13, it was noted, showed the test results as related to the difficulty level of the passages, based on the Flesch formula. It was felt necessary to present a structure similar to Table 13, now showing literal questions only. This is done in Table 19.

TABLE 19

Comparison Between Pupils' Scores and Difficulty Level of Passages (Literal Questions)

	D Easiest	A	C	B Most Difficult
W	36	53	41	53
X	46	58	58	49
Y	62	58	58	44
Z	47	54	52	49

Again, the passages 'A', 'C', 'B' show, with one exception, the decline of scores with the increae in reading difficulty. The exception is group 'W's scores in passage 'B', where the performance improves to the level of passage 'A'. It should be noted, however, that the decline in performance is not as marked as it was in Table 13. At the Standard 10 level, when literal questions alone are being considered, such a change is to be expected.

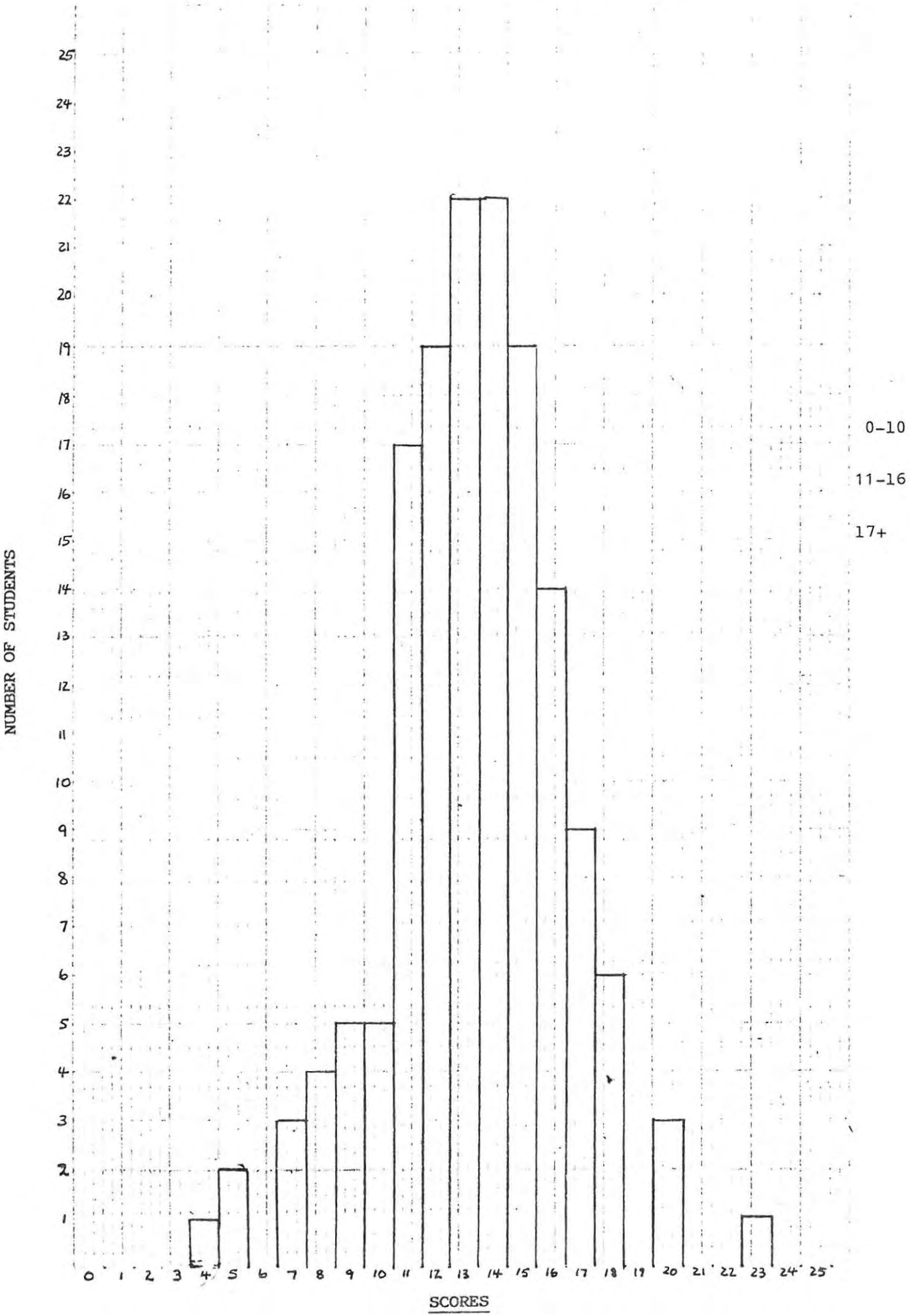
Table 19 also shows that in passages 'A' and 'C', especially in groups 'X' and 'Y', the scores are similar. A similar pattern occurs in passages 'A' and 'B' in group 'W'. The passages, therefore, are not discriminating sufficiently when literal questions alone are considered. One possible explanation for the closeness of the scores on the passages is that at matriculation level, pupils' abilities at comprehension should have reached well beyond the literal level of understanding.

After the interpretative questions had been eliminated, which, by definition are more difficult, the pupils still scored badly in passage 'D', despite its having the easiest rating on the Flesch formula. If, in comparison with the more difficult passages, the pupils' scores are considerably lower when only the simpler questions are considered, then the explanation that it was the questions which produced poor scoring is probably not correct. But whatever the explanation, passage 'D' is distorting the results and should be eliminated from the final test instrument.

The next step was to arrange the results as histograms, so that the possible groupings, in terms of comprehension ability, might be found. If clusters of pupils in certain score ranges could be found, then they might be given resource materials which are appropriate to their comprehension level.

FIGURE 2

HISTOGRAM: PASSAGE 'A' FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE



In passage 'A', observation suggested three broad groups of pupils: those with scores up to 10; those with scores between 11 and 16; and those with scores of 17 and more. There was a considerable difference between the number of pupils who scored 10 and those who scored 11; between those who scored 16 and those who scored 17. These clusters or groups are shown in Table form in Table 20.

TABLE 20

Attainment Groupings for Passages 'A', 'B', 'C'

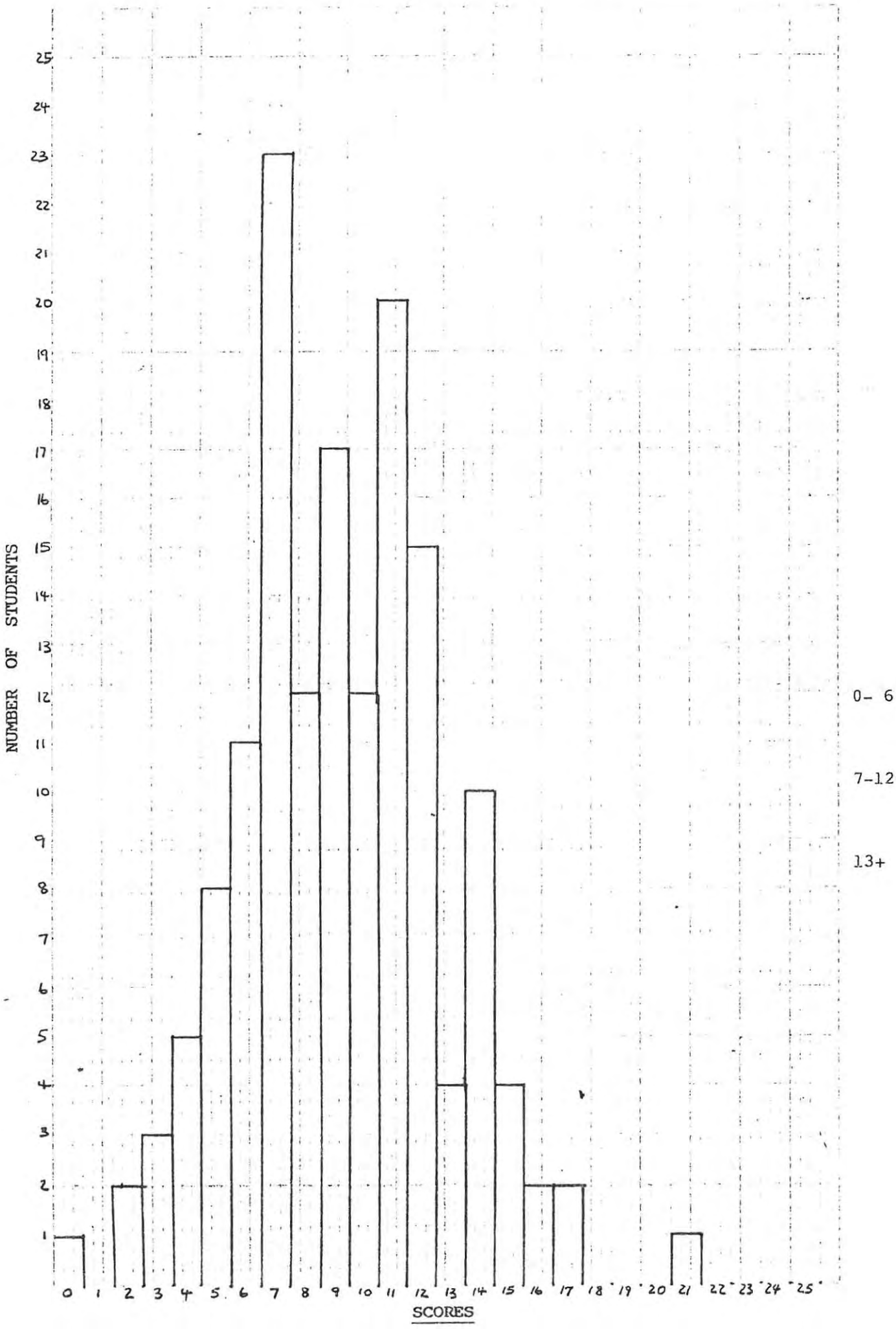
Clusters in Passage 'A'
(Maximum Mark 25)

Flesch : 60

Score	Percentage of Marks	n	% of Pupils
3 - 10	12 - 40	20	13.1
11 - 16	44 - 64	113	74.3
17 - 23	68+	19	12.5
		152	99.9

The levels of attainment suggested by these scores make some sense in the situation of a matriculation class. In passage 'A' (with the easiest Flesch rating), a score of lower than 40% suggests that the pupils are having considerable difficulty in comprehending and that special resources would be needed to make their learning meaningful. Pupils who score between 44% and 64% clearly have reasonably acceptable comprehension skills at this level of difficulty. It is to be expected that they could handle resources at this level of difficulty and that a number of such resources might easily be found. It might be found, however, that any work given to them at that level of difficulty might have to emphasize more literal than interpretative questions. Those pupils who scored higher than 68% are clearly doing well in the skill of comprehension and might be introduced, with some success, to more demanding material.

FIGURE 3
HISTOGRAM: PASSAGE 'B' FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE



When the histogram representing the pupils' scores for passage 'B' is examined, it is a little more difficult to find clear-cut grouping possibilities than it was in the histogram for passage 'A' scores. An attempt was made to separate pupils whose raw scores ranged up to 6 marks; those who obtained between 7 and 12; and those who scored 13 or more. The implications of these groupings are shown in Table 21.

TABLE 21

Clusters in Passage 'B'
(Maximum Mark 25)

Flesch : 56

Score	Percentage of Marks	n	% of Pupils
0 - 6	0 - 24	30	19.7
7 - 12	28 - 48	99	65.1
13 - 21	52 - 84	23	15.1
		152	99.9

Little problem is found with interpreting the implications of the lowest or the highest group. Those who score below 24% on this passage are clearly wasting their time in trying to comprehend it. Those who score above 52% can manage this acceptably and might manage even more difficult material. The middle group poses greater problems of interpretation. Those at the lower end are not doing well. Those at the upper end of the group (scores 10, 11, 12, with percentage passes of 40% or higher), might be said to be performing satisfactorily on that level.

Perhaps a more appropriate response to this middle group is to sub-divide it into two classes. In this case the groupings would be as shown in Table 22.

TABLE 22

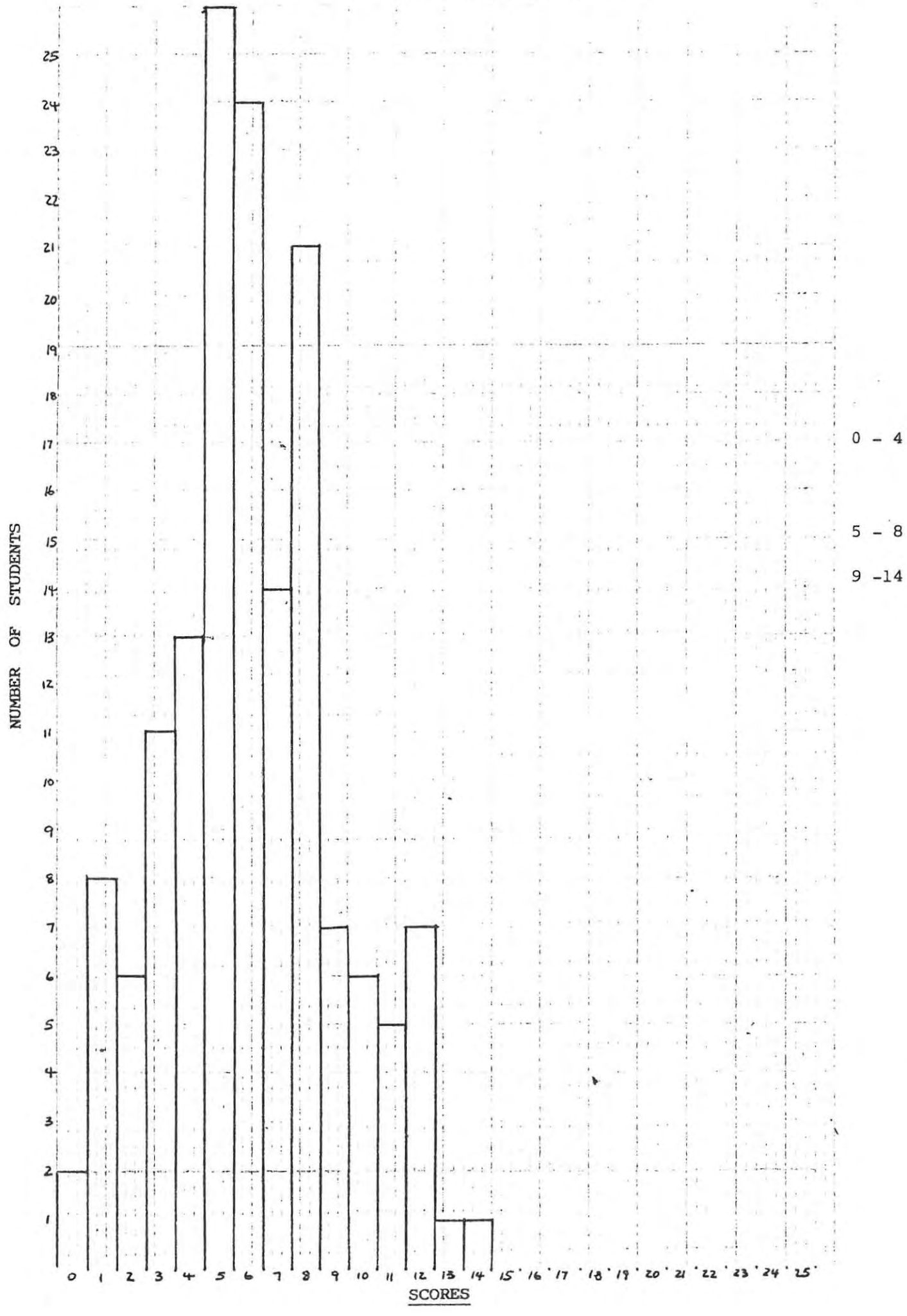
Clusters in Passage 'B'
(Maximum Mark 25)

Flesch : 56

Score	Percentage of Marks	n	% of Pupils
0 - 6	0 - 24	30	19.7
7 - 9	28 - 36	52	34.2
10 - 12	40 - 48	47	30.9
13 - 21	52 - 84	23	15.1
		152	99.9

FIGURE 4

HISTOGRAM: PASSAGE 'C' FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE



The histogram for passage 'C's results shows three fairly clear groupings. There is a considerable jump in the number of pupils who score 4 and those who score 5, and a considerable decrease in the number of pupils who score 8 and 9 respectively.

The figures derived from this histogram are shown in Table 23.

TABLE 23

Clusters in Passage 'C'
(Maximum Mark 15)

Flesch : 58

Score	Percentage of Marks	n	% of Pupils
0 - 4	0 - 26	40	26.3
5 - 8	33 - 53	85	55.9
9 - 14	64 - 93	27	17.7
		152	99.9

It can be argued that those in the top group who score 64% or higher on this most difficult passage are clearly managing their comprehension demands with ease and deserve challenging exercises in history. Those who score at levels of 7 or 8 are just able to meet the difficulty levels of a passage such as this, but should, initially at least, have their work largely confined to more literal questions. Those who score below 5 clearly cannot comprehend the passage.

The implications of the test instrument and the link with the provision of resources suitable for the wide range of attainment found in Ciskeian matriculation classes will be considered in the final chapter of this thesis.

CHAPTER 5

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE TEST

The purpose of this research was to find a way of selecting and matching resource material to the abilities of pupils at Standard 10 level. A test was devised which showed pupils' performances on comprehension questions related to three passages of increasing difficulty. The pupils' scores were reflected in histograms, showing groups which clearly could handle material at a particular level of difficulty; groups which could manage that level only with some difficulty and groups which clearly could not manage the material at all.

The next stage involved looking at a series of resource materials dealing with a common topic in the matriculation syllabus - the Cold War. This topic was chosen because it covers a very wide period of time dating from the end of the war up to the beginning of the seventies. As a result, it is divided into a number of themes. The topic, from its title and by its nature, offers an interesting comparison with the actual war, which had ended shortly before the Cold War started. It is also not an easy period in history to teach, especially to the pupils for whom English is a second language.

In all, twelve resources were selected and a Flesch analysis was done on each of these. In each case the analysis was based upon two passages from a chapter in each resource. The twelve resources are presented here in alphabetical order of their authors, together with a brief commentary on the book.

Title: The USA - 1919-81: Twentieth Century History Topics.
First published in 1982 by Harrap Limited.

Series: Harrap World History Programme.

Author: Brooks J R

Flesch Rating: 59.889

General commentary:

This book combines a thematic and chronological approach to developments in the United States of America so far this century. Both America's role

as a superpower and its internal affairs are presented in terms suitable for students preparing for a certificate in secondary education and ordinary level examinations in England. Such examinations are written by 16 year-old pupils. (SE pupils are not expected to be as able as those children writing the ordinary level examinations of the General Certificate in Education.) In these circumstances the Flesch rating which suggests moderately easy reading, seems to correspond with the subjective assessment of the book.

Title: A Map History of Russia. First published in 1974 by Heinemann Educational Books Limited.

Author: Catchpole B.

Flesch rating: 45.981.

General commentary:

The book covers a period commencing from the times of the Vikings in the 10th and 11th centuries, to the seventies of the present century in Russia. This is one of a series of books by this author, which emphasizes maps, which are dynamically presented with good illustrative sketches. Each map is accompanied by a page of text. This written material is fairly dense and the language level is fairly difficult. It could be used by Standard 10, higher grade, pupils for supplementary information. The comparatively high difficulty level suggested by the Flesch rating is, in these circumstances, to be expected.

Title: The Forties and Fifties. First published in 1975 by MacDonald Educational Limited.

Series: History of the Modern World.

Author: Harris N.

Flesch rating: 52.765

General commentary:

This is a good series which provides a colourful and informative introduction to the major periods of world history in the twentieth century. The topics have been carefully chosen to give an overall impression of the period, rather than a detailed account of every event. The book combines a variety of photographs, maps and diagrams, and a text which is both lucid and exciting. The topics covered are not long, so there

is little chance of the child becoming bored. It is appropriate for Standards 8, 9 and 10 pupils. In addition, there is a comprehensive reference section containing a biographical gallery, a time chart and an index. The series could be used by the teacher as an additional stimulus material both in lessons and for tests. These additional aids might partly counter-balance the Flesch rating, suggesting a moderately difficult text.

Title: The Cold War. First published in 1965 by the Oxford University Press.

Series: The Changing World.

Author: Heater, Derek (listed as Heater 1 in Table 24).

Flesch rating: 42.125

General commentary:

The book deals solely with the Cold War. The chapters are divided according to the events, from the origins, through the growth of tension; the Far East; and concludes with the 'thaw' in the Cold War. The conflict between communism and Western democracy is discussed in a way that could make readers understand its relevance to the present day world. The text is supplemented by illustrated maps, pictures of leading statesmen involved, quotations of their utterances and graphs. The high difficulty level shown by the Flesch rating seems to confirm the difficulty of the topics being discussed. This seems to make the book suitable for use as a reference source when worksheets and simulations are attempted.

Title: Our World this Century. First published in 1982 by the Oxford University Press.

Author: Heater D (listed as Heater 2 in Table 24.

Flesch rating: 61.495.

General commentary:

The book is intended for CSE candidates for the twentieth century world history examinations. It will also be of use at 'O' level and a lower secondary level, as can be seen from its Flesch rating (see explanation of these levels in the entry for Brooks). The text is simply written and the organisation is clear. Past examination questions have been included. Lavish use has been made of photographs, cartoons, charts, diagrams and maps.

Title: The Cold War. First published in 1977 by Franklin Watts.

Author: Helitzer M.

Flesch rating: 62.257.

General commentary:

The book, as can be seen from its title, concentrates on the Cold War, normally a very difficult period in history to present. As a result, the material does not make for an easy book for Standard 10 pupils, but the book itself is written in good, but easy-to-understand English. There are also a number of photographs, some of which are very interesting. This is basically a book which could be used as an outside source. Its Flesch rating suggests that the material is not very difficult to read.

Title: 20th Century World History. The World Powers After 1945. First published in 1980 by Edward Arnold Limited.

Author: Jamieson, Alan.

Flesch rating: 64.747.

General commentary:

The book can be used by Standard 8, 9 and 10 pupils. It has a very good introduction, which explains to the reader how the book could be used. It has very good maps, very interesting photographs and an excellent glossary. Throughout the book there are a number of good and stimulating exercises for the pupil to do. These extra advantages and the comparatively easy Flesch rating suggest that this could be a very valuable resource for the middle and lower attainment groups in a class.

Title: The Cold War. First published in 1975 by George G Harrap and Company Limited.

Series: Harrap World History Programme.

Author: Nicholson A.

Flesch rating: 50.853.

General commentary:

The book is written in uncomplicated language, except for a number of the documents at the back of the book. The topics are dealt with briefly thus enabling the pupil to get an initial understanding of the topic. The documents introduce the pupils to the idea of primary resources. The great variety of pictures gives the pupils (Standard 10)

a realistic view of the topic as well as the study of history itself. The series also reveals to the pupil the fact that history is not only concerned with kings and queens, but also with the man in the street. The illustrations and the emphasis upon ordinary people might be expected to counterbalance the moderately difficult Flesch rating.

Title: The United States since 1945. First published in 1983 by Longman Group Limited.

Series: Modern Times.

Author: O'Callaghan D B (listed as O'Callaghan 1 in Table 24).

Flesch rating: 47.981.

General commentary:

The book follows the subject in a strict chronological order, making it useful if linked with the text books. The book abounds in maps, photographs, diagrams and cartoons. It also has a detailed table of contents, index and time-line glossary. The book also has a bibliographical list of the important people mentioned in it, as well as references for further reading. These supports can help to make its comparatively difficult text (as confirmed by the Flesch rating) more accessible to readers, but teacher-help, through graded questions, might also be necessary.

Title: America: The Cold War. First published in 1973 by the Longman Group Limited.

Series: Making the Modern World.

Author: O'Callaghan B (listed as O'Callaghan 2 in Table 24).

Flesch rating: 73.049.

General commentary:

The book is useful for Standard 8, 9 and 10. It is interesting and educational. The pictures can be of great value, especially for second language pupils. Primary sources quoted introduce the pupils to the skills approach to history teaching. The book has actually broken the Standard 10 syllabus into interesting study topics, such as ' The end of World War Two', 'The Rival Giants', 'The Cold War Begins'. The language used is simple and there are very interesting arguments which can easily be followed by the pupils. Lastly, the book is short

(only 32 pages), so there is no chance of the pupils becoming bored or being overwhelmed by extended reading demands.

The Flesch rating shows that it is one of the easiest books in the collection, which was submitted to analysis.

Title: The Twentieth Century World. First published in 1982 by Oxford University Press.

Author: Speed, Peter and Mary.

Flesch rating: 78.210.

General commentary:

The book is suitable for Standard 10, second language pupils, because of the language used. It has an abundance of information, which is, nevertheless, clear and concise. It makes use of very good maps and excellent illustrations. It also uses cartoons and colourful pictures, which make it interesting to read, and are clearly appropriate for children who need the simple text level suggested by the Flesch rating. At the end of each chapter there are questions which make the book useful for classwork. It also contains source material for projects. Its disadvantage is that topics are not arranged in a chronological order and in that way it could confuse the pupils. It also does not have a glossary. Perhaps one of the exercises which the teacher could set would be the construction of a detailed time-line or time chart.

Title: The Soviet Union. First published in 1983 by Harrap Group Limited.

Series: Twentieth Century History Topics.

Author: York, Brian.

Flesch rating: 55.411.

General commentary:

This book traces the development of the Soviet Union from its dramatic beginnings in Russia to its emergence as a world power after the Second World War. Its topics and chapters are presented in terms suitable for Standard 8, 9 and 10 pupils. The use of the original Soviet cartoons helps to show how people within the Soviet Union have regarded the changes of the twentieth century. Most of the chapters start off in story-form, which is a useful way to arouse interest. The book has good maps, diagrams and an excellent glossary. It also has

references for further reading. Some of these features might overcome the medium-difficulty level of the text, as indicated by its Flesch rating.

The next stage of the work involved the use of the Flesch analysis of each extract, to arrange the materials in ascending order of difficulty. This information is presented in Table 24. To this has been added the tentative age-levels related to the Flesch indexes, as suggested by Kerry and Sands (1982), which was described in chapter 2. These age-levels, however, it should be noted, are for English mother-tongue speakers.

TABLE 24

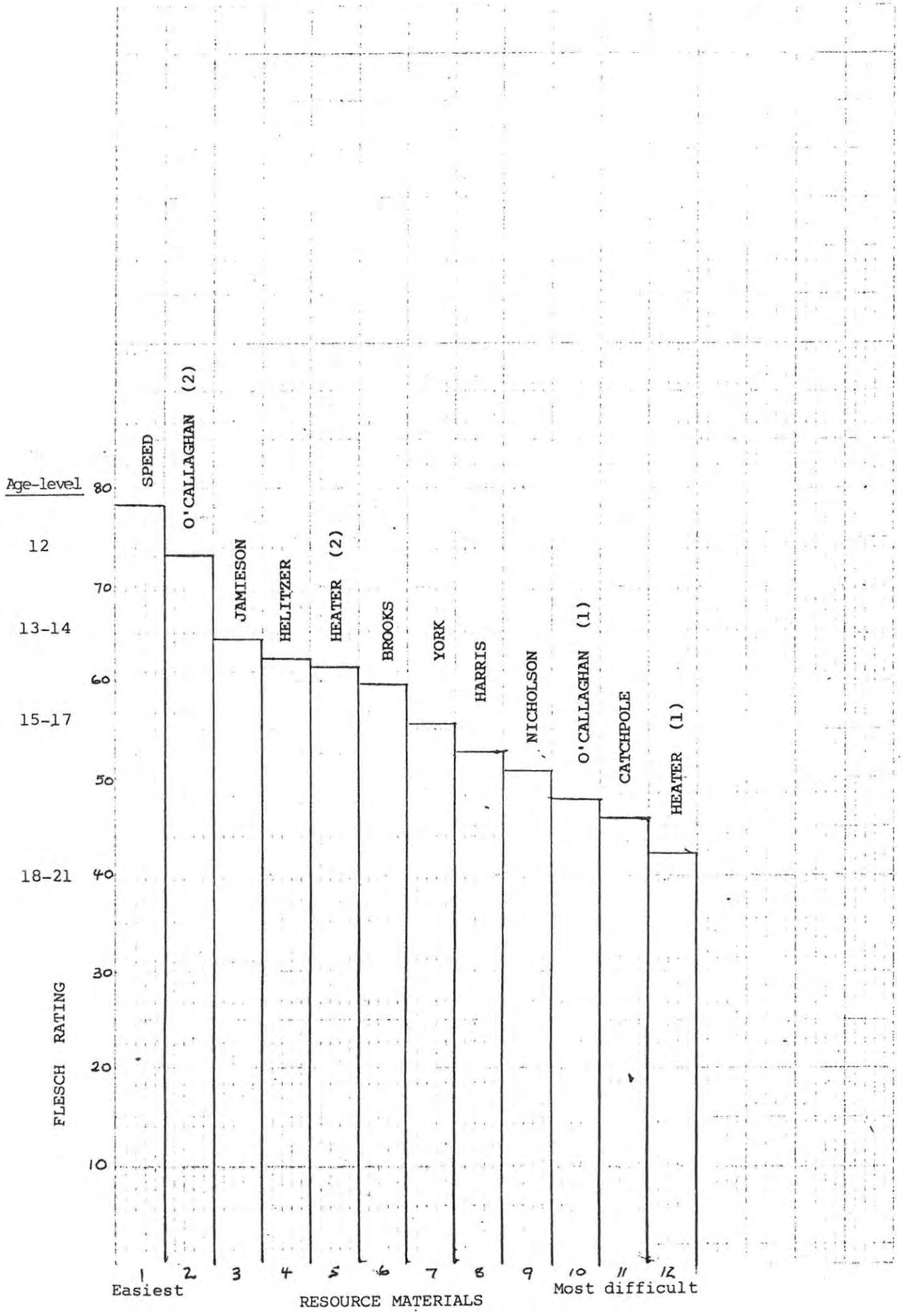
FLESCH DIFFICULTY INDICES ON 12 RESOURCE MATERIALS

Author	1st Passage	2nd Passage	Total	Mean	Age Level
Speed P & Mary	80.543	75.878	156.421	78.210	12
O'Callaghan B (2)	77.158	66.940	146.098	73.049	12
Jamieson A	62.221	67.273	129.494	64.747	13-14
Helitzer M	59.973	64.541	124.514	62.257	13-14
Heater D (2)	58.281	64.71	122.991	61.495	13-14
Brooks J R	58.451	61.327	119.778	59.889	15-17
York B	59.601	51.222	110.823	55.411	15-17
Harries N	55.438	50.092	105.53	52.765	15-17
Nicholson A	49.347	52.359	101.706	50.853	15-17
O'Callaghan D B (1)	49.796	46.166	95.962	47.981	18-21
Catchpole B	45.762	46.20	91.962	45.981	18-21
Heater D (1)	38.487	45.763	84.250	42.125	18-21

The implications of the resource materials' difficulty levels can be further appreciated if their indexes are arranged as a histogram. This is done in Figure 5.

FIGURE 5

HISTOGRAM: GRADED DIFFICULTY LEVELS OF RESOURCE MATERIALS



It also seemed important to obtain an estimate of the difficulty level of the textbooks commonly used in the schools attended by the sample. To retain consistency with the resource materials analysed in the first part of this chapter, the passages from the textbooks used in the Flesch analysis were selected from the sections on the Cold War. It was discovered that two text books were available in the schools.

Boyce's book, 'Europe and South Africa, Part 2: A History for Std 10' has been available for many years. It is long (324 pages). The Flesch indexes for the two passages selected for analysis were 45.337 and 49.738, giving an average of 47.537. This falls, according to the Flesch interpretation, into the 'difficulty' level of reading and, Kerry and Sands' table (1982) suggests that it is appropriate for the readers between the ages of 18 and 21, that is, young people at the tertiary education level. It must, however, be remembered that these figures relate to mother-tongue speakers of English. The pupils investigated in this thesis all use English as a second language, and so it would be expected that this work would make enormously heavy demands upon such pupils.

The second book is 'Active History, Standard 10', written by Van Rensburg and Schoeman. This is a much later publication (1980), but has become extremely popular in Black schools in the past five years. It is also fairly long (296 pages).

The first passage selected for analysis had a Flesch index of 41.226; the second passage had a Flesch index of 46.224. The average level was, therefore, 43.725. It can be easily seen that although Schoeman is slightly more difficult than Boyce, they both fall into the broad category of 'difficult' material and contain reading matter that is appropriate for 18 to 21 year olds and, by implication, at tertiary education level, even for the native speakers of the language.

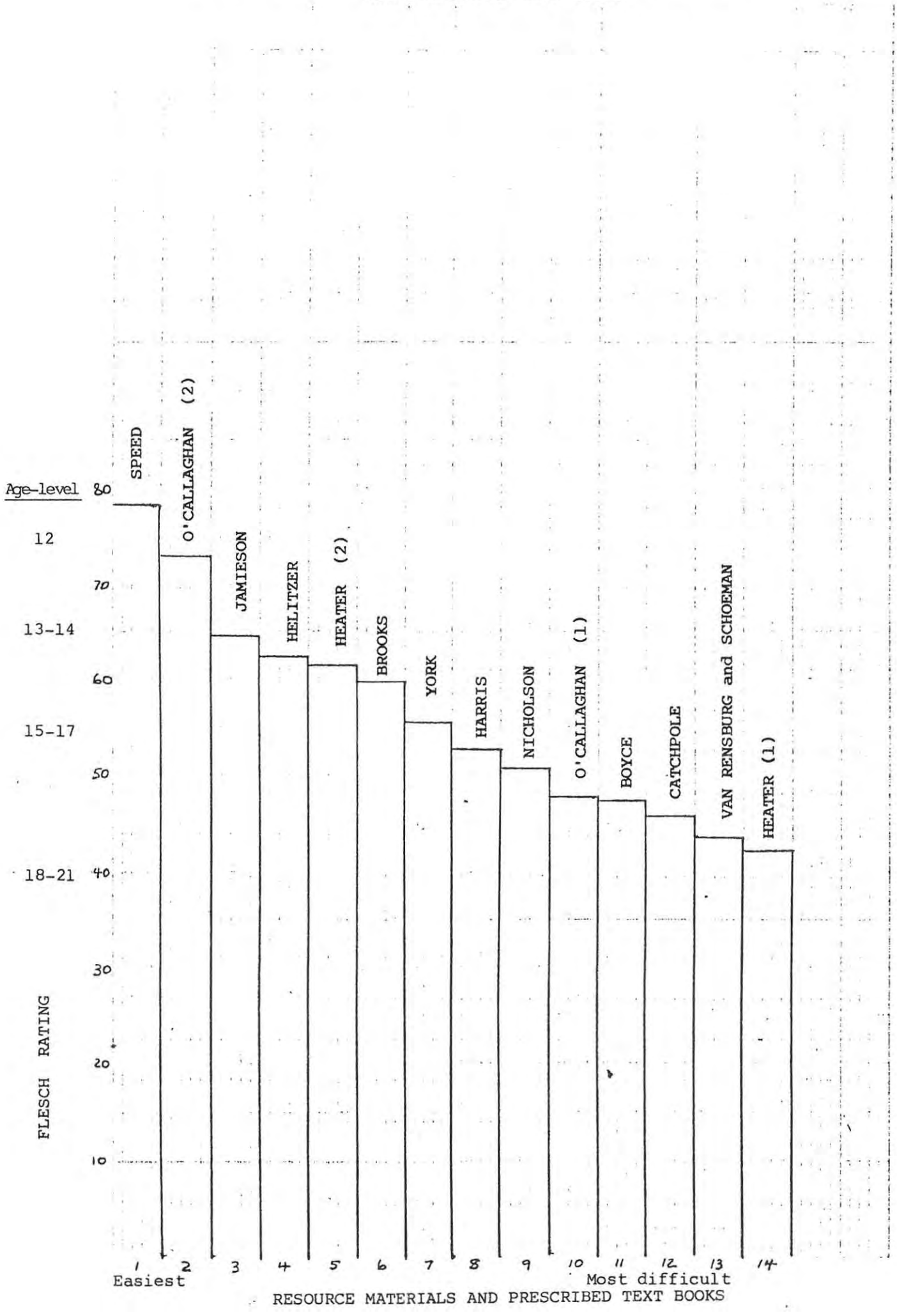
The Flesch difficulty indices on resource materials and the prescribed textbooks currently used in secondary schools are shown in Table 25.

TABLE 25

FLESCH DIFFICULTY INDICES ON RESOURCE MATERIALS AND THE PRESCRIBED TEXT BOOKS CURRENTLY USED IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Author	1st Passage	2nd Passage	Total	Mean	Age Level
Speed P & Mary	80.543	75.878	156.421	78.210	12
O'Callaghan B (2)	77.158	68.940	146.098	73.049	12
Jamieson A	62.221	67.273	129.494	64.747	13-14
Helitzer M	59.973	64.541	124.514	62.257	13-14
Heater D (2)	58.281	64.71	122.991	61.495	13-14
Brooks J R	58.451	61.327	119.778	59.889	15-17
York B	59.601	51.222	110.823	55.411	15-17
Harris N	55.438	50.092	105.53	52.765	15-17
Nicholson A	49.347	52.359	101.706	50.853	15-17
O'Callaghan D B (1)	49.796	46.166	95.962	47.981	18-21
Boyce A N	45.337	49.738	95.075	47.537	18-21
Catchpole B	45.762	46.20	91.962	45.981	18-21
van Rensburg & Schoeman	41.226	46.224	87.450	43.725	18-21
Heater D (1)	38.487	45.763	84.250	42.125	18-21

FIGURE 6
HISTOGRAM: GRADED DIFFICULTY LEVELS OF RESOURCE MATERIALS
AND PRESCRIBED TEXT BOOKS



In the most difficult passage in the test (passage 'C'), which had a Flesch rating of 56, only 15% of the pupils could score 50% or higher on the comprehension questions. Both the commonly used texts (47 and 43 on the Flesch ratings) are considerably more difficult that this test passage.

Allowing for the pupils' performance level on the test passages, which were considerably easier than either of these text books, the use of such text books in Ciskei schools must be questioned.

In these circumstances, the importance of providing extra resources becomes even greater. Of the twelve resources analysed, only one is more difficult (on the Flesch analysis) than van Rensburg and Schoeman's text, and only two are more difficult than Boyce's text. By making use of such simpler resources, pupils might acquire greater understanding and gain in self-confidence.

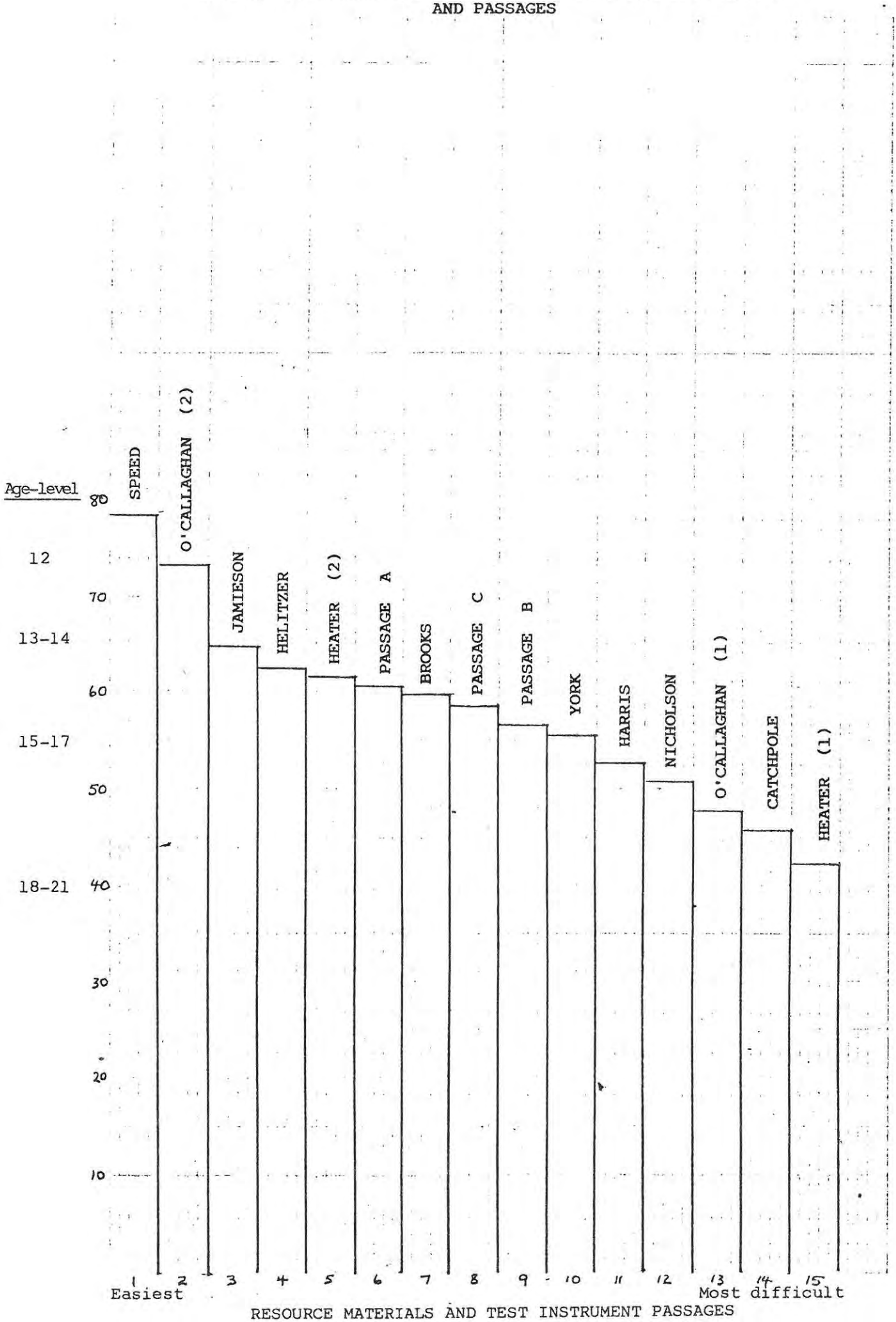
It also seemed necessary to show the Flesch analysis of the resource materials and the passages used in the test instrument, together with tentative age-levels related to them, as suggested by Kerry and Sands (1982). This is done in Table 26. This could help the teacher when deciding on the allocation of resources appropriate to pupils of varying comprehension levels.

TABLE 26

Author	Mean	Age-Level
Speed P & Mary	78.210	12
O'Callaghan B (2)	73.049	12
Jamieson A	64.747	13-14
Helitzer M	62.257	13-14
Heater D (2)	61.495	13-14
Passage A	**60.50**	**13-14**
Brooks J R	59.889	15-17
Passage C	**58.50**	**15-17**
Passage B	**56.50**	**15-17**
York B	55.411	15-17
Harris N	52.765	15-17
Nicholson A	50.853	15-17
O'Callaghan D B (1)	47.981	18-21
Catchpole B	45.981	18-21
Heater D (1)	42.125	18-21

FIGURE 7

HISTOGRAM: GRADED DIFFICULTY LEVELS OF RESOURCE MATERIALS AND PASSAGES



An observation of the histogram suggests the following: The highest scores in passage 'A', those with 68% and above, should be able to attempt resources such as York, Harris and Nicholson, which are rated among the difficult resources in the survey. The weak performers in passage 'A', those who scored below 40%, might possibly use Helitzer and Heater (2) appropriately, but might be more efficiently engaged with books at the level of Speed or O'Callaghan (2), whose ratings are fairly easy, and in Kerry and Sands' estimate, are appropriate for first language readers of 12 years of age.

Those who scored highest marks in passage 'B' (scored over 50%), which is the most difficult passage in the test, could use the resources by York, Harris, Nicholson and O'Callaghan (1).

With regard to passage 'C', the group that did well in this passage (scoring over 60%) could probably handle all the resources listed, except Catchpole and Heater (1).

It might be argued that only those who scored the highest marks in passage 'B' would be capable of handling either of the text books independently.

Those pupils whose performance was bad would not be in a position to use the resources profitably and might even have difficulty with them after extensive teacher explanation. Nearly all the pupils clearly need to be provided with easier resources than the commonly-found text books, in order to make them understand history taught at this level.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this thesis is to find a way of selecting and matching resource material to the pupils' abilities at Standard 10 level. The thesis, therefore, involved, initially, a selection of seven passages which were expected to be of varying reading difficulty. The passages were selected from resources dealing with the American Civil War and American War of Independence. In order to test the varying difficulty of the passages, readability formulae were made use of. Consequently, Flesch's Reading Ease Formula and Gunning's Fog Index were used on the passages. On the basis of these two formulae, four passages out of the original seven were finally selected.

The next stage of the research was to test a selected group of pupils on the passages. Consequently, the pupils were asked to do a comprehension test on the four passages of varying difficulty and their performance on these passages analysed. The pupils' scores were reflected in histograms, showing groups which clearly could handle material at particular levels of difficulty; groups which could manage the material with some difficulty, and groups which clearly could not manage the material at all.

The next step involved a selection of a series of resource materials of varying difficulty, dealing with a common topic in the matriculation syllabus, the Cold War. In each case, two passages were chosen from the book or chapter, to which the Flesch rating was applied. A comparison of the difficulty level of these resources, with the pupils' performances on the passages of similar difficulty level, was done in order that decision about the selection and possible purchase of resource materials could be made.

The teacher could use the test to get some idea of the comprehension levels of the class. The teacher could put the results on the histogram to see how the clusters emerge and create three or four relatively homogeneous groups.

Then, as the teacher begins to build up resources, he could apply the Flesch rating to every new book which is acquired by the school, so

that he could decide the group for which the book is most appropriate. The Flesch rating can also be used to decide which further books might be ordered, so as to meet the needs of the class. By using the test, the teacher can decide at the beginning of the year the kinds of resource materials to use for his/her class at matriculation level.

The teacher could also devise a comprehension test for books (one for each book) that are bought, and also observe the pupils' ratings on the test and their comprehension of the books. This would be a further check to see how accurately the test relates to the ability of the pupils' comprehension of the reading matter selected for different groups.

APPENDIX 1

FIRST CHOICE OF PASSAGES

THE LOYALISTS

"As in all civil wars the American Revolution broke up long friendships and loving families. The Rebel leader Benjamin Franklin never forgave his son William for remaining a Loyalist.

How many Loyalists were there? No one knows exactly, but there were Loyalists in every colony. Probably about one third of all the people who took an active part in the Revolution were loyalists in sympathy.

Why, if there were Loyalists everywhere, and Great Britain's army and navy were behind them, did their side lose? The Loyalists never worked together as well as the Rebels did. They laughed at Sam Adams's Committee of Correspondence but never got together themselves so that Loyalists in one colony could exchange ideas and news, or even find out who were Loyalists in the other colonies.

Most important: before the Declaration of Independence many Loyalists and Rebels agreed politically on many things. They both resented the King's ministers. They both opposed 'taxation without representation'. They both wanted a restoration of their 'Englishmen's rights'. What they disagreed about was independence itself. The Loyalists feared the 'mob rule' independence might bring far more than they resented Parliament's nex taxes.

Since the two parties agreed on so much, the Loyalists were caught off guard when, in July 1776, independence was declared. Suddenly, after 4 July, they were no longer considered law-abiding citizens, but traitors to their native land! And if their wealth and position made them the objects of envy, Rebel mobs threatened them with tar and feathers, so they fled out of the country. Over 50 000 Loyalists fought during the Revolution. The names of some of their regiments are the British Legion, the King's Orange Rangers and the Maryland Loyalists.

What became of the Loyalists after the Revolution? If their position did not excite envy in their neighbours, if they kept their political opinions to themselves, if they never fought against the Rebels, they could live quietly, without being attacked, right through the Revolution and afterwards. Many of them did, and became leaders in the young American republic. but if they left the country during the Revolution or joined the British Army, their lands and property were confiscated."

(Clarcke C, The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 91-93)

THE OLIVE BRANCH PETITION

"During the first year few, if any, Rebels fought for freedom from the Empire. In March 1775, Benjamin Franklin told Lord Chatham that he had never heard any American, drunk or sober, hint that he wanted a permanent separation from England.

Even the battles of Concord and Lexington did not mean an open break. While Congress was creating an army and launching an invasion into Canada, it still hoped for **reconciliation**. As John Adams put it: 'Hold the sword in one hand and the olive branch in the other.'

This was the mood in which the Second Continental Congress in the Summer of 1775 sent 'The Olive Branch Petition' to King George.

Signed by forty-six delegates it was addressed to their 'Most Gracious Sovereign'. It said that the colonists earnestly wanted their 'former **harmony**' and a 'permanent reconciliation'. In the meantime it asked that the killing of 'Your Majesty's subjects' stop and the laws that distressed them be **repealed**.

King George refused to accept or read the petition. In August he proclaimed the Rebels 'wicked and desperate persons' and urged their countrymen to inform on their 'treasons and traitorous conspiracies'. In December he followed up this Proclamation with the **Prohibitory Acts**. They stated that the colonies were no longer under British protection, all American ports would be **blockaded**, and all American ships seized on the high seas.

The moderates in Congress were bitterly disappointed by the King's actions. As a Virginia delegate, Thomas Jefferson, wrote, 'It is an immense misfortune to the whole empire to have a king of such a **disposition** at such a time.' But the more fiery Rebels claimed that the king had now forced independence on them."

(Clarcke C, The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 23-24)

ALLIANCES AGAINST BRITAIN

"For a long time Americans had looked upon the two Catholic countries of France and Spain as dangerous enemies. Then Congress was so short of money and materials in the early part of the war that it had to overcome its fears and set up a 'Committee for Secret Correspondence' to negotiate with them. France and Spain had no love for Britain and were ready to help. France had lost Canada and other possessions in the Seven Years War, and Spain was anxious to get back Gibraltar and Minorca lost to Britain in earlier wars. Both countries sent large amounts of money and supplies to the Americans before 1778, and after Saratoga, France was convinced that this was the time to strike down her old enemy. The Spaniards joined in the following year.

To make things even worse for Britain, a quarrel developed with Holland. The Dutch were selling supplies to the Americans and the British attacked their ships in an attempt to stop it. In 1780 Sweden, Denmark and Russia joined in a League of Armed Neutrality, and closed the Baltic to British warships as a reprisal for British interference with their trade.

Britain was now isolated in Europe and threatened at many points in the world. Would she have the forces and resources to cover them? If not, how could she make best use of what she had? Lord North decided to negotiate with the rebels. He offered to grant all their demands about government and taxation, and more control over their own affairs, but it was the familiar story of doing the right thing too late. The colonists wanted independence. At the same time as he was negotiating for peace, North was sending instructions to the new commander-in-chief General Clinton for the next campaign of the war."

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 32-34)

THE BOSTON TEA PARTY

"Those who have read about the British in India will know that the great East India Company was near to bankruptcy in 1770. To help this private trading company, the British government decided in 1773 to allow it to send its tea directly to America, and not through Britain, in order to increase sales by reducing the price. The tea carried the Townshend duty, but was still cheaper than the tea smuggled in by American merchants. These merchants, who had made good profits from tea, were very angry, and they dressed up as Red Indians, boarded the first tea ships from India, and threw the chests into the harbour at Boston. There were similar 'tea parties' in Charleston, New York and Annapolis.

Coming at the end of ten years of worsening relations, this was an act of disobedience which the British government could not ignore. It 'took out the big stick' and passed some ferocious measures known as the Punitive Acts (1774) which closed the port of Boston (see map on page 19), demanded repayment in full for the tea, and in the meantime put the colony of Massachusetts under the control of the British military commander. In this way, Britain set out to teach the rebellious colonists a lesson.

The colonists, however, did not take all this lying down. They met (all except Georgia) in a congress at Philadelphia in 1774 in a defiant mood. They said that all trade with Britain would stop, and that if force was used against Massachusetts they would all resist. They adjourned, agreeing to meet again in May 1775 if their grievances had not been put right. Lord North's government regarded all this as complete disobedience, and ordered General Gage, the commander at Boston, to seize a store of arms as a precaution. When the troops went to do this, they were opposed by a group of farmers at Lexington, where the first shot in the war was fired. War had started, to the surprise of many Americans and Englishmen."

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 8-10)

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

"Abraham Lincoln and Secession. Like many brought up on the frontier Lincoln was personally opposed to slavery, but he did not think it right to impose his personal opinion on the whole country. He also thought the Declaration of Independence was hostile to slavery in the long run.

But a practical solution was extremely difficult. To send Negroes back to Africa was impractical; to free them but not give social and political equality would be no improvement; to give equality was impossible in the short run because, right or wrong, the strength of white feeling could not be ignored. The only alternative left was gradual emancipation. Immediately there were some specific steps to take. Lincoln recognised the constitutional right of the planters to recapture slaves who were their property, but he held that the Fugitive Slave Law was too easily abused. Free men were sometimes made slaves. This would mean at least a change in the Fugitive Slave Law.

Lincoln realised that no compromise was really possible.

Lincoln was elected...As President in 1861 Lincoln said that there would be no interference with southern property but that secession was impossible under the Constitution and that he would continue to govern the South..."

(Beacroft B W, Smale M A, The making of America: from wilderness to world power, pp. 89-90)

THOMAS JEFFERSON

"Jefferson welcomed Tom Paine's **Rights of Man**, dedicated to Washington. A bitter press campaign broke out, centring upon Federalism versus state rights. Washington wished to retire at the end of his first Presidential term in 1792, but was persuaded to stay on. Jefferson said: "North and South will hang together if they have you to hang on to." So, on 4th March, 1793, Washington was re-inaugurated. In the same year war broke out in Europe, as the French Revolutionaries had executed their King, Louis XVI, and threatened to destroy European monarchy as a whole. Washington wanted neutrality and was supported by Hamilton. But Jefferson believed that America owed obligations to the French people, and to the cause of universal liberty. The Democratic Societies, or Jacobin Clubs, became part of a party led by Jefferson, with his home at Monticello as its base. Washington, however, with Hamilton, continually stressed neutrality and the need for strong central government. Washington's authoritarianism was shown when, during the 1794 rebellion in Pennsylvania against the excise tax, and against the wishes of Jeffersonians, he called out the military. Also against Jefferson's wishes, Washington concluded a treaty with the British in April, 1794. Washington welcomed the end of his second Presidential term.

(Parkinson R, The American Revolution, pp. 122-123)

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

"The American Revolution did not start as a war for independence. During its first year, no Americans said they wanted to leave the British Empire. What they wanted was the restoration of their 'Englishmen's rights' within the Empire. These rights King George III and his government threatened. Not until after July 1776, when the Americans had tried and tried to explain how they felt to the King, and he had refused to listen, did they declare independence.

Since 1607, for over 150 years, Englishmen had crossed the Atlantic and started new colonies on the east coast of North America.

During the first 150 years of the American colonies, the government in England paid little attention to them. The colonists were allowed to develop their own life and laws - many of them, naturally, quite different from the life and laws that were developing back in England.

Though the colonies became different from the English politically, they still fought for her. Whenever England had a war with France, Holland or Spain in Europe, the colonies fought her enemies in America. The last of these wars they called the French and Indian War. (It was part of the Seven Years War..."

(Clarcke C, The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 1-3)

APPENDIX 2

THE FIRST VERSION OF THE TEST

THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

During the seventeenth century thousands of people left Britain for various reasons, in order to settle in other parts of the world. Some of them settled in thirteen British colonies on the east coast of North America. Though they had settled in America, they remained British subjects. For several reasons, the Americans wished to be independent of Britain. This feeling led to a revolt against, and a demand for independence from Britain. To stop the revolt, Britain declared war on the American colonies. For various reasons, countries such as France, Spain, Holland, Sweden, Denmark and Russia joined the war against Britain. As a result of this war, the American colonists got their independence from Britain.

The content of the following passages consists of some of the events that led to the War of American Independence. Read each passage and answer the questions asked.

PASSAGE A

THE BOSTON TEA PARTY

Those who have read about the British in India will know that the great East India Company was near to bankruptcy in 1770. To help this private trading company, the British government decided in 1773 to allow it to send its tea direct to America, and not through Britain, in order to increase sales by reducing the price. The tea carried the Townshend duty, but was still cheaper than the tea smuggled in by American merchants. These merchants who had made good profits from tea, were very angry, and they dressed up as Red Indians, boarded the first tea ships from India, and threw the chests into the harbour at Boston. There were similar 'tea parties' in Charlestown, New York and Annapolis.

Coming at the end of ten years of worsening relations, this was an act of disobedience which the British government could not ignore. It 'took out the big stick' and passed some ferocious measures known as the Punitive Acts (1774) which closed the port of Boston, demanded repayment in full for the tea, and in the meantime put the colony of Massachusetts under the control of the British military commander. In this way Britain set out to teach the rebellious colonists a lesson.

The colonists, however, did not take all this lying down. They met (all except Georgia) in a congress at Philadelphia in 1774 in a defiant mood. They said that all trade with Britain would stop, and that if force was used against Massachusetts they would resist. They adjourned, agreeing to meet again in May 1775 if their grievances had not been put right. Lord North's government regarded all this as complete disobedience, and ordered General Gage, the commander at Boston, to seize a store of arms as a precaution. When the troops went to do this, they were opposed by a group of farmers at Lexington, where the first shot

in the war was fired. War had started, to the surprise of many Americans and Englishmen.

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 8-10)

1. What did the British government do in 1773 to save the East India Company from bankruptcy?

2. Why would the price be reduced by sending the tea directly to America?

3. What did the American merchants do to show their anger when tea was sent directly to America?

4. List the things that Britain did to punish the Americans for their 'tea parties'.

5. When the colonists met in Philadelphia, list the things that they agreed to do if Britain punished the colonists.

6. How did the British government feel about this meeting in Philadelphia?

7. What did Lord North order General Gage to do?

8. A tea party usually means people sitting in a house and drinking tea. Why were the events in this passage called "tea parties"?

GLOSSARY

Smuggled	: brought goods into country illegally, without paying customs duties.
Punitive Acts	: laws intended to punish wrongdoers.
Adjourned	: postponed discussion until another fixed time was arranged.

---oOo---

PASSAGE B

THE OLIVE BRANCH PETITION

During the first year, few, if any, Rebels fought for freedom from the Empire. In March 1775, Benjamin Franklin told Lord Chatham that he had never heard any American, drunk or sober, hint that he wanted a permanent separation from England.

Even the battles of Concord and Lexington did not mean an open break. While congress was creating an army and launching an invasion into Canada, it still hoped for reconciliation. As Adams put it: 'Hold the sword in one hand and the olive branch in the other.'

This was the mood in which the Second Continental Congress in the Summer of 1775 sent 'The Olive Branch Petition' to King George.

Signed by forty-six delegates it was addressed to their 'Most Gracious Sovereign'. It said that the colonists earnestly wanted their 'former harmony' and a 'permanent reconciliation'. In the meantime it asked that the killing of 'Your Majesty's subjects' stop and the laws that distressed them be repealed.

King George refused to accept or read the petition. In August he proclaimed the rebels wicked and desperate persons, and urged their countrymen to inform on their 'treasons and traitorous conspiracies'. In December he followed up this Proclamation with the Prohibitory Acts. They stated that colonies were no longer under British protection, all American ports would be blockaded, and all American ships seized on the high seas.

The moderates in Congress were bitterly disappointed by the King's action. As a Virginia delegate, Thomas Jefferson, wrote, 'It is an immense misfortune to the whole empire to have a king of such a disposition at such a time'. But the more fiery Rebels claimed that the king had now forced independence on them.

(Marjorie Reeves, ed., The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 23-24)

1. At the Second Congress at Philadelphia, what was the main hope of the colonists?

2. In their petition to the King, what two things did the colonists ask for?

3. How did the King describe the writers of this letter?

4. What did the King threaten to do?

5. Why did Jefferson regard the King's reaction to the letter as a 'misfortune to the Empire'?

6. The answer to this next question is not in this passage. Explain why the letter was called the Olive Branch Petition?

GLOSSARY

Rebels	:	people who fight against the established government, authority, control.
Reconciliation	:	establishment of friendly relations with former friend.
Invasion	:	a hostile entry into another country.
Repealed	:	laws removed; laws abandoned.
Treasons	:	failure to be loyal to the state which is punishable by death.
Conspiracies	:	secret plots for doing evil.
Prohibitory Acts	:	laws intended to forbid people from doing certain things.

Blockaded : surrounded a place by hostile forces.

Moderates : people who avoid extremes, who hold mild views.

PASSAGE C

LOYALISTS

As in all civil wars the American Revolution broke up long friendships and loving families. The Rebel leader Benjamin Franklin never forgave his son William for remaining a Loyalist.

How many Loyalists were there? No one knows exactly, but there were Loyalists in every Colony. Probably about one third of all the people who took an active part in the revolution were Loyalists in sympathy.

Why, if there were Loyalists everywhere, and Great Britain's army and navy were behind them, did their side lose? The Loyalists never worked together as well as the Rebels did. They laughed at Sam Adam's Committees of correspondence but never got together themselves so that Loyalists in one colony could exchange ideas and news, or even find out who were Loyalists in the other colonies.

Most important: before the Declaration of Independence many Loyalists and Rebels agreed politically on many things. They both resented the King's ministers. They both opposed 'taxation without representation'. They both wanted a restoration of their 'Englishmen's rights'. What they disagreed about was independence itself. The Loyalists feared the 'mob rule' independence might bring far more than they resented Parliament's new taxes.

Since the two parties agreed on so much, the Loyalists were caught off guard when, in July 1776, independence was declared. Suddenly, after 4 July, they were no longer considered law-abiding citizens, but traitors to their native land. And if their wealth and position made them the objects of envy, Rebel mobs threatened them with tar and feathers, so they fled out of the country. Over 50 000 Loyalists fought during the Revolution. The names of some of their regiments are the British Legion, the King's Orange Rangers and the Maryland Loyalists.

What became of the Loyalists after the Revolution?
If their position did not excite envy in their neighbours, if they kept their political opinions to themselves, if they never fought against the Rebels, they could live quietly, without being attacked, right through the Revolution and afterwards. Many of them did, and became leaders in the young American republic. But if they left the country during the Revolution or joined the British Army, their lands and property were confiscated.

(Marjorie Reeves, ed., The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 91-93)

1. According to the passage, what was the effect of the American Revolution on human relations?

2. Why did Benjamin Franklin not forgive his son?

3. Name the two sides which were fighting during this war.

4. Which side won the war?

5. According to the passage, what helped this side to win?

6. Why did the Loyalists flee from the country?

7. Why were the Loyalists considered traitors after independence?

8. Explain what a civil war is.

GLOSSARY

Revolution	:	forcible action by a nation to substitute new system of government.
Committees of Correspondence	:	a group of people elected to receive and to send out letters.
Independence	:	not depending on authority or control of another country.
Republic	:	a state in which supreme power is held by the people or its elected.
Loyalists	:	persons who are faithful and devoted to the existing government.

PASSAGE D

ALLIANCES AGAINST BRITAIN

For a long time Americans had looked upon the two Catholic countries of France and Spain as dangerous enemies. Then Congress was so short of money and materials in the early part of the war that it had to overcome its fears and set up a 'Committee for Secret Correspondence' to negotiate with them. France and Spain had no love for Britain and were ready to help. France had lost Canada and other possessions in the Seven Years War, and Spain was anxious to get back Gibraltar and Minorca, lost to Britain in earlier wars. Both countries sent large amounts of money and supplies to the Americans before 1778, and after Saratoga, France was convinced that this was the time to strike down her old enemy. The Spaniards joined in the following year.

To make things even worse for Britain, a quarrel developed with Holland. The Dutch were selling supplies to the Americans and the British attacked their ships in an attempt to stop it. in 1780 Sweden, Denmark and Russia joined in a League of Armed Neutrality, and closed the Baltic to British warships as a reprisal for British interference with their trade.

Britain was now isolated in Europe and threatened at many points in the world. Would she have the forces and resources to cover them? If not, how could she make best use of what she had? Lord North decided to negotiate with the rebels. He offered to grant all their demands about government and taxation, and more control over their own affairs, but it was the familiar story of doing the right thing too late. The colonists wanted independence. At the same time as he was negotiating for peace, North was sending instructions to the new commander-in-chief General Clinton for the next campaign of the war.

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 32-34)

1. How did the Americans regard France and Spain at first?

2. What made the Americans start negotiating with the Catholic countries of France and Spain?

3. As the war continued, Britain found she had more and more enemies. List the countries which were against her and then say why each country was against Britain. Use the tables to give your answer.

COUNTRY	REASON FOR BEING BRITAIN'S ENEMY
American colonies	
France	
Spain	
Holland	
Sweden	
Denmark	
Russia	

4. Americans decided to set up a 'Committee for Secret Correspondence' to negotiate with France and Spain. Why was the correspondence secret?

5. What did Lord North offer the rebels?

6. Why did the rebels not accept Lord North's offers?

APPENDIX 3

REVISED VERSION OF THE TEST

THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

During the seventeenth century thousands of people left Britain for various reasons, in order to settle in other parts of the world. Some of them settled in thirteen British colonies on the east coast of North America. Though they had settled in America, they remained British subjects. For several reasons, the Americans wished to be independent of Britain. This feeling led to a revolt against, and a demand for independence from Britain. To stop the revolt, Britain declared war on the American colonies. For various reasons, countries such as France, Spain, Holland, Sweden, Denmark and Russia joined the war against Britain. As a result of this war, the American colonies got their independence from Britain.

The content of the following passages consists of some of the events that led to the War of American Independence. Read each passage and answer the questions asked.

PASSAGE A

THE BOSTON TEA PARTY

Those who have read about the British in India will know that the great East India Company was near to bankruptcy in 1770. To help this private trading company, the British government decided in 1773 to allow it to send its tea direct to America, and not through Britain, in order to increase sales by reducing the price. The tea carried the Townshend duty, but was still cheaper than the tea smuggled in by American merchants. These merchants who had made good profits from tea, were very angry, and they dressed up as Red Indians, boarded the first tea ships from India, and threw the chests into the harbour at Boston. There were similar 'tea parties' in Charleston, New York and Annapolis.

Coming at the end of ten years of worsening relations, this was an act of disobedience which the British government could not ignore. It 'took out the big stick' and passed some ferocious measures known as the Punitive Acts (1774) which closed the port of Boston, demanded repayment in full for the tea, and in the meantime put the colony of Massachusetts under the control of the British military commander. In this way Britain set out to teach the rebellious colonists a lesson.

The colonists, however, did not take all this lying down. They met (all except Georgia) in a congress at Philadelphia in 1774 in a defiant mood. They said that all trade with Britain would stop, and that if force was used against Massachusetts they would resist. They adjourned, agreeing to meet again in May 1775 if their grievances had not been put right. Lord North's government regarded all this as complete disobedience, and ordered General Gage, the commander at Boston, to seize a store of arms as a precaution. When the troops went to do this, they were opposed by a group of farmers at Lexington, where the first shot in the war was fired. War had started, to the surprise of many Americans and Englishmen.

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 8-10)

GLOSSARY

Smuggled : brought goods into country illegally, without paying customs duties.

Punitive Acts : laws intended to punish wrongdoers.

Adjourned : postponed discussion until another fixed time was arranged.

Write your answers in the spaces provided.

1. What did the British government do in 1773 to save the East India Company from bankruptcy? (2)

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2. Why would the price be reduced by sending the tea directly to America? (4)

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3. What did the American merchants do to show their anger when tea was sent directly to America? (3)

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4. List the things that Britain did to punish the Americans for their 'tea parties' (3)

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5. When the colonists met in Philadelphia, list the things that they agreed to do, if Britain punished the colonists. (3)

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6. How did the British government feel about this meeting in Philadelphia? (1)

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7. What did Lord North order General Gage to do? (1)

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8. Why would General Gage be worried about a store of arms owned by the rebels? (2)

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9. People who are rebellious are called rebels. What does a rebel mean? (1)

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10. A tea party usually means people sitting in a house and drinking tea. Why were the events in this passage called 'tea parties'? (2)

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11. If you were to describe Lord North, the British Prime Minister, which of these words would you choose? Underline three words.

(worried, seeking revenge, contemptuous, helpful, angry, friendly) (3)

(25)

PASSAGE B

THE OLIVE BRANCH PETITION

During the first year, few, if any, Rebels fought for freedom from the Empire. In march 1775, Benjamin Franklin told Lord Chatham that he had never heard any American, drunk or sober, hint that he wanted a permanent separation from England.

Even the battles of Concord and Lexington did not mean an open break. While congress was creating an army and launching an invastion into Canada, it still hoped for reconciliation. As Adams put it: 'Hold the sword in one hand and the olive branch in the other.'

This was the mood in which the Second Continental Congress in the Summer of 1775 sent 'The Olive Branch Petition' to King George.

Signed by forty-six delegates it was addressed to their 'Most Gracious Sovereign'. It said that the colonists earnestly wanted their 'former harmony' and a 'permanent reconciliation'. In the meantime it asked

that the killing of 'Your Majesty's subjects' stop and the laws that distressed them be repealed.

King George refused to accept or read the petition. In August he proclaimed the rebels wicked and desperate persons, and urged their countrymen to inform on their 'treasons and traitorous conspiracies'. In December he followed up this Proclamation with the Prohibitory Acts. They stated that colonies were no longer under British protection, all American ports would be blockaded, and all American ships seized on the high seas.

The moderates in Congress were bitterly disappointed by the King's action. As a Virginia delegate, Thomas Jefferson, wrote, 'It is an immense misfortune to the whole empire to have a king of such a disposition at such a time.' But the more fiery Rebels claimed that the king had now forced independence on them.

(Marjorie Reeves, ed., The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 23-24)

GLOSSARY

Rebels	:	people who fight against the established government, authority, control.
Reconciliation	:	establishment of friendly relations with former friend.
Invasion	:	a hostile entry into another country.
Repealed	:	laws removed; laws abandoned.
Treasons	:	failure to be loyal to the state which is punishable by death.
Conspiracies	:	secret plots for doing evil.
Prohibitory Acts	:	laws intended to forbid people from doing certain things.
Blockaded	:	surrounded a place by hostile forces.
Moderates	:	people who avoid extremes, who hold mild views.

1. At the Second Congress at Philadelphia, what was the main hope of the colonists? (1)

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2. Up to the time that the Americans sent the Olive Branch Petition, most of them wanted peace with Britain, to still be a colony of Britain, to break with Britain, to defeat Britain in a war, to be treated as equals, to have some say in their own government, to sink all British ships. (Underline the four correct answers.) (4)

3. According to the passage, how many battles had there been before the Olive Branch Petition? (3)

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4. In their petition to the King, what two things did the colonists ask for? (2)

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5. How long was it between the passing of the Punitive Acts and the sending of the Olive Branch Petition? (3)

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6. How did the King describe the writers of this letter? (1)

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7. What did the King threaten to do? (3)

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8. Why did Jefferson regard the King's reaction to the letter as a 'misfortune to the Empire?' (4)

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9. The answer to this next question is not in this passage. Explain why the letter was called the Olive Branch Petition. (4)

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(25)

PASSAGE C

LOYALISTS

As in all civil wars, the American Revolution broke up long friendships and loving families. The Rebel leader, Benjamin Franklin, never forgave his son, William, for remaining a Loyalist.

How many Loyalists were there? No one knows exactly, but there were Loyalists in every Colony. Probably about one-third of all the people who took an active part in the revolution were Loyalists in sympathy.

Why, if there were Loyalists everywhere, and Great Britain's army and navy were behind them, did their side lose? The Loyalists never worked together as well as the Rebels did. They laughed at Sam Adam's Committees of correspondence but never got together themselves so that Loyalists in one colony could exchange ideas and news, or even find out who were Loyalists in the other colonies.

Most important: before the Declaration of Independence many Loyalists and Rebels agreed politically on many things. They both resented the King's ministers. They both opposed 'taxation without representation'. They both wanted a restoration of their 'Englishmen's rights'. What they disagreed about was independence itself. The Loyalists feared the 'mob rule' independence might bring far more than they resented Parliament's new taxes.

Since the two parties agreed on so much, the Loyalists were caught off guard when, in July 1776, independence was declared. Suddenly, after 4 July, they were no longer considered law-abiding citizens, but traitors to their native land. And if their wealth and position made them the objects of envy, Rebel mobs threatened them with tar and feathers, so they fled out of the country. Over 50 000 Loyalists fought during the Revolution. The names of some of their regiments are the British Legion, the King's Orange Rangers and the Maryland Loyalists.

What became of the Loyalists after the Revolution? If their position did not excite envy in their neighbours, if they kept their political opinions to themselves, if they never fought against the Rebels, they could live quietly, without being attacked, right through the Revolution and afterwards. Many of them did, and became leaders in the young American republic. But if they left the country during the Revolution or joined the British Army, their lands and property were confiscated.

(Marjorie Reeves, ed., The American Revolution 1775.83, pp. 91-93)

GLOSSARY

Revolution	:	forcible action by a nation to substitute new system of government.
Committees of Correspondence	:	a group of people elected to receive and to send out letters.
Independence	:	not depending on authority or control of another country.
Republic	:	a state in which supreme power is held by the people or its elected.
Loyalists	:	persons who are faithful and devoted to the existing government.

1. According to the passage, what was the effect of the American Revolution on human relations? (1)

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2. Why did Benjamin Franklin not forgive his son? (1)

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3. Name the two sides which were fighting during this war. (1)

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4. Which side won the war? (1)

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5. The passage says, both the Loyalists and the Rebels objected to 'taxation without representation'. Finish the following sentence, to show that you know what this means: They did not want to pay taxes unless... (2)

.....

6. According to the passage, what helped this side to win? (1)

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7. Why did the Loyalists flee from the country? (1)

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8. What would happen if someone tarred and feathered you? (1)

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9. Why were the Loyalists considered traitors after independence? (2)

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10. According to the passage, the Loyalists: were all wealthy, were against independence, were stronger than the rebels, all kept their feelings secret, feared rule by the uneducated mob, did not expect the colonies to declare their independence from Britain, were well organised, all fled from America after the war. (Underline the ones you think are right.) (2)

11. Explain what a civil war is (2)

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(15)

PASSAGE D

ALLIANCES AGAINST BRITAIN

For a long time Americans had looked upon the two Catholic countries of France and Spain as dangerous enemies. Then Congress was so short of money and materials in the early part of the war that it had to overcome its fears and set up a 'Committee for Secret Correspondence' to negotiate with them. France and Spain had no love for Britain and were ready to help. France had lost Canada and other possessions in the Seven Years War, and Spain was anxious to get back Gibraltar and Minorca, lost to Britain in earlier wars. Both countries sent large amounts of money and supplies to the Americans before 1778, and after Saratoga, France was convinced that this was the time to strike down her old enemy. The Spaniards joined in the following year.

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1. How did the Americans regard France and Spain at first? (1)

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2. What made the Americans start negotiating with the Catholic countries of France and Spain? (1)

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Spain		(1)
Holland		(1)
Sweden		(1)
Denmark		(1)
Russia		(1)

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6. Why did the rebels not accept Lord North's offers? (1)

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(15)

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