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Journal focus and vision

Articles in the following field of research are published:

- History teaching, which refers to research reports dealing with the methodology (didactics) and practice of History teaching.
- Educational history, where the history of any education-related theme is reported.
- History research, in terms of any theme from the History curriculum of South Africa. It is recommended that all the contributions should be related to either the GET, FET or HET curriculum content. The themes should also be linked to ways to utilise the latter in education in general, and the classroom in particular.
- Hands-on reports, which are based on authors' personal experiences with history within or outside the classroom.

Notes to contributors

Manuscripts, in English, <u>not exceeding</u> 15 pages in single spacing and 12pt font should be submitted electronically to the editor as a Microsoft Word attachment. Images (such as photographs, graphics, figures and diagrams) are welcome. A summary/abstract in anyone of the official South African languages must be included. Contributors are encouraged to submit articles written in a clear, reader-friendly style.

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The footnote or Harvard reference methods are prescribed for article contributions to the journal. Also refer to the last pages of this publication and the SASHT's website: http://www.sashtw.org.za for more information. The use of the correct citation methods and the acknowledgement of all consulted sources is a prerequisite. One hard copy of an entire issue will be sent to contributory authors.

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Contents

EDITORIAL

In this July 2013 issue of *Yesterday&Today* we have not only included contributions related to the main focus areas of the journal – research articles, hands-on articles and book reviews – but also added a review article. The editors want to extend a special invitation to all our readers to submit contributions to be considered for possible publication in the next, and future, issues of the journal. Submissions related to the following themes are welcome:

- History teaching, which refers to research reports dealing with the methodology (didactics) and practice of History teaching.

- Educational history, where the history of any education-related theme is reported.

- History research, in terms of any theme from the History curriculum of South Africa. It is recommended that all the contributions should be related to either the GET, FET or HET curriculum content. The themes should also be linked to ways to utilise the latter in education in general, and the classroom in particular.

- Hands-on reports, which are based on authors' personal experiences with history within or outside the classroom.

The articles published in this issue are focusing on history and nation-building in South Africa, the pre-service and in-service education of History and Social Sciences teachers, an important historical figure from South Africa's educational history, and the status and value of history of education in South Africa.

In the first article entitled, *Mobilising History for nation-building in South Africa: A decolonial perspective*, Morgan Ndlovu argues that one of the greatest challenges facing South Africans today is that of building a cohesive national identity out of diverse and competing national, cultural and ethnic aspirations and identities en route to a single nation-state. The liberal democratic values (diversity, tolerance and various forms of freedom) of the post-apartheid dispensation have brought about an impediment to the cultivation of the spirit of patriotism, common belonging and unity among the people meant to become South Africans. The question of knowledge production and its divisive role in the making of South Africa has not yet been comprehensively

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addressed. Ndlovu argues that this gap needs to be addressed urgently with special reference to the field of producing historical knowledge. For him, the manner in which historical events and narrative are imagined and reconstructed in South Africa today has the potential to constrain and/or enhance the common belonging. This article also offers a decolonial epistemic perspective on the production of historical knowledge in South Africa. It also recommends that a decolonised historical narrative can possibly lead to the emergence of a cohesive South African national identity.

The article by Pieter Warnich and Louisa Meyer, entitled *Trainee teachers' observation of learner-centred instruction and assessment as applied by History and Social Sciences teachers,* focuses on the application of learner-centred instruction and assessment in History and Social Sciences teaching. In a small scale empirical study of trainee teachers' observation to what extent History and Social Sciences teachers have adjusted from their predominantly traditional educational paradigm of transmission pedagogy and passive learners to different learner-centred instructional and assessment practices which emphasise the responsibility of learning to actively engaging learners. The findings revealed that although the teachers showed a willingness to utilise some of the learner-centred instruction strategies, their tendency to implement traditional teacher-centred instruction strategies were much stronger.

Boitumelo Moreeng's and Erna du Toit's research report, *The powerful learning environment and history learners in the Free State Province,* also deals with the active and critical approach to learning. They focused on the concept of Powerful Learning Environments, and reported on a quantitative study which was conducted in schools in the Free State province to establish the extent to which History learners are exposed to the different characteristics of a PLE. Their findings revealed that the History learners were exposed to different aspects at different levels. They concluded that all the learners responded positively to the aspects of a learner-centred learning environment; however, there is a need to improve on the extent to which the learners are exposed to the community-centred learning environment, knowledge-centred learning environment and assessment-centred learning environment.

In the article, entitled *Presentation Technology as a mediator of learners' retention and comprehension in a History classroom,* Sonja Schoeman argues that although technology has been placed in the hands of History teachers little training was provided on how to adapt the technology to the needs of

the school subject History. In an attempt to address this issue, the opinion of History teachers on the role of presentation technology as a mediator of learning, and the format of more history-friendly PowerPoint slides to maximise History learners' long-term retention and comprehension, was sampled using a qualitative intrinsic case study. Johnson's history-friendly PowerPoint pedagogy was put forward to promote interactivity and discussion during PowerPoint slide shows.

   Johannes Seroto in his article, entitled *A revisionist view of the contribution of Dr Eiselen to South African education: New perspectives,* discusses the philosophical ideology advocated and promoted by the academic, anthropologist and politician, Dr WMM Eiselen, during different periods in the history of South Africa. The primary focus was on the ideology that influenced Eiselen's academic writings, and the consequent influence of the academic knowledge on government theory and practice. It was pointed out that themes such as language and ethnic culture had a significant influence on the development of the Bantu Education system. It is argued that Eiselen's pronouncements and writings should be understood in terms of what was happening during that particular period of South Africa's history.

   In a review article, written by M Noor Davids, and entitled *"Can Foucault come to the rescue?" – From Dogma to Discourse: Deconstructing the History of Education for democratic subjects,* Davids ponders on the history of South African education that is still very much a suppressed and subjugated discourse hidden in the minds and experiences of the people, and that the history of education is   in a state of decline. She argued that the history of education went through a period of decline with the emergence of a new regime of truth. It is recommended that as a way forward, a possible departure from existing ways of understanding the history of education by introducing innovative conceptual and analytical lenses to construct an alternative approach to history of education. She proposed that the use of a self-reflexive historiography methodology, and the deconstruction of existing meanings of historical events can be used to produce new discourses of truth. Davids grounded her argument in Foucault's methodology.

   Apart from the above contributions, included in this issue are also three interesting and thought provoking book reviews. Finally, important information regarding the 2013 SASHT Research Report and SASHT Conference Progamme are also provided.

Mobilising History for nation-building in South Africa: A decolonial perspective

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Abstract

One of the greatest challenges facing people in the process of becoming South Africans today is that of building a cohesive national identity out of diverse and competing national, cultural and ethnic aspirations and identities that were never imagined as belonging to a single nation-state. This challenge has been made worse by the fact that the advent of the post-apartheid dispensation came with liberal democratic values of diversity, tolerance and various forms of freedom such as those of choice, association and speech. All of these freedoms have brought about an impediment to the cultivation of the spirit of patriotism, common belonging and unity among the peoples meant to become South Africans. While a number of obstacles have been identified in the quest to develop a sense of common belonging among the peoples who occupy the cartographic space known as South Africa today, the question of knowledge production and its divisive role in the making of South Africa has not yet been comprehensively addressed. This gap needs to be addressed urgently with specific reference to the field of producing historical knowledge because the manner in which historical events and narratives are imagined and reconstructed in South Africa today has the potential to constrain and/or enhance common belonging. This article is a decolonial epistemic perspective on the production of historical knowledge in South Africa and it argues that a decolonised historical narrative can possibly lead to the emergence of a cohesive South African national identity.

Keywords: History; Decoloniality; Nation-building; Eurocentricism; Knowledge production.

Introduction

In addition to the fact that the Third World suffered colonial domination in the political and economic spheres of life, this part of the world also experienced colonial domination in the field of knowledge production. Thus,

ever since the dawn of Euro-centred modernity, the processes of knowledge production "for" and "about" the indigenous peoples of the Third World have always been characterised by a relationship of dominance and subordination and/or resistance. With the demise of juridical administrative colonialism and the advent of the so-called "postcolonial world", the question that needs urgent attention is that of whether the manner in which knowledge production has been taking place in the colonial past in the countries of the Third World has opened up to accommodate the aspirations and needs of the previously colonised people. This question is quite significant because knowledge production is crucial to many of the political, economic and social developmental needs of the peoples of the Third World. Thus, knowledge production is crucial to developmental aspects of the Third World such as peaceful coexistence, self-determination, economic prosperity and many other "concrete manifestations of freedom" (Gordon, 2011:101) that can serve as markers of the emergence of a truly "postcolonial world".

In a country such as South Africa, the question of knowledge production is quite crucial to the challenge of national identity and peaceful existence among the peoples who never imagined themselves as belonging to a single national identity. The post-apartheid South Africa, like many other postcolonial African states that emerged out of the divisive colonial experience, is in the process of crafting a solid and cohesive national belonging. But the question that needs urgent attention is that of whether forms of knowledge that previously served to divide the peoples of South Africa have been transformed to support the spirit of unity and common belonging among the peoples meant to become South Africans. This is quite important with specific reference to the production of historical knowledge in South Africa because the manner in which the histories of the peoples meant to become South Africans is imagined and narrated in the present tends to divisive.

This article is a decolonial epistemic perspective on South African history and it advocates an inclusive and "pluriversal" approach to the production and dissemination of historical knowledge in the post-apartheid South Africa. The article is predicated on the idea that events of the past have a special place in the memory of society and as such, the manner in which the past is imagined, reconstructed and disseminated in the present can either unite or divide the people meant to become South Africans. However, in order to convincingly advocate for the decolonisation of South African history, it is important to motivate why history is important for identity construction in

the first place.

History and the politics of identity construction

History is quite an important subject for identity construction. According to scholars such as Friedman (1992a:207), this is mainly "because the politics of identity consists in anchoring the present in a viable past" and "the past is, thus, constructed according to the conditions and desires of those who produce historical textbooks in the present". In other words, this means that "all history including modern historiography is mythology" because "history is an imprinting of the present on to the past" (Friedman, 1992b:837). In post-apartheid South Africa, the question that emerges out of this understanding of history is that of whether the manner in which myth-making in the present is imprinted on to the past enhances or prevents the construction of an inclusive national belonging. This is quite vital to examine because the formation of a new national identity that unites populations can be impossible without recourse to some myth-making. What this means is that "without myths, memories and symbols by which to mark off group members from 'strangers'" (Smith, 1984:288), it is difficult to cultivate a sense of common belonging within a newly conceived national identity such as that of being South African, especially among groups of people and individuals who never imagined themselves as part of the same nation.

In postcolonial African states the objective of colonial discourse was "to construe the colonised as a population of degenerate types on the basis of racial origin, in order to justify conquest and to establish systems of administration and instruction" (Bhabha, 1994:70). This has led to the emergence of different historical discourses such as the liberal, nationalist and Africanist historiography, among others, so as to counter the dominance of colonial historiography. However, the question that needs to be answered is not that of the role played by different historiographical projects in the past in terms of rectifying the colonial history which distorted and disfigured the histories of the oppressed, but is that of what role do anti- and pro-colonial historiographical traditions play in the present. This question is quite significant because anti-colonial and pro-colonial historiographical projects during the colonial period were developed out of certainties about existence of colonial domination and resistance to it, but the advent of the idea of a "postcolonial world" means that the usefulness of dominance versus resistance discourse needs to evaluated against the new challenges such as the construction of inclusive nationhood.

By and large, the question of usefulness of historiographical constructions predicated on grand narratives of colonial and/or anti-colonial struggles is further complicated by the advent of post-modernist and postcolonial theoretical premises that have rendered the metanarratives of history simplistic and superficial. While the question of the role of anti-colonial and pro-colonial historiographical traditions with specific reference to the task of nation-building in the present is quite important, the usefulness of these historiographical traditions can only be gauged after the idea of a "postcolonial world" has been examined. This is mainly because the idea of a postcolonial world itself has since been challenged by different scholars such as Grosfoguel (2007:219) and Spivak (1990:166) ever since its advent. The following section, therefore, grapples with the question of the myth of postcolonialism and its implication for knowledge production in general. Thus, the following section begins by demonstrating how the production of knowledge within formerly colonised states is generally underpinned by coloniality. But in order to successfully unmask coloniality in the production of historical knowledge in countries such as South Africa, it is crucial to first demonstrate the differences between the idea of coloniality and colonialism.

The myth of postcolonialism and the coloniality of knowledge production

One of the fundamental questions confronting knowledge production in general and the production of historical knowledge in the African continent as a whole today is that of coloniality. Coloniality is a power structure that survives the end of direct colonialism and continues to sustain asymmetrical power relations and conceptions of humanity through racial, gender, sex, religious and ethnic hierarchisations. The question that emerges from this understanding of coloniality, instead of colonialism, is: Does the manner in which historical knowledge production takes place, within what is today dubbed postcolonial Africa, reflect and accommodate the worldviews and aspirations of all who live in them or does it only present Euro-centric worldviews and voices on African history?, This question is quite important because during the colonial encounter between Africans and Europeans, the voice of the European settler, particularly the literate missionary's voice, constituted itself as the major source for historical reconstruction of African history (Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2011:93). But to comprehensively answer this question, there is a need to further explicate the concept of coloniality and its usefulness in demonstrating the need to decolonise historical knowledge

within countries of the non-Western world such as South Africa.

The concept of coloniality is quite important in understanding colonial forms of domination beyond classical juridical administrative colonialism. Thus, according to Grosfoguel (2007:219):

> One of the most powerful myths of the twentieth century was the notion that the elimination of colonial administrations amounted to the decolonization of the world. This led to the myth of a 'postcolonial' world. The heterogeneous and multiple global structures put in place over a period of 450 years did not evaporate with the juridical-political decolonization of the periphery over the past 50 years. We continue to live under the same 'colonial power matrix'. With juridical administrative decolonization we moved from a period of 'global colonialism' to the current period of 'global coloniality'. Although 'colonialism administrations' have been entirely eradicated and the majority of the periphery is politically organised into independent states, non-European people are still living under crude European exploitation and domination. The old colonial hierarchies of European versus non-Europeans remain in place and are entangled with the 'international division of labour' and accumulation of capital at a world-scale.

The above articulation of coloniality simply means that the celebration of the removal of juridical administrative colonialism tends to obscure the continuity between the colonial past and many other invisible "colonialisms" in the present. These include the colonisation of knowledge – a development that can hinder unity among the peoples of formerly colonised nation-states such as South Africa.

Coloniality survives classical colonialism. According to scholars Maldonado-Torres (2007:243):

> Coloniality is different from colonialism. Colonialism denotes a political and economic relation in which the sovereignty of a nation or a people rests on the power of another nation, which makes such a nation an empire. Coloniality, instead, refers to a long-standing patterns of power that emerged as a result of colonialism, but that define culture, labour, intersubjectivity relations, and knowledge production well beyond the strict limits of colonial administrations. Thus, coloniality survives colonialism. It is maintained alive in books, in the criteria for academic performance, in cultural patterns, in common sense, in the self-image of peoples, in aspirations of self, and so many other aspects of our modern experience. In a way, as modern subjects we breathe coloniality all the time and every day.

The concept of coloniality, unlike the critique that underpinned classical colonialism, unveils the mystery of why, after the end of colonial administrations in the juridical-political spheres of state administration, there is still continuity of colonial forms of domination. This is mainly

because the concept of coloniality addresses the issue of colonial domination, not from an isolated and singular point of departure such as the juridical-political administrative point of view, but from a vantage point of a variety of "colonial situations" that include cultural, political, sexual, spiritual, epistemic and economic oppression of subordinate racialised/ethnic groups by dominant racialised/ethnic groups with or without the existence of colonial administrations (Grosfoguel, 2007:220). This holistic approach to the problem of colonial domination allows us to visualise other dynamics of the colonial process which include among them "colonization of imagination" (Quijano, 2007:168-178), "colonization of the mind" (Dascal, 2009:308) and colonisation of knowledge and power.

The idea of the colonisation of power and knowledge is quite crucial in that it explicates why, despite the advent of post-apartheid South Africa, knowledge production in subjects such as history, the views and voices of the formerly colonised peoples are marginalised in historical narratives. The concept of coloniality of power enables us to understand coloniality in ways that go beyond the Foucauldian concept of "disciplinary power" because through the idea of the "colonial matrix of power", the concept of "coloniality of power" views the modern world as a network of relations of exploitation and domination through technologies that affects all dimensions of social existence including knowledge production. According to Castro-Gomez (2002:276):

> *The concept of the 'coloniality of power' broadens and corrects the Foucauldian concept of 'disciplinary power' by demonstrating that the panoptic constructions erected by the modern state are inscribed in a wider structure of power/knowledge. This global structure is configured by the colonial relation between centre and periphery that is at the root of European expansion.*

The significance of the concept of coloniality of power, therefore, is that it enables the peoples of the Third World to understand the relationship between the power structure of colonial domination and knowledge production. Thus, the concept of coloniality of power is inseparably intertwined with that of knowledge which speaks directly to epistemological colonisation of the non-Western peoples through the processes of displacement, discipline and destruction of their knowledges. In the case of South Africa, where the former colonisers and the formerly colonised have resolved to reconcile and live together after the demise of juridical administrative apartheid, the question that emerges out of understanding how coloniality permeates knowledge production is that of whether this peaceful co-existence in the day-to-day relationships is extended to peaceful co-existence of "ecologies of knowledges"

about the past in the field of knowledge production. This question is quite significant because epistemic violence has the potential to affect the physical and social co-existence of the people.

By and large, the rhetoric of objectivity and universality has served to sustain the epistemicide of the peripherised knowledges. Coloniality in the field of knowledge production has tricked a number scholarly endeavours that sought to reverse Western hegemony by hiding the "locus of enunciation" (Grosfoguel, 2007:213) of the subject that speaks even if that subject perpetuates the subordination of the worldviews of non-Western peoples. In other words, through what Castro-Gomez (2003) referred as the "point zero" strategy, Euro-centric points of view come to be projected as a neutral "god-eye view" – a point of view that represents itself as being without a point of view and as such, even the marginalised subjects find themselves perpetuating their own marginalisation in the field of knowledge production through pursuing myths such as "objectivity" and "universal truths" that are beyond time and space. According to Grosfoguel (2007:213):

> By delinking the ethnic/racial/gender/sexual epistemic location from the subject that speaks, Western philosophy and sciences are able to produce a myth about a Truthful Universal knowledge that covers up, that is, conceals who is speaking as well as the geopolitical and body-political epistemic location in the structures of colonial power/knowledge from which the subject speaks.

What all this means, is that the hegemonic Western worldview tends to succeed in making the subjects that are socially located in the oppressed side of colonial difference, to think epistemically like the ones that are located on the dominant side. The quest to decolonize history for nation-building is therefore not about the actual people who produce historical knowledge *per se* but is about the epistemic location of the narratives that dominate the field of knowledge production. This is mainly because it is possible for the people whose histories are the subjected to denigration to partake in the production of colonised versions of history. In other words, the key to the process of decolonising history lies in the colonised subject's capacity to shift what Gordon (2011:95) referred to as "the geography of reason" and practise what Mignolo (2009:159) termed "epistemic disobedience". It is this disobedience and the ability to "unthink" Western epistemic virtue that will enable the non-Western subject to activate his/her agency when articulating his/her version of history.

The Quest to trancend "struggle histories" for nation-building in South Africa

It is beyond dispute that the manner in which past events and activities are narrated, imagined, packaged and disseminated can either serve to unite or divide the people of South Africa during the process of nation-building. This is mainly because the manner in which historical discourses are constructed has the potential to unite or divide people along racial, ethnic, sexual, generational and gender lines. For instance, in the continent of Africa in general, the power of distorting historical events was particularly demonstrated during the colonial and apartheid eras where the "invention of tradition" (Hobsbawm & Ranger, 1983:211-262) by colonial powers was deployed to achieve a colonial strategy of "divide and rule" in order to dominate the indigenous peoples of Africa.

In Southern Africa, the imagination and packaging of pre-colonial historical events such as the *mfecane* were deployed to prevent concerted action against colonial domination by dividing people on ethnic lines. In the *mfecane* discourses, ethnic groups such as Zulus and Ndebeles are portrayed as violent, barbaric, primitive and monstrous people who caused untold suffering in Southern Africa while other ethnic groups such as the BaSotho and Shona are generally presented as peace-loving victims of "bloodthirsty savages" and "war-mongers" (Epprecht 1994:114)

While the purpose of inventing and packaging history such as that of the *mfecane* during the colonial and apartheid South Africa was done in order to "reify African "tribalism" and justify apartheid" (Epprecht 1994:113), the problem is that the continued existence of such historical narratives in the post-apartheid era can prevent unity among the peoples meant to assume the new national identity. In South Africa, this predicament is made worse by the fact that nation-building projects and programmes, such as the Truth and Reconciliation Commission that took place after the advent of a democratic era, only sought to reconcile the people to become South Africans along racial lines. This was done while neglecting the historically-rooted gender, generational, ethnic and sexual aspects of disunity and conflicts among the people who are meant to constitute the new inclusive South African national identity. One can, therefore, argue that this grave oversight can lead to the proliferation of anti-nation attitudes and behaviours such as patriarchy, tribalism, sexism, rape and generational struggles which can delay of the emergence of a truly inclusive South African rainbow national belonging.

In light of the evidence of how historical events and narratives have been packaged to cause disharmony and justify oppression during the colonial and apartheid eras in Africa in general and South Africa in particular, the question that we need to ask ourselves today is: To what extent has past patterns of inventing and packaging history for disunity and domination been reversed and re-directed towards the attainment of an inclusive common belonging by the postcolonial and post-apartheid governments? This question is quite important because the cumulative effect of divisive invented historical knowledge can render it a structural constraint upon which new articulations of historical knowledge fall into the trap of repeating the same divisive knowledge even if the context has changed to that of seeking inclusive nation-building.

In South Africa and Africa in general, the question of "unthinking" colonial knowledge has always been a problematic one. The resistance to colonial historiography has tended to fall into the trap of articulating the same ideologically-charged colonial historical narratives mainly because the new anti-colonial articulations of history tend to be predicated on the old colonial versions of the past. For instance, the attempt to re-articulate history by nationalist historians during the colonial and post-apartheid era have tended to rely on historical knowledge and evidence of colonial historiography by missionaries and colonial sources of the past whose ideological positions have always been questionable. This predicament calls for a fundamental paradigm shift in the practice of teaching, writing and narrating history in post-apartheid South Africa in such a way that subjugated historical narratives and imaginations of the past are made visible for the purposes of constructing a cohesive national identity in South Africa. This approach to the production of historical knowledge of the peoples who are meant to become South Africans in the postcolonial era is critical in that, if taken to the right level, it can crowd out those pre-existing colonial historical narratives and interpretations of history that have served to divide rather than unite the various peoples of South Africa.

By and large, one of the problematic historiographical constructions that need urgent attention is that which narrates African pre-colonial gender structures as sexist, conservative and driven by patriarchy. Such stereotypical historical narratives are dangerous for nation-building in two ways. Firstly, such historical narratives can be manipulated by abusive African men today to oppress women in the name of "tradition". Secondly, it creates a wedge between

men and women as well as between generations. While the narratives about African pre-colonial gender relations do not provide a useful basis for nation-building today, what needs to be understood is that the relations between men and women in pre-colonial relations cannot be conceived as generally underlined by a patriarchal ideology of power. Thus, for instance, pre-colonial societies such as the Igbo in Nigeria had matriarchal structures whereby girls were included in a protective women culture headed by matriarchs. According to Amadiume (2002:43), in the pre-colonial Igbo dual-sex political system, the titled women were central to consensual decision-making and controlled market places. In addition, to these "consensual decision-making systems" in African pre-colonial societies, it can be noted that societies such as the Igbo had goddesses, which means god was not only imagined as male as in Western religious terms of Christianity. This history, together with that of the role played by women in anti-colonial and anti-apartheid struggles, can serve to bridge the gender and generational relations in the search for a truly inclusive national identity in countries such as South Africa in the post-apartheid era. But in order to develop an inclusive historical archive and narrative towards the attainment of an inclusive and cohesive national belonging in a country as South Africa, it is vital for marginalised members of the society, such as women, particularly black women, to produce history from their own *loci* of enunciation. This will lead to a pluriversality of knowledges rather than universalistic kinds of historical narratives that have dominated colonial interpretations of the past.

Conclusion

In light of what has been discussed above, the question that needs to be answered is: What, then, should a decolonised South African history be? A decolonised South African history will ideally consist of ecologies of different historical narratives that do not assume any pretence to objectivity and universality. This kind of a historical narrative will enable the peoples who are meant to become South Africans to determine and select those memories that makes them feel good about who they are without being subjected to a false notion of objectivity. However, a co-existence of ecologies of historical knowledges and narratives in South Africa will not be possible unless different historical narratives are cleansed of hate speech that have since been promoted in some of the colonial historical versions of the past.

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Trainee teachers' observation of learner-centred instruction and assessment as applied by History and Social Sciences teachers

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"If a child can't learn the way we teach, maybe we should teach the way they learn."

Ignacio Estrada

Abstract

A growing body of research shows that the overall quality of teaching and learning is improved when learners have the opportunity to become actively involved in the learning process through which ample opportunities are given to question, apply and consolidate new knowledge. With the dawning of a new South Africa in 1994, more emphasis was placed on learner-centred instruction and assessment which is the reason why policy documents such as the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) endorsed this educational approach. The aim of this study is to investigate through the observation of trainee teachers to what extent History and Social Sciences teachers have adjusted from their predominately traditional educational paradigm of transmitted and absorbed knowledge by passive learners to employ different learner-centred instructional and assessment practices that emphasise the responsibility of learning into actively engaging learners.

By means of a structured questionnaire a small scale study (n=51) was done in urban, rural, township, and private schools in the North West and Gauteng provinces. The findings, inter alia, suggest that although History and Social Sciences teachers showed a willingness to utilise some of the learner-centred instruction strategies, their tendency to implement the traditional teacher-centred instruction strategies were much stronger. The findings further show that teachers preferred to be the primary assessors of the learning results.

Keywords: Learner-centred instruction strategies; History teaching; Social Sciences teaching; Teaching and learning; Assessment.

Introduction

Given the pivotal role of learner-centred instruction in realising the set goals for History and Social Sciences, it is essential to explain how this teaching and learner-centred approach has been viewed over time.

Learner-centred instruction does not originate from the modern era. Over 2000 years ago Plato portrayed ideas of learner-centred instruction through strategic questioning (Ozmon & Craver, 1995:xix). In the 18ᵗʰ century Jean Jacques Rousseau provided a comprehensive presentation of learner-centred ideas. He propagated self-activity and discovery learning: "Let him [the learner] know nothing because you have told him, but because he has discovered it himself" and furthermore "give your pupil no lesson in words; he must learn only from experience" (Rousseau, 1928:149).

Since the start of the progressive education movement in the 19ᵗʰ century and due to the influence of theorists, such as, John Dewey (1915:240-243), Jean Piaget (Schewebel & Raplh, 1944:245-247) and Carl Rogers (1951:197-199) whose collective work focused on how students learn, some educators started to replace traditional teacher-centred approaches with more learner-centred "hands-on" activities. Progressive education provides for "active learning by doing" and competence-directed learners whose individuality and personality will develop to such an extent that it will promote independent creative thinking (Coetzer, 2001:35-39; Olson, 1999:29). In traditional teaching methodologies the tendency was that teachers directed the learning process and that learners played a receptive role in their learning. Learner-centred instruction means inverting the traditional teacher-centred understanding of the learning process and putting learners at the centre of the learning process.

During the 20ᵗʰ century the learner-centred paradigm continues to dominate education theory and practice internationally (cf. Kandel, 1958:177; Tenenbaum, 1951:253-257; Deblois, 2002:72-77). In South Africa Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) was implemented in 1998 in the form of Curriculum 2005 (C2005), (DoE, 2002:5). This education approach de-emphasises content and replaces formal, didactic instruction with learner-centred and self-discovery learning.

One of the greatest challenges facing educators worldwide today is that of how to produce learners who are critical thinkers. In South Africa the realisation that critical thinking is both an important life skill and educational concept, gained prominence since 1995 when it was stated that

"…the Curriculum, teaching methods and textbooks at all levels and in all programmes of education and training, should encourage independent and critical thought" (RSA, 1997:10-12). This ideal was translated into a plan of action when the development of critical thinking skills was adopted as one of the Critical Outcomes by the South African Qualifications Authority in 1997 (Pienaar, 2001:125). The challenge is to ensure that all South Africans obtain the necessary knowledge, skills and values to become creative and critical thinkers. One way in which critical thinking can be fostered in the classroom, is by applying learner-centred instruction and assessment.

C2005 was revised in 2001 to be introduced in schools the following year as the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS), (DoE, 2005:2; DoE, 2002:2). Once again it emphasised a "participatory, learner-centred and activity-based education" (DoE, 2002:12). Despite the structural and design changes which were made in an effort to simplify and streamline C2005, teachers were still struggling to effectively implement the RNCS. In an effort to make the curriculum more accessible, the Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga, stunned the educational community in November 2009 when she announced that OBE was dead. Consequently, the RNCS was replaced in 2012 by what was believed as to be an "improved and more user-friendly curriculum" known as The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (DBE, 2011a:14-15). Although this new educational policy was perceived by some educationists as a "back-to-basics" classical curriculum which accentuated the acquisition of basic scholastic skills in literacy and numeracy (Jones, 2011:4; Govender & Naidoo, 2011:9), it nevertheless re-emphasised learner-centred instruction in all subjects in encouraging "an active and critical approach to learning, rather than rote and uncritical learning…"(DBE, 2011b:4).

Literature review

Theoretical framework

To locate a research study in a particular paradigm, the theoretical frameworks underpinning learner-centred instruction, as well as explanations of the concept learner-centred instruction should be considered.

This research is grounded in a constructivist research paradigm as indirect, or learner-centred instruction is framed within this learning theory. Kim (2005:7) describes it as learning which involves the construction of own

knowledge from own experiences.

Constructivist approaches to teaching and learning have emerged from the work of psychologists, such as, Bruner, Piaget and Vygotsky. This theory - sometimes referred to as socio-constructivism - is an eclectic theory in which elements from other curriculum theories are combined. Traditionally learning has been thought to be a "mimetic" activity – a process that involves learners in repeating or miming newly presented information, whereas constructivist teaching helps learners to internalise and reshape, or transform new information (Brooks & Brooks, 1993:15).

Learning content which revolves around a constructivist approach will, according to Spector (1993:9-19), reveal the following characteristics among others:

- It will reduce the amount of content information and not merely add more facts as research produces new information;

- The focus will be on processes to develop connections and form conceptual frameworks into which new information may be integrated, rather than to teach content loaded with detail. The emphasis will be on holistic concepts;

- Instead of the content being selected and organised around the structure of the discipline, it will be organised around themes, current issues and real life problems. The curriculum will in fact be problem-based rather that discipline-based.

The most important implication of constructivism on teaching and learning lies in the shift from teacher-centred instruction to learner-centred instruction. Learners must engage in hands-on activities and independent research in order to construct their own meaning. Constructivism is grounded in the idealistic, post-modern doctrine that the mind is constitutive of the reality that it experiences (Rorty, 1989; Bruner, 1986; Goodman, 1984). As Hein (1991:1) claims "constructing meaning is learning; there is no other kind". Constructivism is based on the belief that learners should be helped to construct knowledge that is meaningful and useful in their own lives. What is important is not so much "what" learners learn, but "how they learn (Taylor, 2002:175). The skills they learn are more important than the content (Jacobs *et al.*, 2011:46).

Learner-centred instruction posits that human beings learn by actively constructing and assimilating knowledge rather than through the passive addition of discrete facts to an existing store of knowledge. Shor (1992:17) argues that "People begin life as motivated learners, not as passive beings", they learn by interacting, by experimenting, and by using play to internalise the meaning of words and experience. Vakalisa and Gawe (2011:2) explain that learner-centred instruction involves intrinsic involvement of the learner with the learning events. The teacher, who strives to meet the need for active participation of the learner, engages the learner in reflective and critical thinking exercises about the content. Borich (2007:12) agrees with this explanation and adds that learner-centred instruction fosters true learning for understanding. Learner-centred instruction approaches teaching and learning from the perspective of the learner rather than that of the teacher. Kim (2005:8) asserts that the teacher should act as facilitator who encourages learners to discover principles for themselves and to construct knowledge by working to solve realistic problems.

According to Lea *et al.* (2003:322) a review of some of the literature reveals that learner-centred instruction is grounded in the following principles:

- reliance upon active rather than passive learning;

- an emphasis on deep learning and understanding;

- an improved responsibility and accountability on the part of the learner;

- an increased sense of autonomy in the learner;

- interdependence between teacher and learner;

- mutual respect within the learner-teacher relationship, and

- a reflexive approach to the learning and teaching process on the part of both teacher and learner.

Framed within the constructivist learning theory is experiential learning. The central argument in this theory, originally expounded by Dewey (Jacobs 2011:40), is that students can only acquire knowledge through personal experiences. Experientialists believe that one cannot place curriculum components (content, methods, assessment, etc.) in neat little boxes because all these components are intricately interwoven. Educationists however believe that knowledge about how to educate the young and their ability to learn should be researched in different ways. Theorists who hold this view of knowledge have come to be known as social constructivists. They claim that

knowledge is a construction of the learner and that it is subject to the school milieu within which the learner is located. Knowledge, according to this view, is acquired through an interactive and dialogical engagement with what is to be learnt. A social-constructivist understanding of learning content requires a learner-centred approach to teaching, where the teacher applies strategies such as, for example, cooperative learning (Gawe *et al.,* 2011:186-198).

Although this research is grounded in a constructivist research paradigm, it has been pointed out that there are elements of experiential learning present which is underpinned by a social constructivist theory.

Relevant research studies

Extensive research has been done over the years, locally and internationally, to determine what instructional strategies are applied in classrooms (cf. Orlich, *et al.*, 2012; Larson & Keiper, 2011; Huitt, *et al.*, 2009; Frangenheim, 2006; Killen, 2006). As far as it is relevant to this research, learner-centred instruction is seen as an indirect teaching mode. It includes instruction and assessment strategies such as projects, simulation, role-play, class discussions, excursions, cooperative and problem-based learning, etc. Problem solving is a form of inquiry learning which engage learners in seeking knowledge, processing information and applying ideas to real life situations (Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997:176).

Subject knowledge is important when teaching Social Sciences and History. However to evoke, and even more importantly, to keep the interest of the learners, the way the subject knowledge is presented, can make the difference. According to a report of the National Council of Education Research and Training in New Dheli (2006:9) Social Sciences/History teaching needs to be revitalised towards helping the learner acquire knowledge and skills in an interactive and creative environment.

Within the South African context, Bunt's (2013:292-293) contemporary study came to similar conclusions and recommended that Social Sciences/History teachers need to be made aware of the different instructional and assessment strategies that affect the nurturing of creative thinking. He postulated that direct teacher-centred instruction (lecturing, repetition and drilling of information) is primarily still used in the Social Sciences/History classes.

With the emphasis on creative ways of communicating their learning, the educational experience of many learners unfortunately conditions them to take a passive approach to the learning process. They are taught that the way to earn good grades and to make it through school successfully is to memorise information and to recall this information when called upon (Puccio *et al.*, 2006:23). The authors suggested that teachers often treat learners as input-output systems, pump information into them, to assess the information that comes out and not concern themselves with the extent to which the information has been internalised.

The importance of teaching and learning skills has been a vital part of teacher training for many years. Trainee teachers at most institutions, but specifically at the North-West University (NWU), have been introduced to, and applied instructional strategies as an integral part of their training over a long period of time in Professional Studies as well as in all the different subject didactic modules. Since the infusion of OBE that campaigned for a more inclusive and active learner participation in class, more attention was given during training to learner-centred instruction strategies (Calender, NWU, 2000-2013).

Learner-centred assessment

In theory, learner-centred assessment is formative in nature (Andrade, *et. al.*, 2012:49). This means it is individualised, responsive and provides feedback to learners for the improvement of their learning. Feedback gives learners the opportunity to regularly monitor and regulate their own learning and in doing so become independent self-directed lifelong learners (Jones & Tanner, 2006:60-62; Earl, 2003:101). To improve learning through formative assessment, it is necessary for the learners - in collaboration with their teachers - to become actively involved in their own assessment. For this reason learners should act as assessment agents by assessing their own and the work of others through self- and peer-assessment (Heritage, 2007:142).

In the case of self-assessment learners are given the opportunity to come to decisions about themselves and their abilities in determining where they stand in relation to the intended learning aims (Noonan & Duncan, 2005:1). Learners receive feedback from themselves and must develop the skills necessary to assess their own progress and learning. This means that the learner has to reflect on identified areas of weaknesses and shortcomings that hamper the attainment of certain learning aims. By taking responsibility for

their learning, attempts are made to eliminate these deficiencies by developing self-regulation strategies to meet their own learning needs (Brooks, 2002:70).

When peer-assessment is implemented, learners assess each other's work and give feedback to their fellow learners about their progress under guidance of the teacher (Marnewick & Rouhani, 2004:274). Peer-assessment differs from self-assessment in the sense that it gives an "external" perspective of personal learning and performance whereas self-assessment reveals a more "internal" perspective (Fallows & Chandramohan, 2001:232). Self-assessment teaches the learner to reflect on his/her own work, while peer-assessment teaches the learner to reflect on the work of other learners. Peer-assessment can be useful for both the learner that receives the assessment critique as well as for the learner who is performing the assessment. Learners who are assessing another's work are able to identify the strengths and weaknesses in their own work (Kristin, 2002:80). It is however, an important prerequisite for teachers to teach learners the skills required for peer-assessment in advance.

According to Heritage (2007:142-143), for teachers to successfully apply formative assessment in a learner-centred instruction environment, specific knowledge and skills are a prerequisite. The following requirements are seen as critical for the teacher's knowledge: domain knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of the learner's prior learning and knowledge of assessment.

Domain knowledge refers to teachers' understanding of the concepts, knowledge and skills to be taught within a certain subject domain. Moreover, teachers should know the set of assessment requirements necessary to achieve them, and what a successful performance in each looks like.

In turn teachers' pedagogical content knowledge will enable them to use and skilfully apply differentiated instruction strategies in the classroom. To support self- and peer-assessment, it is also necessary for teachers to be knowledgeable with multiple models of teaching metacognitive processes whereby the learner makes judgements on his/her work (by applying already obtained pre-knowledge and skills) and set goals for self-improvement.

For teachers to build on learners' prior learning, it is necessary to know what that prior learning consist of. Prior learning includes aspects such as the learners' knowledge and skills in a specific content area, the attitudes of the learners on their value and interest in the subject, their levels of initiative and self-reliance to learning and their language proficiency.

Assessment knowledge will enable teachers to deploy a range of formative assessment strategies, thereby maximising the assessment opportunities for gathering evidence. Teachers should also be knowledgeable on how to align formative assessments with the instructional aims. Finally, teachers should be well aware of the fact that by acting as the primary assessment agents, it will not single-handedly create enough opportunities for the gathering of evidence on the learners' current learning status. For this reason it is important that self- and peer-assessment should also be part of the formative assessment process.

By referring to the skills as being essential for teachers to successfully implement formative learner-centred assessment, Heritage (2007:145) firstly emphasises the importance of a positive classroom culture. It includes teachers to obtain the skill to create a classroom culture that supports and encourages self-and peer-assessment. For this to happen, the classroom must become a place where the learners feel that they are respected and their contributions are valued. Only if the learners are regarded as partners by their teachers during the assessment process will they become successfully involved in the monitoring and assessing of their own learning and that of their peers.

A second teacher skill required is to provide guidance and support for learners to assess their own learning and also that of their peers. In particular, teachers should teach their learners the skills required for self- and peer-assessment and the manner in which to give constructive feedback on their own and that of their peer's performances. A rubric designed by the teacher and the learners with quality performance criteria can be used as an assessment instrument whereby the teacher can teach the learners the skills to judge the quality of their own work or that of their peers. In this way it becomes a collaborative experience between teacher and learner and between learner and learner (Costa & Kallick, 2004:83).

A third teacher skill that links with the above and that is considered as crucial to the effectiveness of formative assessment is the interpretation of the assessment information collected. This means the teacher must have the skills to analyse and interpret the assessment results in terms of the degree to which the intended assessment criteria have been achieved. Hereafter the results should be converted into clear and descriptive feedback which the learners can use for self-evaluation for better future learning results and growth. When specific individual's learning needs has been identified, recommendations should also be given during feedback on how to address them in order to eventually improve learner performance. This involves a further skill in

selecting the learning experience that will place appropriate demands on the learner to reach the desired aims. Accordingly the teacher must ensure that the learners receive the appropriate support for the new learning to take place. Only then learners will put plans into action to do something to encourage their learning and by doing so, become self-regulated independent achievers.

Research methods

Procedure and sampling

In order to empirically determine to what extent Social Sciences and History teachers apply the pedagogy of learner-centred instruction and progressive assessment, a survey was conducted using a structured questionnaire. The data was collected by means of a probability sampling method (simple random sampling) drawn from Social Sciences and History teachers (n=51) at different types of schools (urban, rural, township, private) in the North West and Gauteng provinces. The data was collected by Social Sciences and History third and fourth year trainee teachers of the Potchefstroom and Vaal Triangle campuses of the NWU during their compulsory practical teaching observation period.

Before they left for their respective schools, each trainee teacher who has Social Sciences (Intermediate and Senior Phase) or History (Further Education and Training Phase) as a major, received a questionnaire as part of their normal observation assignments. The questionnaire consisted of three sections of closed questions. Section A was to gather information on the type of school (urban, rural, township, private) they have attended and the size of the class where they have done their observation. Section B listed respectively teacher-centred and learner-centred instruction strategies, while section C focused on the different assessment agents (teacher, learner, peer and group) that can be utilised to conduct assessment in class. In both Sections B and C a 4 point Likert-type scale was used to determine the extent and frequency to which Social Sciences and History teachers apply teacher- or learner-centred instruction strategies in their classes. The following response alternatives were given: "always", "often", "seldom" and "never".

By using the predetermined response scales in Sections B and C as an observation checklist, it was requested from each of the trainee teachers to complete the questionnaire on the last day of their practical teaching period. This would provide them with ample time to do lesson observations in an

effort to establish the type of instruction strategies that were applied by the Social Sciences or History teacher to whom they were assigned during their stay at the school. At the same time this *in situ* insight would enable the trainee teacher to determine the extent of appropriation and application (or lack) of certain learner-centred instruction strategies. After completion of the questionnaire the trainee teachers had to add it to their portfolio as another of various other documents that reflects on their practical teaching experience. On their return to their different campuses, the data was collected by the researchers.

Data analysis

In order to quantitatively determine to what extent and frequency Social Sciences and History teachers apply the pedagogy of learner-centred instruction, the items of Sections A to C were tabulated, and with the aid of the Statistical Consultation Services (SCS) of the NWU (Vaal Triangle Campus), presented in colour coded stack bar charts (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:184).

By means of a descriptive analysis, data were organised and summarised to promote an understanding of the data characteristics (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:195). The data of the responses are summarised with percentages; it is however possible that the use of means, which is not illustrated in this analysis, could indicate further significant differences.

All assignments to be completed during the teaching practice period are available for approval to principals, mentors and subject teachers. For this research, permission was obtained from principals and mentors/subject teachers. For reasons of confidentiality, the names of schools and teachers partaking in this research were not mentioned.

Research findings

Types of schools, class sizes and language of instruction

The findings showed that most of the research participants, namely 34 (66%) come from urban schools followed by nine (18%) in rural schools, seven (14%) in township schools and 1 (2%) in private schools. Schools with more than 46 pupils in their classes represented 8% while nearly half the schools had 31-45 (47%) pupils per class, followed by 41% of the schools with 15-30

pupils per class. A mere 4% of the schools had a learner total of 1-15 pupils in their classes. Due to fact that there was only one private school involved in this micro study, its research results will not be reported.

To follow is an analysis of the number of Social Sciences/History teachers and the frequency expressed as a percentage of the sample size in each of the different categories of learner-and teacher-centred instruction strategies. By also introducing the different categories of teacher-centred instruction strategies a more complete picture can be given regarding the mode of instruction. For example, in cases where the use of certain learner-centred instruction strategies was for whatever reason disapproved of by the class teachers, it will be easy to establish what teacher-centred instruction strategies they preferred instead. A further category that is analysed, is the extent of involvement of the different assessment agents (the persons responsible for executing the assessment activity) which is likewise presented as a percentage of the sample size. The research results for each of these different categories will be reported separately for each of the urban, rural and township schools.

Learner- and teacher-centred instruction strategies and assessment in urban schools

Charts one and two respectively show the extent to which different learner- and teacher-centred instruction strategies were implemented in urban schools as observed by the trainee teachers. Chart three reflects the extent of involvement of the various assessment agents in urban schools when assessing the different learner- and teacher-centred instruction strategies.

Image 1: The application of different learner-centred instruction strategies in urban schools
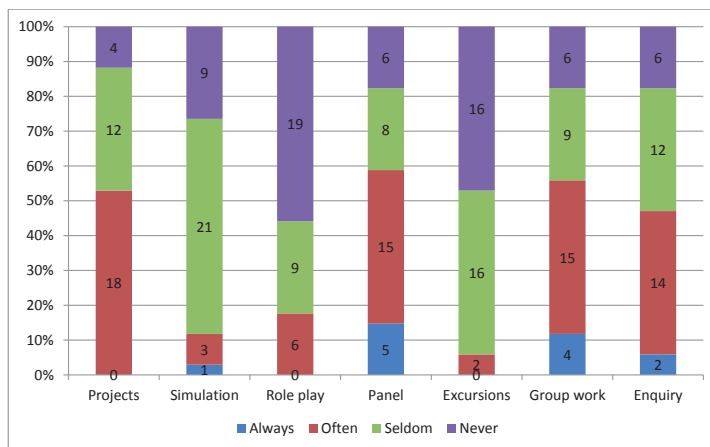
From the data it is clear that projects (52.9%), panel discussions (44.1%), group work (44.1%) and enquiry-based learning (44.1%) were the most "often" learner-centred instruction strategies used by the teachers in urban schools. The results additionally revealed that more than a half of the teachers (55.8%) "never" used Role-play while an overwhelming majority (94.1%) "seldom" and "never" preferred the application of excursions as a learner-centred instruction strategy. A significant majority of the teachers (61.7%) preferred to rarely used simulation as a learner-centred instruction strategy.

Image 2: The application of the different teacher-centred instruction strategies in urban schools
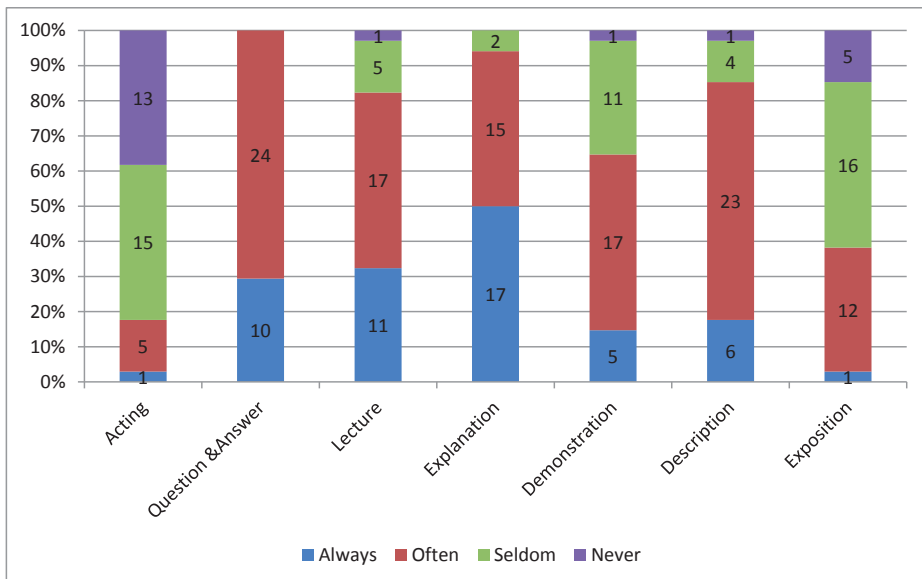
The data discloses that all of the teachers (100.0%) in urban schools "always" and "often" preferred questioning and answering as the instruction strategy. This is followed by the instruction strategies of explanation (94.1%), description (85.2%), lecturing (82.3%) and demonstration (64.7%). As opposed to this, the application of acting is "seldom" and "often" applied by the majority of the teachers (82.3%). This was also the case with the application of exposition by a significant majority (61.7%) of the teachers.

Image 3: The extent of involvement of the different assessment agents in urban schools
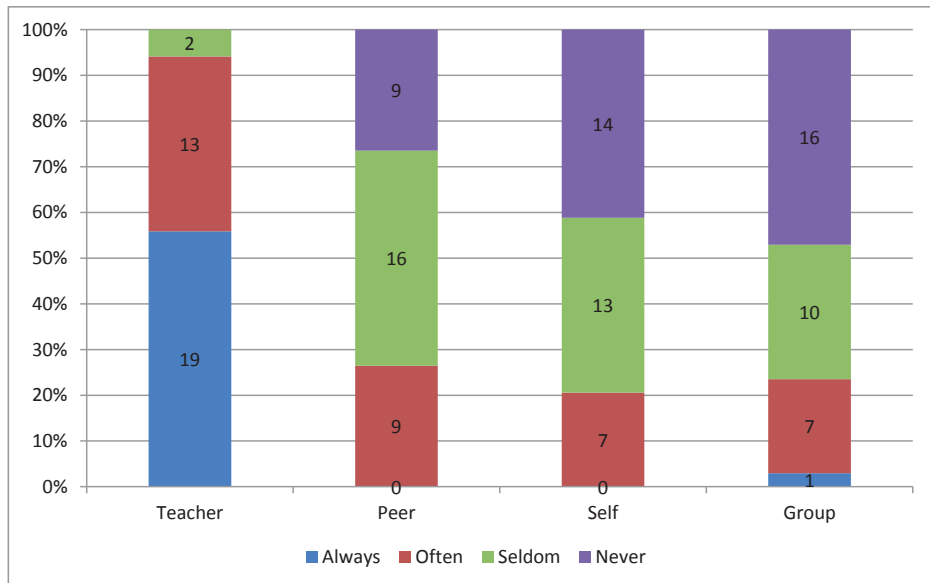
The data shows that the overwhelming majority (97.0%) of the teachers in urban schools preferred to be the responsible agents who "always" and "often" performed the assessment of their learners. This is supported by the fact that a vast majority (84.3%) of the teachers "seldom" or "never" considered the request for learners to assess themselves. Furthermore, the data reveals that the majority (74.5%) of the teachers "seldom" and "never" applied peer-assessment as an assessment option. Using the group as the assessment agent also proved to be an unpopular preference as the majority (72.5%) of teachers "seldom" or "never" applied it in the class.

Learner- and teacher-centred instruction strategies and assessment in rural schools

Charts four and five respectively show the extent to which different learner- and teacher-centred instruction strategies were implemented in rural schools. Chart six reflects the extent of involvement of the various assessment agents in rural schools when assessing the different learner- and teacher-centred instruction strategies.

Image 4: The application of different learner-centred instruction strategies in rural schools
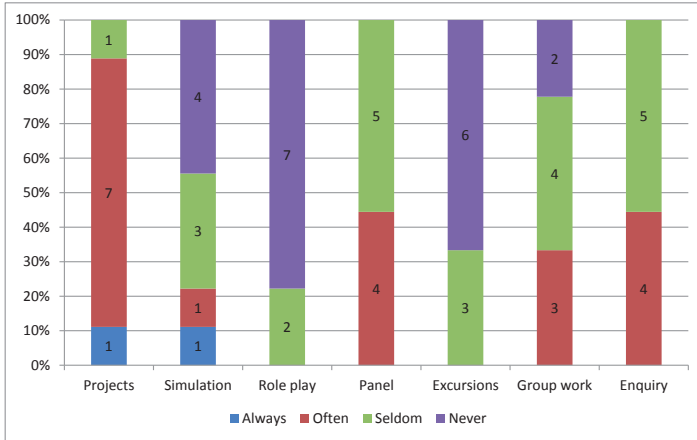

From the data it is clear that the overwhelming majority (89.0%) of the teachers in rural schools favoured projects as the teaching and learner instruction strategy that is "always" and most "often" used. Panel discussions and enquiry-based strategies were also "often" implemented by 44.4% of the teachers. In contrast, the majority (77.7%) of the teachers and a significant majority (66.6%) respectively "seldom" and "never" used Role-play and the undertaking of excursions. In addition the data revealed that the majority (77.7%) of the teachers "seldom" and "never" applied simulation as an instruction strategy in the class. This also applied to the use of group work where significant majority (66.6%) of the teachers "seldom" and "never" applied it.

Image 5: The application of the different teacher-centred instruction strategies in rural schools
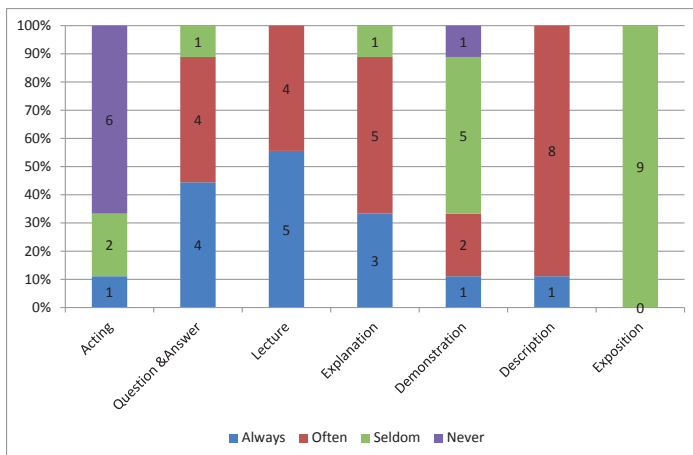
The data reflects that all the teachers (100.0%) in rural schools preferred to "always" and "often" use lecturing as an instruction strategy. Likewise, the use of questioning and answering and demonstration as instruction strategies are also "always" and "often" favoured by an overwhelming majority (88.8%) of the teachers. Description is another popular instruction strategy as an overwhelming total (88.8%) of teachers preferred to "often" apply it. The data further reveals that all of the teachers (100.0%) "seldom" applied exposition as an instruction strategy. Additionally, more than half of the teachers (55.5%) do not regarded demonstration as a very popular instruction strategy as it is "seldom" implemented.

Image 6: The extent of involvement of the different assessment agents in rural schools
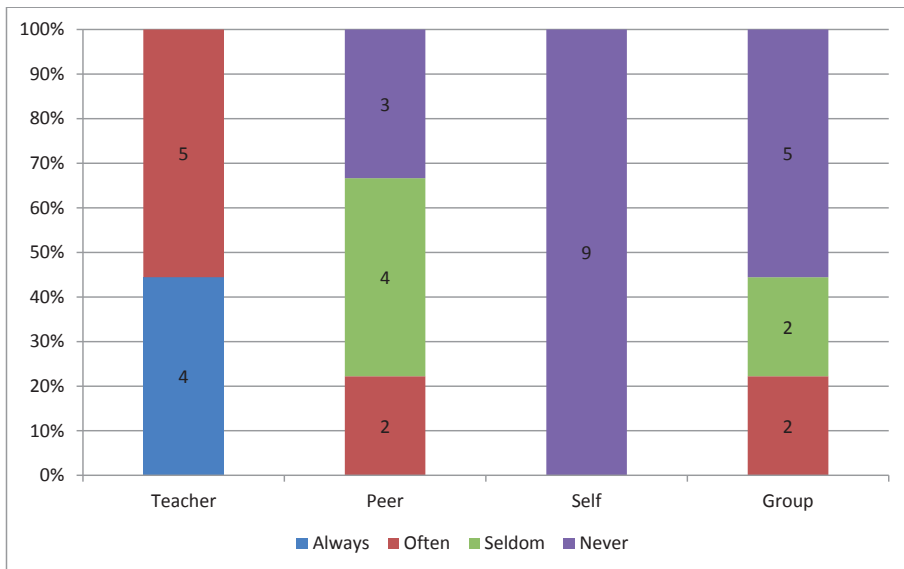
The data reveals that assessment by the teacher in rural schools are highly rated as 44.4% and 55.6% respectively indicated that this kind of assessment is "always" and "often" implemented. On the other hand, assessment by the peers of the learners is not regarded as a popular way of assessment, as the majority of the teachers (77.7%) preferred to "seldom" and "never" make use of this type of assessment. Moreover, all of the teachers (100.0%) "never" applied self-assessment in their classes. Group assessment is also not experienced as a very popular way of assessment as the majority of the teachers (77.7%) "seldom" and "never" applied it.

Learner- and teacher-centred instruction strategies and assessment in township schools

Charts seven and eight respectively show the extent to which different learner- and teacher-centred instruction strategies were implemented in township schools. Chart nine reflects the extent of involvement of the various assessment agents in township schools when assessing the different learner- and teacher-centred instruction strategies.

Image 7: The application of different learner-centred instruction strategies in township schools
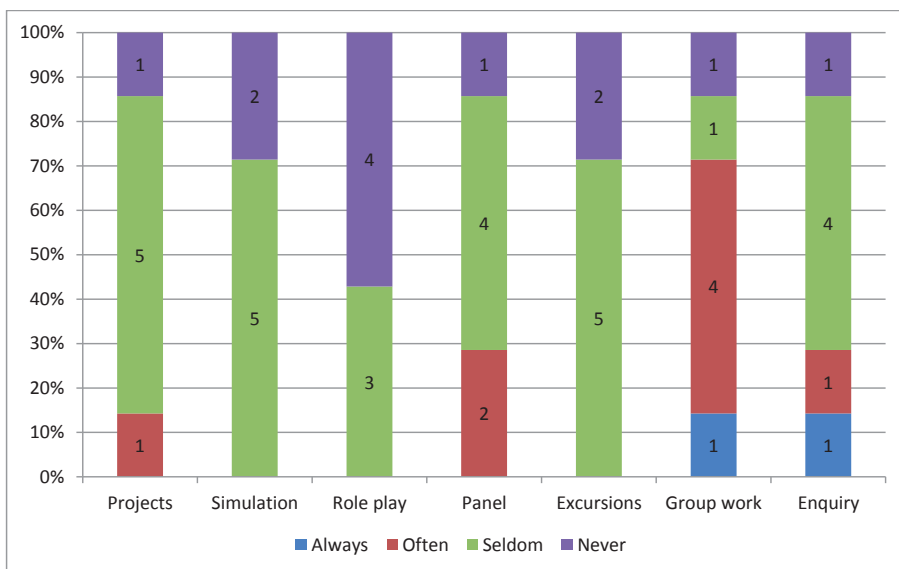
The data reflects that the majority (71.4%) of the teachers in township schools favoured group work as the most popular instruction strategy that is "always" and "often" implemented. Hence, the majority (71.4%) of the teachers are "seldom" inclined to implement simulation and excursions. Of further importance is the fact that more than half (57.1%) of the teachers "never" regarded Role-play as an option when considering learner-centred instruction strategies. Subsequently, 71.4% and 57.1% of the teachers respectively "seldom" implemented projects and enquiry as instruction strategies. This also applied to panel discussions where the majority (75.0%) of the teachers "seldom" applied it.

Image 8: The application of the different teacher-centred instruction strategies in township schools
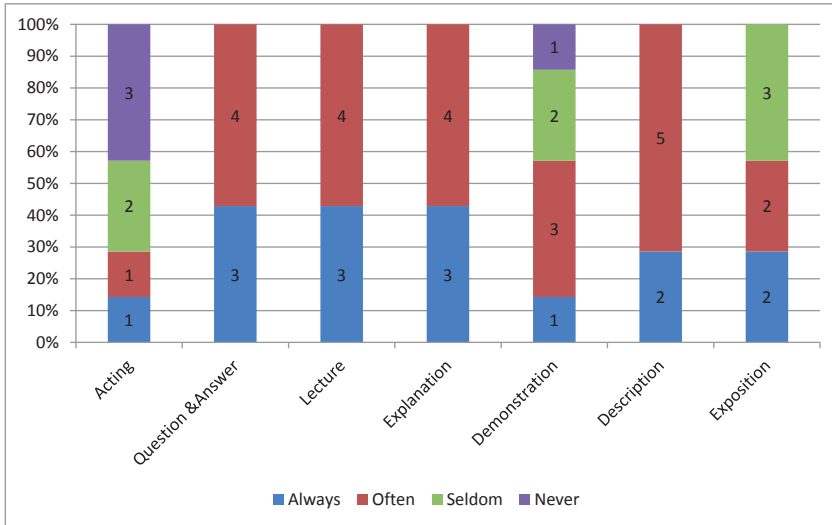
The data shows that all of the teachers (100,0%) in township schools are "always" and "often" committed to the teacher-centred instruction strategies of question and answer, lecturing, explanation and description. In the case of demonstration, the data reflects that more than half of the teachers (57.1%) indicated a willingness to apply it in the class. The majority of the teachers (71.4 %) "seldom" and "never" used acting and therefore not regarded as a popular learning and teaching instruction strategy option.

Image 9: The extend of involvement of the different assessment agents in township schools
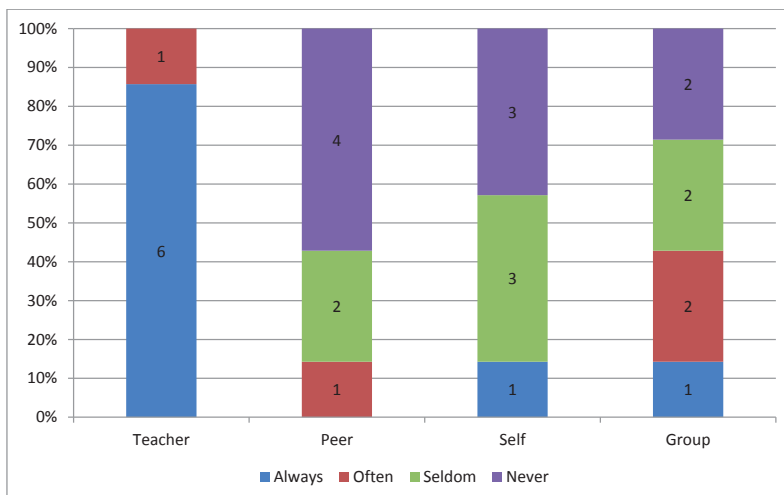
According to the data an overwhelming majority of the teachers (85,7%) in township schools "always" apply teacher assessment. Furthermore, the data reveals that 42.8% of the teachers "always" and "often" made use of the group to do the assessment. In contrast, an overwhelming majority (85.7%) of the teachers "seldom" or "never" applied peer- and self-assessment in their classes.

Discussion

Apart from township schools, the research results confirmed that project work is the most popular learner-centred instruction strategy implemented by teachers in urban and rural schools.

The importance of the application of projects lies in the fact that it integrates various learner-centred activities, for example: planning, research, analysing data and the preparing of written reports (Warnich, 2010:101). When doing historical projects, it does not only help learners to become active agents in their own learning whereby they will become thoroughly acquainted with their research topic, it also challenges them to start to think like historians whom, in the end, will share their knowledge and understanding with authenticity at the same time (Bass, 2007:19).

Looking into the reasons why projects are a popular choice, it could be ascribed to the instructions of the National Protocol for Assessment, Grades R-12. This policy document requires from Social Sciences and History teachers to do a compulsory component of formal school-based assessment. Different percentage weights are allocated for the different school phases when this type of internal school-based assessment is performed. The assessment results are formally recorded, moderated (to ensure that the appropriate standards are maintained) and used for progression and certification. Examples of formal school-based assessments include: projects, practical tasks, oral presentations, demonstrations, performances, practical demonstrations, tests, examinations, etc. (DBE, n.d.: 4-12).

It is unclear why Social Sciences and History teachers in township schools, unlike their counterparts in urban and rural schools, prefer not to apply project work as their first choice learner-centred instruction strategy. Although it is common knowledge that the same circumstances might also apply to those poverty-stricken schools in rural areas, the deprivation of facilities such as libraries, electricity, computers, photocopiers and paper might inhibit teachers of township school's interest to implement a learner-

centred instruction strategy like project work (Naude, 2008:20; Reyneke, 2008:152,160; Rademeyer, 2007:2; Harley & Wedekind, 2004:206).

From the research findings it can further be deduced that simulations was not considered as a popular learner-centred instruction strategy in all three of the different types of schools. Although limited research over the last twenty years has been done to sufficiently postulate and articulate the potential advantages of the large-scale use of simulation in Social Sciences and History classes, researchers nevertheless agreed that this learner-centred instruction strategy assist learners in learning historical concepts and making Social Sciences and History teaching engaging and relevant (DiCamillo & Gradwell, 2012:2-3; Gorton, & Havercroft, 2012:66; McCall, 2012:11). The advantage of simulation lies in the mere fact that it reflects activities or circumstances that are as near as possible to the real situation (Reid, *et al.*, 2012:179).

Simulations can also include the digital historical simulation game where a computer game represents the past and the learner/player is placed in a historic role to make important decisions to compelling problems (McCall, 2012:9-11). Taking into consideration that the availability of computers for teaching and learning only increased from 8.8% in 1996 to 13.0% in 2000 in all South African schools, it might serve as a reason why very few Social Sciences and History teachers opted not to implement digital simulation as an instruction strategy (Lundall & Howell, 2000:58,156).

Apart from computer accessibility, the successful implementation of simulation furthermore requires of teachers to carefully plan, facilitate and debrief the learners by means of a classroom discussion or writing an assignment to ensure that the learners meet the expected outcomes (DiCamillo & Gradwell, 2012:14; McCall, 2012:9-11). A lack of expertise due to improper training in simulation as a learner-centred instruction strategy along with the large classes (nearly half of the schools in this research had 31 to 45 pupils in a class), can serve as two further possible reasons why the Social Sciences and History teachers were cautious to experiment with this type of instruction. In large classes it is difficult to carry out participatory lessons where learners can take active roles (cf. Warnich & Wolhuter, 2010:70-73).

Another learner-centred instruction strategy that was not reckoned as a priority in its application in all three types of schools, was the undertaking of excursions to historical sites whereby learners would have the chance to experience hands-on learning and through this actually "doing" history. Different reasons can be listed why Social Sciences and History teachers were

reluctant to take their learners on excursions. To list a few: the lack of personal motivation on the side of the teacher; extensive administrative and logistical planning and preparation; lack of financial resources; unavailability of staff to accompany the learners during their visit; medical risks; added liability and the danger of lawsuits in case something goes wrong; difficulty in controlling learner behaviour; too time consuming that infringes on important teaching time; leads to the disarrangement of the schools programme and interfere with the regular administrative duties (Ritchie & Coughlan, 2004:116-117).

Role-play is another learner-centred instruction strategy that Social Sciences and History teachers in all three types of schools preferred to seldom apply. In its most basic form, role-play requires learners to put themselves in someone else's shoes and then to dramatize how they think the person(s) would have behaved under particular circumstances. Role-play thus offers a successful learning experience to learners as they must interpret the information that has been provided to them or which they themselves have researched and collected. The learners must play particular roles in imaginary situations in ways that they think historical characters would have behaved under the actual circumstances (Killen 2007:280-281).

Once again the success of role-play will depend on the planning and management skills of the teacher. In order for role-play to succeed, the teacher must be in control of the class because it must remain a learning experience and not turn out to be an unstructured activity where the learners enjoy themselves, but learn very little in the process. For this reason teachers might possibly feel insecure due to their lack of proper training in this field, and are therefore not prepared to risk with role-play as an instruction strategy. Another reason can be attributed to all the time spend in the preparation, execution, assessment, debriefing and follow-up processes of role-play that in the end will impact negatively on the remaining teaching time.

A further reason why teachers might tend to steer away from implementing role-play can be credited to certain external factors that have to be taken into consideration before the planning and execution of a role-play activity. For example, if the classroom (due to large numbers) is too small to accommodate the role-play activity, the availability of the school hall or an alternative venue must be considered. Other factors that need to be considered include the time necessary to complete the role-play (which may require using a double period), suitable storage space for any equipment used, the availability and accessibility of sources for learners when they need to prepare their dialogues,

adequate time for rehearsals, et cetera (Van Ments 1983:44-46).

The extent to which the learner-centred instruction strategies of enquiry learning, group work and panel discussions were applied, varies in the three different schools. In urban schools all three mentioned strategies were used with reasonable regularity. As far as enquiry learning is concerned, it also, to a large extent, covers project work in the sense that the research is driven by a process of inquiry over a period of time (Spronken-Smith, 2007:2-6). This interconnectedness and the fact, as earlier discussed, that project work (and by implication also enquiry learning) form a compulsory component of the formal school-based assessment programme, contributes to a further possible reason why both these strategies were more than often used.

Apart from project work, it is also expected from Social Sciences and History teachers to do source-based instruction as an additional activity of their formal assessment programme (DBE, 2011b:35-36; DBE, 2011c:49; DBE, 2011d:47). By its very nature the analysis of primary and secondary sources engage learners in a process of inquiry which is normally done in a supportive learning environment such as groups. This might add as a further reason why enquiry learning as well as group work was more often implemented. Likewise, panel discussions are also seen a strategy that enhanced group work when panel members within their groups are requested to share their research on a specific topic before their peers (Hirsch, 2013:1; Van Eeden, 1999:211-228).

In contrast to urban schools, panel discussions and inquiry learning are seldom applied as teaching and learner strategies in rural and township schools. Most of these (black) schools are historically the worst off in respect of the availability of adequate physical resources (libraries, computers, electricity, photocopiers and paper, etc.), the level of training and personal skills of teachers and the availability of quality learning and teaching support material. These limitations will definitely impact negatively on the teacher's enthusiasm to apply any learner-centred instruction strategies. Interesting is the fact that teachers in rural schools were not keen to implement group work, while their counterparts in township schools were more than prepared to do it. It is difficult to clarify his phenomenon. Both rural and township schools - more than the old model C schools - are generally characterised by over-crowded classes (Warnich & Wolhuter, 2010:73). Teachers with large classes struggle with the challenge implementing learner-centred activities such as for example group work due to the danger that their class discipline

could be threatened (Warnich & Wolhuter, 2010:67-74).

To the extent that teacher-centred instruction strategies were implemented, almost all the teachers in the three different schools indicated that they always and most often prefer lecturing as an instruction strategy. Other teacher-centred instruction strategies that were high in favour as they were often and always used by the overwhelming majority of teachers were: questioning and answering, explanation, description and demonstration. Furthermore, the overwhelming majority of the teachers chose to be the assessment agents themselves while they showed a reluctance to implement peer-, self- and group assessment.

Recommendations

Arising from the results of this study, the question to be asked: Why are Social Sciences and History teachers - despite the existing curriculum's plea to do so - not yet fully committed to embrace learner-centred instruction and assessment to the same level as recognition is given to the traditional way of teacher-centred instruction and assessment?

According to Prawat (1992:354, 356) teachers are important agents of change and their traditional knowledge and beliefs on learner-centred instruction strategies will ultimately influence their attitude on the degree and extent of the application thereof. He postulates that most of the issues associated with the implementation of learner-centred instruction strategies could be overcome if teachers are willing to make a paradigm shift by rethinking and re-examining their existing beliefs on their instructional and assessment practices. Ultimately teacher's beliefs will guide their thinking, planning, decision making and behaviour in their classrooms.

A number of factors can be short listed as possibly responsible for the realisation of Social Sciences and History teacher's pedagogical beliefs on why they are not completely comfortable with introducing learner-centred instruction strategies to its full extent. For example, in instances where teachers were the products of schooling and training systems that was characterised by teacher-centred instruction strategies and rote learning it may have contributed to the reinforcement of their own belief to follow the same instructional approach in their classes. This particularly applies to the South African context where the vast majority of teachers received their education during the apartheid-era where limited exposure was given to learner-centred instruction. Instead,

the then curriculum focused on content, rote learning memorisation and summative assessment practices (Spreen & Valley, 2010:42,48).

Teacher's beliefs can also be built on the assumption that learner-centred instruction is too time-consuming (which will not leave enough time to complete the curriculum) and requires too many resources and teaching experience that they are lacking (Spreen & Valley, 2010:51; Isikoglu, *et al.*, 2009:350; Lombard & Grosser, 2004:213). Moreover, teachers' beliefs can be based on their view that the implementation of learner-centred instruction and formative assessment is accompanied with greater demands on their work load and pedagogical responsibilities and therefore to be sidestepped (Prawat, 1992:357). Teachers may also be of the opinion that learner-centred instruction undermines teacher authority and class discipline and therefore prefer to distance themselves from it (Spreen & Valley, 2010:51). Some beliefs may be grounded in views that the curriculum is purely an examination-driven practice and all that really matters is to coach learners to obtain good examination results. Where such beliefs exist, a constructivist pedagogy which promotes deep conceptual understanding and critical thought of the subject matter is usually neglected (DiCamillo & Gradwell, 2012:2; Isikoglu, *et al.*, 2009:355). Formative assessment practices are in these instances seen as "yet another thing" that encroaches on valuable teaching time and is not considered as a meaningful process that will enhance learner performance (Heritage; 2007: 141,145).

Apart from Social Sciences and History teacher's pedagogical beliefs there are also other impediments that might restrain them from their intention to practice a learner-centred and formative assessment paradigm of instruction. This include, to name a few: the learner-to-teacher ratio, lack of training and competency of the teachers, the dominant pedagogical orientation of the school, the availability of appropriate quality learning and teaching support material, physical resources, technological constraints, the dilemma of formative assessment, negative attitudes of learners towards learner-centred instruction, and a lack of parental interest and involvement in the learning of their children (Mtika & Gates, 2010:400-402; Spreen & Vally, 2010:51; Warnich & Wolhuter, 2010:70-76).

It should stay a major priority for government and education authorities to eradicate these systemic and other shortcomings in schools to pave the way for those teachers who are keen to apply learner-centred instruction and formative assessment practices in their classes.

As teachers are considered as important agents of change, it is therefore necessary to make certain pedagogically sound investments to encourage them to choose to alter their beliefs. But first, a need to understand how Social Science and History teachers view learner-centred instruction and formative assessment is necessary. Only then plans can be devised to efficiently and effectively deal with their pedagogical issues on learner-centredness. In an effort to make them more receptive, Social Science and History teachers need to have a better understanding of the theoretical and practical underpinnings of learner-centred instruction as well as the skills necessary to successfully implement it. Teachers in this study who have only applied a label or surface feature of the learner-centred pedagogical theory, such as project work, might have a rare conscious of the underlying learner advantages that this learner approach holds. Hence, they might also have an inadequate understanding of how to apply the different learner-centred instruction strategies in a real classroom environment. By eliminating teacher's ignorance and equipping them with knowledge and skills, it might influence their deeply held beliefs in such a way that they will show a willingness to employ changes in their focus on how learner-centred instruction and assessment practices should be executed.

What is needed, apart from the introduction of extensive and comprehensive training and workshop programmes which will provide the type of training which will assist Social Science and History teachers to develop and enhance their knowledge and skills on learner-centred instruction and assessment practices, is what Roth and Tobin (2001:16) termed "co-generative dialoguing". This type of dialogue will create a platform for teacher educators, school teachers, curriculum advisors and policy makers to interactively share perspectives about the issues and dilemmas Social Science and History teachers face with regard to learner-centred instruction and formative assessment. This synchronised participatory effort where all the participants have equal opportunities to contribute will undoubtedly influence teacher's willingness to rethink their views on the adoption of a more constructivist approach to teaching and learning in Social Sciences and History.

Conclusion

Although caution needs to be taken in drawing generalised conclusions in a small case study of this nature the authors are of the opinion that this research allowed them to say something on teachers approaches towards the

extent of implementation (or lack) of certain learner-centred instruction and assessment practices.

The findings reveal that although the teachers showed a willingness to utilise some of the learner-centred instruction strategies, their tendency to implement the traditional teacher-centred instruction strategies were much stronger. The findings furthermore report that the teachers were by far more in conformity with the application of the different teacher-centred instruction strategies than in the case of the learner-centred instruction strategies. On the subject of assessment the overwhelming majority of the teachers in the different types of schools were reluctant to democratise their assessment practices to accommodate formative assessment practices. Peer-, self- and group assessment which is an important essential for the successful implementation of learner-centred instruction strategies were hardly used. Instead, most of the teachers preferred to be the only responsible agent when the assessment of their learners was performed.

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The powerful learning environment and history learners in the Free State Province

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Abstract

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement for History (2011) encourages an active and critical approach to learning. This principle requires History teachers to structure learning environments that will enable active learner participation and meaningful learning. This article reports on a quantitative research study conducted in schools in the Free State Province to establish the extent to which History learners are exposed to the different characteristics of a powerful learning environment (PLE) as espoused by both De Corte and Masui (2004) and Donovan and Bransford (2005). Findings revealed that History learners are exposed to the different aspects of PLEs, albeit at different levels.

Keywords: Powerful learning environment; Teaching and learning of history; Learner-centredness; Constructivism; Enquiry-based approach; Active learning.

Introduction and problem statement

In recent years, the school subject History has been subjected to continuous scrutiny aimed at establishing itself as a dynamic subject with regard to knowledge construction and skills development. In Britain, Scotland and the United States, History teaching underwent changes that resulted in approaches requiring learners to "do" history by stressing the development of an investigative method of learning that involved the framing of questions, subsequent research and the presentation of findings (Hillis, 2005:341; Timmins, Vernon & Kinealy, 2005:25).

After 1994, South Africa adopted a new approach to the teaching and learning of history, one that emphasises a learner-centred curriculum linked to expectations of higher cognitive skills development. Factors that led to the change in the way history is taught in South Africa received attention in

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several papers that focused mainly on the teaching methodology, assessment in History and the content covered in History papers (Meyer, Blignaut, Braz & Bunt, 2008; Warnich, 2008; Siebörger, 2007). The "doing" history approach encourages learners to actively engage in enquiry-based approaches to learning and problem-solving activities and to interact with various primary sources in constructing knowledge that can be communicated to the teacher and other learners (DBoE, 2011; DoE, 2003). Booth (2001:487) concurs by advocating an approach that seeks to view content and skills development as being interdependent and where skills are sharpened in relation to the substance of the subject.

A broad spectrum of research has been conducted on the problems identified in history teaching and learning in South Africa (Twala, 2003; Asmal, 2001; Van Eeden, 1999; Kapp, 1994). One of these problems is the teacher's ability to present history in a meaningful way. The Report of the Task Team for the Review of the Implementation of the NCS (DoE, 2008) revealed that South African teachers, including History teachers, were still experiencing problems in adapting to the required changes in teaching methodology and strategies. Le Grange (2008:403), on the other hand, argued that fundamental pedagogies and Christian National Education together provided the justification for authoritarian educational practices in South Africa, which sought to explain the relationship between teachers and learners as a vertical one. This, in turn, resulted in a classroom environment characterised by fear and a lack of innovation. A study conducted in the Free State by Moreeng (2009) revealed that 43% of the History teachers in the province had more than ten years' teaching experience, which puts them in the category of teachers possessing the kind of knowledge described by Le Grange.

Therefore, in this study, the researchers opted to employ previous research on powerful learning environments (PLEs) in an attempt to enhance the quality of History teaching and learning within the South African context. This study seems to concur with De Corte and Masui (2004:36) who stated that, in order to address the needs and requirements of effective History teaching, PLEs should be structured. These PLEs should elicit from learners those learning processes that facilitate the acquisition of productive knowledge and competent learning and thinking skills. Furthermore, they have to create appropriate instructional conditions to induce learners to produce those learning activities and processes that are able to facilitate a disposition conducive to productive learning and problem solving.

Pursuing the argument further, it can be stated that the kind of environment envisaged for the "doing" of history needs a decidedly revised kind of pedagogy; one that seeks to establish a more horizontal type of relationship between the teacher and the learners. Freire envisaged this in the early 1970s and termed it "dialogic pedagogy". In the latter kind of environment, the relationship between the teacher and the learners is based on love, humanity, hope, faith, confidence and respect (Freire, 1970). The authors are of the opinion that the latter kind of environment will provide a platform for making learning more meaningful to History learners. In addition, Heeden (2005:186) suggests that, by asserting the role of the teacher in the new environment as decentralised, learners are empowered as they engage with the learning material.

Powerful learning environments

Powerful learning environments are places where the curriculum, instruction and the learning contexts come together to elicit in learners the learning processes that facilitate the acquisition of productive knowledge as well as competent learning and thinking skills. These environments have to create appropriate instructional conditions to invoke in learners the learning activities and processes which will facilitate a disposition of productive learning and problem solving (De Corte & Masui, 2004:365; Finnan, Schnepel & Anderson, 2003:392). Eggan and Kauchek (1999:451); Kyriacou (1991:10) and Fraser and Walberg (1991:x) maintain that PLEs are purposeful, task-oriented, relaxed, warm, supportive and has a sense of order that makes learners feel welcome and free to participate in class. PLEs have the potential to develop learners' self-concept and self-regulation which, in turn, motivates them to learn (Muthukrishna, 1998:145, Purkey & Novak, 1996:25).

A PLE comprises four basic, interconnected characteristics, namely being learner-centred, knowledge-centred, assessment-centred and community-centred (Donovan & Bransford, 2005:12, De Corte & Masui, 2004: 367). The learner-centred learning environment aims to ensure that any activity in the classroom begins with paying close attention to learners' ideas, knowledge, skills, and attitudes, which provide the foundation on which new learning begins (Donovan & Bransford, 2005:12). This also includes the pre-conceptions that learners have regarding the subject matter (Bransford *et al,* 2000:23). In this regard, learners' expertise, age and cognitive abilities are important (Paas & Kester, 2006:282; Konings, Brand-Gruwel & Van Merrienboer, 2005:647). Therefore, learner-centredness entails paying

attention to learners' backgrounds, cultural values and abilities (Donovan & Bransford, 2005:13). Learners' prior knowledge and experiences self-regulate strategies (Schelfhout, Dochy & Janssens, 2004:179).

In addressing the knowledge-centred learning environment, emphasis is placed on what is taught, why it is taught and how knowledge should be organised to support the development of expertise, as well as the features of competence or mastery (Bransford *et al,* 2000:25). Furthermore, knowledge should not be taken as a list of facts and formulas that are relevant to their domain. Instead, learners' knowledge is organised around core concepts or big ideas that guide thinking (Bransford *et al,* 2000:16). Phillips (2004:214) maintains that historical knowledge includes historical imagination, historical literacy, the knowledge of finding information independently, and the capacity to turn this information into an exciting and challenging piece. The use of a multi-perspective approach is supported by De Wet (2000:183), because it guides the learners towards critical thought, accommodating others' views, and being tolerant and responsible. This is very important, especially in a multicultural country such as South Africa, because it will address the need for critical thinking and progress in responsible citizenship. In the process, learners will extract, classify, sort and assess the information they receive (Phillips, 2004:214, Husbands, Kitson & Pendry, 2003:79).

A community-centred learning environment deals with classroom management. It requires the development of norms for the classroom and the connections to the outside world that support core learning values. Learning is influenced in fundamental ways by the context within which it takes place. Every classroom operates with a set of explicit or implicit norms or cultures that influences interactions among individuals. This set of norms, in turn, mediates learning (Donovan & Bransford, 2005:12; De Corte & Masui, 2004:367). The norms that are established in the classroom have strong effects on achievement. These norms may support students in revealing their pre-conceptions about the subject matter, their questions and their progress towards understanding (Bransford *et al,* 2000:25). Learning activities in a community-centred approach seek to develop a sense of community, where learners might help one another to solve problems by building on one another's knowledge, asking questions and suggesting answers

Assessment is a central feature of both the learner-centred and knowledge-centred classroom. According to Glasgow and Hicks (2003:89), one of the challenges in the classrooms is the absence of a direct link between

instructional goals and assessment. Teachers tend to see assessment as separate from the teaching and learning process. Therefore, assessment should be used as a teaching and learning opportunity to improve learning, rather than to solely evaluate learners.

Assessment is defined as the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information to help teachers, parents and other stakeholders determine learners' progress and evaluate their performance (DoBE, 2011:5; MacMillan, 2006:7–8; Donovan & Bransford, 2005:16; De Corte & Masui, 2004:367; Bransford *et al,* 2000:25). Kotze (2002:76) asserts that the focus of assessment changed with the advent of the outcomes-based approach. Learners are no longer required to acquire knowledge alone, but are also expected to demonstrate skills and values. The emphasis has now shifted towards the application, activity and development of contemporary education in South Africa. Therefore, the focus of assessment in history should be on measuring the process of learning as much as the end results and should further provide opportunities for feedback (De Corte & Masui, 2004:367; Bransford *et al,* 2000:24).

Learning environments can be viewed from three theoretical perspectives, namely a behavioural/empiricist view, a cognitivist view and a pragmatic view. Learning environments organised from a behavioural perspective are structured with the goal of learners' accumulating a maximum amount of information and procedural knowledge. These PLEs are designed to support interactions in which information can be transmitted efficiently from teachers, textbooks and other information sources to learners. When conceptualised from a cognitive perspective, PLEs are designed to provide learners with the opportunities to construct conceptual understandings and abilities in activities of problem solving and reasoning. The basic premise of the pragmatic view is to encourage participation in social practices of enquiry and sense making. Those learners who become engaged participants learn to partake in the activities that constitute their schools' practices of learning. Learners acquire practices of learning by participating in classroom and homework activities; however, the practices they acquire may not be those that are intended or valued by the teacher, the school or society. Practices are learned as individuals participate in activities of the community (Greeno, Collins & Resnick, 1996:28).

Research on PLEs has been widely conducted with a focus on various aspects of how to enhance learning. Hopkins (2000) emphasises the impact that PLEs

have on school improvement, whereas Schelfhout *et al* (2006) evaluated the extent to which a PLE is created during internships. On the other hand, Elen, Clarebout, Léornard and Lowyck (2007) paid attention to the students' views regarding student-centred and teacher-centred learning environments, while Gerjets and Hesse (2007) addressed PLEs within technology-based learning environments. In this study, the researchers sought to determine the extent to which History teaching is addressing the different characteristics of PLEs in order to enhance learning.

Constructivism as a conceptual framework

Gerjets and Hasse (2007:3) consider the concept 'powerful learning environments' to be an embodiment of the key ideas of a constructivist approach in the teaching and learning situation. It is based on the belief that learners should be guided to construct knowledge that is meaningful and useful in their own lives, and the emphasis is mainly on "how" learners learn and not "what" they learn (Jacobs, Vakalisa & Gawe, 2004:5). A PLE framework is further grounded on the belief that the success of the teaching and learning activity stands or falls by the teachers' ingenuity to create a classroom climate that is conducive to active learning through which learners construct their reality in social exchanges with others (Freire, 1972:46).

In the words of Flanik (2011:414), constructivism is "epistemologically pluralistic" because it is based on the premise that knowledge is shared among all involved – be they teachers or learners – and, in the process, learners get to construct their own perspective of the world through individual experiences, schemes and interaction with the world. Powell and Kalina (2009:241), in support of Flanik, differentiate between social and cognitive constructivism: the former refers to creating knowledge as a result of the interaction with the social environment and the latter refers to learners' ability to internally create meaning on their own. The process of constructivism is enhanced by the fact that learners actively construct their own knowledge by comparing what they encounter in their physical and social world with their existing knowledge. Moreover, Powell and Kalina (2009:241) and Killen (2007:8) concur by stating that the basic premise of constructivism is that knowledge is constructed and that understanding is expanded through the active construction and reconstruction of mental frameworks. According to Yilmaz (2008:36), the learners actively construct meaning and understanding during

every learning process. The constructivist learning paradigm encourages learning enquiry that can translate into learners' having opinions and views about the content they are exposed to (Blaik-Hourani, 2011:231).

Social constructivism is based on specific assumptions about reality, knowledge and learning. Social constructivists view these as social concepts which rely on active human interaction with other individuals and the environment. Without social interaction with more knowledgeable people, it is impossible to acquire social meaning of important symbol systems and learn how to use them. The proponents of the constructivist approach hold that, what is known and understood among individuals, is the result of an agreement and sharing of information and ideas about what is regarded as valuable.

While learners will be creating knowledge, they will acquire various skills, including critical thinking, problem solving and collaboration, which will allow and encourage multiple perspectives as they are culturally based. Furthermore, these skills enhance learners' ability to be responsible for their own learning (Bay, Bagceci & Cetin, 2012:344; Blaik-Hourani, 2011:231;). In this study, both forms of constructivism – cognitive and social – will be employed to gain insight from the literature and the responses of the History learners.

Research design and methodology

Research aim

The primary aim of this study was to determine the extent to which history learners are being exposed to the different characteristics of PLEs, viewing it through a socio-cognitive constructivist lens. This knowledge will add to help the different methods teachers can use in order to create or strengthen the creation of a PLE. In doing so, the researchers focused on and adopted the Flemish notion of a PLE – as espoused by, among others, Donovan and Bransford (2005) and De Corte and Masui (2004). This notion views the characteristics of PLEs, as mentioned previously, as a community-centred, assessment-centred, learner-centred and knowledge-centred classroom.

The study is based on research that can be described as both exploratory and applied. Exploratory research is relevant for this study in that it explores the use of constructivist approaches to the teaching and learning of history

(Fouché & De Vos, 2005:106). Applied research, on the other hand, will enable the researchers to ultimately aim at formulating guidelines for the structuring of a PLE for the teaching and learning of history in Further Education and Training (Fouché & Delport, 2005:108–109). Thus, the knowledge acquired by means of the literature study, and the data gathered by means of the questionnaire, will enable the researchers to determine the extent to which the different characteristics of the identified/specific learning environments have been implemented (Maree, 2007:59).

Data-collection technique

After an intensive literature review, the researcher designed a five-point Likert scale questionnaire to collect data for this study; the main focus being that of establishing the extent to which history learners in the Free State were being exposed to aspects of a PLE. Reliability was ensured by conducting a pilot study involving five History teachers, ten History learners and five History subject advisors from the Free State (Strydom, 2005:205–215). At the time, some of the subject advisors had been monitoring and supporting history teachers on the proper implementation of the curriculum for more than ten years. Subsequent to this exercise, comments were invited regarding how questions are asked and what aspects are covered in the questionnaire. The practice of conducting a pilot study among colleagues with relevant experience is supported by Strydom (2005:207) and Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990:428). In the present study, the comments from the teachers, learners and history subject advisors were taken into consideration in making changes and amendments to the final questionnaire. The questions in the learners' questionnaire required the respondents to choose the appropriate response from a list of possible answers and also to indicate their choices by choosing answers from the Likert-scale options. The researchers delivered 59.5% of the questionnaires to the targeted schools and the rest (40.4%) were mailed.

Sampling

The ideal sample size would be all History learners throughout the Free State. Therefore, all learners taking History as a subject were selected to participate in the research. The researcher used criterion sampling because the respondents had to be history learners and would thus be in a position to respond to questions relating to their subject. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011:156)

and Yegidis and Weinbach (2002:190) support the abovementioned view in maintaining that purposive sampling allows the researcher to select participants who possess rich information regarding the purpose of the study. Of the 199 schools offering History in the Free State, 84 schools participated in the study, while 800 learner questionnaires were issued, of which 697 were returned. The number of schools used in the study translated into 42.2% of the sample drawn from the population of 199. Representativeness in terms of diversity, background, location and resources of the different areas and schools was considered. This spread was necessary because the different districts have unique conditions that might add value to the study.

Data analysis

Data analysis in this study was performed by means of descriptive statistics in order to quantify the characteristics of the data, to determine their centre, how broadly they were spread, and how one aspect of the data related to another (Pietersen & Maree, 2007:183). Descriptive statistics are relevant for processing the nominal and ordinal data that deal with proportions, percentages and ratios.

The main focus of the research was to establish the frequency of aspects that relate to the structuring of a PLE for the teaching and learning of History. The researchers later presented their own interpretation of the data that had been collected and analysed. Raw data were computed by the Statistical Analysis Division of the Department of Computer Services at the University of the Free State. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Primer (SPSS) was used for computation purposes. The responses in the form of raw data were processed by determining the frequencies, the mean and the standard deviation (SD) in respect to all the questions expressed in percentages.

Presentation of results

The questionnaire responses revealed the extent to which learners were being exposed to the different characteristics of a PLE. In the following paragraphs data from learners will be presented.

A community-centred learning environment

The following table presents the extent to which history teachers addressed issues of a community-centred environment.

Table 1: History learners' responses with regard to a community-centred learning environment

	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	SD
	Rarely		Sometimes		Frequently		Usually		Almost always			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%		
Q. 58	35	5.0	117	16.9	43	6.2	119	17.1	376	54.2	3.99	1.321
Q. 62	62	8.9	126	18.2	59	8.5	135	19.5	309	44.5	3.73	1.414
Q. 68	84	12.1	102	14.7	54	7.8	151	21.8	302	43.5	3.70	1.451
Q. 71	49	7.1	126	18.2	55	7.9	213	30.7	249	35.9	3.70	1.311
Q. 75	221	31.8	115	16.6	68	9.8	111	16.0	174	25.1	2.86	1.614
Q. 76	376	54.6	102	14.7	54	7.8	80	11.5	76	11.0	2.09	1.440
Q. 78	313	45.1	117	16.9	59	8.5	55	7.9	146	21.0	2.43	1.608
Q. 83	125	18.0	262	37.8	73	10.5	117	16.1	112	16.1	2.75	1.366
Q. 84	118	17.0	273	39.3	58	8.4	125	18.0	112	16.1	2.77	1.367
Q. 85	68	9.8	197	28.4	75	10.8	176	25.4	173	24.9	3.27	1.367
Q. 86	92	13.3	217	31.3	76	11.0	155	22.3	149	21.5	3.08	1.391
Q. 87	42	6.1	194	28.0	68	9.8	193	27.8	190	27.4	3.43	1.316
Q. 88	141	20.3	259	37.3	64	9.2	95	13.7	128	18.4	2.72	1.417
Q. 90	112	16.1	182	26.2	67	9.7	120	17.3	209	30.1	3.19	1.505

Source: BB Moreeng, 2009. Structuring of a Powerful Learning Environment for the teaching and learning of history in the Further Education and Training Band in the Free State Schools, p. 198.

Responses to questions 58 (71.3%), 62 (64%), 68 (65.3%), 71 (66.6%), 85 (50.3%), 87 (55.2%) and 90 (47.4%) indicate that learners usually/almost always view their teachers as being patient, courteous and respectful (question 58). Question 62 asked whether students feel free to ask their teachers questions in and out of the classroom, while Question 68 asked whether they believe that their teachers use information from the library, newspapers, the computer and other people. Question 71 asked whether they agree that their teachers walk around in class to provide guidance to them, while Question 85 asked whether they are allowed to discuss ideas with their friends, and Question 87 asked whether they are willing to listen to their classmates' advice. Finally, Question 90 asked whether they are allowed to share resources and books with other learners.

Responses to Question 86 reflected a balance between rarely/sometimes and usually/almost always. A total of 44.6% and 43.8% of the responses indicated that they respectively rarely/sometimes and usually/almost always give their opinions during class discussions. In contrast, responses to questions 75 (48.4%), 76 (69.3%), 78 (62%), 83 (55.8%), 84 (56.3%) and 88 (57.6%) indicated that learners were rarely/sometimes exposed to books, dictionaries and other resources (question 75), artefacts (questions 76), visiting historical places (78), helping other learners with their work (question 83), receiving help from other learners (question 84) and doing group work (question 88).

A knowledge-centred learning environment

The following table presents the extent to which history teachers addressed issues of a knowledge-centred learning environment.

Table 2: History learners' responses with regard to a knowledge-centred learning environment

	1 Rarely		2 Sometimes		3 Frequently		4 Usually		5 Almost always		Mean	SD
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q. 59	23	3.3	63	9.1	61	8.8	178	25.6	367	52.9	4.16	1.122
Q. 60	30	4.3	90	13.0	67	9.7	220	31.7	283	40.8	3.92	1.190
Q. 64	31	4.5	56	8.1	70	10.1	215	31.0	320	46.1	4.07	1.135
Q. 67	33	4.8	62	8.9	64	9.2	179	25.8	354	51.0	4.10	1.177
Q. 72	80	11.5	189	27.2	82	11.8	165	23.8	176	25.4	3.24	1.391
Q. 77	77	11.1	131	18.9	73	10.5	174	25.1	232	33.4	3.51	1.408
Q. 82	92	13.3	228	32.9	114	16.4	152	21.9	99	14.3	2.91	1.290

Source: BB Moreeng, 2009. Structuring of a Powerful Learning Environment for the teaching and learning of history in the Further Education and Training Band in the Free State Schools, p. 200.

Responses received for this category indicated that learners were exposed to most of the aspects of the knowledge-centred learning environment. A mean value, which ranges from 3.24 to 4.16, and an SD, which ranges from 1.122 to 1.177 for questions 59 to 77, indicate that the majority of the learners were, to a large extent, usually/almost always exposed to the knowledge-centred learning environment. The responses from questions 59 (78.5%), 60 (72.5%), 64 (77.1%), 67 (76.8%), 72 (49.2), 77 (58.5) strengthen the abovementioned statement.

The responses from questions 59 (78.5%), 60 (72.5%), 64 (77.1%), 67 (76.8%), 72 (49.2) and 77 (58.5) indicated that learners usually/almost always received clear instructions and explanations with regard to their work (Question 59); that they received help from their teachers to organise information and to understand the relationships among various topics (Question 60); that they observed as the teacher demonstrated how tasks were supposed to be done (Question 64); were encouraged to come up with different answers to the questions (Question 67); were allowed to work individually on group activities (Question 72) and received a demonstration on how the sources should be analysed (Question 77). Responses to Question 82 (46.2%) indicated that learners rarely/sometimes used different sources to create their own definition of concepts.

Responses received in respect of this category indicated that learners were exposed to most of the aspects of a knowledge-centred learning environment. A mean value ranging from 3.24 to 4.16 and an SD ranging from 1.122 to 1.177 for all the questions displayed in table 2 indicate that the majority of the learners were usually/almost always exposed to a knowledge-centred learning environment.

A learner-centred learning environment

The following table is a reflection of learners' exposure to aspects of learner-centred learning environment.

Table 3: History learners' responses with regard to a learner-centred learning environment

	1 Rarely		2 Sometimes		3 Frequently		4 Usually		5 Almost always		Mean	SD
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Q. 61	40	5.8	94	13.5	67	9.7	187	26.9	304	43.8	3.90	1.262
Q. 65	35	5.0	109	15.7	65	9.4	148	21.3	336	48.4	3.92	1.288
Q. 69	91	13.1	122	17.6	37	5.3	154	22.2	289	41.6	3.62	1.488
Q. 70	41	5.9	90	13.0	53	7.6	189	27.2	319	46.0	3.95	1.261
Q. 73	35	5.0	104	15.0	68	9.8	212	30.5	273	39.3	3.84	1.236
Q. 74	76	11.0	140	20.2	71	10.2	159	22.9	246	35.4	3.52	1.424

Source: BB Moreeng, 2009. Structuring of a Powerful Learning Environment for the teaching and learning of history in the Further Education and Training Band in the Free State Schools, p. 202.

The responses to this category of questions, namely 61 (70.7%), 65 (69.5%), 69 (63.8%), 70 (73.2%), 73 (69.8%) and 74 (58.3%), indicate that learners usually/almost always received explanations of difficult material/ideas from their teachers (Question 61); that they received attention from their teachers when they did not understand (Question 65); that they received explanations of concepts and terminologies in their own languages (Question 69); experienced their teacher pausing during the lesson to check whether learners were still following (Question 70); received an indication that their teachers were interested in the answers provided by learners (Question 73); and related what was happening in class with what is happening in their communities (Question 74).

An assessment-centred environment

Table 4 depicts the extent to which learners were exposed to an assessment-centred learning environment.

Table 4: History learners' responses with regard to an assessment-centred learning environment

| | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | Mean | SD |
	Rarely		Sometimes		Frequently		Usually		Almost always			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%		
Q. 63	41	5.9	94	13.5	57	8.2	213	30.7	284	40.9	3.88	1.250
Q. 66	20	2.9	64	9.2	63	9.1	177	25.5	367	52.9	4.17	1.108
Q. 79	278	40.1	180	25.9	65	9.4	83	12.0	83	12.0	2.29	1.407
Q. 80	209	30.1	167	24.1	57	8.2	114	16.4	143	20.6	2.73	1.543
Q. 81	136	19.6	220	31.7	65	9.4	138	19.9	127	18.3	2.85	1.427
Q. 89	295	42.5	204	29.4	59	8.5	70	10.1	62	8.9	2.13	1.309

Source: BB Moreeng, 2009. Structuring of a Powerful Learning Environment for the teaching and learning of history in the Further Education and Training Band in the Free State Schools, p. 203.

In responding to the questions in this category, learners indicated that they were not always exposed to an assessment-centred learning environment. Responses to questions 79 (66%), 80 (54.2%), 81 (51.3%) and 89 (71.9%) reflected a mean less than 3, ranging from 2.13 to 2.85. This indicates that learners are rarely/sometimes exposed to the aspects of an assessment-centred learning environment such as being allowed to choose the topic that they want for assignments and projects (Question 79); being allowed to mark their own work (Question 80); allowing other learners to mark the work (81); and

the teacher helping learners to choose topics that they want for assignments and projects (Question 89). These aspects will, therefore, require attention in order to enhance learners' exposure to an assessment-centred learning environment.

Responses to questions 63 (71.6%) and 66 (78.4)% indicate that learners are usually/almost always exposed to regular feedback after engaging in an activity and are asked questions by the teacher to establish how much they know about the topic.

It can be concluded from the data obtained on the different learning environments that learners are widely exposed to a learner-centred learning environment. However, there is a need to improve learners' exposure to a community-centred learning environment, a knowledge-centred learning environment and the assessment-centred learning environment.

Discussion

Data from Table 3 indicated that learners were indeed exposed to a learner-centred learning environment, but the extent of the exposure could be enhanced by extending the manner in which teachers are explaining the general and historical ideas, terms and concepts during the lessons. Learners further revealed that their teachers were giving them individual attention to enhance the progress of each learner in class. In attending to learners' individual cultural and linguistic needs, respondents indicated that their teachers usually used vernacular to explain concepts that they do not understand in English. In addition to the issue of language, respondents revealed that their teachers took time to pause during the lessons to check whether all learners were gaining insight from the presentation. History teachers also seem to do well in relating what learners are doing in the classroom to what is happening in their communities and societies. As alluded to earlier, the characteristics of PLEs are interconnected. Therefore, this positive exposure to a learner-centred environment has an impact on how learners will experience other characteristics.

Responses with regard to a community-centred learning environment revealed that the learners were usually/almost always exposed to the environment that is characterised by respect among all those involved, which allows for free participation. Addressing and enhancing the extent to which learners are exposed to the community-centred environment, might

assist in addressing even the broader aims of teaching History in schools such as encouraging mutual respect, peaceful co-existence, tolerance and reconciliation, and fostering reconstruction and development (Van Eeden, 1999:21). Bay *et al* (2012:344) also validated the presence of values such as respect and collaboration among learners in enhancing the quality of the learning environment.

Table 1 further reveals that History learners experience their teachers and peers as being supportive and willing to participate in classroom discussions. Respondents, furthermore, expressed that they are allowed access to a variety of sources and resources, as acknowledged by Papadopoulou and Birch (2008:270). This adds value to learning within a social constructivist perspective, as discussed earlier, where learners are said to create new knowledge or to refine their current knowledge through engagement with the learning material, interaction with people around them and exposure to historical sites and places.

A knowledge-centred learning environment is aimed at equipping learners with subject knowledge that they can use to construct new meaning and to demonstrate the required skills (Van Wyk, 2009:104). Data from Table 2 show that learners were exposed to an environment where they were receiving clear instructions and explanations on how to formulate and organise information. In this way, they receive the opportunity to gain insight from what they were learning and to be able to present it meaningfully (Bransford *et al,* 2000:16).

Respondents further indicated that their teachers helped them to establish the link between the different themes and topics being studied. History teachers also seem to be doing their bit with regard to demonstrating to learners how the different sources should be analysed and interpreted. A balance between content knowledge and skills development is, therefore, established, as espoused by Donovan and Bransford (2005:12). The respondents had a positive experience of their teachers' attempts to expose them to most aspects that seek to make the presentation meaningful. This is supported by Riding, Grimley, Dahraci and Banner (2003:166), who suggest the use of presenting comprehensive explanations, providing complete background knowledge and avoiding the use of high-density concepts.

Even though History teachers seem to be addressing most of the characteristics of the knowledge-centred learning environment, there is a need to improve on the following aspects, which learners indicated that they are rarely exposed to. Learners want teachers to strive for increased exposure to activities which

allow them to individually work on activities that might have been covered during group work. This will allow learners to individually engage in cognitive construction of what they are exposed to during group work (Powell and Kalina, 2009:241). History teachers are also requested to demonstrate, as they teach, more of the skills that learners are supposed to learn, especially when it comes to sources that learners are exposed to for the first time. Learners also require increased exposure to a variety of sources as this will enable them to make more sense of the content being studied (Riding *et al,* 2003:166).

A strong link can be established between a knowledge-centred learning environment and the assessment-centred learning environment, especially when the latter is conceptualised as assessment for learning aimed at enhancing meaning and mastering skills. From Table 4, it can be deduced that history learners are not adequately exposed to an assessment-centred environment. Learners indicated that teachers do not afford them the opportunity to choose topics for their assignments and projects. Thus, there is not enough engagement and collaboration between teachers and learners with regard to how the required historical content and skills can be developed (José & José, 2009:333). When learners are not encouraged to participate in and contribute to the formulation of assessment activities, their ability to construct knowledge and meaning might be compromised as they could miss an opportunity to add to and understand the multiple perceptiveness of history (Blaik-Hourani, 2011:232).

Furthermore, learners' responses revealed that they are rarely engaged in self- and peer-assessment practices. This has a negative impact on learners' ability to regulate and manage their learning and also influences the quality of constructed knowledge. Self-assessment might lead learners to refine that which creates meaningful knowledge when they follow a process of identifying their shortcomings and constructing knowledge actively and purposefully. In this way, they will engage further in cognitive constructivism. Feedback from peers is also an important factor because it allows learners to tap into the knowledge of their peers in a socially constructive mode, and to create and modify their knowledge and skills (Powell & Kalina, 2009:241).

Learners revealed that they do not receive enough guidance on how to respond to essay questions and source-based questions. These are the two most important forms of questions in History tests and examinations. Learners' ability to construct appropriate responses to both types of questions might be limited due to the lack of input from other informed role players such

teachers and capable peers (Bay *et al,* 2012:344).

Some of the positive issues revealed by the learners' responses include that they are usually exposed to regular feedback after engaging in an activity and are asked questions by the teacher to establish how much they knew about the topic. Receiving constructive feedback after engaging in an activity is valued by authors such as De Corte and Masui (2004:367) and Glasgow and Hicks (2003:95) because it assists learners in assessing their mastery of content and skills and in identifying errors of knowledge and understanding and the ways of addressing them. Through effective feedback and questioning techniques, learners can be assisted in the construction of meaningful historical knowledge and the development of skills.

Conclusion

The results provided in tables 1 to 4 point the fact that history learners are exposed to the different aspects of learning environments, albeit to a differing extent. Learners responded very positively to all aspects of a learner-centred learning environment; however, there is a need to improve on the extent to which learners are exposed to a community-centred learning environment, knowledge-centred learning environment and an assessment-centred learning environment.

The structuring of a PLE that addresses knowledge and skills requires a concerted effort, especially from the teacher, who has to intentionally bring certain skills, values, expertise, characteristics, qualities, procedures and resources into the classroom. The literature on how History should be taught leads one to conclude that aspects such as the teaching methodologies, approaches and strategies used during History lessons need to be improved to meet the unique demands of "doing" history. The suggested improvements will result in the enhancement of the quality of the learning environment to one that is structured to encourage dialogue between History teachers and learners. A balance between enhancement of skills and construction of knowledge will be a dominant feature of an environment that is conducive to history teaching.

The unauthentic word, as Freire (2004:126) asserts, is a word that is unable to "transform reality". In an environment that does not constitute action, reflection automatically suffers and transformation of teaching and learning is compromised accordingly. A PLE for History teaching, therefore, seeks

to promote the pedagogy of dialogue: one that engages in critical thinking, perceives reality as a process, speaks the truth, is encountered by people, and exists in the presence of love for the world and for humankind in humility, faith in humankind and hope.

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Presentation technology as a mediator of learners' retention and comprehension in a History classroom

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Abstract

The insistence that presentation technology should be incorporated into all areas of the curriculum applies to the teaching of History equally as to other subjects. Although technology has been placed in the hands of teachers, little training on how to adapt the technology to History has come with it. Three explanatory research questions were formulated for this study dealing with South African History teachers' experiences of presentation technology as teaching and learning tool, and the format of more history-friendly PowerPoint slides to maximise History learners' long-term retention and comprehension of the subject content. The purpose of this study was to put forward History teachers' opinion on the role of presentation technology as a mediator of learning, and to use the outcomes of the empirical study to identify ways in which PowerPoint slides can be best designed and used to improve the learners' long-term retention and comprehension. A qualitative intrinsic case study research design was used for the study. Individual one-to-one interviews were conducted with two teachers. A deductive approach was used for the data analysis. The results of the data analysis revealed that both of the interviewees experienced the use of PowerPoint presentations as an improvement in their classes. However, both indicated that one of the greatest disadvantages of the use of PowerPoint slides was the lack of interactivity and discussions during the slide shows. Johnson's (2011) history-friendly PowerPoint pedagogy (interactivity, nutshell narratives, meta-cognition and timelines and flow charts) was put forward to promote interactivity and discussion during PowerPoint slide shows.

Keywords: Constructivism; PowerPoint slides; Retention; Comprehension; History-friendly pedagogy; Nutshell narratives.

Introduction

In the past three decades there has been a decisive shift in the teaching and learning support materials that have been used to communicate messages in

educational settings: from the era of chalk-and-talk and occasional flip-charts, to overhead transparencies, and to PowerPoint slides (Linsell, 1998:33-35). The demand that presentation technology should be incorporated into all areas of the curriculum seems to be irresistible, and this insistence applies to the teaching and learning of History equally as to other subjects (Blow & Dickinson, 1986:36-38; Department of Basic Education, 2011:17, 47; Haydn, Arthur & Hunt, 1997:160). According to Smith (2007:81), the use of presentation technology needs to be seen as an integral part of the whole package of skills and strategies which can be deployed to enhance teaching and learning in History. Craig and Amernic (2006:147-160) demonstrate that there is not yet a substantial body of research evidence to affirm the potential of presentation technology to facilitate and enhance the teaching and learning of History. In this article, it is argued that presentation technology should form an integral element of the wide armoury available to promote retention and comprehension in History, and that the use of PowerPoint slides is one of the first means of introducing presentation technology in the History classroom.

Problem statement and research questions

The focus of the problem of this study is on how History as a school subject can be more effectively related to South African learners to allow them to easily retain and comprehend the learning material. Although the National Senior Certificate examination pass rate for History was 86% in 2012, teachers and teacher educators are still reflecting on ways to scaffold those learners who are either failing or just passing History. It is a challenging task given the wide diversity of educational backgrounds of the learners, and their lack of language and writing skills (Mac, 2013:1-5; SA news.gov.za, 2013:1; Siebörger, 2011:11).

The literature has documented some of the trends in the direction of poor performance in History retention and comprehension for some time. Learners have changed in the past couple of decades. They have changed as a result of the affects of the world they are raised in (Paxton, 2003:272; Skynews, 2012). Evidence of the extent of the changes is listed below. Greenfield (2008:2) confirms that the screen-based, two-dimensional worlds of so many learners is producing changes in behaviour: attention spans are shorter, personal communication skills are reduced, and there is a marked reduction in the ability to think abstractly. Greenfield's (2008:2) findings indicate that

growing up in a world full of electronic devices may alter how learners' minds work in terms of gathering and learning information. According to Gozzi (1995:1), there is less patience on the part of the learners for non-entertaining activities, and textbooks are not seen as either entertaining, or a valuable source of information for learning since learners experience sensory deprivation. Textbook publishers such as Macmillan (the "History for All" series), Maskew Miller Longman (the "Looking into the Past" series) and Oxford (the "In search of History" series) have added a few pictures and sidebars to their texts, but this still does not seem to make textbooks (especially History textbooks) any more appealing to learners. As a result of the complete lack of multimedia that learners are used to, and their bad experiences with memorisation and worksheets in school, the subject of History, and by extension textbooks in general, may not be a part of what learners see as their world. This creates motivational problems because they will not, or cannot bring themselves to read the textbook the way it needs to be read for teaching and learning to take place, even if they are taught how to do it. Even when textbooks are rewritten with the addition of primary sources, images and narrative, the activities that often come with them reduced history to a list of easily memorised facts (Haydn, 2003:1-3; Sewall, 1998:1-5).

Technology such as CD ROMs, the Internet, PowerPoint slides, audio-visual multimedia, computer simulations and archives has made its way into the South African History classroom (Department of Basic Education, 2011:17, 47). Although technology has been placed in the hands of teachers, little training on instructional design on how to adapt the technology to particular academic subjects such as History has come with it. The format that presentation technology such as PowerPoint slides had traditionally followed in the business world became the format that it followed in the classroom. However, the reduction of a historical narrative to a series of bulleted "factoids" (briefly stated or insignificant facts) is a format rife with pedagogical problems. The fact that bullets were ill-suited to the retention and comprehension of history created a need for a new presentation technology format, specifically adapted to the pedagogical needs of History learners to understand, discuss and debate an historical event or period using source material and an extended piece of writing (Johnson, 2011:33; Siebörger, 2011:11).

Against the backdrop of the above problem statement, the following three explanatory research questions were formulated:

- What are South African History teachers' experiences of presentation technology as a teaching and learning tool?

- How can the format of PowerPoint slides be adapted to be more history-friendly, and to make history more accessible to learners in the classroom?

- What should be included in a PowerPoint slide show to maximise History learners' long-term retention and comprehension of subject content?

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to

- provide the outcomes of a small scale empirical study of the use of PowerPoint slides in History education in South Africa today

- put forward teachers' opinion on the role of presentation technology as a mediator of learning in the History classroom

- use the outcomes of the empirical study to identify ways in which PowerPoint slides can be best designed and used in the History classroom to improve the long-term retention and comprehension of the subject content

- stimulate academic debate about ICT and History teaching.

Review of the literature

Constructivism as theoretical perspective of the study

The importance of establishing a theoretical perspective for the implementation of technology in the teaching and learning of History lies in the need for an effective technologically-enhanced pedagogy. Hooper and Hokanson (2000:28-31), Lorsbach and Basolo (1999:121-128) and White (1999:3-12) advocate the use of constructivism as theoretical perspective as it represents a break from the positivistic assumptions of History which search for the acquisition of knowledge that mirrors a singular reality of textbook-defined facts and concepts. A more flexible, culturally relativistic and contemplative perspective of reality is needed, where knowledge is constructed based on personal and social experience.

According to Garrison (1998:43-60), Gergen (1995:17-39) and Von Glasersfeld (1998:17-40), constructivism emphasises the active role of the individual learner in the construction of knowledge, the primacy of social and individual experience in the process of learning, the realisation that the knowledge attained by the learner may vary in its accuracy as a representation

of an external reality, and that knowing has its roots in biological or neurological construction and social, cultural and language-based interactions. Moshman (1982:371-384) and Steffe and Gale (1995:1-57) distinguish three main branches of constructivism, namely radical constructivism, social constructivism, and cognitive constructivism. An outline of the three different types of constructivism is presented below.

Radical constructivism emphasises the internal nature of knowledge, and embraces the philosophic tenet that while a reality external to the individual may exist, the true nature of the reality is not knowable to the individual as it is not yet part of his/her subjective construction. Knowledge then becomes the subjective construction of the individual, resulting from the cumulative experiences of the individual (Piaget, 1977:1-40; Von Glasersfeld, 1998:17-40). This subjective construction implies that knowledge is not passively transmitted from the environment (classroom) to the individual (learner), but that knowledge is the result of active cognising by the individual (learner) for the purpose of satisfying some goal (retention and comprehension to pass an examination). The ultimate goal of knowing is the construction of internally coherent mental structures that are adaptive and lead to efficient and effective thinking and behaving (Von Glasersfeld, 1998:17-40). Social constructivism emphasises the social nature of knowledge, and embraces the philosophic tenet that an individual cannot come to know reality in any other meaningful way as in terms of social interaction (group work activities), (Garrison, 1998:43-60; Gergen, 1995:17-39; Prawat, 1994:220). The social activity (group work) as source of knowledge emphasises language, culture and context (discussion, activities, subject content), (Dewey, 1896/1972:96-109; Gergen, 1995:17-39). For social constructivism, truth is determined between people who are collectively searching for truth in the process of their dialogic interaction (Bakhtin, 1984:110). Cognitive constructivism emphasises the external nature of knowledge, and embraces the philosophic tenet that an individual can come to know reality as it exists external to the individual, knowledge is objective, and the acquisition of knowledge is the (re)construction of external reality into internal mental structures (classroom presentation, learner activity, schema theory), (Mayer, 1996:151-161; Prawat, 1996:215-225).

In all three branches of constructivism, the teacher is not concerned with whether the learners learn a set of textbook-defined facts and concepts, but whether the learners' understanding are coherent and valid given the resources with which they have engaged (radical constructivism), the learners'

social interaction has resulted in consensus (social constructivism), and the learners' have built mental structures that correspond to reality (cognitive constructivism).

Schema theory of cognition and learning as conceptual framework of the study

The information gathered in the empirical study of this article will be viewed through the lens of the schema theory of cognition and learning. Schema theory has become one of the major pillars of educational psychology and instructional design since the late 1970s, and has been employed as the foundation of instructional design strategies to create History curricula, whether it is technology saturated or not. The emphasis of schema theory on the prior knowledge of the learners has been used in the design of History lesson plans with encouraging results (Dahlin, 2005:287).

For Anderson (1977:367-381), the mind compartmentalises experiences and information into discrete packages called schema. All schema are logically categorised with similar schema in a branching format, and these branches are all connected in a large web of experience and information that represents a person's world view. Schema theorists such as Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978:363-394) further theorised that new information is easier for the mind to learn if it had some prior knowledge within the schema web to attach it to. The schema web of categorised packages of information retained permanently by the mind is referred to as long-term memory. This is distinguished from the working memory, also known as short-term memory, which is filled and erased on a regular basis to accomplish routine tasks (Morgan, 1981:30-32; Munro & Rigney, 1977:81). Humans create the schema structure, or long-term memory, in their minds by connecting their previous experience to the new information with bits of sense or connective logic (Dahlin, 2005:294).

Cognitive load theory focuses on the interplay between short-term and long-term memory, and attempt to find the conditions under which the information in the short-term memory is best transferred to the long-term memory without becoming lost (Paas, Renkl & Sweller, 2004:1-8). Cognitive load theory also points to the negative effects of repetition and the positive effects of different instruction (Protheroe, 2007:36-40). More recent advances in cognitive load theory had separated the visual and audible working memory, and documented significant increases in transfer to the long-term memory

schema from the use of audio-visual multimedia presentations (Paas, Renkl & Sweller, 2004:1-8).

Clarification of concepts

Presentation technology

The latest school of thought in History education methodology relates to the introduction of technology into the History classroom. The first attempt to introduce technology in the History classroom was the resources that were made available to learners via CD-ROM and the Internet. The field of technology in the History classroom then moved towards enquiry-based learning through computer simulations and archives, the placement of learner activities on the web, and the promotion of literacy in the History classroom by means of online reading and writing activities (Bass & Rosenzweig, 2001:41-61). History teachers were also provided with alternatives to the hard copy textbooks online (Schrum & Rosenzweig, 2001:134-140). The focus then shifted to the enhancement of the teacher's presentations by means of images (Blackey, 2005:59-71; Coohill, 2006: 455-468) such as maps and visual presentation technology such as PowerPoint slides with images (Fehn, 2007:430-461), audio technology (Lipscomb, Geunther & Mcleod, 2007:120-124), and audio-visual multimedia presentations (Hoover, 2006:467-478). Face-to-face communication over long distances via virtual field trips (Naik & Teelock, 2006:422-436), and video conferencing also became possible. Ferster, Hammond and Bull (2006:147-150) and Risinger (2006:130-132) have also demonstrated how History classrooms allow learners to create their own versions of recent phenomena in the mass media such as blogs and digital documentaries to enhance retention and comprehension of history.

Comprehension as learning outcome

Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill and Krathwohl (1956:111) developed a taxonomy for the cognitive domain that can be used to plan instruction based on learning outcomes. It consists of six levels, progressing from simple to complex – knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The level of the cognitive taxonomy identifies the level of complexity. The higher the taxonomic level, the more complex the learning involved. Each level specifies a behaviour a learner might be asked to perform. The teacher states these as performance objectives – what the learner will

know and be able to do. The verbs teachers use to identify what learners might be expected to do for the second level (comprehension) are convert, defend, distinguish, estimate and explain. A comprehension level learning outcome for understanding of subject content, is where the learner know what is being communicated and make use of the idea appropriately; for example, the learner may distinguish between the impact of European conquest, warfare and early colonialism in the Americas, Africa and India (McCown, Driscoll & Roop, 1993:362).

Retention

The learning involved in a History lesson involves observational learning, the acquisition of cognitive and behavioural patterns which prior to modelling (the teaching and learning activity) had a zero probability of occurring. Bandura (1986:122-147) characterises observational learning as a cognitive processing activity. Learning information from modelled events (a lesson) is transformed into symbolic representations that guide future action. There are four processes that operate as learners learn: attention, retention, production and motivation. The process of retention is the capacity to remember modelled behaviour. To perform a modelled behaviour, a learner must form an accurate cognitive version of the modelled behaviour referred to as symbolic coding and organisation. Retaining the information requires rehearsal if the learner is to perform. Bandura (1986:122-147) refers to two types of rehearsals: cognitive (covert) rehearsal and enactive (overt) rehearsal. Cognitive (or covert) rehearsal is imaginary practice. Enactive (or overt) rehearsal is practicing or doing an action after being shown. After much cognitive and enactive practice, the learning material becomes part of the learner's symbolic code (McCown *et al*, 1993:259-261).

Empirical study

Research design

As qualitative researcher, the researcher was primarily interested in the meaning that the subjects (History teachers) gave to their life experiences (teaching with PowerPoint slides). Hence, a case study was used to immerse the researcher in the activities of a small number of subjects to obtain an intimate familiarity with their social worlds, and to identify patterns in their

words and actions in the context of the case as a whole to describe, analyse and interpret a particular phenomenon (Thomas, 2004:54; Yin, 2003:88). A qualitative intrinsic case study research design was used for the study. Consequently, the purpose of the case study in this research project was to gather information on the experience of a sample of Further Education and Training (FET) History teachers in terms of the extent to which they use presentation technology such as PowerPoint slides in their classrooms, what the effects of the use of these PowerPoint slides had been on their teaching and learning, and the learners' retention and comprehension, and the ways in which these slides can best be designed and used in History teaching and learning.

Sampling

When it came to the sampling of the study, a very important consideration was the size of the sample to present the population. The population of the study was all the individuals in South Africa who were teaching FET History in technology-rich schools in South Africa. The size of the sample necessary for the study to be representative of the population depended on the degree of homogeneity of the population. Generally in homogeneous populations, where the members are similar with respect to variables that are important to the study (see next paragraph), smaller samples may adequately represent the population (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2011:148).

To ensure that the sample was as representative as possible, non-probability purposive sampling was used. In non-probability purposive sampling the odds of selecting a particular individual was not known to the researcher, and the researcher does not know the population size of the members of the population (Gravetter & Forzano, 2003:118). This type of sampling is based on the judgement of the researcher, in that the sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristic representatives of the population that serve the purpose of the study best (Grinell & Unrau, 2008:153; Monette, Sullivan & De Jong, 2005:134). The sample of this study included six teachers sampled from three different secondary schools in the Pretoria-Witwatersrand area. The rationale for the setting of the study was their proximity to the researcher, and that these schools have been known for their implementation of technology initiatives. The main criteria for the selection of the participants were that they have experienced the implementation of PowerPoint presentations in the History classroom, that they were FET History teachers, and that the

schools at which they were working were technology-rich schools with access to laptops, LCD projectors and online resources.

The smaller number of participants in the study allowed the researcher to go into greater depth with each teacher in terms of the ways in which PowerPoint slides made a difference in their classrooms, and how the slides could be improved to have a more significant effect on the learners' retention and comprehension. In similar case studies researchers such as Athanasouplos (2004) have used as few as one participant.

Data collection

The six identified participants were contacted for their willingness to participate in the research project. To ensure the anonymity of the teachers, they were labelled as Teachers #1 to #6. Only two of the teachers responded voluntarily to participate in the project, namely Teacher #1 and Teacher #5. Teacher #1 was a 33-year old male who completed a MEd degree and a professional teacher's qualification; while Teacher #5 was a female, who obtained a BA degree and a professional teacher's qualification, and who chose not to reveal her age. Both taught FET History, respectively for Grades 10 and 12, and their combined teaching experience was 33 years. Teacher #1 uses PowerPoint slides on average three times per week, and Teacher #5 uses these slides every day.

Individual one-to-one interviews were conducted with the two teachers. The purpose of the interviews were, as Sewell (2001:1) puts it, "… an attempt to understand the world from the participant's point of view, to unfold the meaning of their experiences, [and] to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations". The following ethical considerations were negotiated with the two teachers: anonymity, voluntary participation, and confidentiality. The interview schedule was an adapted version of an interview schedule used by Johnson (2011:145-148) entitled *Effectively using presentation technology in the History classroom.* The following four questions were included in the interview schedule:

•   Did the introduction of PowerPoint slides change your approach to lesson design and presentation?

•   Did the different components of PowerPoint slides scaffold the learners to better remember (retain) historical information, and understand how the

information fits together in terms of cause and effect to better comprehend history in general?

• What are the advantages of PowerPoint presentations?

• What are the disadvantages of PowerPoint presentations?

Data analysis and interpretation

Qualitative data analysis is usually based on an interpretative paradigm aimed at examining the meaningful and symbolic content of the qualitative data. A deductive approach was used for the data analysis of this study. Consequently, the categories of information required from the data were formulated in advance. The *a priori* categories were identified from the literature dealing with presentation technology as mediator of retention and comprehension in History education. The information gathered during the interviews were transcribed and coded with open codes that were developed from the research questions, and axial codes that were developed from the types of possible improvements that can be made. All data were viewed through the lens of schema theory. The analysed data were classified under the following five identified *a priori* categories:

Lesson design and presentation

Both teachers stated that the use of PowerPoint presentations resulted in positive changes in their classes. Teacher #1 noted that the use of the PowerPoint slides changed the format, but not the structure of his lessons, "I still follow the three phases of a lesson – the introductory phase, the middle phase and the concluding phase". However, he noted that he had to think differently about his lessons, because of the inclusion of the media. He also indicated that he reveals the new content more easily and systematically, and that the PowerPoint presentations allowed him to teach the subject content in a much more effective way: "It helped the learners to link the bulleted information to the images". For Teacher #1, the comparisons and contrast of events also became easier, and he cited an example from the topic, *The world in 1450* – with the PowerPoint slides, it was possible for him to compare and contrast the nature of power, power relations, technology, economy and trade in the different societies in the world of the mid-fifteenth century – West Africa, China, India, the Ottoman Empire, the Americas, Europe, and Southern Africa. Teacher #5 stated that technology has also improved her

classes: "It made the lesson presentation easier, faster and more specific". She then indicated that it also made complex events easier to explain, such as the topic *How did Uhuru lead to different types of states in independent Africa?* It allowed her to present the types of states that were set up in stages. She went on to explain that with the PowerPoint slides, she could play clips from YouTube while presenting the information in stages. She also demonstrated how she successfully used a timeline of how South Africa emerged as a democracy, and turned it into a narrative using pictures, cartoons, and newspaper clippings on the slides.

Different components of PowerPoint slides

From the interviews, it became clear that the common components of PowerPoint slides (bulleted information, images, audio files, audio-visual files, interactive web-based files) changed the way the two teachers assisted their learners to better retain the subject content, and comprehend history in general. The first component the researcher asked the participants to comment on was the placement of the words on the slides. Both teachers indicated that the bullet format was a concise and easy way to present the content, "... but most learners will write down the bullet, and one or two more ideas from the discussion, but still do not understand the topic at all". (Teacher #1). Teacher #5 noted that, "... in my classroom I experience that the many bullets bore the learners ... ".   She demonstrated that the best way to keep the learners' attention is group work, the learners read the bulleted words in groups of three or four, talk about them, followed by a whole class discussion. She uses questions to analyse the content of the lesson, and encourage the learners to critically discuss the topic of the lesson.

The second component was the use of images. Both teachers argued that images make history come alive. Teacher #1 indicated that using images in PowerPoint presentations are invaluable, because "... the pictures are so real … and the conversations around the pictures are valuable because the learners are engaged in critical thinking when they discuss pictures". With the pictures, the learners' link the content of the lesson to concrete images. Teacher #5 responded by calling the use of images valuable, and confirmed that the images assist the learners to associate the real world images with the facts. She described a class where she was having a discussion about the various forms of protests against globalisation, and she was able to get the learners to think critically about the protests, by having them participate in an activity

where she showed them a picture to associate with the form of protest. The interviewer then moved to the third component of PowerPoint presentations, namely the use of audio files. According to Teacher #1, his learners get bored with audio recordings "... because they are not used to listening any more ...". However, he mentioned that Robert Mugabe's speech after ZANU-PF won the elections in 1980 was an essential part of the lesson on Zimbabwe's independence history, because the learners were fascinated by listening to a current controversial figure's voice from the past. Although Teacher #1 is a Grade 10 History teacher, his referral to the latter historical event was related to a theme in the National Curriculum Statement for History (Grade 12), entitled *Decolonisation and African nationalism.* The learners had more personal contact with the historical event. Teacher #5 noted that audio files such as recorded speeches are valuable, but that the sound may be a problem. Her only advice was to keep the clips short because they do not hold the learners' attention very long.

With regard to the fourth component of PowerPoint presentations, audio-visual files (animated graphics and movie and video clips), Teacher #1 was of the opinion that they are good, but technical difficulties are often a problem. For Teacher #5, the audio-visual files made the subject content easier to understand: "... they see and listen and they understand …". When looking at the fifth component of PowerPoint presentations, the interactive web-based files (web modules, online libraries and museums), Teacher #1 indicated that they may be very useful, and admitted that he did not use them yet. Teacher #5 indicated that she had not yet used online modules, but used online libraries such as the Google search engine. She also indicated that she encouraged her learners to "… Google when they have to do projects and/or write an essay".

Learner retention and comprehension

Both interviewees recommended that teachers of History should use various teaching and learning strategies to promote learner retention and comprehension. Teacher #1's response in terms of what teaching and learning strategies got the best results in retention was as follows: "… the methods used in the majority of South African History classrooms are still the chalk-and-talk and textbook methods". He noted that the repetition of the information from the textbook will not lead to retention, because the learners do not participate in the lesson; he emphasised that "... the best strategy to improve retention, is

for the learners to formulate their own understanding of an aspect, and write it down, …". Teacher #5 suggested activities that relate to the learners' real life experiences: "… to relate the classroom activities to present-day examples for the learners". Teacher #5 also responded that the most significant factor in the retention of the subject content was commitment. Both teachers were of the opinion that to teach the learners to put themselves into the shoes of people from the past, will improve their retention of the content.

When asked about what methods best promoted learner comprehension of historical content, Teacher #1 responded visual aids, such as pictures, charts or diagrams; and then concluded that, "Any activities will improve comprehension". Teacher #1 further recommended that, if learners were asked to go through a narrative, summarise the narrative in their own words, and then write an essay on the topic, the chances are that they will understand and comprehend the concepts and content much better. He also indicated that mind maps are vital for the learners to remember the historical facts and content. Teacher #5 demonstrated that a good method is to "Show a movie or a news clip, link it to the learners' pre-knowledge … followed by a discussion to determine what they understood and knew … improves the learners' understanding". On the question, what in her opinion are the best methods for promoting the highest levels of comprehension of the content, she responded that discussions which involve as many learners as possible, but that the learners also had to write, construct an argument, and base their argument on primary and secondary evidence.

Advantages and disadvantages of PowerPoint presentations

When asked about the advantages of PowerPoint presentations, the teachers responded that it changed their lesson presentations: Teacher #1 indicated that "... the information was easier to read, and ... it supports the other teaching and learning methods". Teacher #5 listed the following benefits of PowerPoint presentations: History teachers can be more creative, the slides are interesting and make the topics easier for the learners to understand, and can quickly be adapted as circumstances demand.

According to the two teachers, there were some disadvantages to the use of PowerPoint slides in the History classroom. Both teachers indicated that the learners spend much more time copying the notes than engaging with the content. For Teacher #1, the biggest disadvantage was that if there was a

power failure, or if the LCD projector or PC were not working on his slide show days, he was stuck, and cannot proceed with his lesson. Teacher #5 indicated that oversimplification is one of the dangers of using PowerPoint presentations, because "… with complex issues such as the theories of race and eugenics the learners can only see a few of the dimensions, and then the slide show moves on". Teacher #5 also cautioned that if a History teacher does not combine different teaching methods such as debates, historical enquiry, research projects, creative responses and field trips with the PowerPoint slides, the learners may get bored.

Discussion

The results of the data analysis of the study revealed that both of the interviewees experienced the use of PowerPoint presentations as an improvement in their classes. They indicated that with the PowerPoint slides they started to think differently about their lessons, revealed the new content more easily and systematically, taught the subject content in a much more effective way, and that comparisons and contrast became easier, and complex events were easier to explain. For both teachers, using the five common components of a PowerPoint presentation changed the way they assisted their learners to better retain the subject content. The placement of the words on the PowerPoint slides was a concise and easy way to present the content and made it easier for the learners to follow, read and memorise. However, the learners remained passive during the lessons. They listen to the teacher-talk and write some of the bulleted information down, but they did not really understand the content of the topic. Consequently, they absorb the textbook knowledge into their short-term memory without any retention and comprehension of the subject content. The research findings of Johnson (2011:84) and Tamura (2004:80-91) confirm that rote-learning and memorisation do not facilitate retention, comprehension and deep learning. The subject content enters the short-term memory, stays in the short-term memory for a short period of time, and then leaves it again, and the learners forget the learned information.

Presentation technology such as PowerPoint slides were originally designed for the business world. As a result, when it was adopted in the classroom, the format which was traditionally followed in the business world also became the format in the History classroom. The reduction of historical narratives to a series of bulleted information resulted in various pedagogical problems (passive-listening learners, teacher-talk, memorisation, rote-learning, loss of retention,

lack of authentic examples, no or a few images, textbook knowledge, and so forth.) which made it especially ill-suited to facilitate the learners' retention and comprehension of the subject content. Retention as the capacity of learners to remember modelled behaviour (subject content) requires a learner to form an accurate cognitive version of the modelled behaviour (long-term memory retention). Retaining the information requires cognitive (imaginary practice such as a personal opinion on why archaeological evidence is valuable) and enactive rehearsal (doing an activity such as summarising the main points of a narrative as part of a written assignment). Only after much cognitive and enactive practice will the subject content become part of the learners' symbolic code that they need to perform a higher order level oral or written activity, such as to read the following famous saying of Edmund Burke: "All that is necessary for the triumph of evil is that good men do nothing", and then explain its relevance in terms of the abolitionist movement. Comprehension then is the History learners' understanding of the subject content, knowing what is being asked and making use of the idea appropriately in an action.

Both of the interviewees indicated that one of the greatest disadvantages of the use of PowerPoint slides was the lack of interactivity and discussions during the slide shows. They argued that passive learners lose interest and become bored. Hess (2004:151) confirms that interactivity and discussion will actualise the learners' prior knowledge and promote retention and comprehension of the subject content. Coohill (2006:445-465) and Johnson (2011:112) recommend that the original format of the PowerPoint slide shows will have to change. The slides should contain not only words but also images as these have a significant impact on the learners' retention and comprehension of the subject content. One of the teachers, Teacher #5, also recommended that to engage the learners with the content and to make the PowerPoint slides more history-friendly, interactivity and discussion during the slide shows are important. Teacher #5's recommendation for more history-friendly slide shows was comprehensively addressed in the recommendations section of this article. Cognitive load theory confirms the negative effects of repetition, and the positive effects of differentiated instruction (Protheroe, 2007:36-40).

In an attempt to find the conditions under which the information in the short-term memory is best transferred to the long-term memory without being lost, research findings (Lipscomb, Guenther & Mcleod, 2007:120-124; Paas, Renkl & Sweller, 2004:1-8) demonstrate significant increases in the transfer

of subject content to the long-term memory when real life images, visuals and audio-visual materials, and multimedia presentations are used. According to Mayer (1996:151-161) and Prawat (1996:215-225), the consistent use of real life images promotes the learners' retention and comprehension because it actualises the learners' authentic experiences. According to schema theory, when learners are invited to make comments and/or contributions to a lesson, they are often speaking from their own prior knowledge, a precondition for the subject content to move from learners' short-term to their long-term memory, where it has to be linked to the web of information already present in the long-term memory. The latter takes place through the actualisation of the learners' prior knowledge. Constructivism (the radical and social branches) confirms the active role of the individual learner (interactivity and discussion) in the construction of knowledge, the importance of the social and individual experience of the learners in the process of learning (learner prior knowledge), and for the teachers' acknowledgement that knowing has its roots in biological or neurological constructions (schema theory). Cognitive constructivism emphasises that an individual can come to know reality as it exists external to him-/herself, and that the acquisition of this knowledge is a (re)construction of the external reality into the learners' internal mental structures.

Conclusion and recommendations

The results of this study pointed to several challenges and changes to the current design and use of PowerPoint presentation technology in the History classroom. The challenges identified and changes recommended were as follows: the bulleted information on the slides to be changed to narratives to limit the learners' rote-learning and memorisation of the subject content which result in little or no retention and/or comprehension; the elimination of teacher-talk and passive-listening learners by introducing interactivity and discussion during the PowerPoint slide show to actualise the learners' prior knowledge, counteract disinterest and encourage enthusiasm; and the inclusion of modalities and materials within the PowerPoint slides to promote learner activity, interest, retention and comprehension of the historical material. More history-friendly PowerPoint presentations can make the subject content more accessible to the learners to maximise the learners' long-term memory retention, enhance the comprehension of the subject content, and improve the learners' academic engagement and performance. Table 1 (below) contains a comparison of the current and the proposed PowerPoint

slide designs:

Table 1: From the business world format to a history-friendly format

Current design – business world format	**Proposed design – history-friendly format**
Bulleted information	Nutshell narratives
No or few images	Modalities and materials on every slide
Passive learners	Active learners
Teacher-talk, listening learners, textbook knowledge	Interactivity, discussion, prior knowledge, textbook knowledge
Memorisation, rote-learning, forgetting, poor engagement and performance	Retention, comprehension, engagement, performance

Johnson (2011:84-113) describes a history-friendly PowerPoint pedagogy to promote interactivity and discussion during PowerPoint slide shows. The latter is also the format proposed for future use in South African History classrooms. For him (Johnson, 2011:84-113), the history-friendly PowerPoint pedagogy should include among others the following four elements:

Interactive atmosphere: One of the ways for History teachers to create an interactive atmosphere is to connect the topic of the lesson to the learners' prior knowledge by starting the lesson with a 5-minute discussion of the important news of the day and/or a summary of the current world events. This activity will connect the historical information of the lesson to the narrative that is already in the learners' long-term memory, and this will result in a more authentic discussion of the subject content as it connects to the learners' context.

Nutshell narratives and discussion: The subject content on the slides should be presented in concise paragraphs. Tamura (2003:80-91) termed these paragraphs nutshell narratives. The nutshell narratives are teacher-created, and chronologically arranged in combination with visual/audio-visual material on the slides. The History teacher then discusses the narratives briefly or in-depth, and link them to the information in the textbook. Finally, the learners summarise the main points of the narratives in writing. This force them to become engage with and think about the information in the text. At the end of the lesson, a hand-out with the information on the slides is distributed to the learners to prevent them from copying the information from the slides.

Meta-cognition and reciprocal and direct explanation: An important way to facilitate discussion or debate is   to employ teaching and learning activities related to primary sources. Wineburg (2007:6-11) encourages teachers to introduce learners to primary source material to promote constructivist critical thinking about history. It is the key to the learners' ability to transfer subject content to the long-term memory. Intellectual discourse and high level discussion of primary sources on PowerPoint slides should be facilitated by means of two approaches. The first approach is the reciprocal approach, where the learners are requested to summarise the content on the slides, and identify and question the main points. The teacher clarifies the content to the class as a whole, and asks the learners to predict what will happen next. The second approach is the direct explanation approach, where the teacher explains his/her own interpretation of an opinion on the content which is then used to model the meta-cognitive historical thinking of the learners. A combination of the two approaches dramatically improves the performance of the learners.

Timelines, flow charts, retention and comprehension: The use of timelines and flow charts are important for the retention and comprehension of subject content. The learners in groups of five create a timeline from the events included in a cause and effect flow chart, pick out the ten most important turning point events, provide reasons for their choice, indicate why these events are important, and relate the events to their own thoughts about the history and current events in the news. Additionally, the learners in partner pairs create a flow chart of a cause and effect chain of a series of events. A combined timeline and flow chart activity can activate the learners' prior knowledge by connecting their prior understanding of an historical event to the event under study. The latter serves as a graphic organiser to assist the learners to create a framework to place the events into.

The results and recommendations of this study were intended to supplement the current good practice in South African History classrooms. The value of the study for schools that do not yet have access to higher levels of technology may be limited; but despite this limitation, trends applicable to those schools that have access were identified. Notwithstanding the above, the best learning often takes place once the technology has been turned off.

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A revisionist view of the contribution of Dr Eiselen to South African education: New perspectives

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Abstract

This article discusses the philosophical ideology advocated and promoted by the academic, anthropologist and politician, Dr WWM Eiselen, during different periods of history in South Africa. The central focus is on the ideology that influenced his academic writings and the consequent influence of this academic knowledge on government theory and practice. The need to preserve Bantu institutions and the emphasis of language to promote ethnic culture were central aspects of his political project has been demonstrated. Further it is pointed out that these recurring themes had a significant influence on the crafting of education for Bantu people. In conclusion Eiselen's pronouncements and writings, which were underpinned by his philosophical and political theories, should be understood in terms of what was happening at that particular period in South Africa's history.

Keywords: WWM Eiselen; "Volkekunde"; Eiselen Commission; Bantu education; Culture; Ethnos theory.

Introduction

Education for Black people started three centuries ago in what is now known as the Republic of South Africa. In order to understand education for African people, it is critical to understand the overall context and development of the social, philosophical, political, religious and cultural dimensions of South Africa itself. In this article, I explore and investigate some of the writings and speeches of Dr WWM Eiselen, a prominent Nationalist, former Secretary for Native Affairs and former Chief Inspector of Native Education in the Transvaal (1936-1946). Dr Eiselen was also a "Broederbonder", i.e. a member of the secret society from 1936 to 1946 and he played a role in assisting the Nationalist government to gain power in 1948 (Wilkins & Strydom 1978:1).

Robertson (1973:551) describes him as a leading fascist intellectual.

Following Foucault (1972, 1980, 1993), I make use of a "genealogical analysis." Such an analysis seeks to deconstruct history as a chronological pattern of events emanating from a confounded but all-determining point of departure, whilst also making an attempt to single out an underlying continuity which is the product of discontinuous systematicities (Foucault, 1993:210-220). Foucault's genealogical analysis overlooks the spectacular but preserves the singularity of events by favouring what is discredited and neglected. It reveals the multiplicity of factors behind an event. Foucault distinguishes three major types of techniques that can be used in a genealogical analysis approach: the techniques that permit one to produce, transform or manipulate things; the techniques that permit one to use sign systems; and finally, the techniques that permit one to determine the conduct of individuals and impose certain ends or objectives. In other words, the techniques of production, of signification or communication, and of domination (Foucault 1993:203). I focus on the second technique because its elements are less immediately transparent. Techniques of signification, or linguistic techniques, are quite familiar to us and refer to certain rhetorical styles or institutionalised ways of speaking or writing. In this article, I examine the genealogy of Dr Eiselen's personal ideological background by looking at the pronouncements he made during various time periods and their social effects. I argue that Eiselen's personal ideological background was a form of knowledge and power that played a significant role in the legitimation and reproduction of the apartheid government's social order.

As stated, Dr Eiselen fulfilled a number of official portfolios: he was an academic, the Secretary for Native Affairs and Chief Inspector of Native Education in Transvaal (1936-1946) and also the chairperson of the Commission on Native Education (1951-1953). In all these capacities he made official pronouncements. The following section investigates and analyses his institutionalised way of writing and speaking across different historical periods.

The Academic life of Dr WWM Eiselen

Eiselen was born in 1899 near Botshabelo in the former Eastern Transvaal. He was the son of Ernst Ludwig Gustav Eiselen, a missionary in the Berlin Mission Society (BMS). The BMS viewed the extension of missionary work

into the Transvaal as another German presence in a foreign country, in this case the Transvaal or the "Zuid Afrikaansche Republiek" (ZAR) was identified as a possible station (Boshoff, 2007:99). During his childhood he learnt to speak Northern Sotho. He was awarded a Bachelor's degree in phonetics and anthropology from the University of South Africa, a Master's degree from the University of Stellenbosch, and a doctorate from the University of Hamburg where he studied from 1922 to 1924.[1] On completion of his doctorate, Eiselen taught at a high school for a year before being appointed as a senior lecturer at the University of Stellenbosch. In 1932 he was promoted to Professor of Ethnology at the University of Stellenbosch based on his experience gained from teaching anthropology at the University (Eloff & Coertze, 1972).

  As an academic, Eiselen found himself wedged between two opposing approaches to anthropology. He subscribed to the prevailing one upheld by the predominantly Afrikaans university which focussed on the anthropological style or tradition that emerged in South Africa, namely ethnology as practiced by Afrikaans speakers. Their discipline was called "volkekunde" (Gordon, 1988:535). To be able to understand the cultural and political ideology that underpinned Eiselen's ideas, it is imperative to understand both the diverse writings on the history of "volkekunde" and the material and social circumstances that prevailed during the introduction of this ideology. Dr Eiselen worked together with Dr PJ Coertze, a university academic who advocated the ideology of "volkekunde" (Eloff & Coertze, 1972).

Image 1: Dr WWM Eiselen in his capacity as the Secretary of the Department of Bantu Administration and Development (Eiselen, 1959:1)

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1   The research topic for his doctoral degree was *Die Veranderung der Konsonanten durch ein Vorhergehendes i in den Bantusprachen*. Loosely translated, it means „The change of consonants by a Previous i in the Bantu languages".

Although "Volkekunde" as a teaching subject was introduced at one Afrikaans university in the 1920s, it did not spread widely until the 1940s. Initially "volkekunde" was the dominating ideology adopted at the two Afrikaans universities (the University of Stellenbosch and the University of Pretoria) and the Bantustan universities. "Volkekunde" was also offered as a subject at the former Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education. The first lecturer of the subject "volkekunde" at the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education was Prof JH Coetzee and the subject was later offered by Prof Hendrik van der Wateren. Proponents of the ideology ensured that the notion of a "native question" was built into the "volkekunde" curriculum (Gordon, 1988:539). Braukamper (1979:6) states that the term "volkekunde" is derived from the German study of "volkekunde", and refers to the desperate search for new perspectives which dominated the scene in German anthropology after the First World War. Coertze (1973:1), a lecturer at the University of Pretoria, explains:

> *Volkekunde studies people as complex beings as they lead a creative existence, following their nature and character, in changing social-organic entities, called etniee (ethnoses), which are involved in a process of active adaptation to a complex environment existing in space and time.*

Sharp (1981:19) maintains that the ideology of "volkekunde" was more of a descriptive ethnography and assigned significant power to the phenomenon of ethnicity. The ideology proposed that mankind is divided into "volke" (nations, ethnic groups) and that each "volk" has its own particular culture. The "volkekunde" ideology further postulates that an individual is born into a particular "volk" and that its members are socialised into a particular "volk" personality (Coertze, 1966:4-11).

Intellectually, the ideology of "volkekunde" can be traced back to Germany in the 1920s when it was a leader in the field of ethnology and especially in African languages (Gordon, 1988:536). Both Afrikaans and English ethnologists in South Africa were required to study some of the German classics at one time or another. It is not surprising therefore, that Eiselen and others went to Germany to study. On their return from Germany, supporters of "volkekunde" promoted the notion that Afrikaans universities should move towards the development of a "Volksuniversity". Such a university is defined as an institution which provides students with an opportunity to express their Afrikaner soul and be educated for the wonderful task of leading their "volk" to self-realisation and an indestructible love for their race and country (Degenaar, 1977:153). Most of the people recruited to study

"volkekunde" were poor whites. In Eiselen's first year as lecturer, the University of Stellenbosch introduced a degree in Bantu languages and ethnology, or "Bantuology"; and by 1927, 103 students had enrolled for the course. Within a decade this number increased to around 600 students (Gordon, 1988:539).

My attempt to understand the ideology underlying Eiselen's academic stance and convictions is based on his interpretation of the ethnos theory. Eiselen and his colleague Coertze drew heavily on the work of the German anthropologist, Mühlmann[2] who in turn based most of his writings on ethnos theory and the work of the Russian anthropologist, Shirokogoroff. Sharp (1981:32) argues that both Mühlmann and South African academics/anthropologists who wrote on the subject of ethnos theory misrepresented Shirokogoroff delineation of ethnos theory. In his exposition of the ethnos theory, Shirokogoroff did not refer to ethnos as ethnic groups themselves but referred to ethnos as designating a process in which groups are involved (Shirokogoroff, 1935:14). Shirokogoroff's parameter on ethnos theory was confined to ethnos as a process of relationships between groups (Booyens, 1989:434-435). Shirokogoroff maintains that stable 'ethnical units' are a possible temporary outcome of the process of ethnos. He further mentions that any functional group which differentiates itself from a given population will be inclined to develop a specialised language and common culture, a notion that raised questions amongst many anthropologists (Gordon, 1981:32). The work done by some advocates of ethnos theory, including Coertze and Eiselen, is far removed from the contextual exposition of Shirokogoroff's work. According to Coertze (1966:4-11), the word "ethnos" refers to "ethnic" groups rather than what Shirokogoroff calls an "ethnic process".

The ethnos theory, distorted and misinterpreted as it might have been by Afrikaner anthropologists, had ethnic locations and zonings as focal points. In South Africa, the theory was advanced through "volkekunde" and nurtured by Abraham Kuyper's[3] (the neo-Calvinist Dutch theologian, journalist and politician) viewpoint and conception of ethnic locations. Kuyper's theory called sphere sovereignty can be ascribed to the authority and coercive power of sovereignty: 'the authority that has the right, the duty, and the power to break and avenge all resistance to his will'.[4] Kuyper's theory of "Souvereiniteit

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2   Eiselen was familiar with the work and most likely with Mühlmann as a person and he has been heavily influenced by his writings on ethnos theory (Sharp, 1981).

3   Kuyper was one of the outstanding students at the University of Leiden; he had been a Member of Parliament in the 1870s but had not been accepted by the political culture of his days.

4   See Abraham Kuyper (1931), *Sphere Sovereignty*, in: Abraham Kuyper. A Centennial Reader 1, 461, 466 (James D. Bratt ed.).

in Eigen Kring", or "sphere sovereignty" has always been misrepresented and distorted, especially by Afrikaner anthropologists. The "sphere sovereignty" doctrine promotes the view that human life is "differentiated into distinct spheres", each featuring "institutions with authority structures specific to those spheres" (Wolterstorff, 2008:11). In his writings, Kuyper explicated his views by explaining that the notion of 'sovereignty in one's own sphere' broadly refers to institutions that comprise civil society. Kuyper (1931:96-97) argues that these institutions serve as a counterbalance to the state, ensuring that it (the state) "may never become an octopus, which stifles the whole of life". As a Calvinist, Kuyper offered a different conception of sovereignty, a "primordial" sovereignty which radiates in mankind in a threefold deduced supremacy, "viz.", sovereignty in the "state"; sovereignty in "society"; and sovereignty in the "church". In this study, I focused on sovereignty in the state and the sovereignty in society.[5] Kuyper (1931:96-97) defines the sovereignty of society as follows:

> *In a Calvinistic sense we understand hereby, that the family, the business, science, art and so forth are all social spheres, which do not owe their existence to the state, and which do not derive the law of their life from the superiority of the state, but obey a high authority within their own bosom; an authority which rules, by the grace of God, just as the sovereignty of the State does.*

The social institutions Kuyper refers to above are all "social" and communal institutions; they range from the smallest unit, the family, to churches and institutions of higher learning or associations. These institutions may be functional in nature and geographically widespread or politically discrete. Kuyper (1931) further argues that the state may not encroach on these separate spheres. These institutions are synchronised with the state but not subordinate to it.

The second type of sovereignty is what Kuyper call the "sphere of spheres" (sovereignty of the state) which embraces the whole extent of human life. Kuyper describes three obligations of the state as follows:

1. Whenever different spheres clash, to compel mutual regard for the boundary-lines of each;

2. To defend individuals and the weak ones in those spheres, against the abuse of power of the rest; and

3. To coerce all together to bear "personal" and "financial" burdens for the

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5   For a useful discussion on the three fold arrays sovereignty, see Kuyper (1931) lectures on Calvinism. Grand Rapids: Eerdmans.

maintenance of the natural unity of the State.[6]

Mouw (2007:87-89) explains that the state plays three central protective and boundary-maintaining roles. Firstly the state plays a role in the adjudication of intersphere boundary disputes. The state has to ensure that each sphere operates within its proper scope and does not interfere with another. Secondly, the state has an obligation to not leave the members of various social spheres to fend for themselves, but must intervene and protect them from exploitation within a particular sphere. Thirdly, the state has a responsibility to take measures for the provision of public goods such as infrastructure and military protection (Mouw 2007:89-90).

Finally, Kuyper (1931:467-468) considers the sovereignty of religious entities. He recognises the vital role that churches play but argues that no single church should dominate another.[7] The theory of sphere sovereignty requires comprehensive elucidation but it is unfortunately not possible to unpack it within this article. However, this brief summary provides sufficient insight into the contribution of Kuyperian sphere sovereignty and assists in understanding the concept of relations between the state and society as propagated by "volkekunde" advocates such as Eiselen.

It is clear from the discussion above that the modification or misrepresentation of the ideology underpinning the concept ethnos by Eiselen and Coertze contributed immensely to the shaping of South Africa's political landscape. The Afrikaner "volkekundiges" insisted that Black people be studied as distinct groups with unique and separate cultures and geographical locations. During the five decades of Afrikaner dominated government rule in South Africa, university departments that offered the subject of "volkekunde" were expected to contribute to the theory and practice of apartheid; in general they did what was expected of them. Eiselen confirmed his contribution to theory and policy towards the end of his career when he stated that:

> As a South African of European descent, closely connected earlier with the Bantu through mission endeavour, anthropological and linguistic research and also in the field of education, and now associated just as intimately with the moulding of our State policy and its translation into administrative practice, I naturally look at our problems from within and not in the detached manner of an indifferent outside observer (Eiselen, 1959:15).

6   See Kuyper, A. 1931. Sphere Sovereignty, in: *A Centennial Reader 1* supra note 106, at 467-68.
7   Kuyper regarded the church as fundamentally distinctive, and regarded its independence under the sovereignty of God as more fundamental than that of any other institution (Wolterstorff 2008).

It is imperative to note that Eiselen subscribed to political ideologies such as the one held by the Broederbonders.

Eiselen as a Broederbonder

In 1918 a secret organisation called the Afrikaner Broederbond (translated as "Association of Afrikaner Brothers") was formed. Its membership comprised less than 3000 and included several Cabinet Ministers and a number of leading Nationalist Members of Parliament. Eiselen played an important role in compiling some of the policy of this secret association. The main reason why the Broederbond was formed was described by its General Secretary, Mr IM Lombard as follows:

> The Afrikaner-Broederbond is born from a deep conviction that the Afrikaner nation has been planted in this country by God's hand and is destined to remain here as a nation with its own character and its own mission (Die Transvaler, 1944:1).

The Afrikaner Broederbond was formed to advance the Afrikaner cause and its interests. It aimed to find ways for Afrikaners to attain positions of power throughout the entire South African society. Wilkins and Strydom (1978:1) argue that the Broederbond was a fraternity that was formed "to harness political, social and economic forces… to Afrikaner domination" Verkuyl (1971:1) postulates that the Broederbonders were driven by two basic, ideologically-determined motifs: the Christian National motif and the "eiesoortige" (autogenous) motif. The first motif, the Christian National, promoted the idea that the Afrikaner nation was separate and should therefore be identified with western Christian civilisation. The second motif had the notion that the non-white groups were guaranteed, within certain limits, an "eiesoortige" (their own separate kind of) development (Verkuyl, 1971:1).

In 1933 the executive council of the Afrikaner Broederbond formulated a document which called for the settlement of 'different tribes' in separate areas, which over time would attain a certain degree of self-government under the supervision of the Native Affairs Department (Pelzer, 1979:163). Towards the end of the 1930s the Afrikaner Broederbond had shifted to become a Christian-national organisation which resisted any form of "samesmelting" (amalgamation) between the English and Afrikaners, and it succeeded in asserting itself as the institutional and intellectual core of the nationalist movement (Dubow, 1992:215).

Eiselen and the territorial zoning of the Bantu people

Many arguments were raised during various historical periods in South Africa in support of, or against the policy of separate territorial zoning or, as it was commonly referred to, of "separate development". The main argument advanced for territorial segregation was political, "viz." that non-whites on no account be allowed to become ordinary organs of government, whether on a national, provincial or local level. If non-whites were to be given a say in matters affecting their welfare, they were to do that in their separate institutions described as their "own" areas. Another fundamental key argument was that a cultural difference existed between the different groups of people making it impossible for different people to form part of one community. Segregation in South Africa had existed in history as a matter of custom and practice but after 1948, it was enshrined in various legislative frameworks (Soudien, 2006:41-43). On 29 March 1948, the National Party government, under the leadership of Dr DF Malan made the following statement:

> There are two sections of thought in South Africa in regard to the policy affecting the non-European community. On one hand there is the policy of equality… [o]n the other hand there is the policy of separation (apartheid) which has grown from the experience of established population of the country, and which is based on the Christian principles of justice and reasonableness.

> We can act in only one, one of two directions. Either we must follow a course of equality – which must eventually mean national suicide for the White race, or we must take the course of separation (apartheid) through which the character and the future of every race will be protected and safeguarded with full opportunities for development and self-maintenance in their own ideas, without the interests of one clashing with the interests of the other, and without regarding the development of the other as undermining or a threat to himself (United Nations, 1952:139-140).

Eiselen was not in total agreement with the segregationist ideology long before it could be legislated. For example, from the early 1920s, Eiselen had questioned the morality of the policy of separation to the extent that he even labeled the Hertzog Native Bills[8] as being morally suspicious. As the son of Berlin Mission Society parents, the theological principles of his parents had a significant bearing on his interpretation of and insights into government practices. For Eiselen, the benefit of racial domination or separateness

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8   Hertzog's Native Bills include: the Amendment to Natives Land Act of 1913 – a fund to enable the Natives to acquire land outside the existing reserve areas if it adjoined those areas; Representation of Natives in Parliament Bill – Bantu voters were to be removed from the common voters' roll in the Cape and 7 white representatives were appointed to represent the Natives in the House of Assembly; Union Native Council Bill – Union Native Council to be established comprising of Native delegates; the Coloured Persons Rights Bill – drawing up of a Coloured voters roll; and the Mines and Works 1911 Amendment Bill (Davenport, 1991).

of groups based on racial prejudice was of secondary importance when compared to preserving ethnic diversity amongst the Bantu speaking people. The preservation of culture in different locations (reserves) was of primary importance to him.

Eiselen (1957:114) stated that the development of the Bantu people should be within their communities:

> However, the most important result is the nature of the educational work of the German Missionary Societies in South Africa itself. It is supported by (the utilisation of) the vernacular as instructional medium and is directed at development within the own community.

> [Die vernaamste gevolg is egter die aard van die opvoedkundige werk van die Duiste sendinggenootskappe in Suid Afrika self. Dit word gedra deur die moedertaalmedium en is daarop toegespits om ontwikkeling binne eie gemeentskap te dien – original text].

This observation by Eiselen reflects the ideology of Bantu people developing in their "own" communities. As the son of a Berlin Missionary and an academic who studied anthropology and specialised in the study of Bantu languages, he believed in separation on the basis of cultural or ethnic identity. Fielder (1996:16), a German writer, posits that "volks" should be kept apart so that they can remain true to their cultural identities.

Eiselen, in his capacity as the Secretary of the Department of Bantu Administration and Development in 1959 further remarked that "neither of the great Bantu groups properly belonging to the Union [of South Africa] is by any means homogeneous either as regards language or culture" (Eiselen, 1959:2). He presumed that the majority of Bantu populations were firmly attached to different cultures along ethnic and linguistic lines and that they did not have the desire to do away with the traditional ethnic groups in order to form a single Bantu community. He stated:

> White South Africa is numerically not strong enough to absorb and can therefore only choose between being absorbed or surviving by the maintenance of separate communities. It has chosen the latter alternative. I do not think that any reasonable person will deny that in this they are acting in the natural and honourable way (Eiselen, 1959: 3).

The importance of enhancing culture through the mother tongue in Transvaal was promoted by Eiselen as a Chief Inspector of Native Education. In 1942, Eiselen sat on the Committee on Bantu Languages where the possibility of making Bantu languages available to Bantu students at a higher grade was explored. Eiselen promoted the idea that it is imperative and should possibly

be compulsory that the Bantu people in particular learn their own languages. The notion of the Bantu people being compelled to learn their mother tongue was in line with ethnos theory. The introduction of the mother tongue as a third language should be seen or interpreted in terms of the Bantu people adapting to a complex environment existing in space and time.

The development of a Bantu culture propagated by ethno-anthropologists such as Eiselen is commendable, but it should have taken into consideration a number of additional factors. Culture cannot be restricted to specific racial groupings and should take into consideration universal phenomenon applicable to the whole human being. Culture involves factors such as language, socio-economic and geographical development, and philosophy and art (Abutt & Pearce, [S.a]:11). In his project on separation of the Bantu people predominantly on the basis of cultural difference, Eiselen did not consider these factors. Mawasha (1969:144-145) mentions that Bantu education lost sight of the multi-racial and multi-cultural citizenry of South African society.

In his capacity as the Secretary of Bantu Administration and Development, Eiselen established Regional and Tribal Authorities whose main function was to advise or make representations to the Minister on matters pertaining to: the establishment of schools, bridges, roads, water facilities, soil conservation and forestry; to combat stock disease; to erect hospitals and clinics; and agriculture related matters (Eiselen 1959). The establishment of these authorities was in accordance with the resolution taken already in 1933 by the executive council of the Afrikaner Broederbond that different tribes be settled in separate areas, and that over time these would attain a certain degree of self-government under the supervision of the Native Affairs Department. These authorities had no real authority and were predominantly advisory bodies (Horrel, 1968). The issue or notion of ethnos referred to groups themselves but did not refer to designating a process in which groups were involved.

The introduction of the Bantu Authorities Acts was the Government's move to institutionalise its policy of separate development, something Eiselen openly supported. These institutions (separate locations) were to be created and they were not functional in nature, were geographically widespread and were not politically judicious as Kuyper suggested. The financial burden for the maintenance of these units fell on Regional and Tribal Authorities. These very same authorities were not given support. As someone who had immersed himself in ethnos theory, Eiselen was of the view that the state had to provide

all kinds of support to other spheres or institutions. Amongst others, the Nationalist government passed the Bantu Authorities Act of 1951[9] and the Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act of 1959.[10] The national units identified in the Bantu Authorities Acts were later to become the basis for the establishment of future Bantustans.

Eiselen and the Bantu Education Act of 1953

When the Commission on Native Education was set in 1949 under the chairpersonship of Dr Eiselen, Native education was still a controversial issue within the National Party government. The National Party believed that schooling was essential to promoting sovereignty. Dr Eiselen compiled a document known as the Eiselen Report. Kros (1996:326) is of the opinion that it is not the crude document it has often been thought to be, but that it is simply a report concerned with reordering of Black people and making an attempt to keep them in a servile status and on the marginal side of white society. The Report absorbed several predominant ideas of the time and it attempted to outline the foundations of a regulated education system. Soudien (2006:42) argues that the Eiselen Commission essentially laid out the philosophical and organisational foundations for the much of the affronting 1953 Bantu Education Act.

The Commission was expected to consider and report upon:

1. The formulation of the principles and aims of education for natives as an "independent race", in which their past and present, their inherent racial qualities, their distinctive characteristics and aptitude, and their needs under the ever-changing social conditions are taken into consideration.

2. The extent to which the existing primary, secondary and vocational education system for Natives and training of Native teachers should be modified in respect of the content and form of syllabuses, in order to conform to the proposed principles and aims, and to prepare Natives more effectively for their future occupations.

3. The organisation and administration of the various branches of Native education.

4. The basis on which such education should be financed.

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9   The Bantu Authorities Act of 1951 was established to create a machinery for enabling the Bantu people in certain specified areas to gain expertise in self-rule during a series of stages (Republic of South Africa, 1986:202).

10 The Act advocated the idea that the Bantu people of the Union of South Africa do not constitute a homogenous people but form separate national units on the basis of language and culture (Union of South Africa, 1959:514). This is precisely what Eiselen believed.

5. Such other aspects of Native education as may be related to the preceding. (Union of South Africa, 1951:7).

The other Commissioners who were involved in the Commission on Native Education were: Jan de Wet Keyter, Professor of Sociology and Social Work at the University of Free State; Andrew Howson Murray, Professor of Philosophy at the University of Cape Town; Peter Allan Wilson Cook, Malherbe's successor as Director of the National Bureau for Educational and Social Research; Gustav Gerdener, Professor of Theology at the Stellenbosch Seminary; Michael Daniel Christiaan De Wet Nel, a Nationalist Member of Parliament; and John Macleod, a former Chief Inspector of Native Education in Natal (Fleisch, 1994:243-244; Beyers 1981: 276-277). This clearly shows that the Commission comprised academics. Soudien (2006:44) points out that four out of eight appointees of the Commission were prominent Afrikaner 'race' intellectuals and that two (Eiselen and de Wet Nel) were important National Party members. It is noteworthy that none of the members was African (Davies, 1972:9).

After the Commission had completed its investigation, it came up with a Report which was divided into three parts: (1) The Bantu and the Present System of Education; (2) Critical Appraisal of the System of Education; and (3) Proposals and Recommendations.

The Commission was concerned with what Fleisch (2002:44) calls bureaucratic efficiency and social planning. Since the Commission was composed predominantly of academics, the Report was more of a technical document. The Commissioners were concerned about scientific facts and tables which detailed expenditure, enrolments, rates of retardation, examination scores, *etc*. The Commissioners' investigations exposed the inefficiencies of mission schools and revealed that Black people started schooling late, that classes were overcrowded and that teachers were inadequately trained (Union of South Africa, 1951:par 266-267; 579-588; 625-753).

The Commissioners believed that all aspects of Bantu education should be controlled and coordinated by the state. It recommended that the state took over the central control from the provinces and that the community take over local control from religious bodies (Union of South Africa, 1951: par 911). The executive authority for Bantu education was to be transferred to the Union Department of Native Affairs whereas local school levels were to be transferred to local Bantu Authorities. This arrangement was in line with

Eiselen's belief in the total separation of Bantu people for their own cultural development. This is confirmed by what he said in 1969 in an opening address at the Conference on Bantu Education:

> *After giving this matter much thought, I regretfully came to the conclusion that in order to achieve the latter aim the mission bodies would have to surrender their management of schools to Local Bantu Authorities truly representative of the entire community (Eiselen, 1969:8).*

The Commission further believed that the Bantu people should be involved in the educational affairs of their children. This is indeed a sound educational principle; however it had to happen in their own territories. At local level Eiselen was critical of the systems in place for management and control. When criticising the mission schools, Eiselen (1969:7) argued that the mission "schools existed within the community but were not of it. The parents had no knowledge of what was being done in the schools and no share in the conduct thereof". In some instances, Eiselen observed that different denominational rivalry existed and that there was an unsystematic distribution of physical resources. As an academic rooted in ethnos theory and "volkekunde" ideology which both take the language issue into consideration, it was important for him to ensure that the Bantu people receive education in their ethnic locations. In his opening address, he iterated the following:

> *By firmly anchoring the schools in the life of the people, education would no longer encourage escape from Bantu society but would fulfil its true function of uplifting the community as a whole and of training leaders for this community (Eiselen, 1969:10).*

Eiselen succeeded in ensuring that the home language be taken as a subject and used as the medium of instruction. Eiselen (1969:10) states that the reasons for the advancement of the language issue for Bantu people are twofold: it facilitates the process of acquiring meaningful and dynamic knowledge of their culture and it ensures that the Bantu people take part in their education.

Conclusions

A number of perspectives that come into play for one to understand Eiselen's contribution to the history of South Africa have been discussed. One can suggest that the proponents of the ideology of "volkekunde" played a crucial role in the particularization of South African political ideology, which over time has displayed itself in different ways. The different official and overlapping portfolios that Eiselen fulfilled helped him coordinate the formulation of

Afrikaner opinion which locked him into an Afrikanerdom encampment. Eiselen challenged racial inequalities and felt them to be morally unacceptable. However, he accepted official positions such as that of Chief Native Inspector in Transvaal and Secretary of the Department of Bantu Administration and Development and was also as a member of the Broederbond. This fact makes his claim for not being in favour of racial discrimination questionable and should therefore be understood in the context of ideological factors that influenced his thinking during various periods. Historians are usually trapped in a stance in which they fail to acknowledge the personal motives or circumstances surrounding prominent historical figures within the context that shaped their intellectual, political and social development. Eiselen's personal ideological background, as seen in some of his writings, interwove knowledge and power and this played a critical role in the legitimation of the apartheid government's social order and the configuration of African education. It is imperative that the contribution that Eiselen made to government policy and practice be understood and analysed in that context.

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Review Article

"Can Foucault come to the rescue?" – From dogma to discourse: Deconstructing the History of education for democratic subjects

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The history of South African education is still very much a suppressed and subjugated discourse hidden in the minds and experiences of the people. However, the history of education is arguably also in a state of decline. Recent publications in the field reveal little new and mainly reproduce what is already known. In this essay I will argue for a possible departure from existing ways of understanding the history of education by introducing innovative conceptual and analytical lenses to construct an alternative approach history of education. Post-apartheid South Africa is not only challenged to bring about material transformation of the foundations that perpetuate social inequalities and oppression, but also to address the intellectual grounds that (re)produced them. Dominant perspectives on the history of education are mainly fragmented and often one-sided and the historically marginalised of the pre-1994 period remain largely neglected. I suggest that in the current era, the dominant history of education lacks a democratic ethos partly because of the continued hegemony of traditional authorship that is embedded in existing theory and practice and partly due to the reticence of South Africans to tell their educational histories from where the potentially "new" could emerge.

Two recent publications by Booyse et al[1] and Kallaway[2] dealing with the history of education provide the intellectual material as context for my argument in favour of an alternative approach to the field. To this end I

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1   JJ Booyse, CS le Roux, J Seroto and CC Wolhuter (eds.), *A history of schooling in South Africa: Method and context* (Van Schaik Publishers, Second impression, 1064 Arcadia Street, Hatfield, Pretoria), 2011.
2   P Kallaway, "The forgotten history of South African education", *Southern African Review of Education,* 18-1: 7-23.

structured this essay as follows: a brief contextualization of the essay in the history of education at a South African institution of higher education; an exposition and application of the key Foucauldian concepts "archaeology, genealogy and technology of self" that provide the framework for a "self-reflexive historiographical method"; a critical viewpoint of the publications under review from a self-reflexive position; a comment on the limitations of dominant theory in the history of education; a conclusion that "self-reflexive historiography" as an alternative approach to the history of education can potentially offer an inclusive and democratic option to rejuvenate the field.

My current professional context is teacher education at an institution of higher education where I am teaching and coordinating the history of education module as part of the Bachelor of Education (BEd) degree. In the course of my work I often come across historical material that is outdated, long time rejected and often offensive but still persisting in textbooks and in popular discourse.[3] My context demands an awareness of diversity and a relevant, inclusive and democratic approach to the history of education. An alternative approach is suggested that departs from, but recognizes the dominant schools of history of education as discursive starting blocks in a race to transform. I am of the contention that an alternative approach may break the current cul de sac in the field and open possibilities for new ideas and action.

The role that education played in pre-1994 South Africa was intricately connected with the vision of an apartheid society based on racial classification, class differentiation and exploitation. Consequently the struggle against apartheid also became a struggle against apartheid education.[4] Paradoxically, an instrumentalist notion of education that failed apartheid survived in the post-apartheid dispensation as education is once again perceived as the vehicle to redress social ills. Needless to say, the educational discourse has been elevated to the status of dogma – an uncritical view of education

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3   As a lecturer teaching in multicultural classroom situations, I have to arrest my personal discourse in a professional context to ensure an ethical and intellectual position. These challenges bring about a deep self-reflexive inward search for expressions which would demand a respect of all.

4   Michael Cross argues that by imposing a racially segregated education system on South Africa and enforcing a Calvinist and Christian National Education philosophy, whereby different cultural groups were to have different and separate schooling systems. As white supremacist ideologies dominated education policy, the ruling group came to see culture as an important fact in legitimizing segregated schooling for blacks and excluding blacks from mainstream political, social and apartheid system frequently assumed the form of opposition to apartheid education and, in particular, opposition to particular forms of discursive representation and imposed identities. Cross' book focuses on the mechanics of 'other', what Spivak called domination or struggle "in and by words". Please see M Cross, *Imagery of identity in Southern African Education 1880-1990* (Carolina Academic Press, Durham, North Carolina), 1999.

as panacea. The history of education which was virtually part of "struggle scholarship" has arguably shown a decline in the post-1994 period. The questions I am addressing is therefore: What happened to the once vibrant history of education and given the context of a higher education teaching institution, does a "self-reflexive historiographical method"[5] offer an alternative, more inclusive and democratic approach to the history of education? What follows next is an exposition and application of the conceptual and analytical framework to construct a history of education.

My notion of a "self-reflexive historiography" is based in Foucault's methods of archaeology, genealogy and technology of self. Archaeology is concerned with an understanding of statements which are regarded as linguistic formations which according to Foucault do not comply with the normal rules of syntax and semantics. A statement signifies meaning which can only be understood as discourse. Disciplinary discourses such the history of education are regarded as discursive formations that are constructions of knowledge that came to be articulated as an effect of power. Discourse becomes meaningful statements in the context of the power relations in which its articulation is embodied. Because discursive statements are socially constructed, a self-reflexive historiographical mode of inquiry rejects history as the unfolding of a transcendental deterministic process. Its social construction takes place within the context of the author's biography. The second concept is "genealogy". The genealogical method insists that events must be analysed in terms of specificity and locality. Foucault is interested in the subject in its plurality in modern times. The subject is not a unified entity but rather constitutive of multiple facets formed under a plethora of historical transformations. The purpose of analysis is not merely for the sake of understanding history but rather to understand the present. Archaeology and genealogy want to understand the present as an effect of power. Foucault asserts that all societies have technologies of self which are tools to permit the individual to self-manage a certain number of operations on their bodies, souls and thoughts. The self is not fixed but rather fluid as it emerges from pre – discursive, discursive and

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5   In this article I borrow extensively from the work of Roland Sinto Coloma and his "self-reflexive historiography", *History of Education Quarterly* 51, No. 2, May 2011. Coloma employs Michele Foucault's historical method of archeology, genealogy and technology of self. I have taken my personal and professional practice as the context in which I have constructed this essay. I used my own subjective experiences and the two publications as data to illustrate how I apply this methodology.

non-discursive practices when it articulates discourse.[6] The embodied self can assert power which may be used as technologies to know and transform in productive ways.

A self-reflexive historiography involves Foucault's method of archaeology and genealogy with specific focus on the use of the technology of self as an insertion of the author's subjectivities and context as part of the narrative construction. I have located the use of archaeology to understand historical knowledge constructions as discursive statements open to multiple possibilities of interpretations. I used genealogy to counter historical narrative as a process of unfolding truth and progress. By inserting the subject into the construction of the narrative, all historical knowledge become social constructions of historians, and as such they are part of a network of social and institutional discursive relations. The use of the technology of self as a practical tool opens up possibilities of transforming thought and action.

In a deconstruction of Booyse et al and Kallaway with an application of Foucault's archaeological method, knowledge content concerning the history of education is regarded as selective statements taken from the vast archive of history. These statements became constructions of knowledge based on the subject positioning and context of the authors who select and omit what they want. The history of education is recorded in a complex set of discursive and institutional relationships which influences what is said and what remains unsaid. A linguistic take on discourse opens the possibilities for multiple meanings which are based on various subject positions. Why were certain explanations constructed instead of others? Or how do we choose to describe our past now in the present so that the history that we have chosen will continue to be meaningful in the future? This question concerns the ethical nature of history writing which should guard against representations that are false and constructed as grand narratives of truth. One way to avoid an unethical history is to insert the authorial subject into the archive when constructing history. What are the implications of inserting self into an ethical reading of Booyse et al and Kallaway? Put differently, what power positions influence the construction of discourse when it becomes knowledge. According to Foucault "power and knowledge directly imply one

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6 Foucault's theory of discursive practices regard society as a landscape of unpredictable linguistic expressions articulated in the context of the self in relation to self which involves reflexivity, emotionality and subjectivity. This is referred to pre-discursive. The discursive in contrast to pre-discursive refers to textual and social relations that influences discourse directly and non-discursive practices include all those non-linguistic, social and economic influences that impact on discourse formation. Howarth, D *Discourse*. Philadelphia, Open University Press, 2000, pp. 64-66.

another; that there is no power relation without the correlative constitution of a field of knowledge, (n)or any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations."[7] A biographical contextualization of the author will dispel any notion of an objective representation of a historical narrative. An alternative history of education will be compelling as it will be embedded in authentic experiences and not just a regurgitation and reproduction of existing knowledge without genealogy. A new history of education will allow different narratives to coexist and expose multiple interpretations of the present without privileging one above the other. A self-reflexive historiography is potentially not only democratic but also ethical as the author foregrounds his/her subjective position as the basis of discourse instead of seeing her/himself as fulfilling the transcendental aspirations of others. A self-reflexive historiography would be free from the traditional work of the historian of education who, according to Le Roux, commits to "duty to his own generation…. a duty to the people of the past… a duty to search after the truth to the utmost of his capacity…".[8]

Inserting the subject into the field of knowledge requires an identification of the intellectual biographies of the authors of a publication. The author is essentially unmasked and declares his/her's context which goes far beyond the mere institutional and professional identity. I had to insert and interrogate "deep self" to produce a technique that opened the possibility for the emergence of a new ethical subject. In practice I had to ask questions never asked before and find explanation never given before as part of my life history. While constructing this article, I opened myself to an understanding of the history of education from my own biographical position. I came to this discipline with experiences embedded in the apartheid era in which history was presented as distortions of the past, riddled with bias and ideology. There was always a suspicion about history and its official perspectives. Official history was regarded as state propaganda which was counteracted by "subversive" activities such as the reading of banned literature and attending meetings arranged by the political Left.[9] There was a clear distinction between "us" and "them" – the oppressed and the ruling classes. Exposure to banned literature

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7   Michel Foucault, Discipline and Punishment – The birth of the prison. Penguin Book, 1977:27.
8   Le Roux, History of Education Research, in JJ Booyse, 2011. These are presumably the duties of the historian of education as pursued by the publication which a self-reflexive historiographical method would question. Also refer to footnote 12 below.
9   During my earlier days at university students would circulate copies of banned literature on the history of South Africa to get a different perspective to what was being taught. Official history was regarded as propaganda and under the influence of some teachers, alternative perspectives were discussed. Radical histories such as that produced by the Unity movement were read. These types of literature have never become popular or mainstreamed as expected due to the continuation of a suppression of apartheid's truths.

inscribed on self a sense of power and confidence that had to be hidden from authorities for fear of recrimination. Banned history also instilled feelings of hatred for crimes such as genocide committed against innocent humans by colonialists. Self experienced feelings of humiliation and discrimination due to an unjust system accentuated by apartheid hatred.[10] I am a person with historical consciousness but had to wrestle tumultuous emancipatory struggles to preserve my humanity. A self-reflexive historiography contains confessionary truths that contribute to enlightened insights and new constructions of self.

When one reads "old" history as official in the post 1994 period, the reality dawns that there has been little intellectual transformation of the historical narratives. The reproduction of apartheid history presented as official literature in the present is evidence of the continuation of the power/knowledge relations that persists from the past. Through the method of a self-reflexive historiography – inserting me as author into the history brings about a new power/knowledge position based on experiences which could hopefully stimulate debate of a different kind. Previously prohibited "truths" were suppressed but emerged now as configurations of new truth. To write a different history would imply a reversal of perspectives and an incorporation of the suppressed subjectivities. The narrative should relay new insights, experiences and knowledge which should be the outcome of deep reflexive confessionary action to create an ethical consideration of the past.

According to Foucault ethics of the self involves moral conduct which is a self-forming technology that says something about the kind of being that we aspire when we behave in a moral way.[11] A technique of self involves the realization that a new history of education should accommodate the multiple subject positions that emerged from the past. Different power/knowledge relations produce discourses of different experiences and practices. The enunciation of discourse becomes an effect of power which creates the object that it speaks. The views expressed in the publications under discussion are representational discourses, subjectively constructed in specific timeframes. A genealogical perspective reduces history that is seen as grand narratives to subjectively constructed and biographically inspired statements. This is contrary to a read of the same history as objective reports that present history as an unfolding process of progress. The genealogical approach opens possibilities for change and transformation of diverse

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10 These are random selections of memory from my biography just to illustrate the potential of the method.
11 R Coloma, Who is afraid of Michele Foucault, 2011.

experiences which form part of a common history of education constituted by multiple voices inspired by a sense of ethics. It goes without saying that the insertion of a "self-reflexive historiographical method" would potentially bring a new ethical dimension to the work of Booyse et al and Kallaway that could redefine their scholarship in unprecedented and exiting ways.

Kallaway argues that the neglect of the history of education has been noted as a characteristic of the times. In a local context the notion of time in a historical frame implies the post 1994 period and on a global scale, timeframes converge roughly with the post-Cold War period. Higher education restructuring in post-apartheid brought a (re)categorization and regrouping of different disciplines. A notable change has been the combination of previous independent disciplinary departments into lesser and larger units which arguably promote interdisciplinary teaching and learning. The continuous recurriculation of teacher education would have to take some position on the place of the history of education in teacher education as a subject in need of transformation. I am of the opinion that the new discipline ought to be written from the perspective of archaeology and genealogy which places self as a guide towards greater knowledge but fully aware of the ethics of self and the power to produce new discourse. The new regime of truth creates opportunities for technologies of self to produce new subjects through confession which would construct their own versions of truth as part of a democratic history of education. The following section critiques the publications under discussion from a self-reflexive position.

As a comprehensive text in the history of education, Booyse et al defines the aims, methods and scope of the history of education. As a trustworthy publication, it is supported by the peer review process that it underwent and its claim to have adopted the guidance provided by Aldrich's three duties of a historian alluded to earlier.[12] The last two duties are concerned with scholarship in historical research and will remain open for future development but the first; duty to own generation, is in need of some clarification. South African historiography is known for its bias and marginalization of blacks. In light of the fragmented nature of historiography, a fair question to ask is whether the historians operationalized their "own generation" in a racially

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12 R Aldrich, A contested and changing terrain. *History of education in the 21st century,* D Crook and R Aldrich (eds.), *History of education in the 21st century* (London: University of London, Institute of Education), pp. 63-79. According to Aldrich the three duties of the historian are: the duty to their own generation, the duty to research and interpret history as "fully and accurately as possible" and to search the truth to the utmost.

exclusive way, or was the historical narrative inclusive of all South Africans? A post-apartheid history should be different to the history of the past. It should be a history of the present that aims at transforming the present by grasping its meaning more comprehensively. With reference to Booyse and co-authors, it remains to be seen whether old historical identities have transformed into democratic identities or whether traditional scholarship merely reasserted its power position and reproduced itself as old discourses in the new. An uncritical view of the way South Africans have been presented in the past takes a minimalist position on changing perspectives which hardly resonate with the requirements of our time. Therefore, a reasonable question for debate is suggested: Would a "self-reflexive historiographical" lens if adopted by Booyse et al, not transform the current debate in the history of education and make a positive contribution towards democratic scholarship?

The first two chapters of the book deals with scholarship and historiography. Chapter one by Wolhuter covers the historiography of South Africa from its earlier scholarship to post 1994. What is noteworthy in this chapter is the categorization of some scholars as those who embrace and those who reject the new political dispensation. This distinction is significant as it acknowledges that scholarship, subjectivities and politics are inextricably linked. It is also a useful distinction in light of the alternative analytical approach that I suggest in this essay: a closer link between the history of education as discipline and the historian's subject position. Chapter one identifies globalization as a potential context to write a "pan-human historiography" of the history of education. The chapter also cautions historians to be critical of: all contextual factors shaping education: guard against a-historicism; and guard against presentism. While Wolhuter suggests these three features of good history, they merely serve as guidance as there is little evidence that the book as a post-apartheid project offers anything significantly different from what is present in known texts.

Chapter two by CS le Roux sketches the professional scholarship within the history of education. The chapter provides some practical guidelines such as research resources and methodologies. Chapter three by J Seroto discusses African indigenous education in the pre-colonial era which arguably may be a welcomed contribution in a university textbook. The chapter implicitly (un) balances the predominantly white South African history of education with some indigenous content. The chapter presumably challenges the dominant western perspective of education by recognizing pre-colonial educational

systems as part of the history of education. It rejects the traditional view held by most scholars of history of education that an indigenous people were savages, pagans with no history and culture to transmit, based on the lack of formal schooling.[13] To dispel this obnoxious piece of racism that pervades in some literature[14] and in the popular imagination, Seroto could have drawn on recent research on African civilization such as the Malian civilization as evidenced by the Timbuktu manuscripts and the older Great Zimbabwean, not to mention the rich Northern and East African history of civilization that have not been mentioned. The chapter however, assists in moving towards a new history of education.

Chapters four to chapter eight are mainly reproductions of known histories of British and Afrikaner education in South Africa. These chapters mainly deal with the segregated histories of colonial education and remained Eurocentric. Wolhuter's final chapter addresses the post 1994 curriculum changes and challenges. Post-1994 South Africa was inspired by the new liberal democratic constitution. The chapter covers the period of reform until the announcement in 2009 by the Minister of Basic Education, Ms Angie Motshekga, that outcomes-based education curriculum would not be abolished, but that in some ways, the curriculum would revert to the way certain things had been done in the past.[15]

The nine chapters are wrapped between a prologue and epilogue describing sensitivities to the past and future of the field. The epilogue contextualizes the publication as a scholarly contribution to "a grossly neglected field of study". The epilogue keeps the "window" opened to allow for contemporary issues in the history of education to flourish. Issues identified in the epilogue are: the complex nature of historical theory and causality; education as not a panacea to all problems; educational reproduction and transformation;

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13   J Seroto, Indigenous education in the pre-colonial era. In Booyse et al 2011, pp. 37-52.

14   To illustrate that "social history" is characterized by debate, C S le Roux in chapter two, p 18 discusses its nature with reference to the different views held on the impact of the National Party's rule on black education. She asserts that while historians would not dispute that the National Party came to power in 1948, they could argue about the impact this had on the provision of, for example, education for black people. Some could argue it was positive because for the first time there was an organized strategy to provide formal education for black children whereas others would argue that the education proposed was aimed at further subjugating the black population to white dominance. This example used by le Roux is an appropriate one to illustrate Seroto's intellectual struggle to dispel pervasive racist beliefs amongst historians of education. While the example is not intended to reproduce antiquated National Party apartheid philosophy, but rather to present an example of "social history", its selection in a post 1994 publication should have been reconsidered given myriad possibilities for its interpretation as part of the text.

15   I Meyer, Epilogue. In Meyer et al, *Outcomes-based assessment for South African teachers* (Pretoria: Van Schaik), 2010. In 2011, the Curriculum and assessment policy statement (CAPS) became the most recent version of educational reform that were implemented since 1997.

education as instrument of control and power; education and ideology and lastly education as a site of struggle. The scholarly nature of this contribution is beyond doubt however, in light of the demands imposed by a democratic South Africa it falls short as an inclusive history of education as it expounds selective perspectives of mainly the Afrikaner nationalist and liberal schools in the history of education. To comply to a history that is true to its "own generation" as "accurately" as possible and in "search of the truth", as proclaimed in the prologue, would require a major intellectual project which should be debated by all stakeholders in democratic South Africa.

Kallaway laments the "forgotten history of South African education". A key concern in this article is "to access the role of recent history in an age of forgetting" when historians struggle to make sense of the past century and takes lessons from it.[16] Kallaway prefaces his views on Judt's (2008) critique of the notion that we are living in a time without precedent and that the post 1989 world marks the end of the Cold War. A market driven economic approach which subjects politics to enable economics, has replaced the welfare state. The welfare state is universally characterized as inefficient, ineffective and costly. Kallaway traces the history of modern mass education in critical international scholarship. The post-apartheid project aims at the eradication of a painful historical past which ought to be replaced by something with utilitarian value. Kallaway asserts that the history of education was abandoned in the post 1994 period as part of the neoliberal environment in which educational reform emerged following the structural adjustments prescribed by World Bank and the capitalist world.

While Kallaway's explanation for the decline of the history of education should be seen as part of the international capitalist crisis, Martin Legassick and Gary Minkley explained its decline as the consequence of the negotiated political compromise of the 1990s between the African National Congress and the white minority rule.[17] Legassick and Minkley explained that the transfer of power in South Africa was different from the decolonization of tropical Africa thirty years before when the African National Congress (ANC) accepted a liberal democratic constitution and agreed to work within a capitalist framework. Kallaway and Legassick's perspectives are complementing each other but do not offer any way out of the perceived deadlock in which the history of education finds itself today.

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16 Peter Kallaway, 2012: 8.
17 W Visser, 2004:16.

Kallaway's article also presents findings of a quantitative literature survey on the role of education in recent scholarship. He concluded that none of the schools of history – Afrikaner nationalist, liberalist, Africanist, revisionist or social history – have placed education at the center of the historical picture. He identified six dominant themes in the work of educational researchers: historiography, vocational education, gender, language, education in exile, curriculum, economics and adult education. All this, argues Kallaway, can be seen as the outcome of "policy culture" which Stephen Ball (1999) calls "performitivity" in policy. Performitivity emphasizes an efficacious and instrumentalist implementation of policy rather than critical engagement with local context and meaning.

Kallaway presents a challenge to educators to explore a deeper understanding of the history of education and its usefulness to improve policy. The perception of the current "state in an economic crisis" sounds very familiar to Kallaway's scholarship in the mid-eighties when the apartheid state was experiencing another "economic crisis". Unlike the lively status of the history of education at that time, the apartheid state was resisting the rationality of the market and persisted with its racial perspective on the future. While Kallaway's critique provides an economic explanation for the decline of the history of education, he implicitly demonstrates the theoretical philosophical underpinnings of his scholarship which will be discussed below.

Having explained some central features of each publication, and why history of education declined in popularity, I will briefly discuss the main theoretical schools informing the history of education: Afrikaner nationalism, liberalism and Neo Marxian revisionism. A project that is designed to contemplate a reconstruction of the future of education in a transformed South Africa cannot deny its "genesis, evolution and the nature of the current educational arrangement and the crisis it produced.[18]

In the pre1994 period South African historiography was preoccupied by lively debates contesting the nature of the past, present and the future. These different views developed into different historiographical schools each taking a theoretical subject position. One of the earlier publications on South African historiography was Harrison-Wright's "The burden of the

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18   Mokubung Nkomo, "Post-apartheid education: Preliminary reflections," In Michael Cross, *Imagery of Identity in South African education 1880-1990.*

present"[19] who analysed South African historiography in terms of its liberal-radical traditions. Wright's publication provided references and evidence for his categorization and he identified the historical epochs which contained conflicting ideologies.[20] However, a more recent review on the trends in the writing of South African history was done by Visser.[21] Visser provides a contemporary classification of historical schools and provides specific space for previously marginalized historians. He asserts that traditionally, historical writing on the history of South Africa has been divided into broad categories or historiographical schools, namely a British imperialist, a settler or colonialist, an Afrikaner nationalist, a liberal and a revisionist or radical school, thus reinforcing broadly Harrison-Wright's earlier categories. According to Visser, the emergence of social history is generally regarded as a by-product of the revisionist school, while some historians argue that the emergence of a black nationalist historiographical tradition stemmed partly from the radical approach during the years of apartheid. Visser refers to less referenced work and often ignored histories such as *The All-African Convention*: *The Awakening of a People* by IB Tabata,[22] Hosea Jaffe's *Three hundred years: A history of South Africa,* under the pseudonym "Mnguni", and Dora Taylor, under the pseudonym "Nosipho Majeke", who published *The role of the missionaries in conquest.* JK Ngubane's *An African Explains Apartheid* and Govan Mbeki's *South Africa: the Peasant's Revolt* were seminal critiques of South African history,[23] acknowledged by Visser. These historical works were regarded as essential readings for black intellectuals during the apartheid era.

While historians remained loyal to interpreting the past and search for the "truth" to the utmost of their capacity, they did so within a specific theoretical framework that contained its own features. The nationalists would theorize their fragmented history on the basis of common identity, experiences and future aspirations. The nationalist school of history is selectively represented

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19 Harrison M. Wright, *The burden of the present: liberal-radical controversy over Southern African history,* David Philip, Cape Town, 1977.

20 C Gordon, *Michel Foucault,* "Truth and Power," In *Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews and Other Writings, 1972-1977.* Colin Gordon ,New York: Pantheon, 1980, 109-33.

21 W. Visser, Trends in the history of South African historiography and the present state of historical research , University of Stellenbosch, Paper presented at the Nordic Africa Institute, Uppsala, Sweden, 23 September 2004

22 The reader is referred to CS Rasools' PhD thesis, University of the Western Cape, The individual, auto/biographical history, 2004. Rasool provides a rare history of resistance and political biography in which an alternative perspective to the official historical narrative is provided. A new history of South Africa would draw extensively on this thesis for resources and critical perspectives on political processes and biographies.

23 Visser regrettably classified these works as "propagandistic" while no such reference is made to works in mainstream historiography. This kind of bias are often undetected and passes as authoritative views on historiography of South Africa.

in the work of Booyse et al. The liberal school emphasized in their scholarship the liberalizing consequences of market rationality and the eventual disappearance of race as a determining factor in the social hierarchy. The liberal school's economic trajectory is further challenged by incessant inequality and unemployment, suggesting a possible threat to, at least, the quality of democracy in the country.[24] In the post 1994 period, Crankshaw argues that deindustrialization[25] has not produced a large class of black low-wage service-sector workers but instead it produced a professionalization occupational structure alongside high unemployment.[26] While the traditional schools of the history of education are inextricably connected to a political ideology, a new pathway may want to reject this kind of determinism and depart from such affinities and remain open to new ideas in an uncertain future.

  As in the case of the liberal school of history, the revisionist-radical school espoused certain limitations and contradictions. Deacon[27] criticized radical-revisionists Bozzoli and Delius'[28] who arguably adopt a "logocentric and essentialist" view of the class struggle in South Africa. Deacon asserts that the notion of class in South Africa emerged as part of working class consciousness of the oppressed but the working class appeared to be oriented towards nationalism than socialism. The construction of a hegemonic discourse as a particular interest masquerading as general interest, says Deacon, is a violent suppression of diversity in its attempts to close off discourse and debate.

Deacon's argument is that a regime of truth that is discursively constructed should be embedded in practice and located in the subjectivities of those involved. Consciousness of one individual cannot be transferred to the consciousness of a group. Collective consciousness which is associated with a common idealistic awareness of the working class is an ideology that is not rooted in practice. The Marxian notion of a class-in and a class-for itself becomes an ideological and not practical construction. According to Deacon discourse cannot stand outside practice – discourse is practice, a position that neo-Marxists have neglected in favour of ideology.

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24 H Bhorat and C Van der Westhuizen, Poverty, Inequality and the nature of economic growth in South Africa, 2012, Development Policy Research Unit, University of Cape Town, November 2012.

25 Deindustrialization refers to the closure of previously vibrant economic sectors such as the textile industry in the Western Cape that was significantly reduced when South Africa became part of the global economy.

26 O Crankshaw, Deindustrialization, professionalization and racial inequality in Cape Town, *Urban Affairs Review,* 48, (6), 836-862.

27 R Deacon, "Hegemony, Essentialism and Radical History in South Africa", *South African historical journal*, 24 May 1991, pp. 166-184.

28 B Bozzoli and P Delius, "Radical History and South African Society", *Radical History Review,* 46/7 (winter 1990), p. 13.

A new approach to the history of education has to take into account the lessons of the past. While Afrikaner nationalist have seen apartheid being dismantled, the liberals are witnessing the growth of inequalities and unemployment, the radical - revisionists miscalculated the endgame in South African politics. These projects in the history of education have a number of common features which expose their limitations and which should serve as lessons of history.[29] Firstly they were all products of established ideological schools with equivalents elsewhere. Thus, histories written from a nationalistic, liberal or radical perspective were informed by theoretical foundations which subjected practice to theory. They all expound a local version of a meta-narrative claiming context as frame of reference. Secondly, they all present their perspectives as grounded in an empirically based social science. The notion of social science views the production of knowledge as expressions of truth and took for granted the power positions of those who expounded the knowledge. Thirdly, their expressions of truth are couched in totalizing and essentialist language which neglect the complex meanings of words and concepts when expressed as discourse. The possibility of multiple linguistic meanings is often ignored. And lastly the development of their ideas is informed by an assumption of rationality that underplays the complexities of subjective meaning in discourse and practice. Based on Foucault's archaeology, genealogy and technology of self, I have illustrated above the potential of a self-reflexive historiography as a possible rescue from the theoretical intransigence in the history of education.

Lastly, I summarize and conclude this essay. I approached the historiography of South African history from the perspective of Michele Foucault's notion that all societies construct their own regimes of truth. The dominant theoretical discourses on the history of education have been presented and analysed as historical projects that have expounded contending and contesting discourses as "regimes of truth". As a historical moment, the negotiated political settlement that marked the beginning of the post- apartheid period represent in Foucault's terms a major rupture and discontinuity in the history of South Africa. I have critically engaged with the three major schools of history of education and argued for recognition of subjectivities of authors through the insertion of self to understand these schools as socially constructed historical narratives. A self-reflexive historiographical approach would be a departure from the dominant teleology and instrumentalism that became a common feature in historiography.

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29 Peter Kallaway refers to possible lessons to be learnt from history such as to "understand the perennial complexity of the questions" in the words of Judt.

This essay sought to explain the suppression of discourse when a new regime of truth emerged in the post 1994 period. The hurry-scurry of the TRC to paper over the cracks of centuries of oppression and injustices, subverted the intellectual project of the history of education into its present cul de sac. The new regime of truth and reconciliation perplexed the critical senses of the intellectual class that was caught up in the euphoria of a democratic dispensation perceived as the triumph of political struggle. Having positioned myself in an authorial role my biographical experiences provided a lens to critique the intellectual foundations in the two publications discussed above. I came to realize the subjective and multiple nature of truth in the history of education and the ethical considerations necessary for other perspectives to transform their thought and practices. A Foucault's methodology does not only provide a way to break the silence that dominates the history of education, it also creates new possibilities to construct a transformative history of education that is inclusive and democratic and relevant to the present.

To answer the questions set at the beginning of this essay: what happened to the once vibrant history of education, and does "self-reflexive historiography" offer an alternative approach to the history of education; I argued that the history of education went through a period of decline with the emergence of a new regime of truth. By using a "self-reflexive historiography" methodology, the deconstruction of existing meanings of historical events can be used to produce new discourses of truth. While there may be a need to resuscitate the broad field of history and education, it should not follow the prescriptions of the old narrative, informed by ideology and power abuse. A history of education should be guided by self-reflexivity to transform self to become new ethical subjects in an inclusive and democratic society. As there are multiple accounts of the past and the modern lecturer in the history of education may have to create space for the student to engage with different narratives at the same time, the question remains: Can Foucault be called to the rescue?

Book Reviews

Kgalema Motlanthe: The Situation? A Political Biography
(Jacana Media, Johannesburg 2012, 420 pp. ISBN 978–1–4314–0438-4)
Ebrahim Harvey

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"To volunteer leadership is the antithesis of democracy" (p. 37)

Ebrahim Harvey offers what some have called a hagiography, but, if one squints hard enough, a man which many young people like myself know very little about, emerges from the pages and his life story yields great insight and divulges a tale of a stoic, pious, complicated and dutiful member of the ANC. In declaring the preface Harvey made known his respect and admiration for Motlanthe, and his attempt to distance himself so as to produce a text which would be both critical and credible (p. x). He further hoped that the book will enable the public to get to know and understand Kgalema, "very much better than before". Harvey declared that he would be fiercely honest, whatever the research uncovered, and "comprehensively unpack the dream itself, within which Motlanthe's politics are situated" (p. xi). "With any political biography the author has to strike a fair balance between praising strengths and criticising failures" (p. xiv), alas from my reading, Harvey failed to achieve his own objective in this regard. I found myself desperately trying to silence (sometimes root) his veneration of Motlanthe in the pages as he vehemently crafted Motlanthe's beautification manuscript. Harvey's work would be described as a "critical" biography, its objectives are to analyse and explain rather than describe the subject, but biographies are often complex combinations.

In 2009 Motlanthe is quoted to have said, "In the struggle for liberation you do what you have to and can do. If you end up a leader it must be accidentally and not as a result of an ambitious goal that singularly drives you" (p. 257). And, in 2012 when the ANCYL wore T-shirts bearing his face as the next

president he rebuked them (p. 344). Through a Machiavellian lens, Motlanthe would be ambiguous and possibly flounder as a leader as, "irresolute princes, to avoid present dangers usually follow the way of neutrality and are mostly ruined by it". Motlanthe's reserved, measured and cognisant demeanor when considered with Rudyard Kipling's poem "If" that he much enjoys; is possibly his trump card, but with hindsight it has turned out to be his Achilles heel. But who is this sage affectionately known as Mkhuluwa by those close to him? Kgalema Petrus Motlanthe a child of an Alexandrian tenant, was born on the 19th of July 1949 to Louis Mathakoe Motlanthe and Masefako Sophia Madingoane, and has two younger brothers (p. 3). He grew-up in Alexandra attended school at Pholosho Primary, an Anglican Missionary School, in 1956 at age eleven his parents were forcibly removed from Alexandra to Meadowlands (p. 8). Harvey writes that Motlanthe's time at the Anglican School and as an altar boy had a huge influence on him but, but from about 1970 when he was 21, "he spent less time in church activities, more with soccer, and increasingly got into politics, specifically with the ANC" (p. 14). Motlanthe could have been a priest, as he was awarded a bursary to go study in Swaziland, but the Bantu Affairs Department turned down his application to leave the country in 1964 (p. 16). In 1969 he got a job in the Johannesburg city Council's commercial unit, this is where he met Stan Nkosi who would be his closest friend and comrade in years to come (p. 21).

Motlanthe's political career is most interesting and richly detailed by Harvey. By 1977 his political consciousness had overruled his religious beliefs (p. 18); he and others formed a group and established contact with the ANC (banned in April 1960), joined MK and recruited ANC sympathisers. In 1974 at age twenty-five, Motlanthe had begun taking MK recruits out of South Africa to Mozambique and Swaziland, but through information elicited from tortured comrades, his whereabouts were disclosed and he was arrested on April 13, 1976 under the Terrorism Act for MK activities (p. 28). He began his 10 year sentence in Robben Island on August the 2nd, 1977. His style of leadership was noticed by many on the Island, his foresight, pragmatism and ability to analyse problems brilliantly and evoke caution in others still characterise him (p. 38). His interest in political education bourgeoned whilst on the Island, and Harvey details the "iNqindi versus Marxism" debated which circulated the cells in 1978 (p. 53).

Motlanthe's personal and political growth is evident in the pages, as he grappled and combined African nationalism and socialism, enmeshed with

the political trajectory and maturity of the ANC. His relationship with his then wife Mapula suffered as a result of his imprisonment. She became estranged and later had an affair, but they patched things up for a while, until their divorce in 2012. He was released from prison in April 1987 and in June joined NUM as an education officer; an industrious employee especially when he became acting general secretary in 1992 (p. 72). Motlanthe had to adjust his "lofty ideas from the Island" to the reality of what NUM was up against, and NUM had to adjust to his measured stance, which was very different to Ramaphosa and Mantashe's aggression (p. 81). It was in political education and teaching miners the history of the ANC and the labour movement that Motlanthe made his biggest mark in NUM (p. 88). He never operated solely as a unionist, he wore several hats: NUM, Cosatu, ANC and SACP for many years (p. 91). He pulled out of the SACP central committee after he became secretary-general of the ANC in 1997. His measured; discussant style of leadership was not always appreciated by NUM employees, as some saw this as a sign of indecisiveness (p. 114). Mantashe described Motlanthe as a man, "that fakes weakness…but his unassuming character is both a strength and a weakness" (p. 118).

Motlanthe served two terms as secretary-general of the ANC from 1997 to 2002 and 2003 to 2007, and in typical style was reluctant to rise to the occasion (p. 124). During Motlanthe's second term as SG, Thabo Mbeki marginalized him, but Motlanthe denials this, he was also heavily vexed by the lack of accountability of cadres and the ANC deployment to government (p. 130). Harvey provides rich detail about this period of Motlanthe's life and Motlanthe supposedly, reluctantly held his tongue on many issues where he disagreed with Mbeki (p. 155). Once again, some in the ANC thought he pondered too long on issues, but Motlanthe saw his position as SG as one that required him to, "think very hard and find means to intervene…and marshal arguments which would hold things together in the ANC" (p. 157).

Plato's simile of the cave comes to mind when reading of Motlanthe, as his SG reports tended to stress the ANC's biggest weaknesses and dangers; he was vexed that some saw the ANC as a gateway to personal riches (p. 213) in his last address as SG he openly criticised the NEC and high ranking leaders for engaging in factionalist activities (p. 223). At the June 2012 Harold Wolpe memorial lecture Motlanthe stated, "the ANC will denigrate further if it fails to carry out a rigorous self-critical review of what eighteen years of its rule have really achieved" (p. 349). Gevisser commented that Motlanthe's

role in the ANC can be liken to a calling, "with a responsibility to lead the people because you can see further than them and it is your responsibility to educate them" (p. 300). "The ANC must go back to the masses, and restore its credibility among them and their faith in it. The people must feel the ANC is their instrument" (p. 338).

Chapter six is a chapter that many people would be familiar with as the factionalism and sediments in the ANC rose to the surface for the nation to see, and most people abruptly came to know of a chap called Kgalema. Motlanthe, a man who has big qualms and reservations about the process of cadre deployments (p. 235), in September 2008, was deployed to the most influential position in the country; the first citizen. Harvey in grappling with Motlanthe's stance on political deployment in chapter six, seems not to garner Motlanthe's own feelings about being a deployed cadre, perhaps Motlanthe saw himself as being skilled and right to fill the "casual vacancy" as the countries president; a "reluctant president". Harvey speculated that the ANC needed someone on the new NEC whom both factions trusted and Motlanthe had tenacious abilities to mediate between the still-warring groups (p. 242). He became an MP on the 20th of May, 2008, a minister on the 12th of July and South Africa's third president on the 25th of September (p. 244).

In 2008, Motlanthe was deployed as the man needed for the job and he filled the "casual vacancy". In 2011 Steven Friedman commented, "he found himself in a situation where if he really wanted to make a mark they would make life hell for him" (p. 81). His stoic demeanour and old school principles prevented him to do what was necessary to ensure that in Manguang, his stint filling the "casual vacancy" could offer him a more permanent position as the first citizen in 2014.

In Chapter 9, Motlanthe's gait on his Lipizzaner stallion picks-up to a gallop, over the hedges and under the branches, in a mad dash to the finish line, where he jumps off; takes-off his hat, and positions himself on the pedestal. At this moment, Harvey kneels and extends his hands out in supplication; offering his beautification log-book to Walter Sisulu and the nation. Harvey's work requires three pinches of salt, if not the whole spoon.

Govan Mbeki: Tribute or treatise?

(Jacana Media, Johannesburg 2012, 168 pp. ISBN 978-1-4314-0487-2)

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Written in an energetic and engaging style, Bundy's biography of Govan Mbeki offers the reader an accessible entré to a fascinating and complex period of South African history, seen through the life story of one of South Africa's great struggle heroes.

Bundy's painstaking research provides a wealth of detail that adds an extra dimension to the historical facts and his use of quotations is both relevant and pertinent. His interest in, and admiration for, his subject is evident throughout – at times, one feels, almost at the cost of academic objectiveness.

The format and presentation of the book is clear and easy to use, with interesting chapter headings, powerful opening sentences, and good use of paragraphs. The clear footnotes, well-organised bibliography and index, and the use of shaded pages for additional information about particular events mentioned in the narrative make the book an accessible source for students of history. However, Bundy's use of emotive language in describing events and people is at times at odds with the balanced prose usually associated with an academic work and his predilection for alliteration sometimes has the effect of rendering the prose self-conscious.

Bundy's grasp of the political canvas against which he paints his subject is evident in his cogent and insightful analysis of the events of the liberation struggle. However, one is never in any doubt that this is essentially a portrait of one of the struggle heroes and, like many commissioned portraits, at times verges on the flattering. There are a number of occasions when conflicting views are swiftly submerged in the overall tide of goodwill, which rings a warning bell about the objectivity of his portrayal of Mbeki.

Bundy's biography reads like a work of fiction and I believe that this will make it a popular resource for history students, particularly those of high school age. However, I would advise those planning to use the book for academic research into Govan Mbeki and this period of South Africa's history to consult other sources as well in order to gain a balanced, unbiased view of the subject matter.

Mapping – Bridging Diversity. Foundation of a European Discourse on History Education. Part 2

(Wochenschau Wissenschaft, 396 pp. ISBN: 978-3-89974732-4)

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Facing – Mapping – Bridging Diversity, Part 2 is the follow-up edition of a European discourse on history education. This book consists of the contributions of 13 different history didactics authors of the European Union who describe the scientific discourse on history education in their respective countries. In this issue, the contributions of countries such as Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom are acknowledged. The contributions of Bulgaria and Luxemburg are unfortunately lacking.

The respective authors followed a particular framework based on the German discourse of history didactics. With the writing of this book, the scientific point of departure was that history didactics amounts to much more than the mere history lesson and its concomitant teaching and learning methodologies. For this reason, the scope is much wider and the didactic research focuses on the contributions of the historical culture and historical consciousness of particular societies as well. The provided framework serves an important purpose in the sense that it provides important parameters

for readers to be able to distinguish both similarities and differences in the approaches of the different countries. At the same time, it serves as an important platform to encourage a European dialogue on Didactics of History in an effort to bridge the revealed diversity. Where there is agreement, it will provide opportunities for future international scientific discourses that will enhance further developments in the field of the didactics of history. This framework does not merely provide a systematic approach to every article, but also provides the required structure in that it places the respective articles in an interrelationship. This is undoubtedly a clear and strong point of the book.

At the end of the book, the editors give the reader a striking synopsis of the most important challenges facing the didactics of history in the countries referred to above. In Italy, for instance, state officials in charge are criticised for their mindset that the didactics of history ought not to be given marked preference in the country. At the same time, there is an appeal in the Netherlands too for more to be done in training teachers in the didactics of history. Teachers in the Netherlands and in Poland also were not of the opinion that they needed to gain any theoretical knowledge regarding history didactics, since they believed that they had acquired adequate practical knowledge through the years and that this would suffice. In the Netherlands, there is a perception that history education can do more to reinforce social solidarity for the creation of a distinctive national identity. In the Slovak Republic, there is a challenge to integrate Slovak national history with history education. Apparently, this is not an easy task, since they shared their history for some time with the now Czech Republic. In the United Kingdom, conservative politicians would like to see a return to the way in which history was presented in the past when learners were confronted with a multitude of important events, dates and personalities of the British past. In Malta and Slovenia there is a threat of history losing its status as an independent subject to simply form part of a combination of subjects.

In conclusion, this book, together with Part 1, is a welcome and comprehensive addition to the historiography and literature on the didactics of history in the member states of the European Union. It will be of use especially to students, lecturers, educationalists and curriculum planners who would like to broaden their theoretical horizons with regard to this topic. However, whether this book will have any practical value for history teachers in the classroom by way of contributing to the improvement of their teaching and learning methodologies is, to a large extent, to be called into question.

Research Report

Stress management and History skills training for History teachers in the Lejweleputswa District, Free State Province

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Introduction

On 11 and 12 July 2013 twenty History educators of the Lejweleputswa District in the Free State attended a two-day skills training workshop at Leseding Technical Secondary School in Welkom, Free State Province. This workshop formed part of an on-going community engagement project of the Department of History at the University of South Africa (Unisa), managed by an academic in the History Department and financed by the Unisa College of Human Sciences. It flowed from, and expanded upon, a similar workshop in August 2012, the proceedings and research findings of which were published in a previous edition of this journal.[1]

Objectives

This community engagement project strives to empower History teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge to teach the current History and Social Sciences school curricula more creatively and effectively; to provide them with additional resource materials as well as didactical and emotional support; to network with both teachers in this part of the Free State and officials of the Department of Basic Education at district and provincial level; and to bridge the gap between academic historians and History teachers who carry the responsibility of keeping the historical discipline alive at ground level. In addition, the project strives to develop the emotional competencies of

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1   HJ Lubbe, "Researching and developing the emotional intelligence of history teachers in the Lejweleputswa District, Free State (South Africa)", *Yesterday & Today*, 8, December 2012, pp. 47-61.

History teachers, often working under challenging conditions,[2] in the interest of effective self-management and career development. Moreover, the project includes a community-engaged research component which originally started as a personal initiative of the academic historian involved, but has subsequently been drawn into a broader, newly developed framework of community-engaged research at Unisa. Within this particular context, there is a growing emphasis on involving participants in all aspects of the research design and execution, to honour the principles of community-engaged research ethics, and to ensure that participants receive maximum and sustained benefit from the intervention.

Two key questions guided the research during the July 2013 phase of the project: "What are the stress levels of History educators in the Lejweleputswa District?", and "How can these educators be assisted in coping more effectively with stress in their lives?"

Programme content and methodology

In order to achieve all of the above objectives, the first day of the workshop focused on stress management. The participants were first informed of the context and objectives of the workshop, the methodology that would be used (including photography and video photography[3]), and the way in which the research findings would be used and preserved. They were also encouraged to ask questions and were assured that they would be free to withdraw from the project at any time. The participants eventually signed a consent form[4] which provided the necessary permission to proceed with the project as planned.

Participants were then guided through a variety of enjoyable interactive activities which enabled them to explore the difference between "positive" stress (eustress) and "negative" stress (distress), the main causes of stress, the potentially damaging effect of excessive stress on a person's health, and popular methods of dealing with stressful situations. Interestingly, financial pressures were mentioned most frequently during discussions around the reasons for high stress levels in the group. This complements other stressors that were raised in the workshop of 2012 – factors such as overcrowded class rooms, lack of resources, the pressure on History as a subject, apathy among learners, the language issue, cultural diversity in the classroom, and lack of knowledge and skills on the part of the teacher.[5]

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2 See Lubbe, "Researching and developing the emotional intelligence of history teachers…", *Yesterday & Today*, 8, December 2012, pp.48-9,54.
3 The History Subject Advisor was subsequently provided with photographs of group activities and video footage on DVD for distribution among the educators and education officials. A video clip was also posted on YouTube.
4 Department of History (hereafter DH), Short Course File (hereafter SCF) 22: Consent forms.
5 See Lubbe, "Researching and developing the emotional intelligence of history teachers…", *Yesterday & Today*, 8, December 2012, pp. 54-5.

The participants were also offered an opportunity to have their stress levels and levels of resilience ("stress fitness") measured, their leaning towards a Type A or Type B personality assessed, and assisted in determining how balanced their lifestyles were through the completion of various questionnaires. These questionnaires were kindly made available by *Call on the Professionals*, a corporate company that specialises in human dynamics and emotional intelligence training, and supports this community engagement project free of charge.

Finally, participants were provided with a range of stress management techniques which should assist them in coping more effectively with stress in their working environment and other life situations. These techniques included developing the correct perspective on self, life, people, problems, time and inner life; improving "stress fitness"; changing Type A behaviour; creating a better balance in life; mending broken relationships; and applying practical techniques for coping with intense stress during emergency situations.

Apart from questionnaires – most of which contained scaled questions and represented the quantitative element in a mixed-mode methodology – participants engaged in pair work, group work activities and focus group discussions. These methods generated rich qualitative research data and had the added bonus of strengthening collegial relations and offering participants emotional support through reflection and mutual sharing of ideas, life experiences and feelings. Video and photographs[6] of group activities visually captured the group dynamics as they were unfolding and served as a valuable tool in the transfer of learning to the workplace. Apart from visual evidence, participant evaluation of the session (see Point V below) generated written feedback (archival material) which is currently preserved in the Unisa History Department.[7]

Day 2 was devoted to History skills training in an attempt to address one of the stressors identified during 2012. The programme for the day included a practical session on historical writing during which participants experimented with practical techniques to teach extended writing in their classrooms, more particularly the writing of an effective introduction to a History essay and the planning of logically constructed paragraphs that would ensure logical flow of argument.[8]

In addition, participants were shown photographs of street name changes in Pretoria and encouraged to think of creative ways in which the material could be used in the classroom. Each participant received a full set of these photographs on a CD which also included sample assignments (designed around the street name photographs), resource material from the internet, assessment guidelines and marking rubrics, as well as suggestions for the use

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6   DH, SCF 23: Workshop photographs and video.
7   DH, SCF 21: Participant feedback, Doc 1-11.
8   DH, SCF 25: Writing workshop documents, Doc 1 &2.

of the material in teaching oral investigation, heritage investigation, research skills, poster making, poster presentation, and extended writing.[9]

Research findings

The research findings generated on Day 1 indicated that only 10% of the group had an average level of stress, while 50% (10 individuals) experienced above average stress in their lives. More alarmingly, 40% of the group (8 individuals) reported an excessively high stress level which suggested a potentially serious health risk and therefore called for immediate action. To make matters worse, 38.9% of those participants who reported either excessive or above average stress, had predominantly Type A personalities. Fortunately, most of the educators in this group proved to be quite resilient – a characteristic that could certainly assist them in coping with their stressful lives.[10]

Some participants in the "excessive stress" category admitted that they had been unaware of the seriousness of their condition and appreciated the enhanced awareness that the workshop had created.[11]They also benefited from the compassion displayed by both their colleagues and the facilitators.[12] The History Subject Advisor of the Lejweleputswa District, Ms Cecilia Khoabane, who assisted with logistical arrangements for the workshop and is currently helping to sustain the impact of the project through cluster training and individual contact with the educators, was requested to help monitor the stress levels of those educators most at risk and provide them with additional emotional support. The rather disturbing research findings were further conveyed to the Education authorities via the Provincial Subject Coordinator, Mr MP Mofokeng, who joined the group on the afternoon of Day 1.

Participant Feedback

Participant feedback on the first day of the workshop was very positive and radiated deep gratitude – not only to the facilitator but also to the History Subject Advisor without whose perseverance and drive they "would have missed a treasure". The stress management component was described as a "not-to-miss" workshop that was "well planned", "informative", "enriching", "comprehensive", and an "eye-opener" to those who had been unaware of how stressed they actually were. They found the stress management techniques empowering in strengthening their relationships with life partners, colleagues and friends and improve every aspect of their lives, including their own personality – in short, a "whole life weapon" that could be used very

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9   DH, SCF 24: Street name photographs, sample assignments and other resources.
10   DH, SCF 20: Research results.
11   See, for example, DH, SCF 21: Participant feedback, Doc 1.
12   See DH, SCF 21: Participant feedback, Doc 2, 6 and 9.

fruitfully in the home, workplace and community environment.[13] These positive experiences of the stress management component of the workshop were echoed by Mr Mofokeng who argued that all teachers – not only History educators – should be exposed to the program.

Due to lack of time, participants were unfortunately not able to submit immediate written feedback on Day 2 of the workshop. However, two appreciative SMS messages were received after the workshop: one celebrating the introduction of Unisa to their region and appreciating the practical session on historical writing;[14] the other thanking the facilitator for screening and sharing the street name photographs and other resources on DVD, all of which he/she plans to integrate into a heritage assignment in 2014.[15]

Conclusion

The community engagement workshop of 11 and 12 July 2013 in Welkom clearly achieved much more than answering the two research questions. Not only did it reveal high levels of stress among History educators in the Lejweleputswa District, but it also provided participants with practical tools that can be used to lower stress levels and enhance quality of life. In addition, the workshop strengthened relationships among the participants and provided those who needed emotional support with compassion during focus group reflection and discussion. Moreover, the intervention reinforced trust between the Unisa History Department and the Lejweleputswa teaching community and opened up possibilities for the extension of the programme into other provinces of South Africa.

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13   DH, SCF 21: Participant feedback, Doc 1-9.
14   DH, SCF 21: Participant feedback, Doc 10.
15   DH, SCF 21: Participant feedback, Doc 11.

Maritzburg College is proud to host the 27th annual conference of the South African Society for History Teaching on 27 – 28 September 2013

Introduction

The conference organisers are delighted to announce that Prof Jonathan Jansen (pictured), the much-admired Rector of the University of the Free State, has agreed to deliver the conference's keynote address on Saturday, 28 September, on "Why the first year university students dread talking about the past – and what schools can do about it."

About the conference

The South African Society for History Teaching (SASHT) is the official mouthpiece of history teachers in South Africa, especially those at secondary schools and tertiary institutions. It is anticipated that about 150 – 200 teachers and lecturers will attend the conference, many from beyond KwaZulu-Natal.

Conference theme: *Teaching and Learning History in a 21st Century African Classroom*

The sub-themes of the conference are:

- Disseminating research by historians in GET, FET and HET History curricula
- Disseminating indigenous knowledge/local history/regional History in the classroom for a better understanding/complementing of curriculum themes
- Bridging teaching, curriculum and examination constraints
- Ways of overcoming the generational disconnect
- Modern media: threats and opportunities
- Keeping History alive and relevant in a 21st century classroom

Overview

The year 2013 marks the 150th celebration of Maritzburg College *(right)*, KwaZulu-Natal's oldest boys' school. In a busy year, the school is hosting numerous sports and cultural festivals, tournaments and other events, and it is especially proud to host the 27th annual conference of the SASHT as part of those festivities.

Programme

The organisers have received over 30 excellent abstracts for papers and workshops, and have been able to put together a stimulating, interesting and varied schedule. The *provisional* schedule (as at 16 August), subject to final changes, is as follows:

Thursday, September 26			
16:00 – 17:00	Meeting of regional representatives		
17:00 – 18:00	Editorial committee of *Yesterday & Today*		
18:00 – 21:00	SASHT Executive meeting and business dinner Braai for early arrivals		
Friday, September 27			
08:00 – 08:35	Registration		
08:35 – 09:00	Welcome, opening address, orientation		
	Venue A		**Venue B**	
09:00 – 09:05	Start of session		Start of session	
09:05 – 09:25	P. Warnich (North-West University, Potchefstroom)	From Curriculum 2005 to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS): Assessing history teachers' assessment practices within a constructivist learning paradigm	R. Siebörger (University of Cape Town)	What should history teachers know? Assessing history students at the conclusion of the PGCE year

09:25 – 09:45	M. Maposa (Edgewood Campus, UKZN)	An analysis of the application of indigenous knowledge on themes on postcolonial Africa in selected South African history textbooks	S. Glanvill (University of the Witwatersrand)	Using the "thinking and reading like a historian"[1] approach with pre-service social science educators
09:45 – 10:05	P. Modisakeng (North-West University [NWU], Potchefstroom)	The role of Open Distance Learning (ODL) in addressing issues and challenges experienced by history teachers in the North-West province	B. Mackenzie (Dominican Convent School)	"Doing history" as portrayed in assessment tasks found in the *Early Expansion and Conquest* units contained in a sample of Grade 10 South African CAPS-compliant history textbooks
10:05 – 10:25	S. Bester (NWU, Potchefstroom)	The challenges in using and integrating multimedia by Grade 4, 5 and 6 history teachers of the schools in the townships and rural areas in and around the Klerksdorp, Rustenburg and Vryburg districts	H. Ludlow (University of the Witwatersrand)	Using local history to engage students in the practices of history
10:25 – 10:40	Question Time		Question Time	
10:40 – 11:00	**Tea Time**			
11:00 – 11:05	Start of session		Start of session	
11:05 – 11:40	P. Nel (Pietermaritzburg Archives Repository)	**Short workshop:** Leafing out your family tree @ the Archives	D. Gillespie (Jeppe Girls' High)	Short workshop: E-ducational E-xcursions – Planning successful day excursions and tours
11:40 – 12:00	J. Seroto (University of South Africa)	How South African history is dealt with in selected Grade 12 history textbooks: A preliminary reflection	M. Friedman (University of the Witwatersrand)	Teaching African Studies for the 21st century: A case study
12:00 – 12:20	M. Koekemoer (CTI Education Group)	Holocaust Education – enriching Grade 9 learners socially or educationally? Analysing the discourse within textbooks	S. Singh (Kharina Secondary School)	Disseminating indigenous knowledge/local history/ regional history in the classroom for a better understanding/ complementing of the curricula themes

12:20 – 12:40	E. Marmer and P. Sow (Universities of Hamburg and Bonn)	African history teaching in contemporary German textbooks	G. Weldon (China Programme Consultant, Facing History and Ourselves)	Post-conflict history teaching – the critical issues of understanding personal legacies and identities of the past on all of us and the way in which this influences the teaching of history, particularly resistance history and the TRC
12:40 – 12:55	Question time		Question Time	
12:55 – 13:50	**Lunch and tour of the school, including visit to the school museum**			
13:50 – 13:55	Start of session		Start of session	
13:55 – 14:15	M. Ndlovu (University of South Africa)	Why indigenous knowledge in the 21st century? A de-colonial turn	P. Murray (Bishops, Cape Town)	The role of fiction in history teaching
14:15 – 14:35	B. Moreeng (Free State University)	Post-colonial discourse: An option for post-apartheid history teaching in South Africa?	J. Engelbrecht (Thomas More, Kloof)	Heritage to History: A take on Grade 10 local History documentaries
14:35 – 14:55	E. van Eeden (NWU, Vaal Triangle)	Assessing the colonial historiography of South Africa and its presence in the Further and Higher Education and Training environment.	N. Sibawu (University of Venda)	Understanding the impact of resistance songs in debunking the stigma attached to history during the 21st Century
14:55 – 15:10	Question time		Question time	
15:10 – 15:30	**Tea Time (Please notice that there will be three venues in operation for the long workshops)**			
	Venue A	**Venue B**	**Venue C**	
15:30 – 17:30 **Long Workshops**	P. Denis and P. Dlamini (Sinomlando oral history unit, UKZN)	C. Bertram (UKZN, Pietermaritzburg campus)	K.A. Garcia (Brescia House School, Johannesburg)	
	Voices from the past: The practice of oral history	Designing source-based questions: Thinking about cognitive demand and difficulty	Protest music of the 1960s in the classroom	
17:30 – 18:30	**SASHT AGM**			
18:30 for 19:00	**Cocktail Party**			

Saturday, September 28				
07:45 – 07:50	Start of session		Start of Session	
07:50 – 08:10	R. van Diemel (Faculty of Military Science, University of Stellenbosch)	"An all too familiar voice" – Re-examining Josiah T Gumede's contribution to colonial and post Union history in Natal, 1904 – 1946	F. Cleophas (University of Stellenbosch)	Come to the classroom and listen to the flowers.
08:10 – 08:30	M.J. Mthethwa (Free State University)	Responding to the challenges of transition into the intermediate phase – A case study of the teaching and learning of history in Grade 4.	K.A. Garcia (Brescia House School, Johannesburg)	The US sixties in historical perspective – new interpretations of major events in the era.
08:30 – 08:50	M.C. Kgari-Masondo (UKZN, Edgewood campus)	The usable past: Teaching socio-environmental history in South African high schools from an indigenous perspective	E. Goring	What are we ashamed about in our history?
08:50 – 09:10	G. Nxumalo (Edgewood)	Young African women and the umhlanga ceremony: A case study in historical consciousness.	P. Haupt (Settlers High School, Cape Town)	Connecting the dots: History teaching in the 21st century classroom – juggling reason, technology and multi-media in the world of the young technophile.
09:10 – 09:30	L. le Roux	Views held by future history educators on "historical pride".	C. Gordon and J. Cloete (NWU, Potchefstroom)	The use of cell phones in the teaching of history.
09:30 – 09:50	K. Morgan (University of the Witwatersrand)	Learning empathy through school history textbooks? A case study	J. Grobler (University of Pretoria)	Using historical Facebook pages to teach history.
09:50 – 10:10	Question time		Question time	
10:10 – 10:20	**Comfort break**			
10:20 – 11:20	**Guest Speaker:** Dan Wylie (Professor of English, Rhodes University) – Shaka: Teaching a history of uncertainties			
11:20 – 11:35	**Tea time**			
11:35 – 12:20	**Guest Speaker:** Jonathan D. Jansen (Rector: Free State University) – Why the first year university students dread talking about the past - and what schools can do about it".			
12:20 – 13:10	Wrap up of Conference, farewells and official photograph taken			
13:10 – 13:30	**Lunch**			
13:30 – 16:00	Tour of Pietermaritzburg			

Conference registration

Lecturers and teachers of History, researchers, and any other academics from the GET, FET and HET levels are invited to register for the 2013 SASHT conference, which (as indicated in the table below) this year will offer various registration options, to cater for the needs of locally-based delegates **(Standard / Day Visitor)**, attendees who have outside accommodation **(Out-of-Town Premium)**, as well as delegates who would prefer an all-in-one package that would enable them to make use of the school's own reasonably-priced, clean and safe accommodation **(Stayover)**.

Conference options and costs

The following registration options are available to delegates:		Standard rate
Standard	Attendance at all workshops and paper presentations, attendance at the cocktail party on the Friday night, tea-time snacks, with packed lunches on Friday and Saturday:	**R750**
Day Visitor	Attendance at all the workshops and paper presentations on the Friday (including the cocktail party) OR the Saturday (including Prof Jansen's address), packed lunch and tea-time snacks:	**R450**
Out-of-Town Premium	Welcome braai at the Old Boys' Club on Thursday night, full English breakfasts on Friday and Saturday mornings, attendance at all workshops and paper presentations, attendance at the cocktail party on the Friday night, packed lunches on Friday and Saturday:	**R1 200**
Stayover	Two nights' accommodation (Thursday and Friday) in single room in College House, plus all Out-of-Town Premium options:	**R1 600**

About the host school, maritzburg college

Founded in 1863, Maritzburg College is a state (ex-Model C) all-boys high school for 1 180 pupils, of whom nearly 400 are boarders. Situated on the same 25-hectare estate in Pietermaritzburg that it has occupied since 1888, it has over the last 150 years established itself as a leading South African high school. Amongst its former scholars it can count numerous senators, generals and admirals, 10 judges, arguably South Africa's pre-eminent English author (Alan Paton, who also taught at the school), 23 Rhodes Scholars and 235 international sportsmen.

Facilities

The school offers a wide array of facilities suitable for a conference such as this one, including the historic Victoria Hall, which was completed in 1899 and used by the British Army as a military hospital during the first 10 months of the South African War; the Olivier Cultural Centre, which was the main venue for the successful 2012 International Boys Schools' Coalition Conference attended by over 250

delegates; renovated classrooms that each have internet and projector facilities; its new Leadership Development Centre; and a popular Old Boys' Club for any of the conference's more social needs.

Down-time / tour of historic pietermaritzburg

  As can be seen above, some of the registration options include an invitation to the welcome braai to be held in the early evening of Thursday 26 September, on the eve of the conference, which commences on the following morning. Delegates are encouraged to elect a registration option that will allow them to attend this socialising/networking opportunity, in a relaxed environment overlooking the school's main sports-field, Goldstone's. On the last day of the conference, well-known local historian and SASHT stalwart, Simon Haw, will lead a guided, bussed tour themed **"Pietermaritzburg: trekker *dorp*, outpost of empire and struggle centre"** , at an extra cost of R100 per person.

January 1900: Sick and wounded British soldiers recuperating outside the school's Victoria Hall, which will be the primary venue of the 2013 SASHT conference.

  A number of other options are available to attendees during their down-time in the KZN Midlands. For example –

*   **Karkloof Canopy Tours:** This is a very popular tourist destination on the Midlands Meander, on the Karkloof road beyond Howick, about 40 km from Maritzburg College. Breeze along the treetops of the Karkloof forest on a zip-line 100m above ground! Go to http://www.karkloofcanopytour. co.za/

*   The popular **Liberty Midlands Mall** is only about 10 km away and offers shops, restaurants and movies.
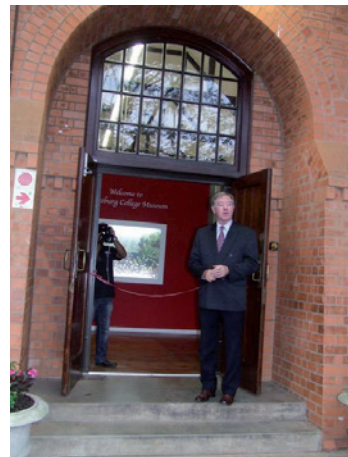
- **Maritzburg College Museum:** Lastly, for the more inquisitive, the school's newly-opened museum *(see photo right, as opened by past Headmaster Mr DR Jury)* – the beginnings of which, incidentally, featured in a workshop presented at the 2010 SASHT conference in Clarens – will be open on both days of the conference. Entrance is free and visitors are welcome.

Accommodation in Pietermaritzburg

Herewith please find information about some of the many B&Bs at which to stay in Pietermaritzburg.

Exclusions

The registration fees detailed above **exclude** the following –

- travelling fees to and from Pietermaritzburg
- airport transfers
- accommodation unless specified above, in which case all such arrangements must be done by yourself
- conference tour
- additional items (such as the Karkloof Canopy Tour)

Payment of conference fees

Registration payments must be done as soon as possible in order to make use of the Early Bird rates. All payments are to be made into the following Maritzburg College bank account:

Account Holder:	Maritzburg College
Bank:	First National Bank
Account No:	5093 559 5139
Branch Name:	Liberty Midlands Mall
Reference (**imperative**):	**SASHT +** *[your name]* *or simply* **HT999Z +** *[your name]*

In all cases, kindly e-mail or fax your completed registration form with proof of payment to Maritzburg College, as per the instructions on the conference registration form itself.

Getting to Pietermaritzburg

Pietermaritzburg is easily accessible by car, bus and air, and the city's Oribi Airport is only a five-minute drive away from Maritzburg College. Should you require any assistance in getting to the conference, we recommend that you use Ms Donna Calmeyer of Travel Counsellors, whom the school regularly uses for their own requirements.

SASHT

SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIETY FOR HISTORY TEACHING (SASHT)

SASHT CONFERENCE 2013
REGISTRATION FORM

150th MARITZBURG COLLEGE 1863 - 2013

ANNUAL SASHT CONFERENCE

Maritzburg College, Pietermaritzburg, 27-28 September 2013

Please fax or e-mail this form to Mr Matthew Marwick (fax: +27-33-394 2908, marwickm@mcollege.co.za) **and** Prof ES van Eeden (Fax 016 910 3449, elize.vanEeden@nwu.ac.za).

Personal Details *(of which the ones marked with a * will appear in the official conference programme)*

Title and full name:	
Affiliation (school/ university/department/ organisation):	
Cellphone no:	
Fax no:	
E-mail address:	

I would like to register for the following conference option (tick applicable option in the box on the far right):

		Standard rate	
Standard	Attendance at all workshops and paper presentations, attendance at the cocktail party on the Friday night, tea-time snacks, with packed lunches on Friday and Saturday:	**R750**	
Day Visitor	Attendance at all the workshops and paper presentations on the Friday (including cocktail party) OR the Saturday (including Prof Jansen's address), with packed lunch and tea-time snacks (please **circle the relevant day in the block on the right**):	**R450**	**Sat / Sun**
Out of Town Premium	Welcome braai at the Old Boys' Club on Thursday night, full English breakfasts on Friday and Saturday mornings, attendance at all workshops and paper presentations, attendance at the cocktail party on the Friday night, packed lunches on Friday and Saturday:	**R1 200**	

| **Stayover** | Two nights' accommodation (Thursday and Friday) in a single room in College House, plus all Out-of-Town Premium options: | **R1 600** | |

I would like to attend the conference tour titled **"Pietermaritzburg: trekker *dorp*, outpost of empire and struggle centre"** by well-known local historian, Mr Simon Haw, on Saturday, 28 September (the bus will leave at 13h00 from the conference venue). The cost is an **additional R100 pp.** Tick the box on the right if you would like to attend the tour (max: 50 people).

TOTAL PAYMENT: R

| Please specify any special meal requirements that you might have (if any): | |

The relevant bank details are as follows:

Name:	Maritzburg College
Bank:	First National Bank
Branch:	257355
Account Number:	50935595139
Reference:	**SASHT + *[your name]* or**
Reference:	**HT999Z + *[your name]***

Confirmed by me on this the ....day of ....2013, signed:

....

IMPORTANT: *Please confirm payment of your conference registration fee by e-mail or fax (kindly include the date of payment).*

The Yesterday *&* Today (Y*&*T) Journal for History Teaching in South Africa and abroad

Editorial policy

1. Y*&*T is a scholarly, peer-reviewed journal (accredited since the beginning of 2012).

2. The Y&T journal is a journal for research in especially the fields of history teaching and History discipline research to improve not only the teaching, but also the knowledge dissemination of History. The Journal is currently editorially managed by the North-West University and published under the auspices of the South African Society for History Teaching (SASHT).

3. Contributions may be either in the humanities (historically based theoretical discourses), or from education (best practice workshops, or focused content research with a fundamental theoretical basis reflecting History or other histories). Articles, in which interdisciplinary collaborations between the humanities and education are explored, are also welcome.

4. Regional content mostly considers quantitative and qualitative research in Southern Africa, but international contributions, that may apply to History teaching and research in general, are equally welcome.

5. Authors may submit individual contributions or contributions created in teams.

6. Contributions are subject to peer reviewing by two or more expert reviewers in the disciplines used in the research and writing of the research report – the article.

7. The language of the journal is English. However, abstracts may be in any of the 11 official languages of South Africa.

8. Contributions must be accompanied by an abstract of not more than 250 words.

9. The titles of articles should preferably not exceed 20 words.

10. The names of authors and their institutional affiliations must accompany all

contributions. Authors also have to enclose their telephone and fax numbers and E-mail and postal addresses.

11. The Harvard or the Footnote methods of reference may be used (see the last pages of the journal for the reference guidelines for more detail on the Harvard and Footnote reference methods). The authors' choice of which reference method will be respected by the editorial management. References must be clear, lucid and comprehensible for a general academic audience of readers. Once an author has made a choice of reference method, the Y&T guidelines for either the Harvard reference method or the Footnote reference method must be scrupulously followed. The guidelines for referencing according to the Harvard method are provided on the last pages of the journal. The most recent *Yesterday&Today* journal articles could also serve as guideline.

12. Editorial material with images (illustrations, photographs, tables and graphs) is permissible. The images should, however, be of a high-density quality (high resolution, minimum of 200dpi). The source references should also be included. Large files should be posted in separate E-mail attachments, and appropriately numbered in sequence.

13. Articles should be submitted to the editor electronically – at elize.vaneeden@ nwu.ac.za. Notification of the receipt of the documents will be done within 48 hours.

14. The text format must be in 12pt font, and in single spacing. The text should preferably be in Microsoft Word format.

15. The length of articles should preferably not exceed 8 000 to 10 000 words, or 15 to journal pages.

16. Articles which have been published previously, or which are under consideration for publication elsewhere, may not be submitted to the *Yesterday&Today* journal. Copies of the Journal is also electronically available on the SASHT website at www.sashtw.org.za.

Yesterday *&* Today
Template guidelines for writing an article

1. **Font type:** Adobe Garamond Pro (throughout document)/Arial (if the first font type is unavailable).

2. **Font size in body text:** 12pt.

3. **Author's details: ONLY provide the following**: Title, Campus & University and E-mail address

    Title:10pt, regular font; Campus & University: 10pt, italics; and E-mail address: 10pt, regular font. (Consult previous articles published in the Y&T journal as an example or as a practical guideline).

    Example: Pieter van Rensburg, *Vaal Triangle Campus*, *North-West University*, p.vanrensburg@gmail.com.

4. **Abstract:** The abstract should be placed on the first page (where the title heading and author's particulars appear). The prescribed length is between a half and three quarters of a page.

    The abstract body: Regular font, 10pt.

    The heading of the ***Abstract***: Bold, italics, 12pt.

5. **Keywords:** The keywords should be placed on the first page below the abstract.

    The word '**Keywords**':10pt, bold, underline.

    Each keyword must start with a capital letter and end with a semi-colon (;). Example: Meters; People; etc. (A minimum of six key words is required).

6. **Heading of article**: 14pt, bold.

7. **Main headings in article**: '**Introduction**' – 12pt, bold.

8. ***Sub-headings* in article**: '*History* …' – 12pt, bold, italics.

9. **Third level sub-headings: 'History ...'** – 11pt, bold, underline.

10. **Footnotes**: 8pt, regular font; **BUT** note that the footnote numbers in the article text should be 12pt.

    The initials in a person's name (in footnote text) should be without any full stops. Example: LC du Plessis and **NOT** L.C. du Plessis.

11. **Body text**: Names without punctuation in the text. <u>Example</u>: "HL le Roux said" and **NOT** "H.L. le Roux said".

12. **Page numbering:** Page numbering in the footnote reference text should be indicated as follows:

    <u>Example</u>: p.space23 – p. 23. / pp. 23-29.

13. **Any lists** in the body text should be 11pt, and in bullet format.

14. **Quotes from sources in the body tex**t must be used sparingly. If used, it must be indented and in italics (10pt). Quotes less than one line in a paragraph can be incorporated as part of a paragraph, but within inverted commas; and **NOT** in italics. <u>Example</u>: An owner close to the town stated that: "the pollution history of the river is a muddy business".

15. Quotes **(as part of the body text)** must be in double inverted commas: "…and she" and **NOT** '…and she'.

16. **Images: Illustrations, pictures, photographs and figures**: Submit all pictures for an article in jpeg, tiff or pdf format in a separate folder, and indicate where the pictures should be placed in the manuscript's body text. All visuals are referred to as Images.

    <u>Example</u>: **Image 1: 'Image title'** (regular font, 10pt) in the body text.

    Sources of all images should also be included after the 'Image title'.

    <u>Example</u>: **Source: 'The source'** (regular font, 9 pt). Remember to save and name pictures in the separate folder accordingly.

    <u>Important note</u>: All the images should be of good quality (a minimum resolution of 200dpi is required; if the image is not scanned).

17. Punctuation marks should be placed in front of the **footnote numbers** in the text. <u>Example</u>: the end.[1] **NOT** …the end[1].

18. **Single and left spacing** between the sentences in the footnote.

19. **Dates**: All dates in footnotes should be written out in full. <u>Example</u>: **23 December 2010**; **NOT** 23/12/2010 **[For additional guidelines see the Yesterday & Today Reference guidelines].**

20. Language setting in Microsoft Word as **English (South Africa); do this before starting with the word processing of the article**. Go to 'Review', 'Set Language' and select 'English (South Africa)'.

The footnote or Harvard reference methods – some guidelines

Both the footnote reference method and the Harvard reference method are accepted for articles in *Yesterday & Today*.

The footnote reference method

Footnote references should be placed at the bottom of each page. Footnotes should be numbered sequentially throughout the article and starting with 1. Archival sources/published works/authors referred to in the text should be cited in full in the first footnote of each new reference. Thereafter it can be reduced to a shorter footnote reference. Do not refer to the exact same source and page numbers in footnotes that follow each other.

The use of the Latin word "Ibid" is **not** allowed. Rather refer to the actual reference again (or in its shortened version) on the rest of a page(s) in the footnote section.

The titles of books, articles, chapters, theses, dissertations and papers/manuscripts should NOT be capitalised at random. Only the names of people and places (and in some instances specific historic events) are capitalised. For example: **P Erasmus, "The 'lost' South African tribe – rebirth of the Koranna in the Free State",** *New Contree***, 50, November 2005, p. 77;**

<u>NOT</u>

P Erasmus, "The 'Lost' South African Tribe – Rebirth Of The Koranna In The Free State", *New Contree*, 50, November 2005, p. 77.

<u>**PLEASE NOTE**</u>: Referencing journal titles imply that every word of the journal must start with a capital letter, example: Yesterday&Today Journal.

Examples of an article in a journal

R Siebörger, Incorporating human rights into the teaching of History: Teaching materials, *Yesterday&Today*, 2, October 2008, pp. 1-14.

S Marks, "Khoisan resistance to the Dutch in the seventeenth and eighteen centuries", *Journal of African History*, 3(1), 1972, p. 76.

Example of a shortened version of an article in a journal

From:

P Erasmus, "The 'lost' South African tribe – rebirth of the Koranna in the Free State", *New Contree*, 50, November 2005, p. 77.

To:

P Erasmus, "The 'lost' South African tribe…", *New Contree*, 50, November 2005, p. 77.

[Please note: ONLY the title of the article is shortened and not the finding place.]

Examples of a reference from a book

WF Lye & C Murray, *Transformations on the Highveld: The Tswana and the Southern Sotho* (Cape Town, David Phillip, 1980), pp. 7, 10.

JJ Buys, *Die oorsprong en migrasiebewegings van die Koranna en hulle rol in die Transgariep tot 1870* (Universiteit van die Vrystaat, Bloemfontein, 1989), pp. 33-34.

[Please note: The reference variety to page numbers used.]

Example of a shortened version of a reference from a book

From:

JA Conforti, *Samuel Hopkins and the New Divinity Movement: Calvinism, the Congregational Ministry, and reform in New England between the Great Awakenings* (Washington, Christian University Press, 1981), p. 23.

To:

JA Conforti, *Samuel Hopkins and the New Divinity Movement…*, p. 23.

Example of a reference from a chapter in a book

S Brown, "Diplomacy by other means: SWAPO's liberation war", C Leys, JS Saul et.al, *Namibia's liberation struggle: The two-edged sword* (London, Oxford University Press, 1995), pp. 19-39.

Shortened version:

S Brown, "Diplomacy by other means…", C Leys, JS Saul et.al, *Namibia's liberation struggle…*, pp. 19-39.

Example of a reference from an unpublished dissertation/thesis

MJ Dhlamini, "The relationship between the African National Congress and the Pan Africanist Congress, 1959-1990" (Ph.D, NWU, 2006), pp. 4, 8, 11.

Examples of a reference from a newspaper

P Coetzee, "Voëlvlugblik ATKV 75 op ons blink geskiedenis", *Die Transvaler*, 6 Januarie 2006, p. 8.

or

Zululand Times, 19 July 1923.

Archival references:

• Interview(s)

Provide at least key details such as: Name of interviewee and profession; the interviewer and profession and date of interview

• Example of interview reference

K Rasool (Personal Collection), interview, K Kotzé (CEO, Goldfields, Johannesburg Head Office)/E Schutte (Researcher, NWU, School of Basic Science), 12 March 2006.

• Example of shortened interview reference (after it has been used once in article)

K Rasool (Personal Collection), interview, K. Kotzé/E Schutte , 12 March 2006.

• Example of an Electronic Mail - document or letter

E-mail: W Pepler (Bigenafrica, Pretoria/E van Eeden (Researcher), 22 October 2006.

• National archives (or any other archive)

National Archive (NA), Pretoria, Department of Education (DoE), Vol.10, Reference 8/1/3/452: Letter, K Lewis (Director General) / P Dlamini (Teacher, Springs College), 12 June 1960.

[**Please note: After the first reference to the National Archives or Source Group for example, it can be abbreviated to e.g. NA or DE.**]

A source accessed on the Internet

A Dissel, "Tracking transformation in South African prisons", Track Two, 11(2), April 2002 (available at http://ccrweb.ccr.uct.ac.za/two/11-2transformation.html, as accessed on 14 Jan. 2003), pp. 1-3.

A source from conference proceedings

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D Dollar, "Asian century or multi-polar century?" (Paper, Global Development Network Annual Conference, Beijing, January 2007), p. 7.

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