

**A CASE STUDY OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT  
FOR HISTORY TEACHERS IN RURAL  
KWAZULU SCHOOLS**

**BY  
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## ABSTRACT

The aim of the study was to report and evaluate a programme of teacher development in which the teachers themselves would be actively involved.

A case study approach was adopted to monitor the programme of teacher development for history teachers within the context of six high schools in the rural area of Nongoma between July 1992 and December 1993.

The teachers worked collectively in identifying, analysing and classifying the needs that were relevant to their particular circumstances.

Teachers were observed in real classroom situations and commented on their experiences after working collectively.

After being observed in real classroom situations teachers attempted to use teaching methods other than those they had been using before. Teaching methods attempted included group work, the skills-based approach and teaching for empathy.

Recommendations were made for further teacher development . These included:

- \* putting time aside for professional development for such activities to be successful;

- \* assisting teachers during pre-service training to produce cheap teaching aids; and
- \* encouraging teachers to identify their needs in the field of professional development.

## **PREFACE**

The study described in this dissertation was carried out at selected schools of Nongoma Circuit under the former KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture (KDEC) from July 1992 to December 1993.

Names such as former KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture and former Natal Education Department (NED) have been used since these departments existed at the time of the research. These departments together with Department of Education and Training (DET), House of Delegates (HOD) and House of Representatives (HOR) have since amalgamated into one department for the KwaZulu-Natal province.

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6. My family, particularly my wife Nonhlanhla, and my children Siphamandla and Zekhethelo, for their unfailing support throughout the period of this study.

This work is dedicated to my father Victor and my mother Florah.

## **DECLARATION**

I declare that:

**"A CASE STUDY OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR HISTORY  
TEACHERS IN RURAL KWAZULU SCHOOLS"**

represents original work by the author and has not otherwise been submitted in any form for any degree or diploma to any university. Where use has been made of the work of others, it is duly acknowledged in the text.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### BACKGROUND AND OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to report and evaluate a programme of teacher development of six high schools in the rural area of Nongoma between July 1992 and December 1993.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Teachers in any education system play a key role in determining the form of education that takes place in the classroom. A group of well qualified, professionally competent and motivated teachers form a basis on which a sound education system can be built. Boyer (cited in Parker) contends that:

..... the only way we're going to get from where we are to where we want to be is through staff development. When you talk about school improvement you're talking about people improvement (1990:87).

Similar sentiments are shared by Fullan in arguing that "educational change depends on what teachers do and think" (1991:117).

From the foregoing statements, it is clear therefore, that if education institutions are to improve, the individuals within them must change. The professional development of teachers is an integral part of curriculum development since in the final analysis the strength of any education system depends on the quality of its professional staff. Rubin (1978) argues that even if preparation for a teaching career was adequate, training would become antiquated within a short time.

One of the ways in which teachers can develop professionally is through working collaboratively. Lortie, emphasizing the need for putting time aside for professional development, maintains that:

The vast majority of classroom teachers continue to work apart from other adults. Opportunities for mutual consultation are limited during the working day, and contacts between teachers are peripheral to their major obligations..... time should be set aside to have teachers observe special lessons taught by peers and visitors (1975: 232).

Whether teachers are prepared to sacrifice their leisure time for professional development would largely be influenced by their motivational level and the importance they attribute to such a programme.

## 2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Teacher groupings are universally accepted as one of the means by which professional development can be carried out. Different names have been used within the various departments of education in South Africa to refer to these teacher groupings. In the former Natal Education Department they are called the Subject Associations while in the former KwaZulu Education Department they are known as the Subject Committees.

In the experience of the researcher, Subject Committees within the former KwaZulu education department have not enjoyed much success. This is likely to have been caused mainly by the top-down approaches that have been used in implementing them. Some "experts" claiming to know what the needs of the teachers are, often came up with grand designs that the teachers had to adopt. The result has often been that these programmes were rejected by the teachers. Teachers function in different settings and the circumstances surrounding them are not the same. Stenhouse argues that:

... the uniqueness of each classroom setting implies that any proposal - even at school level - needs to be tested and verified and adapted by each teacher in his own classroom. The ideal is that the curricular specification should feed a teacher's personal research and development programme through which he is progressively increasing his understanding of his work and

hence bettering his teaching (1975: 143).

In the problem-solving approach of his innovation model Havelock calls for a model of curriculum development which recognizes the active role of the teachers. The focus of this orientation is the users themselves, their needs, and what they do about satisfying their needs is paramount (Eraut, 1972).

### 3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The major purpose of the study was to report and evaluate a programme of teacher development in which the teachers themselves were actively involved. The focus of the development programme was on the teacher as a change agent. This was underpinned by the need to involve teachers collectively in the process of development if effective curriculum development was to be achieved.

This perspective on teacher development was adopted after reading the literature on curriculum innovation and change. Another influence was the experience the writer had obtained in working in the field as a teacher in rural schools. In the writer's own experience as a teacher, a great deal of collective action of the teachers had been imposed from outside without the teachers being convinced of the rationale thereof.

The needs of the teachers, therefore, as they view them and the means to adopt in satisfying those needs, require serious attention if such a programme were to be different from what had been a common practice in the past in the former KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture.

This study of professional development of the teachers was carried in the Nongoma area. The rural nature of the place had a number of implications for the study:

- \* there is a large number of unqualified teachers;
- \* the remoteness of the place and the distance from centres of learning hinder the potential to attract highly qualified personnel;
- \* it is far away from big centres where libraries and other documents needed for the subject history are found; and
- \* the sparse population in the region calls for distant location of schools, resulting in the isolation of teachers.

#### 4.

#### TEACHER DEVELOPMENT FOR HISTORY TEACHERS IN NONGOMA

While teacher development is important for all serving teachers, the circumstances surrounding rural schools call for even more effort towards staff



development.

History teachers in Nongoma had had very few opportunities of sharing their classroom experiences with their colleagues. This programme of staff development for history teachers in Nongoma wanted to achieve that.

By engaging in a case study it was hoped that insights could be obtained into whether the collaborative activity of the participants led to their professional development.

#### 5. THE STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME, AND HOW IT DIFFERED FROM WHAT HAD BEEN ATTEMPTED IN THE PAST

The programme of teacher development in the Nongoma area was to be different from previous attempts in that it was intended to:

- \* involve the teachers in their own professional development;
- \* afford the teachers the opportunity to develop, monitor and evaluate their own work collaboratively and co-operatively;
- \* assist teachers to develop a sense of ownership of the project designed;
- \* afford teachers opportunities to improve the teaching of history through identifying their own needs themselves and working out means to have these needs satisfied, and
- \* afford the teachers the opportunities to evaluate the whole project.

This model of professional development planned for the history teachers aimed to achieve its goals by:

- \* utilizing the knowledge and skills of their colleagues and those of the other people outside the project; and
- \* providing a forum where teachers themselves would identify their own needs and work out solutions for such needs.

The basis on which this project was to function lay in the participation of the teachers in the design, implementation and evaluation programme.

## 6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This case study critically examines a programme of professional development for teachers in rural Nongoma schools mainly through collaborative action.

Research tools, such as questionnaires, discussions interview schedules and observation were used in obtaining data (See Appendices A - E).

## 7. PLAN OF THE STUDY.

Chapter one is introductory and it sets out the motivation behind the study as well as the method of investigation employed.

Chapter two is a theoretical exposition on staff development. It reviews some of the models of professional development that have been developed. The focus is on the teachers playing a major role in their own professional development. Subject groupings and the principle of networking between different schools is given special treatment in this chapter.

Chapter three considers history as a subject and its place in the secondary school curriculum. The nature of history as a school subject and some methods used in history teaching are discussed. Discussing history as a subject is necessary since this model of professional development involved history teachers.

Chapter four deals with the actual establishment of a group of history teachers and outlines the principles on which this model of professional development was based.

Chapter five discusses observational visits to the schools. It gives details on the researcher's visits to the school and the data collected from the visits.

Chapter six looks at the teaching methods attempted in the programme and the use of resource materials.

Chapter seven considers how the teachers evaluated the processes they had been engaged in and how those processes contributed to their professional development.

Chapter eight contains a summary and recommendations made for further study.

8.

## CONCLUSION

This chapter explored the background to the study and outlined how the study would progress.

## CHAPTER TWO

### THEORETICAL BACKGROUND ON STAFF DEVELOPMENT

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

The terms "In-service Training" (INSET) and "staff development" have been used interchangeably by many writers and while there is a clear similarity in the daily use of these terms, some writers have attempted to differentiate between them. It is of interest too to observe that there has been a shift in the meanings of these terms. INSET and staff development today are not viewed in the same way as they were viewed traditionally.

#### 2. DEFINITION OF THE CONCEPT OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

##### 2.1 In-service education

Traditionally the major tool for promoting the quality of the teacher has been in-service education. In-service education has been defined operationally as activities designed to improve skills, knowledge, attitudes or techniques relative to teachers' roles, predominantly that of instructor (Holly and McLoughlin, 1989).

In-service education was viewed as training which took place in institutions and which lasted for a few days. It was often characterized by removing teachers from their work place and thus also from the real world of their classrooms.

Edelfelt and Lawrence (cited in Parker) describe INSET in such terms as piecemeal, patchwork and haphazard. They contend that in-service education is seldom based on the needs of the teachers.

In-service education has also been seen as prescriptive, remedial, content-focused and organised and implemented by people in authority (Holly and McLoughlin, 1989).

The meaning of in-service education has changed in recent years. The definition of INSET as given by Thompson (cited in Hofmeyer and Pavlich) demonstrates this change. INSET is viewed as:

... The whole range of activities by which serving teachers and other categories of educationists (within the formal system) may extend and develop their personal education, professional competence and general understanding of the role which they and the schools are expected to play in their changing societies. INSET further includes the means whereby a teacher's personal needs and aspirations may be met, as well as

those of the system she/he serves (1987:82).

The definition offered by Thompson shows a marked difference between INSET as traditionally viewed and recent developments in the field. Aspects such as the total development of the teachers and their input in the programme of development were not catered for traditionally. Traditionally INSET programmes were course based with assumptions that one-week workshops would make the difference. These one-week workshops, have, however, been proved to be ineffective (Hopkins, 1989). Thompson's definition, although comprehensive, does not include professional development which may be gained through informal means.

In-service efforts are rooted in the belief that all personnel can improve their performance (Harris, 1989).

## 2.2

### Teacher (staff) development

While in-service training was traditionally interested in eradicating the deficiencies in teacher training, professional development signified lifelong learning for teachers. In-service education is only one of the ways in which professional development can be achieved.

Staff or teacher development is defined by Heideman as offering:

a process for growth to all professional educators. It is designed to influence their knowledge, attitudes or skills thus enabling them to create educational concepts and design instructional programs to improve student learning. These programs should be based on needs identified at the local, state, national or global level - often a result of societal changes (1990:4).

This definition recognizes the influence of the factors within the school for proper teacher development.

Hoyle and Meggary define professional development as a process by which:

teachers acquire the knowledge and skills essential to good professional practice at each stage of a teaching career (1980:42).

From the foregoing definitions of in-service education and teacher (staff) development, it is obvious that these two concepts are not synonymous. In-service education is only one part of staff development. It is almost exclusively informational. Staff development goes beyond that. It includes adaptations to change with the purpose of modifying instrumental activities and of changing teacher attitudes and improving student achievement.



What is true, however, is that both INSET and staff development aim to change the behaviour of people.

### 3. MODELS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Various models of curriculum development and innovation have influenced programmes on teacher development. Strategies which are used in effecting changes in the curriculum will have implications for the role of the teacher in the changes that are effected.

#### 3.1 Model of curriculum development developed by Bennis, Benne and Chin

McCornick and James (1989) cite the model of curriculum development as developed by Bennis, Benne and Chin (1969). This model offers three possibilities, that is, the power-coercive strategy, empirical-rational strategy and the normative-re-educative strategy.

##### a) Power-Coercive Strategy

The power-coercive strategy is based on the intervention of those with authority to alter individuals. Change is imposed by legislation or by the replacement of those in decision-making positions with people in sympathy with change.

b) Empirical-rational strategy

This strategy is based on the assumption that people are rational beings who will change their behaviour if the effectiveness of the concept is clearly demonstrated by research. This strategy bases its argument on the strength of the persuasive influence of the experts and the teachers being passive observers.

c) Normative-re-educative Strategy

The basis for this strategy is that changes will occur if individuals are committed to change the socio-cultural norms. The individuals must be convinced about the need for change. This strategy takes its rationale from the premise that all change must be participatory if it is to be effective. It places emphasis on the need for collaborative action between those who seek to bring about change and those who will implement it.

### 3.2

Model of curriculum development developed by Havelock

Another model of innovation is the one developed by Havelock. He identifies three approaches to innovation (Eraut, 1972). These are the Research Development and Diffusion, the Social Interaction, and the Problem Solving model.

a) Research Development and Diffusion (RD & D) model

This model assumes that change will be problem oriented and that it will be formulated inside the context in which it is applied. The user becomes more or less a passive but rational consumer who will accept and adopt the innovation offered if it is meaningful to him.

b) Social Interaction model

This model assumes that the user belongs to a network of social relations which largely influence his adoption behaviour. Personal contact with the members of the group and group identification largely determine the ultimate adoption of innovation.

c) Problem Solving model

This model sees the user as the initiators of innovation. Outsiders only support the user in the undertaking of innovation.

The RD & D model of Havelock has much in common with the power-coercive strategy of Bennis et al since they both look at change as being initiated from the centre and the people at the periphery having to implement the ideas of the experts.

The normative re-educative strategy of Bennis et al also has a lot in common with the social interaction model of Havelock since they both focus on the social context within which innovation has to take place.

Bennis et al did not present an approach equivalent to the problem-solving model of Havelock. In this model Havelock looks at a situation where the users identify their needs and determined the steps they will take to satisfy their needs.

The models discussed above are not the only ones, they are among many of the models of innovation and change which have been developed. This exposition, therefore, is by no means comprehensive. The models discussed, however, have to a certain extent influenced theory on change.

The value of these models which have been selected for discussion lies in the fundamental issue of ownership in innovation. In the RD & D and power coercive strategy, as well as the social interaction model and normative educative strategy, innovation is seen as belonging to people other than the users to a differing extent.

In the problem-solving model, however, ownership of the programme rests with the users.

#### 4. SOME TRENDS IN TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

##### 4.1 Collaborative Action of Teachers

That teachers must be co-ordinated in attempting to develop themselves and thus improving the quality of education was emphasised by Stenhouse (1975: 166) who stated that:

the power of the individual is limited. Without his strength the betterment of the schools cannot be achieved, but the strengths of individuals are not effective unless they are co-ordinated and supported.

Anneli Lauriala (1992) working on an in-service programme for teachers in integrated teachings in Finland, observes that a lot of success can be borne out of attempts to introduce teacher-initiated innovations. Such innovations are best able to transform teachers from being passive recipients to being active participants in innovative activities. Collaborative actions of the teachers in improving the quality of teaching and educational improvements in general have been applauded as an important strategy (Lauriala, 1992).

Fullan (1982) also stresses the need for teachers to be active participants in any form of change that is proposed. In an extensive review of the literature on educational change he concludes that the lack of opportunities for teachers to reflect, interact with each other, share, learn, develop on the job makes it

unlikely that significant changes will occur. It is generally recognised that the South African situation has a long history of autocracy in education which is likely to have discouraged initiatives from teachers.

#### 4.2 Teacher - initiative in Teacher Development

Recently there has been a shift from the thinking in education that by-passed the role of teachers to programmes that take into account the needs of the teachers. Educational authorities had previously assumed that teachers would readily implement programmes designed by someone from outside.

Hamilton (1976) acknowledges that much of what can be called real change in education has been brought about from grassroots level when the teachers themselves became convinced about the need for change.

Hoyle (1986) writes that practices that would help in teacher development stem from the initiatives of the teachers themselves and similarly the programmes that are developed outside the school will survive only if they have the commitment and the practical support of the individual teacher. Fullan (1991) argues for the involvement of teachers in any programme designed for them.

## 5. TRENDS IN THE PROVISION OF IN-SERVICE AND TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

In South Africa in-service and teacher development has not been the sole responsibility of the state. Most of these programmes are run by non-governmental agencies. In her study of INSET in South Africa, Bot, (cited in McNaught and Raubenheimer) draws a comparison between state initiatives and non-governmental initiatives. She found that of the eighty-six INSET programmes being run, fifty-seven were run by non-governmental agencies (McNaught and Raubenheimer, 1991).

Non-governmental organisations are making their influence felt in the field of INSET.

### 5.1 The role of the state

The nature of education in South Africa which until recently has been characterised by fragmentation in the form of eighteen departments of education does not seem to promote uniformity as far as teacher professional development is concerned.

Salmon argues that:

a closer look at INSET in KwaZulu-Natal reveals a plethora problems but above all, the lack of coherence and direction in

the existing provisions of INSET, both formal and non-formal (1989:86).

Most commentators would probably agree that the authoritarian nature of education in South Africa has had a negative effect in the provision of in-service education. Hartshorne (1987) is of the opinion that although the state cannot cope with the provision of in-service education to satisfy the needs of the teachers, it has displayed unwillingness to accept non-departmental programmes unless it has a say in the way in which they are run.

The prescriptive nature of in-service education is evident from the fact that departments assume that they are in the best position to decide what is good for their teachers and what they need. There is little perception of the potential inherent in co-operation and partnership among teachers' associations, universities, outside agencies and departments at this stage of INSET in South Africa (Hartshorne, 1985:1).

Salmon (1989) calls for more co-ordination in the activities of PRESET and INSET. This call is based on the insufficient teaching experience - almost fourteen weeks - that student teachers receive during the three years that they spend at colleges of education. Creating spaces within colleges of education for INSET agencies is recommended as a possible alternative for forging links between PRESET and INSET activities.



## 5.2

The role of the Private Sector

The provision of INSET in South Africa remains a major responsibility of the state. The private sector, however, plays a crucial part in the provision of INSET through funding and representation on the boards and councils of major non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and projects (NEPI: 1992).

The efforts of the NGOs in in-service education reach as many teachers as state initiatives. Many well-established NGOs have a national spread reaching tens of thousands of teachers (Buckland and Hofmeyer, 1993).

Several agencies such as the Mobil Foundation and the Urban Foundation through its Urban Foundation Primary Science Project (PSP) have made a major contribution in the field of INSET.

Extensive private sector funding is directed towards the improvement of the quality of the teachers, mainly in the natural science subjects. Documents of the Chamber of Mines, and the GENMIN document "Solving the Skilled Manpower Crisis in the RSA: A Private Sector Perspective", are good examples of the involvement of the private sector in this sphere of teacher development (NEPI: 1992).

There are quite a number of teacher initiatives in the field of teacher development. These include the Committee for College of Education Rectors, various NGOs, IPI(In-Service Policy Initiative), the Council of Rectors and Deans of Teacher Education in KwaZulu-Natal (CORDTEK), Deans of Faculties of Education and Committee of Technicon Principals, Project Fulcrum and the Natal Teachers' Society (NEPI, 1993).

#### 6. SUBJECT ASSOCIATIONS (COMMITTEES) AS A MEANS OF ACHIEVING TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Lortie (1975) has referred to the teaching profession as a "lonely profession". This indicates that teachers involved in one and the same subject have on many occasions failed to come together to share their ideas and to develop each other in the process.

Very few formal opportunities are available for teachers to share ideas and form groups along subject lines with the ultimate aim of curriculum development. Efforts to form subject teacher groups have followed different trends because of the nature of different education systems in South Africa.

While this study was carried out in former KwaZulu schools the former NED is also discussed since there is evidence that subject associations have achieved some level of success in that department.

## 6.1 KDEC Initiatives

Khanyile (1982) argues that KwaZulu, with a large number of unqualified and underqualified teachers, needs vigorous government-sponsored teacher upgrading and school-based programmes to develop its teachers. Alternative means to achieve this goal must be looked at since it is unlikely that KDEC can improve the standard of its teaching overnight due to the lack of funds.

KDEC has in the past made attempts to form subject committees for different subjects. In the writer's own experience, most of these attempts were not successful. As the literature already discussed suggests, properly initiated subject committees could play an important role in improving the quality and self-esteem of teachers.

Professional teacher organizations have played an important part in the formation of subject committees. The Natal African Teacher's Union (NATU) has been involved in this direction. This movement organised subject societies in which ideas and information are exchanged and communicated to all concerned through lectures, seminars, discussions and workshops (Khanyile, 1982).

There is, however, presently no evidence as to the active functioning of the subject committees under the auspices of NATU and the former KDEC.

It is in the Science subjects that the subject committees seem to have made some progress, mainly as a result of the involvement of the private sector. The private sector has neglected human science subjects such as history, since this subject is popularly believed to be of little vocational importance.

Some findings of the NEPI Report confirm the view that the humanities have suffered at the hands of the natural sciences in terms of financial provision:

Extensive private sector funding INSET projects concerned with improving the teaching of Mathematics, Science and English suggest that these subjects require special attention in the training of teachers (1992:40).

In the former KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture the subject history suffered since at the time when the programme was implemented there was no subject advisor for this subject. The result is that there were no in-service courses organised for history teachers at the time of the research.

## 6.2

### NED initiatives

The former Natal Education Department vigorously promoted the development of subject associations. This task was mainly carried out by the professional organisations of teachers. The Natal Teachers' Society had associations which catered for the interests of particular subjects and these associations organized

meetings, conferences and courses to promote awareness of new trends or developments in their own areas of interest. Through publications and follow-up activities which these associations held, they had informal or even formal influence on policy. They helped to make the feelings and attitudes of the teachers known to authorities.

#### 6.2.1 Subject Associations for history teachers within the NED

Within the NED there were two bodies actively involved in promoting history as a subject and helping in improving the quality of history teachers. These bodies were the Natal History Teachers' Association and the Natal History Teachers' Society. The NED Subject Advisor for History was involved in both these bodies as a convenor in the former body, and as an observer in the latter body. By his involvement in these bodies he was in a position to know the needs of the history teachers so that necessary modifications could be effected in the History Curriculum.

The Natal History Teachers' Association published a Journal which was established in 1975. The journal was established "in order to provide a means to improve the communication between teachers to encourage the exchange of ideas" (History News Index To Volumes 1-32 p.1).

The name "History News" has been retained since the beginning, but the description of the magazine changed from "Newsletter" to "Journal" of the

Natal History Teachers' Association in November 1982.

#### 6.2.2 Networking within the former NED Schools

In the former NED the model of networking was one in which centres of excellence adopted one or more disadvantaged schools as satellite schools, forming a network of sister schools within a district or local area.

Networking would justify the need for the continued existence of centres of excellence. At a time when many (mostly White Education Departments) felt that the standards of education which they had worked so hard to achieve were under threat, it might have been difficult for them to see any merit in networking with other schools and institutions. However, a well organized network system of schools and institutions could go a long way in helping disadvantaged schools to gain from the experiences of their better off counterparts. And if centres of excellence could show that their continued existence would benefit many other schools and the whole of society, then the danger in the future that they might be levelled down to some common educational denominator could be averted.

Networking can also be extended to the field of teacher in-service. Teachers from satellite schools travel to the centres of excellence. Included in such in-service and staff development programmes were on-going seminars on various topics and subjects for different categories of teachers.

## 7. PRIVATELY SPONSORED TEACHER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

Many teacher development programmes were developed with the assistance of the private sector. The Institute of Education and Human Development of the University of Zululand for example ran two programmes, that is, the School Management Programme (SMP) and the English Teacher Enrichment Programme (ETP). Another project of importance was the Natal Primary Science Project (PSP) sponsored by the Urban Foundation.

The following programmes are discussed because they were the only ones to which the teachers of Nongoma were exposed to at the time of the research and were by no means the only programmes in operation.

### 7.1 School Management Programme (SMP)

The SMP was a managerial training programme meant for Secondary school principals in KwaZulu and was run by the Institute of Education and Human Development.

Among the stated objectives of the SMP were:

- \* to enable school principals to understand management, organisational and administrative theories and practical procedures necessary for the successful running of the school as well as to raise the awareness of such an

understanding;

- \* to enable principals to understand their role, duties and responsibilities as managers and to appreciate the role of the school as a social change agent;
- \* to provide an organisational support system.

This programme allowed principals to participate actively in its running and they had a say in deciding issues to be discussed. A strong point in favour of this programme was that organisers made follow-up visits to the places of work of the principals involved in the programme.

## 7.2 English Teacher Enrichment Programme (ETEP)

This programme was aimed at enriching the English teachers in the Senior Secondary Schools in KwaZulu.

Among the stated objectives of this programme were:

- \* to upgrade the level and competence of English learning/teaching in schools;
- \* to conduct and set up school-based English courses, seminars and workshops;
- \* to help English teachers to develop learning/teaching materials;



- \* to foster co-operative teaching among teachers.

Judging by its objectives this programme appeared to be very different from most forms of teacher development programmes in South Africa. Teachers were allowed to play an active role since they were expected to develop their own teaching/learning materials.

### 7.3 The Natal Primary Science Project (PSP)

The PSP had been involved in the field of primary science education, teacher development, Inset activities and curriculum development. Its involvement in education dates back to 1983.

Of interest is how this project evolved to cope with changing models of teacher development. Like other programmes of teacher development in South Africa, it had also been prescriptive, that is, it provided materials to teachers without those teachers having made an input into the development of those materials.

That the PSP had evolved over the years is evident from the models that were used within this programme: the develop and disseminate model, the develop and train model, and the collaborative engagement strategies. Unlike the first two models which are predetermined, externally driven and controlled, the Collaborative Engagement Strategies promoted independence and were

internally controlled by the users (Raubenheimer, 1992/93).

8.

## CONCLUSION

From the above exposition it is clear that although the themes in-service and staff development somehow differ they have been used interchangeably.

In South Africa in-service education has been the responsibility of both the state and the private sector. The initiatives taken by the private sector did not initially differ much from those of the state. Recent involvement of the private sector, however, has led to the emergence of programmes some, of which have called for the full involvement of teachers. Private sector programmes that have been discussed above display a change from the traditional top-down approaches to more teacher-based approaches.

### CHAPTER THREE

## **THE NATURE OF HISTORY AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT AND METHODS USED IN HISTORY TEACHING**

### **1. INTRODUCTION**

The value of history as a subject fit for inclusion in the secondary school curriculum has been questioned. Although universally taught in schools, history is generally considered one of the less important subjects in the curriculum (Nichol, 1984).

After the historic speech of President de Klerk in parliament on 2 February 1990, which changed the whole face of South African politics, history teachers found themselves having to make giant strides to cope with the new challenges facing them. These challenges are to be found both in the content of the subject and in the methods used to teach it.

At the time the study was conceived it was anticipated that the new government would introduce a revised history syllabus for South Africa, in which white Afrikaners' version of the past would no longer be dominant. The history that was taught has tended to be white-orientated to a significant degree. Chisholm contends that:

the history that is, as a result taught to the African, Indian or Coloured denies his existence as it is a heroic tale of the rise of the Afrikaner; the heroism of black resistance to their conquest in hardly chartered (1981:33).

Historians such as Dean et al (1983) and Walker (1990) have two main complaints about history as it has been taught for years. Firstly, they argue that it has been very one-sided, looking at the past only from the whites' point of view, and secondly, that the content of the history syllabus has been tailored to promote Afrikaner nationalism.

## 2. THE NATURE OF HISTORY AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT

History as a subject in schools has had to survive a lot of criticism. Some of the criticisms about the subject emanate from the nature of the subject itself and its perceived value.

Various debates are often heard on a number of aspects concerning history. Questions are levelled as to whether history:

- \* is of any utilitarian importance to a person who studies it; and
- \* should emphasize facts or skills.

A short discussion follows on the two aspects mentioned above.

## 2.1 The non-utilitarian nature of history

To many people history as a subject in schools seems to be out of touch with the technological age. In societies where technological development is high on the priority list, a study of history appears to have little to offer. Moore asserts:

as one of the humanities, history does not always satisfy the immediate utilitarian requirements so frequently set by the more technologically oriented members of our society. It deals more with education than it does with training (1985:6) .

While history is generally regarded as an interesting subject, its lack of vocational yields has had a negative effect on its development. The study of history is seen in many quarters as not being able to offer any immediate and tangible material benefits. Kros and Vadi argue that vocationalism, which is likely to make an impact on South African society as had been in the case in Britain, "..... leaves little room for history in the school curriculum" (1993:96).

Edley poses some questions about the value of history:

Why do we waste valuable teaching time on a subject that is of no educational value, that makes no contribution to assisting the child for the world of work (1993:10)?

The granting of bursaries by the private sector and the state to those students who take the natural sciences, and the lack of financial support for students in the humanities, bear testimony to the focus that is directed at the natural sciences at the expense of the humanities. This discrepancy in the provision of financial support between the natural sciences and the humanities is bound to influence the quality of history teachers since good students are likely to be attracted to the fields which are regarded as more vocationally important.

### 2.3

#### Facts versus skills in history teaching

The traditional justification of the place of History in the school curriculum is that it is the body of knowledge which the ordinary pupil should learn and is likely to somehow enrich his mind, hence the acquisition of facts became the foundation of history (Dance, 1970).

Walker reports that:

history textbooks follow the syllabus closely. They are mostly descriptive rather than analytical, presenting history as a fixed body of unproblematic factual knowledge with little mention of

original sources or the work of historians (1990:274).

Up to the 1960s in both the United Kingdom and South Africa an approach that was dominant in the presentation of history in the classroom was a factual, chronological one (Mathews et al, 1992).

History has thus been known and accepted as a subject in which the teacher's role is that of imparting information and facts. The turning point in the study of history can be traced to the early 1970s with the innovations of the Schools' Council History Project in Britain. The point of departure in the study of history was that history had to be seen as the method of analysing the past through the application of particular skills and concepts instead of being seen as a body of knowledge that must be learned.

This view of history as a subject in which skills must be developed is also supported in the statement by the Assistant Masters Association that:

if history in schools is regarded as an approach to knowledge rather than a body of knowledge, then it will be of great value. It can, and generally does, make a significant contribution to the education of the young not only by the virtue of its potential for satisfying many of the needs of pupils, but through the special insights which lie in the heart of history teaching (1975:5).

Criticism has, however, been levelled against those historians who are alleged to have "gone overboard" about history as a means of developing skills to the total neglect of the facts. This leads to the realization that both the facts and the development of skills have a role to play in the study of history. Neither can survive on its own (Mathews et al, 1992).

Maylam warns of the overemphasis of skills in history teaching:

if one took the skills argument to an extreme one might end up saying it does not matter what field of history you teach as long as you develop the necessary skills (1991:2).

An the interrelationship that must be maintained between facts and skills, honeybone suggests that:

facts must become the working tools of our history, not the aim of our history - which should be much wider than a finite conglomeration of fact - and become more like an imaginative work of art (1990:10).

### 3. SOME OF THE METHODS USED IN HISTORY TEACHING

The nature of history and how it is seen by its teachers and other people who are interested in the subject goes a long way in determining the methods used



in history teaching. Methods are defined by Nicholas and Thompson as:

... those strategies or techniques adopted by the teacher as the most efficient means of achieving his teaching goals, that is, they are to be seen as means to ends, and it is, therefore, the ends, the appropriate objectives of history teaching, that determine what are the most effective methods (1972:223).

Methods can be judged to be successful or not on how efficiently they achieve the objectives that have been laid down.

### 3.1 Traditional methods of history teaching

Traditionally there are two main reasons why history has been generally accepted in the curriculum:

- i) It led to the appreciation of the national heritage.
- ii) It was thought to contribute to moral education (Nicholas and Thompson, 1972).

These two broad aims would be achieved if the study of history would be able to produce good future citizens who had the right knowledge and attitudes (Nicholas and Thompson, 1972).

The syllabus, therefore, based on such aims would emphasize content and the methods used would ensure that content was given to pupils.

The same writers elaborate that:

the need to bring the pupils into contact with a considerable body of historical knowledge, the emphasis on the importance of content, demanded methods that would allow the groundwork of history to be covered rapidly, otherwise all that was necessary would not be studied (Nicholas and Thompson, 1972:224).

Methods that have come to be associated with conveying as much content as possible include:

- \* having notes copied;
- \* reliance on a single textbook;
- \* questions that are usually factual and of recall type and;
- \* examinations and tests that are concerned with how thoroughly the facts had been memorized.

Rees and Lowry, writing on integrated studies as introduced at Sacred Heart College, are of the opinion that the methodology dominant in South Africa education is concerned with imparting knowledge to students through various

subjects at schools. The learner is expected:

to assimilate this knowledge as well as possible and is generally assessed according to his/her ability to reproduce that knowledge through tests and exams and other techniques of assessment (1990:73).

### 3.2 New approaches to history teaching

The traditional approaches to history teaching resulted mainly in the methods of teaching that did not allow for a variety of activities in class. Activities in class were too teacher dominated (Carpenter, 1964).

The influence of the Schools Council Projects, the Integrated Curriculum Movement, the "People's History" initiative and what has been called the "New" History Approach have had a lot to do with the introduction of more flexible methods in the teaching of history.

Attempts were made by some educational authorities (NED) in the late 1970s and 1980s to revise the syllabi to be on par with the new trends in history education as espoused by the School Council in Britain. This was essentially a new emphasis on skills. As far as African schools were concerned, these "new trends" were never implemented. The method, content and interpretation was still dominated by Afrikaner nationalist historiography (Ndlovu, 1993).

Empathy in history teaching and the broad view of history can be seen as a reflection of the move away from traditional approaches to history teaching.

### 3.2.1 Empathy in history teaching

An empathetic approach has emerged in recent years as one of the most important approaches in the teaching of history. Empathy demands of the pupil the skill to listen to first hand accounts of situations in order to arrive at balanced judgements and decisions.

Empathising involves the process of coming to know how other people see the world: one needs to understand their aspirations, hopes, fears, loves and hates to understand why they behave as they do (Noctor, 1985). This process requires that the pupils develop the capacity to see things from other peoples' points of view.

According to Ashby and Lee, empathy is "a difficult intellectual achievement.... it requires a high level of thinking" (1987:63). Its difficulty mainly emanates from the fact that this activity requires that people have to be prepared to work with ideas which are not their own and some of which they may disagree with.

The value of teaching empathy to pupils can have some practical advantages

in character building of the pupils. O'Brien asserts that:

exposure to the use of empathy in history can advance the pupil's cognitive and psychological development and by making history more alive and exciting, promote a motivation to learn (1991:17).

Ashby and Lee (1987) argue that children, even adults, make disastrous mistakes because they cannot envisage what injury particular actions may cause to other people.

Empathising involves skills since it requires a person to think imaginatively, and further requires one to give meaning to that which is being imagined. Portal (1987) argues that empathy provides a rationale for activities such as simulation, site-visits, drama, art-work and informal group work.

The use of the empathic approach in history teaching has received a mixed reception. While there are those who hail it as an important approach, Cains (1989) argues that the achievement of historical empathy is not an easy task, particularly, for the adolescent.

### 3.2.2 Looking at history in its broad context

As stated earlier, aims guide teachers in the use of the methods of teaching.

Rowse (1985) states the aim of history as enabling an individual to understand public events, affairs and trends in his time. If the aim of history is that broad, the mere delivering of facts alone has no place in history.

Nichol mentions some innovations in history teaching that are likely to create a love of history in students. Among these are:

- \* drama in history
- \* family history
- \* games and simulations
- \* schools Council history project; and
- \* computing (1984:62).

#### 4. HISTORY TEACHING IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS

History teaching in South African schools, particularly in Black schools, has been the subject of a lot of controversy. Among the reasons for such a state of affairs has been the influence of the dominant ideology in history teaching, the use of history for the legitimization of the policy of apartheid and the historical bias found in history textbooks.

##### 4.1 Ideology and history teaching

Ideology has played a major part in influencing schooling in South Africa.

Christian National Education (CNE) which was the official position of the Afrikaner Nationalists on education had a profound impact on educational policy and practice. After the Nationalist party came to power in 1948, the state became the vehicle for the Christian National policy (Ashley, 1986).

The Nationalists introduced apartheid education with separate education systems both for the four groups of the population as classified in terms of the Population Registration Act and for the ethnic homelands (Ashley, 1986). The Nationalists through their control of education utilized their political dominance to further their own value systems. Control of education enabled the dominant group to achieve several aims:

to define the curriculum, to define methodology through the accepted methods of pedagogy and, through the examination system, to decide what is most significant in order to reward those who have grasped the essentials (Chernis, 1990:29).

To a great extent history as a subject taught in schools has been used by the Nationalists as a vehicle for perpetuating apartheid ideology. The Christian influence on history teaching is particularly evident with common reference to whites as "Christian" and "civilized" and blacks more often referred to as "heathen" and "uncivilized" (Dean *et al*, 1983).

Fundamental Pedagogics, which came into prominence in the 1960s, has had

a great influence on education in general. Fundamental Pedagogics was claimed to be the only authentic method to study education. Its influence on history teaching has been that the content of history is presented as essentially non-problematic; the task of the pupil is to learn it in which case he/she will reap the benefits (Van Den Berg & Buckland, 1983).

In the sphere of African education:

CNE became one of the powerful influences on the systems of Bantu Education which brought about centralised, state administration of African education under Afrikaner domination within the overall scheme of apartheid (Buckland and Hofmeyer, 1993:248).

Various non-state educational institutions like Protec, Khanya College, Sacred Heart College and Turret Correspondence College offered models of history teaching which did not conform to what is common history teaching in South African state schools (Ndlovu, 1993).

The rise of the People's Education in the mid-1980s is regarded "largely as a reaction by black communities to the power of the white central state" (Buckland and Hofmeyer 1993:248).



#### 4.2 History teaching as a legitimization for apartheid

South African history has been used in schools to justify the system of racial segregation. One example of such use of history is the argument that the Black people are said to have been migrating southwards at the same time as the White stock farmers were extending their territorial settlement towards the South and East. It is thus argued by the supporters of apartheid that the Whites have as valid a claim to the territory of South Africa as Blacks (Dean, et al, 1983).

The same authors further argue that South African history offers an understanding of the world favourable to the continuation of white supremacy and the policy of apartheid.

Owen argues that:

history has been used as a political tool to support, if not the apartheid regime, then the status quo in South Africa (1991:9).

Edley elaborates on how history is abused by ruling powers:

History allows an unscrupulous government that has control of the curriculum and the syllabus-making machinery, to propagate a certain view of this past. This is generally done in order to

justify present policies or ideologies. This is not a South African phenomenon only, but has occurred widely all over the world (1993:10).

#### 4.3 Bias in history teaching History Textbooks

The important feature of South African history is the comparatively large portions in the history books given to the history of White groups at the expense of Black groups. Owen (1991) asserts that for many years, school history books have been purposely biased.

Afrikaner interpretation of history stresses:

the role of the Afrikaner heroes and events such as Great Trek and Anglo-Boer War with this interpretation other groups are treated peripherally (Dean, et al, 1983:18).

Walker (1990) contends that the South African history syllabus overwhelmingly presents history made by Whites, from Van Riebeeck to the Randlords. The oppressed are not entirely from school history, but make their appearance as objects not subjects of discussion.

History teachers have had a major influence in presenting South African history mainly from the perspective of the Afrikaners. Many books prescribed

for schools on South African history have been written by Whites, and Afrikaners, in particular.

It would seem black teachers did not have the same degree of freedom in the choice of textbooks as white teachers (HSRC, 1991).

## 5. CONCLUSION

From the foregoing exposition it is evident that history as a subject taught in schools has been used by the rulers to perpetuate the policy of separate development. History is thus likely to undergo a lot of changes to be relevant to the new dispensation in South Africa.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### ESTABLISHMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROGRAMME

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the establishment of the programme of teacher development for history teachers. It discusses how the programme was set up and meetings that led to the needs of the history teachers being identified, analysed and classified.

#### 2. DESIGN OF THE PROGRAMME

The programme on teacher development for history teachers was designed in such a way that teachers would learn by doing. Situations that combined actions on the part of the teachers and allowed teachers to reflect on their actions were created.

Professional development planned for the history teachers in Nongoma aimed at helping the teachers to become less isolated, to reflect on their actions inside and outside the classroom and to do something in the direction of improving their classroom teaching. Towards the end of the programme the teachers were going to have opportunities to evaluate their own actions.

### 3. SCHOOLS IN THE PROGRAMME

Six schools were selected for the programme on the basis that:

- \* the schools were within reasonable travelling distance, that is, within a twenty kilometre radius, and
- \* offered history as an examination subject up to standard ten.

The six schools in the programme were: Dinuzulu, Falaza, Ivuna, Mlokothwa, Mshanelowesizwe and Phumuzuzulu high schools.

TABLE 1

Teacher/Pupil Ratio in the six Nongoma Schools in 1992

NAME OF SCHOOL	TEACHER/PUPIL RATIO IN 1992
Dinuzulu	1:34
Falaza	1:60
Ivuna	1:51
Mlokothwa	1:26
Mshanelowesizwe	1:46
Phumuzuzulu	1:51

The information provided above indicates that the teacher pupil ratio in most of these schools was very high.

The 1992 matriculation results achieved in these schools are shown below:

TABLE 2

## 1992 MATRICULATION RESULTS IN THE SIX SCHOOLS

SCHOOL	ENTRIES	M	%	S	%	TOTAL	%
Dinuzulu	133	6	4,51	45	39,83	51	38,34
Falaza	89	5	5,62	42	47,19	47	58,81
Ivuna	76	8	10,53	38	50	46	60,53
Mlokothwa	69	49	71,01	20	28,99	69	100,00
Mshanelowe- sizwe	51	1	1,96	4	7,81	5	9,8
Phumuzuzulu	144	9	6,25	59	40,97	68	47,22

M = Matriculation exemption

S = Senior Certificate

The matriculation results for 1993 reflected a poor ratio for half of the schools, with only half obtaining more a than fifty percent pass rate.

#### 4. SETTING UP THE GROUP

##### 4.1 Organising for contact with the teachers

The first step taken in the setting up of the group was to contact the circuit

inspector for the area to express the intention of establishing a working group for the history teachers in some of the Nongoma schools. It was further explained that this working group was an attempt towards the professional development of these teachers.

The second step taken was one of writing letters to the principals of the six schools targeted for involvement in the programme, requesting permission for this programme to be implemented in their schools. Only the standard 9 and 10 teachers were to be involved initially with an intention of involving the junior classes at a later stage. Teachers in the junior classes were excluded to limit the participants to a manageable number. This did not mean that junior classes were unimportant.

A total of three meetings were organised for the later part of 1992 at two week intervals.

#### 4.2 Biographical Details of the group

##### a) Sex

All eight participants were males.

##### b) Professional and academic qualifications of the eight participants

\* five had 3 year diplomas that had been obtained at colleges of

education and possessed no other academic qualifications in the subject;

- \* one had a university degree but did not have history as a major subject.

History had only been taken at a first year level;

- \* one had a university degree having majored in history; and

- \* one had a three year college diploma and was pursuing his studies privately with the intention of majoring in history.

c) Age

The participants were between the age of 27 and 38. Since the group was still relatively young it was anticipated that it would be more amenable to changing their teaching methods.

d) Teaching experience

The teaching experience of the groups ranged from 3 to 12 years. Of the total of eight teachers in the programme, only two were teaching the matriculation class for the first time.



#### 4.3 First meeting on 29 September 1992

The project leader explained to the participating teachers that the aim of the meeting was to investigate the possibilities of:

- \* establishing a subject committee for history teachers that would give the teachers opportunities to share their expertise and provide them with a vehicle to tackle their problems jointly;
- \* forming a network between the schools from which the teachers came to enable the schools to benefit from the resources at the more advantaged schools;
- \* improving the manner in which the subject was taught in the participating schools with the ultimate aim of the teachers developing themselves professionally.

From the discussion that ensued the following concerns emerged from the teachers:

- \* the high failure rate in the subject, mainly in standard 10;
- \* the history books which were seen by the history teachers as being biased, and special reference was made to South African history;

- \* the fact that the teachers had not been exposed to any form of in-service education in the subject;
- \* the geographical position of Nongoma that put the teachers at a disadvantage in terms of the necessary resource materials which were often found in the big cities;
- \* the poor English of their pupils affecting their grasp of the subject matter;
- \* common use of the traditional methods which encouraged rote learning and the mere acquisition of facts; and
- \* the existence of poor libraries in these schools, since all but one of these schools were community schools which received very little financial assistance from the government.

#### 4.4 Second meeting on 13 October 1992

From the discussions which were carried out during the meeting the following information pertaining to the position of history in the schools came to light:

- \* teachers had to handle very large classes. The average number of students per class was found to be 55. The size of the classes was

likely to have an influence on the teaching methods used by the history teachers;

- \* the majority of the students were found in the humanities rather than the natural sciences and commercial subjects;
- \* the teachers reported that they often had to meet the expectations of both the principals and the community to prepare the students to do well in the matriculation examination. This fact would appear to be responsible for the tendency of the teachers to resort to teaching methods that were primarily aimed at providing pupils with historical facts;
- \* the long history syllabuses seemed to have a lot to do with the lack of attempts to involve students in discovering history themselves; and
- \* the absence of a Subject Advisor of history in the KwaZulu Education Department.

#### 4.5 Third meeting on 27 October 1992

During this meeting which was the last one for 1992 the teachers identified the needs that they felt had to be addressed the following year, 1993. These needs were prioritized with an aim of having to identify those that had a potential of

being met during 1993.

The following were the needs that emerged from the discussion with the teachers:

- \* the teachers felt that there was a need to vary their teaching methods so as to make the subject "live". This was understood to mean exposing pupils to situations where they would come into contact with primary and secondary sources of information. Resource materials would thus be made available to improve the learning of the pupils. Teachers, themselves, were to be encouraged to improvise and be in a position to provide their own resource materials;
- \* a need was also identified to have reference books available to enable the teachers to have a balanced perspective of the theme being handled;
- \* the need was identified for the schools to work more closely together so that the teachers could supplement one another in various themes in the syllabus. This would be achieved by teachers singling out the aspects of the syllabus they felt they could handle best, thus sharing those with their colleagues;
- \* encouraging the pupils to participate in existing history competitions and organizing the competitions for the participating schools; and

- \* the need to have common examination papers set for the participating schools to enable the teachers involved in the programme to put into practice some of the ideas generated within the group about the subject.

## 5. INSIDE THE MEETINGS

The meetings showed that most of the teachers in this group were willing to do something to improve the teaching of history in their respective schools. It was obvious, however, that the teachers were at first not at ease about articulating their views concerning what could be done to improve the level of history teaching in their schools.

Teachers made attempts during the first meeting to make their concerns known concerning history teaching in their schools. The concerns that were raised were mainly of a practical nature. Teachers also expected immediate solutions to their problems.

The general lack of opportunities for history teachers to be guided on the classroom teaching could be found from the comments of one of the teachers:

I have been teaching history for six years without any guidance regarding how the teaching methods I use in history teaching. Panel inspections came and went but they did nothing to improve my teaching except that they highlighted my

weaknesses.

It was obvious that although teachers were enthusiastic about new ideas being discussed about the teaching of history, they were intimidated by moving away from what was familiar.

The general mood of the meetings was summed in the words of another teacher who reported that:

If we have often been working as colleagues, sharing ideas and reflecting on the subject we have to teach, our work would have been better than what it is.

## 6. ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION OF THE NEEDS

Cumming, et al acknowledge that needs analysis is not a simple matter. These writers mention two approaches to needs analysis:

- a) An approach to which the needs of individual teachers are ascribed to them either by the principals or other officials who believe that they know the needs of the teachers. This approach works on the principle of identifying teachers' weaknesses rather than potential for growth.
- b) A second approach is the one where the teacher's needs are identified

by the teachers themselves within the broader departmental needs(1985:22-23).

Since the establishment of the subject committee for history teachers gave teachers themselves the opportunity of identifying their needs, the project leader assisted in having those needs analysed and classified by the teachers themselves.

The teachers needs were analysed to involve:

- \* the provision of resources that would help to improve the teaching of history and the general level in which the interest in the subject was created and maintained;
- \* giving the teachers that opportunity to keep pace with developments in history teaching; and
- \* keeping teachers informed about modern teaching methods which were used by history teachers within their department and in other departments.

The analysis of the needs of the teachers led to the classification of these needs into three broad categories:

- \* needs for resource, that is, looking at the teaching materials that the teachers lacked;
- \* new trends in the subject, that is, exposing the teacher to new developments in the subject; and
- \* teaching methodologies, that is, consideration of new methods of teaching in the subject.

The needs that had been analyzed and classified were to be achieved during the course of 1993. Regular meetings between the teachers involved in the programme and an organised system of networking between these schools were the basis on which this programme would progress.

## 7. INTERVIEWING THE PRINCIPALS OF THE SCHOOLS

Time was set aside to visit the principals of the schools involved in the programme. The focus of the interviews was to find out how the principals viewed the programme and the circumstances surrounding the subject in their respective schools.

While each principal possessed unique views on these aspects, there were also a lot of commonalities, thus allowing for generalizations to be made.



## 7.1

The programme itself

It became evident from the interviews with the principals that:

- \* they looked at the programme as providing a vehicle by which matric results in history could be improved.

The concern about the improvement of matric results seemed to be a major concern of the principals and teachers in the senior secondary schools, and

- \* the programme should not interfere with teaching time and, therefore, should not lead to the failure to finish the syllabus by the teachers involved in the programme.

The influence the examinations seem to have on teaching practice cannot be overlooked. It was not surprising therefore that good performance in the examination was seen as the single most important factor to be achieved by most of the teachers.

## 7.2

Position of history in these schools.

It was found that:

- \* in all these schools the majority of the students still took history rather

than science or commercial subjects. This was explained by the principals as being caused by the fact that the humanities were regarded as "easier" than the science subjects . The shortage of good science teachers was also mentioned as a factor leading to there being few students in the science subjects.

- \* principals were concerned by the controversial nature of history since its content has been questioned in many quarters; and
- \* pass rates which had been obtained in history in these schools did not suggest that history was easily passed but the pass rates were still better than those in the natural sciences and mathematics.

#### 8. WORKING PLAN FOR 1993

The programme was to be evaluated at the end of September 1993. Since the programme had come into effect in the middle of September 1992, it would thus function for one year.

The programme would be carried out over a period of eight months in 1993, that is, February to September. The months of May and June were excluded since they were times for the examinations and vacations respectively.

The following activities were collectively agreed for 1993:

- \* the group would meet for formal meetings once a month instead of twice a month as had been the case the previous year;
- \* teachers of the schools involved in the programme would be encouraged to communicate informally between each other. These schools would be encouraged to be involved in the process of networking and;
- \* the project leader would visit the teachers in their classrooms at regular intervals to observe lessons in progress.

## 9. CONCLUSION

It was of importance that a start had been made to have teachers coming together to work as a group to share the common problems they encountered in their field of work.

A foundation had been laid for the programme.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **OBSERVATIONAL VISITS TO THE SCHOOLS**

#### **RESEARCHER'S COMMENTS**

##### **1. INTRODUCTION**

The needs of the history teachers of Nongoma had been identified by the teachers themselves. These needs had been analysed and classified. The initial observational visits to the schools were made in February 1993.

The purpose of these initial observational visits was to provide a picture of history teaching before the programme actually started operating.

##### **2. OBSERVATIONAL VISITS TO THE SCHOOLS, FEBRUARY 1993**

Visits to the schools were carried out during the first three weeks of February. A total of three days was spent at each school for this purpose. While there were different conditions at each school, many similarities were found.

Observation of the teachers in real classroom situations is not a simple task. King (1977) citing Robinson, mentions two related reasons for this difficulty. Firstly, there is the understandable reluctance of some teachers to be observed

while they are teaching. Secondly, the decision to visit classrooms was taken because more often than not when asking questions without getting into the classroom, answers are likely to "include an element of what ought to be, and less of what actually happens." (King, 1977:121).

The problem of the reluctance of teachers to be observed in class was eliminated by the fact that such visits had been negotiated with the teachers beforehand.

It is, however, possible that if teachers are aware that they are being observed, they tend to be artificial in their classroom practices. This artificial behaviour was partly reduced by regular visits by the teachers within the programme to each others' lessons.

The initial visits were aimed at observing two factors:

- \* Teaching methods used, and
- \* The availability of relevant resource materials.

## 2.1

### Teaching methods used

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the teaching of history in schools is still largely dominated by traditional methods. New methods of history teaching have not yet penetrated to the level of the teachers in rural Black schools.

The lecture and textbook methods were found to be very commonly used. Only in one school, which was a boarding school, were attempts made to vary the teaching methods which included group work and discussion. The tendency here was also to revert to the lecture and textbooks methods if the other methods seemed to falter

i) Lecture method

In this method, the teacher does the talking. The teacher often initiates the activity and the pupils are supposed to listen. Teachers often cited the large number of students in their classrooms as one of the reasons why they relied on the lecture method.

One teacher bluntly put it that:

I have to teach 68 students, therefore the lecture method seems to be a logical one in ensuring that I finish the syllabus in time.

Two teachers cited the importance of completing the syllabi and ensuring that their pupils passed the matriculation examination as another reason that encouraged them to over-use the lecture method.

One teacher commented that:

At the beginning of each year symbols obtained

in each subject are analysed. Teachers in whose subjects good symbols had been obtained were praised before the whole teaching staff. The opposite happens to the one with bad results in his/her subject.

The same sentiments were shared by a teacher who stressed that a teacher is often judged for quality by the number of As, Bs and Cs that are obtained in his subject.

The teachers, therefore, were expected to make sure that the pupils did well in the matriculation examination.

It was observed during most of the lessons that the pupils were passive. In one of the lessons, which was incidentally after lunch, a number of pupils were asleep. The teacher concerned cited lack of interest as one of the reasons why the pupils were asleep. He commented that:

In our school students who perform poorly in the standard eight examination are supposed to do History in standard nine and ten, while the good performers have to go for Science.

This practice was likely to result in having pupils doing subjects they

were least interested in.

In one school the teacher attempted to involve the class by asking a number of questions. The questions asked, however, appeared to be dominated by the type that required one possible answer, thus not challenging the pupils' reasoning powers. The teacher observed cited

"..... the fear to confuse the students" as a reason why he did not ask his pupils questions requiring understanding of the lesson.

Examinations, especially the matriculation examination, appeared to play a major role in reinforcing the use of the lecture method. One teacher who regularly served as a sub-examiner marking the "History HG Second Paper" questioned the use of teaching methods requiring critical reasoning when during the marking sessions the emphasis would be on the "reproduction of facts". He elaborated that:

Even if the questions asked during the examination required critical thought none of it was considered when marks were allocated.

It was observed that even the teachers who were involved in the teaching of standard nine were also influenced by the matriculation examination in their



selection of the teaching method used. They cited "the preparation for the students for standard ten" as the reason for the lack of flexibility in the teaching methods selected.

ii) Textbook method

The textbook method was another teaching method that was found to be common among the teachers visited.

When traditionally used this method does not make provision for preceding study or pre-preparation from the textbook. Many teachers still use the textbook mainly as a source from which they lecture and the pupils memorize certain parts (Duminy, 1991).

What was found disturbing in the manner in which the textbook method was used was the practice of relying too much on a single textbook. Teachers were found to rely heavily on a single textbook. Very little was done to supplement information in the prescribed textbooks with information from other textbooks.

The following titles of books were found to be in use by the teachers:

"Exploring History" by Jordaan, S.P. and Mock, H.A.

"Active History" by Van Rensburg, A.P.J. and Oosthuizen, E.S.G.

"History in Action" by Grobler, J.C.H., Rautenbach, J.C. and

Engelbrecht, E.

Of the three titles mentioned above, the one that was found to be in common use by the teachers in these schools was "History in Action". All of these schools had ordered this title for the pupils. The reason for the preference of this title was that one of its authors was the current examiner for the standard ten history examination paper.

There was, however, common agreement amongst the teachers that the approach of the "Active History" series was more acceptable to them. This title was, however, used only for reference purposes. The choice of "History in Action" for pupils rather than "Active History" is an indication of the extent to which the formal examination influenced teachers in the decisions they took in selecting textbooks.

"Exploring History" was viewed by all the teachers as not providing sufficient details on most of the topics they were tackling.

Examinations seemed to have a major influence both in encouraging the use of the textbook method and failure to use the prescribed textbook in conjunction with other textbooks.

On the use of the textbook method one teacher was of the opinion that this method was more suited to coping with the demands of the standard ten

history examination paper set by the then Department of Education and Training.

The teacher's opinion was that it was

useless to refer the pupils to a number of books when the examiner is going to ask questions from a single textbook.

This view is shared by Van den Berg and Buckland who argue that certain history examiners have a tendency to:

base their matriculation examination papers and marking memoranda on predominantly one textbook (1983:32).

The use of the textbook method and the tendency of relying on a single textbook was thus likely to be greatly influenced by the pattern of the matriculation examination papers.

## 2.2 Resources available at these schools

Moodie cited in McNaught and Raubenheimer (1991) contends that the approach of simply putting material into the classroom produces little change in either teaching or in learning.

After visits had been made to the schools it was observed that there were very few resource materials available. Even the few materials at the disposal of the teachers were not put to best use.

Conditions at the schools in terms of resource materials were as follows:

i) Libraries

Of the six schools visited only one had a well-stocked library with adequate shelves. In the other five schools, although there were some books available which had been purchased from the grant by the department, most of these books were still in boxes.

Two reasons were cited by teachers as being responsible for lack of sufficient use of the library books available at some of the schools:

- \* lack of both desks and shelves had a negative effect on the use of the library; and
- \* the fact that of all the six schools only one had a full-time library teacher. This negatively affected the use of the library since the teacher responsible for the library had some teaching to do.

It was found that there was very little, if any, use of the libraries by the

pupils. No projects were given to the pupils to be done. When assignments were given, in many cases the pupils used only their textbooks as reference books.

ii) Teaching Resources

The chalkboard was the most used of the teaching resources. Teaching resources such as pictures and photographs which are readily available were absent in the schools.

It can be concluded, therefore, that it is not always as a result of financial constraints and unavailability of teaching materials that there was a general lack of use of the materials in schools. No efforts were made by the teachers to improvise and provide cheap materials that could be afforded by every school. Teachers often expected that they would have ready made resource materials made available to them.

Since the libraries in schools were found to be lacking in relevant reference books, teachers were found in most cases to be relying on a single textbook. It was interesting, however, to observe that while the teachers were found to lack a good supply of reference books, they used different books in their respective schools. Lack of communication between the teachers had made it impossible for such reference books to be shared between themselves.

### 3. CONCLUSION

This chapter dealt with the position of history in these schools before the programme started to operate. The picture obtained was that the teachers used mainly the traditional teaching methods in history teaching with very little use of modern teaching methods. Resource materials were found to be lacking in history teaching in these schools.

## CHAPTER SIX

### DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROGRAMME

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Observational visits were carried out as described in the previous chapter to construct a picture of what was happening in the schools prior to the implementation of the programme. The next step was to attempt some teaching methods which were found not to be used in these schools.

#### 2. SATURDAY CLASSES

After the winter holidays of 1993 networking between the schools involved in the programme was started. Three groups were formed from the eight teachers in the programme. The first and second group had three teachers each while the third group had two teachers. The writer played two roles within these groups, that of the observer and participant.

During each Saturday three of the six schools were visited. The other three schools were visited during the following Saturday.

This process went on for eight weeks from the beginning of August to the end of September 1993. Each school got a chance to be visited on four

occassions.

While not all of the pupils were present when these sessions were started, the number increased as the sessions continued.

In these meetings different teaching methods such as group work, sills-based approach and teaching for developing empathy were attempted.

## 2.1

### Group work

Group work was attempted as a method to be used in the teaching of history within this programme. It was hoped that this method would help increase the active participation of the pupils and improve their motivational level.

In a subject such as history where the pupils initially have to look at the content at their disposal in order to identify the elements of bias where they exist, group work appears to be an answer.

The group work method goes a long way in teaching pupils certain skills that can be learned through the study of history. The group work method helps learners to develop skills and abilities to communicate, to argue, to debate and to convince others.



The teachers discussed ways in which group work could be made to function in their respective schools. Each teacher was expected to divide his class into different groups. Each group was given a theme within a particular chapter to handle. After completion of the task the group leader would be required to present to the class his/her group's findings, and the class in turn asked questions from the presenter.

The teacher had the responsibility of ensuring that all members within a group participated and made valuable contributions. This process was not easy to introduce. Some problems were initially experienced with the implementation of groupwork. The main problem in this regard was the non-participation of the pupils. Pupils were used to the teaching methods where the teacher was doing much of the talking with the pupils listening. To try to eliminate problems of non-participation of the pupils topics were introduced that were of interest to the pupils and on which they could easily comment.

Involvement of the pupils in handling the content was intended to help in making the pupils empathize with the people being studied.

## 2.2 Skills-based approach

This method in history teaching which had come into practice with the implementation of the Schools' Council History Project in the United Kingdom, was seen as deserving of introduction in the schools involved in the

programme if history were to move from a largely content-based approach.

Mathews argues that the skills-based approach encourages "a spirit of enquiry, involving the critical use of source material" (1992:20). The skills-based approach depends on the use of both the skills and concepts. Important history skills involve analysis, evaluation, communication and synthesis.

It is important, therefore, to note that pupils will only be able to use skills and concepts after they have been exposed to the body of factual material which becomes a starting point. The starting point in introducing this method was to introduce the pupils to the content that they were supposed to study and introduce the skills-based approach thereafter. This means that the traditional approaches to history teaching such as the lecture and textbook methods were not to be discarded altogether.

The use of the skills-based approach was an attempt to help the pupils to be able to analyse the source materials and in doing that develop empathy with the historical figures they were studying.

The skills-based approach aimed at involving pupils in lessons. Pupils were involved in fieldwork, to allow them access to first hand information. Since Nongoma is far away from the big cities where there are museums and archives, pupils were exposed to different history books to get other points of view. They were expected to be critical in studying other books to assess

which information could be regarded as a reliable source.

The use of the skills-based approach to history teaching was an attempt to move away from the practice of over-reliance of facts but to use the facts as a basis from which arguments can be developed.

One teacher argued that if the skills-based approach was to become a common method in history teaching, the place of history in the school curriculum would not be debated.

It was, however, noted by the group that such a method would call for thorough preparation so as to help the pupils in their endeavours of exploration. Some teachers had initially thought that such a method would relieve them of their responsibilities but the opposite seemed true.

It was again noted that the success of this method of history teaching would depend to a large extent on the change of examination patterns to test elements of skills instead of requiring factual materials only. The pattern of the standard ten examination papers did not encourage the use of the skills-based approach.

## 2.3

### Teaching for empathy

Empathy is today recognized as an integral part of history. If teachers teach

with a purpose of making their pupils able to empathize with historical figures in the past, the value of history as a subject becomes clear.

Teaching for empathy calls for a teacher to involve their pupils in various activities, amongst others, role playing, games and simulations, music, drama, reading biographies and visits to museums and historical sites. Such teaching methods were encouraged.

Involving pupils in activities aiming at developing empathy was seen by the teachers as one of the means by which history as a subject could be made to "live". This method involves having historical characters seen as people who have lived like ourselves.

Empathy was introduced by asking pupils to imagine themselves as great leaders such as Adolf Hitler, Winston Churchill and Joseph Stalin and ask themselves how would they have behaved in similar situations as theirs.

### 3. USE OF RESOURCE MATERIALS

Teachers at the outset assumed that they would be supplied with support materials. It was obvious that this was what they were used to, even during their training. Teachers' expectations, therefore, included the provision of ready-made resources. Teachers' expectations reflected that they were used to being told what to do.

Teachers were encouraged to register in various libraries for membership so as to expose them to reading materials. Reading materials were expected to put the teachers in the picture regarding new trends and new methods in history teaching.

Teachers started to move away from the position of self-pity regarding the rural nature of their schools when they started to identify the resources in the locality which are relevant to history teaching. Places such as Isandlwana, Ulundi, Vryheid and others were identified for visiting because of their historical importance.

The rural nature of the area also posed many avenues for investigation. Old men and women provided unexploited sources of information regarding historical names of places, rivers and kraals.

Each school was seen as unique. Resource materials were to be developed to suit the specific school needs. By working together in classrooms, teachers helped each other to identify resources that could be improvised for use.

Newspapers, magazines, and tape recorders were seen as resource material which could be used in many lessons so as to bring the themes closer to the reality of the pupils.

## 5. CONCLUSION

At the beginning of the programme the teachers' concerns were mainly focused on the short-term and limited goals. As the programme progressed, however, the goals became broader.

The focus at first was on the improvement of matriculation results whereas these goals were broadened to include the quality of teaching itself. The preparedness of the teachers to improve their teaching practice was a positive indication of the professional development of teachers involved in the programme.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMME

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

It had been one of the principles on which this programme of teacher development was based to make available to the teachers opportunities that would allow them to take full responsibility for their own professional development. Opportunities were created that allowed the teachers to evaluate the programme and to reflect on the principles on which this had been based. The teachers were, therefore, exposed to each other's thoughts about the programme.

The teachers found themselves having to engage in a processes which called on their skill to reflect on their actions and to justify why particular actions were taken. This activity was something which the teachers were not used to.

#### 2. TEACHERS' COMMENTS ABOUT THE PROGRAMME

The interview schedules that had been prepared for the teachers included the following items:

- 2.1 Teachers' experiences of the programme
- 2.2 How the programme was run
- 2.3 Suggestions for future action.

From the detailed comments which the teachers made regarding the aspects mentioned above, a number of generalizations were arrived at based on commonly-held views.

- 2.1 Teachers' experiences
- 2.1.1 Loneliness driven away

Most of the teachers acknowledged that before being exposed to this programme they had not had situations that encouraged them to work together with their colleagues.

Most teachers felt that this programme taught them that a lot could be gained by working in groups. One teacher reiterated that:

Before I became a member of this group I used to mourn about history and teaching in general being boring. Now I seem to have a new lease of life.

It was, however, noted that the circumstances existing in schools did not encourage this working together. Such teachers seemed pre-occupied with



completing their tasks.

### 2.1.2 Insecurity driven away

It appeared from the comments of the majority of the teachers that they felt more secure when sharing responsibilities. One teacher commented that:

I used to feel insecure when I had to tackle a new task for the first time on my own. With the networking that was practised I felt confident about my adventure.

Teachers often experience fear of failure if they have to attempt a new strategy in the classroom. Most of the teachers were in agreement that working in groups made them feel more confident of tackling new tasks.

Sharing of responsibilities was not an easy task at first. The experience of teaching in the presence of another teacher was a unique experience for most of the teachers. A teacher remarked that:

When you have to teach in the presence of your colleague who may happen to be more conversant with the topic than you, you often feel nervous.

As more lessons were conducted in the presence of fellow colleagues, lessons

started to be "normal" and enjoyable.

Teachers again revealed that they usually feel more safe when they have to handle lessons using teaching methods which are commonly used in schools. The tendency, therefore, has been to resort to traditional teaching methods at the expense of modern teaching methods.

With the help of their colleagues the teachers began to be more prepared to attempt using teaching methods that they were not familiar with.

#### 2.1.3 Altering teaching styles

Since the teachers had to work collaboratively in this programme, their teaching styles were gradually becoming altered. Teachers found themselves having to reflect on their classroom practice and on why things were done in a particular way. Reflecting on classroom practice was helping teachers to question some commonly used teaching methods.

The change in the teaching styles did not take place in an orderly and consistent manner. There were times when new ideas were accepted with ease. There were, however, certain times when they had felt that ideas had to be altered or even rejected. This was evident from the practice observed when teachers time and again resorted to traditional methods if problems were experienced.

One teacher commented on the pressure encountered from the students if a teaching method the students were not familiar with was attempted in class.

He commented that:

Our students are used to the lecture method in history teaching.

When the teacher engages them in activities in which they themselves should be active, they think that the teacher is not conversant with the topic he handles.

This problem was reiterated by another teacher who commented that:

If the teacher was using a teaching method such as textbook method, pupils often feel that particular teacher hasn't done his/her preparations for the lesson.

The collaborative activities of the teachers handling the same subject helped them to be more confident in attempting different classroom strategies. One teacher was of the view that there was not much that could be done in altering the teaching methods if the syllabus remained unchanged.

Another teacher commented on the importance of changing the syllabus and the way of examining for the programme to be successful. He stated that:

Working towards the development of certain skills through

history teaching is useless if examinations still require that the students have mastered facts from the prescribed book.

#### 2.1.4 Learning to compromise

The many processes in which the teachers were engaged taught them to be able to compromise.

One teacher mentioned that by working with his colleagues:

I learned to respect another person's view point and thus became a better observer than it was the case in the past.

Another teacher, however, felt that the processes they had been exposed to would be more worthwhile if there was sufficient time put aside to develop their own teaching skills.

Teachers began on the whole to be better able to articulate their viewpoints, needs and concerns. Teachers started moving towards a direction where they were no longer prepared to accept things as they stood, but began to question why things were happening in a particular way. The process of questioning the existing state of affairs was a slow one since teachers had traditionally been used to being told what to do.

### 2.1.5 Learning to improvise

The teachers felt that by working together and being critical they began to be mindful of the availability of teaching aids that would help make their teaching more effective.

While they had believed that teaching aids would be made readily available to them, they started to look at their locality for the availability of such aids.

The fact that teachers possessed different textbooks used as references was an advantage to them. Collectively, they had many reference books to help in their teaching.

Having access to various sources, the teachers started to develop broad views on the subject, History. They started to question the content and were no longer satisfied with one version of particular events.

## 2.2 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON HOW THE PROGRAMME WAS RUN

Although the teachers felt that the time they had at their disposal for the programme was not sufficient, there was general agreement that the manner in which the programme was run contributed to:

- \* the programme being owned by the teachers,
- \* empowerment of the teachers, and
- \* broad personal development of the teachers.

### 2.2.1 Ownership of the programme

This programme was grounded in the philosophy that the teachers would ultimately own it. For the teachers to "own" the programme one of the most important elements was that of the need for them to be convinced about what they were working towards.

There were a number of processes in which the teachers were involved that helped to encourage the sense of ownership.

- \* planning of the activities was shared, thus the teachers became aware of the actions to be taken and the intended outcomes,
- \* teachers were to select the topics in the syllabus that they were happy to share with their colleagues - this gave them the opportunity to choose for themselves,
- \* teachers were given opportunities to work together with their colleagues and to visit schools to observe children in classroom

situations. This allowed the teachers to share their classroom experiences, and

- \* teachers expressed the view that they had in the past not been involved in the processes affecting their classroom practice.

It was again the feeling of most of the teachers that when the programme started they had not felt at ease about having to make decisions on their own. They had in the past been used to being "told what to do."

#### 2.2.2 Empowerment of teachers

Most of the teachers were convinced that although they had not been involved in this programme for a long time, it had succeeded in empowering them.

The programme was amongst other things concerned with contributing to the development of the ability of the individuals to take greater responsibility towards their own professional development.

Teachers had been encouraged to adapt all the strategies to which they had been exposed to suit their own particular needs. The teachers felt that this approach was more likely to succeed because it respected their own contributions and views on how lessons should be presented.

The programme recognized that each individual was unique and was capable of making a valuable contribution. Mistakes that were made by the teachers were not regarded as failures but as learning experiences from which improvements could be made.

This attitude encouraged the teachers to share their views without fear of rebuke.

### 2.2.3 Broad personal development of the teachers

When the programme started it was viewed by teachers as being limited to an attempt to satisfy the basic practical needs of the history teachers. In attempting to satisfy these needs their total outlook on the practice of teaching was greatly affected.

As the programme progressed, it was more and more viewed by the teachers as a vehicle through which their personal development could be enhanced. Since personal development is an ongoing process, it is not easy to ascertain to what level the teachers had been developed by being exposed to this programme.

## 2.3 Suggestions for future action

From the interview schedules of the teachers the following points emerged as



requiring consideration for future action:

- \* the consideration of all the teachers of history within the same school for involvement in the programme;
- \* emphasis to be put on the classes which were not externally examined to allow for greater freedom of experimentation; and
- \* the involvement of school inspectors and subject advisors to help teachers to become confident about engaging in various strategies without fear of reprimand.

### 3. PRINCIPALS' RESPONSES

Principals were requested to respond to interview schedules which required information on their expectations from the programme and whether their expectations had been met or not.

Aspects on which questions were asked involved:

- \* Examinations;
- \* Teaching methods; and
- \* Personal development of teachers.

### 3.1 Examinations

All the principals were in agreement that the programme would not be seen as successful if it did not lend to the betterment of the performance of the pupils in the examination.

Principals were again firm on the point that the syllabi should be completed to lead to better performance in the examinations. While the programme was not opposed to the element of good performance in the examinations, there was some conflict over how this issue was viewed. There was hope that performance in the examinations for its own sake without proper insight into the subject was not the real goal.

It appeared, however, that the schools and their principals were often judged according to the pass rates in the matriculation examination, hence their anxiety to obtain good results.

### 3.2 Teaching methods

Of the six principals, two appeared prepared to give teachers freedom to experiment in different teaching methods. The rest of the principals, however, were more at ease with traditional teaching methods that they themselves were familiar with.

It was again on the subject of examinations that this concern was based. The majority of the principals opted for teaching methods that had proved to be successful in the past.

### 3.3 Personal development of the teachers

Personal development of the teachers, although regarded as important by the principals, was viewed as a long term goal. Most principals felt that personal development of the teachers did not have the immediate practical benefits for the school and the pupils.

This attitude of the principals was not surprising since they themselves were constantly subjected to pressures coming from both the school inspectors and the parents with regard to the learning of the pupils in the schools. Seeing to it that "proper" teaching took place in the school thus become of major concern.

All the principals, nevertheless, were supportive of the programme, but they had some reservations about the immediate benefits to be derived from it.

One principal referred to the programme as "a step in the right direction". However, he was not very convinced about the long-term benefits of such a programme viewing the rate at which teachers were transferred from one

school to another.

All the principals were prepared to allow their teachers to continue with their involvement in the programme but suggested that only the first term be used to avoid teachers falling behind with their syllabi.

#### 4. CONCLUSION

Both teachers and the principals generally felt that the programme was worthwhile. There were, however, concerns with trying to effect changes while the conditions were still the same in schools.

The programme was seen to be likely to yield some benefits if more time could be put aside for it. The principals were more happy with the early months of the year being used for this purpose.

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study was to report and evaluate a programme of teacher development in which the teachers themselves would be actively involved .

In this concluding chapter, firstly an exposition is made on the principles which underpinned this model of teacher development. Secondly an outline is made of the issues which could be considered if similar programmes were developed in future.

#### 2. REFLECTIONS ON THE MODEL AND PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING IT

The programme helped the teachers to work collaboratively. This resulted in the development of a sense of shared experience. By sharing their experiences teachers began to learn from each other and to supplement each other in areas where weaknesses were experienced. Teachers learned to understand what was happening in other schools. Being exposed to what their colleagues were doing in other schools, gave them an understanding that they were not alone in the problems they were facing.

The processes the teachers had been involved in were in line with the problem-solving model of Havelock where the teachers had to be fully involved in their own development.

By working collaboratively feelings of loneliness and insecurity were reduced. The support that the teachers were receiving from their colleagues enabled them to tackle some of the problems that they were not likely to be able to handle on their own. Some topics were handled using methods that had not been commonly used in the subject within these schools.

It was again learned from the programme that change takes time. As the programme progressed it became clear that for change to take place the teachers involved should be convinced about the need for change and must be prepared to work towards that change. People working towards change must not expect quick results.

An important aspect of the programme was the development of interpersonal relationships between the members of the group. Close friendships developed between the members. This development of friendship helped the members, and enabled them to teach and attempt new strategies in the presence of fellow members without fear of failure.

The programme encouraged an element of improvisation and discouraged expectations to be provided with ready-made materials. Teachers were able to share facilities and materials that each happened to possess. Teachers were not used to sharing things. This goes back even to pre-service education where each person had to struggle on his/her own.

### 3. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE ACTION

The following recommendations are made for future implementation of such a programme. It is recommended that:

- \* in the development of such programmes teachers in schools must be fully involved. This will help them to understand the principles underlying these models;
- \* sufficient time should be put aside for such activities if they are going to be successful. Ample time is likely to allow teachers to be best able to adjust themselves to the processes involved and in understanding the roles they are expected to play;
- \* teachers must be assisted to produce cheap teaching aids even during their pre-service training so that by the time they become serving teachers they are best equipped to improvise. Teachers often expect ready-made teaching materials to be provided for them; and

- \* teachers themselves should be involved in identifying what they regard to be their needs in the field of professional development. This is not an easy task when one takes into account the learning backgrounds of most of the teachers who had been exposed to an education that did not encourage professional development for a long time.

#### 4. CONCLUSION

It would be a mistake to think that difficulties that were apparent in this programme were easy to resolve. The strict authoritarian surroundings in which the teachers worked sometimes made it difficult to experiment with new teaching methods. The strict control over what takes place in schools sometimes does not allow the teachers freedom to teach according to their own professional judgement.

The general lack of properly qualified teachers willing to take teaching posts in rural schools also serves as a handicap for such a programme. There is no doubt that teachers in the rural areas are the people who need to be exposed most to the programmes of teacher development since they are removed from most of the necessary elements of education. A positive aspect about the rural teachers is that they have not been greatly influenced by unionism and hence their willingness to give more than is officially expected of them.



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## APPENDIX A

**TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE ON HISTORY TEACHING IN THE**  
**NONGOMA CIRCUIT**

The aim of the questionnaire is to find out what happens in your History classrooms, your feelings about teaching History and your ideas on what History teaching should be. (The information you provide in this questionnaire will be treated as confidential).

**INSTRUCTIONS:** Please place a tick in the appropriate box. You might need to tick more than one box in some question.

1. Name of your school: .....

2. Your gender

Male

Female


3. For how many years (or months) have you been teaching?

.....

4. What is the structure of your qualification?

Matric	<div></div>
College Diploma	<div></div>
Degree	<div></div>
Post-Grad Teaching Diploma	<div></div>

5. What is your highest level of education?

Matric	<div></div>
College History	<div></div>
University History I	<div></div>
University History II	<div></div>
University History III	<div></div>

(College History - if different from Matric content)

6. What other subjects do you teach? .....  
.....

7. What is the average number of pupils in your History classes? (Place numbers in boxes)

Std 6	<div></div>	Std 7	<div></div>
Std 8	<div></div>	Std 9	<div></div>
Std 10	<div></div>		

8. What methods of teaching do you normally use in your history lesson?

.....  
.....  
.....

9. How often do you use the prescribed textbook?

Never	<input type="text"/>
Seldom	<input type="text"/>
Often	<input type="text"/>
Always	<input type="text"/>

10. Do you use references other than prescribed textbooks?

Never	<input type="text"/>
Seldom	<input type="text"/>
Often	<input type="text"/>

\* If you do, where do you get that material from?  
.....  
.....

11. Do you use small group teaching?

Never	<input type="text"/>
Seldom	<input type="text"/>
Often	<input type="text"/>
Always	<input type="text"/>

12. How many days a week do you give your pupils homework?

Zero	<input type="text"/>	One	<input type="text"/>
Two	<input type="text"/>	Three	<input type="text"/>
Four	<input type="text"/>	Five	<input type="text"/>

13. How often do you give your pupils tests?

Weekly	<input type="checkbox"/>	Fortnightly	<input type="checkbox"/>
Monthly	<input type="checkbox"/>	Quarterly	<input type="checkbox"/>
Half yearly	<input type="checkbox"/>		

14. Do you use any other means of assessment, over and above tests/exams?

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

\* If 'Yes', what are these?

.....

.....

.....

15. Do you enjoy teaching History?

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

16. How do you feel about the content of the History taught at schools?

.....

.....

.....

.....

17. Do you think History is enjoying the status it deserves in our schools?

Yes

☐

No

☐

\* If 'No', specify:

.....

.....

.....

.....

18. What, in your opinion, are the needs of local history teachers?

.....

.....

.....

.....

19. How can these needs be met?

.....

20. What do you think can be done by history teachers should do to improve their teaching?

.....

.....

.....

Thank you for answering this questionnaire.

APPENDIX B

1. The Programme and Examinations:

1.1 Do you hope that this programme of teacher development will help improve examination results?

Yes

No


1.2 If it fails to improve examination results, will you view it as having being a failure?

Yes

No


2. Position of history in these schools:

2.1 Say something about enrolments for history in comparison with science or commercial subjects.

.....

.....

.....

2.2 What are the reasons for the difference in enrolment if there are any?

.....

.....

.....

2.3 What can you say about the nature of history as a subject?

.....

.....

.....



## APPENDIX C

### TEACHER INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1.        Teaching Experience
  - 1.1        As a teacher in general.
  - 1.2        As a history teacher.
  - 1.3        As a teacher at the present school.
  
2.        Class particulars
  - 2.1        What is the size of your history class?
  - 2.2        Have your students chosen history voluntarily? If no, give details.
  
3.        Teaching methods
  - 3.1        What teaching methods do you often use?
  - 3.2        What influences your choice of the teaching method(s)?
  
4.        In-service particulars
  - 4.1        Have you attended any in-service course in history? If yes, when?
  - 4.2        Are there any history teacher groupings that you have ever belonged to? If yes, give details.

5. Library

- 5.1 Does your school have any library?
- 5.2 If yes, is the library well furnished?
- 5.3 Are there sufficient books in the library?

6. Resources

- 6.1 Which textbook do you use?
- 6.2 Is the textbook you use similar to the one used by the pupils?
- 6.3 Do you refer to other textbooks?
  - a) If yes, how often? .....
  - b) If no, why not? .....

**APPENDIX D**

**TEACHERS' INTERVIEW SCHEDULE**

**EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMME**

1. What experiences were derived from your involvement in this programme?
2. What are your comments about the way in which the programme was run?
3. What are your suggestions for future action?

## **APPENDIX E**

### **PRINCIPAL'S INTERVIEW SCHEDULE EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMME**

1.       Teaching methods
  - 1.1       Do you care which teaching methods teachers in your school use?
  - 1.2       Do your teachers have freedom to experiment with other teaching methods other than those traditionally used?
  
2.       Personal development of the teachers
  - 2.1       Do you regard personal development of the teachers as important? If yes, why?
  - 2.2       What aspects of personal development should be emphasized?
  - 2.3       What factors in your school adversely affect such a programme?