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FACULTY OF EDUCATION

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN CURRICULUM DECISION MAKING

**A study of teachers' opinions on history education at secondary schools
in the Cape Peninsula.**

**A dissertation presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Education.**

by

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ABSTRACT

The current debates about curriculum policy decision making and the empirical investigation into the teaching of history in South Africa undertaken by the Human Sciences Research Council (1989-1991) have prompted this study. The research undertaken attempts to examine how history teachers' opinions can be collected, interpreted and utilised for curriculum policy formulation.

The dissertation initially considers participation in curriculum decision-making and presents the case for the inclusion of teachers in decision making structures and processes. Recent initiatives in South Africa which have attempted to involve teachers in curriculum policy formulation are then examined. A research project was undertaken which surveyed the opinions of history teachers and the Cape Peninsula by means of questionnaires and interviews. Its results demonstrate that the research methodology employed impacts strongly on the information that is gathered and on the way that it can be utilised in curriculum policy formulation.

The main conclusions reached were that teacher participation could contribute to a less technicist and more person-centered approach in curriculum development. This approach could improve the quality of the product (syllabus documents) and its subsequent adoption and implementation. The degree to which a school identifies with the syllabuses would be far greater, which would ensure flexibility and willingness to adapt to policies in which teachers have a sense of ownership.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the study

History education has been extensively debated and criticised as regards its value, objectives and syllabuses. Research into history curriculum development has been largely ignored in South Africa until fairly recently. Previous attempts at curriculum development resulted in syllabus revision by bureaucratic “experts” without taking into account the views and experience of practitioners, that is, teachers. How popular is history among high school pupils? How relevant is history as a school subject, for example, as it relates to the world of work? What teaching methodology should be encouraged to stimulate a valuable learning experience for the pupil? How much freedom is to be given to teachers in selecting the syllabus content? How do teachers view the subject from their perspectives as practitioners of the subject? Answers to these and other pertinent questions regarding the history curriculum cannot be answered confidently without the inclusion and participation of teachers in curriculum policy development. As practitioners and implementers of curriculum policy, they provide invaluable insight and information into curriculum development procedures.

It is from this perspective and from personal experience of disillusionment as a history teacher that this study is undertaken. The central question underlying this study is:

“How can the opinions of senior secondary school history teachers be gathered, interpreted and utilised in the formulation of curriculum policy?”

1.2. Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to examine the opinions of secondary school history teachers in the Cape Peninsula towards history education for the purpose of providing useful information

which could be utilised in the formulation of curriculum policy. The testing of the validity of some of the findings of the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) study, "An empirical investigation into the teaching of history in the RSA", provides a starting point because the analysis and interpretation of the data is perceived as being questionable from a curriculum planning perspective.

Rationale for this research

This research project was undertaken to provide information that would inform, in part, the democratisation of education policy in South Africa. The inclusion of teachers in the curriculum making process is perceived by various organisations, for example, National Education Conference (NEC), as a means of broadening the participatory base. The call for teacher participation in the curriculum decision making process is prevalent from many sources [NEPI (1992); NEC (1992); Christie (1993)] but research about what teachers think about the issue is lacking. The lack of research in South Africa on the issue, exposure to the issue from discussions and seminars, and from personal dissatisfaction with the history syllabus, provided the incentive to undertake this research project.

1.4. Significance

The research is intended to provide information that would provide a basis that would support the argument that teachers should be involved in curriculum decision making. This has implications for the democratisation of education policy in the future.

1.5. Conclusion

The following five chapters are concerned with the main issues mentioned in this introductory chapter. In Chapters Two and Three participation in curriculum policy is discussed. Chapter

Two specifically, provides evidence from a theoretical and international research perspective that supports the inclusion of teachers in the curriculum decision making process. In Chapter Four, the involvement of teachers in three curriculum development initiatives undertaken in South Africa, is considered. Chapter Five contains an account of the methodology employed, analysis and interpretation of the data, gathered which, in turn, provided the basis of Chapter 6. This final chapter gives an overview of the study, discusses the implications for the future education system and provides guidelines for teacher participation in a future history curriculum.

CHAPTER 2 : PARTICIPANTS IN CURRICULUM DECISION MAKING

2.1. Introduction

Participation in curriculum decision making has generated extensive debate in various parts of the world. In the USA and Britain, the question has recently been highlighted because of moves towards a centralised curriculum and in South Africa the issue is related to the democratisation of all aspects of society, including education. There are different kinds of curriculum decisions which, broadly, may include those pertaining to the aims of schooling, syllabuses, objectives, course offerings, methods of teaching and assessment. In addition, there remains an important category of curriculum decision making within the various subject curricular areas about what content to teach and how.

2.2. The South African perspective

A centrally determined curriculum has been the norm in South Africa and it is only recently that there has been a shift to call for the inclusion of all interest groups in the curriculum making process. Writers on South African education have raised the question about teacher participation in curriculum decision making but evidence based on research is lacking. King and van der Berg (1991:37) state that ^{*}“curriculum development should promote teacher involvement and development, and not reduce teachers to mere functionaries whose task is to carry out instructions specified in the finest detail by others”.

* A similar perception is found in Christie (1993:10) who asserts that “policies to increase the participation of teachers in curriculum decision making and to develop their skills would also be important in changing the social relations of the curriculum”. The NEPI Curriculum

Report (1992:25) also suggests that “one of the first challenges of the new system will be to open up curriculum decision making to broader participation and to appropriate public accountability”. However, the call for teacher participation does not address the issue adequately, and a review of the international literature is necessary to provide a convincing argument in favour of teacher participation.

2.3. An international perspective

According to Carson (1984:19) who writes about the American context, political questions about who ought to have control of the curriculum decision making would never arise if questions about what children ought to learn, when and how were fixed. But, because various role players in education are seldom in agreement about what should be taught, therefore the matter of who should decide persists.

Klein (1991a), also from an American perspective, develops the issue about who makes curriculum decisions and postulates that this is a fundamental question which has not been answered very consistently or successfully over the years. She further asserts that whoever makes the decisions has great power over what students will and will not learn at school. This is not problematic but the fact that some people work towards gaining this power and become involved in making curriculum decisions, and then protect their right to make them, is a problem. Some would like to have an influence but not be directly responsible for making most curriculum decisions.

*Others believe curriculum decisions should be made exclusively by expert educators because they are trained professionals, and they want little or no involvement of parents or the

community. The existence of these groups which either protect curriculum decision-making rights and privileges or leave curriculum decisions to others, has produced competing participants and decisions which are not always conducive to the best interests of teachers and students, or, for that matter education as a whole (Klein 1991a :24).

What becomes clear is that these participants have considerable although varying responsibilities to plan, implement and evaluate the curriculum that is offered to students and teachers and that students experience. Curriculum decision-making from this point of view appears to be a maze of influence and power struggles which only some people win. Some participants consistently get to make decisions more often, and make the more important decisions. This implies that others have little or no opportunity to play a significant role in curriculum decision making.

Participants within and across the various decision making levels, (academic, societal and instructional, for example) may try to influence different elements, for example, aims, content, assessment of curriculum planning and implementation, or they may try to influence a decision about the same element.¹

For example, at the academic level, some may want to update the content of a subject in which they are experts; others may want to create new resource materials for teachers at the instructional level or improve the materials used to teach their particular areas of interest. Each of these is an important but significantly different curriculum decision.

¹ A detailed exposition of the levels and elements of the curriculum is excluded in this review because the focus is on decision making but for the purposes of clarity and coherence, an example will be cited. See Klein (1991a).

Goodlad (1991) argues that the issue is not the shifting of decision making power from one locus to another [this assumes that power is finite] but rather how to include other key players in education, in particular teachers, in curriculum planning and decision making. He suggests that educators should join with all relevant decision makers in an educational process through which the gap between the professional and the informed remains small but at a high level of educational understanding. The appeal makes the educational well-being of the community, not personal and professional aggrandisement a priority. This implies that the self-interest of the decision maker should not be satisfied at the expense of education.

Goodlad cautions against those who claim a niche in the teaching profession as curriculum specialists and theorists but concedes that they can contribute to the development of this professionalism in several ways (1991:21).

A proposition that can be advanced is that there are no curriculum decisions exclusively for professionals to make. Similarly, there are no curriculum decisions exclusively in the domain of policy makers and public officials ["expert bureaucrats"]. There is a multiplicity of potential participants, even at the instructional level where teachers have extensive but not necessarily, exclusive influence.

In the final analysis, the question is not whether curriculum decisions should be made at national or the regional or the school level. It is that at all of the above, there are those who are deeply concerned about the curricula which are developed for students, and therefore should be involved in the process. An effective and appropriate role should be developed for

all those participants who should be involved in the process, and any imbalance which exists should be corrected. (By implication then, teachers must be part of the decision making process in curriculum planning and cognisance must be taken of the argument that teachers are not merely "implementation agents" (Connelly and Peretz, 1980:98).

Connelly and Peretz (1980) argue that it is only appropriate to view teachers as mere implementers where curriculum policy clearly reflects public wishes, for example, a policy of equal opportunity, which teachers are obliged to implement (ibid.:98). The acceptance of the school (and its teachers in particular), as a site of curriculum change presents fresh opportunities for curriculum theorists and practitioners to collaborate together on their ideas so that ways can be found to make the deliberation process more meaningful and more effective in the formulation and practice of the curriculum.

CHAPTER 3 : A CASE FOR TEACHER PARTICIPATION

“If you entrust the education of your children to people who call themselves teachers, then certainly these people should have a say in what should be taught in the classroom”

(Teacher interviewed by Young, 1985:410).

3.1. The rationale

3.1.1. Professionalism

The literature on curriculum development has generally supported teacher participation on both philosophical and pragmatic grounds. The starting point for many writers was the 1970s management philosophy which stressed employees' rights to participate in decisions affecting the work they do. This idea is caused by dissatisfaction with the predominant top-down model of administration which as Sieber (1972) (in Young 1989) noted, treats teachers as functionaries in a bureaucratic system. This attitude is thought to be incompatible with a growing professionalism amongst teachers.

Engaging in curriculum development presents teachers with numerous advantages that can result in increased professionalism, self-understanding and knowledge. Because of these advantages, Martin-Kniep and Uhrmacher (1992) argue that teachers should have greater opportunities to develop curricula. They argue further that teacher participation in curriculum development would benefit teachers in various ways.

It encourages teachers to think in broader terms about the curriculum and education than they would in their usual classroom practice. Another way in which professionalism is enhanced is that curriculum planning requires that teachers capture their ideas and pedagogical techniques

in written language which forces teachers to fine tune their ideas and methods. Thus, it is through the process of conceptualising, organising and writing curricula, that teachers can gain an increased understanding of their content material. Furthermore, this process would ensure that teachers' ideas and views are not reduced to unauthorised opinions (Goodlad 1991:19).

The advantages of utilising teachers as curriculum developers override the challenges if and when professional constraints are addressed. It should be noted that not every teacher desires to write or develop curriculum materials (Young 1989, in Martin-Kniep and Uhrmacher 1992:270) nor is every teacher able to do so even though interest may be great. Some teachers might be inclined towards the development of curricula, therefore, providing them with the opportunity would enhance their professional development as well as the quality of the curriculum.

It should be recognised that teaching and curriculum development are different professional enterprises and that there are constraints which might impinge on the role of teachers as curriculum developers (Martin-Kniep and Uhrmacher 1992:270). However, as Connelly and Peretz (1980:103) explain, teachers must be permitted the opportunity to play a significant role in the complex process of educational decision-making despite any possible constraints.

Klein (1991a:11) is a proponent of expanding the role of the teacher and enhancing the status of teaching as a profession because she believes it would result in an improved curriculum and a better educational system.

Griffin (1991) strongly opposes the conception of teachers as technicians which has excluded their role in curriculum decision making. He explains that “the primary intellectual distinction between a professional and a lay person is the professional’s specialised knowledge and skills which range from techniques such as differentiating between lower and higher order questions and conceptual perspectives on how learning can and should occur in educational situations “ (1991:131).

He does, however, call for more adequate preparation of future teachers so that they may take their rightful place in the curriculum decision making process.

3.1.2. Ownership and empowerment

Schwartz (1991) suggests that teacher empowerment is consistent with the pragmatic argument which favours decentralisation of decision making power and as it is accepted that teachers are experts in classroom matters, they therefore should be able to reach consensus [within a collegium] on what should be taught and how. Furthermore, curriculum innovation within a context that allows teacher participation, will be implemented because teachers have ownership of the policies they develop. The teacher empowerment model also assumes that participation in decisions enhances teachers’ morale and productivity.

The probability is low that teachers will implement an external curriculum policy, and share in its objectives if it is inconsistent with ongoing classroom practice. By implication they must participate in decision making at some level or other; experience a sense of ownership in the policy and then they will be committed to implementation. If not, they will resist, for example, by foot dragging.

This pragmatic perception of teacher participation in curriculum decision making has been expanded by Young (1989:363) who argued that teacher participation would encourage other teachers to use the materials that are produced. Young refers to work carried out by Bidwell (1965) who pointed out that the inclusion of teachers in curriculum planning committees indirectly gains the legitimacy of teacher consent for the work of these committees.

It is also thought that the curriculum materials which teachers help to produce will be perceived by other teachers as more worthwhile than those produced by educators who have little classroom contact. Reasons for this viewpoint are provided by Young (1989: 363-364).

They include:

1. Teachers have practical knowledge of classroom teaching and as curriculum workers will thus be able to evaluate the workability of curriculum materials. This is important because other teachers must perceive any proposed change as being practical before they will implement it in their classrooms. (Dolye and Ponder 1977 in Young 1989).
2. Teachers may ensure that the materials are written in a manner which is understandable to other teachers, a crucial point because research by Fullan and Pomfret (1977) has shown that a curriculum must be clear and easy to understand if it is to be implemented. This is in accordance with the ideas suggested by Martin-Kniep and Uhrmacher (1992).

A caveat in the pragmatic argument has been mentioned by Klein (1991a : 16) who stated that "the rhetoric of empowering teachers leaves methods of teaching to teachers but may say nothing about their freedoms with respect to the selection of content or matters." Notwithstanding this, she substantiates the need for teacher empowerment by declaring that teachers must be directly involved in proposals for change and must develop ownership of

them if they are to become a reality. Meaningful change will not occur if teachers are simply technicians waiting to carry out "orders" [simply doing their jobs] to implement with high levels of conviction and commitment, a curriculum planned by people who are far removed from classrooms and without teacher participation. It is useful to note that even teachers who favour a highly centralised curriculum do not necessarily implement it in the classroom as planned.

3.1.3. Expertise/ experience/ competency

Competency:

Carson (1984) argues that the special contribution teachers can make to curriculum development relates to their understanding of the content, resources and activities needed to stimulate learning among a given group of students. It is this understanding that enables teachers to produce a curriculum with the fewest shortcomings and this alone should be viewed as an important criterion for effective curriculum planning.

Carson considers the issue of competency in curriculum decision making from a political perspective (1984:21).

" ... if one considers the political argument, for example, if the state is to control the curriculum, then presumably it is competent to do so. Equally, if students are to claim a moral right to control their own affairs, including curriculum selection, they must be competent to make those choices otherwise what it is they have a right to do, namely make curriculum decisions, cannot possibly be achieved, making any rights claim is nonsense. More than simply a presupposition of moral and political arguments, competence is indeed an integral part of such claims."

The principle of competence forms the basis of his support for teacher control of curriculum decisions. The control Carson refers to is " at the very least, having the final say" (1984:21).

He further asserts that teachers are the most competent among alternative candidates, though

they are by no means ideal. The case to be made for teachers in this regard has two major considerations:

1. Experience is crucial to competence in decision-making.
2. The teaching profession can boast a degree of experience which other potential decision makers do not.

Experience:

Many curriculum theory writers² support the notion that teachers' experience enables them to analyse new curriculum ideas and their potential use for the classroom. The point of departure in this discussion is that understanding deepens with experience.

Carson (1984) makes the most convincing and clear argument that experience legitimates teacher participation in curriculum decision making.

He argues that if one had to choose a decision maker for schooling activities - for what gets taught, when and how - it would be advisable to select someone or a group who understands the structure of schooling and who has had that understanding refined by direct experience.

He proceeds to explain that teachers, by virtue of their professional training, general university education, experience and social consciousness of their students and attitudes of the parents in local situations are surely best placed to assess the workability of alternatives presented to them and to decide among them. This by no means implies that teachers should ignore consultation with other interested and knowledgeable members of the educational community nor does it deny external influence. The implication is that consultation and influence are

² Kimpston and Rogers (1988); Carson (1984); Klein (1991); Connelly and Peretz (1980).

compatible with Carson's main contention that teachers have the final say. He warns that to deny teachers this level of control would demonstrate utter contempt for the teaching profession and would give rise to far more serious questions about the soundness of the teacher/student relationship in relation to knowledge and understanding.

According to Carson, the wealth of understanding which can be generated only from experience develops as a result of conceptual and a well grounded understanding of teaching and schooling. These as far as he is concerned, "are sufficient grounds to justify the claim that teachers - and often the particular classroom teachers - ought to have control of decisions within the structure" (1984:25).

The question around whether a subject, like, History or a topic within History, ought to be compulsory or taught at all depends on, among other reasons, their first hand understanding of the needs and interests of particular students. This understanding and knowledge together with broad educationally sound reasons for including a subject, places the teachers by virtue of professional knowledge in an important position to assess the feasibility of the subject for a particular school. Similarly, other curriculum decisions are also dependent on the outcomes of direct experience. For example, aims and objectives of a subject would be impracticable and appear unrealistic if the context of the school and its student population are disregarded. It is in situations of this nature that teacher experience in curriculum planning would be most valuable.

The significance of Carson's arguments is that curriculum decisions within and about an education situation require a knowledge of that particular situation. Such knowledge evolves

out of an insider's experience, since such experience can yield additional perspectives to knowledge gained externally by, for example, theories of education.

In this discussion on teacher participation, it becomes clear that curriculum decision making requires knowledge which is experience-based. An important aspect of this experience involves awareness of the constantly changing character of schooling - changing students, parents, community needs and resources. Teachers are in close contact with these circumstances daily, and on this basis they should participate as decision makers.

Carson (1984:20) defends the notion of consultation with all interested parties - in the curriculum making process as long as the final say is left to teachers. The other role players in curriculum matters should not have the final say according to Carson because they do not have knowledge of the holistic view of schooling.

He further suggests that a counter argument can be provided to protagonists who believe that the multiplicity of inputs would yield more competent decisions. The competency of these decisions could be rejected on the grounds of a lack of experience particularly if the decision makers excluded teachers. Also, the number of inputs do not necessarily ensure competent decisions.

Connelly and Peretz (1980) are among other curriculum theorists who suggest that teachers be viewed as decision makers and independent curriculum developers and describes the teachers' roles as:

"The strength and major contribution of a curriculum developer are that he works with and can translate involved ideas into a form useful for teachers and

students. However, the developer cannot imagine, let alone account for, the full range of teaching situations that arise. It is here that the teacher's experience enters into curriculum planning in a way that cannot be adequately replaced".
(p.101)

Expertise :

Schubert (1991:184) makes a very striking assertion about what teachers say about themselves. According to him, "teachers contend that they are more expert than others in what constitutes good teaching and what ought to be taught". Kimpston and Rogers (1988) declare that teachers bring a special expertise to the curriculum development process. The teachers' day-to-day contact with students, places them in a favourable position to make a valuable contribution to curriculum development.

Schubert (1991:99) stated that the issue regarding where control ought to be depends on who has the greatest expertise about which aspects of curriculum. Drawing upon Dewey, Rugg and others, Ralph Tyler (1949) pointed out that the curriculum should be based on authority found in subject matter, social needs and needs of learners as individuals. Those who have expertise in each of these bases for curriculum development might be state officials, parents, teacher educators, teachers, students, researchers etc. Therefore it can be deduced that teachers have some form of expertise with which they can participate in curriculum decision making. As Schubert (1991:100) stated, "the balancing act of providing for relative degrees of control from these curriculum decision makers according to their expertise in a given set of circumstances is a difficult task indeed...". As difficult as it may be, it is one that must be addressed and possibly reviewed periodically within the set of circumstances prevalent at the time. It is important because it could provide information on the growth of individuals in a democracy.

McClure (1991:201) succinctly expresses the inter-relatedness of the expertise/ competency/ experience argument as follows:

“Active involvement in curriculum making meant interpreting goals, establishing objectives, designing learning opportunities, determining the ways in which student learning would be assessed and communicating with parents and the community about achievement. These responsibilities required that participants continually develop expertise in the pedagogical- the fundamentals of curriculum planning- and more importantly keep abreast of substantive developments in the content of the curriculum. Decision making authority means that expertise is coupled with responsibility which is coupled with an increase in competence.”

3.1.4. Democracy / decentralisation

The direct experience argument supports the decentralization of curriculum decision making which in turn supports participative democracy in education policy making. The decision as to who will make curriculum decisions and what type of curriculum will consequently be offered to students will have a significant impact on other educational issues and the process of democratisation of society and education in particular. To this end a centralised curriculum implicitly defines the role of the teacher as a technician and disregards creativity and professional skills from the classroom teacher. Many educationists and curriculum theorists regard Dewey's philosophy of education as the best rationale for grassroots democracy. It also provides an argument against the centralised and mandatory curriculum.

Schubert, a proponent of the Deweyan ideal of curriculum, describes it as “created locally by teachers and learners who pursue genuine interests and concerns, realise that those concerns and interests symbolise perennial human interests, and draw upon extant knowledge” (1991:104). However, he views the attainment of the ideal as being “an uphill battle since its

inception". Schubert offers Dewey's perspective as an alternative to the prevailing tendency to centralise and mandate the curriculum.

Proponents of "back - to - basics" in a centralised curriculum favour a position where experts design a curriculum that is good for all students regardless of class, race, ethnicity and gender. This raises serious questions about the nature of democracy as a grassroots enterprise. Advocates of grassroots democracy call for active participation by those most fully engaged in the situation where curriculum decision becomes policy.

A highly centralised curriculum disregards teachers and students in curriculum decision making and by implication it also disregards participative democracy. However, the state's role in providing quality education in an equitable manner must not be ignored in the criticism of a centralised curriculum. Ideally, the decision making process should encompass the state and other key players in the educational process.

According to Schubert, the core issue in the centralisation and decentralisation debate is the "question of faith in human nature and its potential and the amount of external or internal control needed for decisions and actions to be considered good and just" (1991:115). Klein (1991b) expresses complete disagreement with the top-down approach for curriculum change because this type of strategy produces insignificant and temporary changes. She goes on to state that "very often these changes are blunted at the classroom door" (1991b:22). This implies that even if teachers do not participate in the decision making structures they can decide (my emphasis) to refuse to implement the curriculum.

Schwartz (1991) argues that neither top-down nor bottom-up development is appropriate because centralised decision making does not expect enough of classroom teachers whereas total teacher control over decisions expects too much. What emerges from Schwartz's argument is that teachers should assume most of the responsibility for curriculum planning in the future.

This can only be achieved if the teachers acquire adequate professional preparation and the culture of past practices changes.

Proposals for change in policy formulation call for shared authority which by implication includes teachers and other significant role players, for example, expert based academics. A two-pronged approach of policy development with the central government representing a broad, global perspective and the school representing local interest, is suggested by Schubert. This proposal signifies a compromise between what the state and those who favour the decentralisation of decision making desire.

3.2. Research findings - International literature

Research has shown that, although the outcomes described above are very desirable, they are, however, not confirmed by hard data. Young (1989) has found that research on participation in decision-making was initially conducted in industrial settings, and the results are not necessarily transferable to school. In addition, reviews of research conducted in school settings have revealed mixed results. For example, Fullan and Pomfret (1977) in Young concluded that research relating to participation and implementation is inconclusive, and Conway (1984) found that although the majority of studies tend to support the proposition that

participation in decision making increases job satisfaction, but “there still occurs about one in three empirical studies that does not confirm the proposition” (in Young 1989 :365). This implies that the field is wide open for further research on this issue. However, recent studies do provide evidence that positive outcomes do occur. For example, Kimpston and Young (1985) show, at the very best, that teacher participation in decision making is complex and is dependent on many variables. One of those variables is the attitude of teachers towards participation. Research has shown that not all teachers find participation attractive. However, there is also evidence that teachers’ attitudes towards participation depend not only on the degree of participation but on the kinds of decisions that are being made (Young 1989: 363-373).

Ponder and Bulcock (1976) found that a large discrepancy existed between desired and actual participation with regard to certain kinds of educational decisions but not to others. Their data on curriculum decision making, in particular, showed that the greatest discrepancy was related to the choice of texts and instructional material for the curriculum, and the least discrepancy was exhibited in the choice of the basic outline and detailed content of the curriculum. This research also suggested that teachers’ desires for participation in decision making depended on the kinds of decisions, the amount of experience they brought into the process and the degree to which they were required to participate. Teachers have expressed very definite preferences for particular types of curriculum work including:

1. The translation of curriculum into instruction .
2. The development of activities directly related to their individual classrooms. [From Kimpston and Rogers (1988: 351-367)

Hoy and Miskel(1978), researchers in the field of educational administration, found that the desire to participate in decision making was related to the interests and benefits which subordinates have in the decision making process.

A study conducted by Young (1989) led to the identification of six major factors related to willingness to participate in curriculum committees:

1. self assurance; 2. professionalism; 3. demands of teaching; 4. competition with other activities; 5. pragmatism; 6. opinions of committee work.

The first four factors operated in both a positive and negative manner, i.e. if the factor was present, the teacher would be likely to participate in curriculum committees. If the factor was absent, the teacher would be unlikely to participate.

When participation in curriculum planning goes beyond the classroom level, much scepticism about personal benefits, as well as about the success of the efforts, results. Researchers have consistently argued that teachers' perception of active participation in development and actual involvement of teachers in the development process significantly affect the successful implementation of the curriculum. (Young 1979; Fullan and Pomfret 1977, in Kimpston and Rogers 1988:360).

3.3. Limitations and significance

The literature reviewed provides a theoretical basis which supports teacher participation in curriculum decision making. The argument against teacher participation on the grounds that teachers desire participation because they wish to satisfy motives of self-interest can be

countered by using the same argument for any other decision maker. Another argument that surfaces in this debate is that teachers are not competent to make curriculum decisions. A possible response to such an allegation could be that it is by default and not by concerted attempts by the teachers themselves that they do not possess all the necessary skills for curriculum decision making. This problem could be addressed with appropriate in-service training courses in curriculum development.

The apprehension that teachers involved in curriculum planning might be insular in their thinking could be addressed by regular consultation with other education role players, outside the school situation.

The role that teachers play in curriculum development could depend in part on the teachers themselves. Some might like to play an important role while others might shy away until they have equipped themselves with what they consider to be necessary skills for curriculum planning and decision making. Despite the limitations which might exist, it is of utmost importance to the democratic process in South Africa that it is recognised that teachers have a right to be involved in curriculum deliberation. This right might have its basis in professionalism, competence, and/or democracy. In the South African context, it is very important that this debate be developed further because it is part and parcel of the process of democratisation in education and society as a whole. In the words of Cuthbertson and Grundlingh (1992 :20):

“All this points to the need to democratise the process of restructuring history education. Those who teach and those who learn as well as the “experts” have to be drawn into the procedure on different levels.”

The development of history syllabuses, in particular, has caused concern in the past, as :

- Changes in the curriculum are not in keeping with changing knowledge.
- The syllabuses are overloaded and lengthy.
- There is a lack of continuity in the syllabuses from primary to high school.
- There is a Eurocentric bias.

(History Education Group 1993:7)

In 1989, the CHED (House of Assembly) appointed a committee to produce syllabuses for standard 5-7 and standard 8-10. The question about continuity from primary to high school was not addressed. Representatives from other education departments were granted observer status on the syllabus committee. The HSRC History Education Work Committee requested that the finalising of the new syllabuses be held over until its (the HSRC's) report was published.

After consultation with the HSRC Work Committee members, the syllabuses were completed in July 1991. The implementation of the syllabuses was suspended by the House of Assembly when a moratorium was placed on syllabus development by separate education departments (ibid:7-8). It is clear that this form of curriculum development occurs outside public scrutiny, as an in-house and largely non-participatory activity, despite the fact that "comments" are invited from universities on the senior secondary syllabus. After the core syllabus is completed it is sent to the various education departments which may add to but not delete any part of the core content. Syllabuses are specified in reasonable detail, thus allowing very little opportunity for teacher initiative. King and van der Berg (1991:14) describe the process as "syllabus revision" rather than curriculum development.

The present process is a maze of contradictions in terms of centralisation and decentralisation. The curriculum policy is centrally determined by the Department of National Education in conjunction with CHED and SACE but the application is decentralised to the various education departments. Decentralisation in this context is incompatible with the devolution of decision making power. Furthermore, a centralised curriculum policy in the present situation serves the political purpose of maintaining the status quo.

The current, non-participatory framework of the curriculum making procedure is at odds with the aims of democratising the education policy making process. It is from this perspective that the role of teachers in curriculum development needs to be reconceptualised into democratic practice.

Support for broad participation in curriculum decision making is evident from various sources, which include state departments and the mass democratic movement. CMSA (DNE 1991:2) acknowledges that the "... curriculum must be a joint venture by all the interest groups' from within and outside education". The National Education Conference (March 1992) drew up a code of conduct which includes "the participation with parents, students, authorities and experts in broad policy formation as well as curriculum planning and syllabus construction and evaluation" (Samuel et.al. 1992:10). The crucial issue is how these notions and ideals will be translated into practice.

4.2. Teacher participation initiatives in South Africa.

4.2.1. HSRC : The teaching of history in the RSA.

The work done by the HSRC on the teaching of History in South Africa is an example of attempts to address the issue of greater involvement in curriculum planning. This assertion

was made by Dr. S.W.H. Engelbrecht, chairman of the HSRC Work Committee, in the general report of the Work Committee (1992b :16).

In 1988, the Main Committee of the HSRC Education Research Programme decided to investigate into the teaching of history in South Africa. It chose to focus on :

1. The rationale or basis for the teaching of history in the South African situation
2. Identification of criteria for history teaching
3. Evaluation and assessment
4. An empirical survey to determine the views on specific issues held by university and college of education lecturers, school principals, teachers and pupils.

The investigation involved a paradigm shift for history curriculum development from mere syllabus revision by bureaucratic “experts” to an attempt to re-think school history in broader terms. However, it must be recognised that the composition of this work committee was not representative of all interested parties in history education.⁵ It is commendable, however, that education bureaucrats did not dominate the process.

However, the co-option of academics to the committee raises questions about whether “experts” will find solutions to deep seated problems in the classroom. Cuthbertson and Grundlingh (1992:7) have definite reservations about academics legitimising policy making.

As they put it,

“Public participation in the policy-making process is completely underdeveloped in South Africa. In such circumstances the emergence of putatively neutral experts and the acquisition of status and authority has been a distinct feature of the formulation of policy through the work of so-called academic/professional experts. Policies attain legitimacy on the grounds of ‘scientific’ research rather than rigorous public scrutiny and normative debate.”

⁵ The Work Committee consisted of 17 members which included one teacher.

Cuthbertson and Grundlingh argue that these experts actually served the state's purposes in attempting to depoliticise the formulation of curriculum policy which is a highly political activity. In the words of Cuthbertson and Grundlingh,

“... experts, apart from all other considerations, cannot claim to be a-political when they are actually involved in highly political work” (1992:7).

Other members comprised academics, employees of the HSRC and education department bureaucrats. (HSRC 1992b:3). The lack of consultation with a broader base is problematic if democratisation of education policy is an objective of a future system. It must be recognised that the construction of a history curriculum is not a technical procedure above politics.⁶

Vadi has argued that curriculum development should not be the concern of experts exclusively.

“a group of experts identifies the questions, defines the paradigm; gives us the proposals and then they want us to respond to them... Curriculum development, the restructuring of the education system must be the concern of all the people of South Africa. It cannot be the concern of experts exclusively” (History Education Group 1993:25).

These critics make a strong case in favour of public and open consultation. The HSRC empirical investigation into the teaching of history in the RSA, published separately from the Work Committee report, moved away from the “expert” knowledge base, in that grassroots role players in education, - pupils, teachers, school principals, lectures and inspectors/subject advisors were surveyed. The research procedure, a questionnaire enquiry, however, raises the

⁶ The British National Curriculum History Working Group was subject to public accountability which is evident by the publication of its interim and final reports and the accompanying extensive media coverage (History Education Group 1993:11).

question about active participation of teachers in the decision making process of curriculum development. Thus, the crucial questions that need to be asked here, are:

- How adequate was this investigation in promoting wider participation?
- Could the completion of questionnaires be equated with active participation?
- Was the collection and interpretation of the data value-free? - To what extent has the data from this investigation influenced the complete HSRC Work Committee report?

The HSRC History Education Work Committee broke with previous curriculum development procedures in that it had taken on a new role in South African education as a quasi-non-governmental organisation [QUANGO]⁷, doing work of history curriculum development. Another important breakthrough was that it elicited feedback from grassroots interest groups in history education.

A significant setback for the HSRC initiative was the inadequate dissemination of its findings. An abridged version of the HSRC Work Committee report was to have been disseminated amongst teacher- and parent organisations. This would have ensured a process of consultation. Dissemination meetings were held in Durban and Pretoria in 1992, but they had to be abandoned for the lack of response and non-collaboration. Alternative plans to have the report published in the printed media for broad based discussion did not materialise because of disagreement amongst members of the Work Committee. The decision to abandon disseminating the report and thus, the consultation process was not taken by all the Work Committee members.⁸

⁷ Buckland and Hofmeyer (1993:17).

⁸ Personal communication with Mr. R.F.Sieborger (1994).

The findings of the HSRC empirical investigation relating specifically to teachers, are discussed in a comparative manner with the present research project, in the following chapter. The questions around the methodological procedure used by the HSRC empirical investigation researchers provided the basis (foundation) for the present project.

4.2.2. History curriculum conferences (1992)

The idea to hold three one-day history curriculum conferences for teachers in 1992 in Durban, Johannesburg and Cape Town, was mooted by history educationalists at the Kenton Education Conference at Katberg in October 1991. It is interesting to note that the proposal was initiated by academics / “experts”.

The aims of the conferences were:

- To inform teachers about developments in the area of curriculum development
- To provide a platform for the views of teachers
- To promote teacher and broader public debate about a new history curriculum
- To attempt to ensure those involved in present and future curriculum reform take note of teachers (History Education Group 1993:1).

Teachers were the majority of those who attended the three conferences.⁹ The panellists at each of these conferences consisted largely of academics (expert-based) from various tertiary institutions and four teachers.

Various issues pertaining to the history curriculum were discussed. The status quo of curriculum development in history in South Africa was discussed in the opening addresses.

⁹ The number of teachers who attended these conferences:
 Durban - 93 out of 131; Johannesburg 133 out of 168; Cape Town 130 out of 153.
 (History Education Group 1993: 5).

These discussions focused on the research carried out by the HSRC History Education Work Committee, CMSA and History in the National Curriculum in England. The National curriculum, it was suggested, provided a comparative perspective which could provide South Africa with a model to emulate or at least draw on as a basis (History Education Group 1993:11).

The CMSA proposals that Standard 5 to 7 history should be replaced by integrated or social science studies¹⁰ raised serious questions for those involved in history education. The mere existence or survival of history as a subject discipline was challenged and it was the responsibility of those involved in it to justify its rightful place in the school curriculum. The issue raised here had implications for schools and tertiary institutions which produce large numbers of history students and teachers (History Education Group 1993:10).

Attempts by individual schools to implement their own syllabuses or approaches to history were lauded by the Conference.

A great deal of the conferences' time was spent on critiques of the present curriculum and many of the panellists provided proposals for change. Various areas for example, aims, content, skills, of the history curriculum were criticised and a number of alternative suggestions were proposed.

It was suggested that:

1. The history curriculum should advocate commonality yet accommodate diversity;
2. A skills based approach to teaching history be considered.

¹⁰ The integration of subjects which complement each other, for example, History, Geography and Economics (DNE, 1991:6).

3. The aims and objections of the history curriculum should be carefully considered that is they impact on the form and content of the syllabuses.

These conferences may be considered advantageous for the following reasons:

1. They provided a platform for the dissemination of views to fairly large numbers.
2. They highlighted the need for debate around history curriculum issues, specifically in history.
3. They provided teachers with the opportunity to discuss curriculum issues, albeit minimally.
4. The complexities involved in curriculum development were exposed to teachers. This is considered to be quite a break through because from the practitioners (implementers) perspective, the curriculum is often perceived as a product and not a process.

The conferences had succeeded in disseminating information on current history curriculum development. This is significant because, for the first time, teachers were involved in the curriculum debate before implementation. Participation generated enthusiasm and raised expectancy levels for follow-up conferences.

A striking shortcoming of the history curriculum conferences was, however, that too little time was assigned for teacher participation in the history curriculum debates. The time allotted to the panellists in comparison to that allowed for group discussions by teachers indicates that teachers were denied the opportunity to use the conference properly as a platform to air their views. From personal experience, as a teacher, it was found that the time allowed for group discussion enabled the group to “scratch the surface” of crucial curriculum issues. The discrepancy between the time allotted to panellists (academics) and teachers is also evident in the published proceedings of the conferences which do not reflect the teachers’ roles adequately. However, despite the views of the teachers not been given prominence in the

conferences' proceedings *History Matters - Debates about a new history curriculum for South Africa*, it is commendable that their views were heeded in the policy proposals for the history curriculum of South African schools.¹¹

The dissemination of the information gathered at these conferences is important if the findings are to be noted by present and future curriculum planners. If dissemination is not broadly spread to include education departments, curriculum committees etc, then the views of the teachers could be viewed as being unauthorised opinions or a means of legitimising the conferences. Dissemination would also further propagate the idea of teacher participation in curriculum development.

If financial constraints are considered, then one-day conferences of this nature, on an on-going basis, would be beneficial on condition they were designed to promote and sustain teacher participation in curriculum development.

4.2.3. SCISA (Science Curriculum Initiative in South Africa)

Although not concerned with history education, SCISA is an example of teacher involvement in curriculum development. It is considered here as a case study of alternative curriculum development in South Africa which has prioritised teacher participation in the process.

This curriculum group consists of individuals who are concerned with the present status of science education in South Africa. The aims of SCISA, stated in all its documents are:

- To develop general science curricula which are appropriate to the needs of a non-racial society for the whole of South Africa.
- To broaden the base of curriculum decision making in South Africa.

¹¹ Part II of the *History Matters* booklet is a presentation of a policy proposal which addresses the key aspects of the history curriculum.

- To link the professional development of science teachers to the process of curriculum development.
- To liaise with curriculum accrediting bodies.

(McNaught et.al. 1990:2)

The members of SCISA have made it clear that the present curriculum is inadequate. They reject the scientific approach to curriculum development which involves external, rational and objective research processes, followed by dissemination and adoption strategies to communicate the new curriculum to teachers or to implant it in schools (curriculum implementation).

The underlying rationale guiding this approach is that change through an external and rational process of curriculum development is both possible and desirable, yet fails repeatedly because of:

1. Communication weakness.
2. Insufficient or inadequate evaluation.
3. Lack of teacher participation. (McNaught et.al. 1990:3)

SCISA's rejection of this approach resulted in SCISA members holding a workshop for teachers, as a means of embarking on curriculum development. The aim of this workshop, held on 27 June 1992 at the University of Natal, was to devise a process by which various stake holders (participants from education departments, NGOs, industries, universities and teacher unions) could work together in making curriculum decisions.

The most important issues that emerged at the workshop were:

1. A broad base for curriculum decision making is desirable.
2. Participating organisations have varied internal mechanisms for canvassing opinions and making decisions.

3. Surveys alone are not an appropriate way to find out what people want.
4. SCISA's vision of a participatory relevant type of science education must be shared widely and teachers conscientised to the role as curriculum developers.
5. Curriculum development is a process of sharing and contestation of ideas.
6. SCISA should work at grassroots level but be sensitive to national issues.
7. We need to be aware of the problem of being trapped in subject disciplines.
8. In our current situation adults as well as pupils may be recipients of science education.
9. Consultation without interaction causes problems because organisations may feel that they have been used rather than consulted.

(Keogh (ed) 1992a :1)

The workshop also identified several problems that might hamper SCISA's role as a curriculum reconstruction agent. These included:

1. Limitations imposed by the current syllabus structure and content are real.
2. Consultation itself can be problematic if those consulted cannot and do not subscribe to the outcomes of the consultation.

However, despite these problems, a model for participatory decision making emerged. This model accepts a variety of participants with varied inputs. An important factor would be the development of a shared vision and values which would develop a framework within which curriculum decisions would be made. This does not necessarily imply consensus decision making. The model suggested is interspersed by two significant forms of activity, namely:

1. Feedback loops for the purposes of canvassing opinions, sharing ideas and to workshopping issues at grassroots constituency level. This is significant for democratic decision making.
2. Classroom research would enable teachers to critically reflect the application of new ideas and approaches in the classrooms. Results of this research could be fed back into the process.

SCISA also sees the need to have the process monitored and co-ordinated by a person or group who has curriculum development experience.

Keogh and Raubenheimer (1992) evaluated the utilisation of workshops as an appropriate and effective curriculum development strategy. They concede that the workshop was not entirely successful because expectations with respect to groupwork facilitation and analysis of the task were unrealistic. Also, the assumptions that underpinned the decision to hold the workshop were problematic.

Some of these problematic assumptions were that :

1. All the participants understood the concepts to be workshopped in the same way.
2. The relationship between theory and practice was obvious.
3. Teachers were eager to change.

From this, it can be deduced that the workshop facilitators did not give enough recognition to the fact that participants come into such a situation with different experiences and from different working environments. This oversight appears to be ironic in that SCISA attaches importance to contextual issues, yet failed to recognise them in the planning phase of the workshop. In the final analysis, Keogh and Raubenheimer declare that workshops are not effective change strategies because people need to challenge their own assumptions about issues like the nature of knowledge (1992b:6).

The strategy employed by SCISA might not have been completely effective but it is significant that teacher participation in curriculum decision making was irrevocably supported and promoted.

The advantages of teacher participation in curriculum decision making and the identification of skills, teachers need to become involved in curriculum development have been stated very clearly by Keogh (1992c:6).

4.3. Significance

The above attempts to address the issue of teacher participation in curriculum decision making above are valuable for a number of reasons.

The three history curriculum conferences which were held are significant, in that, they initiated broader debate on curriculum issues, particularly through the group discussion sessions. The prominence given to academics at these conferences underestimated the importance of teacher participation in curriculum decision making. The promotion of teacher participation as an aim of the conferences was not clearly communicated to the teachers at the outset. This might have accounted for the high level of expectancy among the teachers.

The approach embarked by SCISA is by no means without problems, but in terms of promoting teacher participation, the group has attained more success than the other initiatives. SCISA approached the issue from a position which clearly stated that there were valid reasons for teacher participation in curriculum development. SCISA also recognised that problems like the lack of confidence and skills experienced by teachers as curriculum developers had to be addressed. PRESET and INSET courses were suggested to address these problems. It is commendable that SCISA has reflected critically on what it has and not achieved thus far.

The HSRC empirical investigation breaks from past curriculum development procedures, in that, teachers were involved, albeit on a remote level. The empirical investigation report, particularly the section pertaining to teachers opinions, does not indicate how the data would influence curriculum development. The interpretation and analysis of the data was of such a nature that it can be argued that the aim of the investigation was to find how teachers from different "race" groups perceived present history education in South Africa. Information of this nature does not support the democratisation of education because the process of consultation was inadequate during the dissemination phase. However, it is precisely issues like these, though, that provided the incentive for the present research project.

CHAPTER 5 : THE RESEARCH PROJECT

5.1. Introduction -- the HSRC empirical investigation

The HSRC empirical enquiry into the teaching of history in the RSA collected data from pupils, teachers, headmasters, superintendents, subject advisors/inspectors and lecturers on key history education issues, which included:

- The aims of history teaching and syllabus related matters.
- Opinions of the participants on a number of matters relating to the teaching of history.
- Attitudes towards history as a school subject.

Data from the participants identified problem areas in the present context. This data was meant to provide input for future curriculum planning.

The methodological procedures employed by the HSRC were regarded as questionable for the following reasons:

1. Postal questionnaires, only, were utilised for data collection.
2. The apparently unrepresentative sample.
3. The rationale for the use of the questionnaires.
4. The interpretation of the data collected.

These observations brought into question the validity of the HSRC procedure therefore this research project sought to test the findings of the HSRC's empirical investigation against a sample of secondary school teachers in the Cape Peninsula.

5.2. Methodology of the research project

5.2.1. The questionnaire

Questions from the HSRC questionnaire to history teachers were used extensively in the research project survey so that the HSRC's findings could be fairly tested. Certain questions which were negatively phrased¹² were revised so that the responses could be tested for consistency or the lack thereof. This does not imply that their meanings were changed.

Five questions which relate directly to the issue of decision making in history curriculum planning, an aspect which was not adequately addressed in the HSRC questionnaire, were included in the research project questionnaire. Questions in the HSRC questionnaire regarding textbooks and teaching methods were excluded in the research study because of the focus and limitations of the project.

5.2.2. The pilot study

The research study questionnaire was piloted with a class of HDE [History methodology] students at UCT. This exercise proved to be very useful and enlightening in that, problems relating to question design, for example, ambiguity emerged. Without the pilot study, these problems would have gone unnoticed and difficulty and chaos would have ensued in the main data analysis.

A significant number of questions, such as those relating to assessment, were not attempted by the students who admitted that they lacked the experience to respond. This is significant, in that it supports Carson's (1984) direct experience argument which was developed in Chapter

¹² For example, compare Section F (3), question (i) of the HSRC questionnaire [Appendix A] with Section E (3), question (j) of the research project questionnaire [Appendix B].

2. Despite the students' lack of history teaching experience, some of their responses correlate with those of the teachers who participated in research project. For example, Eurocentrism was identified as a problem by the students and the teachers in the HSRC and both research project enquiries.

5.2.3. The sample

Sample schools, ten in total, included a private school and schools which operate under the auspices of the Department of Education and Training and the Departments of Education and Culture in the Houses of Assembly, Delegates and Representatives. Three teachers at each school were contacted telephonically to request their co-operation in completing the questionnaires. The teachers were selected from the 1992 Cape Town, history curriculum conference attendance register. Their willingness to participate facilitated the selection process. Twenty-five (83,3%) of the 30 questionnaires were returned.

5.2.4. Interviews: Rationale for utilising interviews as a method of collecting data.

The distribution and retrieval of the questionnaires focused attention to the imbalance between male and female History teachers at secondary schools. However, during the interview phase of the study, an attempt was made to rectify this. Of the nine teachers interviewed, three were women and six were men.

This is by no means adequate but the goodwill and availability of these teachers were primary considerations. It should be reiterated that the gender of the subjects was not a significant factor during the design stage of the study. Another consideration that warrants emphasis is

that the findings of a small scale study of this nature are meant to be illuminative and not generalisable.

Interviews were conducted so that ideas could be followed-up, responses probed and motives investigated. After analysis of the data collected, it was found that many issues needed to be clarified and developed so that meaning could be attached to the responses provided by the teachers. In this way, it was possible to obtain information which the questionnaire concealed.

It was decided to use a guided and focused interview schedule¹³ which would allow the participants a considerable degree of latitude within a framework that covered topics crucial to the study. The focused interview was advantageous in that the framework was established beforehand which facilitated analysis. This was particularly helpful in a time limited study of this nature. Also, the semi-structured interview eliminated some of the problems of an entirely unstructured interview, that is, having a huge amount of information, no time to exploit it and being without the information that is needed.

The interviews were conducted individually with four subjects and jointly with the other five in two groups of two and three teachers, respectively. Recording the responses in the group setting was not difficult because permission was granted for the interviews to be tape-recorded. All the interviews followed the same pattern. Before the interview began, the teachers were given a copy of a summary of the questionnaire data so that they could familiarise themselves with the issues at hand. Questions which emanated out of the questionnaire were raised and discussed and thereafter questions which were more crucial to

¹³ Appendix D - interview schedule.

the issue of teacher participation in curriculum planning were discussed. This pattern seemed to facilitate discussion well.

5.3. Analysis of the questionnaire survey data

NOTE: For the purposes of clarity and comparison, the data from the research project survey has been analysed in frequency and percentage tables to provide “pictures” of the group under investigation. The percentages which appear in the HSRC tables below [where applicable] have been re-calculated to reflect how teachers, irrespective of racial classification, responded.

A. GENERAL INFORMATION

Tables 1.1, 1.2, and 1.3 reflect the experience of the respondents in History teaching; the spread of teachers across the formal school curriculum compared to teaching History exclusively and the percentage of time spent on History teaching, respectively. The data in Table 1.1 of both the research project and the HSRC show that more than 90% of the respondents have 3 or more years experience in History teaching. Table 1.2 demonstrates that approximately half the respondents teach History exclusively while Table 1.3 indicates that 15 out of 20 teachers (80%) spend 50% and more of their teaching time on History teaching. Thus, it can be deduced that the respondents are representative of History teachers, albeit on a very small scale.

No.	=	number of respondents
project	=	research project
HSRC	=	The HSRC empirical investigation
N	=	25

Table 1.1
Teaching experience

Years of experience	project [N=25]		HSRC
	no	%	%
0 - 2 years	2	8	3,53
3 - 5 years	6	24	18,82
6 - 10 years	5	20	23,53
11 - 15 years	8	32	18,82
more than 15 years	4	12	35,29

Table 1.2

	project [N=25]	
	no	%
Teaching History and other subjects	13	52
Teaching History only	12	48

Table 1.3
Percentage of time spent teaching History

	project [N=25]	
	no	%
50% and more	20	80
less than 50%	5	20

B. QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING

Tables 1.4 and 1.5 show the qualifications of the respondents while Table 1.6 reflects what the teachers in the sample consider to be minimum qualification for History teachers.

All of the respondents had a Senior Certificate and university level History which ranges between History II to a Master's Degree in History. More than 80% (21 out of 25) studied

History as a major subject at university. Seventeen out of 25 (68%) have History III and 4 out of 25 (16%) have post-graduate degrees in History. Only 1 of the 25 respondents has no training in History teaching. In Table 1.4, nearly half the respondents indicated that 3 and 4 years training at college was adequate for the teaching of History at the junior secondary phase (std.6 - 7) while more than 90% indicated that some university training (2 years to post-graduate) would be suitable for the senior secondary phase (std 8 - 10).

Table 1.4
Training in History teaching at a COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

	project [N=23]	
	no	%
1 year	1	4,35
2 years	1	4,35
3 years	3	13,04
4 years	7	30,44
no training at college	10	43,48
no training at all	1	4,35

Table 1.5
Highest levels of History at UNIVERSITY

	project [N=25]	
	no	%
History I	-	-
History II	4	16
History III	17	68
Honour's Degree in History	3	12
Master's Degree in History	1	4

Table 1.6
Opinions regarding MINIMUM qualifications / training for History teaching

	project [N=25]			
	Std 6 - 7		Std 8 - 10	
	no	%	no	%
3 years at training college	4	16	1	4
4 years at training college	8	32	1	4
1 year at university	-	-	-	-
2 years at university	3	12	2	8
3 years at university	4	16	11	44
3 years at university plus 1 year training college	4	16	6	24
post graduate training	2	8	4	16

C. AIMS IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

The respondents were asked to indicate which aims in the syllabi for Standards 6 to 10 were attainable and which were difficult to attain. All of the respondents indicated their responses to this question in the research project. In the HSRC survey, this question elicited responses from 71 out of 85 respondents.

Table 1.7 demonstrates that with the exception of the first aim - personal development of pupils - approximately half the respondents view the aims to be realistically attainable. It is interesting to note that in the HSRC data more than two-thirds of the respondents indicated that the aims are attainable.

Table 1.7
Syllabi aims that are attainable / difficult to attain

	Attainable			Unattainable		
	project [n=25]		HSRC	project [n=25]		HSRC
	no	%	%	no	%	%
personal development of pupils	19	76	84,5	6	24	15,5
sense of citizenship	13	52	67,2	12	48	32,8
development of positive values	14	56	72,9	11	44	27,1
appreciation of others' culture	11	44	79,4	14	56	20,6
understanding unique nature of individuals	14	56	86,8	11	44	13,2
understanding History as an academic discipline	13	52	78,8	12	48	21,2

Table 1.8
Single most difficult aim to attain.

Aims	project [N=24]		HSRC
	no	%	%
personal development of pupils	2	8,33	9,76
sense of citizenship	6	25,00	36,59
development of positive values	1	4,17	7,32
appreciation of others' cultures	4	16,67	8,54
understanding unique nature of individuals	-	-	2,44
understanding History as an academic discipline	11	45,83	35,37

Table 1.8 reflects the views on which single aim was most difficult to attain. A few respondents commented on the questionnaire that choosing ONE aim was difficult. In both the HSRC and research project surveys, most of the respondents viewed the “sense of citizenship” and “understanding History as an academic discipline” difficult to achieve.

This implies that both these aims are problematic and need to be addressed. The fact that the aims of the History curriculum impact on the other elements of the curriculum, for example, content, textbooks, assessment etc. actually highlights their importance when a curriculum is being planned and decided on.

A summary of the reasons advanced by the respondents for not being able to realise the aims follows. The reasons mentioned below correspond closely with those in the HSRC report (1991: 18-19).

Reasons for not being able to achieve the aim selected :

Personal development of pupils :

- racially biased syllabus makes real personal development difficult.
- inappropriate content emphasis.

Sense of citizenship :

- context encourages white supremacy and ethnic differences.
- language problems.
- students are not treated as citizens in their own country.
- majority of South Africans are not enfranchised.
- nationalism is a problem.
- biased textbooks ignore the History of the majority.
- South African History is slanted.

Development of positive values and attitudes :

- teaching tolerance is a difficult task.

Appreciation of the heritage and culture of others :

- too Euro-centric approach.
- bias in History textbooks.

Understanding History as an academic discipline :

- lack of interest in the subject.
- time is limited.
- pupils experience problems with the New History approach.
- nature of evaluation is restrictive.
- resources are not readily available.

Table 1.9 indicates that the respondents view external sources, for example, conferences, journals etc somewhat sceptically in that none of these sources are viewed as useful by a large majority. This observation is applicable to both the data from the project and the HSRC survey. In Table 1.10, the results of the HSRC and the research project surveys indicate similarities and discrepancies without necessarily being contradictory. The research project

results confirm the findings of the HSRC that teachers mostly rely of their heads of department and the senior History teachers for guidance. However, a discrepancy emerges in the data which reflect the extent of guidance that inspectors / subject advisors and principals provide. This issue is developed further, later in this chapter.

Table 1.9
Help in teaching History

Source		project[N=25]		HSRC
		no	%	%
subject policy:	large extent	4	16	41,03
	reasonable extent	8	32	42,31
	lesser extent	7	28	15,38
	not at all	6	24	1,28
schemes of work:	large extent	7	28	52,11
	reasonable extent	7	28	33,80
	lesser extent	7	28	11,27
	not at all	4	16	2,82
subject meetings:	large extent	7	28	46,05
	reasonable extent	9	36	34,21
	lesser extent	4	16	14,47
	not at all	5	20	5,26
journal articles:	large extent	9	36	33,80
	reasonable extent	6	24	28,03
	lesser extent	7	28	23,94
	not at all	3	12	4,23
conferences/seminars:	large extent	10	40	38,57
	reasonable extent	9	36	45,71
	lesser extent	4	16	24,28
	not at all	2	8	5,74
INSET by depts.:	large extent	6	24	34,21
	reasonable extent	4	16	31,58
	lesser extent	7	28	22,37
	not at all	8	32	11,84
syllabi:	large extent	3	12	45,21
	reasonable extent	10	40	49,32
	lesser extent	5	20	19,18
	not at all	7	28	-

Table 1.10
Extent of guidance by:

Source	project[N=25]		HSRC
	no	%	%
inspectors / subject advisors:			
very much	1	4,17	19,18
satisfactory	3	12,50	43,48
very little	5	20,83	21,92
not at all	15	62,50	15,07
principals:			
very much	-	-	12,50
satisfactory	2	8,33	46,25
very little	3	12,50	25,00
not at all	19	79,17	16,25
heads of department :			
very much	8	36,37	29,69
satisfactory	7	31,81	48,44
very little	1	3,64	9,38
not at all	1	8,18	12,50
senior History teachers:			
very much	6	25,00	27,87
satisfactory	11	45,83	52,46
very little	2	8,33	6,56
not at all	5	20,83	13,12

D. SUBJECT CONTENT FOR HISTORY

The data in Table 1.11 represents the opinions of teachers regarding what the ratio between General and South African History should be. In the research project results, 36% of the teachers proposed more General History and 36% proposed more South African History in the junior secondary phase. This is indicative of the view that the present ratio is viewed as a problem by teachers. However, it is worth noting that in both surveys 62% and 63,5%, respectively prefer not more than 50% of South African History in both the junior and senior secondary phases.

* G.H. = General History

* S.A. = South African History

Table 1.11
Ratio between General and South African History

G.H.	-	S.A.	Std.6 - 7			Std.8 - 10		
			project [N=25] no	%	HSRC %	project [N=25] no	%	HSRC %
70%	-	30%	3	12	3,53	2	8	3,57
60%	-	40%	6	24	17,65	4	16	21,43
50%	-	50%	7	28	43,25	11	44	36,91
40%	-	60%	6	24	27,06	5	20	26,19
30%	-	70%	3	12	9,41	3	12	11,91

The results in Table 1.12 of the research project confirm the findings of the HSRC survey to a large extent. The areas (themes) which should be included and elaborated are political in nature and reflect the trend prevalent in South African society at present. Although the findings of the HSRC are confirmed, the results of the research project reflect the teachers' views in stronger terms that all the themes are important in that over 90% of the respondents feel that these themes should definitely be included in a new History curriculum. Cultural History and the pre-colonial History of South Africa appear to be less popular in comparison to liberation movements, History of Africa Apartheid and the land question.

Table 1.12

Topics to be included and elaborated, included but reduced and excluded.

Topics	project [N=25]		HSRC
	no	%	%
History of Africa:			
incl./elab.	20	80	62,5
incl./red.	5	20	31,9
excluded.	-	-	6,9
Cultural History:			
incl./elab.	10	40	23,5
incl./red.	14	56	52,9
excluded.	1	4	23,5
Different ideologies:			
incl./elab.	19	76	74,1
incl./red.	5	20	25,9
excluded.	1	4	-
Apartheid:			
incl./elab.	20	80	54,8
incl./red.	5	20	33,3
excluded.	-	-	11,9
Land question:			
incl./elab.	20	80	
incl./red.	5	20	
excluded.	-	-	
Liberation movements:			
incl./elab.	24	96	80,0
incl./red.	1	4	17,7
excluded.	-	-	2,3
Economic History:			
incl./elab.	17	68	
incl./red.	7	28	
excluded.	1	4	
Pre-colonial History in South Africa:			
incl./elab.	13	52	23,8
incl./red.	9	36	44,1
excluded.	3	12	32,1

Teachers views on History as a school subject are reflected in Table 1.13. Analysis of the data presented below indicate similar responses in both the research project and the HSRC surveys with regard to the value of History as a school subject. It is interesting to note that in both surveys the views of the teachers, with respect to whether History helps pupils understand the world in which they live, are almost inversely proportionate as far as strong and reasonable agreements are concerned.

Both groups of teachers surveyed expressed very strong agreement with the statement that a wide range of resources should be available and there is also strong support for the opinion that textbooks are Euro-centric. The lack of diverse perspectives is supported further by both groups, in that 96% of the respondents in the research project survey and 91,75% in the HSRC investigation agree strongly that diverse perspectives should be made known. Response to the statement -- "adequate attention is given to all groups' perspectives" is fairly consistent with the responses referred to above.

In the HSRC investigation the question of pupils' maturity levels elicited unsure responses but the research project survey results provide a clear picture on this issue. Twenty-one out of 25 teachers strongly or reasonably agreed that the pupils' maturity level does make it difficult to present all perspectives. The different responses in each survey could be attributed to the manner in which the statement was phrased.

The issue of how questions and statements are phrased becomes more apparent when the responses to the statement that teachers are not adequately trained to present all perspectives,

are analysed. In this case, the responses are very similar in that more than 60% in both surveys agree either strongly or reasonably that teachers are not adequately trained.

An overwhelming majority of the teachers in the research project agreed that the development of skills such as logic and the ability to critically evaluate and conceptualise are very important in history education. This response is validated by 72% of the teachers who agreed either strongly or reasonably that Standard 10 examinations concentrate on knowledge of facts and not on insight.

The responses to the statements that History should provide a nation building platform and should be in keeping with the political climate may be indicative of teachers being unsure of the future political climate in South Africa. The 88% (22 out of 25) who strongly agree that the history curriculum should be legitimate and credible, by virtue of their response imply that the present curriculum is neither legitimate or credible.

Table 1.14
Views on History as a school subject

	Project [N=25]		HSRC
	no	%	%
a) History should take the value system of society into account			
agree strongly	11	44	47,95
agree reasonably	10	40	32,82
agree to less extent	3	12	8,22
disagree	1	4	10,96
b) History prepares pupils for life and work			
agree strongly	7	28	56,47
agree reasonably	13	52	23,53
agree to less extent	4	16	14,12
disagree	1	4	5,88

c) History helps pupils understand the world in which they live			
agree strongly	23	92	84,71
agree reasonably	2	8	10,59
agree to less extent	-	-	3,53
disagree	-	-	1,17
d) Teachers should have a wide range of sources available.			
agree strongly	24	96	91,75
agree reasonably	1	4	5,88
agree to less extent	-	-	2,35
disagree	-	-	-
e) Teachers' philosophy of life influences their presentation.			
agree strongly	12	48	36,47
agree reasonably	7	28	37,65
agree to less extent	5	20	12,94
disagree	1	4	12,94
f) Diverse perspectives should be made known			
agree strongly	23	92	91,77
agree reasonably	2	8	8,23
agree to less extent	-	-	-
disagree	-	-	-
g) Government school textbooks have a Euro-centric point of view.			
agree strongly	18	72	54,12
agree reasonably	3	12	30,59
agree to less extent	1	4	8,24
disagree	3	12	7,06
h) CNE used a justification for one-sided interpretation.			
agree strongly	24	96	69,05
agree reasonably	1	4	21,43
agree to less extent	-	-	8,33
disagree	-	-	1,19
i) History should provide a nation building platform.			
agree strongly	8	32	-
agree reasonably	11	44	-
agree to less extent	2	8	-
disagree	4	16	-
j) Logic and understanding should be developed.			
agree strongly	19	76	59,00
agree reasonably	5	20	13,25
agree to less extent	1	4	14,46
disagree	-	-	13,25

k) Critical skills and conceptual development to be emphasised.			
agree strongly	23	96	-
agree reasonably	2	8	-
agree to less extent	-	-	-
disagree	-	-	-
l) Maturity levels of pupils makes it difficult to present all perspectives.			
agree strongly	10	40	10,59
agree reasonably	11	44	25,88
agree to less extent	2	8	28,24
disagree	2	8	35,29
m) Adequate attention is given to all groups perspectives.			
agree strongly	3	12	15,29
agree reasonably	-	-	7,06
agree to less extent	2	8	23,53
disagree	20	80	54,12
n) Teachers not adequately trained to present all perspectives.			
agree strongly	8	32	22,89
agree reasonably	9	36	40,96
agree to less extent	7	28	19,28
disagree	1	4	16,87
o) More local and regional historical events.			
agree strongly	12	48	25,00
agree reasonably	8	32	30,95
agree to less extent	5	20	36,91
disagree	-	-	7,14
p) History should be in keeping with the political climate.			
agree strongly	7	28	-
agree reasonably	6	24	-
agree to less extent	4	16	-
disagree	8	32	-
q) Curriculum should be legitimate and credible.			
agree strongly	22	88	-
agree reasonably	1	4	-
agree to less extent	1	4	-
disagree	1	4	-
r) Standard 10 examinations concentrate on knowledge of facts and not insight.			
agree strongly	11	44	14,12
agree reasonably	7	28	22,35
agree to less extent	3	12	18,82
disagree	4	16	44,17

All of the teachers favoured a combined core and optional curriculum. The percentages for the core and optional components in Table 1.15. were suggested by the teachers themselves. From the data, it appears that 92% of the teachers in the project sample favour a strong core component of 50% and more in a future history curriculum. An interesting observation is that at the Cape Town history curriculum conference (1992), the teachers' suggested a core component which ranged from 15% to 50% (History Education Group 1993:40).

Table 1.15
Components of a future History curriculum

% core - % optional	project [N=24]	
	no	%
80 - 20	7	28
75 - 25	1	4
70 - 30	3	12
60 - 40	6	24
55 - 45	1	4
50 - 50	4	16
30 - 70	2	8

NOTE:

The ranking question which asked that respondents rank the importance, from 1 (most important) to 6 (least important), of various role players in curriculum decision making was poorly answered. Many respondents used the same value in the ranking scale more than once. When the data was recorded, the value between 1 and 6 which appeared first was recorded and if the value was used again, it was recorded as a no-response, hence the total number for each "decision maker" is different.

However, from the data below, it can be tentatively deduced that history teachers as a group do not view themselves to be primary decision makers in the selection of the content in the history curriculum.

Table 1.16

Importance of decision makers in selection of content

Note: Level of importance ranked from most important [1] to least important [6]

	[N=24]					
	Level of importance					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
	No	No	No	No	No	No
Specialised C.committees.	7	3	2	6	5	2
History classroom specialist.	7	5	4	1	2	2
Teachers with specialist knowledge of pupils.	-	2	2	3	3	11
H. subject specialists at colleges and universities.	5	8	4	2	1	-
H. subject advisors.	2	2	3	4	5	7
Academic historians.	3	1	7	5	4	1

E. EVALUATION AND EXAMINATIONS

Table 1.17 shows teacher views on a number of statements on the evaluation and examination of History.

The research project findings confirm the HSRC findings in that three particular statements, namely, “marking schedules should be more flexible”; “class assignments should feature more significantly” and “examinations should have a greater selection of questions at various levels of difficulty”, elicited fairly strong responses.

Statements pertaining to the Standard 10 examinations elicited quite different responses from teachers in each survey. A large number of teachers in the research project (17 out of 23) agreed fully and to a large extent that Standard 10 external examination affects preparation for others examinations negatively, whereas in the HSRC survey, 31% felt the same way.

The same kind of discrepancy can be found in the response for the statement that the Standard 10 examination reliably measures pupils' insight into History. Eighty-three percent of the research project respondents stated that the Standard 10 examinations does not reliably measure insight against 51,8% of the subjects in the HSRC survey.

The opinions of teachers on the other statements varied widely on the agreement continuum that it is difficult to make sound deductions. However, on closer examination of the data, it appears that when the respondents are unsure about something they opt for responses more centrally placed on the continuum.

Table 1.18
Opinions on evaluation and examinations

	Project [N=25]		HSRC
	no	%	%
a) Choice wide enough for Standard 10.			
fully agree	8	33,30	45,90
agree to a large extent	7	21,17	42,40
agree to a lesser extent	6	25,00	9,40
disagree	3	12,50	1,30
b) Easier to obtain higher marks in History.			
fully agree	5	20,0	18,80
agree to a large extent	9	36,0	30,60
agree to a lesser extent	3	12,0	28,20
disagree	8	32,0	22,40

c) Pupils discourages because of emphasis on prepared questions.			
fully agree	2	8,33	16,50
agree to a large extent	5	20,80	38,80
agree to a lesser extent	12	50,00	23,50
disagree	5	20,80	20,00
d) Volume of work manageable.			
fully agree	3	12,00	9,63
agree to a large extent	12	48,00	21,69
agree to a lesser extent	7	28,00	31,33
disagree	3	12,00	38,55
e) Teachers are able to evaluate Pupils' ability to interpret and reason.			
fully agree	3	12,50	29,41
agree to a large extent	10	41,67	32,94
agree to a lesser extent	9	37,50	32,94
disagree	2	8,33	4,71
f) Marking schedules should be more flexible.			
fully agree	17	70,83	89,40
agree to a large extent	5	20,80	9,40
agree to a lesser extent	2	8,33	1,20
disagree	-	-	-
g) Class assignments should feature more significantly.			
fully agree	16	66,67	55,30
agree to a large extent	5	20,80	31,80
agree to a lesser extent	3	12,50	9,40
disagree	-	-	3,50
h) Greater selection of questions at various levels of difficulty.			
fully agree	17	70,83	72,90
agree to a large extent	6	25,00	17,70
agree to a lesser extent	1	4,17	5,90
disagree	-	-	3,50
i) Positive correlation between Standard 10 internal and external examinations.			
fully agree	2	8,33	27,70
agree to a large extent	15	65,22	43,30
agree to a lesser extent	4	17,39	30,10
disagree	2	8,70	6,03

j) Standard 10 external examinations affects preparation for other tests and examinations negatively.			
fully agree	7	30,44	9,52
agree to a large extent	10	43,48	21,43
agree to a lesser extent	3	13,04	35,71
disagree	3	13,04	33,33
k) Standard 10 examinations should emphasise analysis and interpretation of source documents.			
fully agree	13	54,17	38,10
agree to a large extent	8	33,30	27,40
agree to a lesser extent	3	12,50	28,60
disagree	-	-	5,70
l) Standard examinations reliably measure pupils' insight into History.			
fully agree	1	4,17	12,90
agree to a large extent	3	12,50	35,30
agree to a lesser extent	11	45,83	35,30
disagree	9	37,50	16,50

F. TEACHERS OPINIONS REGARDING PUPILS AND HISTORY

Teachers were asked to give their opinions regarding the reason that pupils chose History as a subject in the senior standards. In both the research project and the HSRC survey, no one reason received majority support. Table 1.19 reflects that one-third of the teachers in the research project felt that pupils chose the subject because it can be mastered by rote learning. The general opinion in both the surveys reflect reasons that have “negative” connotations, for example, History is suitable for intellectually less gifted children and the school offers very few other options.

These results have very important implications for the popularity or lack thereof in the subject and a new History curriculum would have to address the “image” of the subject amongst pupils, teachers and the broader community, particularly if history education is to satisfy the

needs of society and provide a pedagogically sound basis for its inclusion in the school curriculum.

Table 1.19
Reason why pupils choose History

	project [N=24]		HSRC
	no	%	%
a) History can be mastered by rote learning.	8	33,30	6,10
b) School offers very few other options.	4	16,67	14,63
c) Pupils are interested in History.	4	16,67	28,05
d) History provides pupils with political literacy.	2	8,33	10,98
e) Pupils are influenced by parents.			
f) Standard 8-10 History teacher is popular among pupils.	2	8,33	4,88
g) Standard 7 History teacher encourages pupils to continue with History.	2	8,33	15,85
h) History is suitable for intellectually less gifted pupils.	2	8,33	18,29

The responses in Table 1.20 of the research project survey indicate that the relevancy of History to the worlds in which pupils live is in doubt in that the opinions vary to such an extent that none of the statements claim majority support as being “absolutely relevant” to pupils. However, more than 70% of teachers in both surveys felt it is “absolutely” and/or “reasonably relevant” that History helps pupils understand current political matters; teaches pupils to evaluate situations critically; makes pupils aware of different perspectives and develops pupils ability to reason. The other statements elicited much weaker responses.

The responses to this question raise important considerations for a new history curriculum. Curriculum planners and policy makers should carefully examine the issue of relevancy if History is to be a worthwhile and valuable subject in schools.

Table 1.20
Relevancy of History to the world in which pupils live

	project [N=25]		HSRC
	no	%	%
a) Teaches pupils to memorise.			
absolutely relevant	1	4	7,32
reasonably relevant	9	36	40,24
somewhat relevant	6	24	34,15
totally irrelevant	9	36	18,29
b) Helps pupils understand political matters.			
absolutely relevant	7	29,17	51,19
reasonably relevant	12	50,00	38,10
somewhat relevant	4	16,67	9,52
totally irrelevant	1	4,17	1,19
c) Teaches pupils to evaluate situations.			
absolutely relevant	11	45,83	55,29
reasonably relevant	10	41,67	32,94
somewhat relevant	1	4,17	8,24
totally irrelevant	2	8,33	3,53
d) Pupils made aware of different perspectives.			
absolutely relevant	11	45,83	45,24
reasonably relevant	8	33,30	26,19
somewhat relevant	4	16,67	20,24
totally irrelevant	1	4,17	8,33
e) Helps pupils understand values and beliefs of others.			
absolutely relevant	6	25,00	42,86
reasonably relevant	7	29,17	27,38
somewhat relevant	9	37,50	22,62
totally irrelevant	2	8,33	7,14
f) Develops pupils ability to reason.			
absolutely relevant	10	41,67	51,19
reasonably relevant	9	37,50	29,76
somewhat relevant	4	16,67	16,67
totally irrelevant	1	4,17	2,3

g) History is valuable in the world of work.			
absolutely relevant	2	8,33	12,20
reasonably relevant	8	33,30	37,81
somewhat relevant	9	37,50	29,27
totally irrelevant	5	20,83	20,73
h) Pupils develop excellent general knowledge.			
absolutely relevant	7	29,17	47,06
reasonably relevant	8	33,30	41,18
somewhat relevant	5	20,83	9,41
totally irrelevant	4	16,67	2,35
i) Pupils make contact with History of the local environment.			
absolutely relevant	4	16,67	20,24
reasonably relevant	5	20,83	29,76
somewhat relevant	9	37,50	28,57
totally irrelevant	6	25,00	21,43
j) Teaches pupils empathy.			
absolutely relevant	9	37,50	-
reasonably relevant	9	37,50	-
somewhat relevant	5	20,83	-
totally irrelevant	1	4,17	-
k) Teaches pupils bias detection.			
absolutely relevant	11	45,83	-
reasonably relevant	5	20,83	-
somewhat relevant	5	20,83	-
totally irrelevant	3	12,00	-

Table 1.21

Level at which modules choices should be made

	project [N=25]		HSRC
	no	%	%
a) Pupils	2	8	13,64
b) History teachers	5	20	36,36
c) Parents	-	-	-
d) Pupils, History teachers & parents	11	44	-
e) Regional education departments	1	4	39,39
f) Central education department	-	-	-
g) History teachers and the ed. dept.	6	24	-

All of the respondents in both the research project survey and the HSRC investigation favoured a modular curriculum. The levels at which choices should be made were different in each survey. Table 1.21 indicates the decision making levels which are common to both surveys.

In the HSRC survey the teachers and the regional education departments were considered on approximately equal terms but the responses in the research project show different results. Although the choice of levels is broadly spread, a common denominator is apparent, that is, history teachers. On closer examination of the results of the research project, it can be declared that 92% of the respondents include history teachers, either as a group on their own or in collaboration with pupils, parents and the education department in decision making. Another interesting deduction is that a lower percentage of respondents in the research survey than in the HSRC survey viewed history teachers as decision makers. A possible explanation for this could be that in the research survey, history teachers feature as decision makers at three levels.

5.3.1. Significance

While acknowledging that the results produced in a small - scale research project of this nature are illuminative rather than generalisable, they do provide one with insight from a teacher's perspective about which aspects of the current history curriculum are problematic. How these problems are to be addressed , from a teacher's perspective, becomes crucial and provides the basis for the interview survey which will be discussed later in this chapter. This would also apply to the HSRC investigation which could be classified as being conducted on small - scale

if one considers that the sample size of 85 schools by no means represents secondary schools in South Africa.

The distribution and retrieval of the questionnaires to the subjects personally was advantageous. When the subjects were informed about the purpose of this study they were very forthcoming and co-operative. Also, personal contact enabled me to ascertain that seven women and 18 men history teachers had completed the questionnaire. The gender and racial classifications of the subjects were regarded as non-significant factors when the questionnaire was designed because the focus of the study is the opinions of history teachers irrespective of classifications such as “White women” or “Black men”. However, the significance of the subjects’ gender became apparent when it was discovered that not many women, irrespective of “race”, teach history at senior secondary school level locally. If this observation can be accepted as being a reflection of the reality, then it raises questions, amongst others, about the men / women teacher ratios at secondary schools, the allocation of history classes to male and female teachers and how history is perceived by the female student population at schools, universities and colleges of education. The answers to these questions have broad education policy implications, (for example, appointment and promotion policies), which are beyond the scope of the project.

The comparative analysis of the data indicates both similarities and discrepancies between the research project survey and the HSRC investigation findings. For illustrative purposes, it is interesting to note the data in Table 1.10 which reflects the extent of guidance that inspectors, principals, heads of departments and senior history teachers provide teachers in attaining the aims set out in the history syllabi. The data from the research project provides evidence that

lends support to the commonly held view that teachers are prepared to and do learn more from colleagues than from administrators, for example, inspectors and principals. Of the teachers surveyed in the research project 62,5% and 79, 17% felt that inspectors and principals, respectively offer no guidance at all. In the HSRC survey, the findings present a different “picture” in that 15,07% and 16,25% felt the same. This could possibly be explained as a difference between urban western Cape schools and the more national sample of the HSRC enquiry.

The reasons which follow, in an attempt to explain this discrepancy, are suggestive. It is possible that teachers accept guidance from those closer to the classroom situation as being worthwhile and helpful whereas guidance emanating from a person remote from the classroom, for example, an inspector, is considered to be irrelevant.

Another reason could be that teachers resist guidance from inspectors and principals because they are perceived as representing the “authorities”. The discrepancy might also be attributed to other reasons. The project researcher might have been viewed as a colleague by the subjects whereas the HSRC might have been viewed as an “official source with a Pretoria address”.

Furthermore, it could be possible that the relationships between the teachers surveyed in the project on the one hand, and the principals and inspectors on the other, might be strained, given that a teacher strike had recently come to an end.

Why research subjects respond to questions in a certain manner needs to be probed so that the data becomes meaningful and significant. This is particularly important when the findings of an investigation are to impact on important issues such as the formulation of curriculum policies. In the research study, factors that might have influenced the manner in which the subjects responded include, sample selection - urban only compared to urban and rural; distribution and retrieval of the questionnaires - personal as opposed to postal; "where the questionnaire comes from" - student research project or a parastatal research organisation and the difference in the political climate - the repression of 1989 and the climate of transition and negotiations of 1993.

How adequate is a questionnaire for the purposes of collecting data which will impact of the formulation of a curriculum policy?

It is difficult to make inferences from it (as the HSRC (1991a) report showed) because any data collected and analysed from a questionnaire must be accepted at face - value. This assumes that responses are accepted in a "vacuum" which is a precarious position to hold particularly if the information gathered is to affect policy. Education policy affects and is affected by a broad spectrum of factors which include those in the socio-political and economic spheres.

The analysis of the data in this study indicates that issues which arise out of the responses from the questionnaire need to be probed so that the responses can be analysed fully and significance and meaning can be attached to them.

Thus, the exclusive use of questionnaires to gather information that will be utilised in curriculum policy making procedures needs to be scrutinised closely.

5.4. Analysis of the interview data

The interviews provided a means of collecting data which helped clarify certain responses from the questionnaire quite significantly. Only certain questions were probed because the interviews were also utilised to gather new and supplementary information regarding the issue of teacher participation in History curriculum planning. The new information does however provide, to some extent, a contextual basis for the questionnaire responses.

1. Core and optional History curriculum

The interviews provided information about what teachers understood by “core” and “optional” in terms of the history curriculum and more importantly why they responded as they did to the question on this topic in the questionnaire. It was inferred from the interviews that teachers viewed core as a national component and optional as a regional and/or local component of the history curriculum. Standardisation or uniformity seemed to be the most important reason that a stronger core component was favoured.

The following were typical viewpoints made by the teachers.

Teacher A : “I would insist on the core ... for uniformity.”

Teacher E : “The core element is essential because if the history curriculum is optional, everybody will be doing their own thing.... The entire nation’s contribution to History would be acknowledged and appreciated.”

Teacher B: “Everybody is at least doing the same thing, so when people change schools, we don’t have problem.”

Some of the teachers revisited their opinions regarding the optional component and at best, these teachers displayed reservations about the inclusion of an optional component in the history curriculum. Their misgivings can be detected in the following statements.

Teacher F: “Regional options won’t be good because of certain biases. The optional aspect would depend on the student’s interest and historical development.”

Teacher E: “Options in the history curriculum goes hand in glove with the question of bias in History. ... A certain section of the population will obviously concentrate on a particular aspect because it deals with their heritage or culture”

Other participants maintained that an optional element was necessary in the history curriculum.

The reasons cited, amongst others, were :

Teacher G : “... to prevent domination in the history curriculum.”

Teacher D : “Optional - local history is very important because pupils can identify with it. For example, the Cape region is rich in history but people have very little idea of what it’s about.”

Teacher B: “... to keep a hold on traditional values...”

What emerges from this issue is that the discussion on the core and optional components in this context refers to the content of the history curriculum. The analysis also highlights that a new history curriculum should recognise and satisfy the need for unity (national) and diversity (local / regional).

2. Modular curriculum

All the teachers who had completed the questionnaire and who had participated in the interviews, supported the idea of the history curriculum being divided into modules. The response to the question why this system was favoured could be viewed as being mutually beneficial to the pupils and the teachers.

The following statements verify this deduction.

Teacher D : “...Helps with assessment. Module examinations make marking easier.”

Teacher F : “Less work to concentrate on and it will result in a better quality mark.”

Teacher G : “Allows flexibility for teacher and child.”

Teacher A : “Pupils won’t have all that many facts to digest at the end of the year.”

Teacher C : “Because of the vastness of the subject.”

Teacher H : “It’s easier. Pupils and teachers benefit from this.”

The impression gained here is that teachers considered the workload in the present curriculum to be somewhat excessive and there is a belief among these teachers that the modular system will reduce this load. Issues around a modular system, for example, how many modules would be considered feasible at junior and senior secondary phases were not explored because the modular curriculum was not the focus of the study.

3. A single education system

The teachers’ views on a future education system as a whole provide a contextual basis to many of the responses in the questionnaire and in the interviews. Although each of the participants stated that education, *per se*, in South Africa would definitely change once a single ministry of education was established, a wide range of opinions were expressed about what these changes would be and how they would be executed. Many felt that the changes would be implemented gradually which implied that the status quo would be maintained, for a while at least. Not all the changes discussed had positive connotations. An interesting issue which emerged, was that most of the teachers accepted the notion of regionalism even before the idea was accepted by the multiparty Negotiating Council at the World Trade Centre in Kempton Park. This could be attributed to the fact that at the time of the interviews, (September, 1993)

the debate around regionalism dominated news reports both in the printed and electronic media.

The teachers who felt that the status quo would be maintained for a period of time following the establishment of a single ministry of education explained as follows:

Teacher C : “A Black government is going to take over next year and they’ll first try to find their feet before they bring about major changes”

Teacher G : “I foresee a merging of departments. It will take five to six years ... where we will have to come down or they will have to come up... so the status quo will be maintained up to a point.”

By implication, the words of another participant also support the idea of the status quo being maintained.

“Change won’t come next year. We’ll see changes in 1995.”

Of the participants who felt sure that changes would occur, almost immediately, many were ambivalent about the benefits of these changes. The following statements verify this finding:

Teacher D : “Standards will drop because if we have a regional system then all schools will fall under one department ... Standardisation - a balance as far as instruction is concerned. Attitudes will remain the same for a long time”

Teacher E : “There has to be radical changes ... in the types of syllabuses, the types of textbooks will change... Nothing will remain static... I’m afraid standards will drop because of the language barrier. Black students have been exposed to an inferior quality of education. Now they’ll be competing with pupils who have had an advantage over them”

Teacher F : “It’s going to be apartheid in reverse, so to some extent... ANC domination. There’s going to be, for example, a lot of Black / African History at the expense of European History”

Teacher B : “The need for change is there but certain regions would want to maintain certain things”

The key issues raised here were that changes in education should and would occur but how these changes would affect those pupils, for example, at House of Delegates schools, might be problematic to the teachers. The paramount concern seemed to be that standards would drop. The teachers interviewed acknowledged the need for change but they had as yet not reconciled themselves with the possibility that those who have historically enjoyed a privileged position might have to settle for less if education is to be equitably provided for all children. A degree of uncertainty and apprehension about the future seemed to be prevalent amongst the teachers interviewed. This raises important questions about consultation with teachers as key role players in the transformation of education.

4. Teacher involvement in curriculum development at present

The discussion on this issue proved to be extremely interesting in that all the teachers were absolutely adamant that they were not involved in any curriculum development in the present situation. However, after some prompting by the interviewer, some conceded that they were involved in curriculum development, albeit on a very small scale with respect to teaching methods and testing to a lesser extent. Other teachers however, still maintained that what they did in the classroom (the instructional level) did not constitute curriculum development and notable decision making. To these teachers, curriculum decisions would only be considered relevant and meaningful if they were made outside the school but applicable to the school.

The responses of the teachers during this section of the interview demonstrated a high level of frustration and it can also be tentatively deduced that teachers actually feel negative about what they do because they have no sense of ownership over what they do. The fact that they

have no say in the choice of textbooks and in the setting of examination papers further underlined their feeling of hopelessness as curriculum decision makers. The general perception amongst the teachers was that they were controlled by bureaucratic structures within and outside the school.

These inferences were verified by the following statements.

- Teacher A : “Testing and exams are guided by bureaucratic structures ... we don’t chose textbooks for our students”
- Teacher D : “We are guided by the department. Internal exams are moderated according to certain principles. ... Teacher input will be relevant if it is at authority level - outside the school”
- Teacher E : “Bureaucracy dictates... methods of teaching are free and your decision definitely affects the pupil. Examinations and textbooks are prescribed but you have your own supplementary readings.”
- Teacher H : “Books are prescribed... no prescription regarding methods... exams are moderated in accordance to the guidelines set by the principal”
- Teacher I : “No choice of textbooks ... methods are flexible and exam papers have to follow rules”
- Teacher F : “ Textbooks are written by teachers, on the whole... methods, types of questions in testing are the teachers decision”

5. Changes in History Education

The changes referred to under this heading excluded the core and optional components of the history curriculum which has already been discussed. The changes in history discussed by the teachers were not specific in so far as which themes should be taught etc. Guidelines, rather than specifications were suggested.

5.1. Content

There appeared to be general consensus amongst the teachers that change in content is most crucial in a new history curriculum. The present history curriculum was viewed as being too archaic. The call for more contemporary history is related to the issue of relevancy to the pupils, an issue which the questionnaire survey investigated. Another area that appeared to be inadequate in the present history curriculum was local history which many teachers repeatedly referred to during the interviews. Only one participant referred to the role of women in History as an issue to be addressed. This implies that teachers might not have begun to think of moving away from a male-centric history (“the great men of history”).

The following extracts from the interview transcriptions provide the evidence for the assertions and inferences made here.

Teacher C : “I would like to see more contemporary history... and the more themes are included”

Teacher D : “I prefer more relevant, recent, contemporary history especially for Standards 7 and 8. ... content will change ... because of the new focus in history”

Teacher E : “Change in syllabus - each population group’s history must be acknowledged, critically”

Teacher G : “Local history must be known”

Teacher F : “History syllabus should be divided into three aspects - European, South African and African - more emphasis on African”

Teacher B : “The gender issue in education must be addressed.”

5.2. Assessment

The interview participants find the present assessment system problematic and they regarded this aspect of the history curriculum to be very important. Suggestions to change the methods of evaluation include :

Teacher D : “I would prefer a semester system ... evaluation specifications would depend on the authorities”

Teacher H : “Assignments should be a component in evaluation”

Teacher I : “The type of questions should change from lone essay type to shorter, stimulating empathy type questions”

Teacher F : “Modular testing would be a good idea and we should focus on source documents, pictures and cartoons”

Teacher E : “I like the idea of semester courses ... more emphasis in final exams on more recent work”

The suggestions made by the teachers with regard to evaluation have implications for history teaching methods too. The fact that teachers would like to see evaluation change also implies that the teaching methods and resources available to teach skills, like empathy and critical evaluation, need to be addressed. The concerns about teaching methods and resources were expressed as follows :

Teacher E : “We need to look at the way history is taught and the way we see History.”

Teacher H : “History must be less theoretical ... other media, for example, films, photography need to be involved.”

Teacher I : “The use of primary and secondary sources is critical. ... The number of textbooks should increase, at least two to start with”

The statements cited above were expanded by one participant who was quite assertive and said quite emphatically that “ we must start with our teachers. We need to upgrade our teachers,

make necessary resources available and we need a support system for our teachers.” This assertion lends support to the notion that teachers’ needs have to be addressed if they are to be involved in curriculum development, even at the level of implementation. Without reviewing teachers’ needs, the stated, official curriculum might be very different from the curriculum in practice.

The views provided by the teachers further confirmed the notion that curriculum issues are complex and responses to one element of the curriculum have far-reaching implications for other elements in the curriculum. In other words, the issue of evaluation is influenced not only by marking schedules but more importantly by teaching methods, aims, resources available and used as well as skills taught.

The issues raised by the teachers in the discussion of this topic prompts another important question about whether a curriculum in which one has no say but finds unsatisfactory and sometimes inadequate, can actually be effectively implemented.¹⁴ This is an important consideration for planners of curriculum policy. The effective implementation of a curriculum can only be achieved if teachers are involved in the curriculum making process because as practitioners, they possess information that can only be acquired by those involved in the classroom.

6. Decision making in History curriculum planning

Responses to the question about who should decide what history teachers should teach confirmed the findings of the research project questionnaire survey that teachers should be

¹⁴ The implications of non-involvement can result in foot - dragging (see Chapter 2).

involved in curriculum decision making procedures but not as primary decision makers. The teachers interviewed displayed a high level of confidence in academics at universities as important decision makers because they, the academics, have expert knowledge. Parents and pupils should have a lesser role to play but they should be involved at some level.

The statements made by the teachers in relation to this issue follows.

Teacher B: “ Teachers themselves - and academics as well so that we don’t have a particular bias. Pupils should be consulted but they don’t know what’s good for them.”

Teacher C: “ Teachers and parents - we must include parents.”

Teacher D: “ Teachers should decide by means of common consensus the optional section together with academics who have expert knowledge.”

Teacher E : “Teachers should decide. ... a group of teachers should decide the local history - recommendations should be made by teachers of different schools and that information should be collated and then a syllabus drawn up from there.... The core should be decided by other educationists and parents. Superintendents and inspectors are out of touch with classroom situations and should be kept out.”

Teacher G : “Heads of departments must decide and teachers must participate at school level.”

Teacher H : “A collaboration of teachers, pupils, parents and academics.”

Teacher I : “Teachers through subject committees of teacher organisations. ... They are not primary decision makers but they must be involved.”

Teacher F : “History teachers should serve on committees with subject advisors, inspectors for History and many academics who are experts in their fields.”

The participation of teachers in decision making was investigated further during the interview so that clarity could be gained about what participation constituted and why teachers should be involved in curriculum planning. It was found that most of the teachers would be happy with consultation in curriculum planning at regional level. High level decision making invariably implied national level which teachers tended to shy away from. One participant favoured

national level decision making for teachers because “it’s very likely that consultation alone could result in teacher inputs not taken heed of.” The support for consultative participation was expressed by teachers in the following terms:

- Teacher D: “Teachers must participate at consultative level for the optional aspect and experts must decide on the core.”
- Teacher E: “Teachers can’t decide at national level but they must be consulted at regional level.”
- Teacher I: “Regional committees with representatives from every area should formulate policy.”

The teachers considered their experience to be the most important factor that permits them to become involved in curriculum decision making. Although they did not perceive themselves as experts, they wanted to be recognised as a worthwhile source of knowledge. Experience in this context refers to experience with pupils and with the subject matter. The reasons cited by the teachers themselves illuminate this finding.

- Teacher A: “Because they are the people that teach - they know.”
- Teacher E: “The teacher is really the one teaching in the classroom. They are educators. The teacher knows his environment. We have experience with pupils - we know their likes and dislikes.”
- Teacher C: “Because we have contact with the pupils.”
- Teacher F: “Obviously if you are teaching the subject, you should have some say in what’s to be taught and how it’s to be taught. Our experience gives us the professional and democratic right to have a say. ... at least a core of teachers.”

Other reasons that teachers stated are closely related to job satisfaction and the democratisation of education. The need for education to be democratised was highlighted by many participants and the question of professionalism and job satisfaction elicited quite animated responses.

The perceptions expressed by the teachers below demonstrate the high levels of frustration they feel and that morale amongst them is not very high.

- Teacher I: “The present system should give us more reason to get involved because we don’t have a say in anything.”
- Teacher A: “You won’t feel your life is being dictated to all the time. People will be more positive towards the syllabus. Teacher participation has to be relevant and implies democratisation.”
- Teacher C : “I don’t want to be dictated to. The status of the teacher will definitely change - one will have a higher status because we would have a say in the making of policy. ... We need education to be democratised.”
- Teacher D: “Ideally we want a democratic education system.... Teachers would be happy to teach what they want.”
- Teacher H: “The status of the teacher will be different to the present but History teachers are a dime a dozen... .”
- Teacher F: “... it’s going to lead to a happy teacher who’s going to give quality time and eventually you’re going to have a better pupil.”

These reasons articulated by the teachers here seem to be in conflict with the idea that teachers should not be primary decision makers.

5.4.1. Significance

The one-on-one contact afforded by the interviews supplied more meaningful information than that provided by the questionnaires. The fact that one is able to observe facial expressions, gestures and tone of voice adds a different dimension to the information gathered from questionnaires exclusively. Non-verbal responses of this nature are as important as verbal ones.

The interviews provided the teachers with a platform to air their views on history education and curriculum decision making which the questionnaire failed to accomplish on its own. The

questionnaire provided typified responses whereas the interviews enabled the teachers to really express how they perceived and felt about critical history curriculum issues, in their own words. The manner in which the teachers responded could be attributed to a number of factors. It could be assumed that the teachers interviewed, perceived me not only as a student but also as a colleague who would understand and relate to how they felt as history teachers.

The interviews also highlighted that teachers, as important role players in curriculum planning, have been ignored in the past and they expect to participate in education policy making in the future. The information provided by the teachers also demonstrated that their position of “knowing” should guarantee them acknowledgement and consultation in curriculum planning. As it has already been mentioned, the teachers interviewed do not have high levels of confidence in themselves as curriculum developers and planners. This lack of confidence may be attributed to the inadequate training of teachers as bona fide curriculum workers, ineffective or absent INSET in this area and the culture of the present education system which enforces top-down decisions either through legislation or bureaucratic directives.

5.5. Conclusion

The international literature referred to in Chapter 3 propagates the idea that teachers should be the most important role players in curriculum decision making for exactly the same reasons that the teachers expressed during the interviews.

Both the questionnaire survey and the interviews provide very illuminative information which can be utilised very effectively in the formulation of curriculum policies. The nature of the small scale study placed constraints on the feasibility of using a large sample of teachers which would validate the findings generally.

CHAPTER 6 : CONCLUSION -- QUO VADIS?

6.1. Introduction : An overview of the study

The literature on curriculum decision making propagates the inclusion of teachers within curriculum policy making structures and processes. The involvement of teachers in curriculum decision-making, as active participants, have the following advantages.¹⁵

- it leads to improved, innovative teaching because critical reflection and analysis in their practice would be encouraged. This would improve the quality of the curriculum and thus, education as a whole.
- the promotion of professional development and the acknowledgement of teachers' experience.
- empowering teachers with authority at decision making level and the ownership of the process and the product, would ensure a commitment to the effective implementation of that product.
- confidence, morale and job satisfaction of teachers would be enhanced.
- collaborative decision making, which includes teachers as a collegium, is compatible with the democratisation of education policy making.
- the curriculum process and ultimately the product would be legitimised.

In the South African context, however, initiatives towards teacher participation in curriculum development,(for example, SCISA) suggest that teacher participation is good from a theoretical perspective but not easy to implement in practice.

¹⁵ These advantages emerge as deductions from the literature reviewed for the preceding chapters and from the information gathered from the teachers during the interview phase of the study.

The problems that emerge include:

- initial resistance to participation because of the lack of confidence and inadequate skills in policy making.
- sustaining interest.
- overcoming the fact that it is an expensive and time consuming process.
- divergent views what participation and consultation entail. (Participants, or those consulted, might not subscribe to the final decisions made.)

The usefulness of the HSRC research study in relation to curriculum development has been criticised in this dissertation for the following reasons:

- questionnaires only were utilised for data collection.
- the apparently unrepresentative nature of the sample.
- the rationale for the use of questionnaires.
- the interpretation of the data.

These criticisms have been made because the data in the way it has been gathered does not provide adequate or sufficient information for curriculum policy development such as the Work Committee intended. A comparative analysis of the HSRC data with that of the research project has indicated that the use of interviews yielded valuable information that the exclusive utilisation of questionnaires was not able to provide. The supplementary information that the interviews furnished gave the research project a qualitative dimension against the quantitative nature of the HSRC enquiry.

The methodology employed in the research project also provided an insight into what teachers “really” thought about the present history curriculum and how they perceived their role in future history curriculum planning.

6.2. Findings of the research study

Despite the limits of the research study, the findings were illuminative as a basis for debate on curriculum making procedures.

The findings of the research project indicate some of the ways in which teachers are dissatisfied with the present history curriculum; that they have definite ideas on how the history curriculum could be changed and consider themselves to be a valuable, but ignored, source of information in history curriculum planning.

The findings have made it clear that questionnaire returns do not yield sufficient information for curriculum development on their own. The interviews gave a wider context to the concerns, abilities, interests and shortcomings of teachers, which made it possible to sense the educational setting in which they taught. But the research study did confirm some of the findings of the HSRC research, indicating that there are broad means of agreement between teachers about the history curriculum. This broad agreement illustrates how essential it is to canvass the views of teachers on curriculum issues, even if this can only be done by questionnaires.

Similar problem areas in the teaching of history were identified in both studies. These include:

- The content of South African History.
- The realisation of certain aims, for example, a sense of citizenship.
- Euro-centricity and blatant bias in textbooks.
- Content of the syllabus, for example, contemporary history.

Questionnaire research is widely regarded as rational and value-free and as an effective way of testing opinions, but it fails to recognise the complexities of teaching and learning, classroom interactions and the political context of schooling. These are important considerations, particularly, within the South African fragmented education system context. It is imperative, therefore, that the values of the participants and the researchers be clearly expressed so that findings can be clearly understood. Moreover, the clarity of the value orientations is absolutely crucial if curriculum development is perceived as a non-technical process.

The value-free approach also fails to address the question of how teachers can contribute to the resolution of curricular problems. The mere identification of problems indicates dissatisfaction with the present history curriculum but it does not provide adequate information about what can be done to resolve these problems. The questionnaire survey findings do not help to raise the debate to the level where teachers' viewpoints can be contested and probed. It could be argued that the teachers' viewpoints gathered in this manner can be viewed as unauthorised opinions (Goodlad, 1991:19) which, while satisfying the call for wider consultation, do not necessarily influence the decisions made.

The interviews provided the opportunity to clarify questionnaire responses and they also facilitated the collection of data that would either support or refute the arguments in favour of teacher participation in curriculum decision making. As Judith Bell, states, interviews provided the "flesh to the bones" (1987:70). The interview research provided information about whether teachers desired participation in curriculum decision making and also to what extent. Furthermore, teachers were given latitude to explore and discuss crucial curricular issues. The responses of the teachers during the questionnaire and interview research provided

the basis of the guidelines for history curriculum development suggested in Appendix E. These guidelines address the key elements of the history curriculum which the teachers raised during the research.

The findings of the research project suggest that although teacher participation in curriculum policy making is not without complexities, it should be given serious consideration. The importance that teachers attached to their experience, the need for professional development and the potential roles that INSET and PRESET could play, should not be ignored.

6.3. Implications for future education policy making

The implications for future education policy should be viewed from the perspective that all participants involved in curriculum development recognise and understand :-

- what is meant by curriculum;
- that curriculum policy is a process and not a product;
- that participants function at different levels and make decisions appropriate for that level;
- that no one curriculum decision is necessarily more important than another;
- that it is not possible to develop a history curriculum in an unco-ordinated manner, that is, in isolation from broad curriculum objectives and other subject disciplines.

6.3.1. Democratisation

An attitudinal change is required by education bureaucrats, academics, the community and more particularly, the teachers themselves, to understand that participation by all key role players is a prerequisite of democratising the curriculum policy process. What should be recognised is that all participants enter the decision making process with an equal amount of

bargaining power (Buckland and Hofmeyer 1993:23), therefore it is the responsibility of each interest group to ensure that no one group dominates.

Direct participation of individual members is neither financially feasible nor practicable, therefore, representative participation is the possible route to follow. However, representatives should be held in check and made accountable by a monitoring group, preferably external to the decision makers themselves (Buckland and Hofmeyer 1993:68). This would also ensure that power is not usurped for personal aggrandisement (Goodlad 1991:20).

Those who possess expert based knowledge should not regard these ideas and suggestions as an attempt to have them relinquish power but rather a means of sharing power with other key players.

Present decision making structures would need to be revised if devolution of power away from the centre is to be realised. It would be possible for regional and district (local) decision making structures to be established which could be guided by nationally determined guidelines¹⁶. The devolution of power would allow the development of the curriculum to be accessible to debate and public scrutiny. The principle underlying this, is that curriculum policy, in the broadest sense, should be developed in a manner that recognises the roles of all the players concerned with education policy. The input of all interest groups at any level of the decision making process is crucial to an effective education system.

¹⁶ The different levels for decision making are referred to in NEPI (1992:66).

In the final analysis, it would be encouraging if the future decision making structures and processes were to reflect the objectives of a united, democratic, non-racist, non-sexist and equitable education system (NEPI 1992:8). Participants involved in the decision making process should also understand and commit themselves to a mutually agreed “code of conduct” which would ensure that decisions arrived at, are subscribed to. This has positive implications for defeating individuals’ or groups’ hidden agendas which could usurp the process. The inclusion of teachers in the decision making process would also narrow the gap between education theory and practice.

6.3.2. Teacher education programmes

The inclusion of curriculum development skills at both PRESET and INSET levels, as part of teacher education programmes is crucial to the promotion of teacher participation in curriculum policy making. These skills include:

- research skills
- communication skills (both verbal and written)
- assessment skills
- effective use of teaching resources
- diverse perspectives of education theory knowledge

(Keogh 1992:7).

The lack of skills relating to curriculum work was highlighted by the teachers interviewed during the research. As one teacher articulated, “our training didn’t qualify us [for curriculum development] ... didn’t give us skills”. This statement could be interpreted as criticism against past teacher education programmes or it could be regarded as a call for the inclusion of curriculum work skills in INSET programmes. In either case, it is an issue which needs to be addressed.

The development of these skills would raise the confidence of teachers to become involved in curriculum policy making. The past and present teacher education programmes reinforce the notion that teachers are technicians who merely implement curricula. Future teacher education programmes, in particular, PRESET programmes, are in the best position to encapsulate the development of curriculum planning skills as an integral part of the programme.

INSET programmes, provided for by the state and NGOs, should consider the development of these skills as crucial because experienced teachers have a valuable contribution to make to the curriculum planning process. Financial resources should be made available for these programmes because the benefits would outweigh the initial investment. Teacher upgrading is important for the improvement of education, that is, for the teacher, the student and ultimately the quality of education.

Conferences, like those initiated by the History Education Group, could provide teachers the opportunity to discuss their role in history curriculum planning. Furthermore, teachers' needs as curriculum developers could be highlighted and/or confirmed and teachers themselves could then discuss how these needs could be addressed. From this perspective, teachers would actually initiate innovation and in this way resistance to the process could be circumvented. Also, the teacher trade unions and professional associations could play an important role in encouraging and motivating those teachers who feel unsure about their role in curriculum planning and decision making.

6.4. Significance

The study has shown that teacher participation could contribute to a less technicist and more person-centred approach in curriculum development. This approach could improve the quality of the product (syllabus documents) and its subsequent adoption and implementation. The degree to which a school identifies with the syllabuses would be far greater, which would ensure flexibility and willingness to adapt to policies in which the teachers have a sense of ownership. A paradigm shift, from a paradigm which perceives the history curriculum as being rigid and monolithic to one which views it as being flexible and changeable, is possible if teachers become actively involved in the decision making structures and processes.

6.5. Conclusion

During this research project, the debate around teacher participation in curriculum policy formulation was taken to, what many consider to be, the site of curriculum change, that is, schools (Bonser and Grundy, 1988:36).

The importance of teacher participation in curriculum planning is evident in the international and, to a lesser extent, in South African literature. South Africa lacks educational research on this issue, which necessitates a dependence on international research findings. As the contexts differ vastly, it is difficult to draw direct inferences from the experiences of other nations, so the field for further research in this area is wide open. It would be interesting to learn whether the findings of a large scale study would confirm or negate the results of this research project.

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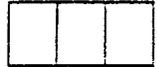
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APPENDIX A

AFOCVD0007



HUMAN SCIENCES RESEARCH COUNCIL
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

INVESTIGATION INTO THE TEACHING OF HISTORY
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE RSA

QUESTIONNAIRE TO HISTORY TEACHERS

Vraelys in Afrikaans op keersy

ENQUIRIES

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RGN·HSRC

HUMAN SCIENCES RESEARCH COUNCIL

INVESTIGATION INTO THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE RSA
QUESTIONNAIRE TO TEACHERS

A. THE AIM OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS

- * to investigate the practice of History teaching and to identify difficulties,
- * to determine the opinion of history teachers regarding aspects such as teacher training, aims and content of syllabi, evaluation and teaching aids, and
- * to determine attitudes towards History as a subject.

B. CONFIDENTIALITY

All information obtained by means of this questionnaire will be treated STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL and will be used for research purposes only. Your name or the name of your school must therefore *not* be written on the questionnaire.

C. INSTRUCTIONS

1. Please read the instructions for each question carefully before answering.
2. Where applicable the questions should be answered by circling the appropriate code number.

EXAMPLE

Which section in History do pupils in your opinion enjoy most?

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| * South African history | 1 |
| * General history | 2 |

The example indicates that pupils enjoy General history the most.

3. Please ignore the numbers which appear in the right-hand column on each page under the heading "FOR OFFICE USE ONLY".

D. RETURN OF QUESTIONNAIRES

Please place the completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope and return it to the HSRC before 27 OCTOBER 1989

For office use only

Record number

1-3

Card number

1

4

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY CIRCLING THE ANSWER(S) OF YOUR CHOICE AND/OR WRITING DOWN THE ANSWER.

A. GENERAL INFORMATION REGARDING YOUR SCHOOL

1. What type of school do you teach at?

- a) Technical school 1
- b) Ordinary secondary school..... 2
- c) Agricultural school 3
- d) Art, music and ballet school 4
- e) Commercial school 5
- f) Comprehensive school 6

5

2. Where is your school situated?

- a) Rural area (city or town) 1
- b) Urban area 2

6

B. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Sex: a) Male 1
b) Female 2

7

2. Age: a) Under the age of 20 years 1
b) 20-25 years 2
c) 26-30 years 3
d) 31-35 years 4
e) 36-40 years 5
f) 41-50 years 6
g) Over 50 years 7

8

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3. Total number of years teaching experience (all subjects):
- a) 0-2 years 1
 - b) 3-5 years 2
 - c) 6-10 years 3
 - d) 11-15 years 4
 - e) More than 15 years 5
- 9

4. Total number of years experience in the teaching of History at secondary school level:
- a) 0-2 years 1
 - b) 3-5 years 2
 - c) 6-10 years 3
 - d) 11-15 years 4
 - e) More than 15 years 5
- 10

5. To which standard(s) do you teach History at present? Circle all applicable code numbers.
- a) Standard 6 1 11
 - b) Standard 7 1 12
 - c) Standard 8 1 13
 - d) Standard 9 1 14
 - e) Standard 10 1 15

6. To how many classes do you teach History? Circle the applicable number for each of the standards you are teaching at present.

Standard	Number of classes									
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

16
17
18
19
20

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7. What is the average number of pupils per class that you teach History to?

Standard	Average number of pupils per class					
	Not applicable	20 or less	20 to 30	30 to 40	40 to 50	50 or more
6	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	1	2	3	4	5	6

21
22
23
24
25

8. Do you at present teach any other subject(s) besides History?

- a) Yes
- b) No

1
2 26

9. What percentage of your tuition time do you use for the teaching of History?

- a) 50 % or more
- b) Less than 50 %

1
2 27

C. INFORMATION REGARDING YOUR QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING

1. Indicate your highest school qualification:

- a) Standard 6
- b) Standard 7
- c) Standard 8
- d) Standard 9
- e) Standard 10

1
2
3
4
5 28

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2. How many years of training did you receive in History at a teachers' training college (subject didactics or speciality subject)?

a) One year	1			
b) Two years	2			
c) Three years	3			
d) Four years	4			
e) No training in History at a teachers' training college	5			29

3.1 Do you have a teacher's diploma/-certificate?

a) Yes	1			
b) No	2			30

3.2 Which teacher's diploma/certificate do you have? (e.g. HED)

a)				31
b) Year obtained: 19__ __				32-33

4.1 Name your most advanced university History course at undergraduate level? Circle the code number next to the appropriate answer and then enter the year in which it was obtained in the applicable squares.

		Year obtained		
a) History I	1	19		
b) History II	2	19		
c) History III	3	19		34-35
d) No university training in History	4			36

4.2 What post-graduate qualifications do you have in History?

		Year obtained		
a) Honours degree in History	1	19		
b) Master's degree in History	2	19		
c) Doctorate in History	3	19		37-38
d) None	4			39

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5. What is in your opinion the minimum qualification/training a teacher should have for the effective teaching of History at secondary school level?

Circle only one answer in each column.

	Std. 6-7	Std.8-10	
a) One year training at a teachers' training college	1	1	40
b) Two years of training at a teachers' training college	2	2	41
c) Three years of training at a teachers' training college	3	3	42
d) Four years of training at a teachers' training college	4	4	43
e) One year of university training	5	5	44
f) Two years of university training	6	6	45
g) Three years of university training ..	7	7	46
h) Three years at university plus one year at a teachers' training college	8	8	47
i) Postgraduate training	9	9	48
j) Other (specify):.....	10	10	49

6. In your opinion, did your training prepare you adequately for the teaching of History?

a) Yes, I was adequately prepared	1	50
b) I was only partly prepared	2	
c) No, I was not at all prepared	3	

ANSWER QUESTION 7 ONLY IF YOU CIRCLED CODE 2 OR 3 AT QUESTION 6.

7.1 If you are of the opinion that your training prepared you only partly or not at all for the teaching of History, indicate whether the problems you experience are of a subject didactic or subject content nature.

a) Subject didactic (subject methodology)	1	52
b) Subject content (History as subject)	2	

7.2 Did the subject content part of your History course fall short with respect to

* South African History	1	53
or		
* General history	2	

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D. CONTINUED EDUCATION AND TRAINING

1. Have you attended any training courses aimed at the teaching of History in the past three years?

a) Yes

1

b) No

2

54

2. If you have attended one or more training courses on History teaching, explain what value, if any, these courses had for you.

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

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55-56

3. Have you attended a conference or seminar on History and/or the teaching of History in the past three years?

a) Yes

1

b) No

2

57

4. Have you in the past 6 months read any

a) book(s) on subject didactics

Yes	No
-----	----

1	2
---	---

58

b) books on history other than the prescribed text books

1	2
---	---

59

c) subject journals on history

1	2
---	---

60

d) official publications of historical associations

1	2
---	---

61

5. Are you at present undertaking further studies to improve your qualifications? (It need not necessarily be in History)

a) Yes

1

b) No

2

62

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6. If you are undertaking further studies, does this course include History?

a) Yes	1	
b) No	2	63

E. AIMS WITH THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

1. Which of the following general aims in History (as described in the syllabi for Standards 6 to 10) is in your opinion realistic (i.e. attainable during the pupils' secondary school career)?

	Yes	No	
1. To contribute to the personal development of pupils	1	2	64
2. To contribute to the development and understanding of a sense of citizenship	1	2	65
3. To contribute to the development of positive attitudes and values	1	2	66
4. To contribute to an understanding and appreciation of the heritage of other people and cultures	1	2	67
5. To contribute to the understanding of the unique nature of individuals and events	1	2	68
6. To contribute to the understanding of History as an academic discipline and the intellectual skills and perspectives which such a study involves	1	2	69

2. Which one of the above aims do you find the most difficult to realise?

a) Aim no.		70
b) Reason		
.....		71

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3. Indicate to what extent the following people guide you in the attainment of these aims in the teaching situation.

- 1 = Highly satisfactory
- 2 = Fairly satisfactory
- 3 = Less satisfactory
- 4 = Most unsatisfactory

a) Inspectors/superintendents/subject advisors	1	2	3	4	72
b) Principals	1	2	3	4	73
c) Heads of departments	1	2	3	4	74
d) Senior History teachers	1	2	3	4	75

Record number 1-3

Card number 2 4

4. Indicate to what extent the following is of help to you in the teaching of History:

- 1 = To a large extent
- 2 = To a reasonable extent
- 3 = To a lesser extent
- 4 = Not at all

a) Subject policy/guidelines for History teaching in secondary schools (where applicable)	1	2	3	4	5
b) Schemes of work for History	1	2	3	4	6
c) Subject meetings guided by the head of the History department	1	2	3	4	7
d) Relevant articles in subject-field magazines and journals	1	2	3	4	8
e) Attending conferences and seminars on History education	1	2	3	4	9
f) In-service training and orientation presented by your department of education	1	2	3	4	10
g) The syllabi for History	1	2	3	4	11

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F. SYLLABUS CONTENT FOR HISTORY

1. In your opinion, what should be the ratio between General History and South African History?

	General History	South African History			
a) Standards 6 and 7	30 %	70 %	..	1	
	40 %	60 %	..	2	
	50 %	50 %	..	3	
	60 %	40 %	..	4	
	70 %	30 %	..	5	12
Other (specify)	—	—		13-14
					15-16
b) Standards 8 - 10	30 %	70 %	..	1	
	40 %	60 %	..	2	
	50 %	50 %	..	3	
	60 %	40 %	..	4	
	70 %	30 %	..	5	17
Other (specify)	—	—	..		18-19
					20-21

2. Which of the following themes or topics ought to be included but elaborated on, included but reduced or excluded in the History syllabi of all the departments of education?

- 1 = Included but elaborated on
- 2 = Included but reduced
- 3 = Excluded

a) The History of Africa	1	2	3	22
b) Cultural history (clothing, weapons, music, religion, etc., of different cultures and periods which are dealt with in the syllabi) ...	1	2	3	23
c) Different ideologies such as socialism, communism, Marxism, democracy, etc.	1	2	3	24
d) The history of the black man in South Africa ...	1	2	3	25

				For office use only		
e)	Comparable situations regarding the problems of multicultural societies in overseas countries	1	2	3	26	
f)	The development of "apartheid"	1	2	3	27	
g)	The history of liberation movements in Southern Africa	1	2	3	28	
h)	Contemporary history in South Africa and the rest of the world	1	2	3	29	
i)	The precolonial history of Southern Africa	1	2	3	30	
j)	An introduction to Archaeology	1	2	3	31	
k)	The dispossession of land	1	2	3	32	
l)	Capitalism and class struggles	1	2	3	33	
m)	Trade unions	1	2	3	34	
n)	Other theme(s) or topic(s): (name <u>two</u> only)					
(i)	1	2	3	35	
(ii)	1	2	3	36	
					37-38	
3.	Give your opinion on the following statements by means of the given scale:					
1 = Agree fully					39-40	
2 = Agree to a reasonable extent						
3 = Agree to a lesser extent						
4 = Do not agree at all						
a)	History must take into account the system of values of the society whose children are being educated	1	2	3	4	41
b)	History as a subject offers the opportunity to prepare pupils for life and work in a multi-cultural society such as South Africa	1	2	3	4	42
c)	History must assist pupils to a better understanding of the world in which they live	1	2	3	4	43
d)	History teachers should use more than one textbook when preparing lessons	1	2	3	4	44
e)	It should be accepted that the History teacher's philosophy of life will influence the way in which he presents the subject content	1	2	3	4	45

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f)	Pupils should be made aware of the diverse perspectives which exist on historical events	1	2	3	4	46
g)	History textbooks presently used in government schools offer a predominantly Eurocentric point of view	1	2	3	4	47
h)	Some use Christian National Education as a motivation for a one-sided interpretation of certain historical events	1	2	3	4	48
i)	It is unnecessary that attention should consciously be given to the development of historical skills such as logic and reasoning	1	2	3	4	49
j)	Adequate attention is given to the perspectives of all groups of people regarding historical events in the South African history	1	2	3	4	50
k)	It is impossible to present all the perspectives of the different groups of people in South Africa as the average high school pupil is not adequately matured yet	1	2	3	4	51
l)	History teachers are not adequately trained to present History in accordance with the perspectives of the different groups of people in South Africa	1	2	3	4	52
m)	A good history textbook is exclusively examination-oriented	1	2	3	4	53
n)	Pupils will find the presentation of History according to the perspectives of the different groups of people in South Africa interesting ...	1	2	3	4	54
o)	History syllabi should provide to a larger extent for the historical events of the different local regions in South Africa	1	2	3	4	55
p)	It is important that textbooks present History in a narrative manner in Standards 8-10	1	2	3	4	56
q)	The Std. 10 examination requires knowledge of historical facts and almost no insight	1	2	3	4	57
r)	The History textbooks do not promote an appreciation of own culture with pupils	1	2	3	4	58
s)	In general History textbooks do not provide enough stimulus material (e.g. photos, historical documents, pictures, interesting projects)	1	2	3	4	59

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Record number 1-3

Card number 3 4

G. MEDIA AND FACILITIES IN EDUCATION

1. Which History textbooks do you use in your teaching practice? Give the titles and authors according to the standards you teach:

- a) Std. 6 (i) 5-6
- (ii) 7-8
- (iii) 9-10
- b) Std. 7 (i) 11-12
- (ii) 13-14
- (iii) 15-16
- c) Std. 8 (i) 17-18
- (ii) 19-20
- (iii) 21-22
- d) Std. 9 (i) 23-24
- (ii) 25-26
- (iii) 27-28
- e) Std. 10 (i) 29-30
- (ii) 31-32
- (iii) 33-34

2. To what extent do you make use of the history textbook in your presentation in the classroom?

- a) I exclusively make use of the textbook 1
- b) I make use of the textbook to a reasonable extent 2
- c) I make use of the textbook to a lesser extent 3
- d) I never make use of the textbook 4 35

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3. Do you at present have any say in the selection of History textbooks at your school?

a) Yes	1	36
b) No	2	

4. If yes, are the History textbooks from which a selection must be made, given to you beforehand for inspection?

a) Yes	1	37
b) No	2	

5. Have you ever found it necessary to use more than one History textbook in preparing for a lesson?

a) Yes	1	38
b) No	2	

6. If yes, why? Select only one answer.

a) Certain topics/themes are more clearly explained in other textbooks than approved textbooks	1	39
b) The way the content is presented in other textbooks, is more suited to the needs of the pupils	2	
c) A more objective viewpoint is offered in textbooks other than the approved ones	3	
d) The use of various textbooks is beneficial to the acquisition of a multiperspective view on certain historical events.....	4	
e) Other textbooks provide a wide variety of stimulus material (maps, sketches, exercises, diagrams) which promotes creative History teaching	5	
f) The development of critical skills are being better promoted in other textbooks	6	
g) The language used in other History textbooks is more on par with the pupils' level of development	7	
h) Other (specify):		

.....

		40-41
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7. How often do you make use of the following teaching aids?

	Not available	Regularly	Periodically	Seldom	Never	
a) Blackboard	1	2	3	4	5	42
b) Overhead projector ...	1	2	3	4	5	43
c) Tape recorder	1	2	3	4	5	44
d) Slide projector	1	2	3	4	5	45
e) Pictures/wall posters	1	2	3	4	5	46
f) Wall maps	1	2	3	4	5	47
g) Display cabinets	1	2	3	4	5	48
h) Pin boards	1	2	3	4	5	49
i) Video recorder	1	2	3	4	5	50
j) Historical documents	1	2	3	4	5	51
h) Other (specify):	1	2	3	4	5	52

53-54

H. EVALUATION AND EXAMINATION

1. Please indicate your point of view with regard to the following statements concerning testing and examining in History:

- 1 = Fully agree
- 2 = Agree to a reasonable extent
- 3 = Agree to a lesser extent
- 4 = Completely disagree

a) The choice of subjects for essay type questions in the Standard 10 examination is wide enough	1	2	3	4	55
b) Attaining high marks in History is more difficult than in other subjects	1	2	3	4	56
c) The high premium placed on prepared questions in Standards 9-10 discourages pupils from taking the subject	1	2	3	4	57

					For office use only	
d)	The volume of work pupils need to prepare for examination is too large	1	2	3	4	58
e)	Teachers are not equipped to evaluate pupils' ability for interpretation and reasoning	1	2	3	4	59
f)	Marking schedules should be flexible and leave room for initiative, independence and insight in the formulating of answers	1	2	3	4	60
g)	Evaluation skills should receive more attention during in-service training	1	2	3	4	61
h)	Work completed during the year such as minor class assignments which are carried out independently, should contribute more significantly to students' year marks	1	2	3	4	62
i)	Work prescribed for examination purposes in Standard 10 should be less than the total amount of work completed during the year	1	2	3	4	63
j)	A greater variety of questions should be used on a continuous basis in evaluating the subject	1	2	3	4	64
k)	Marks Standard 10 pupils attain in internal tests and examinations correlate positively with their Senior Certificate symbols	1	2	3	4	65
l)	The external examination of History at Standard 10 level affects pupils' preparation for other History tests and examinations negatively	1	2	3	4	66
m)	In Standard 10 examinations more emphasis should be placed on the analysis and interpretation of documents and other source material	1	2	3	4	67
n)	The Standard 10 examination is a reliable way of measuring pupils' insight into History ...	1	2	3	4	68

12.
X
Comments concerning the examination and evaluation of secondary school History:

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I. ATTITUDES WITH REGARD TO HISTORY

1. What do you consider to be the most important reason why pupils opt for history in the Standard 8-10 phase?

Choose only one answer.

- a) History can be mastered by rote learning and requires little insight 1
- b) This school offers very few other optional subjects 2
- c) Pupils are genuinely interested in History 3
- d) Pupils feel that knowledge of History will provide them with a certain measure of political literacy 4
- e) Pupils are influenced by their parents 5
- f) The teacher who teaches History in Standards 8-10 is very popular with the pupils 6
- g) The Standard 7 History teacher encourages them to continue with History in Standards 8-10 7
- h) History is seen as suitable for pupils who are not very gifted 8 71
- i) Other (specify):
..... 72

2. To what extent do you consider the following aspects concerning History (as it is taught at present) to be relevant to the world in which your pupils live?

Record number 1-3

Card number 4 4

- 1 = absolutely relevant
- 2 = reasonably relevant
- 3 = somewhat irrelevant
- 4 = irrelevant

- a) It teaches pupils to memorize

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

 5
- b) It helps pupils in understanding current political matters

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

 6
- c) Pupils learn to evaluate situations critically

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

 7

					For office use only	
d)	Pupils are made aware of different perspectives held by various groups of people on historical events in South Africa	1	2	3	4	8
e)	History helps pupils to have a better understanding of the values and ideals belonging to other groups of people in South Africa	1	2	3	4	9
f)	It convinces pupils that their own history is part of the overall South African history	1	2	3	4	10
g)	It develops pupils' ability to reason	1	2	3	4	11
h)	Pupils develop excellent general knowledge ..	1	2	3	4	12
i)	Pupils learn to respect the lives of other people	1	2	3	4	13
j)	Pupils learn to love South Africa	1	2	3	4	14
k)	History will be of great value to pupils in the world of work	1	2	3	4	15
l)	Pupils get to know the history of their own population group	1	2	3	4	16
m)	Pupils make contact with the history of their local environment	1	2	3	4	17
n)	Other (specify):					18-19

3.	Do you think Standard 9 and 10 History syllabi should be presented in modular* format?		
a)	Yes	1	
b)	No	2	20

IF YOU ANSWERED "YES" TO QUESTION NO. 3, PLEASE COMPLETE QUESTIONS 3.1 AND 3.2 AS WELL.

* Modules can be regarded as self-contained instructional packages dealing with specific topics. Modules are taught within a predetermined period of time and are evaluated at the end of that period.

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3.1 How should the modules be presented?

- a) According to themes or topics
- b) According to local historical events
- c) Regarding South African History, according to the cultures of the various groups in South Africa
- d) Other (specify):

1

2

3

21

--	--

22-23

3.2 On which level should the choice of modules be made?

- a) The choice should be left to the pupils
- b) The History teachers of each school should make the choice
- c) The choice should be made on a provincial/regional base
- d) Other (specify):

1

2

3

24

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25-26

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE TO HISTORY TEACHERS

A. THE AIM OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE :

is to gather information from teachers, as practitioners, regarding their opinions of the existing history curriculum for the purpose of providing insight into future curriculum planning procedures.

B. CONFIDENTIALITY

All information provided by the respondents to this questionnaire will be treated confidentially and will be utilised for research purposes only. Your name and that of your school must therefore NOT be written on the questionnaire.

C. INSTRUCTIONS

1. Please read the instructions accompanying each question carefully.
2. Where applicable, the questions should be answered by circling the appropriate code number.

EXAMPLE

Which section in History do pupils you teach enjoy most?

- * South African History..... 1
- * General History..... 2

3. Please ensure that ALL questions are answered.
4. Please ignore the numbers which appear under the heading "FOR OFFICE USE " in the right-hand column on each page.

Please answer the following questions by circling the code(s):

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A. GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Total number of years experience in teaching of History at
SECONDARY school level :

- a) 0 - 2 years
- b) 3 - 5 years
- c) 6 - 10 years
- d) 11 - 15 years
- e) more than 15 years

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	1

2. Do you at present teach any subject(s) other than History?

- a) Yes
- b) No

1	
2	2

3. What % of your teaching time is spent on History teaching?

- a) 50% or more
- b) Less than 50%

1	
2	3

B. INFORMATION REGARDING QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING

1. What is your highest school qualification ?

- a) Standard 6
- b) Standard 7
- c) Standard 8
- d) Standard 9
- e) Standard 10

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	4

2. How many years of training did you receive in History at a
teacher's training college?

- a) 1 year
- b) 2 years
- c) 3 years
- d) 4 years
- e) No training in History at a teacher's
training college.
- f) No training in History at all

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	5

3. What is the highest level of university History you have attained? Circle the appropriate code number.

- a) History I
- b) History II
- c) History III
- d) Honour's degree in History
- e) Master's degree in History
- f) Doctorate in History
- g) No university training in History

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

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6

4. What, in your opinion, should the minimum qualification / training be for the effective teaching of History at secondary school level?

Circle only ONE answer in each column.

- a) 1 year training at a teacher's training college
- b) 2 years training at a teacher's training college
- c) 3 years training at a teacher's training college
- d) 4 years training at a teacher's training college
- e) 1 year of university training
- f) 2 years of university training
- g) 3 years of university training
- h) 3 years at university & 1 year at training college
- i) Post-graduate training

	std 6-7	std 8-10
a)	1	1
b)	2	2
c)	3	3
d)	4	4
e)	5	5
f)	6	6
g)	7	7
h)	8	8
i)	9	9

7 - 8

C. AIMS OF THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

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1. Which of the following general aims in History (as stated in the present syllabi for Standard 6 to 10) is, in your opinion attainable (i.e. can be realised during the pupil's high school career)?

- a) To contribute to the personal development of pupils.
- b) To contribute to the development and understanding a sense of citizenship.
- c) To contribute to the development of positive attitudes and values.
- d) To contribute to an understanding and appreciation of the heritage of other people and cultures.
- e) To contribute to the understanding of the unique nature of individuals and events.
- f) To contribute to the understanding of History as an academic discipline and the intellectual skills and perspectives which such a study involves.

Yes	No
1	2
1	2
1	2
1	2
1	2
1	2

9
10
11
12
13
14

2. Which ONE of the above aims do you find most difficult to realise?

- a) Aim number.....
- b) Reason
-
-

15
16

3. Indicate to what extent the following helps you in the teaching of History.

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- 1 = To a large extent
- 2 = To a reasonable extent
- 3 = To a lesser extent
- 4 = Not at all

- a) Subject policy / guidelines for History teaching in secondary schools (where applicable)
- b) Schemes of work for History
- c) Subject meetings guided by the Head of Department
- d) Relevant articles in subject-field magazines and journals
- e) Attending conferences and seminars on History education
- f) In-service training and orientation presented by the education department
- g) The syllabi for History

1	2	3	4	17
1	2	3	4	18
1	2	3	4	19
1	2	3	4	20
1	2	3	4	21
1	2	3	4	22
1	2	3	4	23

4. Indicate to what extent the following people guide you in the attainment of these aims in the teaching situation.

- 1 = Very much
- 2 = Fairly satisfactorily
- 3 = Very little
- 4 = Not at all

- a) Inspectors / Subject advisors
- b) Principals
- c) Heads of Department
- d) Senior History Teachers

1	2	3	4	24
1	2	3	4	25
1	2	3	4	26
1	2	3	4	27

D. SUBJECT CONTENT FOR HISTORY

1. What do you think the ratio between General History and South African History should be?

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Gen. Hist S.A.Hist.

a) Standards 6 and 7

30%	70%	1
40%	60%	2
50%	50%	3
60%	40%	4
70%	30%	5

28

b) Standards 8 to 10

30%	70%	1
40%	60%	2
50%	50%	3
60%	40%	4
70%	30%	5

29

2. Which of the following themes or topics should be INCLUDED BUT ELABORATED ON, INCLUDED BUT REDUCED OR EXCLUDED in the History syllabi?

- 1 = included but elaborated on
- 2 = included but reduced
- 3 = excluded

- a) The History of Africa
- b) Cultural History (clothing, weapons, music etc)
- c) Different ideologies e.g. socialism, democracy etc.
- d) Apartheid
- e) The land question internationally and in S.A.
- f) Contemporary history of liberation movements globally and in South Africa
- g) Economic history e.g. capitalism, trade unions etc.
- h) Pre-colonial history in South Africa

1	2	3	30
1	2	3	31
1	2	3	32
1	2	3	33
1	2	3	34
1	2	3	35
1	2	3	36
1	2	3	37

3. How would you rate each of the following statements on the given scale?

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1 = Agree fully

2 = Agree to a reasonable extent

3 = Agree to a lesser extent

4 = Disagree completely

a) History should take the value system of society into account.	1	2	3	4	38
b) History as a subject offers the opportunity to prepare pupils for life and work.	1	2	3	4	39
c) History must assist pupils to understand the world in which they live.	1	2	3	4	40
d) History teachers should have a wide range of resources available to them so that teaching can be more effective	1	2	3	4	41
e) It should be accepted that the History teacher's philosophy of life will influence the way in which he/she presents the subject.	1	2	3	4	42
f) Pupils should be made aware of the diverse perspectives which exist on historical events	1	2	3	4	43
g) History textbooks in government schools offer a predominantly Eurocentric point of view	1	2	3	4	44
h) Christian National Education (CNE) is used by certain sources as a justification for a one-sided interpretation of certain historical events	1	2	3	4	45
i) School history should provide a nation-building platform for society	1	2	3	4	46
j) History teaching should give attention to the development of historical skills such as logic and understanding	1	2	3	4	47
k) History teachers should recognise the importance of emphasising critical skills and conceptual development in the syllabus and the teaching process	1	2	3	4	48
l) The maturity level of the average high school pupil makes it difficult to present all the perspectives of the different cultures represented in South Africa	1	2	3	4	49

m) Adequate attention is given to the perspectives of all groups of people regarding historical events in South African History	1	2	3	4	50
n) History teachers are not adequately trained to present history from different perspectives	1	2	3	4	51
o) School history should provide for more local and regional historical events	1	2	3	4	52
p) School history should be in keeping with the political climate prevalent in society at a given time	1	2	3	4	53
q) It is important that the history curriculum has educational legitimacy and credibility	1	2	3	4	54
r) The Standard 10 examination requires knowledge of historical facts and almost no insight	1	2	3	4	55

4. Do you think that a future history curriculum should have both core and optional (i.e. local and regional) components to it?

a) Yes	1	
b) No	2	56

4.1 If you have answered YES to the above question, then what percentage of the curriculum should each component comprise?

a) Core component :.....%	57
b) Optional component :.....%	58

5. How would you rank in order, from 1(most important) to 6 (least important, the importance of each of the following groups in the selecting of content in the history curriculum?
PLEASE USE EACH VALUE (BETWEEN 1 AND 6) ONLY ONCE.

a) Specialised curriculum committees		59
b) History classroom specialists		60
c) Teachers who have specialist knowledge of pupils e.g guidance teachers		61
d) History subject specialists		62
e) History Subject advisers		63
f) Academic historians		64

E. EVALUATION AND EXAMINATION

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use

1. What is your opinion regarding testing in History?
Rate the following statement according to the scale.

- 1 = Fully agree
- 2 = Agree to a large extent
- 3 = Agree to a lesser extent
- 4 = Completely disagree

a) The choice of essay type questions for the Standard 10 examinations is wide enough	1	2	3	4	65
b) It is much easier for pupils to obtain high marks in History than in other subjects	1	2	3	4	66
c) Pupils are discouraged from choosing History because of the high premium placed on prepared questions in Standards 9 and 10	1	2	3	4	67
d) The volume of work pupils need to prepare for examinations is manageable	1	2	3	4	68
e) Teachers are able to evaluate pupils' ability interpret and reason	1	2	3	4	69
f) Marking schedules should be flexible and leave room for initiative, independence and insight in the formulation of answers	1	2	3	4	70
g) Class assignments conducted independently by pupils should contribute more significantly to the pupils' year marks	1	2	3	4	71
h) A greater selection of questions with different levels of difficulty should be used on a continuous basis in evaluating the subject	1	2	3	4	72
i) There is a positive correlation between the marks attained by Standard 10 pupils in internal tests and examinations, and external (Senior Certificate) symbols	1	2	3	4	73
j) The external examination of History at Standard 10 level negatively affects pupils' preparation for other History tests and examinations	1	2	3	4	74
k) In Standard 10 examinations more emphasis should be placed on the analysis and interpretation of source documents	1	2	3	4	75
l) The Standard 10 examination reliably measures pupils' insight into History	1	2	3	4	76

F. TEACHERS OPINIONS WITH REGARD TO PUPILS IN RELATION TO THE HISTORY AS A SCHOOL SUBJECT

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1. What do you consider to be the MOST IMPORTANT REASON that pupils choose history in the Standard 8 - 10 phase of school. Choose only ONE answer please.

- | | |
|--|---|
| a) History can be mastered by rote learning and requires little insight | 1 |
| b) The school offers very few other optional subjects | 1 |
| c) Pupils are genuinely interested in History | 1 |
| d) Pupils feel that history will provide them with a certain measure of political literacy | 1 |
| e) Pupils are influenced by their parents | 1 |
| f) The Standard 8 - 10 History teacher is popular with the pupils | 1 |
| g) The Standard 7 History teacher encourages pupils to continue with History | 1 |
| h) History is seen as suitable for pupils who are not intellectually very gifted | 1 |

77

2. To what extent do you consider the following aspects concerning History (as it is taught at present) to be RELEVANT to the world in which your pupils live?

- 1 = Absolutely relevant
- 2 = Reasonably relevant
- 3 = Somewhat relevant
- 4 = Totally irrelevant

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|----|
| a) It teaches pupils to memorise | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 78 |
| b) It helps pupils to understand current political matters | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 79 |
| c) Pupils learn to evaluate situations critically | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 80 |
| d) Pupils are made aware of different perspectives held by various groups of people on historical events in South Africa | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 81 |

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- e) History helps pupils to have a better understanding of the values and ideals belonging to other groups of people in South Africa
- f) It develops pupils' ability to reason
- g) History will be of great value to pupils in the world of work
- h) Pupils develop excellent general knowledge
- i) Pupils make contact with the history of their local government
- j) History is an excellent means through which pupils can be taught to empathise with others
- k) Pupils learn to detect biases in historical texts available to them

1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4

82
83
84
85
86
87
88

3. Do you think Standard 9 and 10 History syllabi should be arranged in modules?

NOTE: Modules in this context refers to self - contained instructional packages dealing with specific topics, taught within a pre - determined space of time and evaluated at the end of that time span.

- a) Yes
- b) No

1
2

89

If you answered YES, please complete the following question.

4. On which level should the choice of modules be made?

- a) By pupils
- b) By History teachers
- c) By parents
- d) By a / b / and c
- e) By regional education departments
- f) By the central education department
- g) By the education department and History teachers

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

90

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION .

APPENDIX C

Summary of data gathered from the questionnaires

- GENERAL:
- number of respondents = 25.
 - 92% have more than 3 years of teaching experience
 - 100% have university level History ranging from History II to Master's.
 - majority spend more than 50% of teaching time on History.
- AIMS:
- sense of citizenship; appreciation of heritage and culture of others and understanding History as an academic discipline - most difficult to realise.
 - single most difficult aim to realise - History as an academic discipline.
 - reasons for difficulty - e.g. bias in texts; lack of interest among pupils.
- GUIDANCE:
- teacher-colleagues rather than inspectors/ advisors/ principals assist teachers in History teaching.
- CONTENT:
- majority favour equal ratio between General and South African History.
 - more than one-third favour less South African History.
 - political history - overwhelmingly favoured for inclusion and elaboration e.g. history of liberation movements.
 - History within the present curriculum considered to be problematic because:
 - biased CNE interpretation.
 - inadequate training of teachers.
 - need for a legitimate and credible curriculum.
 - 100% favour a combined core and optional curriculum [92% favour a greater core element].
 - History teachers, as a group, should not primarily select content. [the ranking question was not clearly understood by many respondents as the ranking values between 1 and 6 were utilised more than once by many].
- EXAMS :
- the general view is that the modes and methods of testing and evaluating need revision.
- REASON FOR PUPILS CHOOSING HISTORY :
- half the respondents cite "negative" reasons e.g. "school offers few other options"; "history can be mastered by rote learning" etc.
- RELEVANCY OF HISTORY TO THE WORLD IN WHICH PUPILS LIVE :
- relevancy is highly placed because it e.g. teaches critical evaluation; bias detection; understanding political matters.
- MODULAR CURRICULUM :
- 100% favour a modular curriculum.
 - 92% include History teachers [either as a group or together with pupils, parents and the education department] in deciding module choices.

APPENDIX D

Interview schedule:

1. As a follow-up to the written questionnaire and for the purposes of clarity :
 - 1.1. Why do you favour a combined core and optional curriculum?
 - 1.2. Why do you support a modular curriculum?
2. Do you see any changes to the education system once a single ministry is established?
 - 2.2. What would these changes be?
 - 2.3. Why wouldn't anything change?
3. How would you like to see History education change?
4. Who should decide what teachers should teach?
5. Why should teachers participate in CD?[or not]
6. Should participation involve high level decision making or would consultation with teachers satisfy the need[if there is one]for participation ?
 - 7.1. How would the teaching profession benefit from teacher participation?
 - 7.2. How would the democratisation of education be furthered with the participation of teachers in CD?
8. Given the present situation, do you think that teachers are involved in CD? How/Why?

APPENDIX E :

Guidelines for history curriculum development

- Participants should include all who are concerned with history education at schools. This includes academic experts, education bureaucrats, teacher educators, parents and pupils.

- The history curriculum should be viewed as an integral part of the entire school curriculum and should thus be compatible with general objectives of education, such as the promotion of democracy, unity, non-racism, non-sexism and equity.

- The aim of the history curriculum should be carefully debated and discussed by all participants at all levels before they are decided on. The aims should emerge from deliberations about education within the country's social, political and economic context

- The aims and criteria (which justify the right of history education) should be given prominence in the initial planning phase.

- The aims and content are closely linked to the skills that are to be taught. Participants should give cognisance to what is worthwhile knowledge; whether it is appropriate for the pupil and whether it allows the aims to be attained. Care should be taken that biases of the past are not reproduced from a different perspective. The history curriculum should foster nationhood. Previously ignored topics, for example. women in history, should be included.

- The history curriculum should have a thread of continuity from primary to secondary school levels.

- A larger core component in the history curriculum is recommended so that nation-building is promoted. Regional and / or local history deserves to be included so that diversity can be accommodated.

- Textbooks and other resource materials should be made available to all children. Financial constraints dictate that textbooks should be comprehensively written and be compatible with criteria like quality of content and presentation.

- Modes of evaluation should test content and skills and not one, at the expense of the other. The role of the external examiners should be carefully scrutinised by education policy decision makers.

- The methods employed in the teaching of history which should facilitate the attainment of the aims, promote the understanding and appreciation of the content and skills taught, should be the responsibility of the classroom teacher because the context of one school differs from another.