Yesterday & Today

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Contents

Articles

2009

SASHT

Chairman's report

Jimmy Verner
(Bishops Bavin, Johannesburg)

In this, my last report as Chairman of the Society, I would like to pay tribute to all those members whose work and ongoing interest and concern have helped the SASHT to grow and develop over the years. Undoubtedly the hardest worker has been our present Chairperson, Prof Elize van Eeden, but there are many others without whose efforts have the Society would not be in the healthy position it is in today.

The 2008 Conference in Cape Town organised by Prof Rob Sieborger of the UCT was a great success and I thank him and his team for all their work. The use of the slave museum as the major venue helped to make the conference memorable as we were urged to help learners to develop an historical consciousness and gaze; to be aware of and to explore the hidden voices of the past. The conference provided a well organised and stimulating start to the year.

The work of the Society has proceeded quietly - almost unobtrusively - since the conference through the publication of Yesterday&Today edited by Elize van Eeden and her editorial team. Yesterday&Today, is on its way to becoming an accredited academic journal and we hope to see this happen in the near future. Elize has also been responsible for ensuring that our webpage (www.sashtw. org.za) is better and more up to date than ever before. While this does play a part in raising the profile of the Society we need to do more and an electronic newsletter organised to start in 2010 by the SASHT Executive members Prof Johan Wasserman and Mr Simon Haw. The Executive Committee has also agreed that marketing the Society must become a priority and specific portfolios for the Committee will be introduced for the new Committee.

The constitution of the Society was at last adopted at the AGM although it will always be a "work in progress" as all truly viable constitutions are. I am pleased to report that though membership numbers are still lower than ideal, they are growing and perhaps more importantly we are seeing an increase in the number of members who are becoming involved in the affairs of the Society.

I

I wish to thank all those involved in the planning and preparation for the 2009 conference which I believe has been one of the particularly successful conferences. There have been suggestions that we should move away from the Heritage Day weekend timing for the conference and we would appreciate input on this. For 2010 with its strange academic timetable as a result of the World Cup Soccer, we will stay with the familiar dates, namely Heritage day on Friday 24 September and Saturday 25 September. The Conference will be hosted in the Free State (Golden Gate National Park).

I hope to see you all there and wish Elize all the best as she takes over the Chair of the Society.

Note from the editor:

Mr Jimmy Verner has chaired the SASHT from 1999 to 2009. He did so with enthusiasm, integrity and tremendous support, despite the low ebb phases of the SASHT. In 2009 he was nominated to fill the SASHT's treasury portfolio for the 2009-2010 term. The SASHT Executive Committee hereby honour Mr Jimmy Verner for his outstanding and longstanding service to the SASHT as Chairperson.

CONFERENCE 2009

Movie makes magic!

KEYNOTE ADDRESS

The value of History as a school subject in an age of science And technology

Arend E Carl

University of Stellenbosch

Abstract

In this article the focus is on the value of History for a society dominated by the natural sciences and technology. This domination may lead to the questioning of the value of a subject like History where the demand is for "bread and butter" subjects which will enable learners to gain financially from the world of work. Against this background, questions such as the following arise: Is there still a place for the social sciences? If the answer is yes, what is the possible value of History in a society driven by financial forces and technological developments? Can technology be utilised to convey the importance of History? What is the possible contribution of technology towards the enhancement of the value of History and acquiring a sound historical and critical understanding of both the past and the present?

Introduction

Contemporary society is dominated by the demand for science and technology, but the role and place of social sciences must not be underplayed as they have an important role in shaping and moulding people and the societies in which they live. The focus in this article will not be on how technology can be utilised in the History classroom, but rather on what the possible values of History as a school subject are in an age in which science and technology seem to dominate. The first section revisits the content of an article publeshed by the author in 1991 when he reflected on the value of History as a school subject in a multicultural society (see Carl, 1991). This is followed by a reflection on the possible value of History as a school subject in an age of science and technology.

Contextualisation: Possible values

Introduction and statement of the problem

There can be no doubt that since 1994 the South African curriculum scene has seen some of the most extensive changes in many decades. There has been an explosion of knowledge and technological development and demands are being made to include most of these changes in the school curriculum. The question remains, however, to what extent History is still a relevant and important subject at school level.

Carl (1991 (1-5) wrote that the school curriculum should address the needs of society by remaining relevant. The school should deliver skilled learners that are able to cope in the world of work, but in the process the role of History as an emotive subject which tries to shape and mould learners should not be negated. He indicated a number of possible values which were particularly relevant at that point in time. After recent reflection on these values, which are discussed in the sections to follow, it became clear that they are just as valid for 2010 as they were for 1991, 19 years later.

Lessons from the past

As early as 1966 Wesley and Wronski (1966:51) asked whether History could indeed add value and provide lessons from the past. This question is still relevant, because people often ask whether History can really contribute towards a greater understanding of the current context. Can lessons still be learned from the past, and can what was applied in a specific time context, be applicable to the present? It is suggested that the mistakes of the past should rather act as "warnings" so that more informed decisions can be made and the same mistakes prevented (Reeves, 1980:3; Carl, 1991: 2). This could prevent the same mistakes from being made and contribute to more effective decision-making. From the above one can deduce that by taking note of the past, people could come to realise that mistakes are not restricted to specific time contexts and that although the time, society and conditions may differ, the same mistakes may occur again.

Explaining and understanding the present

Closely linked to the previous value, is the view that the present can be better understood by studying the past (Elton, 1967: 48; Carl, 1991:2). Making

links between the past and the present can enable one to gain a broader and more holistic perspective and understanding of the past. In this way, learners can come to a greater understanding of current events or conditions through investigating how conditions developed over the years. Therefore, learners can have a better understanding of how technology developed, how it impacts on mankind and how it affects their own lives at present. From the above one can deduce that learners can thus develop certain historical skills to study the past in order to understand the present.

Predicting or "forecasting" the future

In 1980 Reeves (1980: 11-12) claimed that History can assist man to get a better grasp on the present, as an understanding of History helps one to make better judgements and predict the future. As early as the 1960's, Wesley and Wronski (1966: 452) argued that the past can act as a guide for the future. There is, however, doubt whether the future can indeed be forecast. There are too many variables, since societal, economic, political and temporal conditions may change and there is no certainty that things will happen the way they were planned. The past may assist one in gaining better insight and understanding contexts better, but it is generally impossible to forecast situations and outcomes accurately. Carl (1991:3) is of the opinion that insight into the past can mostly provide guidelines for future decision-making.

It is too difficult to predict the future because of numerous variables – the rapid changes in science and technology bear witness to this aspect.

Self-understanding of existence

People are the result of their history. Learners must be able to comprehend where they come from and develop an understanding of their existence. History is more than just the study of cause and effect; a greater understanding of the present and where one comes from may lead to a more critical and clearer understanding of social responsibilities. Humankind is much poorer without this self-knowledge and understanding (Carl 1991: 3).

Source of values

One has to make value judgements in society today because certain norms

Arend E Carl

and values apply. The study of History can assist learners in determining what these values are and assist them in making the required value judgements, based on an analytical and objective process. Without our telling them what is right and wrong, they are guided to make their own judgements (Carl, 1991: 3). From this can be deducted that this approach is of the utmost importance within a knowledge- and technology-driven society.

Perspectives

  History can guide learners to see trends and processes in a broader, holistic perspective and to understand them. Through History they come into contact with other cultures and societies and in this way they gain a more holistic understanding of the contemporary world and their place in this broader context. This will prompt them to ask, for example: How do I fit into the big picture of a nation that is characterised by diversity of such an extensive nature? Learners should see trends and occurrences in perspective so that they are able to link the past and the present (Carl 1991:5). Kapp (1986: 507) refers to the cultural maturing process where learners can develop more respect and understanding for other cultures. This may enable learners to form their own opinions and perspectives within this broader framework.

Obtaining knowledge and self-knowledge

  The study of History does not only lead to acquiring more general knowledge but also self-knowledge. The quest for more knowledge can be satisfied as learners can do their own investigations and in the process acquire self-knowledge. Opinions and judgements must be based on knowledge obtained through investigation and verification and not perceptions. It must be a search for the truth. Personal-individual investigations provide the opportunity to develop skills in working with abstract concepts and analysing knowledge. One needs to have self-knowledge in order to know and understand others and thus the study of History should not be just for the sake of acquiring general knowledge (see Carl 1991:4-5). As early as 1970 Marwick (1970:12-13) proclaimed that society needs knowledge as it enables them to know themselves better, which in turn enables people to gain insight into their own development. Self-knowledge is just as important as general knowledge as it enables one to fulfil one's role in society in the best possible way.

Critical awareness and thinking skills

History can contribute towards the development of critical awareness in learners, as there can be no quest for truth unless it is sought in a critical way. Learners need to be guided to be intellectually curious, to question trends and occurrences in a positive manner, to weigh up both the positive and the negative aspects and to distinguish between facts and generalisations. It is through the curriculum that the teacher is faced with these challenges to develop such a critical awareness and History can make a contribution in this regard.

Schoeman (2006: 25) is concerned that "[h]istorical amnesia is not a cure for South Africa's problems; it is just another disorder". She quotes Bam and Visser (2002:6) who state that "History is the only school subject where one can think things through".

Summary

In the previous paragraphs some of the relevant issues the author described in the 1991 published article were revisited to reflect whether the values it endorsed are still currently applicable. Schoeman (2006:40-44) reaffirms these values by recommending that the development of a historical consciousness, the identification of bias, the ability to show empathy, the development of literacy skills and critical thinking skills, should be a high priority.

One can only deduce that what was valid 20 years ago still applies to a society characterised by rapid scientific and technological developments. History has the value that it can mould and shape people, despite the context and time. There should be a continuous reflection on what the possible values are and how they can contribute to society.

The history curriculum, science and technology

Within the context of the South African school curriculum, the Department of Education (2003: 9-10) regards the following as being the value of History:

• History as a subject helps to build the capacity to make informed choices in order to contribute constructively to society and to advance democracy;
• It enhances personal empowerment;
• It promotes an understanding of human agency;
• It develops knowledge that as humans we have choices to change the world for

the better;
- Through the rigorous process of historical enquiry we are taught to think critically about society and to support democracy as a vehicle for human rights;
- It provides increasing conceptual knowledge as a framework of analysis in order to interpret and construct historical knowledge.

These values described in the Curriculum Statement clearly link with the values identified from the literature, but one gets an indication of the challenges when one is confronted with the content of the following figure (Figure 1) which attempts to give an indication of the world of the teacher in a technological society. Couros (2006) refers to the Networked Teacher in this regard.

Figure 1: The networked teacher
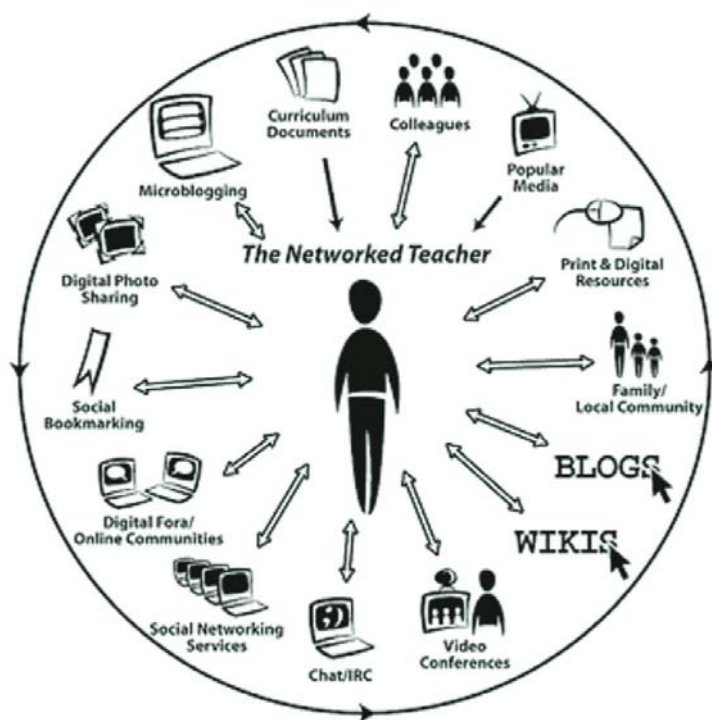
(Source: Pachler, Daly & Turvey 2009: 6, as quoted from Couros A. 2006). Permission also granted by Couros, 22 April 2010.

In the light of the above, the following statement by Woelders (2007: 363) is appropriate: "[B]ecause of the media-dominated culture in which we live, many educators recognize that many of our students' ideas about

the past are constructed through the historically-themed film and television programmes that they watch." The History teacher has to take cognisance of this phenomenon and accommodate it; otherwise the true value of History will not be achieved.

Weinstein (2001: 27-28) contends that today's classroom is less than ever isolated from the cultural environment and that one cannot ignore the pervasiveness of electronic media. He claims that "[w]e should acknowledge film and television as the great history educators of our time. Film is unmatched in its capacity to provide 'emphatic reconstruction to convey how historical people witnessed, understood and lived their lives'."

By taking only two examples of electronic types of usage in the History classroom, one is able to gain an understanding of the complexity of the challenges faced by History teachers. A brief look at the use of film and PowerPoint gives one a glimpse into the complexity.

Film is fun and it can involve learners/pupils in history and increase their enjoyment of the subject. Weinstein (2001: 30-31) emphasises this notion of involvement in the following way: "As they progress, they might be confronted with the profound question that faces historians: 'How do we determine the truth about the ever-changing past?' Looking at the past through the prism of a film, poses intriguing questions: Does it deviate from the 'true' history? How is history spun, adapted and adjusted to accommodate audiences and times?" He says that learners can gain an increased appreciation of the power of mass media to shape perception and to affect the interpretation of the past. He argues that learners should be enabled to be more discriminatory in processing the images and information bombarding them every day. Learners can develop a sense of critical visual literacy which is so vital in today's emerging high society. They can identify anachronisms and inaccuracies and develop a keen and sophisticated understanding of the vocabulary and symbols and images. One could ask the following questions: Which criteria should be used to determine the legitimacy of the sources? How do the view and substance of history change from one period to the other? (Weinstein 2001: 30-31). The question then is: How do we change our teaching so that these goals or intentions are indeed achieved?

As an example, Weinstein (2001: 40-42) describes the importance of using film correctly as it can contribute to developing learners' creativity and their imagination. He explains how it helps learners to get an insight and understanding of the "sweep and movement of history" (the stories of people

of their successes and accomplishments), how it helps learners to understand the movement in time ("no other medium can manipulate time in as kinetic a fashion as film") and how the popularity of film can contribute to a greater interest in history. Film interprets history and this may lead to a greater interest in history (Weinstein 2001:42). However, the author also warns that the film artificially recreates reality and that one should not be uncritical, but interpret what one sees. He says that "one should not simply watch a film, but 'read' it as a text" (2001: 42).

O'Connor (December 1988: 1200-1201) is of the opinion that one should consider the contribution of visual evidence to understanding the past. He cites as an example that many Americans are learning more of their past and their history through the media. Technology should not be discarded, but rather utilised to better understand the past. It is not just the written word that contributes to understanding the past and the trends of bygone eras, but films and television, for example, could also contribute to this process (O'Connor 1988: 1207). He points out that many living-room discussions were stimulated by the media and people started talking about their history and heritage as never before. The use of films should not be regarded as a simple matter, as " the subject demands some awareness of theory and a recognition of the need to understand a film or television program as one part of a much larger, complex and ever-changing culture" (O'Connor 1988: 1203).

Woelders (March 2007:363) says that "because of the media-dominated culture in which we live, many educators recognize that many of our students' ideas about the past are constructed through the historically-themed film and television programmes that they watch". The challenge will be how to guide learners so that they understand that these views are not skewed but positively formed and shaped. Weinstein (November 2001: 41) aptly states that one should develop visual literacy, as media is also literature: "The filmmaker writes with his camera as a writer writes with his pen."

The use of PowerPoint presentations is also one way of presenting History to learners, but this form should not be used uncritically as there are inherent dangers. Maxwell (November 2007: 55) disagrees with Tufte's view that "PowerPoint is evil", but "concedes with the validity of Tufte's criticism. Tufte (2003) argues according to Maxwell (2007:55) that "… PowerPoint tends to be disrupting, dominating and that it trivializes content". Maxwell's argument is that one should simply impose a new style on PowerPoint to

prevent this from happening and "ignore the programme's annoyingly counterproductive attempts to 'help' its users format slides". Users should have a clear understanding of what they want to achieve with PowerPoint and what they want to get out of it. They have to be flexible and creative, but that requires a strategy for effective teaching (Maxwell November 2007: 55). With the overuse of the bullet format, PowerPoint can undermine the notion that history consists of content and fuller texts. Maxwell (November 2007:55-56) argues that PowerPoint is at its most effective when not used as bullet-point summary but that it must rather be a summary which complements the lecture or presentation. More comprehensive text should thus complement the spoken lecture.

One can deduce, therefore, that even the use of PowerPoint may undermine the achievement of the goals of History as the use of summary-style texts may impact negatively on learners' interpretation and understanding of history. Perhaps one can conclude with O'Connor (1988: 1209 view regarding the teaching of History:

[T]he goal of history teaching ... must go beyond simply informing people (chronicling events or passing on the traditions of a culture to new generations) to giving people the wherewithal to think out important issues. It should be therefore be a given that we teach our students to use audiovisual sources as stimuli to thought. (Emphasis by author.)

Maxwell (1988: 1205) further argues that the moving image that people see must not be uncritically accepted, but that viewers should examine and assess it within a particular context (" ... what it meant to people who saw it at the time ..."). O'Connor (1988:1209) concludes by stating that "all history classes should be lessons in critical thinking".

Conclusion

From the discussion it is perhaps clear that the use of science and technology pose complex and interesting challenges to achieve the goals of History. However, the creative and responsible use of media and technology can still contribute towards among others:

• the development of values and goals like making informed decisions, based on a study of the past;
• helping learners to study the past so that they have a better understanding

of the present and where they come from;
- having a clearer self-understanding of their existence and their co-existence with other in specific contexts;
- helping, through a study of the past, to identify values that may assist one in making sound value judgements;
- identifying trends and processes so that one can have a more holistic perspective on the present and where they fit in the broader world;
- obtaining more self-knowledge to enable one to understand where one comes from and to co-exist with others;
- assisting learners to develop and acquire a more critical awareness and critical thinking skills, and
- helping learners to develop a historical consciousness through the development of visual literacy.

A society dominated by science and technology does not necessarily have to result in negative implications for the role and place of the teaching of History. In fact, science and technology can be utilised to contribute to a better understanding of the past so that today's learners can make a positive contribution to their own destiny and the future of society.

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CONFERENCE 2009

MOVIE MAKES MAGIC!

CONFERENCE REPORT

THE 2009 SASHT CONFERENCE
AT CRAWFORD COLLEGE, SANDTON

Jimmy Verner
(Bishops Bavin, Johannesburg)

During the weeks preceding the conference there were times when I wondered if it would happen at all. There seemed to be a never ending series of glitches and problems which are perhaps the inevitable view of those on the organising committee of any major event. As it happened it was a lively, busy and successful conference which will probably remembered by those who attended for many years to come.

Crawford College extended a very welcoming hand to us all and provided more than adequate facilities for the speakers and a technical crew of learners who cheerfully saw to all the electronic needs of the conference. Arend Carl began with a partial retrospective view but reminded us that the increase in technology both in the classroom and outside it, has not replaced the need for critical thinking and analysis. As the main thrust of the conference was around the role of technology in teaching, this was a pertinent reminder.

Mary Reynolds of St Stithians Boys' College then took us through the way boys at her school were taught to be technologically literate rather than simply knowing how to use technology. It was also a lesson in how to train learners to avoid the "cut and paste" mentality that leads to so much plagiarism. We were then taken through the Maropeng experience with its interactive technology used to bring history alive.

A break for tea with excellent eats, was followed by a look at three very different commemorations of our past: the Voortrekker Monument, the SA Museum of Military History, and Mapungubwe. The presentations each took a very different approach to how we commemorate our past but all reminding us of the need to help learners to discover and appreciate their heritage.

We were then led through some experiences of history starting with a light-hearted look at aspects of the American Civil War and other more recent history on a visit to the U.S.A. in August; the harrowing problems of teaching mixed classes of South African learners the issues faced by the TRC and what

we, as educators, lived through; then a look at the Holocaust and its horrors through the roles of perpetrator, bystander, upstander and victim.

Lunch was a necessary break before departing for a full afternoon of excursions. First to Constitution Hill where we enjoyed a guided tour under the enthusiastic and knowledgeable Pius; then on to Liliesleaf Farm and the very hi-tech portrayal of the horrors of apartheid and the Rivonia Trial which many of us felt was geared more to entertain than to teach. From Liliesleaf we returned to Crawford before departing to the Rivonia Sports Club for an excellent Conference Dinner.

Saturday morning saw the only parallel sessions of the conference when we went back to looking at basics such as source analysis in one session and the impact of different teaching methods in the other. These were followed by the AGM at which the constitution of the society was accepted and a new committee elected. Tea was a welcome break after that before the final session which looked at the variety of source material available and especially the role of the internet, educational DVDs and is an inter-active whiteboard necessary for the modern history teacher?

Hectic, exhausting, stimulating - the conference was all of this and the entire conference was then given to all the delegates on a flash drive to relive and rethink it at their leisure. Thank you to all concerned.

South African Society for History Teaching

2010 Annual Conference

@ the fabulous Golden Gate Highlands National Park in the Free State Province!

Friday 24 and Saturday 25 September 2010

THEME

HERITAGE IN THE HISTORY CURRICULUM:

The how to of yours, mine and ours in a still divided community environment

URGENT CALL FOR PAPERS
& AN EARLY CALL TO RESERVE YOUR ACCOMMODATION!!

  Heritage as a theme in the History Curriculum for all grades in South Africa does not currently receive the attention in classrooms that it should. Several complicated reasons for this scenario exist. They are, amongst others, the difficulty in finding substantial opportunities and sources, a lack of proper guidance and understanding in the teaching methodologies suitable to do so and the cultural variety that influences an efficient understanding and knowledge. The Executive of the South African Society for History Teaching (SASHT) therefore has decided to, as in the past, devote a conference to the curriculum theme heritage to help strengthening the vision of the Department of Education and all educators of History. Come join us for an unforgettable experi-

ence on Heritage in one of the Free State Province's most scenic environments to literally and physically experience Heritage Day, while we simultaneously debate, discuss and are informed!

Call for papers!

Proposals for papers (approx. 150 words in preferably English so that we can accommodate a broad spectrum) to be presented at the conference centre of the Golden Gate Highlands National Park. The abstract **should be submitted as email attachment no later than Friday 23 July 2010 (deadline)** to the SASHT Chair Person Prof Elize van Eeden at elize.vaneeden@nwu.ac.za OR the SASHT Secretary, Mr Byron Bunt at Byron.Bunt@nwu.ac.za. To fax the abstract use the following Fax number (for the attention of prof Elize van Eeden): Fax No: 016 910 3449. The SASHT Executive will respond to each presenter personally after 23 July at the latest. A preliminary programme will be on the website by 5 August at the latest.

We need all educators experienced in the field of Heritage and the teaching of Heritage themes, to join us and to present their contributions to a broader history educator community. Educators with successful classroom or field experiences in the facilitating Heritage as a theme are more than welcome to present papers (approx. 25 minutes each) or workshops (approx. 45 minutes each). Those who will present papers or workshops have to distribute a handout in English at the conference. The paper (max: 20 pp double space in 11 font Arial) must also then be electronically available at the conference to download for the purposes of peer reviewing and a possible publication in the SASHT Journal, the October 2010 edition of *Yesterday&Today.* Please see the reference guidelines when presenting an article in the most recent Journal (Oct-Nov. 2009). This edition will be send by late May 2010 to all subscribed members of the SASHT.

Conference registration

Educators, researchers and any other academics from the GET, the FET and the HET levels are invited to register for the conference:

Registration fee: (***Early bird***-29 April to 23 July): R540)

(***After 23 July***: R660)

(***After 31 August***: R700)

Registration fee **IN**cludes:

- Beverages during the conference intervals;
- Lunch (2x);
- Friday Evening Dinner;
- Conference paraphernalia;
- A key note address by Prof Hermannn Giliomee (a research associate at the University of Stellenbosch and co-writer of the recent New History of South Africa/Nuwe Geskiedenis van Suid-Afrika);
- A possible excursion to a heritage site (a notification will be distributed after July).

Registration fee **EX**cludes:

- Accommodation (the number of nights you want to reserve is your choice. Payments must be done by yourself – Some rooms are R750 and R850 per night (for two persons sharing or single – Breakfast included – see rates in the appendix);
- Travelling fees;
- Daily conservation fee to Sanparks (R22 per day per person. Payment to be made by yourself);
- The 2010-2011 membership fee of the SASHT (that includes the subscription fee for the *Y&T* Journal) and that totals R150 per annum, should preferably be paid before/during the conference. (If you have not yet paid the 2009-2010 subscription fee of R140, please do so asap).

Registration fee **PAYMENT**

Account details

SASHT

ABSA Potchefstroom branch

Accountno: 678209406 (savings account)

Procedure for providing proof of payment:

Make payment via direct bank payment or Internet. CLEARLY indicate your payment as REGISTRATION SASHT SEPT 2010. IF you pay your Membership fee then also clearly indicate who's membership it is.

FAX or E-mail proof of payment (an attachment of payment) to Elize S van Eeden FAX: 016 910 3449. Any enquiries in this regard can be send to Mr Byron Bunt at Byron.Bunt@nwu.ac.za . If you experience any difficulties please phone him at his cell: 0767513079.

Accommodation:

Accommodation must be made by the conference attendees themselves (See rates in the appendix). There are sufficient accommodation possibilities in the Golden Gate National Park, though an early action before 23 June is required to prevent disappointment. We have asked the Golden Gate Highlands National Park authority to reserve some chalet accommodation for the SASHT members until 23 June. Therefore the onus is on you to book in time. Information to make the booking (you can do it through Sanparks website as well www.sanparks.org) can be the following:

Ms Mankholi Modise

Golden Gate Highlands National Park

* Private Bag X 3, Clarens, 9707

058 - 255 1000

* mankholiM@sanparks.org

METHOD OF BOOKING FOR ACCOMMODATION:

Phone/E-mail Ms Mankholi Modise. Refer to the reservation number R 2293726 to make a booking for a room. Once the booking is confirmed you should make a payment on the following account number:

Bank Name	: First National Bank
Account Holder	: South African national Parks
Account Number	: 620 293 35678
Branch Code	: 253 145

You should write the reservation number as reference on their proof of payments then fax the proof of payment to 012 343 2006/012 426 5488.

<u>Some information from the Sanparks website on their accommodation options is added as appendix</u>. You can visit their website for some directions and a map. We will also add some directions when a preliminary programme is distributed by 25 June.

All Enquiries:

The SASHT Secretary, Mr Byron Bunt at Byron.Bunt@nwu.ac.za Tel. 016 910 3126 or 076 751 3079.

Visit our website for an update of the conference details and speakers after 28 June 2010: www.sashtw.org.za

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REGISTRATION FORM: ANNUAL SASHT CONFERENCE

GOLDEN GATE HIGHLANDS NATIONAL PARK

24 and 25 September 2010

Mail or fax these details to the Secretary, Mr Byron Bunt at Byron.Bunt@ nwu.ac.za or e-mail the Treasurer Mr Jimmy Verner at jimmyv@iburst.co.za or the Chair Person: prof Elize van Eeden (Fax No: 016 910 3449).

Title and full name:

Affiliation (School / University /Department /Organisation):

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2009/2010 member of SASHT? (A membership fee of R130 is required):

  CONFIRM PAYMENT OF CONFERENCE REGISTRATION BY FAX. ADD THE DATE TOO.

APPENDIX:

ACCOMMODATION AT SANPARKS IN THE GOLDEN GATE HIGHLANDS NATIONAL PARK:

SANPARKS: Tariffs from 1 September 2009 to 31 October 2010

NORTHERN (SAVANNAH / GRASSLAND) REGION
(Golden Gate Highlands, Marakele and Mapungubwe)

GOLDEN GATE HIGHLANDS NATIONAL PARK

Nestled in the rolling foothills of the Maluti Mountains of the north-eastern Free State the park derives its name from the brilliant shades of gold cast by the sun on the park's sandstone cliffs

DAILY CONSERVATION FEE

Members of SANParks' loyalty programme *WILD* do not pay conservation fees <u>provided that proof of Identity and their *WILD* card are shown on arrival</u>

South African Citizens and Residents (with ID)......................................R22,00 per person, per day
SADC Nationals (with passport)................................. R44,00 per adult / R22,00 per child, per day
Standard Conservation Fee .... R88,00 per adult / R44,00 per child, per day

GOLDEN GATE HOTEL

Accommodation type	No. of units	Base Rate	Base Guests	Beds	Add. Adult	Add. Child
Twin Room North Facing NTRB, NTRS, NTRSZ	40	R850	1 – 2	2 single beds	N/A	N/A
Twin Room South Facing STRS	2	R750	1 – 2	2 single beds	N/A	N/A
Twin Room South Facing SQBS	9	R750	1 – 2	1 queen size bed	N/A	N/A
Premier Luxury Suite NPKBS	1	R2500	1 – 2	1 king size bed	N/A	N/A
Honeymoon Suite NHKBS	1	R1350	1 – 2	1 king size bed	N/A	N/A
Chalet CH2/4B *(Self-catering)(bath)*	2	R725	1 - 2	1 double and 2 single beds	R144	R72
Chalets CH2/4S *(Self-catering)(shower)*	30	R725	1 - 2	1 double and 2 single beds	R144	R72
Chalets CH2/4Z *(Self-catering)(units accessible to the mobility challenged)(shower)*	2	R725	1 - 2	1 double and 2 single beds	R144	R72

GLEN REENEN REST CAMP

Campsite CK6 *(no power)*	15	R135	1 - 2	6 people per site	R48	R24
Campsite CK6P *(with powerpoint)*	30	R145	1 - 2	6 people per site	R48	R24
Rondavel HKB2	7	R540	1 - 2	1 double bed	N/A	N/A
Rondavel HKD4	6	R540	1 - 2	1 double bed and 2 single beds on loft	R144	R72
Rondavel HKD4Z *(unit accessible to the mobility challenged)*	1	R540	1 - 2	1 double bed and 2 single beds on loft	R144	R72
Longdavel LD2	4	R580	1 - 2	2 single beds	N/A	N/A
Longdavel LD2D	5	R580	1 - 2	1 double bed	N/A	N/A
Longdavel LD2Z *(unit accessible to the mobility challenged)*	1	R580	1 - 2	2 single beds	N/A	N/A
Family Cottage FA4D *(one bedroom, one bathroom)*	2	R600	1 - 2	1 double and 1 bunk bed	R144	R72
Family Cottage FA4B *(two bedrooms, one bathroom)*	1	R940	1 - 4	1 double and 2 single beds	N/A	N/A
Family Cottage FA4 *(two bedrooms, two bathrooms)*	2	R940	1 - 4	1 double and 2 single beds	N/A	N/A
Family Cottage FA6DZ *(two bedrooms, two bathrooms)*	1	R940	1 - 4	1 double and 2 single beds and 1 bunk bed	R248	R124

SANPARKS: Tariffs from 1 September 2009 to 31 October 2010

Accommodation type	No. of units	Base Rate	Base Guests	Beds	Add. Adult	Add. Child
Family Cottage FA6B (three bedrooms, two bathrooms)	1	R940	1 - 4	1 double and 4 single beds	R248	R124
Noord-Brabant Farmhouse GH6	1	R940	1 - 4	1 double and 3 single beds and 1 single sleeper couch	R248	R124
HIGHLANDS MOUNTAIN RETREAT						
Log Cottage FT2/4	4	R870	1 – 2	1 double bed and 1 double sleeper couch	N/A	R124
Family Log Cottage FT4	3	R1430	1 – 4	1 double bed and 2 single beds	N/A	N/A
Family Log Cottage FT4Z (unit accessible to the mobility challenged)	1	R1430	1 – 4	1 double bed and 2 single beds	N/A	N/A
BASOTHO CULTURAL VILLAGE REST CAMP						
Rondawel HK2	12	R525	1 – 2	1 double bed	N/A	N/A
Rondawel HKD4	10	R525	1 – 2	1 double bed and 2 bunk beds	R144	R72
Rondawel HKD4Z (unit accessible to the mobility challenged)	2	R525	1 – 2	1 double bed and 2 bunk beds	R144	R72

Framework for the development and evaluation of educational DVDs and web-based multi-media clips for Grade 8 and 9 History

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Abstract

The White Paper on e-Education[1] promotes the use of various information communication technologies (ICTs) to achieve the expected learning outcomes in the different learning areas of the school curriculum. Because most teachers and learners are not yet computer skilled, resource-based learning, supported by digital versatile disc (DVD) technology*,* is one of the most cost-effective and self-contained educational media that involve minimal infrastructural investment. Educational DVDs provide the opportunity to deliver a constructive multi-media learning experience to learners in rural areas who do not have access to libraries and the Internet. This is especially valuable for history education because DVDs allow learners to "go time travelling" through history, guided by different learning media and artefacts such as historical photographs, illustrations, film material, music, speeches, newspaper reports, political cartoons, maps, etc. Multi-media learning tools stimulate different learning styles and broaden the range of the learning experience in general. This paper provides a research framework for the development and evaluation of educational DVDs and Web-based multi-media clips for grades 8 and 9 history in the social sciences learning area. These clips are currently being developed at the Faculty Education Sciences of the North-West University. These educational media, with accompanying teacher manual and learner word-cards, are intended as inexpensive support of quality education and sustainable social development in South Africa.

Keywords: Educational; DVD; Web-based; Multi-media; History high-tech teaching; Grades 8-9 history alive.

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1   Department of Education, "White Paper on e-Education" (Pretoria, Department of Education, 2004).

Introduction

Since 1994, the South African education system has restructured itself on principles of equity, human rights, democracy and sustainable social development. New education policies, legislation and governance structures were developed and implemented on all levels.[2] These include the implementation of the National Qualifications Framework,[3] the Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grade R to 9,[4] and the National Curriculum Statement for Grades 10 to 12.[5] The curriculum statements are based on progressive, learner-centred, outcome-based education[6] with an integrated approach to knowledge. Learners are envisioned who will be imbued with the values and act in the interests of a society based on respect for democracy, equality, human dignity and social justice, as promoted by the Constitution of South Africa.[7] The intention of the outcomes-based approach[8] to education is that all learners should receive equal opportunity to develop their full potential through life-long learning, will be confident and independent, literate, numerate, multi-skilled, compassionate, respectful of the environment, and participate in society as critical and active citizens.[9]

The Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9[10] and the National Curriculum Statement for Grades 10-12[11] outline specific learning outcomes to help teachers design a robust curriculum around concepts and

2   Department of Education, *White Paper on Education and Training,* Notice 196 of 1995 (Cape Town, DoE, 1995); DoE, *South African Qualifications Authority,* Act No. 58 of 1995 (Pretoria, DoE, 1995); DoE. *National Education Policy,* Act No. 27 of 1996 (Cape Town, DoE, 1996); DoE, *South African Schools,* Act No. 84 of 1996 (Cape Town, DoE, 1996); HJ Steyn & CC Wolhuter (Eds.), *Education systems: Challenges of the 21st century* (Noordbrug, Keurkopie, 2008).

3   DoE, *South African Qualifications Authority,* Act No. 58 of 1995; DoE, *The National Qualifications Framework and Curriculum Development* (Pretoria, South African Qualification Authority, 2000); DoE, "National Qualifications Framework" (Cape Town, Government Gazette, 4: 30778, 2008); SAQA, "South African Qualification Authority", Position Paper on NQF and Curriculum 2005" (available at: http://www.saqa.org.za, as accessed on 15 April 2008).

4   DoE, "Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9" (Government Gazette, 443:23406, 2002).

5   DoE, "National Curriculum Statement for Grades 10-12 (General)" (Cape Town, DoE, 2003); J Jansen & P Christie (Eds.), Changing curriculum: Studies on outcomes-based education in South Africa (Cape Town, Juta and Co, 1999); SAQA, "South African Qualification Authority", Position Paper… (available at: http://www.saqa.org.za, as accessed on 15 April 2008).

6   W Spady, *Outcome-based education: Critical issues and answers* (Arlington, American Association of School Administrators, 1994); W Spady, *Outcome-based education: The way forward* (Video Presentation to the Western Cape Education Department, 1999).

7   Republic of South Africa, "The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, as adopted on 8 May 1996 and amended on 11 October 1996 by the Constitutional Assembly" (Pretoria, Republic of South Africa, 1996).

8   W Spady, *Outcome-based education…* .

9   DoE, "National Curriculum Statement for Grades 10-12 (General)", (Cape Town, DoE, 2003), p. 17.

10 DoE, "Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9 ", (Government Gazette, 443: 23406, 2002).

11 DoE, "National Curriculum Statement for Grades 10-12… .

principles worth knowing, with the aid of assessment standards.[12] Teachers are responsible for the development and facilitation of programmes and activities to empower learners with skills, knowledge and constitutional values.

The school subject history is grouped under the learning area social sciences. The Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9: Social Sciences envisages the following learner development for the senior phase (grades 7 to 9) history:[13]

> Learners in this phase can access and place historical information within historical context. For example, they can place events, people and changes in the periods of history studied within a chronological framework, reach valid conclusions based on comparisons, and relate these conclusions to their historical contexts. Learners can identify categories of causes and effects - such as immediate and long-term, direct and indirect - and explain and analyse the reasons for and results of events in history. They demonstrate a more critical understanding of the reliability and usefulness of sources (e.g. they can identify omissions, bias and stereotypes), of historical interpretation (e.g. values and methods of investigation of the historian), and of the use and abuse of history (e.g. the influence of issues of race, class and gender on the way history has been written) ... They also demonstrate a critical knowledge and understanding of change and progress, and of the causes and importance of events. At the end of this phase, and with increasing confidence, learners should be able to debate historical issues, and produce well-structured pieces of historical narrative, description and explanation, giving their own interpretations of sources within the context of the South African Constitution and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

There are three formal learning outcomes for grades 8 and 9 history:

• Learning Outcome 1: Historical enquiry that will enable the learners to use enquiry skills to investigate the past and present. This include enquiry processes like finding sources; working with sources (asking questions, finding information and also organising, analysing and synthesising information); answering a question (writing a piece of history); and also communicating an answer (communicating historical knowledge and understanding).[14]

• Learning Outcome 2: Historical knowledge and understanding that will enable the learners to demonstrate historical knowledge and understanding. The achieving of this outcome includes important enquiry processes like chronology and time; cause and effect and also similarity and difference.[15]

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12 SAQA, "South African Qualification Authority", Position Paper… (available at: http://www.saqa.org.za, as accessed on 15 April 2008).

13 DoE, "Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9: Social Sciences" (Pretoria, DoE, 2002), p. 59.

14 Also retrieved from the Social Sciences 2002 doc.

15 DoE, "Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9…, p. 60.

- Learning Outcome 3: Historical interpretation that will enable learners to interpret aspects of history. Enquiry processes like interpretation based on historical sources; understanding that there are issues which influence interpretation and also interpreting public representation of the past, archaeology and memory, are important for this outcome.[16]

According to the Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9: Social Sciences,[17] the focus of knowledge to attain the three learning outcomes in grade 8 is reflected by the following historical themes:

- Changing worlds: the French Revolution;

- Changing worlds: Industrialisation;

- Resisting British control;

- The experience of Colonialism in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries;

- Changing ideas and technologies – World War I.

The knowledge focus for achieving the three learning outcomes in grade 9 is reflected by the following historical themes:

- Human Rights issues during and after World War II;

- The end of World War II and the struggle for Human Rights;

- Apartheid in South Africa;

- The Nuclear Age and the Cold War;

- Issues of our time;

- A new vision for Africa: Africa's economic recovery.

Each of the knowledge-focused learning outcomes has associated assessment standards which describe what learners should know and be able to demonstrate in order to achieve the learner development for grades 8 and 9 history (Table 1). The assessment standards embody the knowledge, skills and values required to achieve the learning outcomes, and show conceptual progression from grade 8 to grade 9.

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16 DoE, "Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9…, p. 60.
17 DoE, "Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9…, pp. 61-62.

Table 1: Assessment Standards for Grade 8 and 9

Grade 8	Grade 9
Finds Sources Continues to identify and select a variety of historical and archaeological sources relevant to an inquiry	**Finds Sources** Investigates a topic by asking key questions and identifies a variety of relevant sources to explore this topic.
Works with Sources Evaluates the sources used (e.g."Who create the sources?" Is it reliable?", How useful is the information?")	**Works with Sources** Asks significant questions to evaluate the sources (e.g. to identify bias and stereotypes, omissions and gaps)
Works with Sources Interprets graphical and statistical sources	**Works with Sources** Analyses the information in the sources
Answers the Question Presents an original idea as part of answer to questions posed.	**Answers the Question** Presents an original idea as part of answer to questions posed.
Communicates the Answer Communicates knowledge and understanding by constructing own interpretation and argument based on historical sources (including extended writing, artwork, graphics and drama); uses information technology where available and appropriate.	**Communicates the Answer** Communicates knowledge and understanding by constructing own interpretation and argument based on historical sources (including extended writing, artwork, graphics and drama); uses information technology where available and appropriate.
Chronology and Time Begins to make links between historical events and processes in different contexts in the same period.	**Chronology and Time** Places events, people and changes in the periods of history studied within a chronological framework.
Cause and Effect Recognises the causes and effects of events vary in importance.	**Cause and Effect** Identifies categories of causes and effects (e.g. immediate and long-term, direct and indirect). Explains and analyses the reasons for and results of events in history.
Change and Continuity Explains changes in a wider historical and environmental context.	**Change and Continuity** Recognises that change and development does not always mean progress.

Problem Statement

According to the Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9: Social Sciences,[18] teachers need to be accountable to learners, parents, the education system, and the broader community, when assessing their learners. This is done through reporting. Written reports, oral and practical

18   DoE, "Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9…, p. 3.

presentations, and displays of learners' work and exhibitions may be used. Each learner's progress report should include information on the learning outcomes achieved, as well as the learner's competencies, support needed, and constructive feedback. The report should also contain comments about the learner's performance in relation to peers, as well as the learner's previous performance in relation to the requirements of the learning area. Reporting to parents should be done on a regular basis so as to encourage their involvement and participation. Teachers report learner progression at the end of each term via formal report cards. Currently, many teachers struggle to work out practical assessment tools, both for individual and group assessment, mainly because of a lack of resources such as learning material, multi-media, pre-designed learner work cards and teacher manuals.

Research Question

 The Department of Education promotes the use of various information communication technologies (ICTs), e.g. computer-assisted learning, to achieve the learning outcomes of the different learning areas. The former Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, made a strong commitment to ICTs in education, and in 1994 the White Paper on e-Education was published as a formal policy for the system-wide implementation and integration of ICTs in the South African education system.[19] Currently, however, many teachers and learners still do not have the necessary computer knowledge, technical skills or infrastructure to use ICTs for teaching and learning. In 2007, only three in every ten schools had access to computers, and only one in every ten schools had Internet access, mainly through dial-up connections.[20] In the South African context, resource based learning,[21] including DVD technology, is still one of the most cost-effective and self-contained media, which involves minimal infrastructure investment beyond a DVD player, TV or Computer Monitor, and power supply. Richard Diercks, president of the Richard Diercks Co. in Minneapolis, Minnesota, that develops and produces educational DVDs, promotes DVD technology for educational purposes as follows: [22]

19 DoE, "White Paper on e-Education", (Pretoria, DoE, 2004).
20 DoE, "The Thutong portal" (available at: www.Thutong.org.za, as accessed on 26 Sept. 2008).
21 S Brown & B Smith, *Resource-based learning* (Herndon, Stylus Publishing, 1996).
22 DG Block, "DVD Today: DVD makes teacher training easy in the Marshall Islands", *Emedia Magazine*, July 2002, pp. 21-22.

> DVD is the only technology that is not a "yeah but" proposition. It gives us everything that we need. That includes high-quality audio, high-quality video, capacity, interactivity and cheap delivering with a large installed base... With a DVD the teacher can bring together, in a controlled situation, a combination of audio-visual experiences. In the subject history, these may include pictures, historical photographs, illustrations, videos, films, newspaper reports, political cartoons, speeches, historical artefacts, maps, sound clips, speeches, music, etc. With this the teacher creates the opportunity for the learners to loosen themselves from the present time and go "time travelling". This in turn, motivates learning, encourages active participation, and broadens the range of learning experiences.

As the objectives of the White Paper on e-Education[23] are systematically implemented and integrated by the National Department of Education, more and more learners and teachers will become computer and Internet competent, and Web-based media will become an integral part of future education in South Africa. Currently, very few educational DVDs and Web-based multi-media clips are available to support teachers and learners in order to achieve the learning outcomes and assessment standards of the Revised National Curriculum Statement. From the above exposition the research question arises: Is it possible to develop and evaluate educational DVDs and Web-based multi-media clips for grades 8 and 9 history according to the Revised National Curriculum Statement, learning outcomes and assessment standards?

Aim

The aim of this research project is to develop and evaluate educational DVDs and Web-based multi-media clips with learner work cards and a teacher manual for grade 8 and 9 history in the social sciences learning area according to the Revised National Curriculum Statement, learning outcomes and assessment standards. The aim of this theoretical paper is to provide a framework for the development and evaluation of the proposed DVDs.

Research Methodology

Literature Review

Resource based learning,[24] which includes educational digital versatile discs

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23   DoE, "White Paper on e-Education" (Pretoria, DoE, 2004).
24   S Brown & B Smith, *Resource-based learning* (Herndon, Stylus Publishing, 1996).

(DVDs), is still one of the most cost-effective and self-contained media that demands minimal infrastructural investment beyond a DVD player, TV or computer monitor, and power supply. Internationally, online learning is increasingly becoming the learning and teaching medium for education. However, the digital divide is still hampering online learning, especially in developing countries where learners and students do not have Internet access or high speed broadband. In South Africa where most learners and teachers are not computer literate, and often do not have access to libraries especially in rural areas, the use of educational DVDs is one of the most effective tools to transfer audio-visual knowledge for teaching and learning purposes. DVDs also seem to be a valuable bridge between traditional resource based learning and e-learning, and can even be used to facilitate learning amongst learners with special needs. For example, at the University of Wollongong, Australia, researchers addressed the digital divide in the use of broadband through the provision of media rich content by DVD in a hybrid DVD/WebCT environment;[25] while researchers at the University of Oregon developed and evaluated educational DVDs with expanded captions adapted for students who are deaf or hard of hearing, and found no significant difference in the comprehension levels of these students and students using standard captions.[26] This shows that resource based learning technologies, such as DVDs, can be adapted as effective educational resources for learners with special educational needs.

At the UK Midlands University, educational DVDs are used as an evaluation tool for the assessment of communication skills and knowledge of nursing students.[27] The DVDs provide recorded scenarios to students, who after watching the DVDs, are assessed via a series of questions inviting them to consider communicative aspects of the events depicted in the DVDs. Educational DVDs can be used in the same manner within the South African educational context to help assess learner skills, understanding and knowledge. Educational DVDs can not be used for teaching and learning only, but also as a self-evaluation tool for teachers. For example, the Education and Training Inspectorate (Inspectorate) of Northern Ireland developed a series

25 R Caladine, "Learning environments of the future: narrow to broadband via DVD", *Meeting at the crossroads*, 2001, pp. 117-123.
26 L Anderson-Inman, F Terrazas & U Slabin, *Supported video projects: The use of expanded captions to promote student comprehension of educational videos on DVD* (Oregon, National Center for Supported eText, University of Oregon, 2008).
27 P Crawford, A Aubeeluck, B Brown, L Cotrel-Gibbons, D Porock & C Baker, "An evaluation of a DVD trigger based assessment of communication and care delivery skills", *Nurse Education Today*, 2009, 29, pp. 456–463.

of self-evaluation DVDs for teachers in order to help foster a culture of self-evaluation and constant self-improvement.[28]

Specifically in the field of history, various history DVDs have been produced and are commercially available. Examples include: The History Channel's French Revolution (1 DVD);[29] The Era of Colonization (1 DVD);[30] The Educational Video Network's Industrial Revolution (1 DVD);[31] The History Channel's America at War series (14 DVDs);[32] The Best of the History Channel series (40 DVDs);[33] The Complete Story: World War I (3 DVDs);[34] The Complete History of WWII (5 DVDs);[35] The National Archives WWII in Colour (5 DVDs);[36] Vivendi Entertainment's Nelson Mandela: Son of Africa, Father of a Nation (1 DVD),[37] etc. While these DVDs are also intended as educational media, most are produced as entertainment television documentaries about world history, without recognising the specific learning outcomes of history as a school subject.

Exploring the literature, the research team could not find any published research framework for the development and evaluation of educational DVDs for history or any other school subjects. Very few studies could be found on the evaluation or impact assessment of educational DVDs in general. The Massachusetts Adult Literacy Technology Team uses the following methodology to evaluate educational technology such as DVDs: detailed written surveys, in-depth follow-up telephone interviews, focus group interviews, weekly e-mail questions, brief written surveys, site visits and observation protocols for technology use.[38] Some researchers use pre- and post-test knowledge questionnaires, and technical and affective technology evaluation questionnaires.[39] Other evaluation criteria for educational ICTs include: design, context and pedagogy, activities, innovation, constraints and

28   F Crawford, "Improvement through self-evaluation in pre-school education", *Questions of Quality*, 2005, pp. 178-182.
29   History Channel, *French revolution* (New York, History Channel, 2005, 1 DVD).
30   Schlessinger Media, *The era of Colonization,* 1585-1763 (New York, Schlessinger Media, 2003, 1 DVD).
31   Educational Video Network, *Industrial Revolution* (Huntsville, Educational Video Network, 2004, 1 DVD).
32   History Channel, *America at War Megaset* (New York, History Channel, February, 2008, 14 DVDs).
33   History Channel, *The Best of the History Channel I-IV* (New York, History Channel, 2008, 40 DVDs).
34   Timeless Media Group, *The Complete Story: World War I* (Eugene, Timeless Media Group, 2003, 3 DVDs).
35   Madacy Entertainment, *The Complete History of WWII* (Quebec , Madacy Entertainment, 2003, 5 DVDs).
36   National Archives, *The National Archives WWII in Color* (Renton, Topics Entertainment, 2008, 5 DVDs).
37   Vivendi Entertainment, *Nelson Mandela: Son of Africa, Father of a Nation* (Paris, Vivendi Entertainment, 2009, 1 DVD).
38   A Brickman, L Braun & M Stockford, *An evaluation of the use of technology in support of adult basic education in Massachusetts* (Massachusetts, Massachusetts Adult Literacy Technology Team, October, 2000).
39   AR Winstock, T Lea & A Fettell, "Pilot evaluation of an educational DVD for people with opioid dependence", *Drugs: Education, Prevention and Policy*, 16(2), April 2009, pp. 182 – 192.

basic cognition;[40] and educational context, learning experience, preferred activities, usability and used recommendations for improvement.[41] Because no framework could be found in the literature for the development and evaluation of educational DVDs for history education, the research team developed the following framework:

Development and Evaluation Research Framework

Development Phase (Steps A to C on Figure 2)

Figure 1: DVD Set for Grade 8 and 9 History

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40 M Morgan, "Evaluating ICT in education using the concept of mediation" (Paper, *ALT-C 2007: 14th International Conference of the Association for Learning Technology*, Nottingham, 4-6 September 2007).

41 E Turtiainen, S Blignaut, CJ Els, TH Laine & E Sutinen, "Story-based U-fractions mobile game in South Africa: Contextualization process and multidimensional playing experiences" (Paper, International Conference on Web-based Learning (ICWL), RWTH Aachen University, Aachen, 19-21 August 2009).

PROJECT
The Development and Evaluation
of Educational DVDs and Web-Based
Multi-Media Clips for Grades 8 & 9 History
in the Social Sciences Learning Area

(A) DEVELOPMENT COMPONENTS

(A1)
Script in English
and Afrikaans

Peer Review

(A2)
Teachers Manual

Work Cards

(A3)
Visual Images
Historical Film Media
Copy Right
Graphic Editing
Sound Editing

(A4)
Voice Artists
Sound Recordings
Music
Sound Effects
Sound Editing

(B) Multi-Media Clips Editing

(C) DVD Research Copies

(D) RESEARCH COMPONENTS

(D1) Full Ethical Clearance

(D2) Objective Qualitative Case Studies

*Objective Fieldnotes (activities, acts & details), Work Cards,
Observations, Implementation Processes, Quality*

Paradigm: Functionalism

Clarification Evaluation: attributes, characteristics, structure,
terms, concepts, stake holders

Process Evaluation: key activities, implementation,
performance, process monitoring

Product Monitoring: quality, outcomes clear?

Outcomes & Impact
Assessment: learning outcomes, learner work cards,
teacher work cards & notes

(D3) Subjective Qualitative Case Studies

*Interviews; Individual Experiences; Outcomes, Work
Cards, Subjective Fieldnotes.*

Paradigm: Interpretivism

Digital Recordings: semi-structured interviews - individual
experiences, impressions, feelings,
attitudes, expectations, fears, etc.
of teachers & learners

Fieldnotes: researcher' subjective field notes
(personal impressions)

Artifacts: individual learner experiences
reflected in work cards & learning
outcomes

(E) Qualitative Data Analysis (Atlas™)
(F) Research Articles

(G) *Commercial Educational DVD's (+CD versions) and Web-Based Multi-Media Clips: available in English and Afrikaans*
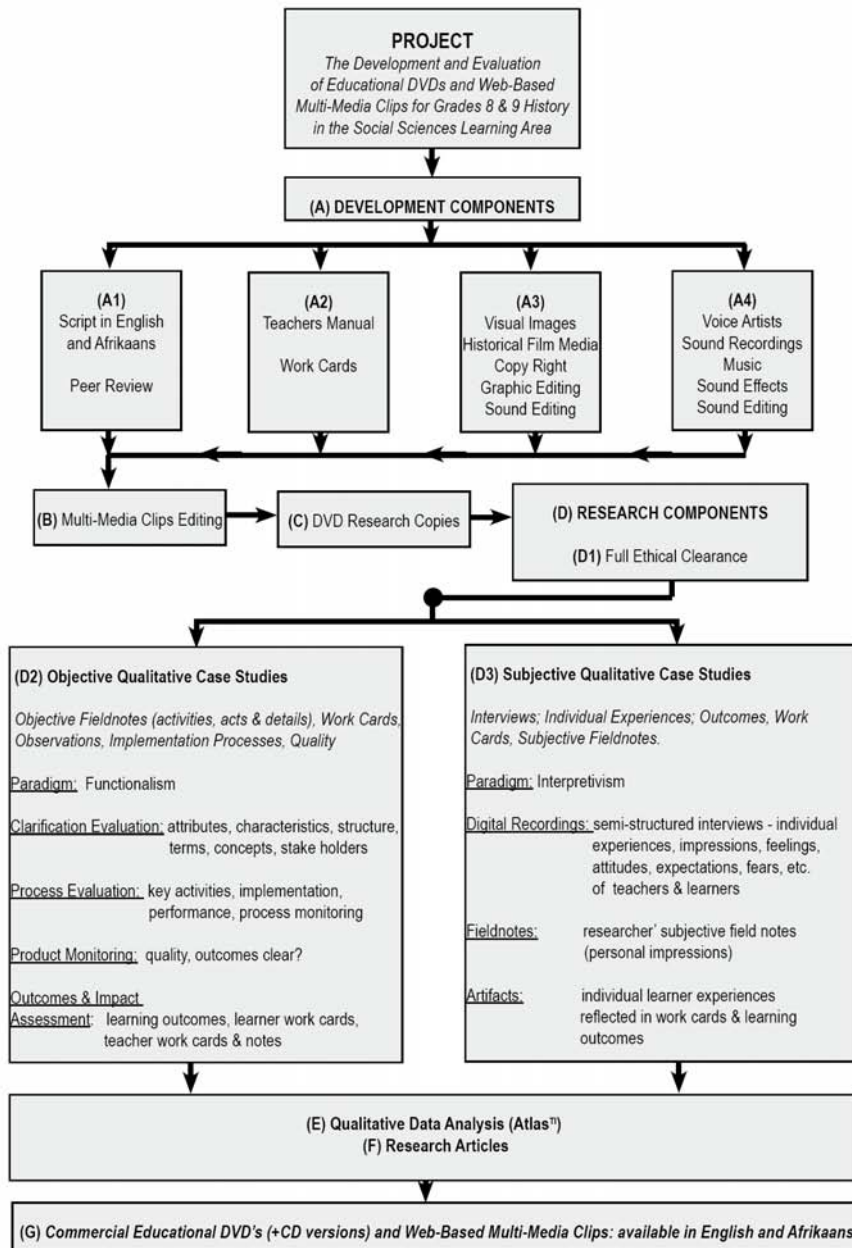
Figure 2: Development and Evaluation Framework

Figure 1 shows the five educational DVDs for grades 8 and 9 that are currently being developed at the Faculty Educational Sciences via d-Media (the Digital Media Centre) of the North-West University; while Figure 2 provides the

proposed research framework that will be used to develop and evaluate the DVDs and Web-based multi-media clips over a period of two years.

A1-A4 and B-C on Figure 2 represent the development phase. Firstly, the script for the multi-media clips has been composed (in both English and Afrikaans) by the main researcher (a professional history lecturer) according to the Revised National Curriculum Statement, learning outcomes, and assessment standards for grades 8 and 9 history (A1 on Figure 2). She is also busy composing outcomes-based learner work cards and a teacher manual to accompany the DVD set (A2 on Figure 2). All scripts are peer reviewed by professional university history lecturers and language editors, and the necessary recommendations are addressed (A1 on Figure 2). During Step A3 on Figure 2, the research and development team are selecting the most appropriate historical artefacts, e.g. visual images, historical film media, newspaper articles, political cartoons, sound recordings of speeches, maps, etc. to be included in the multi-media clips and DVDs. With the assistance of the Digital Media Centre of the North-West University, the researchers are obtaining formal copyright permission for all media used, some of which are purchased via museums and broadcasting corporations, while others are in the public domain. All audio and visual media are professionally edited to enhance their quality. During Step A4 on Figure 2, professional voice artists (narrators) are being used to record the script (A1 on Figure 2) in a professional sound recording studio, and the sound recordings are edited by professional audio engineers at the Digital Media Centre of the North-West University. The audio engineers are also responsible for music and other special effects included in the media clips. During Step B on Figure 2, a professional media editor at the Digital Media Centre is compiling and editing the Web-based multi-media clips, which in turn, are compiled into a set of research DVDs (Step C on Figure C), which will be evaluated among four groups of learners over a period of two years.

Empirical Investigation: Evaluation Phase (Steps D and E on Figure 2)

Ethical Considerations (D1 on Figure 2)

The research team will apply to the North-West University's Research Ethics Committee for ethical clearance prior to the commencement of the empirical study (D1 on Figure 2). Participants will be informed about the purpose and nature of the study. Informed consent will be obtained for all participants and from participating schools, with the understanding that anonymity will

be respected and research results will be reported in aggregated form only. Participants will be informed of their right to withdraw at any time during assessment. All participants will be treated with respect and will participate voluntarily. Instructions will be clear and assistance will be available.

Research Participants (Study Groups)

2010 - Grade 8 History		2011 - Grade 9 History
Learners from Rural School (English DVD set)	→	Same Learners from Rural School (English DVD set)
Learners from Semi-Rural School (English DVD set)	→	Same Learners from Semi-Rural School (English DVD set)
Learners from Urban School (English DVD set)	→	Same Learners from Urban School (English DVD set)
Learners from Urban School (Afrikaans DVD set)	→	Same Learners from Urban School (Afrikaans DVD set)

Figure 3: Four Study Groups

Four study groups (Figure 3) of history learners and their teachers, respectively from a rural school, a semi-rural school and two urban schools in the North-West Province, will be recruited to participate in the evaluation phase of this research project. Teachers will be asked to use the set of educational DVDs, together with learner work cards and teacher manual for the teaching, facilitation and learning of grades 8 and 9 history. The same four groups (learners with their teachers) will first use the grade 8 educational DVDs, followed by the grade 9 DVDs, over a period of two years.

Evaluation (D2 and D3 on Figure 2)

During and after the four study groups used each of the five educational DVDs (with learner work cards and teacher manual) to facilitate teaching and learning in their classrooms, the researchers will visit each school and perform two main evaluations, i.e. (i) objective qualitative case studies and (ii) subjective qualitative case studies.

Objective Qualitative Case Studies (Step D2 on Figure 2)

For this research component that falls within the functionalism research

meta-paradigm, the researchers will perform the following evaluations to collect data:

• Clarification evaluation of the attributes, characteristics, structure, terms, concepts, etc. of the DVD content for teachers and learners.

• Process evaluation of the key activities, implementation, performances and processes while the teachers and learners are using the DVDs, work cards and manual.

• Product monitoring to make sure that the quality and learning outcomes are clear.

• Outcome and impact assessment to assess if learners reached the expected learning outcomes by assessing their work cards, teacher notes, group assignments and progress reports.

Subjective Qualitative Case Studies (Step D3 on Figure 2)

For this research component that falls within the Interpretive research meta-paradigm, the researchers will collect the following data:

• Semi-structured interviews with teachers and learners to understand their unique experiences, impressions, feelings, attitudes, expectations, fears, etc. while using the educational DVDs, work cards and manual for teaching and learning activities.

• Field notes and observations of researchers

• Individual learner experiences reflected in their work cards and learning activities

History is compulsory up to grade 9. Currently, most learners discontinue history as a school subject when they enter grade 10. Therefore, the researchers will also statistically investigate if the history drop-out rate is significantly lower for the four groups after two years of active involvement and use of the educational DVDs, work cards and teacher manual. If this is the case, the DVDs could possibly prove to encourage learners to continue history as a school subject up to grade 12.

Because Web-based multi-media education is necessary to become part of the Global Information Age, the different historical themes/parts of the DVDs will also be released as Web-based multi-media clips on the Internet.

Data Analysis (E on Figure 2)

All the qualitative data collected in Steps D2 and D3 on Figure 2 will be used to compile an integrated dataset using ATLAS[ti] – a computer assisted software for qualitative data analyses.

<u>Findings and Research Outputs</u>

Research Reporting (F on Figure 2)

The findings of this research project will be reported in article format in accredited academic journals. The research team will also present their findings to the Department of Education and to the broader academic community at history conferences.

Feedback to Participants

After completion of this research project, the research team will again visit the schools that participated to provide them with feedback on the general findings of this research project.

Inexpensive Educational DVDs and Web-based Multi-Media Clips (G on Figure 2)

After appropriate evaluation, the educational DVDs and Web-based multi-media clips are intended to be used by the South African education sector, as inexpensive educational media in support of quality education and sustainable social development in South Africa.

Conclusion and recommendations

In this theoretical paper the research team proposes a framework for the development and evaluation of educational DVDs and Web-based multi-media clips with learner work cards and a teacher manual for grade 8 and 9 history in the social sciences learning area according to the Revised National Curriculum Statement, learning outcomes and assessment standards. The framework consists of Development Components, i.e. professional peer-reviewed media scripts, a teacher manual and learner work cards,

copyright permission, editing and use of various media for example visual images, historical film material and audio recordings; as well as a Research Component, i.e. objective qualitative case studies (clarification evaluation, process evaluation, product evaluation, outcome and impact evaluation), and subjective qualitative case studies (semi-structured interviews, field notes and artefacts). Data will be analysed using Atlas.ti to construct an integrated data set. The research team will report the evaluation findings after the two year empirical investigation. After apt evaluation, the educational DVDs and Web-based multi-media will be released as inexpensive teaching and learning tools for grade 8 and 9 history in social sciences learning area.

The research done at the University of Oregon concerning the use of educational DVDs with expanded captions for students who are deaf or hard of hearing,[42] is significant in the inclusive South African educational context, to ensure each learner's democratic right to equal learning and working opportunities, as stipulated by the Constitution of South Africa. The research team strongly recommend research on how resource based learning technologies, such as DVDs, can be adapted as effective educational resources for learners with special needs in the South African educational context.

DVDs can also become a valuable tool to assist South African teachers to self-evaluate and develop their skills, as in the case of the self-evaluation DVDs developed by the Education and Training Inspectorate (Inspectorate) of Northern Ireland.[43] The research team further encourages research on the use of educational DVDs for teacher self-evaluation and professional development in the South African context.

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42 L Anderson-Inman, F Terrazas & U Slabin, *Supported video projects: The use of expanded captions to promote student comprehension of educational videos on DVD* (Oregon, National Center for Supported eText, University of Oregon, 2008).

43 F Crawford, "Improvement through self-evaluation in pre-school education", *Questions of Quality*, 2005, pp. 178-182.

Clear-cut to high-tech: History teaching and learning support material (TLSM) drawing on information and communication technology (ICT)

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Abstract

The integration of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and multimedia within History teaching and learning is an outcome of the curriculum of the National Education Department of South Africa. History lessons for the classroom situation can become more active and learner-centred, slowing the widening gap between South Africa and the developed world with respect to ICT integration and the use of multimedia resources in History teaching and learning at schools. The purpose of this article is to show teachers where to locate sources and resource materials that can be used in History lessons, inform teachers on some of the History-related features of each website, and expose teachers to the use of new teaching strategies aided by the Internet. High-tech TLSM possibilities can promote greater integration of ICT and multimedia into History lessons to improve a broader understanding of content and enhance quality teaching.

Keywords: History Teaching and Learning; Information and Communication Technology/ICT; Internet; Teaching and Learning Support Material/TLSM; Multimedia.

Introduction, problem statement and purpose of the study

Why do visuals and movies make the knowledge focus in the classroom magical?[1] One justification is that the accessible and complimentary Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and multimedia have been used correctly with the teaching strategy. Ideally History methodology and the application of 21st century technology should meet each other in the classroom. The importance of ICT is not skills acquisition or knowledge of

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1   This reference to "movie makes magical" was a part of the 2009 SASHT conference theme.

technologies, but rather its ability to create greater access to information and communication and ensure that technology aids the learner to master the outcomes during the teaching and learning phase.[2]

More and more evidence exists showing that learners enjoy using computers, since it improves their attitude towards school and they feel that they "learn better" using ICT.[3] ICT refers to technology that is used to gather, control, store, present, provide access to and communicate information, for example computers, monitors, speakers, VCRs and portable DVD players. It also encompasses any communication device or application that includes radio, television, cellular phones, desktop and laptop computers, computer and network hardware and software, satellite systems, as well as the services and applications associated with them, such as "peripherals and connections to the Internet" that are intended to fulfil information processing and communication functions.[4] ICT thus consists of computer features and communication facilities that support teaching and learning activities in education. It is important to remember that reference to ICTs is made in a particular context, for example, ICT in education.[5]

ICT together with multimedia[6] (e.g. text, images and audio) has been used for decades to support teaching and learning, and researchers of History teaching recommend the use of a wide variety of multimedia resource material.[7] Learning with words, visual images and sound is embodied in the cognitive theory of multimedia learning,[8] but in South African schools the

2   Anon., "ICT. A definition from WhatIs.com", 2004 http://searchcio-midmarket.techtarget.com/ sDefinition/0,,sid183_gci928405,00.html. Date of access: 14 February 2007 and Kent County Council, "What is ICT?", 2004 http://www.kented.org.uk/ ngfl/ict/definition.htm Date of access: 17 April 2007.

3   T Haydn, *Information and communications technology in the history classroom* (*In* J Arthur & R Phillips, *eds*. Issues in history teaching. London, Routledge, 2000)

4   Anon, "ICT. A definition from WhatIs.com", 2004 http://searchcio-midmarket.techtarget.com/ sDefinition/0,,sid183_gci928405,00.html Date of access: 14 February 2007.

5   Kent County Council, "What is ICT?", 2004   http://www.kented.org.uk/ngfl/ict/definition.htm. Date of access: 17 April 2007.

6   Multimedia is defined broadly as the presentation of material in more than one form. When presenting material in teaching and learning it is referred to as multimedia instruction. Multimedia refers to presentations that include, among others, words (audio and printed text) and pictures (still and moving). See RE Mayer *Multimedia learning*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001) and AE Barron & GW Orwig, *Multimedia technologies for training: An introduction* (Englewood, Colo., Libraries Unlimited, 1995).

7   RG Weiner, "History: Teaching and methods", ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 387 402, 1995. Accessed on 05 August 2005; ES van Eeden, *Didactical guidelines for teaching history in a changing South Africa*, (Potchefstroom: Keurkopie, 1999).

8   The cognitive theory of multimedia learning requires learners to 'hold corresponding visual and verbal representations in short-term memory concurrently.' See RE Mayer and R Moreno, "Nine ways to reduce cognitive load in multimedia learning", *Education psychologist* 38, 2003, pp. 43-52. It accepts that the human mind is a 'two-channel system of information processing with limited capacity'. It has visual/pictorial and verbal/auditory processing channels. See RE Mayer, "The promise of multimedia learning: Using the same instructional design methods across different media." *Learning and instruction* 13, 2003, pp. 125-139.

integration of ICT in the form of different resource material in teaching and learning is taking place at a slow rate.[9] This was highlighted in Howie, Muller and Paterson[10] (2005, xviii) since the Second Information Technology in Education Study (SITES) Module 1 study from 1998-1999 identified a 'lack of training with regard to the integration of ICT into different Learning Areas worldwide'. This could be a possible reason why the use of ICT resource materials in teaching and learning has not seen progression. It should be remembered however, that the "unique characteristics of a subject influence the success of learning via picture or audio presentations".[11]

Research by Mayer[12] has revealed that "deeper learning is achieved when the following multimedia combinations are used: text and picture explanations rather than verbal explanations"; "exclusion of irrelevant words, sounds and video"; "avoidance of complex verbal and pictorial representations with no guidance for low-prior knowledge learners"[13] and "words presented in a personalised conversational style, rather than a detailed description style".[14] Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning is validated by research findings by De Sousa,[15] confirming that in History teaching and learning, constructive learning as active, outcome-oriented and self-regulated learning, with the aid of ICT and multimedia, resulted in good achievement by learners. This also shows that teaching styles can be changed to new constructive methods of teaching aided by ICT and multimedia.

Elen and Louw[16] believe that "additional media can be non-effective in learning". Furthermore, they are of the opinion that questions, figures and examples on a computer screen, among others, may have 'counter-productive effects if inadequately used by the learner and that "well-designed aid is not sufficient; it needs to be adequately used by a knowledgeable learner". This

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9   LO de Sousa, "The integration of Digital Video Discs (DVDs) and multimedia in the Learning Area Social Sciences", (MEd. Dissertation. North-West University, 2008).

10   SJ Howie, A Muller and A Paterson, *Information and communication technologies in South African secondary schools*, (Cape Town, HSRC Press, 2008).

11   GC Nugent, "Pictures, audio, and print: Symbolic representation and effect on learning". *Educational communication and technology* 30 (3), 1982, pp. 163-174.

12   RE Mayer, "Cognitive theory and the design of multimedia instruction: An example of the two-way street between cognition and instruction." *New directions for teaching and learning,* 89, 2002, pp. 55-71.

13   R Moreno, "Decreasing cognitive load for novice students: Effects of explanatory versus corrective feedback in discovery-based multimedia.' *Instructional science* 32, 2004, pp. 99-113.

14   RE Mayer, *Multimedia learning* (Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 2001).

15   Research findings as done by LO de Sousa, "The integration of Digital Video Discs (DVDs) and multimedia in the Learning Area Social Sciences", (MEd. Dissertation. North-West University, 2008).

16   J Elen and LP Louw, "The Instructional Functionality of Multiple Adjunct Aids", *e-Journal of Instructional Science and Technology (e-JIST)* 9 (2)*, 2006, a*vailable at: http://www.usq.edu.au/electpub/e-jist/docs/vol9_no2/default/htm. Accessed on 22/08/2008.

is where the history educator must scrutinise a source and decide whether the integration of a resource in teaching and learning is beneficial to the learner. On the other hand, Lee[17] reports how History learners are "more accustomed to technological experiences in the web-based world of our time", how "digital historical resources make university learners return to the same documents time and again", and that learners rate visual media as most useful since it helps to visualise events.

Mindful of the opinions noted above, scholars continue to argue that there is no definite answer to the common question as to whether ICT, in this case computers and the Internet, help to achieve 'better' learning and that interactive technologies do not automatically give good results.[18] One can therefore address the following research question, namely: What sources and resources are available on the Internet that can be used to the benefit of History teaching and learning?

The purpose of this article is to provide an applied and theoretical reference to resource materials that are available for History teachers on the Internet. The purpose of utilising sources and resource materials in History teaching and learning will be explained concisely. Lastly, examples of a variety of exciting electronic sources and resources to be found on the Internet are shown. The expected outcome is that teachers will access and make use of the sources and resources discussed in this article so that ICT can be integrated into History teaching and learning to the benefit of learners.

Literature review

The Internet as a source for History teaching and learning

In the 21st century the use of Web tools like blogs, wikis and podcasts is causing a stir in schools with respect to enhancing learning. A transformation within learner and teacher circles is transpiring within how teaching and learning is taking place. Many teachers are apprehensive when it comes to using ICT, not only because of the new pedagogical approaches that must be mastered, but also due to various logistical implications like the practical technological challenges, technological literacy, the pretence of ICT being disruptive, viewing safety for children and privacy concerns. The Internet

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17 JK Lee, "Digital history in the history/social sciences classroom." *The history teacher* 35 (4), 2002, pp. 503-517.

18 J Bernhard, "Thinking and learning through technology mediating tools and insights from philosophy of technology applied to science and engineering education." (*In* N Sanit, *ed. The Pantaneto Forum*, 2007), available at: http://www.pantaneto.co.uk/issue27/front27.htm as accessed on 22 August 2008.

can be used strategically to promoting project-based learning, collaborative learning, and critical thinking[19]. Haydn reassures History teachers that the use of ICT enhances History teaching and learning by making more historical information available for learners to access and also promotes "interactive" learning.[20]

Lee, Doolittle and Hicks[21] have researched just how far teachers make use of the Internet. They found that History teachers make use of more non-digital historical primary sources in their lessons. The downfall is that sources that are used do not come from specialised websites that capture the historical milieu of the original document. However, those who do use digital historical primary sources are positive about the fact that access to such primary sources allows them to access previously unattainable sources, not to mention that these sources provide a valuable tool for comparison between sources, increase the variety of sources used in the lesson, and makes for a rich historical teaching and learning experience. Since learners of the 21st century in Africa are ICT skilled, History pedagogy must accommodate the learner accordingly, but until teachers themselves make use of the Internet, neither digital nor non-digital historical primary sources will have an impact on History teaching and learning.

Dr CN Adeya from Kenya has reviewed what can be regarded as useful resources for scholars and researches who are unable to access publications ICT-related material easily due to financial constraints - significant initiatives on the African continent that are aimed at building or improving the African information infrastructure. Adeya comments on the disparities that exist between different African states' adoption and use of technologies. South Africa is fairly advanced in development compared to its closest peer, Egypt, but the rest of Africa has a relatively undeveloped status. For South African teachers and learners the improvement of information infrastructure means greater "connection" in classrooms from Africa and the rest of the world. In South Africa, a danger also exists of preserving communities who are economically and educationally marginalised, if resources are not spent on

19 C Gillard, "Better Teaching with Web Tools: How blogs, wikis, and podcasts are changing the classroom", May/June, 23 (3), 2007, available at: http://www.hepg.org/hel/article/230, as accessed on 15 September 2009.
20 T Haydn, *Information and communications technology in the history classroom* (*In* J Arthur & R Phillips, *eds*. Issues in history teaching. London, Routledge, 2000).
21 JK Lee, PE Doolittle & D Hicks, "Social Studies and History Teachers' Uses of Non-Digital and Digital Historical Resources", *Social Studies Research and Practice* www.socstrp.org, 1(3) Winter, 2006, pp. 291-311.

opening up ICT access to these communities in innovative and cost-effective ways.[22]

Bridging the digital divide between Africa and the developed world may lead to bridging the divide between the integration of ICT and multimedia resources into our pedagogy. A paradigm shift is also necessary for ITC in education to change and improve teaching and learning methods, since teachers use the Internet primarily for retrieving information. The ideal would be to integrate the Internet into the curriculum[23], giving rise to new teaching and learning methods, which can ensure that purposeful use of the Internet will benefit learners who use resources thereby enabling them to think critically and be inventive.

The rationale of using ICT Teaching and Learning Support Material (TLSM) in the History classroom

The inclusion of ICT in the national curriculum of South Africa has led to the integration of multimedia in teaching and learning, thus enhancing learning, provided by access to ICT resources.

The purpose of integrating multimedia and the Internet in History teaching, among other disciplines, is to enable the obtaining of information in the form of documents, photographs, video, audio clips and virtual experiences as well as exposure to different points of view so that learners can construct their own knowledge[24].

Due to the nature of the discipline of History that deals with many sources, terminology found in primary sources is of such a nature that learners find it difficult to understand its content and meaning. Lee[25] has suggested that a multimedia facility to record text sources and link unfamiliar words to a glossary, helps learners to understand better. The risk exists that the use of digital historical resources (e.g., primary source documents) in History teaching and learning can lead to information overload due to the large volumes of information and lack of organised structure on the medium of

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22 CN Adeya, *Information and Communication Technologies in Africa: A Review and Selective Annotated Bibliography,* 1990-2000, International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publications (INASP) (Oxford, UK, 2001).

23 Research findings as done by T Tai, "A study of teacher usage of the Internet as preparation for developing information literacy in students." (MSc. Dissertation. University of Hong Kong, 2004).

24 ML Rice & EK Wilson, "How technology aids constructivism in the social studies classroom", *Social studies*, 90(1), 1999, pp. 1-6.

25 JK Lee, "Digital history in the history/social sciences classroom", *The history teacher* 35 (4), 2002, pp. 503-517.

projection.[26] Suggestions to counter this include the use of primary source documents to focus teaching and guide inquiry into historical problems, as well as to facilitate the application of knowledge and assess learners' learning.

Researchers of History teaching and learning, debated that multimedia resources serves the purpose in the discipline of including a wide variety of resources, for example video, maps, photographs, timelines, etc. from which teaching and learning can take place. Multimedia resources, which are on-screen information sources, are technological experiences, which have been suggested to generate opposite reactions to reading traditional historical texts from books.[27] The latter was evident in learners' ratings of film and video as the most useful, since it helped them to visualise events. Results also showed that the learners gained knowledge of the historical events presented in the resources. Mills[28] is another believer of the use of the Internet and multimedia in teaching and learning. He recommends using the Internet to obtain interactive maps that can show changes during a time period and statistical information relating to historical sites. The Internet can also supplement a lesson, textbooks and encourages independent study. Furthermore, Mills uses multimedia technology to broaden the scope when teaching, thus requiring less note-taking by learners and more viewing of visuals that he believes is more stimulating for the learner.

The Internet can facilitate familiarisation with information literacy in the form of written, archaeological, oral and audio-visual sources, so that the learner can "meet" the past. This can promote a comprehensive understanding of the past, empathy for decision-making, support interactive teaching, reinforce intellectual cognitive skills, and so facilitate learners to reach their full potential once these sources have been utilised. This will contribute towards ensuring that History teaching becomes a magical experience.

Despite the poor access and mixed attitudes to the use of computers in the humanities, which has had both a cause and effect on the slow use of computer technology for teaching and learning in History teaching,[29] this article endeavours to probe Internet historical websites that are sources containing a wealth of information that can be used successfully in

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26 P Hillis, "Multi-media and history education: A partnership to enhance teaching and learning." *Education media international*, 39(3/4), September 2002, pp. 307-315.

27 JK Lee, "Digital history in the history/social sciences classroom." *The history teacher* 35 (4), 2002, pp. 503-517.

28 J Mills, "Teaching History and Government in a Multimedia Classroom", 1999, available at: http://www.midland.edu/~jmills/paper.html.

29 H Deacon, "Using computer technology in history teaching." *South African historical journal,* 38, May, 1998, pp. 3-19.

History teaching and learning. If the Internet and multimedia are available to instil a desire for learners to learn, then teachers must make use of it.

Recommendations: The Internet at work in the classroom

In the classroom the Internet, a global computer network that connects users to the World Wide Web (WWW), can be accessed by using the Intranet, otherwise known as the school's own computer network that allows for access by more than one learner simultaneously. This means that information can be made available on the school's internal network server and learners can then access this information at their disposal. This allows for more control by the teacher, since a learner's access to other sites is limited. Information on the Intranet is more easily accessible and communication is increased.[30]

The creators of the *History Detectives* website (cf. Figure 1) have used the 21st century social network *Facebook* (cf. Figure 2), now accessed by millions worldwide, to teach skills and get learners interested in History. Even though its success has not been measured, the *History Detectives* website is not only interactive, but also includes lesson plans for teachers to introduce learners to the skills and techniques used in historical investigations. This site also has helpful guidelines on how to investigate ancient artefacts. The website states: "History Detectives is devoted to exploring the complexities of historical mysteries, searching out the facts, myths and conundrums that connect local folklore, family legends and interesting objects. Traditional investigative techniques, modern technologies, and plenty of legwork are the tools the *History Detectives* team of experts uses to give new - and sometimes shocking - insights into our national history. The hosts of the program are a high-energy quartet of renowned experts in the world of historical investigations. Their expertise ranges from architecture, popular culture and sociology to archaeology, collectibles and genealogy"[31] (History Detectives, 2009). *History* Detectives can be found at: http://www.pbs.org/opb/historydetectives/.

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30 BA Ricketts, "Towards the Intranet: Schools Following the Trend." *Education 6620*, August, 1998, available at*:* http://www.pwc.k12.nf.ca/bricketts/e6620/intranets.html.

31 History Detectives, 2009, available at: http://www.pbs.org/opb/historydetectives/.
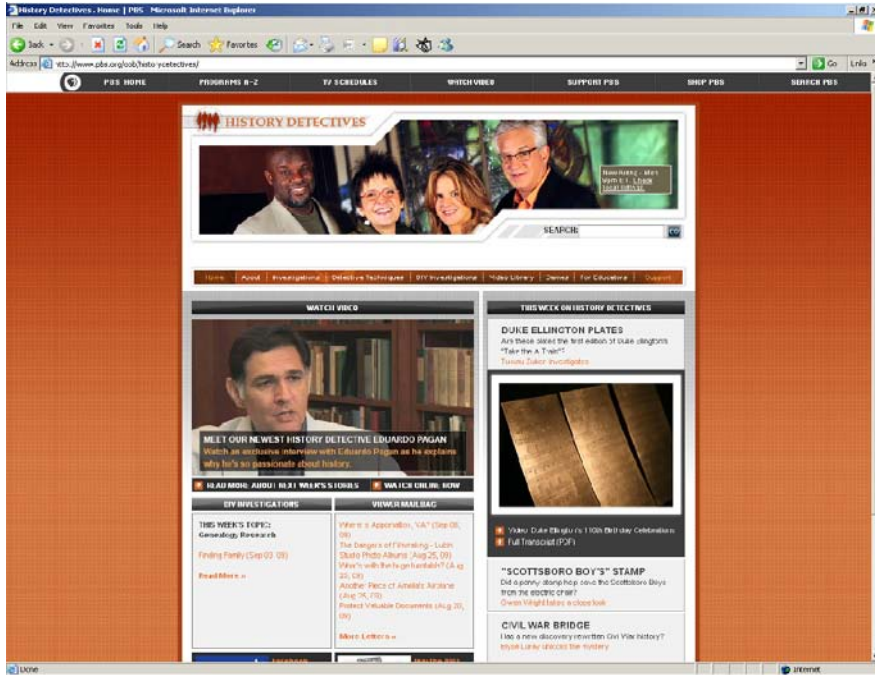
Figure 1: *History Detectives* **home page**

Figure 2: *History Detectives* **home page on Facebook**

Teachers need to ascertain the educational significance of teaching and learning with multimedia. For example, costs of hardware and software need to be taken into account. Teachers need to set aside time to find appropriate multimedia. Visuals, text, documentary excerpts and animations, among others, need to be collected and at times formatted before use. These are all time-consuming and require good planning and time management. Resources that are easily available to teachers for use in a classroom are, for example, computer software packages such as Britannica and Encarta Encyclopaedia on CD-ROM. These are usually released annually and stocked at major retailers. The package contains, among others, primary text excerpts, maps, multimedia, timelines, web links, two-dimensional virtual tours and statistics. Schools can contact Microsoft South Africa regarding a separate application for academic prices that can mean free use of some Microsoft software in public schools.

Resource material from South African Internet sources

Resource material generated from South African Internet sources can be found at:

- The *Sabinet* (Southern African Bibliographic Information Network) site (cf. Figure 3) where on-line publications can be read at http://www.sabinet. co.za/. Sabinet is an expert in facilitating electronic access to full-text online information.
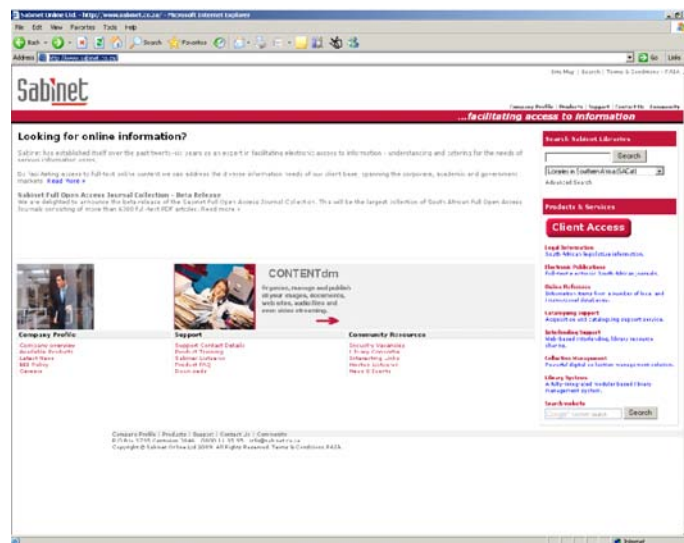
Figure 3: *Sabinet* **Online limited home page**

- *Sabinet* hosts and maintains South African publications published online. For example, the *South African Journal of Cultural History* (cf. Figure 4) contains scientifically researched articles of cultural historical significance. Subscription fees apply per annum with two issues published per year and this will give you access to read articles on-line at http://www.journals.co.za/ej/ejour_culture. html. This journal provides a wealth of knowledge regarding local historical events. The same applies to other History Journals like *New Contree*; the *Transdisciplinary Journal*; *Historia* and the *South African Historical Journal.* Teachers should exploit these journals extensively for valuable well-researched articles on topics they deal with in a classroom situation.
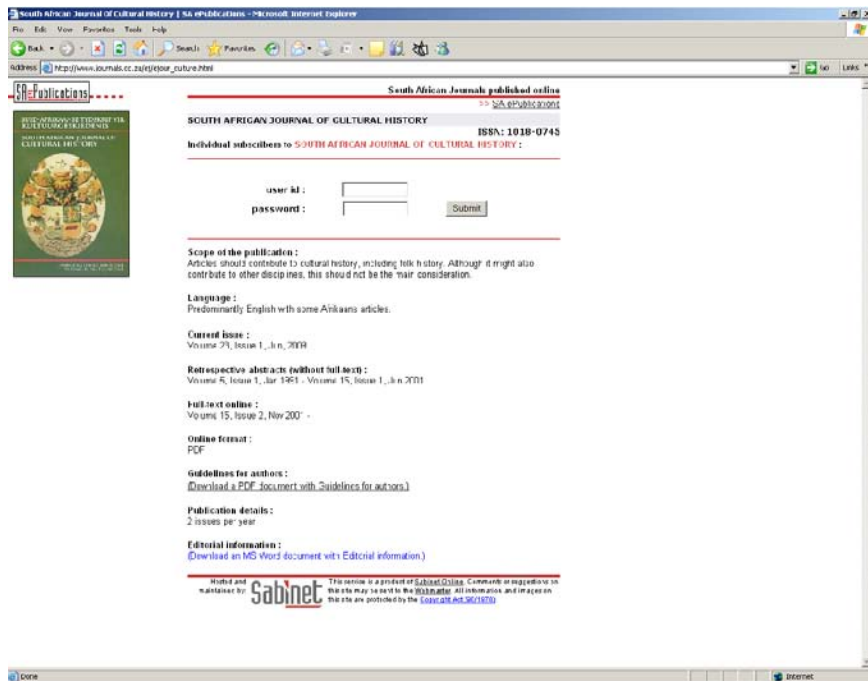
Figure 4: A South African electronic Publications Journals web page featuring the *South African Journal of Cultural History*

- *Ebsco Host* (cf. Figure 5) hosts many Historical Journals within the domain http://www.ebscohost.com. School teachers can make use of the research database service that caters for international schools with lists of databases for K-12 schools found within this *Ebsco Host* domain (cf. Figure 6) http://www. ebscohost.com/thisMarket.php?marketID=5.
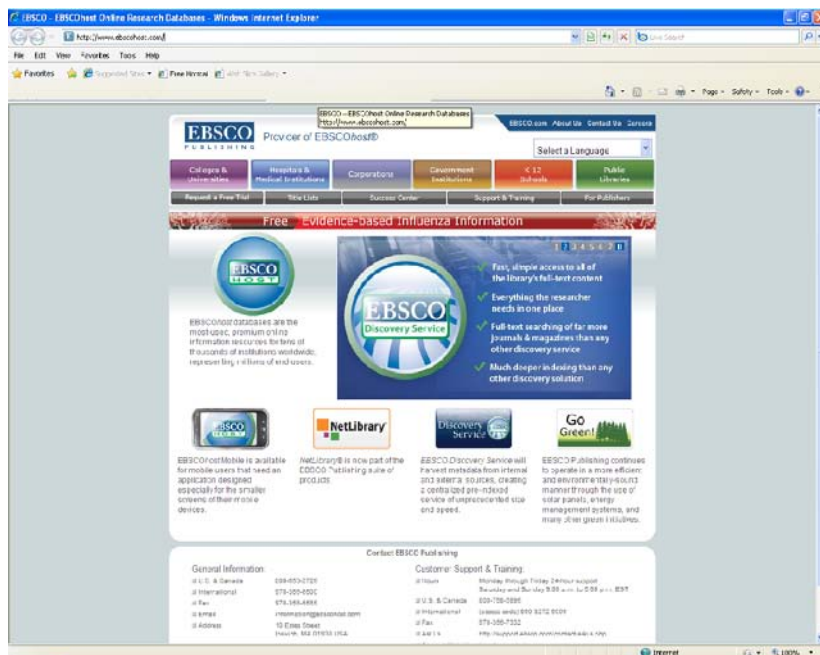
Figure 5: *Ebsco Host* **Online Research Database home page**
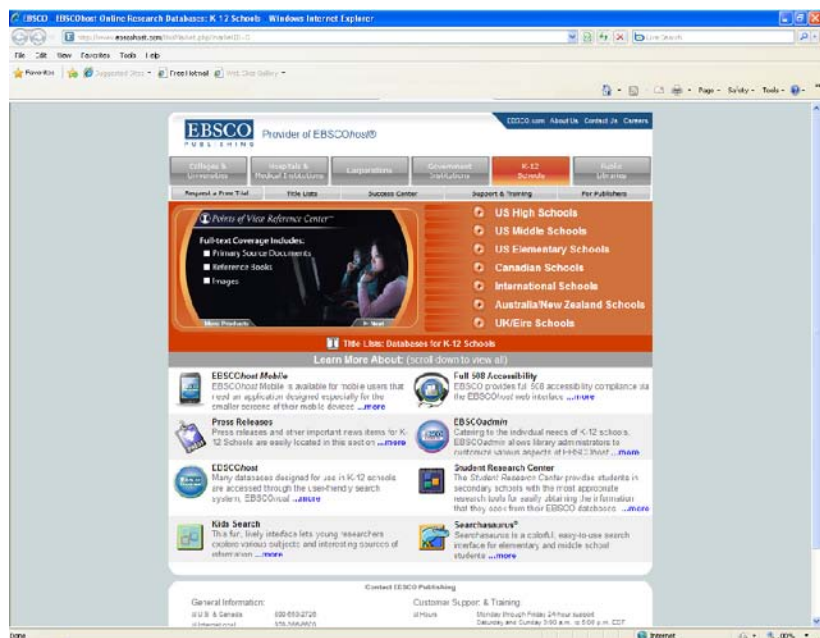
Figure 6: *Ebsco Host* **Online Research Database: K 12 Schools web page**

- The *South African Heritage Resource Agency* (SAHRA) (cf. Figure 7), found at http://www.sahra.org.za/, can be contacted for resources as they safeguard South Africa's national heritage. The SAHRA library has access to the Internet. The web may be used to surf for topics, or librarians will search for a specific topic of interest. When topics of heritage and conservation-related information are found, they can be downloaded and distributed. This can be very helpful to teachers.
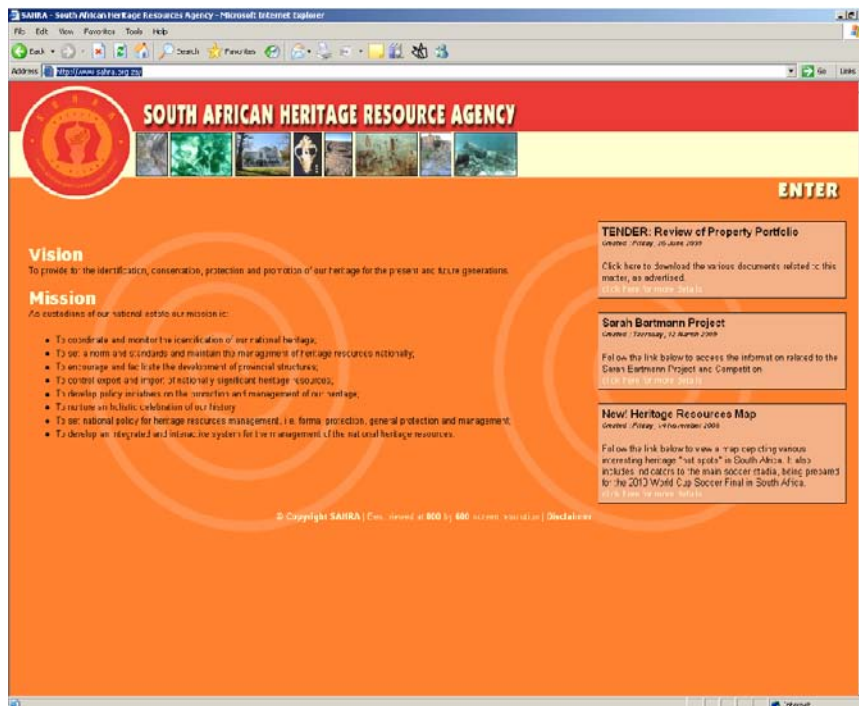
Figure 7: *South African Heritage Resource Agency* **(SAHRA) home page**

- The South African site *DISA* (Digital Innovation South Africa) (cf. Figure 8) is "a freely accessible online scholarly resource that focuses on the socio-political history of South Africa, particularly the struggle for freedom during the period from 1950 to the first democratic elections in 1994." It can be found at http://www.disa.ukzn.ac.za/. DISA is a national collaborative initiative that aims to make resources available and easily accessible on the WWW. The bank of high quality information resources contains historical material of importance and interest to scholars and learners. The huge collection of resources such as oral histories, articles, reports, videos, and interviews include, among others, the

1979 transcript of an interview with Helen Suzman, Colin Eglin and R Swart regarding the independence of the Ciskei and its socio-economic impact on black families, in pdf format.

Figure 8: *Digital Innovation South Africa* **(DISA) home page**

- Teachers, parents and learners can all benefit from the free educational resources found on the SABC (website) (cf. Figure 9) within the following domain: http://www.sabceducation.co.za/portal/site/SABCEducation/menui tem.596fad0d5dd8aed42c10ff535401aeb9/. Within this domain the SABC Education Outreach newsletter for teachers, parents and learners discusses, for example, Heritage Day and provides links to the SAHRA website. Activities and ideas are also suggested for lessons and are learning area-specific. Teachers

can register and receive FREE information and updates at the following official domain: www.sabceducation.co.za.
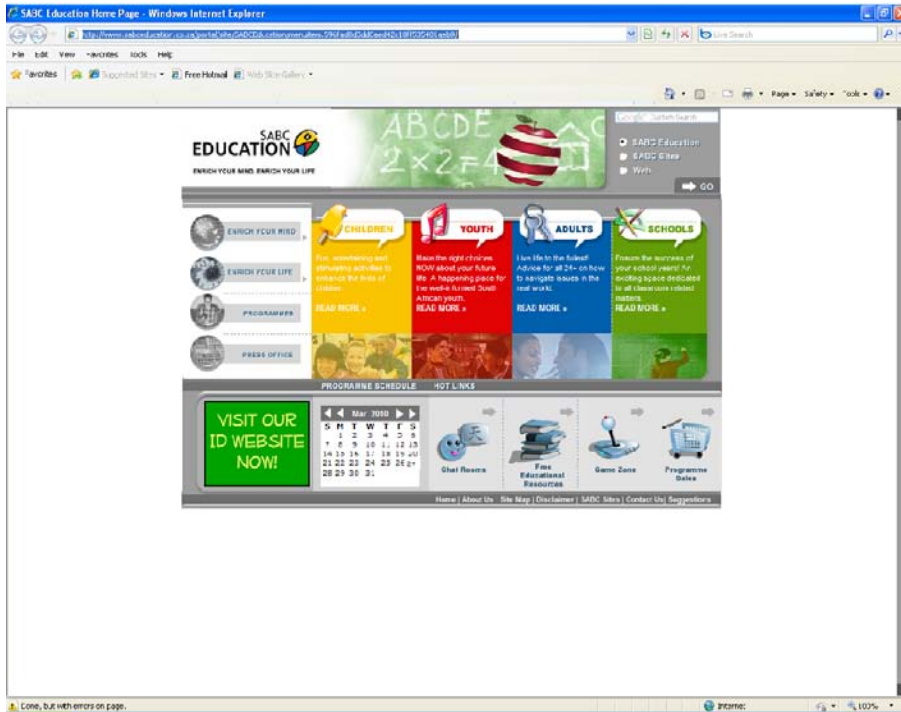
Figure 9: *South African Broadcasting Corporation* **(SABC) Education home page**

Resource material from international websites

Resource material from international websites that can be accessed from the Internet include among others:

• The *Best of History Web Sites* (cf. Figure 10), found at http://www.besthistorysites. net/, was created in 2001 by Tom Daccord. Daccord, a History teacher and educational technology specialist, is co-director of *EdTech Teacher, Inc.* and author of *Best Ideas for Teaching with Technology: A Practical Guide for Teachers by Teachers* and *The Best of History Web Sites*. *Best of History Web Sites* provides "quick, convenient and reliable access to the best history-oriented resources online" in various categories. The *Best of History Web Sites* is ranked number one by Google for "history web sites." It has links to over 1200 history-related web sites that have been reviewed for quality, accuracy and usefulness, hence the more than 140,000 visitors per month. Special features include links to

31

K-12 history lesson plans, teacher guides, activities, games, quizzes, etc. The *Best of History Web Sites* has won many awards and recognition, including being recommended by *The National Council for the Social Studies*, of Princeton University (among others.)
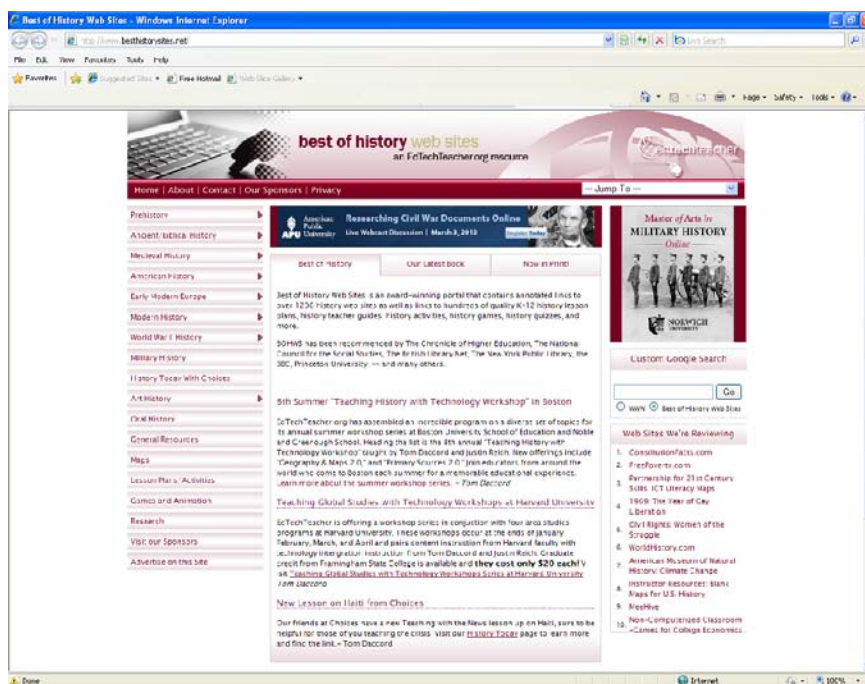
Figure 10: *The Best of History Web Sites home page*

• *Modern History Sourcebook* (cf. Figure 11) found at http://www.fordham. edu/halsall/mod/modsbook.html. This site contains full text and multimedia resources. It has a huge bank of themes (knowledge focus areas that are also covered in the NCS). Multimedia that can be accessed without delay includes images, maps, movies, music, national anthems, etc. The full text resources can be used in a lesson to set the scene and give background information. These resources link to other sites that further explore the topic. This site's main page is helpful to teachers who need more information on how to use primary sources or ideas for projects.
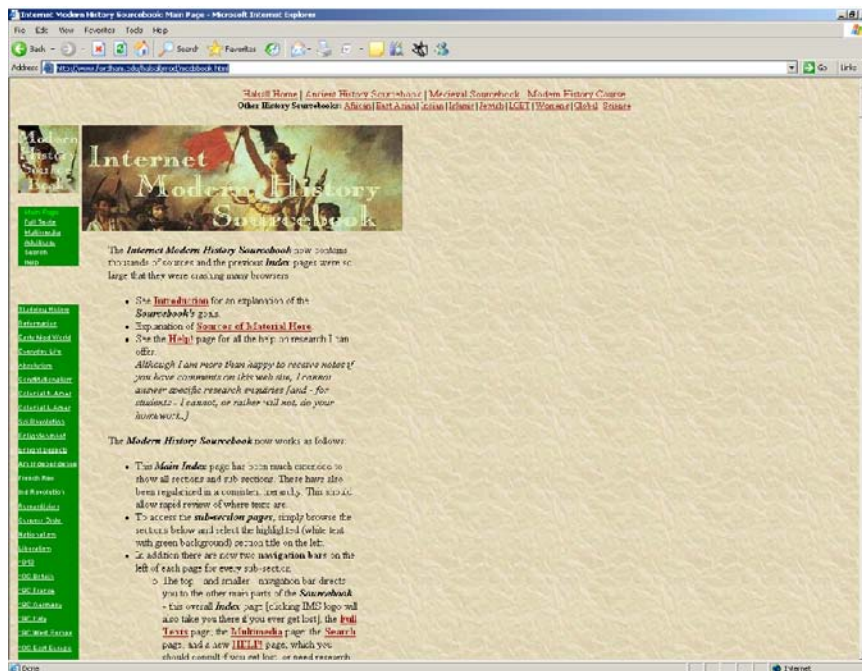
Figure 11: *Modern History Sourcebook home page*

• In 2010 the *Internet Public Library* (IPL) (cf. Figure 12) will merge with the Librarians' Internet Index (LII) to create ipl[2]: Information You Can Trust. While the site will continue offering the same trusted resources and services, there will be several enhancements designed to give users greater access to the information. Resources that can be accessed via a link in this category include Eyewitness to History, Timelines of History, UNESCO World Heritage Centre, and the WWW VL History Index at http://vlib.iue.it/history/index. html. The latter is an index of Web resources, primarily for use by historians, history scholars, and learners. The index is further divided into categories, for example, Research: Methods and Materials, Eras and Epochs, Historical Topics, and Countries and Regions. The Countries and Regions section links to general resources about any country, both historical and non-historical.

Figure 12: An *Internet Public Library* (IPL) web page

- *You Tube* (cf. Figure 13) contains visual and audio media that can be accessed for original footage of major events at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZVDUXPB_sTs.

Figure 13: A *You Tube* web page

- The *World History Sources* website (cf. Figure 14), found at http://chnm.gmu. edu/worldhistorysources/, is a site centre for History and new media run by the George Mason University. It contains many sources pertaining to South African history. A bonus about this site is that its four areas of speciality: Finding World History; Unpacking Evidence; Analysing Documents; and Teaching Resources provide hands-on help to the teacher. For example, in the analysing documents section, multimedia case studies can be found that feature an expert interpreting different types of primary sources and explaining what can be learnt from each of them. The teaching resources section contains sixteen case studies compiled by high school teachers who discuss the planning and implementation involved in teaching a particular primary source.

Figure 14: The *World History Sources* home page

- The *Google Scholar* (cf. Figure 15) search engine has a relatively new site, www. scholar.google.com. It is for scholarly research and contains articles, books, etc.
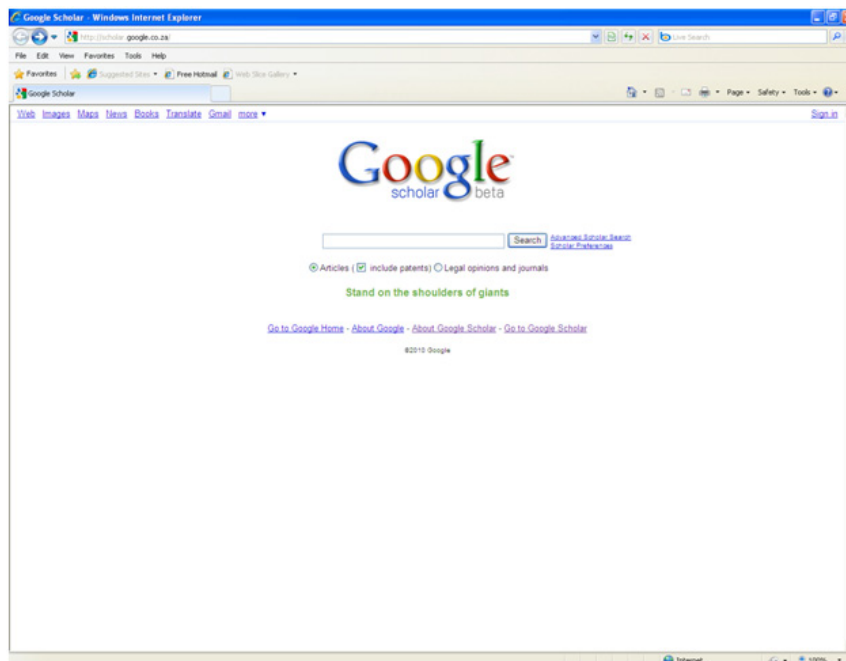
Figure 15: The *Google Scholar* home page

- The *Google for Educator* home page (cf. Figure 16), found at http://www.google.com/educators/p_websearch.html, is where teachers worldwide can subscribe to the Google Group's "Google Teacher Centre" and receive newsletters containing the newest information on technological advances. The latest newsletter states: "If you're just getting interested or started with Google Apps Education Edition, you may have a lot of questions. Like, 'How can I use these tools in my classroom, what are other schools/teachers doing, where can I find out the newest news about Google Apps, how have other teachers gotten their administrations to adopt Google Apps in their schools.' Well, we've got just the thing for you! To celebrate teachers and support Google Apps in the K-12 space, we've launched the Google Apps Education Community site at: http://edu.googleapps.com/. There you'll be able to watch tip videos, read our blogs and have forum discussions with your fellow teachers. We've also collected more than 20 classroom-ready lesson plans across at our Apps Education Resource Centre: www.google.com/apps/eduresources." A new help feature is available to assist teachers with searches. Three modular lessons, not specific to any discipline, come with presentations which will help guide a classroom discussion. Teachers will learn the fundamentals of search (which includes judging the validity of sources), search techniques and practices (for

36

more advanced searches), and features and functionality (to learn some neat tips and tricks).
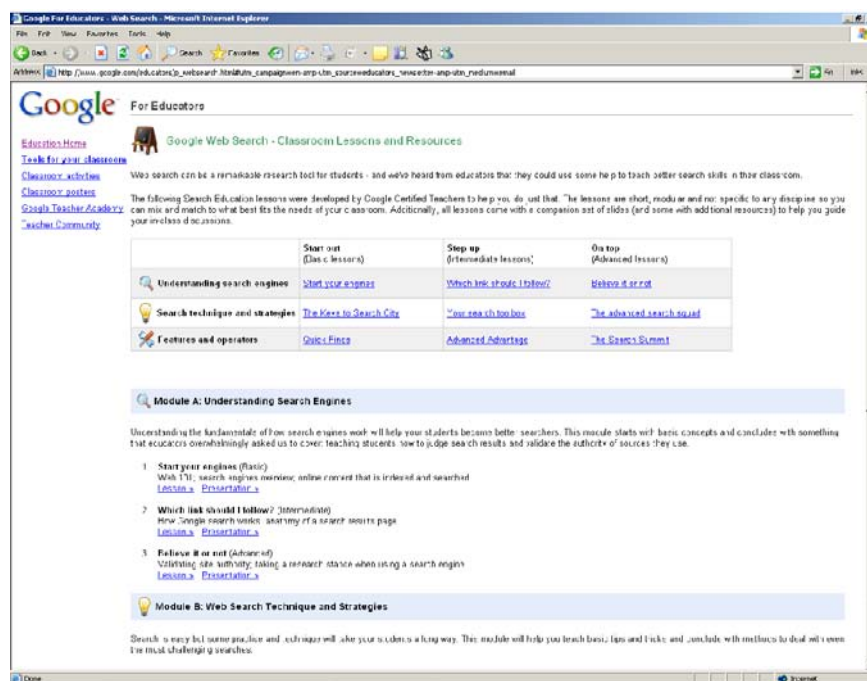
Figure 16: *Google for Educator* **home page**

Conclusion

A variety of resource materials and their location on the Internet for use in teaching European and South African history have been analysed. A theoretical reference to resource materials that are available for History teachers on the Internet as well as the purpose of using sources/resource materials in teaching and learning experiences has also been outlined. The greatest area of concern is not where to find the sources and resources, but how to access them in a third world country. In South Africa the problem of the lack of integration of ICT into teaching and learning still exists since the infrastructure necessary for Internet connections at schools is not readily available countrywide. Despite the way forward clearly marking a requirement for the integration of ICT into History teaching, the challenge faced is that a mind shift must be made by teachers to change their teaching and learning strategies and methods so

that the integration of ICT, will not only lead to learning specific skills, but also to rather integrate multimedia resources into daily teaching and learning. The use of the Internet together with multimedia technology could be useful in History teaching to make the learning experience "magical." This includes, amongst others, more excitement, understanding, interpretation, analysis, commitment, and the drawing of relations between the "old" and the "new"; between the past and the present.

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Conceptualising historical literacy – a review of the literature

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Abstract

In a context of a continually widening range of disciplines and subjects available for learners to specialize in, it becomes increasingly critical for the value of particular subjects to be examined. Thus, while debates rage over the relevance and worth of school history, we contribute to the conceptualization of what school history is for. In other words, we examine what history learners acquire as a result of studying the subject. We argue that learners gain a certain form of historical literacy which cannot always be generalized to different contexts. As such, the historical literacy that learners gain varies according to context, place and time. In this article we specifically review literature related to the functional realm of History Education and, particularly, historical literacy. We then construct benchmarks of historical literacy as informed by the literature. This research thus avails a foundation for further empirical research on the purpose of school history.

Keywords: History; Historical literacy; Conceptual understanding; Historical consciousness; Historical language; History education.

Introduction, problem statement and purpose of the study

Problem statement

One of the enduring questions that history learners and educators face is: "What is the purpose of studying History at school?" This question in most cases may come from critics of the subject. However, history educators also have to ask themselves this question if they want to build an understanding of their subjects by both proponents and detractors (Husbands, Kitson & Pendry, 2003). Only then can we develop a serviceable conceptualisation of what it is that learners acquire through studying history.

Purpose of the study

In an attempt to provide an answer of sorts to this question we have delved into what can best be described as the functional realm of history education by examining the notion of historical literacy; and, specifically the available literature pertaining to it. In this article we argue that the concept historical literacy is contextualised, and cannot be viewed as universal – being the same for all regardless of, for example, place and time. The roots for this ambiguity not only lie in the diverse views on what the purpose of studying history at school level is, but also in the mere idea of what it means to be literate in history (Ravitch, 1989; Wineburg, 1991; Rüsen, 1993; Taylor, 2003). We thus trace the roots of historical literacy, ultimately coming up with a conceptualisation of its benchmarks.

Literacy studies do not have a long history outside the languages. The concept of literacy has quickly, albeit belatedly, gained ground in some subjects, such as science and mathematics, but it can be argued to be still negotiating its place in history (Taylor, 2003). Hence, in order to understand the concept that is historical literacy, one has to grasp its origin in the context of other literacies and its development over time.

To gain a bigger picture, it is necessary to understand literacy as a general concept. Studies on literacy have demonstrated how complex defining the concept can be. Clifford (1984, p. 472) illustrated how literacy had thus far evolved from being a preserve of "old men and monks," to a concept whose meaning ranges from elitist to inclusivist. As elitist concept, literacy is supposed to be attained by a very restricted portion of the population as its definition is tightened to connote the highest attainable standards. In such cases, the elite will also have political power, along with it many other forms of influence such as economic and religious power. Thus, literacy becomes a cultural tool, without which the ordinary populace are excluded from either enjoying the benefits of or confronting the challenges of the society within which they live. On the other hand, as inclusivist concept, literacy is not perceived as a tool to alienate people. This means that in an inclusivist form, the definition of literacy is made simpler and broadened; such that an individual who can insert an X on a document as signature, without necessarily being able to fully comprehend the contents of the document, is deemed to be literate. The opposite is true for elitist notions of literacy whereby only a select elite are deemed literate thereby enabling them to rise to the upper echelons of society. Variations of both elitist and inclusivist conceptions of literacy are

demonstrated across various countries. For example, while for many years the UNESCO measurement of literacy is based on the level of education people has reached, politicians in different countries may interpret it differently, some in campaigns to be lauded for eradicating illiteracy (Roberts, 1995).

For the reasons discussed above, the meaning of literacy may be argued to be very ambiguous (Hillerich, 1976). The major question that tends to arise recurrently is how literacy should be measured, if it can reliably be measured at all. In other words, where does one draw the line between a literate individual and an illiterate one? Street & Lefstein (2007) explain how a dichotomous notion of literacy implies a syndrome on the illiterate individuals who will then require some form of treatment to remedy their malady. One response to this dilemma came from Hillerich (1976) who refuted the existence of a literacy/illiteracy dichotomy. In an attempt not to be exclusivist, he proposed a continuum of literacy model which meant that one would not need to draw an iron curtain to separate the literate from the literate. Instead, the continuum implies that people can be positioned at different levels of literacy in ascending or descending order. While the continuum apparently solves the literacy/illiteracy dilemma, it is not free from criticism either. What complicates the issue most is what level of aptitude can be considered to be the lowest standard for a literate individual. In other words, although the achievement standards are simplified and lowered, one will still need to draw a line where an individual may be deemed totally illiterate. In addition, the developmental stages of a literacy continuum are fraught with complications. It suggests that one's literacy develops in a sequence of predetermined and predictable stages. This model may entail still having to come up with a measuring instrument in order to determine a person's level of literacy (Clifford, 1984). All these considerations illustrate the complications related to attempting at coming up with a single and generic understanding of the concept literacy.

The research by Clifford (1984) is also very insightful in acknowledging the existence of varying connotations of literacy. Explaining the development of the diverse meanings of literacy, he demonstrated how this development can be categorized into three stages in terms of:

> (a) a heightening of qualitative standards of literacy to encompass higher order cognitive processes; (b) a broadening of the social and individual purposes that literacy is intended to serve; and (c) an extending of the literate from religious and scholarly elites to the whole population (p. 482).

The above quotation suggests that, with time, the notion of literacy has broadened to encompass other competencies which might not necessarily have been considered earlier. The apparent result of this development is that literacy has now been extended to other disciplines resulting in new conceptions such as "television literacy", "computer literacy", "scientific literacy" and "historical literacy" (Clifford, 1984, p. 481). This view of literacy implies the existence of multiliteracies thus acknowledging varying versions of literacy (Cope & Kalantzis, 2005).

The wide-ranging nature of literacy had been fortified by the late 1990s as the concept was no longer limited to the languages only. According to Roberts (1995, p. 413) "a more productive line of inquiry would be to consider how literacy has been constructed, shaped and discussed, by whom, when, where, and why." This argument is valuable in that it rightly concludes that the conceptualisation of literacy – be it scientific, mathematical or historical – crucially depends on the time, space and context under study. Furthermore, Roberts (1995) argued that there are three major conceptions in literacy studies; that is, the quantitative, qualitative, and pluralist. The quantitative measure of literacy is based on figures and an example of this would be when scholars measure learners' reading ages. Social scientists, however, came up with an alternative range of qualitative definitions of literacy. Of these, the description by Gudschinsky (1976, as cited in Roberts, 1995, p. 429) revealed that the most important aspects of literacy are speaking, reading, writing and understanding. It should be noted that speaking, reading and writing are skills. Therefore, early ideas of literacy were primarily grounded in skills acquisition. However, Roberts (1995, p. 418) preferred the pluralist approach to literacy which "concentrates on describing in a more general way the 'features' or 'dimensions' of literacy and the literate person."

The quantitative notion of measuring literacy is, in a way, related to the literacy/illiteracy dichotomy. For example, if one is of a certain age, but has not attained the corresponding reading age, the individual is considered illiterate. The qualitative notion can be correlated to the continuum conception of literacy. Evidently, it assumes that a person develops from speaking to reading, through writing until they develop to reach the pinnacle of literacy which, in this case, is understanding. Considering the weaknesses these two notions have been identified to have, the pluralist notion offers a different and more convincing view. The strength of the pluralist approach is that it does not

consider literacy to be continuum, but rather a construction made-up of several building blocks.

In relation to Hillerich's (1976) continuum of literacy in general, Kaiser & Willander (2005, as cited in Madongo, 2007, pp. 33-34) identify and develop five levels of literacy which are: "illiteracy", "nominal literacy", "functional literacy", "conceptual and procedural literacy", and "multidimensional literacy" - in respective order. What this continuum suggests is a rejection of the literacy/illiteracy dichotomy and hence it is inclusivist. However, it has already been pointed out that one of the weaknesses associated with this continuum type of outline is the assumption that the stages of development are fixed and predictable. Although the characteristics of an individual within each stage of literacy are enumerated, they remain subjective.

The above discussion on the concept literacy serves as a useful background to understanding and conceptualising historical literacy. It is therefore on that basis that this paper aims at conceptualising historical literacy and this conceptualisation will be achieved through a review of literature related to the concept of historical literacy.

The emergence and development of the concept historical literacy – the views of major theorists

Introductory remarks

The literature summarily reviewed above does not directly deal with historical literacy; however it is critical in understanding the debates surrounding literacy in general before the notion of historical literacy can be interrogated. In continuation from the above, in this section we will contend that there is a difference between literacy in history and historical literacy. While the former refers to the ability to read and write while studying school history, the latter implies what someone gains from studying school history. In presenting this argument, we will commence with a brief analysis of the evolving meanings of the concept of historical literacy from the point of view of the major theorists. The template that we will use for this is that we will firstly identify a major theorist and the time they put forward their theorisation. We will then analyse how the theorists conceptualised historical literacy. After that we will review the context within which each theory was propounded. Finally, we will highlight the major strengths and weaknesses of the conceptualisation, the connection between the different conceptualisations and how they built

up on each other.

To begin with, a summary of the major theorists and the evolving meanings of historical literacy are revealed in the timeline in Figure 1. Evidently each of the theorists has a different view of what school history is for.

Figure 1: Timeline showing the evolving meanings of historical literacy

Scheiber (Content)	Ravitch (Knowing)	Wineburg (3 Heuristics)		Taylor (Index)	Lee (Toolkit)
1978	1989	1991		2003	2004

	1988	1991	1993	2003	2006
	Hirsch	Aronowitz & Giroux	Rüsen	Haydn et al.	Seixas
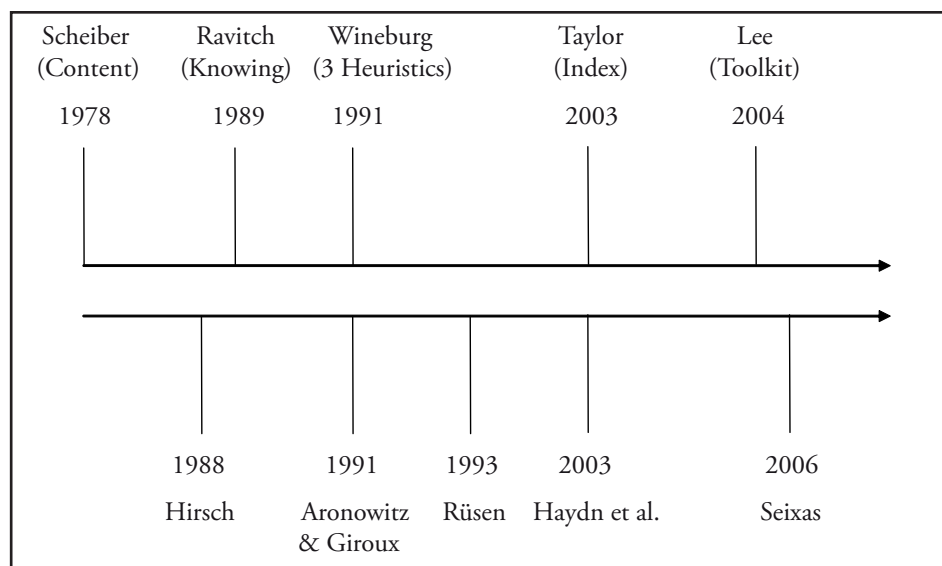
It is noteworthy that although the theorists on the timeline constitute the significant researchers in relation to historical literacy specifically, they are not the only ones to have contributed to the discussions. Indeed, some scholars might not have explicitly used the term historical literacy, but their role in the theorisation of related notions is nonetheless important. As Figure 1 illustrates, the scholars on the top row of the timeline referred directly to the concept historical literacy, while the scholars in the bottom row have theorised history education such that their arguments feed into historical literacy as a construct. Therefore, it would be folly to argue that before the term historical literacy was coined, or outside its perimeters, scholars were not and are not trying to understand what the ultimate achievement in the study of school history is from a functional perspective. With this in mind, their input will be viewed as it feeds into the arguments of the main scholars on historical literacy as identified above.

Content versus method in school history

The first significant mention of the concept of historical literacy can be traced back to 1978 when Scheiber (1978) used it to refer to the competence that an individual displays in making sense of not only text, but also various other sources of history such as images, symbols or music (Clifford, 1984). Scheiber's (1978) contention was in the context of the emerging debate at the time about content versus methods in school history. However, Clifford (1984, p. 493) reminds us of how this debate had its roots in the early 20th century as the American Historical Association (AHA) advocated for the promotion of "higher order literacy in 20th-century American public schools" through stressing the use of inquiry methods and problem solving. Indeed, Scheiber (1978, as cited in Clifford, 1984, p. 493) acknowledged that the AHA was:

> the vanguard of efforts to restructure history and social studies teaching; it sought de-emphasis of the old moralistic and patriotic objectives, and it argued for the need to view historical study as a means of cultivating critical intelligence or, in modern parlance, 'cognitive skills.'

Knowledge as historical literacy

The argument on historical literacy as championed by Scheiber (1978) did not take root back then in the 1970s. However, just over a decade later, a strong standpoint emerged as argued for by Ravitch (1989) that historical literacy refers to levels of historical content knowledge, that is, an accumulation of facts about past events. This argument can be connected to historical knowledge as a form of historical literacy. Only in recent years has the mere knowledge of past events begun to be questioned globally as an authentic grasp of school history. Although the term historical literacy is still developing, the knowledge of a certain body facts of the past was, for centuries, the hallmark of the knowledge of history. This was the core of Ravitch's (1989) argument when she decried the low levels of historical factual knowledge among contemporary American students. She claimed that "some information is so basic, so essential that all students must know it in order to make sense of new learning" (Ravitch, 1989, p. 53). Therefore, according to the Ravitch (1989) school of thought, historical knowledge is equivalent to historical literacy.

Cultural literacy

Ravitch's (1989) point of view is not entirely new. It has been common for some historians to tend to lament what Ravitch & Finn (1998, as cited in Wineburg, 2000, p. 33) term the contemporary generation's "shameful ignorance" while celebrating the nostalgia of a "presumed golden age of fact retention." This argument was strengthened in the 1980s with the results of the *Scholastic Aptitude Tests* (SATs) in the USA which concluded that American students displayed disappointingly deteriorating knowledge of historical information that is presumed basic and common knowledge. So alarmingly bad were these results in some circles that scholars – significantly Hirsch (1988, p. 22) – declared American education, along with it, the economy and "civilisation" in crisis and consequently branded the contemporary students as "a generation of cultural illiterates." The opposite of cultural illiteracy, as Hirsch (1988, p. 22) called it, was cultural ignorance which rendered students unable to "thrive in the modern world." This conception resonates with the literacy/illiteracy dichotomy explained earlier. The argument was that illiteracy had emerged in the last half of the 20th century and that students should know basic facts on "geographical names, historical events, famous people, patriotic lore, and scientific terms" (Hirsch, as cited in Sleeter & Grant, 1991, p. 228). While literacy is critically useful in determining a learner's fate in relation to overcoming contemporary challenges, Hirsch's (1988) doomsday prediction is rather too alarmist. Indeed, Aronowitz & Giroux (1991) dismiss Hirsch (1988) together with other scholars such as Bennett, Ravitch, Finn and Glazer as conservatives who are responding to their perceived threat of post-modernism which has served to undermine the meta-narratives of what should be known.

There are a number of contentions in relation to the issue of so-called shameful ignorance. For example, Wineburg (2000) reveals that actual research does not demonstrate any substantial change in learners' historical factual knowledge over time, but rather that even during the times of Socrates, the youth were being blamed for lacking something that the older generation possesses. This view continues up to today. In response to the lamentation of older generations about the younger generations' apparent lack of historical knowledge Wertsch (2006, p. 55) put forward the "schematic narrative templates" which, he argued, are "a means for understanding differences as well as commonalities between the two generations" in terms of historical knowledge. His contention is that although older generations may claim

to (and apparently) have more memory of historical facts; in reality their knowledge might not be very different if it falls within one schematic narrative template. Wertsch (2006, p. 57) gives the example of Soviet Union school history students and post-Soviet Union students whereby the latter group apparently seemed to be deficient in content knowledge, when in actual fact the two groups could retell their history within the same "'triumph-over-alien-forces' narrative."

Multiple historical literacies

In response to the likes of Ravitch (1989) and Hirsch (1988) a new dimension was added to the conceptualisation of literacy in general and historical literacy in particular. Aronowitz & Giroux (1991, p. 227) start by acknowledging and agreeing with Hirsch (1988) that any definition of literacy should embrace "a particular relationship between knowledge and power." This will then imply that any crisis of literacy – that is if it ever exists – should be defined primarily as an "epistemological and political problem." However, that is where the agreement ends. Aronowitz & Giroux (1991, p. 229) then took issue with Hirsch (1988) for simplistically calculating that "cultural literacy is the precondition for industrial growth, and that with industrial growth comes the standardisation of language, culture, and learning." Not only is this considered a baffling case of historical determinism, it is also based on an assumption of Western culture as "egalitarian and homogeneous." The crux of Aronowitz & Giroux's (1991, p. 233) argument is that if historical literacy is conceptualised as was done by Hirsch (1988) and Ravitch (1989), then history turns out to be "a museum of information that merely legitimates a particular view of history as a sacred goods designed to be received rather than interrogated by students." In other words, history should be a territory for academic struggle and any historically literate individual should be able to partake in this struggle.

If one accepts the argument by Aronowitz & Giroux (1991), they will have to view historical literacy as a discourse which is not universal and which is embedded in "social and political relations, ideological practices, and symbolic meaning structures" (p. 236). Implicit in this argument is the notion of multiple literacies in an attempt to avoiding labelling certain sections of society illiterate simply because they do not know information which is not significant in their contexts. Aronowitz & Giroux (1991, p. 236) sum up

their argument thus:

> To acknowledge different forms of literacy is not to suggest that they should all be given equal weight. … This presents a form of literacy that is not merely epistemological, but also deeply political and eminently pedagogical. It is political because literacy represents a set of practices that can provide the conditions through which people can be empowered or disempowered. It is pedagogical because literacy always involves social relations in which learning takes place; power legitimates a particular view of the world, and privilege legitimates a specific rendering of knowledge.

It is apparent that the conceptualisation of the notion of historical literacy by Aronowitz & Giroux (1991) is different to that by Ravitch (1989). Historical literacy was now being considered as not universal and was manifested by individuals' ability to make use of their history to empower themselves.

The heuristics of school history

The meaning of the notion of historical literacy was developed further by Wineburg (1991) who argued that the concept goes well beyond mere recall of facts as was the argument by Ravitch (1989). His contention was that the key to historical literacy is what he referred to as the three heuristics – sourcing, corroboration and contextualisation. Evidently, this implies a sort of historical literacy continuum whereby sourcing would represent the lowest level of literacy, and contextualisation the highest. The allusion, therefore, is that on top of historical knowledge an individual needs to be able to work with historical sources, as is expected of professional historians in order to achieve historical literacy.

Sourcing refers to "noticing and evaluating the source of the document" (Wineburg, 1991, as cited in Perfetti et al., 1994, p. 262). In other words, these are enquiry methods and processes that one needs to be able to practice in order to be a historian. Therefore, it would be difficult to label a learner who does not know how to gather sources or information as a historically literate person. Corroboration denotes an historical investigation whereby a historically literate person "check[s] the facts mentioned in the document against those in other documents" (Perfetti et al., 1994, p. 262). To further develop this notion, corroboration involves checking the information gathered against information from other sources resulting in the development of multi-perspectives. Boix-Mansilla (2000, p. 406) calls this an ability to apply "historical modes of thinking." In doing this, one should be aware of the

strengths and weaknesses of the particular sources. The third step as identified by Wineburg (1991) is contextualisation which means setting "events in a larger context" (Perfetti et al., 1994, p. 262). Without the ability to apply this method, an individual may tend to view the past as made up of unconnected events. According to Lee (2004), contextualisation is a major indicator of historical literacy which many students struggle to achieve. A solution to this is for learners to have an usable framework of the past which enables them (learners) to set events in a "big picture" which, in turn, enables them to "go beyond fragmentary extrapolation from the very recent past" (Lee, 2004, p. 8). A historically literate individual should picture the past not only as a story, but also as a map so that history is contextualized within space and time (Shemilt, 2000, p. 94).

Wineburg's (1991) conceptualisation was a big step in the evolution of historical literacy from viewing it as mere content knowledge to knowledge coupled with the application of historical investigative processes. This development was cumulative rather than subtractive since Wineburg (1991) did not view knowledge as unimportant. Instead, he contended that historical knowledge without the understanding and application of actual historical technique is not as useful as was assumed by Ravitch (1989). The reason for this argument is that knowledge is obtained from historical sources. It is noteworthy that Wineburg's (1991) emphasis on the use of sources came in a context of the development of skills-based curricula in many countries in the wake of Shemilt's (1980; 1983; 1987) far-reaching work in the School Councils History Project (SHP) in Britain in the 1980s. Evidence of this frame of thinking is the move away from memorisation and regurgitation of historical facts towards increased amount of source work with which history learners had to engage with as historians.

An index of historical literacy

The next major step in the conceptualisation of historical literacy was initiated by Taylor (2003) who drew up an index in which historical literacy was presented as a combination of a range of criteria. It should be noted that prior to his theorisation, Taylor was head of a project at Monash University to investigate the quality and status of teaching and learning of history in Australia whose report was produced in May 2000. This inquiry team was set up as a result over concerns, starting in the mid-1990s in Australia,

that school history was failing to thrive (Taylor, 2000). Taking a cue from this project, Taylor (2003) proceeded and conceptualised historical literacy in attempt to theorise and, in the process, come up with an instrument to measure individuals' historical literacy. His arguments also built on the theorisations that had already been done by earlier history education scholars such as Ravitch (1989) and Wineburg (1991).

At the apex of his index of historical literacy, Taylor (2003) placed knowledge of the events of the past. He admitted the useful role played by what may be termed prior knowledge, which learners come to school with from mainly unofficial sources (Phillips, 2006). This implies an acknowledgement of what Lowenthal (1998, as cited in Virta, 2008, p. 124) dismissed as "amateur scholarship." The placement of knowledge of past events at the top of the index shows how fundamental Taylor considers knowledge to be in historical literacy. The cumulative evolution of the concept of historical literacy is also demonstrated when Taylor (2003) modified Wineburg's (1991) heuristics. While he steered clear of using the term heuristics, Taylor (2003) still refers to them, although his focus is mainly on the understanding and use of historical skills. He acknowledges research skills to be crucial, in the process defining them as "gathering, analysing and using the evidence (artefacts, documents and graphics) and issues of provenance" (p. 6). Clearly, there is a similarity between Taylor's (2003) "research skills" and Wineburg's (1991) "sourcing." Taylor (2003) furthermore argued the importance of historical method and skills by pointing out that a history learner should be able to use historical reasoning, synthesis and interpretation to explain historical events. This means that historical literacy also implies the ability to make sense of the sources and to show why each event happened in its own context.

Taylor (2003) went further than Wineburg (1991) through being more specific about the sources to which one applies historical method. One such aspect from his index is the use of applied science to determine the way historical events occurred. Therefore, according to Taylor (2003, p. 1) "understanding the use and the value of scientific and technological expertise and methods in investigating the past" is a sign of historical literacy. Although history and science are disciplines which are quite distinct, being able to use science to explain historical events is according to Taylor (2003) proving to be a kind of historical literacy. It must be noted though that there are problems related to this view. For example, the use of science in the social sciences may lead to learners not grasping the historical process (the unpredictability of

events) well. Science also does not tell us about attitudes of past people. In any case, many third world countries will need some time before they can afford to conduct hard scientific studies in history. Hence, although being able to use science to explain the past enhances historical literacy, not using it does not necessarily render one historically illiterate. This proves the argument that historical literacy comprises a number of (sometimes) independent building blocks, depending on the context.

Historical understanding is one conspicuously dominant idea throughout Taylor's (2003) index of historical literacy. For example, he identified as a characteristic of historical literacy "understanding the shape of change and continuity over time, understanding multiple narratives and dealing with open-endedness" (p. 6). This implies that an individual who myopically reproduces a single narrative of events lacks critical literacy in history. This view has gained ground as a result of the application of post-modernist and deconstructionist theories in history championed by scholars such as Foucault (Munslow, 1997). The post-modernist philosophy challenged the existence and use of grand narratives (or meta-narratives) in history. At varying degrees historians have come to compromise and accept the use of multiple narratives instead of grand narratives in history. Related to this point is the "understanding (of) historical concepts such as causation and motivation" (Taylor, 2003, p. 6).

Historical conceptual understanding

Haydn, Arthur & Hunt (2003), in resonance with Taylor (2003), added that the major concepts that enhance historical understanding are time, evidence, causation/consequence, change/continuity, significance and understanding events and issues from the perspective of people in the past/ making moral judgements on people of the past. This proposal on concepts was a major development in identifying the purpose of school history despite Haydn et al. (2003) not mentioning historical literacy directly. Their work, mainly done in Britain, was in a context of a reworking of the nature of school history which resulted in a concept-based history curriculum. Concept-based school history was a departure, though not major, from the skills and method based school history of the 1980s and 90s. These concepts are known as second order concepts, and they differ from first order concepts such as revolution, nationalism and slavery. Lévesque (2005, p. 1) states that second order concepts

"implicitly arise in the act of doing historical inquiries" and "are necessary to engage in investigations and to anchor historical narratives (or interpretations) of the past". Because of their significance to the conceptualisation of historical literacy, the second order concepts will henceforth be reviewed individually.

The first concept that Haydn et al. (2003) put forward is significance – arguing that for history learners to study the subject with understanding, they should comprehend the significance of that particular subject and its content. Therefore history learners should "appreciate how the topic they are studying contributes to their education, informs and explains issues that are both serious and significant to their own lives" (Haydn et al, 2003, p. 120). Their argument was that even if the learners may tend to not recall all factual detail which Ravitch (1989) held so dear, realising the significance of historical events is "the enduring educational outcome" (Haydn et al., p. 96). Levstik (2000, p. 284) noted the link between historical literacy and power – as viewed by Hirsch (1988) and Aronowitz & Giroux (1991) – by stating that "decisions about what is historically significant have as much to do with what is repressed as with what is recollected." This can be demonstrated by the language (such as the use of the first person plural "we" or choice of images which could be meant for nation building or emphasis of certain issues or individuals). Ultimately the history learner should have answers to the questions like "why are we studying this?" (Hunt, 2003, p. 33) or "what is school history for?" (Husbands, et al, 2003). This implies that understanding the concept of the significance of history and historical events contributes a great deal to a learner's historical literacy. Bradshaw (2007) argued that for learners to learn real historical significance they should not have it dictated, but they should be given the chance to make their own decisions about the significance of historical events.

The centrality of the concept of time in the study of history was underscored by both Taylor (2003) and Haydn et al. (2003, p. 97), the latter contending that "if pupils are to make sense of history, they need to have some idea about how we 'measure' and reference events in history in terms of when they occurred, and to build up a mental framework of the past." This would mean that historically literate individuals understand time right from "deep time," that is, "the distant past stretching back to prehistory, the Stone Age and the formation of the Earth" Haydn et al. (2003, p. 97). According to Taylor (2003, p. 11), if an individual is exposed to sound historical learning, they develop the capacity to confidently and correctly apply period labels.

This implies an understanding of chronology, sequencing and time markers such as GMT, AD, BC, generation, century, era and epoch. Evidently, understanding the concept of time will have to imply some linguistic and mathematical literacy as well (Wood, 1995; Dawson, 2006). It is also the hallmark of an individual who is historically literate to be able to identify and avoid anachronism and presentism. Presentism implying looking into the past using eyes contextualised in the present world (Partington, 1980). Hence, using the pluralist approach to literacy, understanding the concept of time in history is a key building block of historical literacy.

In addition to time, the concept of change is crucial to historical literacy. According to Taylor (2003, p. 9) the epitome of understanding change and continuity is the appreciation of "change as the gradual transformation of a situation." In corroboration, Haydn et al. (2003, p. 116) identified a link comprehension between the concept of change and continuity and the structure and content of the "syllabus" when they stated that "if a syllabus is not chronological (i.e. is episodic), it makes it difficult for learners to understand change and continuity." In support of this position, Barton (2001, p. 881) adds that one needs a certain set of "cultural tools" in order for them to understand the complexity of the process of change. It is the possession of such cultural tools that enables individuals to be historically literate.

The concept of causation was also singled out by both Taylor (2003) as a key component of achieving historical literacy and by Haydn et al. (2003) as a key component of school history. The latter alleges that most highly intelligent adolescents treat the word "cause" as though it refers not to the connection between events but to the properties of one of the events. Taylor (2003, p. 9) likewise concluded that the epitome of a historically literate learner, in terms of understanding causation, is the understanding that causes are "an intricate network of actions and factors." They will have developed from assuming that history is linear and events are inevitable. In addition, Evans & Pate (2007) argued that although learners need scaffolding in order for them to develop good causation arguments, although over-scaffolding ends up being retrogressive.

A perplexing paradox that has dogged school history is that on one hand school history has been forced to carry the burden of developing responsible citizens. On the other hand, learners are not encouraged to make moral judgments on people who lived in the past. Making moral judgments is one of the characteristics of a responsible citizen and this was identified by Taylor

(2003) as part of his index of historical literacy. On the contrary, von Borries (1994, p. 346) remarked that "moralising obstructs historical explanations" because moral evaluations and historical judgments are not necessarily the same. Moralising leads to anachronisms as learners try to impose today's values on societies whose experiences led to the morals the learners are trying to use, he argued. Thus, one can identify two contrary arguments regarding moral judgments. While Taylor (2003) considered understanding moral issues in history as a sign of historical literacy, von Borries (1994) considered avoiding the making of moral judgments to be a sign of historical literacy.

Taylor (2003) went further than Haydn, et al's (2003) second order concepts by bringing to the fore the relevance of historical skills and the importance of the language of history as key components of historical literacy. According to Taylor (2003, p. 6) "understanding and dealing with the language of the past" is a distinguishing attribute of a historically literate learner. This is because history, as with other specialisations, has its own unique language. For example, the meaning ascribed to the word "revolution" in history may differ to that in mathematics. It is these distinctive communication features which "render the accumulation of valid historical understandings problematic for many students" (Husbands, 1996, p. 30). The historically literate learner should be aware of the fact that language in history can have multiple meanings. Husbands (1996) likewise contended that history learners should understand how language shapes history and how history in turn shapes language. Therefore, while it is important that history learners comprehend historical language, language itself can depict our understanding of history.

The use of historical language is related to presentation of the historical narrative. The narrative has seemingly since time-immemorial been the main assessment genre of historical communication; thus being able to construct one was a sign of historical literacy. Jacott, Lopez-Manjon & Carretero (2000) maintained that the narrative is still important today. Good presentation of a historical narrative is not necessarily about perfect grammar only, but it must also show multi-narratives and should follow the structural model (Jacott et al., 2000). The structural model entails explaining history "based on the relationship between a set of conditions" as opposed to attributing historical developments to human action. Taylor's (2003) index explained on representational expression whereby historical creativity is expressed through film, drama, visual arts, music, fiction, poetry and information and communications technology (ICT). His argument is that "history is not merely

a written or spoken narrative" (Taylor's 2003, p. 33). It is debatable whether creativity can be taken to be historical literacy; however this is defended with the deconstructionist argument that all narratives are not real representations of the past. Therefore, in spite of the digital divide which means that many parts of Africa for example have little or no access to ICT, Taylor (2003) considers ICT to be important in history. Such arguments expose the plurality of historical literacy where certain benchmarks are important in some contexts but can not be generalised to all contexts.

Historical consciousness

In some circles, historians and history educators (Laville, 2006, Seixas, 2006; Simon, 2006; Phillips, 2006) have focused on theorising historical consciousness. It is important to discuss historical consciousness, firstly, because in some instances it is mentioned almost interchangeably with historical literacy. Secondly, some theorists use historical consciousness as a component part of historical literacy (Lee, 2004).

The chief protagonist – though not the first – of historical consciousness is Rüsen (1993, as cited in von Borries, p. 345) who describes history as a "complex network of interpreted past, perceived present and expected future." In its own right, the idea of historical consciousness has had a wide-ranging conceptualisation such that it is difficult to pin down one agreed upon definition or meaning. This is compounded by a lot of history education scholars' relative lack of exposure to Rüsen's (1993) work since most of it is written in German (Lee, 2004). Despite this, historical consciousness gained huge ground in the 1990s, a watershed period in the history of Europe in particular and the world in general. With the demise of the Soviet Union, and subsequently the unification of Germany, there was a marked change in the role of history in many societies and with this, the way history as a discipline was viewed. As a result, the notion of historical consciousness gained ground in countries that needed to rethink the role of history in their past, present and future (Laville, 2006). Indeed, Rüsen (1993) is identified to have been one of the first to call for a single European monetary currency which would strengthen a European cultural currency which, he argued, developed from a common historical consciousness.

Historical consciousness and historical literacy

As the theorisation of historical consciousness continued, questions arose whether historical consciousness and historical literacy are just but two different sides of the same coin. Seixas (2006, p. 11) understands historical consciousness to be "individual and collective understandings of the past, the cognitive and cultural factors that shape those understandings, as well as the relations of historical understandings to those of the present and the future." This conceptualisation can be equated to the clearer and workable understanding provided by the *Youth and History* Project (as cited by Wassermann, 2008, p. 143) which labelled historical consciousness simply as "the connection between the past, the present and the future." These two explanations clearly demonstrate the way historical consciousness can not be a direct equivalent of historical literacy. Instead, this notion has been developing either at least as parallel or at most as part of historical literacy if one adopts the pluralist view of literacy. In this case, historical consciousness becomes a building block of historical literacy which can be related to Wineburg's (1991) contextualisation because a historically conscious individual will be assumed to be able to contextualise themselves in the unfolding history.

Although Taylor (2003, p. 6) did not specifically name historical consciousness, in his index, he indirectly refers to it under the aspect on "connecting the past with the self and the world today." This might be viewed not to be exactly how Rüsen (1993) or Seixas (2006) conceptualised historical literacy since there is no mention of the future. Hence, the crux of Taylor's (2003) index of historical literacy hinges on the intersection between historical knowledge, historical understanding, historical consciousness and historical method. This theorisation also demonstrates the cumulative development of the concept of historical literacy over time.

Lee (2004) has argued on the contrary that historical consciousness is critical in the conceptualisation and development of historical literacy. Lee's (2004) conceptualisation of historical literacy can be argued to be the most recent theorisation of the concept. Curiously, there is no evidence of a current groundswell of research from different theorists in this field. This should not be interpreted as a sign of the loss of impetus of the concept of historical literacy. On the contrary, it should be interpreted as a gap in a fertile field which is calling for further research and conceptualisation. Reasons for the modest research on historical literacy may include the nature of school history which is set, not only by history educationists, but also by powerful voices in

society such as politicians and governments who are not easily challenged. This is evidenced by a lot of critical thinking in school history in times of crises, especially political. The contexts of major theorisations in the USA, Australia, Canada and Germany, by the likes of Ravitch (1989), Wineburg (1991), Rüsen (1993) and Taylor (2003) attest to this.

Towards a conceptual framework of historical literacy

The above review of the available research revealed that literacy – and hence historical literacy – can be viewed, firstly, as a literacy/illiteracy dichotomy, secondly, as a continuum or thirdly, as composed of building blocks. These three views fittingly tally with ideas of historical literacy as defined from quantitative, qualitative or pluralist standpoints respectively. We would argue for the pluralist notion of historical literacy which implies historical literacy that is made up of various component building blocks as expounded by Roberts (1995). Therefore, historical literacy must not be viewed as easily dichotomous in that one is only ever classified as either literate or illiterate as explained by Clifford (1984) since such an idea is exclusivist. Neither do we assume that historical literacy develops through predestined and predictable stages and in a linear fashion until one attains the highest possible level of literacy as propounded by Hillerich (1976). Both the exclusivist and continuum notions of historical literacy imply quantification of the concept. However, the literature reviewed demonstrates that there is no agreed way of quantifying historical literacy. Therefore, one can argue that it is possible to get a qualitative description of historical literacy without attempting to quantify it.

Another major question for consideration is whether historical literacy should be regarded as a competency or as a subject of study like mathematical literacy as adopted by some scholars (Hobden, 2007; Madongo, 2007). It can be concluded that at no point have the history education theorists that were reviewed suggested that historical literacy should turn out to be a separate field of study. This is despite all the debates about the relevance of school history and the challenges it receives from more vocational-oriented subjects such as commercial subjects (Rabb, 2004).What all the theorists agree upon is that historical literacy is the embodiment of what a learner acquires through the learning of school history. What they differ on, in some cases, is what it is that the learners should acquire through studying history.

Furthermore we argue that it would be myopic to attempt to come up with one generic definition of historical literacy. As already mentioned, contexts and circumstances have a major say in how historical literacy is viewed in a particular society. This is the reason why the meaning of the concept has been evolving, and there is no reason to assume that the evolution has ended. Quantitative conceptions of historical literacy suggest attempts at a one-size-fits-all definition of the concept. On the contrary, the adoption of a qualitative conception of historical literacy implies an admission that historical literacy is flux and it means dissimilar things to do diverse people in different times, spaces and contexts. Therefore, conceptually manifold manifestations of historical literacy exist.

In continuation we argue that historical content knowledge alone is an insufficient yardstick for the achievement of historical literacy. We therefore contend that if other factors such as historical understanding are built upon content knowledge they become crucial to historical literacy. This does not imply, nevertheless, that historical understanding is equal to historical literacy. In fact, the former can be taken to be a component of the latter. To avoid the risk, created by conceiving historical literacy as a dichotomy or a continuum, of erroneously labelling the majority of people in the study of history – never mind the world – historically illiterate, a position is taken whereby people can be said to posses various notions of historical literacy. In other words, historical literacy can be metaphorically equated to a house and whether the house is double-storey or not, it remains a house. The additional storeys are there, in some cases, to add value without necessarily changing the generic nature of the structure.

It was also pointed out that Hirsch (1988) and Aronowitz & Giroux (1991) agreed that any definition of literacy should not be separated from power. Indeed, the powerful sectors of society construct historical literacy for the rest. The powerful groups could be politicians who ensure that historical literacy may be seen as the ability to justify and defend existing political dispensations. However, while not downplaying the role of politicians it should be noted that scholars also hog a considerable amount of power which they can use to push their own conceptions of historical literacy down the throats of those who imbibe the contents of their textbooks. Therefore, we recognise the role of power, be it political or epistemological, in the determination of historical literacy.

The theorisation of the concept of historical literacy according to our contention has been summarised in Figure 2. The figure shows how historical literacy can be viewed to consist of dimensions or benchmarks, with each having its own sub-dimensions. The first benchmark of historical literacy is historical content knowledge, which in turn comprises historical events and narratives as sub-dimensions. Knowledge of events implies the learners' ability to remember occurrences of the past. Knowledge of narratives reveals whether the learner follows grand-narratives or multiple-narratives. This dimension tallies with the views of Ravitch (1989).

Figure 2: Summary of major aspects of historical literacy – a conceptual framework

Dimension/benchmark of historical literacy	Sub-dimension
Knowledge	Events
	Narratives
Conceptual understanding	Time
	Causation and consequence
	Motivation
	Significance
	Moral judgments
	Change and continuity
	Empathy
Source work (Historical method)	Sourcing
	Corroboration
	Contextualisation
	Analysis
	Evaluation
	Explanation
Historical consciousness	
Historical language	

The second benchmark of historical literacy is historical conceptual understanding. This is largely based on the work of Haydn et al. (2003) and Taylor (2003). The important historical second-order concepts are the sub-dimensions and these are time, causation and consequence, motivation, significance, change and continuity, empathy and moral judgments.

Application of historical method is the third benchmark of historical literacy. It implies working with historical sources. The sub-dimensions of this benchmark include Wineburg's (1991) heuristics which are sourcing, corroboration and contextualisation. The other three sub-dimensions which are analysis, evaluation and explanation are founded on Taylor's (2003) index of historical literacy.

Historical consciousness was adopted as the fourth benchmark of historical literacy. Historical consciousness is viewed as a mental construct which is a manifestation rather than the equivalent of historical literacy. This conceptualisation is based on the simple understanding of historical consciousness as connecting the past, the present and future. This is thus linked to Taylor's (2003) making of connections.

The final benchmark of historical literacy is the understanding and use of historical language. We argue that history can have a unique language. In other instances, though, the language is sometimes grounded in technicalities and can be related to other disciplines such as mathematics.

Conclusion

The above has been an attempt (through a literature review) to conceptualise historical literacy, particularly explaining how historical literacy can be developed in learners without necessarily following a linear process. The dimensions of historical literacy are both dependent and independent on each other. For example historical understanding is grounded in content knowledge. Meanwhile methods are applied on content knowledge and understanding, but knowledge and understanding can be increased through the use of historical methods such as sourcing, corroboration or contextualisation. However, if one does not possess the capacity to contextualise it does not mean that they abruptly cease to be historically literate. On the contrary, while the individual's historical literacy will be less complex, at least it will still be there in another form. This is what is meant by multiple-literacies. In addition, all these dimensions are contextualised and carry different meanings in different spaces, times and contexts.

The literature that has been reviewed on historical literacy shows wide-ranging international theorisation of the concept. However, one should not just adopt these theorisations uncritically and try and apply them in new situations. For example, the digital divide is a reality that makes it fallacious to assume

that the use of film and ICT and gas and chromatography tests are presently being practiced in African school history in particular. In conclusion there are multiple manifestations of historical literacy and these can be qualitatively described according to context, space and time.

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History curriculum, nation-building and the promotion of common values in Africa: A comparative analysis of Zimbabwe and South Africa

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Abstract

A challenge for Africa is how to derive common values from the values of diverse communities. The challenge becomes even more difficult in the face of notions such as autonomy, multiculturalism and respect for difference which are accompanying the emergence of neo-liberalism, globalisation and cosmopolitanism. While it is important to respect diversity in a post-colonial society, it is equally important that nation-building should strive for the promotion of common values among the citizenry. This article uses the example of Zimbabwe and South Africa as a comparative case study to investigate how the ruling elites in these two southern African countries have endeavoured to apply the curriculum for nation-building and the promotion of common citizenship by inculcating common values in young citizens. The article also explores the role of the curriculum from the perspective of social constructivism, where 'curriculum' is defined as an agency to foster social, cultural and political ideals in society. The academic discipline that is highly vulnerable to the imperatives of nation-building and the interests of the political elite is history, as it is prone to manipulation by political regimes in their hegemonic projects.

Keywords: Nation-building; Curriculum; Multi-culturalism; Hegemony; History; Ideology.

Introduction

In countries with a huge variety of cultural, ethnic, racial, religious and other social identities, nation-building is a big challenge. This challenge has led governments to take numerous steps to create durable nation states. In Africa the situation is compounded by the fact that there are many states without

nations.[1] Mandaza describes such states as 'nation-states-in-the-making', which are characterised by a lack of essence, weakness and dependency.[2] What is missing or ignored in the numerous investigations of nation-building processes in Africa is the role of the curriculum. This article explores the neglected role of the history curriculum in the debate on nation-building and the process of forging general citizenship in Africa. In this context, the concept 'curriculum' is understood from the social constructivist perspective as an agency of social and political reproduction.[3] The curriculum emerges directly from society and is an ideological tool as well as a vehicle of social change driven by the dominant social group. As such, it plays a central role in the development and reproduction of society over time and geographical area. Seen from this perspective, it is no wonder that the curriculum is appropriated by political regimes in an endeavour to construct particular nation states, impart particular ideologies, promote common values and form a particular type of citizen.

Problem statement

This article presents a comparative analysis of Zimbabwe and South Africa to show how the national curriculum in these two southern African countries is manipulated by the political elites to promote certain values and particular characters. In South Africa, the national curriculum has the overriding aim of democratic transition by inculcating liberal democratic values and producing democratic citizens who are fully de-racialised and de-tribalised.[4] Zimbabwe, on the other hand, is locked in orthodox nationalism, and its curriculum is being driven by so-called 'patriotic values' and the aim of forming of patriotic citizens.[5] These underpinning ideological and political issues are being played out in the history curriculum and the practice of history by the community. This makes the idea of the curriculum as a promoter of values and character

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1   Montserrat Guibernau, Nations Without States: Political Communities in a Global Age, (Polity Press, Cambridge, 1999); EV Masunugure, 'Nation-Building, State-Building and Power Configuration in Zimbabwe,' in *Conflict Trends Magazine*, Volume 1, (2006), p. 3-8.
2   I Mandaza, *Peace and Security in Southern Africa* (SAPES Books, Harare, 1996), pp. xviii-xxi; I Mandaza, *Governance and Human Development in Southern Africa: Selected Essays* (SAPES, Harare, 1998), pp.1-8.
3   PW Jackson, 'Conceptions of Curriculum and Curriculum Specialists', PW Jackson (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Curriculum: A Project of the American Educational Research Association* (Macmillan Publishing Company: New York, 1992), p. 14-15.
4   Department of Education, *National Curriculum Statement for Grade 10-12* (Pretoria, 2002).
5   Terence Ranger, 'Historiography, Patriotic History and the History of the Nation: The Struggle Over the Past in Zimbabwe,' in *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 30, 3, (2004), pp. 215-234.

problematic, particularly where multiculturalism, diversity and autonomy are concerned.

The history curriculum in general is intended to promote the acquisition of knowledge and the understanding of human activity in the past and to link it with the present so as to help learners to understand causes and consequences, continuity and change, and the general evolution of society over time to become what it is today.[6] History as the study of human activities cuts across the social, economic and political aspects of society. The history syllabus is closely followed by politicians and policy makers to make sure that the history that is taught is in line with the ideology of the ruling elite. What this means is that history, whether at secondary school or tertiary level, is never taught in a neutral way.

In both Zimbabwe and South Africa, as the case study shows, the teaching of history is always influenced by political ideologies so that the subject is taught either as liberal history, nationalist history, working class history, women's history, popular history, colonial history or post-colonial history. These different aspects of history impose different values and promote a different character. Zimbabwe is well known for preferring a narrowly defined nationalist history which is intended to impart the noble spirit of patriotism.

The practice of history by the community in many parts of the world has been, and still is, aligned with particular political ideologies and political exigencies. Different political regimes emphasise the teaching of a particular aspect of history for particular ideological purposes. It is within this context that the examples of Zimbabwe and South Africa are discussed to demonstrate how the history curriculum promotes values and character. The key challenge in promoting particular values and character is respect for diversity and multiculturalism. There is controversy over how to ensure common values while at the same time respecting differences. There is also the challenge of compatibility and incompatibility between the re-conceptualised notions of autonomy – present-day South Africa's educational vision is to promote core values as the basis of democratic citizenship.[75]

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6   Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council, *History 9155, Examination Syllabus for 2003-2007* (Government Printers, Harare 2003).
7   A Gutmann, *Challenges of Multiculturalism in Democratic Education,* www.ed.uiu.edu/EPS/PES-Yearbbok95_docs/gutmann.html; S Pendlebury, *Diversity, Mutual Respect, and Education of a Deliberative Citizenry* in http://www.edu.uiuc.edu/EPS/PES-Yearbook/95_docs/pendlebury.html.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to create awareness of how history curriculums can be manipulated by political elites for nation-building in either positive or negative ways. Through a comparative analysis of Zimbabwe as a 'mid-de-coloniser'[8] and South Africa as a 'late de-coloniser',[9] this study attempts to provide the latter country with a practical lesson on the dangers of manipulating history curriculums for political and ideological ends that cannot be reconciled with the notions of respect for diversity and cosmopolitanism. Since the history curriculum is prone to political manipulation for nation-building, it is essential that both good and bad examples be examined so that we know what to avoid and what to emulate. The lesson of this study is relevant not only to the political elites, but also to the broader community in the teaching of history in schools, colleges and universities. This study uses the example of Zimbabwe to highlight the dangers of imposing on the history curriculum a narrowly defined and exclusive political process of nation-building, while the South African case serves to show that the curriculum can be manipulated politically to pursue democratic ideals in nation-building.

Literature review: A comparative analysis between Zimbabwe and South Africa on the drive for values and a particular character

Terence Ranger wrote that:

> Over the past two or so years there has emerged in Zimbabwe a sustained attempt by the Mugabe regime to propagate what is called 'patriotic history.' 'Patriotic history' is intended to proclaim the continuity of the Zimbabwean revolutionary tradition. It is an attempt to reach out to 'youth' over the heads of their parents and teachers, all of whom are said to have forgotten or betrayed revolutionary values. It repudiates academic historiography with its attempts to complicate and question. At the same time, it confronts Western 'bogus universalism' which it depicts as a denial of the concrete history of global oppression. 'Patriotic history' is propagated at many levels on television and in the state-controlled press; in youth militia camps; in new history schools courses and text books; in books written by cabinet ministers; in speeches by Robert Mugabe and in philosophical eulogies and glosses of those speeches by Zimbabwe's media controller, Tafataona Mahoso.[10]

8   The term 'mid-de-coloniser' means that Zimbabwe is neither one of the first African states to get independence from colonial rule nor one of the last.

9   The term 'late de-coloniser' means that South Africa is one of the last countries to break from colonial rule.

10   T Ranger, 'Nationalist Historiography, Patriotic History and the History of the Nation: The Struggle Over the Past in Zimbabwe,' *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 30, 3, (2004) p. 1. Tafataona Mahoso is Chairman of the Media Commission of Zimbabwe. He is one of the leading apologists of the ruling party in Zimbabwe.

The key issues raised by Ranger relate to how the practice of history by the community in Zimbabwe has been hijacked by politicians, and how it has been seriously infused with current ZANU-PF political imperatives of fighting an economic war against the West. The Ministry of Youth Development and Employment Creation, in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, clearly stated that the mission of the Zimbabwean government was to "transform and empower youth for nation-building" and to promote the values of patriotism, creativity, team work, national commitment and effective communication.[11]

One can say that in Zimbabwe the Ministry of Education as an overseer of educational issues is not trusted to the extent that the more politically oriented Ministry of Youth Development and Employment Creation has been, given the mandate to teach a parallel curriculum in the National Youth Service Centres, which basically consists of a narrow political history of the country. Formal schools continue to teach a curriculum that is less political, less nationalistic and more objective and inclusive of Zimbabwean people of different political persuasions, including whites. In the National Youth Service Centres, black youths are taught anti-white ideology, which is at the centre of the ZANU-PF's nationalist politics. This is a situation that was described in detail by the Solidarity Peace Trust in one of its reports on the youth and education in Zimbabwe. It noted that:

> … there is overwhelming evidence that the youth militia camps are aimed at forcing on all school leavers a ZANU-PF view of Zimbabwean history and the present. All training materials in the camps has, from inception, consisted exclusively of ZANU-PF campaign material and political speeches. The material is crudely racist and vilifies the major opposition party in the country..."[12]

On the other hand, South Africa has come up with a *Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy*, emphasising transformation and democratisation. While in Zimbabwe the curriculum is seen as a vehicle for the inculcation of patriotism and nationalist thinking, South Africa emphasises the curriculum as a vehicle for transformation and the inculcation of democratic values. As stated by former Minister of Education of South Africa, Kader Asmal, "This

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11 The Ministry of Youth Development and Employment Creation has usurped some of the key functions of the Ministry of Education. For instance, this ministry has instated the National Youth Service Centres as competitors to legitimate schools and universities. See also the Ministry of Education, *The Development of Education National Report of Zimbabwe* (Ministries of Education, Sport and Culture and Higher and Tertiary Education, August 2004).
12 The Solidarity Peace Trust, *National Youth Service Training: Shaping Youth in a Truly Zimbabwean Manner: An Overview of Youth Militia Training and Activities in Zimbabwe,* October 2000-August 2003 (5 September 2003).

curriculum is written by South Africans for South Africans who hold dear the principles of democracy."[13] Thus the South African curriculum is underpinned by 16 steps as a vehicle for democratic transformation, namely:

- Culture of communication;
- Role modelling;
- Reading, writing, counting and thinking;
- Culture of human rights;
- Promoting arts and culture;
- Putting history into the curriculum;
- Religion and education;
- Multilingualism;
- Sports and nation-building;
- Equal access;
- Anti-racism;
- Gender equality;
- HIV/AIDS and sexual responsibility;
- Rule of law;
- Ethics and the environment;
- Patriotism and common citizenship.[14]

The above blueprint for the promotion of values and character has major significance for the practice of history by the community. It raises the question of which history is to be taught. In Zimbabwe and South Africa, nationalist history has come to occupy mainstream education. The former so-called 'terrorists' have become 'freedom fighters/war veterans', and are now the models for nation-building and the leaders of Zimbabwe and South Africa. African nationalism, which was previously relegated to the position of terrorism and communism, is now studied as emancipatory development.

However, there are differences between Zimbabwe and South Africa concerning consensus on key issues related to nation-building and the purpose of history teaching. South Africa is barely 15 years into the achievement of

13 Department of Education (South Africa), *Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-9*, (Pretoria, 2001), p. 1.
14 Department of Education (South Africa), *Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy*, (Pretoria, 2001).

its democracy - there is still a lot of euphoria about this, and the nation is still seen as young and new. The African National Congress (ANC) is still enjoying popular support in South Africa, but the ruling ZANU-PF party in Zimbabwe is no longer popular and it no longer holds the moral and political high ground with its nationalist position. Zimbabwean historians are now very critical of orthodox nationalism as a pillar of nation-building. Some are even calling for a post-nationalist dispensation that raises human security, human rights, democracy and pluralism far above ideas of a monolithic unity. While in South Africa there is still respect and common ground between historians and politicians, in Zimbabwe historians and other academics are accused of turning schools, colleges and universities into 'anti-government mentality factories'. The government has issued the following statement: "The Government will soon make youth training compulsory for all school leavers to instil an unbiased history of Zimbabwe."[15]

 The implications of all this are serious for the practice of history by the community in Zimbabwe. Firstly, the government has become very hostile to professional history teachers and academics who have refused to make the curriculum a tool of a particular political group, and some have been forced to leave the country. Secondly, the government has instituted National Youth Training Centres as vehicles to inculcate 'patriotic history' in the youth, which parallel the function of formal schools. Thirdly, teachers at the National Youth Training Centres are not even trained historians or professional teachers. They are war veterans, i.e. those who fought during the liberation struggle. Liberation war credentials have become a substitute for academic credentials. Finally, history is taught in a highly politicised, severely restricted manner. It is a narrow and selective approach bordering on direct indoctrination rather than one aimed at the dissemination of historical knowledge. The history curriculum has been turned into a political manifesto serving the very narrow political interests of a small political elite. The implication for South Africa is that as a late de-coloniser, it can learn from Zimbabwe about the dangers of subjugating the history curriculum to the political imperatives of ruling regimes. The obvious danger of any history curriculum that is politically subordinate, as in Zimbabwe, is that it does not produce critical history graduates, but instead extremely biased and dangerous citizens who cannot embrace difference and diversity.

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15 Sikhumbuzo Ndiweni, the ZANU-PF Information and Publicity Secretary for Bulawayo, argued that "The mistake the ruling party made was to allow colleges and universities to be turned into anti-government mentality factories."

The issues raised above indicate the dangers of using a curriculum to promote values and a particular character. The key challenge relates to whose values are to be promoted, and what type of character must be created. Many governments worldwide have manipulated the curriculum and aligned it to their own particular political agendas. In a multi-racial, multi-ethnic and multi-tribal society such as South Africa's, is it possible to promote common values? Are the concerns with values in reality an attempt by one generation to think for another? The Zimbabwean example demonstrates how the nationalist elite with liberation war credentials is working very hard to inculcate its ideologies in the youth through National Youth Services Training. The character that is created must be obedient and grateful to the heroes of the liberation. It must worship the nationalist elite and view them as the correct leadership for Zimbabwe even if their shortcomings are obvious and dangerous in a world of diversity. This creates the problem of the dominant classes or social groups attempting to inculcate their values and ideologies in others by perverting the curriculum. Even South Africa's quest to produce democratic citizens through the curriculum raises the question of who decides what the key elements of democratic citizenship are. Amy Guttmann argues that the values must descend from the state, the parents and the professional educators, as well as from the citizens in general.[1612] The attempt to promote particular values and shape a particular character works against the notion of autonomy and choice, and tends to magnify power. Smith was not very far from the truth when he stated that:

> We need to move to a simpler view of autonomy as comprising an understanding of where power over us is held and how it is maintained and exercised, together with a degree of ability to act in concert with each other to take back that power and control our own lives.[17]

Indeed, political elites use the curriculum to safeguard their power. This is a point also emphasised by Basil Bernstein when he defines curriculum as a 'message system'. Bernstein demonstrates how shifts, ruptures and dislocations at the societal, political, educational and pedagogical level manifest as reconstructions at curriculum level.[1814]

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16   A Gutmann, *Democratic Education*, (Princeton University Press, New Jersey, 1987), pp. 41-42.

17   R Smith, 'The Education of Autonomous Citizens', D. Bridges (ed.), *Education, autonomy and democratic citizenship: Philosophy in a changing world*, (Routledge, London, 1997), p. 136.

18   B Bernstein, 'Pedagogising knowledge: Studies in recontextualisation' in *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity: Theory, research critique* (Taylor Francis, London, 1996).

Conclusion

In conclusion it can be said that the curriculum is a lever of society. It is an ideological tool and is shot through with power relations, and hence cannot escape from shaping and socialising citizens through the promotion of values and by moulding character. This realisation is significant for history

teaching in the community, because awareness of the dangers of subjecting a curriculum to narrowly defined political ideologies can help those who plan the curriculum to be critical of their own contributions. Indeed, curriculum has a hegemonic purpose and is inextricably intertwined with the imperatives of nation-building and power construction. The current age of cosmopolitanism is viewed as a challenge by some governments such as the government of Zimbabwe, which is trying to resist globalisation by resorting to orthodox nationalism. In the process, the curriculum becomes a battlefield of political contests as the ruling parties want the curriculum to carry their political heritage into the future. South Africa's attempt to make liberal democracy a common value is also caught up in a contradiction - it is trying to promote individual autonomy and at the same time is emphasising common values.

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Gutmann, A *Challenges of Multiculturalism in Democratic Education* (available at: www.ed.uiu. edu/EPS/PES-Yearbbok95_docs/gutmann.html); S Pendlebury, *Diversity, Mutual Respect, and Education of a Deliberative Citizenry* (available at: http:// www.edu.uiuc.edu/EPS/PES-Yearbook/95_docs/pendlebury.html).

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Student History teachers' personal theories on teaching: Autobiographies and their emerging professional identities

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Abstract

Philosophy of teaching statements are autobiographical reflective statements on teaching and learning. Such statements can therefore be regarded as a window into the professional identities of teachers, and are increasingly called for internationally when promotion and appointments are considered. In this paper the philosophy of teaching statements of final-year History Education student teachers, are used as the units of analysis. Although meaningful themes on their emerging professional identities as prospective History teachers materialised, in the article I argue that their philosophy of teaching statements were burdened by constraints such as a lack of experience and the educational context they found themselves in. In conclusion I contend that although the philosophy of teaching statements provided nothing more than a porthole into the multilayered emerging professional identities of the History student teachers it gave the latter the opportunity to develop a picture of themselves as History teachers.

Keywords: Philosophy of teaching; Professional identities; Teaching autobiographies; History education; Student history teachers; Theories on teaching.

Introduction

A statement of one's philosophy of teaching is a method teachers can use to clarify their goals, to reflect on their practices, to express their commitment to teaching and to grow personally and professionally. A philosophy of teaching statement is also about entails comparing the theoretical self to the actual self (Goodyear & Allchin, 2001). Such a statement usually takes the form of a brief reflective essay that provides an autobiographical insight into how one believes teaching and learning take place.

Over the past decade there has been a growing expectation for teachers internationally, especially at Higher Education Institutions, to produce a philosophy of teaching statement. In many cases it is now one of the norms for promotion. An example of this tendency is provided by Eierman (2008) who cites the *Chemical and Engineering News* in which 40% of advertisements for chemistry lecturers called for a philosophy of teaching statement to serve as part of the review of the "candidate's potential as a teacher". Consequently, the literature is replete with advocacy and how to articles, explaining what philosophy of teaching statements are and why they are important in Higher Education (Haugen, 1998; Goodyear & Allchin, 2001; Montell, 2003).

However, not all teachers at Higher Education Institutions are necessarily convinced of the value of constructing a philosophy of teaching statement, and its usefulness is contested and debated. Pannapacker (in Montell, 2003) views it as a stumbling block rather than a hoop to jump through. He argues that a philosophy of teaching statement espousing alternative ideas to that of the institution might be used against the candidate without observing him/ her teach. At the same time, the critics of philosophy of teaching statements claim that in reality it reveals very little about how someone would teach. And according to Huss (2007:74): "It is not uncommon to find a teacher, professing *on paper* to advance decision-making skills, relying on fact-driven commercial worksheets provided by textbook manufacturers." Pratt (2008) forthrightly claims that a philosophy of teaching statement promises more than it delivers for an impasse exists between its articulation, the vagueness of the criteria to be followed and the form it should take. He feels that since a philosophy of teaching statement is written with a certain audience in mind a discrepancy exists between what teachers really believe versus what they think they should believe.

Justification for this argument is provided by Maddin (2002), who in a Masters Degree done at the University of British Colombia, found that many Higher Education Institutions used websites of other universities as guidelines for what a philosophy of teaching statement should entail. This resulted in a convergence of form and substance cloned from different websites on the nature of philosophy of teaching statements. Unsurprisingly some of the end products produced by teachers attached to these institutions were not individualised autobiographical essays but similar sounding philosophy of teaching statements.

The counter argument is that only through self-reflection will teachers develop and improve. For, as Amobi (2003:31) puts it, "educational beliefs and practice are symbiotically connected" It is therefore necessary to reflect on teaching, learning, goals, actions, visions and in doing so grow personally and professionally. The hallmark of any philosophy of teaching statement should therefore be its individuality which must paint a vivid picture of the intentions of the teacher (Chism, 1998). In the words of Menges and Weimar (in Goodyear & Allchin, 2001:1): "Teaching is a scholarly activity when it is purposeful, reflective, documented, and shared in an evaluative forum." Reflective self-knowledge is therefore the foremost outcome of a philosophy of teaching statement for teachers need to articulate their ideas or else self-knowledge would remain undefined and undeveloped and nothing more than "subconscious motivation for various educational decisions" (Breault, 2005:149-150). The philosophy of teaching statement should thus be part of an ongoing individualised professional enquiry and not a final arrived at document to merely satisfy an educational institution or assessor. The purpose of this article is therefore an attempt to establish if philosophy of teaching statements can be used as autobiographies of the emerging professional identities of student History teachers.

Method of research/Research methodology

Literature review

According to the index for "Philosophy of Teaching Statements" developed by Chism (1997-1998) five key areas need to be considered when developing a personal philosophy of teaching statement. These are conceptualisation of learning, conceptualisation of teaching, goals for learners, implementation of the philosophy of teaching and a personal growth plan. Each of the key areas is underpinned by sub-questions which serve to illuminate what is expected of the author of the philosophy of teaching statement. In terms of the conceptualisation of teaching and learning sub-questions relate to the meaning of teaching and learning and how teaching and learning occurs. As far as the goals for learners are concerned the sub-questions speak to what they should gain from the learning process and how this relates to the envisaged goals of the educator. In terms of the implementation of the philosophy the sub-questions deals with the implementation of and the reflection on the philosophy of teaching. The final key area, namely the personal growth plan,

foregrounds goals that were set by the educator and the strategies envisaged to achieve these (Chism, 1997-1998).

In the USA, according to Huss (2007:69): "The task of writing a philosophy of education statement is both standard fare and a rite of passage for nearly all undergraduate students…" Consequently, some teacher education programmes employ interventionist and modelling strategies to ensure that philosophy of teaching statements based on "deeper reflection" in which student teachers are guided on how to explore their own beliefs and the personal implications of their thoughts are produced (Breault, 2005). The same is not necessarily true elsewhere and the philosophy of teaching statements on which this article is based was the first time student teachers in the Faculty of Education of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), embarked on it.

Empirical study

Sampling and data collection

In this empirical research project the philosophy of teaching statements, written by final-year student History teachers, as part of a portfolio kept in their concluding methodology module, were used as the unit of analysis. Just as an autobiography is a written account of a persons life, the philosophy of teaching statement can be viewed as a personal account of - who am I at this moment and who do I want to become. Philosophy of teaching statements at this level can therefore be regarded as a window into the emerging professional identity of History student teachers.

Working portfolios are used by teachers to document the work and reflect on their teaching. As such it is an archive of a teaching and learning process (Sunstein, 1996). The same can be said of the philosophy of teaching statement which has similar autobiographical qualities (Tierney, Carter & Desai, 1991). These two documents regularly go hand-in-hand with the philosophy of teaching statement usually being the first section of a portfolio. I have, since first teaching the History Education Methodology III module in 2005, expected student teachers to construct working portfolios as I deemed it useful in providing both the students and myself with an understanding of their development as History teachers. At the same time it requires them to think back on their teaching and learning in History Education over the duration of their BEd degree, while as a form of continuous assessment it

offered an alternative to examinations. I have, however, never expected them to include a philosophy of teaching statement.

The afore-mentioned History Education Methodology III module is the final methodology module for student teachers specialising in History Education. The module is offered in the final semester of the four year undergraduate BEd degree. It is an eight credit module allocated ten one-and-a-half hour slots on the timetable. By the time the History student teachers arrive for the Methodology III module they have already completed two eight-credit methodology modules, six sixteen-credit modules in History Education, four one-month long professional practice sessions and all of the other modules required for the BEd degree bar their final semester.

Two events encouraged me to add a philosophy of teaching statement to the working portfolio task. Firstly, I had to write one for my own promotion and found it both discomforting and worthwhile as I was forced to reflect critically on my own practice. I therefore thought that exposing my final year History Education students to the process of writing a teaching of philosophy statement would constitute a meaningful exercise on several levels. It would firstly allow me and the students to Janus-like reflect on the teaching and learning that happened in History Education over a period of four years. In addition it would provide me with some insights into the emerging professional identities of the students I had taught for four years. On the other hand, for the student teachers involved, it could act as a reflective autobiographical statement on how they viewed teaching and learning in History as well as a porthole into their own personal and professional development. The second event happened in 2006 when one of my History Education students was asked to produce a philosophy of teaching statement when he went for a job interview at a prestigious private boys' school. He could not. Consequently, for pragmatic reasons, I thought it would be a good idea for my History Education students to construct a philosophy of teaching statement so as to ensure that they were prepared when it was called for.

Whilst all of the students, during the initial explanation of the working portfolio task, knew what this entailed – they had already compiled various working portfolios both at school and university – it was the first time they had heard of a philosophy of teaching statement. Understandably a fair amount of trepidation was expressed. Resultantly the nature and purpose of philosophy of teaching statements, as well as the major debates surrounding philosophy of teaching statement construction, (Chism 1997-1998; Haugen,

1998; Goodyear & Allchin, 2001; Montell, 2003; Breault, 2005; Huss, 2007) were workshopped. Throughout emphasis was placed on the need for their honest autobiographically reflections on how they viewed themselves as prospective History teachers, and the pedagogical beliefs they held on History teaching and learning. The student teachers were therefore encouraged to view the philosophy of teaching statement as a tool to create a statement of personal belief. For that reason I urged them to explore their individual perspectives on how History should be taught and learnt, while at the same time resisting the temptation to, like Breault (2005), engineer by intervention more contextualised and sophisticated philosophy of teaching statements. To assist the History student teachers to achieve the above I allowed statements of up to ten pages and not the two pages promoted by the literature (Chism, 1997-1998; Goodyear & Allchin, 2001). My reasoning was two fold. Firstly, this was their first time in constructing a philosophy of teaching statement; and secondly, since it was not part of an application for a position, but an academic task, their thinking was not be constrained by page limitations. The students had three months to complete their statements which were to take the form of a reflective essay. At regular intervals, during lecture time, I enquired about their progress, dealt with questions and provided formative feedback.

As framework for the philosophy of teaching statement construction I provided the History student teachers with the often cited (Haugen, 1998; Goodyear & Allchin, 2001; Montell, 2003; Breault, 2005; Huss, 2007) index developed by Chism (1997-1998). The index was adapted by adding sub-questions to clarify the key areas and to address the concern expressed by Pratt (2008) that a structure is needed for a philosophy of teaching statement to be of worth. The decision to use this index was based on the fact that it is an internationally regarded guide for philosophy of teaching statement development that provides an easy to use format while asking key autobiographical questions. As such it provided a framework for a thorough interrogation of the educational beliefs of the History student teachers.

One of the key areas of concern voiced by the student teachers was related to the assessment of this task, especially since it seemed somewhat paradoxical to assess a philosophy of teaching statement for marks. To neutralise their concern, it was emphasised that they should not echo back to me my own bias and not view Chism's index as a series of questions to be answered sequentially and systematically, but to rather use it as a criterion to guide them in the

writing of a reflective philosophy of teaching statements. In an attempt to move the student teachers beyond the notion of "please and pass", to ease the fears of mark-conscious individuals and to emphasise the developmental nature of the task, I undertook to reward reflective philosophy of teaching statements which had explored Chism's index and were submitted on time with an A symbol.

Results

The final products varied significantly in both format and quality. Some History student teachers stuck diligently to Chism's broad index treating it as a set of questions to be answered, while others challenged these boundaries in constructing their philosophy of teaching statements. While several philosophy of teaching statements were clearly rushed efforts others bore the hallmark of meticulous planning and reflection.

The data for this article consisted of six philosophy of teaching statements selected from the History student teachers who completed the History Education Methodology III module at the end of 2007. In constructing this convenience sample (Macmillan, 2007) I consciously attempted to maintain a representative demographic sample of the students that had enrolled for the module. In doing so I hoped to draw on the views of a cross-section of History students in attempting to establish if philosophy of teaching statements can be used as autobiographies of the emerging professional identities of History student teachers.

As I focussed on six different philosophy of teaching statements, this study can be called a collective case study (Stake, 1995; Creswell, 1998). Using a case study approach enables the investigation of a phenomenon in its natural environment. Since the philosophy of teaching statements used in this research study was not specifically created for research purposes, but as a natural part of the History Education Methodology III module, it fits this description.

The selected philosophy of teaching statements not only proved to be a rich source of data but also emerged as an assortment of ideas and words which I had to disentangle. According to Cole and Knowles (2001) there are no recipes or prescription for the analysis of (auto)biographies. Plummer (1983) speaks of brooding and reflecting until it makes sense and feels right and the key ideas and themes starts to emerge.

The first step was therefore to rework the six selected philosophies of teaching statements into a different kind of text for it to be analysed. This was done by using the adapted version of Chism's index for philosophy of teaching statements (Figure 1). In the process of recasting the philosophy of teaching statements, features which did not seem appropriate were excluded, while I teased out common and meaningful themes, key ideas, and significant components that were seen as significant in how they had responded to Chism's index. These were retained and synthesised in accordance with a case study approach (Johnson, 1992). As a result, I was the interpreter which turned the six autobiographical philosophy of teaching statements into a first layer of accounts.

The second step was to make sense of the accounts created. I opted to deal with "what was said". The examination consisted of an interpretation of the philosophy of teaching statements in what Polkinghorne (1995) calls the "analysis of narratives" as I wanted to use the philosophy of teaching statements to produce meaningful and significant themes from the six accounts. This was followed by a cross-case analysis so as to be able to theorise from the philosophy of teaching statements. Throughout this part of the analysis process I had to guard against losing the essence of each of the reworked philosophy of teaching statements. This was particularly a concern since opting for the form of analysis as described "me" identities were sacrificed in favour of "we" identities (Brewer, 2001:116).

The methodology, as explained, allowed me to identify several significant themes on what the student teachers thought about teaching and learning History, as well as about their own emerging professional identities as future History teachers. The first theme to be identified was that teaching and learning in History must be for promoting democracy and strengthening the South African constitution. The learning environment should therefore be one where all voices and abilities are to be included. One philosophy of teaching statement encapsulated the frame of mind of the student teachers – teaching and learning in History "is to build the capacity of people to make informed choices in order to contribute constructively to society and to advance democracy." The relationship between History Education and democracy was furthermore linked by a range of associated statements such as that tolerance and respect for opinions and racial difference must be fostered, that all must be treated fairly and equally and that all rights must be recognised. At the same time the analysed philosophies of teaching were in

consensus that teaching History for democracy must happen in a classroom where teachers must have the ability to mediate controversial topics.

Strong sentiments were expressed in all the analysed statements that one of the goals of History teaching and learning should be for transformation or, "social transformation as per the NCS" as one student teacher explained. This vision was supported by referring to aspects of History Education that need transforming. One such aspect, illuminated by all six student teachers, was the depiction and representation of women in History teaching and learning. Almost predictably, using History to teach and learn about the past for racial equality, was likewise foregrounded. Under the broad canopy of social transformation, teaching and learning History was viewed as having immense power as it could learners help to deal with vague notions such as "societal identity crisis", "personal empowerment", "moral regeneration" and "to build values, morals, norms". The student teachers had some clear ideas on how they would implement their thinking on social transformation. These included teaching in poor areas, to be agents of change by teaching with care and enthusiasm, to embrace diversity and to teach a meaningful and relevant History. The goals of teaching and learning History was furthermore viewed as going beyond the knowledge of the subject in order for it to act as a vehicle that would propel democracy, citizenship and societal transformation forward.

Another theme to be identified in the analysis was the importance of the concepts of critical thinking and enquiry in the teaching and learning of History – incidentally learning outcome 1 of the History National Curriculum Statement (Department of Education 2003). Without exception the analysed philosophy of teaching statements contained beliefs which stated that the ability to question, to think freely and critically, to enquire and challenge, to develop own views and perspectives and to have opinions would be what the students would collectively expect of History learners. One student went as far as to claim that her "class will be the best class to be in, in the whole school, because it will be a thinking class and learners would be able to make their own decisions and not be gullible which is a unique skill in life…" However, none of the History student teachers provided an indication of how they were hoping to achieve these ideals related to critical enquiry and thinking.

A further theme that evolved from the analysis of the data was that the History student teachers wanted the learners to have "fun" while learning History. Almost all of the authors expressed the idea that the experience of

the History learner must be a pleasurable and learner-centered one in which they enjoy the classroom environment, and that the learning activities should be fun-filled, almost a form of edutainment with methodologies such as games and simulations predominating. All this "fun" must take place in a learner-centered and not in a teacher-centered or rote-learning manner. The latter was a related theme that emerged from the data. In fact, some of the History student teachers were quite scathing in their assessment of teacher-centeredness as a possible educational option and tended to exclude all other forms of teaching and learning in favour of learner-centredness which had permeated all the analysed philosophy of teaching statements. To achieve this single dominant philosophy of learner-centredness the History student teachers put forward a variety of methods, approaches and activities, such as for example, simulations that they would use for getting learners to "Do History" rather than "Know History."

Discussion

The analysed philosophy of teaching statements, however, failed to readily explore ideas related to learner-centredness such as facilitation and groupwork. Simultaneously, hardly any reference was made to the driving forces of the current South African schooling system, i.e. OBE, the NCS and CASS. Thus what emerged was an uncritical acceptance and preoccupation with learner-centredness as a teaching strategy while larger ideological and theoretical issues were left unchallenged.

What the philosophy statements were not silent on was what the student teachers regarded as necessary for teaching and learning in History to take place in a learner-centred manner. Well qualified, dedicated and people-orientated teachers with a sound knowledge of History and teaching methodologies and good planning and management skills who could act as role models were the dominant professional identity aspects identified by the History student teachers.

Another point of view that materialised across the analysed philosophy of teaching statements was the passion the student teachers expressed for History. They clearly viewed their emerging professional identity as being that of History teachers. However, none of the authors attempted to, in an in-depth manner, examine how this passion should translate into professional practice but rather chose to point out the value learners could gain from

studying, it such as understanding the world at various levels. At the same time strong concerns were expressed about the current status of History, the fact that unmotivated and unqualified teachers were teaching the subject, and that school managements were favouring the hard sciences rather than History.

In stating their personal objectives, the final category of Chism's index, all the students wanted to become History teachers – be it in different contexts, ranging from a university lecturer to a managerial position in a school. All bar one also wanted to further their studies, in History, which hints at ambition and life-long learning. Coupled with this, aspirations such as wanting "to be the best History teacher for my learners" were expressed. However, only one student viewed the philosophy of teaching statement as "the start of a journey", during which reflection could take place on weaknesses that needed to be improved upon so as to achieve personal objectives. In contrast the other authors presented their statements as a fait accompli. As a result, throughout the process of analysis, I struggled to distinguish between the genuine and the contrived and the sophisticated and the naïve. I found this to be the case since the philosophy of teaching statements were first and foremost written as part of a continuous assessment task with an audience in mind – me as the lecturer and assessor.

Moreover, according to Amobi (2003: 31), "As we teach pre-service and in-service teachers to reflect in action, on action and for action, it behoves us to model these processes and nuances of reflection to our students." As a result, I had to come to terms with the fact that the student History teachers were subjected to a similar university like context, teaching methods, practices and habits over four-years and could therefore unknowingly regurgitating what they had been exposed to and in the process not fully exploring their own thinking on teaching and learning in History.

Furthermore, by dint of the fact that the History student teachers had only four-months of teaching experience in schools, spread out over a four-year period, a certain disconnectedness between what is learnt in the university classroom and what is the stark reality of History teaching and learning in schools existed. Consequently, the participants were for the biggest part building their philosophies around the safe and idealistic setting of a university classroom and a History Education Methodology module vacuum in which concepts such as "Doing History", "Critical Inquiry" and "Social Transformation" is foregrounded. At the same time, lack of experience meant

that they used their university History Education modules as the benchmarks to create professional identities. Therefore, I would argue that the prospective History teachers struggled to distinguish between what they will do in schools and what they are exposed to in the History Education modules.

It is thus not surprising that Ball (in Montell, 2003: no page numbers) insists that beginner teachers do not have the capacity to write a philosophy of teaching statements claiming: "As a veteran elementary teacher, I would have to work hard to try to represent what I think and try to do…" Breault, on the other hand, does not dispute the fact that student teachers can write a philosophy of teaching statement, but feels that their efforts are often "relatively superficial statements filled with well-intentioned truisms" that often relies on platitude and not careful deliberation (2005:149). As a result he argues that it provides little clarification about teaching, learning and future professional growth. Huss (2007:69) feels even stronger and concludes that many student teachers philosophy of teaching statements are "torturous expositions and almost humorous examples of false advertising on practices of which they have a superficial allegiance and superficial understanding."

However, the thinking that experience is paramount when compiling a philosophy of teaching statements is flawed, for the arguments proposed by Ball, Breault and Huss are possibly equally true of all teachers and not only student teachers. No guarantee exists that philosophy of teaching statements compiled by experienced teachers are more truthful and reflective about professional practice and identity than those of student teachers. In addition, all teachers, including student teachers, can produce a philosophy of teaching statements for they have all been in school and university and have attended classes and done teaching and learning and must therefore have opinions about teaching and learning. The question is therefore not if student teachers can produce philosophy of teaching statements but what it reveals – in the case of this article about their emerging professional identities as History student teachers.

Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004), in their survey of international research on teachers' professional identities shed ample light on the complexity of it all. Citing from the studies surveyed, the ongoing interplay between the personal and professional sides of becoming and being a teacher are emphasized. They argue that the professional identities of teachers are complex and multifaceted and take on various guises depending on the social setting and the relationship involved. Likewise, Seetal, in his work on identity

conceptualisation by History teachers in post-apartheid South Africa has found it to be "in movement, displaying discontinuities, contradictions and compliances" making it difficult to truly know them (Seetal, 2005: 209).

The same can also be said when using the philosophy of teaching statements of History student teachers to determine their emerging professional identities. At best, it allowed them to clarify their goals, to reflect on how they viewed teaching and learning in History and to express their commitment to education. And it provided a porthole into the multiple multilayered identities of History student teachers. It is therefore virtually impossible to use the philosophy of teaching statements as a yardstick to come to hard and fast conclusions or to make central claims on the professional identities of the History student teachers.

Conclusion

The conclusion that I came to was that the youthful and idealistic student teachers saw the teaching and learning of History as a means to change or uplift the lives of their learners and empower them to deal with society.

Within the context of this study it can therefore be concluded that the autobiographical philosophy of teaching statements must be seen for what they are – the efforts of History student teachers to construct their professional identities within a determined structure and context. This allowed the History student teachers to, as active agents, engage in their own professional identity construction by reflecting, integrating old and new ideas, associating with their ideas and by presenting it in an autobiographical essay. These were important steps in developing an intellectual picture of who they are, what they want to become as teachers and what beliefs they held about History teaching and learning and themselves as History teachers.

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Politics and historical blockbuster exhibitions looking at the Staufer exhibition in Stuttgart in 1977

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Abstract

The Staufer exhibition in Stuttgart in 1977 was a historical blockbuster exhibition, which established a type of state exhibitions in public's consciousness and in historical culture. It contributed to the rising interest in History in the public and played a vital part in rediscovering the Middle Ages in Germany. It is asked who took the initiative to put it on? Which were the aims intended by this exhibition and did the exhibition meet its set goals? The research in the archives showed that what is said in the catalogue about the initiative, is not the whole truth, because at first it was the wish of the then State Prime Minister for a representative exhibition, but the theme and the connection with the 25th anniversary of the state Baden-Wurttemberg were proposed by others.

Keywords: Politics; Blockbuster exhibition; Staufer dynasty; 25 anniversary of the state Baden-Württemberg; National identity; History culture.

The exhibition 'The Staufer dynasty. History, art and culture' was put on at the Wurttemberg State Museum in Stuttgart from 25 March 1977 to 7 June 1977. 671.000 visitors visited the exhibition on the 72 opening days.[1] Because of that, the exhibition is seen as a very successful one, compared to earlier and later major exhibitions. How justified this statement is can also be verified by comparing the number of visitors of other major exhibitions in the Federal Republic of Germany between 1960 and 2000, which was done by Martin Große Burlage.[2]

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1   E Gerhold-Knittel, "Die Stauferausstellung in Stuttgart", *Blätter für deutsche Landesgeschichte,* 115, 1979, pp. 163-168.
2   M Große Burlage, *Große historische Ausstellungen in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland,* 1960 – 2000, Münster, LITVerlag, 2005, pp. 363-366.

Along with the exhibition, a lot was offered by the education department: 190 guided tours for pupils were conducted by ten teachers who were ordered by the ministery of culture and education. Furthermore, there were 400 tours on Art History and 184 History tours, along with 800 groups that had booked a tour.[3] There were another eight Art History and eight History talks about the exhibition, which were all extremely busy. The total number of visitors and the selling of the catalogue exceeded all expectations. The first edition of the catalogue, which comprised 20 thousand copies, was sold out within the first two days of the exhibition. It was reprinted and all in all 153 thousand copies were sold of the 4.5 kilo catalogue.[4]

In it it says in a prominent position: "The exhibition is put on to mark the 25th anniversary of the state Baden-Wurttemberg."[5]

This fact was the starting point of my research.

Who took initiative to put on this exhibition? Which aims were intended with this exhibition? How were they realised and did the exhibition meet its set goals? And what about the after-effect? The main goal for this discussion is to address an aspect of my country's heritage, that learners of History will find interesting and that may, to some extent, relate to aspects of heritage learners and educators from other countries can associate with.

About the initiative

In the catalogue's preface, the then State Prime Minister Hans Filbinger contributed the following in the section 'About the meaning of the exhibition': 'When I made the proposal about organising a representative exhibition about the time of the Staufer dynasty several years ago and about setting an extremely rich and public-attracting cultural event at the centre of the anniversary of the state of Baden-Wurttemberg, I immediately met spontaneous approval and assistance with this initiative: with my cabinet ministers from the state government, who co-decided on the project and with the parliament, which granted the essential financial support. I also found support with academic experts, who contributed with enthusiasm in the preparations. And last but

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3   Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg EL 230/2 Bü. 46.
4   E Gerhold-Knittel, "Die Stauferausstellung …", *Blätter für deutsche Landesgeschichte,* 115, 1979, p. 168.
5   R Haussherr (Ed.), Die Zeit der Staufer. Geschichte – Kunst – Kultur. Katalog der Ausstellung, vol. I – III (Stuttgart, Württembergisches Landesmuseum, 1977) p. II in each volume. The whole catalogue has 5 volumes, IV (maps) includes only maps, V (lectures and research) was printed only after the exhibition in 1979.

not least with the public, who encouraged this endeavour with manifold reactions.'[6]

An explanation: Dr. Hans Filbinger, who was from Mannheim and who died in Freiburg on 1 April 2007, became State Prime Minister in Baden-Wurttemberg in a grand coalition between CDU and SPD, got an absolute majority with the CDU in 1972, upon which Filbinger became State Prime Minister again. In 1976, the CDU achieved an even better result but in 1978, Filbinger had to step down due to his function as naval judge during World War II and, even more so, due to his rigid attitude regarding his own vindication and due to his stubbornness. I do not want to go into details about that here as this is not related to the topic. [7]

I assumed that the anniversary was indeed the main reason why the Staufer exhibition was put on, especially as this was to be read in relevant press releases and reviews of the exhibition. My main interests are the political aims that the exhibition had.

It then came as a surprise that Filbinger originally neither thought of the Staufer dynasty as theme of the exhibition, nor of the 25th anniversary of the state Baden-Wurttemberg.

The State Archive Ludwigsburg holds the files of the Staufer exhibition. I found a letter of the then director of the Wurttemberg State Museum, Prof. Siegfried Junghans, to the ministry of culture and education from 26 February 1973. In it, he approves of lending objects of his museum to the *Suevia sacra* exhibition in Augsburg, because all requirements regarding the conservation of objects were met. At the end, he writes: "The topic of the exhibition would have been a suitable one for the Wurttemberg State Museum, too." [8] An elaborate letter by Junghans from 8 August 1973 to the Permanent Secretary Wolf Donndorf, then in the ministry of culture and education, is obtained. The latter said that the State Prime Minister had been puzzled by the fact that the exhibition *Suevia Sacra* was not put on by a Baden-Wurttemberg state museum and that he thought about putting the Augsburg exhibition back on in Baden-Wurttemberg. In the following Junghans plausibly justifies the notion of both state museums in Stuttgart and in Karlsruhe why the exhibition was not suitable for neither of the two sites: He said that that

6   H Filbinger, "Vom Sinn dieser Ausstellung. Vorwort des Ministerpräsidenten", *R Haussherr (Ed.), Die Zeit der Staufer. Geschichte – Kunst – Kultur. Katalog der Ausstellung,*   (Stuttgart, Württembergisches Landesmuseum, 1977) vol. I, pp. V – X, p. VI.
7   W Wette, "Der Fall Filbinger", *Filbinger- eine deutsche Karriere* (Springe, Zu Klampen, 2006), pp. 15 – 34; pp. 23 - 24.
8   Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg EL 230/2 Bü. 4 v. 26 February 1973.

exhibition series had existed since 1950 and that it had been worn down. The majority of these exhibitions had been put up in context with catholic church congresses or ecclesiastical anniversaries. Furthermore, there was academic doubt whether this form of art was binding and specific for that region. After that, he takes up the State Prime Minister's idea to ‚show the political and cultural importance of Swabia in a big exhibition'. He suggests the topic of "Art and Culture at the time of the Staufer dynasty". He had often talked about that topic with Donndorf before. They always had to forbear from this idea because of financial reasons. He then gives the details that were already known to Donndorf:

- Place of the exhibition: Stuttgart;

- Premises: Old Castle, approximately 1500 m² of space;

- Estimated costs: 1 to 1.5 million;

- Preparation time: approximately four years;

- Organiser: state government;

- Acquisition of loan collection: a special representative from the state government;

- Design: building construction department of the Treasury;

- Academic design and catalogue: The Wurttemberg State Museum, which consults academics form Germany and abroad.[9]

This enumeration, which I have shortened slightly, already shows that Junghans had planned the exhibition in detail and that he had talked about it to Donndorf. After looking at the state budget, he concludes:

> I truly am Swabian, by birth and tradition and I have cared about Swabia only because of that. Our tribe possesses imagination and a sense for reality. Therefore I will be content if I am put in the position to carry out my assignment during my term in office. ...'In order to achieve that, a great sum of money is lacking up to today'.[10]

Junghans' letter ends on a rather low note. Yet the letter or at least its content must have been put through to the State Prime Minister as on 5 September 1973, the state ministry told the ministry for culture and education that the State Prime Minister would visit the exhibition in Augsburg on 6 September. He was willing to conduct a similarly representative exhibition in Stuttgart, while Junghans' ideas about displaying the Staufer dynasty's art and culture

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9   Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 4 letter from Junghans to Donndorf from 27 August 1973, p. 4.
10   Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 4, letter from 27 August 1973, p. 4.

were taken on. The exhibition is to be organised soon, preferably in 1975, therefore the ministry of culture and education is to submit a bill for the council of ministers by 11 September 1973.[11]

On 7 September 1973 the then Minister for culture and education Wilhelm Hahn wrote to the state ministry that for such an exhibition at least four years of preparation time would be necessary. He went on: "Putting the exhibition on in the year 1977 would also relate to the 25th anniversary of the state Baden-Wurttemberg. Not only would this date make sense when it comes to hard-to-get loans, it would also be suitable to strengthen the citizen's sense of pride for the state."[12] It becomes clear that Hahn followed the arguments of the museum experts, he additionally mentioned the 25-year-existence of the state Baden-Wurttemberg and the sense of pride.

On 12 September 1973, the council of ministers met. According to the minutes, the State Prime Minister thought it was desirable:

> ... to organise a representative international art exhibition as soon as possible. According to experts, an exhibition about, art and culture of the Staufer dynasty' would be advisable. – Such an exhibition would have an extraordinary effect on state politics. It would be suitable to reinforce the awareness for the state and would surely meet with good response with the public. According to historical circumstances, Baden-Wurttemberg could see itself as the centre of the Staufer empire. Everything should be done that the exhibition was successful. Autumn 1975 should be targeted for the date of the exhibition. If the time until then is not sufficient, the exhibition should then be put on in the context of the 25th anniversary of the state Baden-Wurttemberg.[13]

Although the state home secretary and two state secretaries were in favour of the 1975 date, Hahn and Junghans were eventually able to prevail as it was obvious that it was not possible to realise such an exhibition with prominent loans, even from abroad, at that short notice.

If one asks the question why the exhibition was desired by the State Prime Minister and the home office in the year 1975, or, at the latest, in the year 1976, one does not get information from the files. Große Burlage assumes that the upcoming state elections in spring 1976 could have been a reason, yet these thoughts cannot be proven.[14] Since its overwhelming victory from 23 April 1972 with 52.9% of the popular vote and a voter turnout of 80%, the

11 Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 4 letter from Staatsministerium to Kultusministerium 5 September 1973.
12 Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 4 letter by minister Hahn from 7 September 1973.
13 Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/ 2 Bü. 4 extract of the minutes from 20 September 1973 concerning the meeting of 13 September 1973.
14 M Große Burlage, *Große historische Ausstellungen…,* p. 31.

CDU had reigned in Baden-Wurttemberg on its own. In September 1973, no severe problems were prevailing in Baden-Wurttemberg which could have had a negative effect on the CDU at the upcoming elections in 1976. The debates over the building of the nuclear power station Whyl at the Kaiserstuhl, or the resistance against it there did not start until February 1975.[15] Had the exhibition only been planned in 1975 or 1976, it would have been different. That is why Filbinger's need for representation and the still non-existent feeling of belonging in Baden-Wurttemberg was rather the main reason why the exhibition was organised.

Baden-Wurttemberg's difficult path to itself and the attempt of founding an identity

Baden-Wurttemberg as it is known in 2010, was founded as a state by Dr. Reinhold Maier from the FDP only on 25 April 1952 combining the states Baden, Wurttemberg-Baden, Wurttemberg-Hohenzollern and was then still missing a proper name. The three states mentioned only came into existence because of the demarcation line of the Allied forces from the old states of Baden and Wurttemberg. What did precede the foundation of that new state was a referendum about the new structure of the south-west German region on 9 December 1951, when over 90% of the electorate argued for a joint federal state. Yet, the state Baden, i.e. South Baden, had voted against it. People did not accept this in Baden. Finally, the Badian Homeland Federation appealed on an institutional issue, which turned out to be justified. Yet the decision about Baden's fate was linked to the rearrangement of the Federal Republic of Germany. That is why it was not until 1970 that a referendum was held in the former state of Baden. With a 62% turnout, nearly 82% voted that Baden should stay with Baden-Wurttemberg. That decision was made easy for some by the fact that now a person from Baden was State Prime Minister and that Baden was not reigned by a person from Wurttemberg any longer. A feeling for Baden-Wurttemberg however did not arise. Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann noticed in a publication from 1977 about the 25th anniversary that opinion polls would even today confirm "popular perceptions about the differences between people from Baden and those from Wurttemberg".[16]

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15   U Kempf, *Bürgerinitiativen. Politische Mitwirkung des Bürgers in neuer Form. Materialheft*, Paderborn, Ferdinand Schöningh 1979, pp. 4-20. Th. Schnabel, *Geschichte von Baden-Württemberg*, 1952–2002, Stuttgart, W Kohlhammer, 2001, pp. 174–178.

16   Th. Schnabel, *Geschichte von Baden-Württemberg…*, p. 184 cites Noelle-Neumann.

With regard to these findings, which can be documented even today, it was understandable that people tried to foster the non-existent awareness for the state by putting up such an exhibition, like Hahn had suggested. In his preface in the catalogue Filbinger asked the question what reasons the state government had to put up this exhibition:

> Our united state Baden-Wurttemberg with its nine million inhabitants celebrates its 25th year of existence in 1977. As difficult as it then was to unite these states in Germany's south-west, it has proven its worth. Baden-Wurttemberg with its scenic charms, its rich cultural heritage and its hard-working and patriotic people has quickly developed into a sane and flourishing federal state with a balanced, strong and panic-proof fabric. Wide circles of the population have pleasingly and lastingly approved of the expanded and invigorated state homeland in an extraordinary short time span. Theodor Heuss, the then Federal President of Germany, described Baden-Wurttemberg shortly after its creation as a model of Germany's opportunities.

> Some centuries ago, however, the south-western German region was already merged, in the time of the medieval swabian-aleman tribal duchy, where the Francs' relatives lived, too. The German duchy Swabia combined in its core a majority of both states-to-be Baden and Wurttemberg. It ranged beyond this area and reached into the area of Bavaria-Swabia, Vorarlberg, North-East Switzerland and Alsace of today, it reached into regions with which we are in good and amicable contacts.

> The duchy Swabia evolved under the Staufer dynasty, who were intermittently dukes of the Franks, too, and gained importance.

After mentioning the Staufers' lordliness and their creation of the High Age of the Mediaeval Times in Germany and Europe, he referred to the fact that many of today's state, economic and social institutions were rooted in the time of the Staufer dynasty.[17] This argumentation shows that the Staufer dynasty was used in order to foster the integration of the relatively new federal state and in order to boost its people's identities.

Junghans had suggested "Art and Culture of the Staufer dynasty" as title of the exhibition. Already in March 1974, Historian Walter Schlesinger, who was a member of the historical work group who prepared the exhibition, suggested naming the exhibition "The time of the Staufer dynasty. History – Art – Culture", which was approved and which turned out to be the eventual title.[18] In a time when in at least some federal states the school subject History was to be abolished and when Historical Science at university level was in a process of diminishing, Water Scheel, the Federal President of Germany,

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17   H Filbinger, "Vom Sinn dieser Ausstellung…", *R Haussherr (Ed.), Die Zeit der Staufer…,* vol. I, p. V.
18   Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 4; This title was accepted latest 25 November 1974.

had declared at the opening of the Historians' conference (Historikertag) in Mannheim in 1976: "We are in danger of becoming a nation without a sense for history."[19] He also had referred to the fact that our history did not only start in 1949 or 1871. The State Prime Minister alluded to that statement. He stressed that dealing with the time of the Staufer dynasty "does not have to be a narcotic escape from the present, but a constructive enrichment and strengthening of that presence." He furthermore pointed out how important it is to know where one comes form in order to know where one should go. He hoped that the exhibition would evoke helpful suggestions and professional output and that it would be an impetus "for a revival of thinking about History seriously."[20]As the reference to Scheel's speech from 1976 showed, the question about dealing with history was vigorously talked about.

Realising the exhibition

Regarding the professional preparation, the Wurttemberg State Museum was involved, which is housed in the Old Castle in Stuttgart, on 20 September 1973.[21] Four workgroups were built, including several experts and academics from Germany and abroad: the History and Art-History and aftermath workgroup and the committee for conservation (including safety and transport), which was also very important as was the patronage of the Federal President of Germany and the ICOM (International Council of Museums) in order to get valuable loans from Germany and abroad. Within the exhibition's budget, the editors of the catalogue were allowed to make an expedition to the objects. The Robert-Bosch trust gave money in order to organise academic colloquia.[22]

The publicity for the exhibition was planned and organised very thoroughly.[23] As Stuttgart hosted the Federal horticultural show and a planetarium was about to be opened, there was another reason to visit the city. This led to utilised capacity in inns and restaurants and during the time of the exhibition, overnight stays that were booked via the tourism office were about 100% higher than usual.[24] In addition, Staufer memorials were restored everywhere

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19 W Scheel, "Ansprache des Bundespräsidenten bei der Eröffnungsveranstaltung des Deutschen Historikertages 1976 am 22 September 1976 im Kongreßzentrum in Mannheim", 31. *Versammlung Deutscher Historiker in Mannheim* (Stuttgart, Klett, 1977), pp. 12 – 19, p. 12, 19.

20 H Filbinger, "Vom Sinn dieser Ausstellung …", *R Haussherr (Ed.), Die Zeit der Staufer…* vol. I, p. VIII.

21 Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 4 v. 20 September 1973.

22 Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 58.

23 Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 4, Staatsministerium Baden-Württemberg, November 1975.

24 E Gerhold-Knittel, "Die Stauferausstellung…", *Blätter für deutsche Landesgeschichte,* 115, 1979, pp. 163, 168.

in the state and even 'Staufer routes' were put together so that a 'road of the Staufers' emerged. In December 1975, the State Prime Minister invited all majors of the Staufer towns and other celebrities and told them to participate at the 'Year of the Staufers'.[25] This set off an avalanche of initiatives. The term ‚Year of the Staufers', by the way, does not go back to the government but was a concept that was triggered by the press, which was then taken on by the government willingly. Travel agencies and tourism in general, especially in towns with Staufer memorials, were revived and book shops, publishers and retail noted higher revenues.

The overall costs of the exhibition, according to the State Museum Wurttemberg, were nine million Deutsch Marks, and eight million of revenues, which were mainly achieved by publications. The state government then sponsored approximately 1 million, which was halved by a federal grant. People had feared and expected a deficit of two million Deutsch Marks. The cost chart does not contain the money that was put into the accelerated rebuilding of the destroyed eastern wing of the Old Castle, which was backed up by transferring these costs to the state budget.[26]

About the presentation: A first section dealt with Staufer monarchs and their policies, then the Staufer state and its system were highlighted. This was accompanied by original manuscripts, documents, signets and coins. A further section dealt with the building of churches during the Staufer period, church windows and church mural painting. That was followed by explanations about the spiritual and political impact of the church in the corresponding time. After that, artefacts from the mid-12th century to the second half of the 13th century were shown, which were mainly from the state area north of the Alps. The objects were sorted by categories and presented: glass painting, sculpture, treasure art, book art and textiles. The question whether the Staufers were responsible for the cultural and artistic development in that century was not explained, yet only was able to stimulate thoughts about that question. In contrast, Friedrich II.'s art from southern Italy and Sicily were presented in an own section as it was clear that there was a link between the monarch and the artefacts that were produced in his environment. The exhibition was concluded by interpretations about the geographical world view and about the awareness for nature in the corresponding time.

In the art building close by, the section 'The Staufers and their aftermath' was presented. Starting from the founding of the Staufer legend in the late

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25 Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 57 meeting with the State minister 4 December 1975.

26 M Große Burlage, *Große historische Ausstellungen…,* pp. 81-82.

middle ages and the changing evaluations in historiography, emphasis was put on the 'Staufer Renaissance' in literature and art in the 19th century, and also on the image of the Staufers in popularisation.

All in all, an overwhelming wealth of high-ranking original artefacts was presented. The difficulty of adequately presenting the History, Art and Culture of the Staufer period has to be mentioned here as well. For sure, art historical and conservational interests led to the fact that objects were presented in the Old Castle sorted by genre. He who wanted to get a coherent overview of the Staufer period either had to bring along a well-rooted pre-knowledge or he needed a lot of time in order to read through and look at all the multimedia, plates, films and objects in the first part of the exhibition.[27] The question has to be asked who was willing and able to do that, not only because of the necessary time effort, but also because of the densely packed exhibition, which also led to complaints about 'bad air'. The highpoint of visitor congestion was the Tuesday after Whitsun, when slightly over 18 000 visitors were counted. It added to the difficult situation that the first volume of the catalogue, which contained explanations of more than a thousand objects, was far too heavy with its 784 pages. Apart from that, the complete catalogue was temporarily unavailable, yet could only be ordered and was then sent to the visitor some time after that.[28]

Realising the exhibition's goals

To organise a representative exhibition was surely the first political aim, even before the Staufer dynasty was thought about. The topic of 'The Staufer dynasty' originated from Siegfried Junghans, the then long standing director of the State Museum Wurttemberg, who was pre-Historic Archaeologist but who had a soft spot for the Staufers as he was from Swabia. The idea of linking the planned exhibition to the 25th anniversary of the state in order to foster awareness for the state of Baden-Wurttemberg was first uttered by the Minister of culture and education, Wilhelm Hahn. The wish to stimulate a profound dealing with History can surely be explained given the time then, when there was a considerable necessity to justify History. In the draft for a greeting, which Hahn gave on 2 June 1975 on the occasion of an academic

27 H Glaser, "STUTTGART, Württembergisches Landesmuseum, Altes Schloß, Ausstellung: Die Zeit der Staufer. Geschichte, Kunst, Kultur", *Pantheon. Internationale Zeitschrift für Kunst*, XXXV, 1, 1977, pp. 262-265.
28 E Gerhold-Knittel, "Die Stauferausstellung…", *Blätter für deutsche Landesgeschichte,* 115, 1979, p. 165-166; Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 52.

symposium about the Staufer exhibition, it said: "Both the state parliament and government are aware of the fact that such a goal can only be achieved if people try to aspire to experience the individual and unrepeatable elements of a historical period without nostalgia and ideologies."[29] Walter Scheel warned about losing a sense for History in 1976, which was taken up by the State Prime Minister in the catalogue.

If we look at the amount of high-ranking artefacts, the well-grounded preparation and the presentation, which found acclaim despite criticism, one can say that the politicians' aim of putting up a representative exhibition was fully achieved. At this point, I would also like to mention the satirical comment by writer Thadäus Troll, which appeared some days before the opening of the exhibition in the daily 'Stuttgarter Nachrichten'. It ends with a play on words, in which Troll said that State Prime Minister Filbinger profited from the hype about the Staufer exhibition.[30]

It is more difficult to answer the question whether the exhibition led to an increased feeling of identity of the people of Baden-Wurttemberg. There was no visitor evaluation. According to the files, 3415 letters were directed to the State Museum during the time of the exhibition. Most referred to the catalogue and the publicity. Only some letters were relevant when it came to evaluating the exhibition, of which 143 contained positive remarks, 44 contained both positive and negative comments and 103 contained negative comments. The main part of the criticism was owed to organisational problems and the organisational problems with the catalogue. The exhibition was only reviewed 12 times. On the other hand, the exhibition mainly received praise, 31 letters contained suggestions to the exhibition. Nothing, however, can be said about national awareness whatsoever.[31] From 4 June to 14 August 1977, an exhibition was organised by the Pfinzgaumuseum in Karlsruhe-Durlach with the title: "The Staufers in the Oberrhein region. History. Manuscirpts. Documents. Art."[32] It was put together and organised by the city archive in Karlsruhe. Karlsruhe's major Otto Dullenkopf referred in the catalogue's preface to the formal capital function of Karlsruhe and the historical role of Baden at the creation of the federal state and also referred to both the "bridging function" of the region "between the inherited property of the Staufen dynasty in the Alsace and the

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29 Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 57 speech of minister Hahn 2 June 1975.
30 T Troll, "Vision vom Stauferstaat: Ich staufe, du staufst…", Stuttgarter Nachrichten Nr. 57, 10 March 1977, p. 22: "Und einer sprach zu sich selber: Je staufer der Rummel, desto filbinger der Nutz".
31 Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü. 52.
32 Stadt Karlsruhe (ed.), *Die Staufer am Oberrhein. Geschichte, Handschriften, Urkunden, Kunst. Ausstellung im Städtischen Pfinzgaumuseum,* 4 June-14 August 1977, (Karlsruhe, Stadtarchiv, 1977).

Palatinate, and to the home counties of Swabia-Staufen."[33] The realisation of this exhibition suggests that the Staufer exhibition was not very successful in creating a national identity for Baden-Wurttemberg. More than a decade later, that situation seemed to have unwound. Hans-Georg Wehling cancelled in 1991 all events that aimed at fostering a national identity, but pointed out the political and cultural diversity of the state Baden-Wurttemberg.[34]

According to the profound dealings with History, no conclusions can be drawn neither according to the total number of visitors, nor according to the number of catalogues sold, but this is rather possible from the last part of the exhibition, the Aftermath part. The exhibition and the aftermath of the Staufer dynasty in the Art Building prompted a profound and critical dealing with the reception of the Staufer dynasty in the course of centuries. Roughly 253 540 visitors looked at this part of the exhibition. Due to the lack of space, it was necessary to outsource this part of the exhibition from the Old Castle. The reasons for the lack of visitor interest are not known, especially as the press had praised that section. Lacking information cannot be listed as a reason, but rather the fatigue of visitors and a disinterest of those who mainly focused on the art-historical highlights and valuable objects. It is further striking that visitors still remember this part of the exhibition even today, which suggests a profound engagement with the theme. There are also letters available which point out the interest in History, which was brought about by the exhibition and fostered a profound. But one should be cautious with generalisations.

A critic found it hard to meet all expectations and then said about this dilemma:

> The politician asks for success, the Art Historian for the academic gain, the Historian for the link to historical reality, the journalist for critical enlightenment, the public asks for – an experience.[35]

Politics and the Staufer exhibition

The Staufer exhibition was an example for the combination of politics and a big history and art-history exhibition. At the same time, the then raised

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33 O Dullenkopf, "Vorwort", Stadt Karlsruhe (ed.), *Die Staufer am Oberrhein…* (Karlsruhe, Stadtarchiv 1977), p. 5.

34 HG Wehling, "Die Genese der politischen Kultur Baden-Württembergs", J Thierfelder/U Uffelmann (red.), *Der Weg zum Südweststaat,* (Karlsruhe, G Braun, 1991), pp. 324 – 340, p. 340.

35 H Glaser, "STUTTGART, Württembergisches Landesmuseum…", *Pantheon. Internationale Zeitschrift für Kunst*, XXXV, 1, 1977, p. 265.

fears that the exhibition would be a "provinical self-adulation" or "a restored Staufer in the light of the CDU government" were unfounded. Simply in left-wing political press organs, the exhibition and its organisers were alleged to anti-democratic tendencies. In an article in the newspaper "Vorwärts", the author described the exhibition as "for post-war German history (excluding the GDR) unique case of state decreed art and culture politics."[36]

The wish for a representative exhibition, the take-over of the theme, which was suggested by the museum director, and the intention to foster the national identity for the people of Baden-Wurttemberg and the interest to deepen the dealings with History all were political statements. It has to be said, however, that it was not only the State Prime Minister but the Minister of culture and education, assisted by the museum director, they were only able to prevail regarding the preparation time and the exhibition's quality assurance by mentioning the 25th anniversary of the creation of the state and the creation of an identity for Baden-Wurttemberg. It was also the Minister of culture and education who mentioned the profound dealing with history, even before the Federal President of Germany did.[37]

There was, according to the files, no attempt to influence the creation of the exhibition from a political side. Within the workgroups there was occasionally lively discussion, as can be seen form the files. The discussions mainly inflamed about the section 'Aftermath'. As far as this can be seen from the minutes and letters obtained, it was mainly Historians and European Ethnologists who had opposing lines of argumentation.[38] After all, experts are part of society and represent different opinions, irrespective of their professional competence.

There was, however, criticism in press and journals as it was noted that areas of interest from the Staufer period were only mentioned briefly or were left out. There is a danger of idealising that era.[39]

Conclusion

It was not the State Prime Minister of Baden-Wurttemberg who had at first the idea about organising an exhibition about the Staufer dynasty and about setting it at the centre of the 25th anniversary of the state of Baden-

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36   M Große Burlage, *Große historische Ausstellungen…,* p. 63 cites the article in *Vorwärts* (Bonn) 28 April 1977.

37   See above p. 103 with note 29.

38   Staatsarchiv Ludwigsburg, EL 230/2 Bü 2, letters from 20 June 1975 (H Apphun), without exact date, but received 25 June 1975 (H Bausinger et al.).

39   M Große Burlage, *Große historische Ausstellungen…,* pp. 56 -74.

Württemberg as he wrote in the catalogue and as it is usually believed until today. But there were other people like the director of the Wurttemberg State Museum, Siegfried Junghans, and the then Minister for culture and educaton, Wilhelm Hahn, who did so. The State Prime Minister wished at first only a representative exhibition.

As a result, the Staufer exhibition was the main impulse for other historical blockbusters and state exhibitions. Hans-Ulrich Thamer said in an essay in 1996: "The Staufer exhibition in Stuttgart, at the latest, established a type of state exhibitions in the public's consciousness and in History Culture, which developed as big events new forms of presentational forms, and which attracted new audiences and consumption needs and which achieved a new cultural and historical-political claim." [40]

The exhibition surely contributed to the rising interest in History in the public. It furthermore played a vital part in rediscovering and valuing the Middle Ages in Germany.

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40 HU Thamer, "Vom Heimatmuseum zur Geschichtsschau. Museen und Landesausstellungen als Ort der Erinnerung und Identitätsstiftung", *Westfälische Forschungen* 46, 1996, pp. 429-448.

The nurturing of creativity in the History classroom through teaching methods – the views of teachers and learners

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Abstract

Nurturing creative thinking abilities in all learning areas and subjects is one of the cornerstones and ideals of Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) in South Africa. This article reports on the results obtained with a pilot study that set out to determine the extent to which creativity is presently nurtured in the History classroom. A qualitative study by means of semi-structured, one-on-one interviews with learners (n = 4) and teachers (n = 2) of History at a secondary school was conducted to determine learner and teacher perceptions related to the nurturing of creativity through the instructional practices of teachers applied during teaching and learning.

The results revealed that the nurturing of creativity has not yet become reality in the History classroom. It was disconcerting to note that direct instruction dominates the teaching and learning of History and that very little opportunity for practical experience and interaction during teaching and learning exists.

The article concludes with recommendations to teachers on how to purposefully enhance creativity during the teaching of History.

This pilot study was conducted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for a BEd Honours degree, and to set the scene for a more extended study on creative thinking in History with larger groups of learners and teachers.

Keywords: creativity, creative thinking, lateral thinking, creativity and classroom practice, creativity and History teaching.

Introduction, problem statement and purpose of the study

History as a subject has come under heavy scrutiny, considering among others its value for learners who choose the subject that it is widely being

considered as useless. Even those who chose the subject consider the teaching of History as dull and boring (Jackson, 2005:8).

This has been cited as a global phenomenon which has now evolved into a negative perception surrounding the subject (Gorn, 2006:1). It is the researcher's opinion that it is only made this way by transmission and reception teaching methods and strategies, such as memorization and rote learning of dates and events that allow very little room for creativity during teaching (Jackson, 2005:9).

As a subject, History allows for a plethora of creativity. It just needs to be applied correctly in the classroom by making use of varied teaching methods. The History teacher has to move beyond the traditional paradigm of direct teaching and allow for more interactive, new and interesting methods of teaching History (Nickerson, 1999:54).

Problem statement

This problem has persisted for over a decade. Within the South African context, it surfaced after the 1994 elections when Outcomes Based Education (OBE) was first implemented. The government at the time, when implementing its education policy, decided to lessen the importance of the subject as it dealt with the past Apartheid regime. Therefore, change warranted the demise of the subject. Only a small fraction of schools within the D7 district of the Gauteng province offer History as a subject when entering the Further Education and Training (FET) phase.

Another cause for concern noticed by the researcher is that there is an alarming decrease in the subject being chosen in Grade 10. A question that could be asked is whether a lack of creativity during teaching prevents learners from choosing the subject. Learners are hesitant to choose the subject as they perceive it to be either useless to their future, or the most recurring, is that it is too dull (Jackson, 2005:8).

The researcher carefully assumes that it is not only subject knowledge that is important, but also the way this knowledge is transferred that can make all the difference in the education process. The education process of knowledge transference in History should focus on enhancing creative abilities (Nickerson, 1999:55).

For the purposes of this study, the research was conducted in the Grade 10 History classroom. This was initiated in order to determine whether creative teaching influenced whether or not learners chose History as a subject when they reached Grade 10.

Research question

Against the above introductory remarks, this research will address the following central question:

To what extent do teachers enhance creativity in the grade 10 History classroom through the choice of teaching methods?

Within this central question, further questions arise:

• What does creativity entail?

• Which teaching methods are best suited to nurture creativity in Social Science?

• To what extent do the choice of teaching methods nurture creativity currently within the teaching of Social Science?

Purpose of the study

The overall purpose of the study is to determine the extent to which teachers enhance creativity in the History classroom.

Flowing from the research aim, the following objectives are identified:

• determining what creativity in the social science classroom entails by means of a literature study and by determining teacher perceptions regarding creativity through an empirical study;

• analyzing the teaching methods that are best suited to nurture creativity in the social science classroom by means of a literature study;

• establishing the extent to which creativity is currently being nurtured in the social science classroom through the choice of teaching methods, by means of an empirical study.

Clarification of the concept creativity

This problem of History not being taken as a serious subject does not only occur locally but on an international scale as well. In the United States of America, statistics revealed that the U.S History National Assessment of

Education Progress (NAEP), outlined that the American society is raising American youth who are not historically literate. A percentage of American learners have developed a paradigm that history is not considered as a subject of importance and the value of this subject is no longer existent (Gorn, 2006:1).

According to Pink (2005:23), creativity is a process which involves the collection of new concepts and ideas. Also, how these new associations stimulate the creative mind and link between previous concepts and ideas. Creativity is stimulated by the process which can be categorized as either being conscious or unconscious insight. There is however a misconception that 'creativity' is just the process of creating something new (Pink, 2005:23)?.

According to Amabile (1999:52), one must truly understand the essence of creativity before creating assumptions about the phenomenon. Creativity should not be confused with talent. Creativity is not only associated with a certain amount of people, for example the view that only a few are born creative, or people of various cognitive abilities and skills such as artists or geniuses. Everyone therefore has the potential to be creative. The key component to nurture or grow creativity is motivation or 'the inner spark' (Amabile, 1996:14). 'Talent, personality and skill tell us what a child can do; motivation tells us what that child will do.' (Amabile, 1996:14).

Craft (2005:20) suggests that a distinction can be made between 'high' creativity and 'little' creativity. High creativity is seen as something new and remarkable which has transformed something in a significant way. By contrast, little creativity is seen as the ordinary but entire attitude toward life. It focuses on acting effectively with flexibility, intelligence and novelty in everyday situations. Craft (2005:21) also mentions that many different interpretations of creativity exist, including those who focus on the locus (person), the product (idea) and the impact (global or local). However, all these interpretations have a consensus that creativity involves the generation of novel ideas.

Nolan (in Fryer 2004:1) distinguishes between creative thinking, creative behaviour and creative action. Creative thinking is the generation of new ideas and concepts, whereas creative behaviour involves relevant behavioural characteristics which facilitate the creative process. Creative action is the physical action of doing new things, such as doing things for the first time and doing things 'which are new to the world' (Nolan, 2004:1).

All three of these dimensions are applicable within the classroom environment, as learners not only have to think creatively, but also have to behave and act creatively.

Another key concept pertaining to creativity is innovation. This could be seen as the implementation of new ideas to create something of value (Craft, 2005:20).

Novelty can be defined as an element of creativity. It refers to the quality of being new. It can also refer to something novel, that which is striking, original or unusual.

Originality is the aspect of created or invented works by as being new or novel, and thus can be distinguished from reproductions, clones, forgeries, or derivative works. An original work is one not received from others nor one copied based on the work of others.

Imagination is the sense of imagining, or of creating mental images or concepts of what is not actually present to the senses, and the process of forming such images or concepts. It helps provide meaning to experience and understanding to knowledge and it is an essential facility through which people make sense of the world. It also plays a key role in the learning process (Egan, 1992:31).

For the purpose of the research to be carried out, creativity will be dealt with according to the idea that it should stimulate critical thinking. To be critical in one's thinking allows for creativity through scrutiny of information, and selecting relevant pieces of information with which to approach it creatively. Another factor to be accounted for will be the idea of innovation and novelty. These aspects will be addressed when the research is carried out.

Research methodology

Literature review

Nurturing creativity through...

According to Steyn, Badenhorst and Yule (1991:14), for successful teaching to take place, a good method must be used by a teacher. A teacher has many choices when opting for a style to teach by. The teacher may write lesson plans, borrow plans from other teachers or search online or within books

for lesson plans. When deciding what teaching method to use, a teacher will need to consider learners' background knowledge, environment and learning outcomes.

Teachers know that learners learn in different ways but almost all learners will respond well to praise. Learners have different ways of absorbing information and of demonstrating their knowledge. Teachers often use techniques which present multiple learning styles to help learners store information and reinforce understanding.

A range of strategies and methods are used to ensure that all learners have equal opportunities to learn. A lesson plan may be carried out in several ways: Questioning, explaining, modelling, collaborating, and demonstrating.

A teaching method that includes questioning is comparable to testing. A teacher may ask a range of questions to collect information of what learners have learned and what needs to be taught. Testing is another method of questioning. A teacher tests the learner on what was previously taught in order to identify if a learner has learned the material. (Steyn *et al.*, 1991:15)

Another teaching method is explanation. This form is similar to lecturing. Lecturing is teaching, giving a speech, by giving a dialogue on a specific subject, usually given in the classroom. This can also be related with demonstrating and modelling. A teacher may use experimentation to demonstrate in a science class. A demonstration is the circumstance of proving conclusively, as by reasoning or showing evidence. Modelling is used as a visual aid to learning. Learners can envision an object or problem, then use reasoning and hypothesizing to verify an answer.

Demonstrations are done to provide an opportunity in learning new exploration and visual learning tasks from a different perspective. Demonstrations can be exercised in several ways.

Learners working in groups are another way a teacher can implement a lesson plan. Collaborating allows learners to talk amongst each other and listen to all view points of discussion or task. It assists learners to think in an impartial way. When this lesson plan is carried out, the teacher may be trying to assess the lesson of working as a team, leadership skills, or presenting with roles (Steyn *et al.*, 1991:16).

The teaching methods that will be investigated within the research will include questioning as well as explanation. These will be scrutinized to

determine the extent to which they promote creative thinking in the History classroom.

... Creativity techniques

Nickerson (in Sternberg & Lubart, 1999:54) states that creativity techniques are methods that encourage original thoughts and divergent thinking. Some techniques require groups of two or more people while other techniques can be accomplished alone. These methods include word games, written exercises and different types of improvisation.

Nickerson (in Sternberg & Lubart, 1999:54) provides an outline of the array of creativity techniques that have been suggested. These include techniques that have been created by both industry and academia:

- Establishing purpose and intention;
- Building basic skills;
- Encouraging acquisitions of domain-specific knowledge;
- Stimulating and rewarding curiosity and exploration;
- Building motivation, especially internal motivation;
- Encouraging confidence and a willingness to take risks;
- Focusing on mastery and self-competition;
- Promoting supportable beliefs about creativity;
- Providing opportunities for choice and discovery;
- Developing self-management (metacognitive skills);
- Teaching techniques and strategies for facilitating creative performance;
- Providing balance.

Nickerson (in Sternberg & Lubart, 1999:55) sees the conventional system of schooling as "stifling" of creativity, particularly in the pre-school/kindergarten and early school years. The aim is to provide a creativity-friendly, rich, imagination-fostering environment for young children.

For the purposes of this study, the aspects of nurturing creativity that will be looked at include the stimulation and rewarding curiosity and exploration of historical information, providing opportunities for choice and discovery as well as teaching techniques and strategies for facilitating creative performance.

It is argued that the teaching methods of questioning creatively and allowing for learner participation will promote these creative qualities.

... History teaching

History is described as the study of the past, with special attention to the written record of the activities of human beings over time (Jackson, 2005;8). It is a field of research which uses a narrative to examine and analyze the sequence of events, and it often attempts to investigate objectively the patterns of cause and effect that determine events.

According to Jackson (2005:8), when encountering the past the creativity of the historian is directed to understanding unfamiliar structures, contexts, cultures and belief systems. Imagining what the past was like – how, why and when people did certain things, is central to being a historian.

Historical imagination, is vital to grasping the 'other' times and places under examination and to conveying both that difference and a personal understanding of it. "The ability to see a situation from a point of view that is not present-minded" is perhaps an essential component of the historian's creativity and imagination.

Empirical study

An interpretivistic paradigm will be used as theoretical framework. Interpretive research is primarily exploratory and descriptive in purpose designed to discover what can be learned about the area of interest (Maree, 2007:52). The interpretivist researcher views the world as a socio-psychological construct where there are multiple realities forming an interconnected whole that can only be understood as these multiple realities.

A qualitative research design will be adopted within the research. Qualitative research is more descriptive and does not require statistics to reach a hypothetical conclusion (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:133). Qualitative research deals with experiences of participants on a more personal, subjective level and uses a narrative to explain findings.

The research will be a phenomenological study. This is due to the qualitative nature of the study, as certain phenomena which are occurring will be investigated, such as creativity and teaching methods. The study will attempt

to explain these phenomena and their interrelation within the classroom (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:43).

Sampling

The population for this study will comprise all learners at school level with History as a subject. Due to time and logistical constraints, the study population will comprise all learners in Grade 10 and 11 History classes at General Smuts High School. One teacher per grade will be randomly sampled. The sample from the classes will be two learners, one per grade, chosen at random. The type of sampling will therefore be the non-probability sampling technique. More specifically it will be convenience sampling, as the participants will be readily available to the researcher.

Data Collection

Due to the qualitative nature of the research, the method best suited for data collection would be an interview. The reason for choosing this method is to ask those who have been sampled more specific questions and not to generalize. It is to get personal experience answers from the sample. The interview will thus be semi-structured one-to-one. The questions will be contracted in accordance with what literature reveals regarding creativity and the teaching methods to nurture creativity (Babby & Mouton, 2001:30).

Questions asked to the learners:

• Question 1: Do you enjoy History as a subject at school?

• Question 2: Are you as a learner actively involved during teaching?

• Question 3: What teaching methods does your teacher use when teaching History?

• Question 4: Does your teacher make use of the following methods when teaching History? Debates, role-plays, field trips, cooperative learning groups, discussion and interviews.

Questions asked to the teachers:

• Question 1: Explain in your own words what creativity in the History classroom entails.

- Question 2: Do you think it is possible to nurture creativity among learners during the teaching of History?

- Question 3: What teaching methods do you use when teaching History?

- Question 4: Do you have an understanding of the following teaching methods? Direct Instruction, Indirect Instruction, Interactive Instruction, Independent Study, Experiential Learning.

- Question 5: Do you make use of the following teaching methods while teaching History? Debating, role-plays, field trips, discussion, interview

The validity and reliability of the information gathered from the sample will be guaranteed by tape recording the entirety of the interview so as to capture the original words of the participants. This will be evidence for the data collection. Once the interview has been transcribed, the participants will receive the transcript and verify that it is indeed what they have said (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:93).

Certain ethical issues are bound to surface when conducting the research. There are however ways to avoid these issues. By gaining the consent of the participants and explaining the purpose of the research, it avoids certain problems. When interviewing the participants, their anonymity will be assured. No names will be taken either, once more to ensure anonymity of all involved in the research. Participants will be identified by means of codes. The research will also be voluntary, so no participant will be forced to partake in the research. Confidentiality will be guaranteed as only the researcher will have access to the data obtained.

Results

The data analysis, due to the qualitative nature of the research, will be a deductive content analysis. Content analysis involves looking at the content of the data and breaking it into certain themes in order to extract meaning.

This will involve tape recording the interviews with the respondents. Afterwards, the tape recordings will be transcribed into written format for analysis. The main method for analyzing the data would be to get the thoughts of the respondents and to classify these thoughts into certain themes and categories. (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:108)

Discussion

Based on the codes that were identified in the verbatim transcripts of the interview responses, the researcher reports on the trends and themes identified in the data.

Discussion: Learner responses

From the responses it appears as if the learners enjoy History as a subject as teachers make it "fun", "interesting" and "challenging" (cf. 1). This appears not to be in line with the argument of Gorn (2006:1), who indicated that History is now being viewed as a dull and boring subject (cf.2.1).

The responses from the 4 learners indicate that involvement during the teaching of History is indeed taking place, as they can "voice views", "ask questions" and "debate" (cf.2). All of these responses support the idea that active learning, which is indeed a part of teaching and learning, is important for nurturing creative thinking (Nickerson, 1999:54).

All of the responses from the learners clearly indicate a tendency of reliance on direct instruction (explanation, discussion, using notes, textbook reading) in the History classroom, and to a lesser extent indirect instruction (do work on own) (cf.3). This is in agreement with Jackson (2005:44) who states that History teachers seem to only make use of direct instruction and do not use other methods, which leads to dull History lessons.

Once more, it is clearly evident from the learner responses that the teachers make use of mostly direct instruction, as they all make use of discussion. None of the teachers, according to the learners, make use of role-plays or field trips, which are more interactive and experiential approaches to learning and essential for nurturing creativity (cf.4). This concurs with Jackson's argument (2005:45) that teachers do not promote creative thought in classrooms due to lack of diversity when it comes to teaching methods.

Discussion: Teacher responses

In order to support or refute the findings of the learner responses, the teacher responses were analyzed and compared to those of the learners.

From the responses of the two teachers, it is evident that there is some understanding of what creativity in the History classroom entails (cf.5).

117

Both teachers referred to "original thinking", which also relates to innovative thinking, which according to Craft (2005:20) is essential for creativity in the History classroom. Teachers also referred to "self-reflection" which is also in line with what Craft (2005:20) explains, stating that learners should critically think of ideas and also imagine the time periods under discussion.

Both teachers responses were positive to this question as both said that it is indeed possible to nurture creativity among learners in the History classroom (cf.6). Both teachers however stated that time and discipline were essentials to nurture creativity. This is in accordance with the statement made by Nickerson (1999:54), who has listed several ways in which creativity can be nurtured within the classroom.

The responses from the teachers were mixed for this question. Participant 5 was more specific by stating that Direct Instruction is used in the classroom as well as storytelling. Participant 6 generally commented that all possible teaching methods are used, not being entirely specific (cf.7). Tuovinen and Sweller (1999:6) state that direct instruction is an essential method for teaching any subject, but that it should not be the only method being used. A subject like History which includes a lot of content, so this method remains vital.

Once again, the responses varied amongst the teachers. Participant 5 had a clear understanding of all methods, but with Participant 6, confusion was evident between indirect and interactive instruction (cf. 8). Interesting to note is the inclusion of the dependence on Outcomes on what methods to utilize when teaching. Literature reveals that interactive instruction has the potential to nurture the most creativity within learners as stated by Sessoms (2008:35).

All the responses from the teachers indicated that they all make use of the above mentioned strategies, but to varying degrees. This is important, as not all the strategies can be used all the time. The balance should be there that these methods are at least used instead of not at all (cf.9). Jackson (2005:45) has stated that in order to effectively nurture creativity in the classroom, a balanced strategy is the best option.

Triangulation of learner and teacher data

During the initial data analysis of both learner and teacher responses, it became apparent that the teachers, particularly when asked about particular

teaching methods and whether they make use of the said methods, contained several excuses as to why the methods were not being utilized. These included class size, disciplinary concerns as well as dependence on the learning outcomes.

It is then possible to assume that the learner responses contain more validity, as there is general consensus among their responses regarding which teaching methods are being used in the class. No excuses or discrepancy is evident within the learner responses.

From this deduction, it can be stated that mainly Direct Instruction is utilized within the classroom. This has been identified by the use of textbook teaching and explanations, which are both strategies used within Direct Instruction.

To a lesser extent, Interactive Instruction and Independent Study are also utilized in the classroom, evident from the learner responses, who stated that debating was done in the classroom, which is an Interactive strategy. The Independent Study is evident when the learners responded that homework tasks are given where the learners have to complete it on their own.

Certain strategies, such as role-plays, field trips and interviews were not used in the classroom, again due to certain factors which the teachers deemed would hamper their effective utilization. Therefore Experiential Learning and Indirect Instruction are not being used.

With regard to the question whether creativity is nurtured in the History classroom, the following is stated. As stated previously, the learner responses are taken to be more valid than the teacher responses, as there is more consensus among their responses.

What should also be noted is that the teacher responses and the learner responses were in opposition to each other. The learners stated that not all methods were being used, but the teachers stated that they made use of most, if not all of the methods.

Creativity is not being nurtured within the History classroom in this particular instance. It can not be nurtured by only making sole use of one method. The Direct Instruction method is essential to the teaching of History as there is a lot of content that has to be explained, and it can nurture creativity if used properly. The key to successfully nurture creativity by using this method is by making creative use of higher order questioning.

Creativity is best nurtured when learners are given opportunities to interact

with each other and to share their ideas, either in written format like an essay or by making use of a debate or discussion. It is vital to promote critical and self-reflective thinking skills, especially in a subject like History which contains a tremendous amount of opinionated and biased content which needs to be interpreted.

Conclusion and recommendations

Findings from the literature review

In order to obtain information for constructing the interview schedule to determine how creativity is nurtured in the History classroom, a thorough literature review was conducted. From the literature review the following conclusions were made regarding the nurturing of creativity:

There are various forms of creativity, including artistic, academic, industrial and intellectual creativity. All of these forms branch from the same term, creativity, but they all differ in some respect. In order for one to be artistically creative, one would need to be skilled in art. This is dependent therefore on talent, whereas academic creativity relies more on critical and self-reflective thinking skills, which anyone could master.

Many factors can influence whether one is creative or not. These include factors like age, gender, position in family and socio-economic conditions. Research has indicated that differing genders do not influence creativity, as both genders can be equally creative. Age on the other hand can significantly influence creativity. This is apparent in children who still need to develop certain cognitive abilities and skills, whereas older children who have already developed display higher levels of creativity.

A variety of teaching methods were also researched, including Direct Instruction, Indirect Instruction, Interactive Instruction, Independent Study and Experiential Learning. Included in this review were all the strategies that could be utilized within the classroom, such as debating, role-plays, interviews, field trips and discussion. It has been identified that all methods can potentially nurture creativity, if utilized correctly.

The nature of the subject History was also examined, wherein it was noted that History has been regarded as a content driven subject. This is however not the case currently within the South African curriculum. The subject now promotes not only knowledge acquisition, but also vital skills such as analysis

and interpretation, as well as values.

Findings from the empirical research

The following findings were derived from the empirical research:

It is evident that learners in this particular environment do enjoy History as a subject. There are many reasons for this, including personal enjoyment attained from learning the subject, being able to express opinions and that the teacher can play a role in making the subject enjoyable.

It has been found that certain discrepancies exist between the learner and teacher responses. This is evident when looking at the question of what teaching methods are used in the classroom. The learners state that mostly Direct Instruction is used, whereas the teachers respond by saying that most methods are indeed being used. The researcher has therefore relied upon the learner responses as they appear to be the most trustworthy responses. This is the case because all the learner responses have consensus, whereas the teachers responded with certain limiting factors as to why methods can not be used, including class size, disciplinary problems and dependence on learning outcomes.

It is evident that the teachers know what creativity in the History classroom entails, but the problem lies with the nurturing of that creativity. It is possible that teachers simply rely on Direct Instruction due to its simplistic delivery.

From this interpretation, it can be concluded that creativity is not being nurtured within this particular environment as mainly Direct Instruction is being used. It should be noted that Direct Instruction can nurture creativity if used correctly, i.e. creative questioning, but in this instance it is not used in that manner. Teachers still make use of textbook teaching and notes on the board.

Recommendations

In light of the findings, I recommend the following:

It is imperative for teachers to make an effort to familiarize themselves with the various teaching methods that could be utilized within the classroom, in order to improve the development of creativity of the learners in particular.

In order to develop knowledge and skills that will enable teachers to implement alternative teaching methods effectively, teachers should register

at Higher Education institutions for courses related to teaching and learning. This could also be achieved through INSET training and initial teacher education.

The Department of Education should introduce extensive and comprehensive training and workshop programs that will provide the type of training which will assist teachers to develop and enhance their knowledge and skills of alternative teaching methods.

In addition to the above-mentioned, experts in the field of teaching and learning should be invited by the Department of Education to visit schools to provide practical guidelines to teachers in the classroom.

Teachers themselves should engage in discussions with their colleagues in order to share their knowledge and skills regarding implementation of alternative teaching methods and nurturing creativity. They could visit each other's classrooms and evaluate their implementation of the various methods.

This research also points to important implications for teacher education programme training. The training programs should equip teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills to implement the various teaching methods in the classroom.

Conclusion

Although the adoption of various alternative teaching methods would be quite difficult and challenging for most teachers, and the study indicates that the implementation practices of History teachers who took part in the study are not utilizing all of the methods and are not nurturing creativity all of the time. Creative development is important as it supports the holistic development of the learners in the classroom.

Therefore it is imperative that History teachers accept the challenge to find ways of utilizing the various teaching methods in order to nurture creativity more effectively. If teachers do not rise to the challenge, then History will indeed be seen as a dead subject that is boring and dull, with no learners choosing the subject in Grade 10.

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The Yesterday&Today Journal for History Teaching in South Africa and abroad

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The footnote method for references and the Harvard method is accepted in articles for *Yesterday & Today*.

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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.

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To:

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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.

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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.

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

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Archival references:

• Interview(s)

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

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

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

• National archives (or any other archive)

National archiving (NA), Pretoria, Department of Education (DE), Vol.10, Refer-

ence 8/1/3/452: Letter, K Lewis (Director General) / P Dlamini (Teacher, Springs College), 12 June 1960.

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• Unpublished theses or dissertations:

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• Anonymous newspaper references:

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Published under author's name:

Marshall, J 2003. Why Johnny can't teach. *Reason*, December. Available at http://www.reason.com/news/show/29399.html. Accessed on 10 August 2010.

Website references: No author:

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Personal interview, K Kombuis (Journalist-singer)/S van der Merwe (Researcher), 2 October 2010.

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