

Yesterday & Today

No. 17, July 2017

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YESTERDAY & TODAY

NO. 17, JULY 2017

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YESTERDAY
& TODAY



The Yesterday&Today is a scholarly, peer-reviewed and educationally focused History journal. It is indexed by the South African Department of Higher Education and Training. The journal is currently published in conjunction with The South African Society for History Teaching (SASHT) under the patronage of the School of Basic Sciences, Vaal Triangle Campus, North-West University. Open access to the journal is available on the SASHT, the SciELO and the Boloka websites. The Website addresses to find previous and current issues of the Yesterday&Today journal are:

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Scientific research articles in the following field of research are published (covers 75% of the Journal):

History teaching: Refers to research reports dealing with the methodology (didactics) and practice of History teaching.

Educational history: The history of any education-related theme is reported.

History research: Relates to any historical content or theme, especially represented in the History curricula of Southern Africa. It is recommended that all the contributions should reference to either the GET or the FET or HET curriculum content. A theme of choice should also be linked to ways of HOW to educationally utilise the latter in teaching History in general, and or the classroom in particular.

Hands-on articles in the following field of research are published (covers 25% of the Journal):

Hands-on reports: Are articles based on authors' personal experiences/opinions with history within or outside the classroom.

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EDITORIAL

Before reporting on what can be expected in this first edition of 2017, the good news about the journal must first be shared. *Yesterday&Today* is now rated among the top five journals in terms of the average amount of document views the journal has in the *SciELO SA* collection! It is indeed a big achievement and a credit to everyone – from the Editorial Board to each author who contributed over the years.

This issue of *Yesterday&Today* contains a healthy variety of articles: Seven articles in the scientific research section and two in the hands-on section, followed by two book reviews. The themes of the articles incorporated in this issue, are:

- The effect of multimedia use on the teaching and learning of Social Sciences at tertiary level: A case study (Luiza de Sousa, Barry Richter and Carisma Nel)
- The impact of social media on History education: A view from England (Terry Haydn)
- Student protest and the culture of violence at African universities: An inherited ideological trait (Kehdinga Fomunyam)
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In the first article, entitled *The effect of multimedia use on the teaching and learning of Social Sciences at tertiary level: A case study*, Luiza de Sousa, Barry Richter and Carisma Nel report on which forms of multimedia combinations are best for the teaching and learning of specific Social Sciences content. By applying a quasi-experimental research design, they examined how exposure to different multimedia combinations on digital videodisc (DVD) may affect

the achievement of Social Sciences trainee teachers. The authors come to the conclusion that the nature of the theme and the outcomes assessed are important factors in determining what the multimedia structure and format should look like on DVD when teaching and learning at tertiary level. The study further shows that by utilising multimedia, different teaching and learning styles were applied, helping the pre-service teachers to construct their own knowledge and thereby making the learning experience in Social Sciences more meaningful.

Terry Haydn in his article, *The impact of social media on History education: A view from England*, examines recent ideas and developments with regard to utilising new technology in History education. Haydn raises the question as to what it means “to be good at ICT” as a History teacher and what the priorities should be when History teachers are trained. He is convinced that a revolution has taken place during the past decade in the way people receive information on social media platforms about “the news” and about “the past”. He contends that people’s views and convictions have been influenced by “fake news” and falsehoods in what have recently been described as a “post-truth” society. Haydn then rightly asks: What are the implications for History teachers of these developments in new technology and social media and how – if at all – will they influence the teaching and learning of History in a different way? The author concludes that less attention should be given to the general technological competence of History teachers and greater emphasis placed on training teachers to help their learners to be able to “filter” information from digital sources. Only when developing skills on information literacy will teachers be able to make judgements on the reliability and trustworthiness of information on social media platforms.

In his contribution, *Student protest and the culture of violence at African universities: An inherited ideological trait*, Kehdinga Fomunyam examines student protest in the five regions of North, South, East, Central and West Africa, covering more than 20 different nations. He points out that this is not a new phenomenon in Africa and elsewhere, and that although student protests were triggered by various reasons in the different countries, they have all become violent. Fomunyam argues that students in Africa have inherited the culture of violence demonstrated during their struggle against colonialism. Even though colonialism came to an “end”, the culture of violence is increasingly manifesting itself across the African continent. The author concludes by arguing that because the culture of student violence is an

inherited one, the process will continue to manifest itself if urgent steps are not taken that will guarantee transformation and decolonisation.

In Sarah Godsell's article, "*Word Generation*" and skills around learning and teaching History, she reports and illustrates how the sub-program of WorldGen (pioneered in 2006 by the Harvard University Education School) that is specifically designed for social sciences (SoGen), can be engaged as a basis to create materials for the teaching and learning of History in the South African intermediate classroom. WorldGen holds the advantage that it affords the possibility for learners to expand their vocabulary, critical thinking skills (such as historical enquiry and perspective taking) and factual content through discussion and debate. By utilising SoGen material Godsell creatively explores the possibility of translating this material for tertiary teacher training in the Intermediate Phase. The article reflects third-year education students' responses to the WorldGen material. She argues that the application of WorldGen material facilitates the manner in which learners think about History. This allows student teachers to interact with historical knowledge and to conduct historical research while at the same time being able to consider their methodology when teaching the subject.

In the article by Arend Carl and Theopolina Negumbo, entitled *Underperformance in Social Studies in Grades 5-7 in Namibian primary schools: A case study*, the focus is on possible factors that may contribute to learners' underperformance. In their empirical research, the authors used different data collection methods to ensure its validity and reliability. Carl and Negumbo found that there are a number of factors that constitute obstacles and inhibit learners' performance. Some of these factors are: English as the medium of instruction; the policy of automatic transfer to the next grade despite the fact that learners did not meet the grade's pass requirement; untrained teachers; principals not monitoring the teaching and learning process and lack of in-service training opportunities for teachers. The authors conclude by making recommendations to address these issues.

In their article, entitled *Learners' encounter with archaeological fieldwork: A public participation archaeology account of the East Fort Archaeological Project*, Anton van Vollenhoven, Karin Scott and Mariette Harcombe claim that the practice of archaeological activities seldom extends towards public participation. By means of the East Fort Archaeological Project that started in 2013 they provide an opportunity for the public as well as for school learners to become actively involved in an archaeology project, regardless of

their skills level. By including high school learners, the authors are addressing and strengthening the section on heritage that forms an important part of the History school curriculum. While experiencing practical archaeological field work the learners are exposed to real, tangible history, which not only makes them aware of heritage and history but also the importance of it being conserved. The authors conclude by suggesting that History teachers should become involved in similar projects for History to be taken out of the textbooks and in the process it will serve as the first step in creating a heritage-literate society.

In her article, entitled *Contemporary relevance – a category of historical science and of the didactics of history and its consequences in teacher training*, the ever green Elisabeth Erdmann discusses the important role of contemporary relevance in the teaching and learning of History. By creating a context between present and past, Erdmann claims it will contribute to orientation knowledge which will enable learners to reflect on solutions to present-day issues. In the process, the learners will develop future perspectives by thinking creatively of alternatives that will revise habitual contemporary thoughts and thinking patterns. Selected examples, such as the conflict between the Arabs and Israelis in the Middle East, are discussed for contemporary relevance in History teaching and learning, and the consequences they constitute for History teacher training.

In the article in the hands-on section, entitled *Nostalgia, memory and History teaching and learning*, Barry Firth explores the use of nostalgic writing by pre-service teachers in an attempt to define their space or “twilight zone”, in which positions have to be reflected and negotiated as a result of a compromised gaze. Drawing on Boym’s restorative and reflective nostalgia theory, Firth reports his findings after having requested his students to use nostalgic writing as an extreme form of subjective memory.

In her article, entitled *Crossing the “chalkboard-keyboard-divide” on a shoestring budget*, Rika Odendaal focuses on creative ways in which History teachers can use Information and Communication Technology (ICT) where it is limited in schools. She argues that there should be no excuse for History teachers not to include technology in their teaching and learning from time to time. She expertly shows how the cell phone can be used in class as well as the Classmarker programme, which she finds useful in assessing the learners’ basic content knowledge and the interpretation of sources without the effort of having to mark it.

Apart from the above contributions, included in this issue are also two interesting and thought-provoking book reviews with a South African context. The book reviews were written by Jugathambal Ramdhani (*Poverty in South Africa: Past and Present*) and Simphiwe Ngwane (*The Art of Life in South Africa*).

Finally, milestone information is provided regarding the South African Society for History Teaching (SASHT) that will act as host for the International Society for History Didactics (ISHD) conference to be held at the Riverside Sun Hotel in Vanderbijlpark from 13-15 September 2017. The draft programme for the conference is also included, as well as the minute of the 2016 Annual general meeting and the most updated SASHT constitution for the perusal of members during the 2017 conference.

THE EFFECT OF MULTIMEDIA USE ON THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AT TERTIARY LEVEL: A CASE STUDY

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Abstract

Instructors in higher education are under pressure to provide their students with more effective and efficient learning environments and educational experiences. Instructional systems and educational technology have been receiving great attention from educators in order to enhance students' learning. Educational technologies such as multimedia presentations are becoming commonplace. The aim of the research reported in this article was to establish which multimedia combinations are best for the teaching and learning of Social Sciences content. A quasi-experimental research design was used to establish how exposure to different multimedia combinations on digital videodisc may affect the achievement of pre-service teachers. The results of the study indicate that when using various multimedia combinations, the unique nature of Social Sciences can be addressed effectively.

Keywords: History Education; Geography education multimedia; Social Sciences education; Teaching and learning; Tertiary/higher education; Educational technology integration.

Introduction

A medium is “an intervening agency, means, or instrument by which something is conveyed or accomplished” (Webster’s College Dictionary, 1991). The plural form of medium is media, which, in the context of education, includes the means to create, store and present instructional content. These include tools such as chalk and talk, books and computers, slide projectors, video projection, overhead projectors, document cameras, audio systems (a

CD player, radio), combined sound and video systems (television, digital video cameras, and DVDs), and the media objects themselves. The term multimedia was introduced in the 1960s to describe the combined use of several media, such as text, film, video, still images, and audio (Vincent & Shepherd, 1989). Schnotz and Lowe (2003) define the term multimedia as the combination of multiple technical resources for the purpose of presenting information represented in multiple formats via multiple sensory modalities.

In the late 1990s a number of surveys and reports in the United States highlighted the role of teacher education in preparing new teachers to use technology in the classroom (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 1997; Persichitte *et al.*, 1998; Jacobsen *et al.*, 2003). The general finding was that although technology use is increasing in teacher training programmes, teacher educators could do more to help pre-service teachers learn to integrate educational technology into their teaching and learning (Zeng *et al.*, 2016:2; Bridges.org, 2002). Multimedia allows lecturers to integrate text, graphics, animation, and other media into one package to present comprehensive information for their students to achieve specified course outcomes. It permits the demonstration of complicated processes in a highly interactive, animated fashion and that instructional material can be interconnected with other related topics in a more natural and intuitive way (Crosby & Stelovsky, 1995). Jarosievitz (2011:22; 2009:383) encourages university lecturers to take advantage of multimedia (text, pictures, animation, sound, video and interactivity) and new devices and their applications so as to ensure that pre-service teachers leave university with adequate knowledge and applicable skills.

Multimedia-based instruction can be efficient and effective for three reasons (Issa, Cox & Killingsworth, 1999):

- it is self-paced learning: the individualized pace of the learning allows students to break down the group instructional setting, which often inhibits some people's natural progression (West & Crook, 1992);
- it includes video/audio production, enhancing a learner's interaction with the course material through less bridging effort between the learner and the information being processed, and
- it provides autonomy in the learning process: self-regulated instruction shifts the sense of responsibility from the instructor to the student.

Bartlett and Strough (2003) state that, besides potential advantages to students, multimedia formats may offer benefits to instructors teaching multi-

section courses because this type of format ensures uniformity in the lecture content across the sections.

The media mentioned above targets either the eye or the ear. Of the five human senses, vision is recognized as the most powerful data-acquisition device for the brain. Tufte (1990:31), a professor of statistics and graphic design at Yale University, explains why the most effective presentation methodologies attempt to convey information visually, rather than verbally alone. "Visual displays of information encourage a diversity of individual viewer styles and rates of editing, personalizing, reasoning, and understanding. Unlike speech, visual displays are simultaneously a wideband and a perceiver-controllable channel".

The terms "wideband" and "channel" come from the science of communications. The term channel in this context is the same as medium, pathway or route, along which data travel. A wideband channel carries more data at higher speeds. A visual display is an example of a wideband channel that carries more data at higher speeds than simple speech. A visual display is also "perceiver controllable" in that the person doing the viewing can absorb the data by scanning them at a speed and in a sequence that most naturally fits that person's intellectual strengths. Gardner (1999:30), in keeping with his theory of multiple intelligences, would agree that each individual assimilates knowledge differently, depending on the make-up of his or her mind. Speech, on the other hand, though it is a powerful medium for communication when used by skilled speakers, is not so easy to digest. It requires more mental effort to assimilate because less information is conveyed at a slower speed, thus requiring more concentration and extrapolation on the part of the listener.

Students who are given access to multimedia courseware, whether as individuals or in groups, can take control of their own learning, constructing knowledge at a pace and in a direction that suits their needs and desires. Otts, Williams, Dawson and Alley (2004) express this idea in compelling terms when they state: "The MTV generation quickly loses interest in maths topics presented on the chalkboard by some old fuddy-duddy 60s fossil lecturing about polynomials and rational numbers. A step forward is the use of the overhead projector, but students require even greater stimuli to hold their attention. Use of multimedia brings teaching methods into the 21st century and helps students catch the dream of success in the 90s and beyond". Multimedia offers avenues for presenting material not possible with other methods, such as:

- interaction;
- animation to demonstrate concepts;
- sound cues;
- incorporation of stimulating visual effects such as flashing, and
- nonlinear progression.

New capabilities allow teacher-made [presentations] to be accessed via the internet, allowing students the opportunity to study at home. The constructivist approach to learning in which the learner plays an active role in the teaching and learning process can further encourage students to learn through personal experiences with suitable learning material and teachers should use new and effective modes, ways, and designing thoughts into multimedia teaching practice (Shah & Khan, 2015:357; Gilakjani, 2012:60). The inclusion of on-screen information sources proposes opposite reactions to printed text that may contribute critical and objective skills development, since studies have shown the effectiveness of multimedia over traditional lecture methods (Shah & Khan, 2015:350; Lee, 2002:513-514). Visual multimedia explanations may help to distinguish between primary and secondary sources, especially when application of knowledge is required to answer questions (Van Eeden, 1999). However, one must remember that the unique characteristics of a subject influence the success of learning via picture or audio presentations (Nugent, 1982:164). Similarly, if concepts are too difficult to understand, presentations will not be successful, no matter what the combination of media (ChanLin, 1998:1).

The Department of Basic Education (DBE) (DoE, 2003:13) states that “The present situation ... cannot be maintained if South Africa is to address the digital divide. Like most parts of the world, the South African education and training system has to respond to the pressures and challenges posed by the information revolution”. Currently, the DBE’s Schooling 2030 goals strive to expand to a wide range of media, amongst learners, so as to enrich their education. It refers to e-Education as one of two key areas of innovation for the basic education sector since Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has the potential to improve and diversify learning (DBE, 2015:3, 16).

In the training of teachers in South Africa it is therefore necessary for aspirant teachers to get enough exposure to the incorporation of educational technology into the subjects offered in the General Education and Training (GET) Band (Evoh, 2007:84). Social Sciences (SS) is a compulsory subject in the GET Band (Grades 4-9) in South African schools. The National Curriculum Statement, the policy document of the DBE and the National Curriculum

and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for SS in both the Intermediate and Senior phases state that History and Geography are two disciplines that must be kept separate, but both must complement the knowledge (content, skills and concepts) outlined in the official documentation (DBE, 2011a:8; DBE, 2011b:8). The research reported in this article makes known which forms of multimedia combinations are best for the teaching and learning of SS content in specific study themes offered in SS. In this research multimedia was incorporated into the SS subject offered in the training of teachers for the Intermediate Phase (i.e. Grades 4-6).

Jarosievitz (2011:22, 2009:383) encourages university lecturers to take advantage of the ICT, multimedia (text, pictures, animation, sound, video and interactivity), and new devices and their applications so as to ensure that pre-service teachers leave university with adequate knowledge and applicable skills. Research using the “flip the classroom” method has shown advantages in that students became more active and motivated to read, and to watch the video given in the e-learning material. They felt they were better prepared and more active learners during the lectures, not only passive listeners. Students used tablets or smart phones as learning devices in a project plan based on constructivism. The stages of the project were defined with the aim to create e-learning content for students in a BSc course. The disadvantages of this method are that more preparation work is required from the lecturer (Jarosievitz, 2015:2,5). Multimedia as a technology-based constructivist learning environment enables students to solve problems by means of self-exploration, collaboration and active participation. Simulations, models and media-rich study materials (still and animated graphics, video and audio) integrated in a structured manner can facilitate the learning of new knowledge. Multimedia learning encourages and enhances peer learning, individual creativity and innovation (Malik & Agarwal, 2012:468).

Conceptual and theoretical framework

In general, ICT and multimedia have been used in education for more than 25 years (Rodriguez, Nussbaum, López & Sepúlveda, 2010:166). In teacher-driven education, multimedia lessons were found to be effective in teaching road signs and speed limits and produced higher levels of performance than non-multimedia instruction (Lee & Keckley, 2006). This highlights that the unique characteristics of a subject influence the success of learning via picture or audio presentations (Nugent, 1982:164).

In the past 20 years of teaching History in schools, ICT with multimedia (e.g. text, images and audio) have been used regularly to support teaching and learning (Weiner, 1995; Van Eeden, 1999; Munro, 2000). History lessons have become more active and learner-centred with respect to ICT integration and the use of multimedia resources in teaching and learning at schools in South Africa. In fact, researchers of History teaching recommend the use of a wide variety of multimedia resource material (text, images and audio) (De Sousa & Van Eeden, 2009:18). In SS the representation of information by using the visualization capabilities of video are said to be immediate and powerful. In History lessons, multimodal information through images and animations, pictures, including sound and speech are recommended for deep understanding. For example, when illustrating a war, replicas of war equipment can be prepared and geographical locations can be illustrated. Such videos consist of a high degree of reality and visualization. Geography lessons also make use of many maps, animations and videos. Animations, when combined with user input, enable students to view different versions of change over time, depending on different variables. Graphics provide creative possibilities for a learning experience (Ekinci, Karakoç, Hut & Avci, 2009:95, 96, 99). The reasons why multimedia is promoted in SS education are that it is readily available for use, helps make remembering easy, and more information can be shared faster and in an interesting format (Ekinci *et al.*, 2009:12).

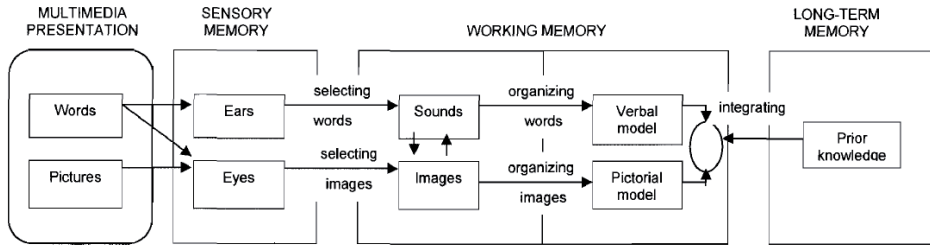
Multimedia has succeeded in psychomotor development and strengthening of visual processing of the intended users in multi-disciplinary multimedia educational programmes where DVDs were also used as multimedia technology (Malik & Agarwal, 2012:470). The integration of ICT and multimedia into SS by means of a portable DVD player may be used as the foundation for a mind-shift that must be made at universities to teach SS. The mind-shift involves the integration of ICT not only to learn a specific skill, but also to integrate multimedia resources into the teaching and learning of pre-service teachers, who can then apply their experience to teaching in schools. The inclusion of on-screen information sources proposes opposite reactions to traditional historical printed text and contributes to the development of critical and objective skills development (Lee, 2002:513-514). Visual multimedia explanations may help to distinguish between primary and secondary sources, especially when application of knowledge is required to answer questions (Van Eeden, 1999).

Geography is a highly visual subject and is complemented with the use of multimedia resources (Peterson, 1994:27). Audio-visual resources have been used effectively at tertiary institutions to support teaching and learning in Geography. Visual presentations and representation are integral parts of Geography education (e.g. imported digital images, PowerPoint presentations, satellite images via the World Wide Web, etc.) (McKendrick & Bowden, 1999). However, one should be cautious to not only rely on multimedia without text, since research has also revealed that text is more advantageous as the material becomes more complex. This highlights the important advantage of text for the presentation of complex materials (Nugent, 1982:164).

Students will be successful in their learning task if they interact meaningfully with their academic material, select relevant verbal and non-verbal information, organise information into corresponding mental models, and integrate new representations with existing knowledge when learning with multimedia (Mayer, 2002:60). An important aspect required for multimedia learning is that learners must be able to hold corresponding visual and verbal representations in short-term memory simultaneously.

Based on Mayer's assumptions and research, the cognitive theory related to multimedia learning has shown how people construct knowledge from words and pictures (Mayer & Moreno, 2003:50). Research 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; and words presented in a personalised conversational style, rather than a detailed description style (Mayer, 2001:44; Mayer, 2002:62-67; Moreno, 2004:102).

In the implementation of multimedia it is accepted that the human mind is a two-channel system of information processing with limited capacity. It has visual/pictorial and verbal/auditory processing channels (Mayer, 2003:136). Once the human mind receives information for cognitive processing, it selects, organises and integrates the mental representations promoting meaningful learning (See Image 1). The cognitive processing by the learner is believed to cause learning and not the media environment (Mayer, 2003:137).

Image 1: The cognitive theory of multimedia learning

Source: Mayer, 2001:44.

Image 1 represents the cognitive model of multimedia learning of the human information processing system. The boxes represent memory stores, being sensory, short-term and long-term memory (Mayer, 2001). Pictures and words as a multimedia presentation enter the sensory memory through the eyes and ears. The sensory memory allows pictures to be registered in the eyes and held as visual images in a visual sensory memory for a short span of time. Text (printed words) is processed in the visual channel and then moves to the auditory channel. Spoken words and sound are registered in the ears and held as auditory images in the auditory sensory memory for a brief period. The core of multimedia learning takes place in the short-term memory where knowledge is held temporarily. Short-term memory is divided into two sections based on the two sensory modalities, namely visual and auditory. The left side of Image 1 represents raw material in the form of sound (words) and images (pictures), with an arrow from sounds to images representing the mental conversion of a sound into a visual image. The arrow from images to sounds represents the mental conversion of a visual image into a sound image. The right side of Image 1 represents knowledge construction of visual and verbal mental models and the link between the two (Mayer, 2001). The arrows labelled *selecting* (moving from the presented material to short-term memory), *organising* (moving from one kind of representation in short-term memory to another), and *integrating* (moving information from long-term memory to short-term memory and between visual and auditory representation in short-term memory) represent the main cognitive processes needed for multimedia learning. The last box is labelled long-term memory. The arrow from long-term memory to short-term memory represents the knowledge that a person has acquired that must actively be brought to short-term memory so that one can actively think about this material in long-term memory (Mayer, 2001). During the cognitive process of integrating, the learner mentally connects the verbal and pictorial models as well as the applicable prior knowledge from the long-term memory (Mayer, 2002:60).

The following empirical investigation was based on the insights flowing from the conceptual and theoretical framework.

Empirical investigation

The total population (n=315) of first-year education students at the participating university taking the compulsory module in SS was chosen to participate in the research. A quasi-experimental research design (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005) was used. Four groups (± 80 students in a group) were exposed to different experimental interventions and the groups acted as their own controls. The measuring instruments included short tests during classes, a semester test and a final examination. All the tests comprised multiple-choice questions. The examination required multiple-choice responses as well as written answers. The mastering of knowledge on the correct cognitive skill and level (NQF level 5 for first-year students) was chosen in compliance with the guidelines formulated in the university moderator's report.

Each group acted as the control group and the experimental group twice, due to the nature of the subject. Each SS student received two multimedia DVDs, one for History and one for Geography, together with a portable DVD player when part of the experimental group. The results of the control group and each experimental group were compared.

The two DVDs contained different multimedia, ensuring that the research was rooted in the cognitive theory of multimedia learning's dual channel system of information processing (Gilakjani, 2012:58,59). One contained predominantly text with audio recordings (DVD 1) and the other contained still graphics, audio recordings, text and video clips (DVD 2).

The introduction of DVD 1 in History featured the lecturer against a historical backdrop. For the theme dealing with sources, the introduction's setting was a local museum. The motivation for this was to create the context for and to enliven the theme. The text screens introduced the theme and the module outcomes. Both History themes, the first dealing with Sources and the second with Democracy, contained verbal explanations presented by the lecturer as well as text accompanied by audio recordings. Geography's DVD 1 featured the lecturer in front of a geographical backdrop. Screens containing text introduced the theme and the module outcomes, which focused specifically on knowledge and application aspects. For Geography, the themes Natural Resources and Sustainable Development contained verbal explanations and on-screen text accompanied by audio recordings. The

Natural Resources theme featured a text statement with an answer once the correct option (True or False) had been chosen.

History's DVD 2 with Sources as theme was filmed in a museum so that first-hand primary sources could be viewed. In both History themes (Sources and Democracy) text focusing on knowledge and application was used. Explanations accompanied by audio recordings also featured. Still images were included to enable visualisation of the theme as the explanation was given. Many structured mind maps were shown on screen, setting out the theory chronologically and orderly for the Democracy theme. Permission was obtained from a television channel and a council to show excerpts from their programmes, providing clips of current affairs associated with the themes Sources and Democracy. Independent video clips from television were also used for these themes.

Geography's DVD 2 for the themes Natural Resources and Sustainable Development featured the lecturer against a geographical background. Text screens introduced the theme and outcomes. Explanations by the lecturer as well as text were accompanied by audio recordings. Still and moving images and maps were also used to ensure visualisation of the themes while the explanations were given. A statement featured on the disc, as text, with an answer also given as text once the correct option (True or False) was chosen was used as self-assessment. There were also video clips of current affairs associated with the theme.

The data collected after each assessment opportunity and its analysis were centred on the assessment of the two outcome levels, namely knowledge and application for History and Geography respectively when using different multimedia DVDs.

The analysis of data

The Analysis of Covariance Design (ANCOVA) was used to analyse the data and to test if the means of the populations differed from one another (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005) among the four groups that were not equal in size. ANCOVA was used to analyse the data because it "looks for differences among three or more means", controlling for the influence of another continuous variable (in this case the post-test mark was "adjusted" for variability on the covariate/pre-test (Leedy *et al.*, 2005:274). This was done to test if the means of the populations differed from one another. In this way, it compared the variances (s^2) within and also across the groups, controlling for the covariate.

Statistical significance (p-values) as well as practical significance (d-values) are reported in the discussion of results of the analysed data (Ellis & Steyn, 2003). The effect size is a measure of practical significance, using Cohen's d-value and was calculated using the formula:

$$d = \frac{|\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j|}{\sqrt{MSE}}$$

where $|\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_j|$ is the difference between \bar{x}_i and \bar{x}_j without taking the sign into consideration and MSE the mean square error of the ANCOVA.

Guidelines for interpretation are (a) small effect: $d=0.2$, (b) medium effect: $d=0.5$ and (c) large effect: $d=0.8$ ' (Ellis *et al.*, 2003:52-53). For each comparison of the control group with each experimental group's intervention, knowledge and application outcomes were assessed for History and Geography respectively.

Results

Table 1 shows the mean scores of SS pre-test results, where all four groups performed fairly the same with means ranging from 15%-16.8%, yielding no statistical significance and no practical significance among the groups, as all the effect sizes were small and not practically significant. Therefore, all four groups were presumed to be comparable.

Table 1: Pre-test means, pre-test standard deviations and p-value for groups C, D, E & F

Group	C	D	E	F
Pre-test Mean %	16.5	15.0	16.8	15.2
Pre-test Standard Deviation	4.7	5.2	5.1	4.6
p-value 0.0664				

History analysis and results for the theme Sources

The analysis of Table 2 below shows the adjusted mean scores, mean square errors, p-values and the effect sizes (d-values) of ANCOVA for Test 1 and the Semester Test. The table refers to Knowledge and Application questions answered in the History theme sources, adjusted for the pre-test results.

With regard to the attainment of Application outcomes in Test 1, the results indicated that statistically the groups differed significantly (p-value 0.0253).

The control group (E and F), who received a traditional lecture, performed visibly better ($d=0.4$) by more than 10% (*cf.* Tables 2).

Table 2: Adjusted mean scores, mean square errors, p-values and effect sizes (d-values) of ANCOVA for the theme Sources

History Theme Sources		Control group (E & F)	Group C (Multimedia-DVD 2)	Group D (Text-DVD 1)			Group C (Multimedia) & Control group (E & F)	Group D (Text) & Control group (E & F)	Group C (Multimedia) & Group D (Text)
		Adjusted Mean %			Mean Square Error	p-value	d-value		
Test 1	Knowledge	52.5	55	50.7	643.4	0.6006	0.1	0.1	0.2
	Application	51.1	40.8	41.7	583.4	0.0253	0.4	0.4	0.0
Semester Test	Knowledge	63	58.6	54.1	624.4	0.0593	0.2	0.4	0.2
	Application	67.3	70.1	70.3	505.28	0.5508	0.1	0.1	0.0

History analysis and results for the theme Democracy

The analysis of Table 3 below shows the adjusted mean scores, mean square errors, p-values and the effect sizes (d-values) of ANCOVA for Test 2 and the examination. The table refers to Knowledge and Application questions answered in the History theme Democracy, adjusted for the pre-test results.

The mean scores of the three groups who answered Application outcome in the examination differed significantly statistically. The mean score of group E (62.3%), who received the still and moving graphics, documentary excerpts, etc., was the highest and was visibly better than group F (*cf.* Table 3).

Table 3: Adjusted mean scores, mean square errors, p-values and effect sizes (d-values) of ANCOVA for the theme Democracy

History Theme Democracy		Control group (C & D)	Group E (Multimedia)	Group F (Text)			Group E (Multimedia) & Control group (C & D)	Group F (Text) & Control group (C & D)	Group E (Multimedia) & Group F (Text)
		Adjusted Mean %			Mean Square Error	p-value	d-value		
Test 2	Knowledge	49.8	55.8	50.7	677.8	0.3941	0.2	0.0	0.2
	Application	59.5	66.5	70.1	372.8	0.0832	0.4	0.5	0.2
Examination	Knowledge	70.4	73.2	70.9	847.8	0.8475	0.1	0.0	0.1
	Application	57.8	62.3	47.7	524.1	0.0006	0.2	0.4	0.6

Geography analysis and results for the theme Natural Resources

The analysis of Table 4 shows the adjusted mean scores, mean square errors, p-values and the effect sizes (d-values) of ANCOVA for Test 3 and the examination. The table refers to Knowledge and Application questions answered in the Geography theme Natural Resources, adjusted for the pre-test results.

In Table 4 the Knowledge outcome for the examination shows that the three groups performed reasonably the same, with the control group (E and F) performing the best (93.3%). The groups differed significantly statistically. The comparison between the control group (E and F) and the experimental group (group C) yielded a medium effect size (0.5), meaning that the control group was visibly better than group C.

The mean scores of the three groups for the Application outcome for the examination differed significantly statistically. Group D (Multimedia-DVD 2), who received moving and still graphics with audio and text as well as excerpts showing natural resources, performed the best (63.9%).

The mean scores of the three groups for the Application outcome for the examination differed significantly statistically. Group D (Multimedia-DVD 2), who received moving and still graphics with audio and text as well as excerpts showing Natural Resources, performed the best (63.9%). Table 4 shows a medium effect size of $d=0.5$ between group D and the control group (E and F), and between group D and group C, meaning that group D performed visibly better.

Table 4: Adjusted mean scores, mean square errors, p-values and effect sizes (d-values) of ANCOVA theme Natural Resources

Geography Theme Natural Resources		Control group (E & F)	Group C (Text)	Group D (Multimedia)	Mean Square Error	p-value	Group C (Text) & Control group (E & F)	Group D (Multimedia) & Control group (E & F)	Group D (Multimedia) & Group C (Text)
		Adjusted Mean %					d-value		
Test 3	Knowledge	70.1	65.8	66.1	331.8	0.2028	0.2	0.2	0.0
	Application	82	78.1	79.3	590.4	0.5902	0.2	0.1	0.0
Examination	Knowledge	93.3	84.2	88.3	286.1	0.0009	0.5	0.3	0.2
	Application	52.3	53.2	63.9	493.4	0.0018	0.0	0.5	0.5

Geography analysis and results for the theme Sustainable Development

The analysis of Table 5 shows the adjusted mean scores, mean square errors, p-values and the effect sizes (d-values) of ANCOVA for Test 4 and the examination. The table refers to Knowledge and Application questions answered in the Geography theme Sustainable Development, adjusted for the pre-test results.

The Knowledge outcome for the examination shows that the control group (C and D) performed the best (56.4%) and the analysed data shows that statistical significance was obtained. A visible effect size of $d=0.4$ was obtained for the comparison between the control group (C and D) and group F. The same motivation given for the Knowledge outcome in the examination for the Natural Resources theme is applicable here.

The Application outcome for the examination shows that group E, who received DVD 1 with text and audio, performed the best (56.2%). A statistical significant difference in the mean scores of the three groups for the Application outcomes in the examination is seen in Table 5. A visible effect size of $d=0.4$ between group F (Multimedia) and group E (Text) shows that group E performed visibly better than group F in the Application outcomes in the examination.

Table 5: Adjusted mean scores, mean square errors, p-values and effect sizes (d-values) of ANCOVA for the theme Sustainable Development

Geography Theme Sustainable Development		Control group (C & D)	Group E (Text)	Group F (Multimedia)	Mean Square Error	p-value	Group E (Text) & Control group (C & D)	Group F (Multimedia) & Control group (C & D)	Group F (Multimedia) & Group E (Text)
							Adjusted Mean %		
Test 4	Knowledge	71.4	78.4	67.1	577.5	0.0578	0.3	0.2	0.5
	Application	83	86.9	84.7	541.9	0.6176	0.2	0.1	0.1
Examination	Knowledge	56.4	49.7	46.9	508.1	0.0291	0.3	0.4	0.1
	Application	53	56.2	47.1	479	0.0496	0.1	0.3	0.4

Discussion of results

A possible reason why groups E and F performed better (Tables 2 & 3) in the analysis and results for the theme Sources in History is that it was the first time that the students were exposed to ICT by means of multimedia. Unaccustomed, they had to apply their knowledge to answer questions after

using a multimedia DVD. The possibility exists that the multimedia on DVD 2 contained complex verbal and pictorial representations, causing the students to experience a lack of guidance compared to the control group, since it is difficult to distinguish the difference between primary and secondary sources (Van Eeden, 1999:211). The possibility also exists that because the concept was too difficult to understand, the combination of the media did not have the expected effect on the outcome (ChanLin, 1998). Cognitive overload may also have contributed to poor analysis and connection of information during the processing stage (Woolfolk, 1998:262; Moreno, 2004:102; Gilakjani, 2012:58), since less relevant information may have formed part of the multimedia design on the DVDs. The presence of the lecturer during the contact session meant that it was possible to assess students' learning before the end of the lecture. Students were therefore forced to apply their knowledge to the summative questions posed. This was not the case with the students who received the DVDs, since their discourse took place during the following scheduled contact session.

A possible reason for the results for the theme Democracy in the History analysis is that the visuals used on DVD 2 (multimedia) provided a clear schematic outlay of the important components of a democratic system that had to be mastered in the outcomes. The concepts were easily understood with the aid of various multimedia, including contemporary, relevant and applicable excerpts from the news that were most likely watched over and over. In support of this finding, Lee (2002:512-513) states that "digital historical resources made university students return to the same documents time and again. History learners also rated visual media as most useful since it helps to visualise events, and students are more accustomed to technological experiences in the web-based world of our time" (Lee, 2002:512-513). This may explain why Application questions showed higher means for group E (multimedia DVD) when compared to the other two groups. These outcomes confirm that humans possess separate channels for processing visual and auditory information. Students therefore learn more deeply from multimedia using text and picture explanations than from a verbal explanation like DVD 1 containing text with audio (De Sousa *et al.*, 2008; Mayer, 2001:47; Mayer, 2003: 127). This shows that a strong relationship exists between multimedia presentations and students learning for the theme Sources.

Natural Resources' knowledge outcomes in the results and analysis in Geography that were answered in the examination produced the best adjusted

mean scores by the group receiving a traditional contact lecture. In general, the experimental groups using DVD 1 and 2 show that good scores can also be achieved and teaching styles can be changed when integrating multimedia into teaching and learning. However, this result was not what was expected beforehand. Nonetheless, this non-effect is also a finding. This could mean that the students have not yet learned to make the shift to learning with multimedia and that their style of learning has not changed. Nugent's (1982:164) research reminds us that a subject, with its unique characteristics, influences the success of learning via pictures or audio presentations.

The higher means yielded by group D (Multimedia-DVD 2) may be due to student learning being enhanced by visual material on a DVD containing moving graphics with explanations and many examples of the types of Natural Resources and their processes in the form of tangible picture illustrations.

The data analysis revealed that when assessing Application outcomes during an examination, a DVD containing text with audio will lead to the best results if used for teaching and learning the Geography theme of Sustainable Development. Text is therefore more advantageous when the material becomes more complex, as Nugent (1982:164) found in his research. For this theme the complex concept does not require visual aids. It is the use of literature that helps build up fundamental knowledge and understanding for Application outcomes (De Sousa, 2008:96). The noun phrase, Sustainable Development, consists of two words functioning as a noun. It requires one to understand the twofold concept. The students might have struggled more to understand this last theme in the Geography section, since they had to comprehend that the need for economic development must be accompanied by minimal harm and pollution to the environment so that future generations are not deprived of the earth's riches.

Of great importance is the fact that research by ChanLin (1998:1) found that if a concept such as Sustainable Development "is too difficult to understand then the presentation will be unsuccessful, no matter what media is used". Student achievement by the group that received DVD 1 containing text was superior since:

- the lecturer presented the words in a personalised conversational style rather than a detailed descriptive style (Mayer, 2002:67; Mayer, 2001:44);
- group E may be theory or verbal learners who "learn better with text" and found that the spoken explanations on DVD 1 were more helpful when answering the Knowledge questions. It may also be that the students of group E were used to

learning in an environment with text and audio (*cf.* De Sousa *et al.*, 2008; Reay, 1997:83; Guimaraes, Chambel & Bidarra, 2000), and

- “high prior-knowledge may lead to mental images being produced while reading a verbal text” (*cf.* De Sousa *et al.*, 2008:56-59; Mayer *et al.*, 2000:4).

Conclusion

It has been established that the nature of the theme and the outcome assessed are factors that play a role in determining what the multimedia structure and format should look like on DVD for SS teaching and learning at a tertiary institution. The use of multimedia resources like visual sources and documentary excerpts did not have the expected effect on student learning throughout the four themes when assessing knowledge and application outcomes. However, their inclusion was beneficial and not detrimental to student learning. In History teaching, a DVD can be integrated successfully into the teaching and learning of Sources and Democracy themes if it contains text, audio, still and moving graphics, schematic representations, and documentary excerpts. The DVD structure and format for Geography teaching and learning that can benefit student learning within SS is dependent on the nature of the theme in Geography.

In both disciplines one can deduce from the best performances by the groups using DVD 1 and DVD 2 that constructive learning as active, outcome-oriented and self-regulated learning with the aid of ICT and multimedia can result in good achievement by students. The study shows that by using multimedia, not only are different teaching and learning styles used, but the approach to learning is also different and it helps learners to construct their own knowledge. Current teaching strategies have not been successful in promoting problem-solving skills, curiosity, and critical and logical thinking. ICT and its innovative possibilities cater for enriched approaches for meaningful learning (Shah & Khan, 2015:349). The use of the multimedia could be useful in History and Geography teaching to make the learning experience more meaningful in SS.

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THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON HISTORY EDUCATION: A VIEW FROM ENGLAND

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It does require some little imagination to realise what the consequences will be of not educating our children to sort out the differences between essential and non-essential information, raw fact, prejudice, half-truth and untruth, so that they know when they are being manipulated, by whom, and for what purpose (Longworth, 1981:17-19).

Abstract

The paper examines recent ideas about the use of new technology in History education, contrasting the ideas of policy makers, initial teacher education curriculum specifications, and expert practitioners in the field of school history and new technology.

The paper draws on Stephen J Ball's theoretical framework which considers changes in education policy in the light of the context of influence (who were the policy makers in charge at the time), the context of text production (what were the key policy documents influencing change), and the context of practice (what were the views of practitioners). A more developed explanation of this framework can be found in Phillips, 1998:5-7).

It argues that there has been a disconnection between the views of expert practitioners and those making policy, and considers the implications of radical recent changes in the way that young people get their information about the past – and the present. This raises the question of what it means 'to be good at ICT' as a History teacher; what should our priorities be in terms of the training of History teachers?

The concluding section of the paper argues that less attention should be given to issues of general technological competence, and greater emphasis should be placed on the development of skills of information literacy, in a society that has recently been widely described as a 'post-truth' society. Although the focus of the paper is largely on developments in England, the issues explored have relevance to History education in other countries.

Keywords: History Education; New Technology; Social media; Digital Literacy; Post-Truth.

Introduction

In recent times, both in England and in many other education systems, it has been seen as increasingly important that teachers coming into the profession

are able to use new technology to improve teaching and learning in their subject teaching. It has even been argued that any teachers who are not able to make use of new technology in their teaching should be either forbidden entry to the profession, or “culled” from it (Cochrane, 1995). It is also generally accepted that forms of expertise in the deployment of new technology in the classroom will differ, to at least some extent, between one subject and another. To provide just two examples, data logging software is an important asset for science teaching, but has no relevance to the History teacher; GiS mapping software is primarily of interest to Geography teachers. This raises the question about what it means ‘to be good at ICT’ as a History teacher. Given that there is not enough time in a pre-service teacher education course to teach students every aspect of new technology which might be of use, there are some hard choices about what should be prioritised (Haydn, 2012). Moreover, there is evidence to suggest that although England has invested heavily in equipment and training for the use of new technology in schools, it has proved more difficult than envisaged to train teachers so that they are all adept and accomplished users of Information and Communications Technology (ICT). Reports by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) in England note that there are still substantial variations in the extent to which new teachers are able to use new technology effectively in their teaching (Ofsted, 2010).

Social context

The past decade has seen a revolution in the way that people receive information about “the news”, and about “the past”. At the opening of the World Congress of Historical Sciences at Jinan, in 2015, the President of the Congress noted that “It seems the historical world view of the younger generation is built on popular presentations of history on media, films, TV, often written by non-professional historians. How can we keep abreast of new developments?” (Hietala, 2015:1). A 2016 “YouGov” survey of over 50,000 young people across 26 countries (including 2,000 from the UK) reported that 28% of the respondents cited social media as their main news source, compared with 24% for TV (BBC news, 15 June 2016). At about the same time, the Reuters Institute for the Study of Journalism Research also suggested that 51% of people with online access use social media as a news source. What are the implications of these developments in new technology and social media for History teachers? In what ways (if at all) should we teach History differently in the light of the development of the internet, social media, and Web 2.0 applications?

Much of the history that appears on social media platforms is unmediated by History teachers or academic historians. Historian John Tosh points to “the diversity and unevenness of the history which is now publicly available” (Tosh, 2008:136) and Eric Hobsbawm argued that “History is being invented in vast quantities... the world is full of people inventing histories and lying about history” (Hobsbawm, 2002:19). Current controversies such as the election of US President Donald Trump, the UK exit from the European Union and debates about climate change have been marked by accusations that many people’s views have been influenced by “Fake News” and falsehoods. It should be mentioned that “bad history” is not just limited to salacious and unprincipled hate sites and news channels, although these might be some of the most extreme examples of “bad history”. The statements of elected politicians about the past, national History curricula, school textbooks, history on television, history in the newspapers and some of the outputs of “celebrity” historians are also often questionable in terms of their regard for truth and accuracy. As Hobsbawm (2002) points out, the world is full of people trying to use the past for their own, often unscrupulous purposes (for some examples of “bad history”, see Haydn & Ribbens, 2017).

Given that part of what makes history useful to young people is teaching about the principles and conventions which historians use to ascertain the validity of claims (corroboration, contradiction, provenance, authority, witting and unwitting testimony, motive, purpose, audience etc.), our subject would appear to have a lot to offer in terms of responding to this situation.

This is not to suggest that the development of the internet and the growth of social media has had an entirely negative influence on History education. The internet, social media and Web 2.0 applications have made it easier for History teachers to access “impact” resources which can help to make a particular teaching point more effectively than with just text books and teacher exposition and to quickly build up collections of powerful and effective resources to teach topics (Walsh, 2004). The internet also provides access to resources which help link the past to the present and to the “real world” in a way which enables pupils to “see the point” of the subject (e.g. digital newspaper archives) and for pupils to learn the subject outside taught classroom sessions through the use of wikis, discussion boards and a range of Web. 2.0 applications. Although the use of mobile phones within schools is still a controversial issue in English schools (Doward, 2015), given the number of young people who now possess mobile phones or other digital devices,

the possibilities of “reaching” pupils are significantly expanded. Perhaps as important, the facility to access the richness of historical resources that are available on the internet has made it easier to teach the subject in a way that motivates and engages pupils.

However, for all these assets and advantages, the development of the internet and social media poses difficult questions and challenges for History educators, and throws a different light on the question, “What it means to be good at ICT”, as a History teacher or student.

Evolving views on the role of new technology in History education

The context of influence: Politicians and policy makers

An indication of political perspectives on the role that new technology might play in education can be gleaned from a Department for Education statement about priorities for education:

The government’s principal aim for the education service at all levels and in all forms of learning is to support economic growth and improve the nation’s competitiveness and quality of life by raising standards of educational achievement and skill and by promoting an efficient and flexible labour market (Department for Education and Employment, 1995:1).

Scrutiny of politicians’ statements about computers and education reveals a strong emphasis on the vocational and economic justification for the use of computers in schools. This was to be a consistent strand in politicians’ statements about the virtues and importance of ICT, running from Kenneth Baker, one of the architects of the first National Curriculum in England (introduced in 1991), to Michael Gove, a more recent Secretary of State for Education. In the Department for Education and Skills policy document *Transforming the way we learn: a vision for the future of ICT in schools* (DfES, 2002:4), there was reference to the potential of ICT to boost the prospects of British industry, and to make Britain “a world leader in the export of learning services”, but no mention was made of improving teaching and learning in school subjects. This instrumental and economic justification for the use of computers in schools was epitomised by Prime Minister Tony Blair’s rationale for the use of new technology in schools: “The future lies in the marriage of education and technology. The knowledge race has begun. The pace of technological change means the task is urgent. Knowledge is power. Information is opportunity” (Blair, 1995:14).

A more recent manifestation of this *technicist* rationale for the use of new technology in schools can be found in Secretary of State Michael Gove's 2012 speech to the British Educational Training and Technology Show, praising British software companies export record, and calling for much more emphasis on programming and coding in schools (Gove, 2012), and later designating 2014 as "The year of code" in a revised version of the National Curriculum, with computer coding becoming a compulsory part of the curriculum for all pupils over the age of five (Gove, 2014). Tech journalist Jay Griffiths noted that in introducing "the year of code", "Gove's speech made 54 references to the future, speaking of the new, a vanguard of change, transformation, innovation, progress and jobs" (Griffiths, 2014).

Throughout this period, the vision of policy makers was that ICT in schools was about enabling England to compete with other modern economies, to produce a technologically enabled workforce, and to promote jobs and entrants to the professions in Science, Technology, Engineering and Maths (STEM) subjects.

The context of text production: ICT competence specifications for initial teacher education

After a period of having had a very extensive list of requirements and prescribed technological competences relating to capability in ICT, extending to over a hundred competence statements and 15 pages of text within the overall statement of competence required to be granted Qualified Teacher Status (DfEE, 1998), England moved towards a less detailed and prescriptive framework for assessing the competence in ICT required to be awarded Qualified Teacher Status. Out of 33 "standards" which had to be met in order to pass the course, four related to ICT:

- They must have pass an online "professional skills" test in ICT. The students must demonstrate the ability to make changes to slides in presentation software using a web browser, use email and various functions within email, use a text editor and email, update a spreadsheet, download resources from the internet and register for a newsletter).
- They must know how to use skills in ICT to support their teaching and wider professional activities.
- They must be able to design opportunities for learners to develop their ICT skills.
- They must be able to teach lessons and sequences of lessons across the age

and ability range for which they are trained and in which they use a range of teaching strategies and resources, including e-learning (TDA, 2007).

A later guidance document (TDA, 2009) laid down a list of 12 recommendations for good practice for preparing student teachers to use new technology effectively in their subject teaching (see Appendix 1).

All these initial teacher education competence frameworks had a heavy emphasis on technological capability – the ability to use PowerPoint, the interactive whiteboard, Virtual Learning Environments, e-portfolio software etc. There was no suggestion of differentiation according to subject discipline, and no mention of the question of pedagogical effectiveness – the question of whether the student was able to use new technology to improve teaching and learning in their school subject. None of the competence specifications for initial teacher education courses have contained any reference to training teachers who are able to help pupils to make critical and discerning use of the internet and social media.

The context of practice: The perspective of History teachers and teacher educators

An early development in the use of ICT in English schools arising out of the idea that the main function of computers in schools was to train pupils to use computers was the phenomenon of “curriculum mapping” of ICT, whereby each subject department would be given responsibility for getting all pupils to use a particular ICT application. So; for example, all pupils would at some point use *Excel* in a maths lesson, all language classes would do a word processing exercise at some point, all History classes would do a desktop publishing exercise. In the words of one teacher, “it was like dipping sheep” (Haydn, 2004). Unsurprisingly, most History teachers were not thrilled to give up precious teaching time to do a job that they regarded as the responsibility of the Computer Studies department. Like most teachers, their main interest in new technology was whether it could do anything that would help them teach their subject more effectively. As Walsh (2004) pointed out, the facility to “cut and paste”, to save things on a memory stick, and to link to “impact resources” on the internet, were to prove much stronger incentives to using new technology. A series of articles and special editions of *Teaching History*, the main professional journal for History teachers, helped to spread ideas about “good practice”, and the possibilities offered by new technology, and a number of teacher or teacher educator “pioneers” provided a plethora of

ideas about how to use ICT to improve teaching and learning in History. An OECD study of the ways in which teacher education providers attempted to get student teachers to be able to use ICT effectively in their subject teaching found that many tutors and teachers who were acknowledged as being “expert” in their use of new technology had reservation about some of the expensive applications that had elicited the interest and enthusiasm of policy makers. Several experienced and accomplished tutors noted the pressures to keep up with “the latest thing” in new technology, whether it be interactive whiteboards, response software, or e-portfolio software (OECD, 2010). The pressure for the provision of “one-to-one” tablet computers has also been seen as another example of “hyped” claims for the use of ICT by some researchers (see, for example, Convery, 2009).

As early as 2008 – well before current concerns about fake news, Walsh (2008), a leading figure in History education in England, was arguing that information literacy, particularly in relation to internet sources, should be a major concern for History educators. The following extracts are from interviews with 14 year olds, asked about the provenance of the sources they used for an internet enquiry:

- *I think it was a site called Wikipedia.*
- *Can't remember, I just printed it off.*
- *I can't remember, it came up with different ones.*
- *I think it was Wikipedia.*
- *I looked up Adolf Hitler recently and I think that was Heinemann.*
- *I have no idea.*
- *I Googled it (Walsh, 2008:5).*

In a more recent publication, Walsh (2017) argues that although many pupils use the internet a lot in their study of History, they do not use it well, and often do not go beyond a simple “retrieval culture”, whereby they simply find and use the first results of a Google search, often in an uncritical and unthinking way. He points to “the challenge of students’ almost unlimited access to information and a general unpreparedness to use it effectively’, arguing that

History teachers have a vitally important role to play in this area. By avoiding generic ‘go and find out’ approaches and focusing on the specific issues posed by specific resources, they can help to bring some of the discipline of the historian and hopefully make students better users of the web (Walsh, 2017:258).

As the sections above hopefully demonstrate, there is a considerable difference between the ideas of policymakers about the role that new technology should play in schools, the demands of competence specifications for initial teacher education, and the ideas of practising History teachers and teacher educators.

The next section of the papers focuses on recent research findings about deficits in digital literacy amongst young people (12-15 year olds) in England.

Digital literacy in England

Digital literacy is here defined as the ability to make a reasonably accurate and well-founded estimation of the reliability and truthfulness of information derived from the internet and social media.

The available evidence supports Walsh's concern that many young people are not accomplished evaluators of the reliability of internet and social media sources.

The information literacy of young people, has not improved with the widening access to technology: in fact, their apparent facility with computers disguises some worrying problems.... Internet research shows that the speed of young people's web searching means that little time is spent in evaluating information, either for relevance, accuracy or authority (Joint Information Systems Committee/British Library, 2006:23).

More recently, an Office for Communications survey found that "Over three in ten 12-15s year olds (32%) believe that if a search engine lists information then it must be truthful, and one in seven (15%) don't consider the veracity of results" (Ofcom, 2013:105).

Given the sophistication of the ways in which information about the past and the present can be distorted and manipulated, these findings raise important concerns for the health of liberal democracies, and has implications for the ways in which History as a school subject might contribute to the civic literacy of young people.

The limitations of "Our island story" models of History teaching

In England, as in many other countries, there has been strong political support for a form of History teaching and learning that focuses on transmitting a positive and congratulatory progress narrative of the national past which is it hoped, will promote social cohesion and harmony. In England, the "shorthand" for this is the transmission of what is termed "Our island story".

In the words of recent Secretary of State for Education, Michael Gove:

There is no better way of building a modern, inclusive patriotism than by teaching all British citizens to take pride in this country's historic achievements. Which is why the next Conservative Government will ensure the curriculum teaches the proper narrative of British History - so that every Briton can take pride in this nation (Gove, 2010:4-5).

This idea of school history extended to teaching a positive view of the influence of the British Empire, and other aspects of Britain's past:

Instead of being taught about Magna Carta, the Glorious Revolution and the heroic role of the Royal Navy in putting down slavery, our children are either taught to put Britain in the dock or they remain in ignorance of our island story. That is morally wrong, culturally self-defeating, and we would put it right (Gove, 2008: paragraph 9).

This vision of school history faces two problems. First, as Gilbert has pointed out, the idea that national problems of equity, well-being and social justice have been eliminated after the march through history towards a perfect democracy, unblemished prosperity and social harmony is difficult to sustain given contemporary realities in most countries (Gilbert, 1984). Second, the attempt to present an unblemished and celebratory version of the national past is almost certainly doomed to failure precisely because of the growing role of the internet and social media as a source of information to young people. More than ever before, people get their knowledge of the past and the present from outside the History classroom, and they will inevitably find out at some point via the internet and social media that, for example, not all historians thought that the British Empire was unequivocally “a good thing” for all concerned, and that they have been misled by heroic and unproblematic stories of the national past. The continuing and misguided political obsession with a school History curriculum based around positive renderings of the national past (see, for example, Berger, 2017; Carretero, 2017), is a doomed project given the recent revolution in the way that information is shared digitally.

Conclusion

Given the exponential rise in the reach of social media, and the proliferation of “bad history” in society, the ability to handle information (about the past and the present) intelligently and discerningly is more than ever before, an essential component of a historical education relevant to life in the twenty first century.

Given the widespread public availability of “bad history” it is important that young people are taught/equipped to discern between good and bad history. The most intelligent way forward towards this aim is not to “shield” young people from bad history, but to show them examples and show them “how it is done” – how information about the past can be manipulated and distorted in very sophisticated and subtle ways. The internet provides some very good examples of “bad history” which enable History teachers to spell out what makes representations/interpretations of the past “good” or “bad”. (And social media makes it easy to share examples).

This is important for the health and well-being of democratic societies, because as the previous section attempted to demonstrate, there are currently (certainly in England, but probably in other countries as well), substantial deficits in the digital and information literacy of young people. The fact that many people are “easily led” is an important issue in History:

Among the most remarkable and least studied aspects of world history are the many examples of how easily led human beings can be... We may now claim to be more sophisticated and less easily manipulated than our ancestors, but there is little evidence of this. From the awesome ceremonials round Stonehenge or the temple of Karnak right through to the Romans, the Crusades, Napoleon, Hitler, Kennedy or Yestsin the ability to deploy propaganda skills has been one of the major determinants of historical direction (Thomson, 1999: preface).

So what can History teachers do to address the problem of “fake news”, and the sophisticated and unscrupulous ways in which politicians, organisations and journalists attempt to distort and manipulate the past for present day purposes? In addition to showing pupils examples of good and bad history and explaining the criteria and hallmarks of both, and getting pupils to understand how information about the past (and the present) can be distorted and manipulated for unethical purposes, teaching about “provenance” needs to be expanded and updated to teach pupils about terms such as “astroturfing”, “blackhatting”, “domain authority”, “reverse searching”, and “trolling”. (An excellent summary of “astroturfing” – what it is and why it matters is Bienkov, 2012). Another crucially important resource is the recent Stanford History Education Group research on Civic Literacy, which explains the mistakes that internet users often make in attributing authority to internet sources, and the techniques that “expert” internet users deploy to make accurate judgements on the reliability of web sources (Wineburg, 2015; Wineburg & McGrew, 2016). In a wide ranging discussion of what he terms “participatory propaganda” - fake news sites, media bubbles, clickbait, Macedonian news

factories, astroturfing – Caulfield argues that “The web is really delivering on its potential to be the biggest misinformation engine in history.... But the web also has the potential to be the best fact checking resource ever devised” (Caulfield, 2016, n.p.). However, this potential will only be realised if young people acquire the information literacy skills which Wineburg and McGrew (2016) describe. Given the scale and importance of the problem of “fake news”, one of the most important responsibilities of the History teacher is in helping pupils to be able to “filter” information from digital sources, so that they become mature, autonomous and adroit use of information from digital sources, and become accomplished in making judgements on the reliability and trustworthiness of information from a range of sources, including information on the internet, social media, television and newspapers.

Of course, there is more to “being good at ICT as a History teacher” than just being able to induct young people into intelligent use of the internet and social media. It is still quite useful if History teachers and teacher educators are reasonably sound “technically”, in the sense of being relaxed and reasonably adept at working out how to use new applications and fix “glitches”/minor or straightforward technical problems. History teachers ought to be knowledgeable and up to date in their awareness of the range of ICT applications and programs which can be used to enhance teaching and learning in History. It can help to motivate and engage learners if History teachers are accomplished in their use of the interactive whiteboard or PowerPoint. Walsh (2004) argues that one of the most important affordances of the internet is the facility it offers to build up really good ‘collections’ of powerful impact resources on a wide range of topics and that teachers are able to deploy these resources to construct well designed and intellectually rigorous pupil tasks and enquiries using ICT. Recent developments in social media mean that it is also useful if History teachers are able to make good use of ICT (websites, discussion groups, Blogs, Twitter etc) to develop their use of ICT in History by being a proactive and diligent part of the “community of practice” of History teachers in the field of ICT and are able to get pupils to use ICT to learn History outside taught sessions.

But none of these attributes, useful though they are, are anything like as important as the development of History teachers who are able to expertly educate young people about the reliability of information on the internet and on social media platforms.

Aldrich (2008), and Tosh (2009), amongst others, have argued that the aims and purposes of History education might shift in the light of present day concerns and exigencies. It could be argued that the revolution in information technology over the past decade necessitates some degree of reappraisal of aims and purposes, and of the ways in which History educators approach the use of new technology in the History classroom. In a world which has rapidly descended into a “post-truth”, “alt-facts” and “fake news” condition because of the influence of the internet and social media, and the ways in which they operate, the development of young people’s digital and information literacy has become perhaps the biggest responsibility that History teachers face in the world today.

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Appendix 1: “Characteristics for the provision and use of ICT that all teacher training providers should be aiming to attain” (2009:60-61). TDA, ITTE, BECTa, London: TDA.

(Available at <https://www.oecd.org/edu/ceri/45046837.pdf>)

1. All trainees have personal access to mobile computing and are able to access and transfer data between their placement school(s), their home and their training centre.
2. Trainees and trainers are offered opportunities to use a range of digital multimedia technology, e.g. subject and phase specific hardware and software.
3. The training provider is proactive in ensuring that the trainee has access to, and training in, the use of interactive whiteboards.
4. The training provider is proactive in ensuring that a trainee has access to whatever VLE is available, (e.g. school, local authority, Regional Broadband Consortium and ITT provider) when the trainee is on a school placement.
5. The training provider allows access to a range of web-based applications and also wireless technologies and infrastructure that support the needs of ITT, e.g. wikis; social bookmarking.
6. E-based support is an integral part of the provider’s training programme and all documentation and materials are available online.
7. The training provider is proactive in ensuring that trainees have opportunities to make up for any poor or mediocre experience they have had in using ICT during their school placement(s), e.g. to visit schools that make innovative use of ICT.
8. Where appropriate, trainers and trainees have opportunities and are encouraged and assisted in developing a professional level e-portfolio.
9. Trainees have opportunities to research into innovative use of ICT.
10. There is an integrated approach to the professional development of teacher trainers in the use of ICT in teaching and learning which is reviewed on an annual basis. This approach is preferably modelled by ITT trainers.
11. The training provider is to have regular, effective and productive links with other training providers on ICT issues across all phases and subjects.
12. There is an integrated approach to e-safety training that is not limited to the classroom but includes the acceptable and professional use of ICT

STUDENT PROTEST AND THE CULTURE OF VIOLENCE AT AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES: AN INHERITED IDEOLOGICAL TRAIT

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Abstract

Since the advent of independence in African countries, education generally focused on transforming these nations and redressing the ills of colonialism. Education in countries like Ghana, and Kenya, amongst others aimed at redressing the colonial legacy by creating a new world order marked by equality, mutual benefits and participation. However, this drive for equality, mutual benefits and participation has been beset by several challenges, ranging from access to funding. The recent and most devastating challenge has been the wave of violent student protests that have swept across African universities over the past decade. These protests led to the destruction of university structures and public property, as well as disruption of educational processes. While the reasons for these protests have been different in different countries, they all have become violent. This article argues that the culture of violence exhibited by students and their advocates is an inherited ideological trait that is gradually manifesting itself among students. In support of this argument, student protest is examined in the five regions of Africa; North, South, East, Central and West, spanning more than 20 different nations. The article concludes that because the culture of violence is an inherited one, the process will continue unless urgent steps are taken to ensure transformation and decolonisation. It also argues that universities need to create environments where students are comfortable to learn, thereby eradicating the need for protest.

Keywords: Student protest; Violence; Africa; Universities; Ideological trait; Genopolitics; South Africa.

Introduction

Student protest in Africa and elsewhere in the world is not a new phenomenon. On the African continent, widespread student activism arose in the early 1940s as African nationalism took different directions in the struggle for independence and took effective root after independence. Balsvik (1998) argues that students played a vital role in the second fight for liberation in Africa, that of democratisation. Adding to this, Radina (2013) notes that

student protest played a prominent role in fighting racial segregation and discrimination in most parts of the world. In the United States of America, there have been several violent students protest in which students demanded for basic rights or necessities like the Harvard University in protest of 1766 christened the “Butter Rebellion”, the Fisk University student protest of 1924-1925, the Berkeley student protest of 1964-1965, the Columbia University protests of 1968, and the Deaf President Now (DPN) protest of 1988 at Gallaudet University. These protests demonstrated how violent student protest can be regardless of the cause (Weiland *et al.*, 2013). In Canada, the situation has not been any different; the 2004 and 2012 student protests proved that no matter what students are protesting for or against, incidents of violence are bound to occur (Giroux, 2013). According to Bellei *et al.* (2014) and Kubal and Fisher (2016), in 2011 students in Chile staged a seven months long protest which saw several violent confrontations with the forces of law and order although it eventually led to a change in the public education agenda. In France, student protest was not only violent but became bloody in what has been christened “Bloody Monday”. In 1968 France was on the verge of a total revolt and on May 6, 1968, the violence took another direction with 422 students arrested and 345 policemen injured. The next day, students outsmarted the police and barricaded the road and continued their protest (Duhan, 2013). The Velvet Revolution of 1989 in former Czechoslovakia which was predominantly a peaceful demonstration became violent when students began to protest. On November 17 and 18 1989 students demonstrating in Prague clashed with security forces and they were brutally suppressed with hundreds of students injured (Kurtz, 2008). In China, the student protest had been gathering momentum since 1986 and reached its peak in 1989 amidst nationwide protest in China. The Tiananmen Square Massacre of June 4 1989 saw the killing of tens of students who alongside others attempted to block the military’s advance towards Tiananmen Square (Kim, 2008). Although these instances of violent student protest across the world started for different reasons and took different directions, they had one thing in common, violence.

In Africa, since the 1960s, there have been waves of student protest in almost all African nations in response to social, economic, cultural, political, and personal injustice (Fomunyam & Rahming, 2017). Teferra and Altbachl (2004) observe that these protests have been triggered by poor student services, delayed receipt of stipends (where they are offered) and the termination of student benefits. Although the protests have taken different forms (Amutabi,

2002), most have been violent. The cases of South Africa, Cameroon, Nigeria, Kenya, Egypt, and Tunisia amongst others are practical examples of violent student protest that led to the death and imprisonment of some individuals. Federici and Caffentzis (2000:140) state that “there were over a total of 110 reported student protests in Africa between the years 1990 and 1998 and because of the violent nature of these strikes, government responses to student protests were ‘inhuman’, ‘brutal’, and ‘excessively cruel’”.

Konings (2002) adds that the wave of political liberation in Africa that began in the 1980s led to an unprecedented wave of student protest in universities across West and Central Africa. Students were at the forefront of struggles for political liberalisation, and sometimes received support from secondary school students, their teachers, and other professional groups. Kohstall (2015) argues that student protests in Egypt and Morocco were an integral part of the Arab uprisings in 2011. Dissatisfaction with universities’ social policies and authoritarian regimes led to violent protests and many deaths. David (2013) further notes that, violent student protests in Nigeria over the past 30 years have led to diverse changes in the educational and political landscape of the nation. According to Gerbaudo (2015), protest avatars have emerged; people portray pictures or images of those who died to demonstrate their support for what they died advocating for.

Students have damaged property, destroyed university structures, and even attacked one another (as was the case in Cameroon) (Konings, 2002). When this happens, most governments respond by deploying forces of law and order and the violence ensues often leaving some students and law enforcement officers’ death or injured. The causes or reasons for such violent behaviour can be understood from different perspectives. This paper is an attempt to explain this phenomenon as an inherited ideological trait. This is not to say that this is the only reason for the culture of violence in student protest. It is rather a single attempt to explain the phenomenon on the African continent. To this effect, this article is an exploration of student protest and the culture of violence at African universities as an inherited ideological trait. To effectively do this, it is vital to discuss the African geopolitical landscape, the ideological trait, and the concept of genopolitics.

African geopolitical landscape

The history of Africa is a complex one with almost the whole continent, except for Ethiopia and Liberia, having been colonised by European powers.

From the late 1500s to early 1600, the Portuguese began exploring the coast of Africa and other European powers followed (Asante, 2014). The scramble for Africa officially began during the 1800s, which led to the Berlin West African conference of 1884 (where Europeans attempted to divide Africa amongst themselves) and eventually the colonisation of Africa, although other nations like South Africa were colonised before this period. Bening (2014) opines that there was strong resistance to colonial rule in Africa, before the First World War, although the colonizers suppressed such with ease in most cases. The struggle for independence in Africa began following the formation of the United Nations (UN) at the end of the Second World War (Njoh & Bigon, 2015). This struggle took different directions in different African nations. For some, independence was peacefully negotiated, while for others it was the bloodiest battle ever witnessed in Africa. Examples of the latter include the Algerian war of independence led by the National Liberation Front and the Cameroonian war of independence led by the Union of the Peoples of Cameroon (DeLancey *et al.*, 2010). Nonetheless, across the continent, some form of armed conflict existed between the colonial masters and the colonised prior to independence (Kovač, 2016). Kovač (2016) notes that resistance to colonial rule was mainly driven by the philosophical 'ideal' of Marxism. This ideology identifies two classes of people in society, the oppressed and the oppressor. The colonial masters were seen as the oppressors while the masses were identified as the oppressed.

In the wake of independence, a wave of disillusionment swept across African nations because most citizens believed that their expectations had not been fulfilled (Isaacman, 1990; Malila & Garman, 2016). The African elite that assumed power was regarded as an extension of the Europeans, especially since many had studied in Europe and America. As a result of such disillusionment, citizens in different nations started protesting as a way of demanding better socio-political amenities and realities. In different nations, such demand for improved socio-political conditions took different directions while some were protesting, others experienced waves of revolutions, coup d'états and civil wars. Practical examples include the Union de Population Camerounaise (UPC) revolts in Cameroon in the 1960s and 1970s, the Biafran civil war in Nigeria and the Katanga secession in Congo. Between 1960 and 1969 there were a total of 21 coup d'états in Africa (Isaacman, 1990). The number of revolutions and protest was exacerbated by the economic crisis that plagued Africa in the 1980s. In the late eighties and early nineties another wave of revolutions occurred across the continent, giving birth to what is commonly

referred to as democratic Africa (Zeilig & Dwyer, 2012) or multi-party politics as in South Africa, Cameroon, Mozambique, Angola, and Nigeria.

Therefore, since the time of colonisation, African nations have been struggling to liberate themselves from one form of bondage or another. African nations have a history of resistance and this history has repeated itself repeatedly whenever socio-economic or socio-political conditions within such nations were not encouraging. Most Africans that are part of the proletariat see themselves as being oppressed by the superstructure and desire freedom and this desire amongst other things through community organisations has led to the creation of “socio-political entities, with their own rules, forms of organisation and internal hierarchies, constituting a node of resistance and defiance against state domination” (Cheru, 2002:48). To further clarify this, it is vital to look at ideology and the predominant ideological construct which informs protest or resistance.

Ideology

Marx and Engels (1980) maintain that ideology is the production of ideas, conceptions, and consciousness. It refers to all that people say, imagine and conceive about life. Abercrombie *et al.* (2012) citing Marx and Engels (1980), see ideology as the superstructure of a civilisation or the conventions and culture that make up the dominant ideas of a society. Marx and Engels (1980:64) argue that the:

... ruling ideas of a given epoch are, however, those of the ruling class, the ruling ideas are nothing more than the ideal expression of the dominant material relationships or ideas, hence of the relationships which make the one class the ruling one, therefore, the ideas of their dominance.

Žižek (1999) maintains that ideology is not an illusion, or a mistaken or distorted representation of society, and is not necessarily false. Rather, it can be true and quite accurate, since what really matters is not the asserted content as such, but the way this content is related to the subjective position implied by its own process of enunciation. Žižek (1999) adds that ideology is a complex web of ideas (theories, convictions, beliefs, and argumentative procedures), a doctrine, a composite of ideas, beliefs, and concepts that aims to convince us of its truth, yet serves unavowed power interests. These definitions indicate that ideology is not innocent, but aims at serving a particular interest or purpose.

According to Magzan (2009), Marxism as propounded by Karl Marx regards ideology as a false consciousness. He sees it as a false consciousness because society is stratified into different groups or classes and a person's membership of a group causes him or her to see and experience the world through the lens of that group or class. As such, it is almost impossible for an individual member of a group or class to form a conception of the world because he or she only sees the world through a tiny lens. For Marx, therefore, ideology shapes the way we think and see the world. Members of different social classes are taught and brought up to think and see the world through a lens that is appropriate for that class. Marx refers to this as the social construction of reality that is largely shaped by the social world we live in. If one were to change one's class, one would perceive reality differently. Thus, Marxism propounds that it is often difficult to break free from the grip of the superstructure because its established institutions of socialisation such as schools, churches and others indirectly ensure the continuity of the hegemony (Magzan, 2009). Ideology prevents people from understanding the socio-economic realities in their society which can help them change class, thereby creating a new reality which becomes the core of their lives. This new reality is a false consciousness which produces psychologically satisfying symbols and brings assumed order to the world.

In the contemporary world where poverty and misery are on the increase as well as the prices of basic commodities, students find it difficult to cope with the circumstances in which they find themselves. Some students blame their forebears for this, while others choose to create their own pathways. Better still, some of them choose to follow the example of their forebears, striving to resist the same forces their forefathers resisted for centuries. While colonialism is said to have ended in Africa, neo-colonialism has taken over, and many African youths still feel colonised. The wave of revolts in Africa in the eighties and nineties brought about by several factors like poor service delivery in Nigeria, economic crisis in Cameroon, amongst others remain prevalent, which explains the wave of student protest across the continent in recent times. For this to be theorised more clearly, a regional approach is adopted, with different student protest action in different nations within different regions (North, South, East, West, Central Africa) discussed alongside its causes and what occurred in the past. But before that, it is vital to explore the lens of geopolitics and its baseline arguments

Genopolitics

Genopolitics as an area of inquiry came to the forefront in scientific research with the publication of Eaves and Eysenck (1974) article on how genetics influences social attitude and behaviour. Martin *et al.* (1986) picked up the trend 12 years later arguing that social attitudes are transmitted from one person to another genetically. Eaves *et al.* (1989) further enhance this discourse on how genetics enhance political behaviour. Biuso (2008) argues that the term genopolitics was originally coined by James Fowler in 2005 to describe how genetics shape political behaviour. Hatemi and McDermott (2012b) went further to argue that genetics doesn't only shape political behaviour, it also shaped or determined violence in politics. Hatemi and McDermott (2012a: 526) argue that research in genopolitics indicated that:

... genetic influences could be statistically equated across populations and measures. This suggests that the relative importance of genetic influences remains common across cultures, but the relative influence of family and personal environments varies greatly across societies, time, and measures in explaining the variance in attitudes.

This goes a long way to suggest that genes do not directly affect specific attitudes, but rather genetic propensity influences the disposition and operation of an emotive condition, which then manifests toward many targets, including strangers and out-groups, when elicited. Smith *et al.* (2011) trace the different ways by which genetics could ultimately connect to political attitudes and suggest that central to this connection are chronic dispositional preferences for mass-scale social rules, order, and conduct which they label as political ideology. They further argue that heritability of specific issue attitudes could be the result of the heritability of general orientations toward bedrock principles. As such there is a link between genetics and ideology as well as the ideological dispositions of young adults and their parents.

The idea that ideology or political behaviour is inherited is further buttressed by Hatemi *et al.* (2014) in their study comprising of more than 12,000 participants brought together through nine different studies, conducted in five democracies, and sampled over the course of four decades. They emphatically argue that genetic factors play a role in the formation of political ideology, regardless of how ideology is measured, the era, or the population sampled. They present results from one of the first genome-wide association studies on political ideology using data from three samples: a 1990 Australian sample involving 6,894 individuals from 3,516 families; a 2008 Australian sample of 1,160 related individuals from 635 families and a 2010 Swedish sample

involving 3,334 individuals from 2,607 families. And these results indicate that political ideology constitutes a fundamental aspect of one's genetically informed psychological disposition.

Genopolitics as an area of inquiry has not gone without criticism. Charney and English (2012) argue that the problem with genopolitics is that a large set of genes, the transcriptional activity of which is influenced by the environment and each other's functional products, is incompatible with the expectation that two genes could predict political behaviour. They add that proteins encoded by at least 266 genes are involved in variation in aggression in fruit flies, yet at the same time, the heritability of aggression is less than ~ 0.1 because of the high level of environmental variance (even though the researchers assumed the environments were identical). They conclude that "we have the strongest reasons to doubt that a handful of candidate genes will provide a meaningful key to understanding differences in voting behaviour, political ideology, or attitudes toward abortion" (p. 30). In response to this criticism, Fowler and Dawes (2013) argue that genopolitics has already made a lasting contribution to the field of political science and advancing the field requires conducting open empirical studies that lay out the advantages and disadvantages of the methods used to measure the world. Other strong critics of genopolitics are Joseph (2010) and Shultziner (2013). Joseph (2010) posits that political scientists have claimed that differences in political orientation and behaviour have an important genetic basis. However he goes further to refute this claim by arguing that the main theoretical assumption of the findings of the research is premised on the idea that monozygotic and dizygotic of twin pairs experience equal environments. This to him is untenable, as such the results of twin studies can be completely explained by non-genetic factors. He questions the methodology used in arriving at such findings. Shultziner (2013) on the other hand, argues that the results of twin studies in political science that supposedly disclose a genetic basis for political traits, is not justified. This is because identical twins tend to be more alike than non-identical twins. As such the former are more similarly affected by the same environmental conditions, but the content of those greater trait similarities is nevertheless completely malleable and determined by particular environments. As such the twin studies method, thus can neither prove nor refute the argument for a genetic basis of political traits. Although Joseph and Shultziner are both critics of genopolitics, they present contradictory ideas. Joseph argues that the premise that twins experience equal environments is untenable, while Shultziner argues that identical twins experience or are affected by the same

environmental conditions. To Shultziner twin students can neither refute nor prove genetic basis. While the disagreement between the two is part of the gap genopolitics is trying to fill, genopolitics is not entirely based on twin studies. Hatemi and McDermott (2012a) used several households with data generated over a period of forty (40) years, spanning over five nations. The fact that the findings of their study was in favour of genopolitics and that this study is yet to be disproved empirical dictates the validity of its findings. Furthermore, the critics of genopolitics do reject the existence of such genes but rather debate its influence. While genes can be shaped by environmental factors, the existence of the gene itself cannot be questioned since Shultziner takes about its supposed influence having other explanations. In defence of genopolitics, therefore studies like Hatemi *et al.* (2014), Kurbatova (2017) and Beattie (2017) amongst others all conducted after these criticism revalidate the claim that genetics influence political behaviour. Beattie (2017:10) concludes his study with the view that “like most traits, political ideology is produced by the complex interplay of genetic and (social/informational) environmental influences”. Such criticisms rather than void the validity of the field, point to different pathways or pitfalls which need to be strengthened and which presently is being addressed, for all fields or areas of inquiry like qualitative research have once suffered serious criticism. To this effect, employing genopolitics as a lens within this study is a step in the right direction because the argument here is not the degree of influence of genes which sociobiologist and evolutionists are still busy with, but rather that there is an influence. The application of this lens to explain the culture of violence in student protest in African universities is not generalising or going beyond the boundaries articulated by Eaves and Eysenck (1974) but rather seeking an understanding in line with Hatemi and McDermott (2012a), Eaves *et al.* (1989), Martin *et al.* (1986), Maxfield and Widom (1996), Smith *et al.* (2011) and Charney and English (2012). This would be done by exploring the phenomenon in the five regions of Africa; North, West, Central, East and South Africa.

North Africa

North Africa is a made up of seven nations and a disputed territory, Western Sahara. The majority of its inhabitants speak Arabic (Halpern, 2015). In the past, these nations experienced different types of conflicts, both violent and peaceful. The whole of northern Africa was colonised by the British and French and the indigenous peoples protested violently to gain their independence.

As noted earlier, the most striking struggle was the revolt in Algeria. Zeleza (2012) argues that in Northern Africa in particular and Africa in general, there were two major types of war or conflict. The first involved the use of both guerrilla and conventional approaches to deal with opposing forces. Well-established or centralized organisations and states adopted conventional approaches and, if defeated, embarked on guerrilla warfare. These revolutions in the 1950s and 1960s in places like Egypt, Algeria, and Libya, which led to Gaddafi's rise to power, as well as Morocco, Tunisia and Sudan (Sudan was yet to be divided into Sudan and South Sudan and Western Sahara had yet to be established) all aimed to improve the socio-economic lot of the people in a society where they were denied their basic needs. Beissinger *et al.* (2012) argue that there are several reasons for the recent uprisings in North Africa, including poverty, tyranny and exploitation. They add that the African ruling classes or the elite that holds power have enriched themselves and become the targets of envy or rivalry by other elite groups and the youth who want their share of the national cake. These elites have commercialised politics and made it a venture in its own right.

This partially explains why students were part of the Arab Spring which was one of the most violent conflicts Northern Africa has witnessed in recent times. Gorgas (2013) observes that students were an integral part of the revolution due to the scarcity of resources at universities, constant increases in tuition fees, deplorable living conditions and hunger. Anderson (2011) adds that more than 40% of protesters in North Africa during the Arab Spring were students. She adds that the basic expectation that children would grow up, begin to contribute productively to society, and then raise families of their own was not fulfilled for an entire generation of youth in the Arab world trapped in a period that is often referred to as "waithood". Indeed, the revolution in Tunisia was spearheaded by Mohammed Bouazizi, a young newspaper vendor who set himself alight in public in 2010. The violent start to this protest led to bitter battles between the protesters and the forces of law and order. In Egypt, schools were closed and a curfew was declared. Students defied the order and continued to protest. They destroyed government property and took on government forces, as well as those supporting the government. In Libya, Algeria, Sudan and Morocco, student protest took different forms though all involved one form of violence or another (Gerbaudo, 2015; Halpern, 2015). Kohstall (2015) postulates that in February 2011, hundreds of thousands of Moroccans turned out in major cities for what organizers termed a Movement for Change and the protests spawned the February 20 Movement a loosely

organized, leaderless network that subsequently held large demonstrations criticizing Morocco's governance and advocating for political change. Collado (2013) further adds that the protest became violent and security forces then resorted to violence and arrests to disperse the demonstrators, most of whom were students. Amine (2015) concurs and points to the fact that in November 2014, Moroccan police officers in plainclothes arrested 10 students outside the Ibn Tofail University in the city of Kenitra because of the violent nature of the protest. The protest erupted as a result of the increased cost of transportation from student dormitories to school. From the beginning of the academic year, Ibn Tofail University witnessed a series of student protests against the "Al-Karama" company which increased the price of bus tickets. Earlier in the year, in January, a student was killed in clashes with the police at the university when students held a protest against the high cost of food and accommodation.

The situation was no different in South Sudan and Sudan. Hale and Kadoda (2014) state that South Sudan's breakaway from Sudan was partly due to the student demonstrations which took place across the nation. Zambakari (2014) adds that in 2011 students protested at the Red Sea University in Port Sudan due to the mass arrest of Darfuri student leaders; this led students to pledge open support for the Sudan Revolutionary Front. Furthermore, 700 student demonstrators at the University of Khartoum were arrested after a clash with the police, with several killed and many wounded. These students continued to launch violent protests against the economic regulations planned by President Omar Al-Bashir. Riot police used tear gas and batons against the protesters who in turn threw stones at police. On 11 July 2012, Sudanese university students armed with sticks and stones staged one of their largest protests since the unrest began. Lyons (2008) argues that young people are likely to imitate their parents' behaviour either immediately or in the future. This is supported by Smith *et al.* (2011) who maintain that specific attitudes like violence could be the result of the heritability of general orientations toward certain situations in life. In a region like North Africa where violent conflicts have been the order of the day (Egypt's on-going involvement in the Arab-Israeli war, the brutal suppression of protests and revolts in Egypt, Libya, and Tunisia, violent struggles for independence, and constant terrorist attacks), the youth are reproducing or imitating the violent footsteps of their forebears as the way to solve their challenges.

The cycle of violence which students' parents generated or inherited (since they could have inherited this trait from their parents who also had a violent past in the form of the brutal tribal wars fought in Africa, violent wars to resist colonialism, European penetration into the hinterland, and Africa's involvement in the First and Second World War, amongst others) has been inherited by the current generation; this is evident in every mass protest they engage in. Although in some parts of the world people have succeeded to live in peace despite their violent ancestral past like the Norwegians and Danes' peaceful existence despite their Norseman ancestry, this doesn't negate the existence of such genetic traits in them. It simply presupposes the regulation and domination of such traits by environmental factors (Hatemi *et al.*, 2014). In Africa such traits are provoked to manifest itself by socio-economic challenges as well as political instability which has been the cause of these crisis. Mamdani (2003) argued that the 1959 Revolution in Rwanda was the principal cause, amongst others, of the 1994 genocide as without the 1959 Revolution, there would never have been a civil war and without the civil war, the genocide would not have taken place. The ideological imprint of the 1959 Revolution led to the genocide. Consequently, the culture of violence displayed by African students is the result of inherent ideological traits they picked up from their parents. The situation in West and Central Africa further buttresses this argument.

West and Central Africa

West Africa is made up of 17 nations, while Central Africa includes seven. These regions have witnessed violent mass student riots for different reasons in past decades. Omonijo *et al.* (2014) note that there have been several student protests at Nigerian universities, including the Universities of Nsukka, Nigeria, Lagos, Ilorin, Ibadan, Jos and Port Harcourt. This led to the temporary closure of these universities and the death of several students. Abah and Folarin (2016) state that students at the University of Lagos shut down the campus on 6 and 7 April during protests against the lack of basic amenities. They chased students from hostels, mounted barriers at the university gates and clashed with police until the Senate was forced to close the institution to allow the situation to normalise. Abah and Folarin (2016:2) further add that:

Senate noted that the problem of poor municipal services is a national issue that governments at both state and federal levels are addressing. However, in order to forestall a further breakdown of law and order on campus, Senate resolved to take the following decisions until the situation normalises: All academic activities on campus are hereby suspended with immediate effect. The university is therefore

closed with immediate effect. The statement ordered that students living on the campus should vacate their halls of residence, adding that no student should remain in the halls of residence after 10am on Friday, 8th April.

Ugbodaga (2016:1) confirmed the violent nature of student protest when he reported that:

Activities at the University of Ibadan (UI), were paralysed this morning (April 26, 2016) as thousands of students went on the rampage and shut down the school over management's victimization of a student who took part in a recent protest. The students, who stormed the school's main gate early in the morning shut it down immediately. They were also angry that power supply in the institution is still very epileptic while there is no water in the hostels. The students, who were chanting 'aluta' songs, dared security men attached to the gate to do something stupid as they were ready to descend on any of them. They vowed that the school gate would remain shut until the school's management reversed its decision...

As noted earlier, it is clear that students at African universities have inherited the culture of violence generated by the previous generation during the colonial era or the fight for independence. This is confirmed by the situation in Ivory Coast where students have been protesting over a lack of housing. The violent nature of the strike caused the government to shut down the university for two years; 18 months after it reopened, the strike began again (MacGregor, 2014). Today's youth are reproducing Ivory Coast's violent past, encapsulated in 33 years of repressive rule by Félix Houphouët-Boigny, the numerous coup d'états after his death, and civil wars, amongst others. Lyons *et al.* (2011) argue that when people observe a causal irrelevant action performed by those they look up to, they revise their implicit understanding of the causal relations behind the demonstration and, consequently, interpret the action as causally relevant. This leads them to faithfully reproduce or model such behaviour even in cases where the rest of the world regards it as unnecessary or irrelevant. Fomunyan and Rahming (2017) cite the reaction of a lecturer to the resignation of the German Chancellor on the grounds of academic plagiarism. The lecturer pointed out that "Even their high-powered leaders do it over there, so why is it a big deal here?" (p. 1). This affirms that people are generally uncritical of the actions of those they look up to, as a result, they model such behaviour. The violence manifested by students at African universities is therefore the result of an inherited ideological trait which unflinchingly manifests in the lives of those who inherited it.

Karmo (2016) notes that students at the University of Liberia gathered at the entrance of the Capitol Building to protest against a proposal to increase tuition fees from \$175LD (approximately US\$2) to US\$4.00. The students petitioned

lawmakers to intervene and asked them to increase the University's funding to US\$29 million in order to enable it to meet its growth and development agenda. They destroyed public property and fought with the police. MacGregor (2011) states that the government of Togo shut down the University of Lomé after two days of continuous student protest against the introduction of educational reforms anchored on the Bologna process, and the constant presence of security forces on the University campus to curb student violence. Nine students were injured, two seriously. Furthermore, there was substantial damage to university property. The students demanded the re-introduction of remedial courses and grants as well as a complete halt to the reforms known in French as LMD (licence, master, doctorate) and BMD (bachelors, master's, doctorate) in English for the three, five and eight-year degree levels, a system which has been instituted in Cameroon and other African countries. In shutting down the University, its leadership argued that the demands were "complex" and presented a "real problem"; it was impossible to meet them. The police who were brought in to curb student violence responded with teargas, turning the protest into a battle between students and the police.

On 10 and 11 April 2000, thousands of Gambian students took to the streets to protest against the death of a high school student, who was allegedly tortured by security force members, and the reported rape of a 13-year-old girl by a police officer (British Broadcasting Cooperation, 2000). They gathered at the gate of the Gambia Technical Training Institute to march to the city centre. Police ordered them to disperse as they had no permit to protest but the students refused. The police attempted to disband them using teargas, but the students later regrouped, setting up barricades with burning rubber tires in the streets and throwing stones at the police. Government buildings were attacked, a police station was set on fire and stores were looted. The police retaliated with live ammunition, killing at least 14 students and wounding more than 20 who had to be admitted to hospital, while countless others suffered light wounds (British Broadcasting Cooperation, 2000). Students also boycotted classes at the University of Nouakchott in Mauritania. Police arrested 16 students during clashes between students and police on the campus (Arabic). The national students' union (UNEM) has been a key force in organizing student protest action. The students' demands include quality of life issues (French), but the clashes added other demands to the list: the return of expelled students and "de-militarization" of the campus, etc. As perceived mistreatment by the police becomes one of the protesters' chief complaints, the protests are taking on a self-perpetuating logic.

The Maxfield and Widom (1996) study in the US which canvassed the views of about 900 young people revealed that those who had been abused by their parents or lived with parents or relatives who were violent were more likely to be violent in the future. Thus, children learn by example from their parents or relatives and practice what they learn. They see violence as the only legitimate way to solve challenges. The study thus revealed the transmission of aggressive and violent behaviour from one generation to another. Cameroon is a case in point. Its war of independence against the French was the bloodiest in Africa, comparable only to the Algerian experience. After independence and the plebiscite, post-independence disillusionment led to several waves of protest and revolts against the then president Amadou Ahidjo, led by UPC militants. Their violent suppression, the attempted 1984 coup d'état, and the brutalisation of citizens by the president who has held power for 34 years sparked a series of violent student protests. Konings (2002) points out that between 1990 and 1996 there were a series of violent student demonstrations at the University of Yaounde I in Cameroon which not only caused the death of more than five students but the wanton destruction of property. The university was made ungovernable, forcing the government to split it into two; Yaounde I and II. The University of Buea was also created to depopulate the university and reduce the chances of student protest. Chimanikire (2009) adds that in 2003, students at the University of Buea took to the streets to protest against deplorable living conditions in the university environment. The strike soon became violent, leading to police intervention and the eventual deposition of the governor of the region where the university is located. About two weeks later students caught and burnt alive an alleged bandit who was amongst those making the university environment deplorable. In 2005, 2006 and 2008 students at this university launched several protests, leaving six dead and hundreds wounded and imprisoned. In 2005 and 2006 the administrative building at the University of Buea was destroyed as were several cars, police vans and an ambulance. In 2013, the violence was repeated and would have gotten out of hand had it not been for brutal police intervention. Since October 2016 there have been no school in the anglophone regions of Cameroon due to student protest and constant clashes with the police (Fomunyam, 2017).

Smith *et al.* (2012), Bell *et al.* (2009) and Hatemi and McDermott (2012a) argue that behavioural genetics has scientifically proven that political ideologies, and political or attitudinal orientation are inherited. Smith *et al.* (2012) further note that, while no specific gene for a preference or ideological

orientation exists, biological systems built by genes play an important role in mediating political attitudes. Genetically speaking, political attitudes (which deal with the will to act in a particular way as well as the desire to make certain choices) are inherited. The culture of violence is one such ideological trait inherited by African students and they are demonstrating that this is the case. This is not peculiar to North, West or Central Africa, but also occurs in South and East Africa.

South and East Africa

Southern Africa is no exception to violent student protest. Prosser and Sitaram (2014) argue that the student protests which reached their peak in 1990 in Swaziland and have since continued, often started as a “disorganised demonstration against campus issues such as poor food” (p. 12) but soon turned into violent demands for democratic reform. The violence that ensued after soldiers swept through university campuses will always be a sensitive subject with government. The report of the commission set up to investigate the violence was kept secret for years, with a bowdlerized version finally released to the public in 1997. Two of the students who were seriously injured sued the government for damages, and their cases were settled out of court. In 2011 another violent student strike broke out in Mbabane where students protesting against the closure of their university threatened to derail a traditional festival. They tried to breach a police cordon in Ezulwini at the start of the annual Umhlanga or Reed Dance, when thousands of women gather to perform before King Mswati III. This violent confrontation led to the arrest of seven students and several others were injured (Rooney, 2011).

Students at Lesotho’s Limkokwing University have launched on-going protests against what they called bad management and poor services (Khama, 2010). Other grievances include slow internet speed and delays in disbursing their allowances (Khama, 2010). The Moeketsi Pholo Student Representative Council at the University pointed out that, “We have been submitting these issues to our management but nothing has been done to solve our grievances. So, the only option we have is to protest... and instead of solving our problems, the management is threatening us. As such we have no choice but to respond in kind” (Khama, 2010).

Mfula (2016) notes that the University of Zambia and Copperbelt University were closed indefinitely by the Zambian government after student protests against non-payment of allowances turned violent. Scores of students were arrested. Higher Education Minister, Michael Kaingu justified this action in

parliament by stating that, “the decision to close the universities had followed days of destructive protests during which public property was damaged” (Mfula, 2016:1). He added that some students burned tires and used logs to barricade roads, and vehicles were stoned. About 56 students were arrested. The minister appealed to student leaders to ensure that protestors were disciplined and non-violent. Much effort had been made to negotiate with students and persuade them to return to class, but this proved futile. The University of Zambia had assured students that the government was acting on their grievances, but they still resorted to damaging property. Kaingu told parliament that the permanent secretary of the ministry had intervened as soon as protests had begun, to no avail. The minister visited Copperbelt University and “offered to dialogue with students but they refused” (Mfula, 2016:1). Zambian President Edgar Lungu was quoted by the Lusaka Times as saying that the closure of the two universities was “a good lesson for the students” (Lusaka Times, 2016:3)

Lea (2013) notes that modern theories of crime and violence weave social and biological themes together. He adds that at least 100 studies have shown that genes play a role in crime and violence. Genes are ruled by the environment, which can either mute or aggravate violent impulses. While many people that have a genetic tendency towards aggression will never throw a punch, others that lack this tendency could become career criminals depending on the environment in which they find themselves.

In the contemporary period, almost all countries in Africa have been plagued by revolts and protest. South Africa is no exception. The country witnessed violent student protests at almost all its universities. Bawa (2016) posits that the University of Johannesburg alone suffered damages amounting to more than R100 million because of violent protest actions. The violence at South African universities escalated from damaging statues and artwork and confrontations with security staff and police, to the burning of buildings and brutal clashes between student factions. This violence is a legacy of racial discrimination and colonialism, high levels of unemployment and pronounced and increasing income inequality. The protests began at Tshwane University of Technology early last year, when students with outstanding debt were prevented from registering. The financial dilemma in which many students found themselves was exacerbated by the inability of the state loan and bursary agency – the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) – to meet its commitments. The protests spread to other campuses, taking

different forms. Students at three universities in the south were the next to act. At the University of Cape Town, they took issue with the legacy of colonialism, symbolised by the memorial to Cecil John Rhodes, while those at Stellenbosch distributed a powerfully evocative film – “Luister” (Listen) – that documented black students’ daily experiences of racism and discrimination (Hall, 2016). In the on-going protests, some students were arrested and some injured. At the University of Cape Town, protesting students torched vehicles, burned artwork, invaded residences and petrol-bombed the Vice-Chancellor’s office. Eight students were arrested as the police attempted to restore order. Five students were suspended, the University obtained an interdict barring a further 16 from further protest, and charges were laid against the leaders of the RhodesMustFall campaign (Hall, 2016).

The Ministry of Higher Education condemned the burning of a bus at the University of the Witwatersrand, and damage to property and disruption at North-West University. The University of Pretoria planned to close two campuses amidst threats of a shutdown by some students and safety concerns (Badat, 2016). There were violent student protests at Walter Sisulu University, and at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) protests continued on four campuses. As the tensions rose, some protesters resorted to violence, invading residences and residence kitchens; setting up burning barricades; burning portraits and other artwork stolen from residences; general vandalism; and intimidation of members of the campus community.

Matthews *et al.* (2013) aver that violence is inherited from a parent or is acquired from contemporaneous purveyors of violent ideologies. Such violence is learnt independently of the other characteristics of an overall belief system. Badat (2016) concurs and argues that the student protests mirror a number of features of contemporary South African society, including taking to the streets and destroying property.

East Africa has also experienced a wave of violent protests at its universities. Chuka University in Tharaka-Nithi County, Kenya was closed indefinitely as a result of student unrest over disputed student union elections. The police arrested 15 students who were looting shops at the nearby Ndagani market and forcing other businesses to close. Students also set a university bus ablaze amidst other acts of violence (Njeru, 2016). The University of Nairobi was also shut down indefinitely due to three days of student unrest. Students who had been looting and destroying property were asked to vacate the premises. News of the closure caught some students on Lower Kabete Campus off-guard

and they again took to the streets to block roads opposing the move. Nairobi County Police Commander, Japheth Koome reported that eight machetes were found in a student's room on Chiromo Campus. This demonstrates the violent nature of student protest at African universities (Ombati, 2016).

In Burundi, the government closed all universities in April 2015 following student protests against the announcement that the incumbent President, Pierre Nkurunziza, would run for a third term in the presidential elections. The protests soon became violent as the police clashed with students in an attempt to disband them. Widespread demonstrations in the capital, Bujumbura, lasted for more than three weeks. The conflict led to the death of several students and police and dozens of students were arrested (Moore, 2015). Between 2011 and 2015, students at the University of Djibouti took to the streets on several occasions to protest against their grades and the country's poor education system and to prevent the president from seeking a third term. The 2015 protests turned violent. Daniel McCurry, a US citizen living and teaching in Djibouti reported that they "have taken the form of rock throwing, destruction of property, and general mayhem. The police have responded with arrests, tear gas" (Moore, 2015:1). Videos published by anonymous Djiboutian students on YouTube confirm these reports. The most violent confrontations were documented at the University of Djibouti, where only two out of 180 students had passed their exams. The students looted shops in downtown Djibouti City. Within the next few days, students from other universities joined the struggle. The police attempted to disperse them with teargas and students retaliated by throwing stones (Onyango-Obbo, 2015).

Conclusion

Students in Africa have inherited the culture of violence exhibited during the struggle against colonialism. While colonialism is "over", the culture of violence used to fight it has not disappeared. Rather, it is increasingly manifesting itself across the African continent. At the 2016 Strini Moodley Memorial Lecture held at UKZN delivered by the then University of the Free State Vice-Chancellor, Professor Jonathan Jansen, several students accused him and his counterpart at UKZN of abandoning the struggle for liberation and transformation and joining hands with the oppressors. At the same event, a student pointed out that when they (students) protest, burn buildings and destroy property, they consider it a victory. Violence has been used by

generations in Africa as a way of resolving conflicts. While this is a single incident and does not necessarily represent the views of students across the continent, the fact that these students were representing a student organisation attests to the culture of violence they have inherited that is expressed in all facets of their lives.

African universities from Cape Town to Cairo are gradually becoming battle grounds where students wage war against one challenge or another in the fight for liberation. For this inherited ideological trait to be challenged and unpacked, different forms of engagement are required on different pathways for protest. Secondly, African universities need to create a culture to cater for student needs. Finally, when protests do occur, they should be addressed immediately, so as to reduce the potential for violent manifestations. The prevailing circumstances on the African continent as well as in African universities have strategically contributed in provoking this ideological trait. To deal with this, African governments and university structures must ensure that the educational landscape at African universities caters effectively for students' needs. Issues such as funding, basic social amenities, school management, and student representative council elections, amongst others, should be managed effectively so as to create the terrain for peaceful co-existence.

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“WORD GENERATION” AND SKILLS AROUND LEARNING AND TEACHING HISTORY

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Abstract

The Word Generation Programme (WordGen), produced by Harvard University Education School in 2006, presents ways of engaging with and improving literacy skills in school going students. WordGen comprises a set of freely available lesson plans, structured to be taught every day throughout the week, that focus on students engagement with material and concepts through processes of discussion, debate, and perspective taking. The materials engage the students’ everyday lives, as well as the knowledge that the unit is intended to teach. As everyday life examples are used, it is possible to imagine a contextual translation from the United States of America, to South Africa. This article explores the possibility of using the materials created by the Strategic Education Research Project (SERP) – who have pioneered the “WordGen” programme – as a basis to create materials for South African classrooms, specifically to teach History for the Intermediate Phase (Grade 4 - 6). In this article I argue that the WordGen lessons engage important skills for learning and teaching History. I outline the skills that are generated when History is taught in a compelling and iterative way and then engage with WordGen concepts and content and with the WordGen material specifically designed to teach History: SoGen. The article considers the case of third year education students at the University of Johannesburg and their responses to the WordGen material. The experiences gained from this translation into a tertiary context indicates that Word Generation may garner similar positive outcomes as those seen in the primary school context.

Keywords: “Word Generation”; History; History teaching; Intermediate Phase; Education students; History skills; Productive talk; Academic language; Veracity.

Introduction

The course SOSHIA 3A, taught at the University of Johannesburg, aims to provide a historical overview at a university level which would allow the students to interact with the discipline of History. SOSHIA 3A, in 2016, comprised 13 students that I taught for one semester. I had one and a half

hours a week to explore historical content and concepts, with these students who would, in one and a half years time, become history teachers. My experience of teaching History¹ to third year students in the programme, “Education for the Intermediate Phase” surfaced several challenges. At the beginning of their third year, these students are two years away from being qualified as teachers, where they would run classrooms of their own. The reality that they have to comfortably conduct classes of their own in the near future is an ongoing concern of education students. As a result, it became clear that the students both desired and required their time in the History classes that I taught to engage them at dual levels. Firstly, it must teach them History: that is, historical content, historical thought, historical enquiry and how to conduct historical research (Keirn & Martin, 2012). Secondly, it needs to engage them as teachers: Why is History important for primary school students? What content will they need to teach? How will they engage the students and approach the subject? (See, among others Stearns, Seixas & Wineburg, 2000; particularly Ashby & Lee, 2000; Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015; Peck & Seixas, 2008).

This brings us to how children think about, and learn, History. There are different approaches to and vast research into historical thought and enquiry in the classroom. Cooper outlines children’s thinking in History, stressing the importance of processes of historical enquiry (Cooper, 2013). She stresses that “progress occurs through: trial and error, discussion, debate, having ideas challenged...” WordGen, pioneered by Harvard School of Education in 2006, focuses on teaching students academic vocabulary through repeated and in depth engagement with the vocabulary and the content contained therein. This occurs through discussion, debate, and perspective taking. Although started for secondary school, the programme has been expanded to primary school, and to include Social Sciences (SoGen). Topics of the 10 day (2 week) lesson plans include: *What is fair? Where do I belong? Should everyone be included? Why should I care?* and *Why do we fight?*

I argue that the (WordGen) materials facilitate children’s thinking in History, can be used to get student teachers to interact with historical knowledge and conduct historical research, and at the same time hold their interest in how they will teach the subject. WordGen materials are useful in the development of some processes of historical enquiry. Some of the processes involved include perspective taking (see next page):

¹ SOSHIA 3A: Social Sciences History for the Intermediate Phase, 2016, University of Johannesburg.

Part C: Taking an Egyptian perspective

Imagine yourself in ancient Egypt. The Nile flood for the past few years has been low, and this year's flood is again dangerously low. Food stocks are so scarce that people grow angry and begin to revolt. They challenge the authority of the local government, marching, not working, and writing revolutionary graffiti on the walls of buildings in the southern city of Aswan. Using what you have learned today about Narmer, Khasekhemwy, Senusret III, and Hatshepsut, put yourself in Egyptian sandals and think about how they might have attempted to end the revolt in Aswan and restore order and stability. Would they act oppressively? Or would they do something else?²

Some of the topics covered in debate and discussion are:

- Were the pharaohs oppressive rulers or great leaders whose actions were justified? (SocSt 6.01);
- Pyramids and Other Monumental Structures: Great Achievements or a Waste of Egypt's Surplus? (SocSt 6.02);
- Should the United States continue to give citizenship as a right of birth, or should it join the majority of developed countries in requiring that at least one parent be a citizen? In addition to providing arguments that support your position, address at least one counter-argument (SocSt 8.03).

Turn and talk

- Why do you think the Dutch and the British thought they were justified in taking land that belonged to others? Do you think that if they had compensated the Africans, it would have been okay? Why or why not? (SocSt 8.06)

WordGen and SoGen are effective in engaging with first and second order historical concepts (Ashby & Lee, 2000). However, the material is lacking in some elements: the processes of enquiry that require engagement with the provenance and reliability of sources, for example, are not in general strengthened by Word Generation materials. In these materials, while historical data is sourced, the provenance of the source does not become part of the lesson. Students are asked to reflect on the data gained from primary sources, and to think about what data gives them a specific perspective. The emphasis is placed on critical thinking and engagement about events of the past, and students understanding the concepts taught in the lesson in both past and present context. This engages the change from “memory-history to

² SocSt unit 6.1, “The pharaohs of ancient Egypt: Oppressors or great leaders?”, SERP 2012 (available at SERP website: http://wordgen.serpmedia.org/social_studies.html, as accessed on 10 July 2017).

disciplinary history” (Bharath & Bertram, 2015:78; Lévesque, 2008). I argue that this engagement promotes skills associated with social, emotional, and cognitive development, outlined by Cooper (Cooper, 2013).

WordGen began their programme with the aim of improving literacy skills of middle and high school students but have since extended the project to encompass primary (in the United States of America system known as elementary) school, as well as the development of materials specifically designed to teach History. This article explores WordGen materials that have been developed as appropriate to both age (intermediate phase learners) and subject (History).

The process of destabilising unilinear “fact” (while paying attention to factual sources) to allow for multiple histories can be presented and explored through the WordGen materials. How do people come to have different opinions? Why do they have them? How do we choose what different facts to use to present arguments? These are all important parts of analytical thinking, and of a historian’s work. Each version we have of the past, each History, each memory, is a valid informative portal, of different content and different ways of thinking. Some memories or narratives show how a group of people felt about a certain event, rather than a teleological narration of that event. How do we build histories that involve memory and positionality, power and agency? This is the work that historians engage, and engage in.

There are interlinked considerations for translating materials in differing contexts. I raise two critical factors for the South African milieu. The first is contextual translation and the second is attention to language. Insufficient attention to multiple spoken and written languages remains a consistent challenge, and potential resource, for promoting literacy and critical engagement in South Africa. There is potential for translation of concepts to support a multilingual classroom, while maintaining a fluency in one teaching language. Despite this there have been insufficient resources and care in harnessing this potential.

This paper first explores why History is an invaluable subject in school, looking at the aims and skills outlined by the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) documents. The WordGen programme and the CAPS document both emphasize the importance of discussion and debate as well as perspective taking. The article then engages with the WordGen concepts, and then with the WordGen material specifically designed to teach History: SoGen. Furthermore, I go

on to explore the possibilities of translating this material for the tertiary teacher training level. As the example at the beginning of this article explains, I also consider the case of third year education students at the University of Johannesburg and their responses to the WordGen material. The experiences gained from this translation into a tertiary context indicates that WordGen may garner similar positive outcomes as those seen in the primary school context.

Word Generation: A cross curriculum engagement with academic literacy

WordGen is a programme started in 2006 under the Strategic Education Research Partnership (SERP, based at the Education School at Harvard University). The theory was developed through classroom discussion and debate. Academic language, perspective taking and complex reasoning are used to promote deep reading comprehension. Skills are enhanced through exposure to specifically chosen academic words. For example, the focus words from Unit 5.03 “Why should I care” are:

- obligation;
- moral;
- current;
- affect;
- motive;
- significant.

Exposure to these ideally happens in layered and textured ways, through a variety of methods, and over a variety of subjects. While this may not be possible across all subjects in schools, because of the already established curriculum and different subject teachers, it should be possible to promote an integrated approach to teaching (Snow, 2016; Duhaylonsod *et al.*, 2015). WordGeneration is a structured lesson plan that can be implemented in class daily. The packs run over five lessons, or one week, with the week culminating in either an essay or a debate. Each daily lesson engages both with the content – that is subject specific – and the focus words that are intended to increase conceptual vocabulary.

When content is the primary curricular focus in History, historical thinking can be subjugated to factual content. The results of this are visible in the anxieties of third year students in my class at the University of Johannesburg, when dealing with exercises in historical thought and enquiry rather than historical fact. Although the students chose a more theoretically driven approach to the course at the beginning of the course, when we focused more

on learning how to understand second order concepts they became uneasy, and wanted to know “what are we really learning”. The WordGen materials helped to strike a balance between the two sides. This experience aligns with Shelly Weintraub’s work “What’s all this new crap? What’s wrong with the old crap? Changing history teaching in Oakland, California” in (Stearns, Seixas & Wineburg, 2000:178–193) where she needed to convince the teachers of the value of teaching explicitly for historical thinking.

WordGen works extensively with debate, discussion, and perspective taking (which requires empathy), as well as conceptual vocabulary relevant to the lesson. Explicitly, WordGen works with first-order historical concepts: first order concepts being the things that history is made of: such as pharaoh, revolution, empire. However, implicitly, WordGen engages with second-order concepts as (being) concepts about history: continuity, change, cause and effect, use of evidence, and empathic understanding (Ashby & Lee, 2000). However, WordGen engages and facilitates these skills to different degrees. There is potential for heightening engagement with second order concepts, particularly those concepts to do with evidence and change over time. I argue that this is possible with the translation to the South African context. Seixas (2006) outlines historical thinking through laying out six structural benchmarks: “to establish historical significance, use primary source evidence, identify continuity and change, analyse cause and consequence, take historical perspectives and understand the moral dimension of historical interpretations” (Bharath, 2015:v). But as I will show below, WordGeneration itself does not engage all of these directly. However, I argue that the work of translation makes pre-service teachers engage with all six structural benchmarks nonetheless.

Focus words and reader’s theatre: Examples of Word Generation

WordGen affords the possibility of expanding vocabulary, critical thinking skills and factual content knowledge through discussion and debate. It also encourages the development of some historian’s skills such as perspective taking, synthesis and representation of information, and taking positions on arguments. There has been a sacrifice of some second-order concepts to promote others, and this remains a limitation of WordGen. For example, some primary sources, or lengthy, dense historical materials have been replaced with easier to access, historically accurate, but non-primary sources. This lessens the students ability to engage with primary historical sources. It does not impact the students engagement with historical material, as the historical information is in the sources. The WordGen packs carry content that is structured around


a focus on reasoning, with evidence being provided to support the debate or essay that culminates and rounds up the week's work.³ The second-order concepts that are enhanced through word generation are primarily historical and present day perspective taking, and empathic understanding, also both present day and historic. Below is an example of focus words that convey first order concepts, and how these are integrated into a Reader's Theatre that pushes the thought-processes around these words.

Image 1: Example of WordGen Social Studies unit 6.01- Pharaohs of Ancient Egypt

**THE PHARAOKHS OF
ANCIENT EGYPT:
OPPRESSORS
OR GREAT
LEADERS?**

FOCUS WORDS

- order
- proposal
- value
- oppressive
- revolution
- stability



Source: Cover Design of Social Studies Generation unit 6.01 (SERP, 2015).

The focus words (order, proposal, value, oppressive, revolution, and stability) cover both content and concepts for the unit. The themes are then presented through a Reader's Theatre piece, which contextualise the themes into the students' lives:

3 All WordGen materials, and research around the project available at <http://wordgen.serpmedia.org/>, as accessed on 12 July 2017). All WordGen materials used for this article have been sourced from here.

Focus Words

order | proposal | value | oppressive | revolution | stability

Raul: I swear! My parents are like...**oppressors!**

Tiana: What?

Raul: My parents! They act like those people we’ve been studying in social studies, the pharaohs in ancient Egypt. They’re **oppressive!**

Tiana: So you’re saying that your parents collect taxes from you and force you to build pyramids? Right. Okay.

Raul: No! But they canceled our family cell phone plan so they can save money for some dumb family vacation to Disneyworld. I can’t call or text my friends anymore! My life is practically over.

Tiana: Sounds rough. Glad my parents didn’t do that. They’re pro-democracy.

Raul: Stop messing with me. Can’t you see I’m in pain here?

Tiana: Well, how do your brother and sister feel about all of this? If you all feel wronged, maybe you can stage a **revolution** and get your parents to give your cell phones back.

Raul: They both could care less! My older brother has a job after school, so he can pay for his own cell phone plan. My nerdy baby sister is antisocial and never calls or texts anyone. I’m the only victim in this whole deal, and it’s just plain wrong.

Tray: Look, man, think about it from your parents’ perspective. They probably feel awful about not being able to pay for vacations and cell phones at the same time. They had to make a hard choice and they decided to go with a vacation that’s going to give you great family memories for a long, long time.

Source: Reader’s Theatre from Social Studies Generation unit 6.01 (SERP, 2015)

These pieces of reader’s theatre offer a potential template for translating the ideas to a South African context. They work on translating the concepts to situations which resonate with the students’ everyday lives, while remaining with where the concepts come from. This requires perspective-taking, and exercises in empathy, both historically and in present day contexts. These are important concepts in historical enquiry, and historical thinking (Seixas, 2006). Requiring pre-service teachers to think through these concepts first in the USA context, means that they have to understand how the concepts are being applied in both the present day context, as well as the historical context. The crucial step then to translate it into material for the South African classroom is to find relevant examples that will read for South African

students. This requires pre-service teachers to think about who is likely to be in their classroom, and what ideas will resonate with them.

Although WordGen was initially aimed at high school students, there have been two subsequent initiatives which have developed materials both specifically for Social Studies subjects (SoGen) and for elementary (in South Africa called primary) schools, WordGen Elementary. The WordGen packs developed specifically to teach social science subjects provide both materials which can be adapted to the South African classroom, and a roadmap to creating WordGen packs around syllabus covered content. They also come closer to the specific focal points of teaching History. Particularly, perspective taking teaches the crucial concept for historical thinking: positionality. This is important because, as was discussed at the WordGen summer institute: “The degree to which any sentence in a History book pre-supposes a specific perspective is breathtaking” (Snow, 2016). The analytical skills which are required for historical thinking are also taught through vocabulary expansion, but rather than content focused vocabulary expansion, WordGen has focused on teaching academic language.

Academic language

Academic language is both the language of school and the language of reasoning. As Snow (2016) explained, “There is a lot of vocabulary that no one thinks about teaching” (Snow, 2016). Here she refers to much of the ‘thinking’ language necessary for complex reasoning and argument, or words used to carry lines of thought through complex text. Snow also stresses how important it is to have readers who can “hold” complex text. For example, a WordGen unit designed for primary school learners on “What is Fair” uses the focus words “decision, chosen, exclusion, discuss, suggest” (Strategic Education Research Partnership, 2015). These words are repeatedly used in different contexts in the material in the pack. These words cover both content and concepts needed to grasp the material in the pack. Importantly, words cover content concepts (such as exclusion) and thinking concepts (such as discuss and suggest).

Academic language is also useful in making the connections between concepts across subjects. This is another important aspect of WordGen, and where WordGen could be useful in a South African context: cross curriculum engagement. The importance of including academic language in the teaching programme helps students to nurture their own academic language so they can make their own arguments and articulate their perspective. This is important

across the curriculum, as well as in aspects of life that exceed school learning. Initially, WordGen promoted a focus on vocabulary, but as the programme developed, the need to teach academic language, perspective taking, and argumentation became clear. At the same time, these skills are important for student teachers to learn for both their content and pedagogical skills. This question, posed in a presentation by O’Connor (2016) at the SERP WordGen Summer Institute, can be asked of our students and ourselves, “How do these things help me to deepen my own reasoning and understand someone else’s?”

Language and translation: What is a concept?

In South Africa we have 11 official languages. This will have an irrevocable impact in the classroom. Third year students of Education for the Intermediate at the University of Johannesburg in 2016 expressed significant anxiety about managing several languages in the classroom. One student sighed when asked about how she would manage the multiple languages in the classroom. Another said: “It’s difficult. We have to be able to jump between languages, sometimes languages that we don’t even speak”.⁴

Language in education is extremely contentious in South Africa. It is emotional, political, as well as crucial to the science of education. Linguistic interventions therefore have a quagmire of issues to navigate. This article does not attempt to spell out the myriad arguments in this field, but rather attempts to present WordGen materials as a potential practical tool for teaching History in primary school classrooms, that would support both the History skills called for in the CAPS document, and would have the potential to support teachers in multiple languages, allowing multilingual development (Cummins, 2000) through conceptually translating the key word provided in each unit.

There is strong disagreement in South Africa about the benefits, or necessity, or socio-political impact of code-switching, mother-tongue education, and language use in primary school classrooms. Henning writes “when we investigate the most successful school systems in the world, such as those in Finland and South Korea, we have to acknowledge that their early education is to a large extent ‘monolingual’ (Barber & Mourshed, 2007), even though English is studied as an additional language” (Henning, 2012:72). However, Cummins (2000) argues that conceptual knowledge can be developed across languages, that a concept understood in one language can help a student understand the concept in another language (Cummins, 2000).

⁴ These observations come from ethnography conducted on the SOSHIA 3A students during class. Full ethics permission was obtained to conduct the study, and students gave their consent to being observed.

It is important to unpack “concept development” itself, and what impact a multilingual classroom (significantly, using “code switching” (Henning, 2012)) has on the conceptual development of young South African learners. Carey (2009) argues that language and concept development accelerated incrementally, hand in hand (Carey, 2009). However, Henning (2012) asks whether the complexity and diversity of language hybrids that we find in urban areas in South Africa hinder the development of how young learners engage with texts when the texts are presented in the formal version of a language (Henning, 2012).

It appears that deep concepts need to be developed in a language, where code-switching’s transitions and switching in and out fluidly between languages could make it difficult for children to acquire deep concepts (Henning, 2012). How, though, are teachers to manage when there are many languages present in one class, and where concept development happens at different times, potentially in different languages, for different students? Could WordGen potentially offer a scaffolding, solidly in one language, with threads connecting to multiple languages?

Why History? History and the South African NCS CAPS syllabus

History as a subject should nourish critical thinking and analytical skills. This nourishment of critical thinking occurs when students are taught to engage in historical thinking, that is, they are taught how to think about why things happened (causality), how and why we see things the way we do (positionality), and the relative truth or import of different sources (veracity). This knowledge base is applicable and important to all subjects and in ongoing engagement with social and political life.

The following table from the CAPS document outlines the aims of History and the skills the subject facilitates:

Table 1: The aims and skills of History as stated in the CAPS

The specific aims of History	Examples of the skills involved
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finding a variety of kinds of information about the past. 	Being able to bring together information, for example, from text, visual material (including pictures, cartoons, television and movies), songs, poems and interviews with people; using more than one kind of written information (books, magazines, newspapers, websites).

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Selecting relevant information.	Being able to decide about what is important information to use. This might be choosing information for a particular History topic, or, more specifically, to answer a question that is asked. Some information that is found will not be relevant to the question, and some information, although relevant, will not be as important or as useful as other information.
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Deciding about whether information can be trusted.	Being able to investigate where the information came from: who wrote or created the information and why did they do it? It also involves checking to see if the information is accurate – comparing where the information came from with other information. Much information represents one point of view only.
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Seeing something that happened in the past from more than one point of view.	Being able to contrast what information would be like if it was seen or used from another point of view. It also requires being able to compare two or more different points of view about the same person or event.
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Explaining why events in the past are often interpreted differently.	Being able to see how historians, textbook writers, journalists, or producers and others come to differing conclusions from each other and being able to give a reason(s) for why this is so in a particular topic of History.
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Debating about what happened in the past on the basis of the available evidence.	Being able to take part in discussions or debates and developing points of view about aspects of History, based on the evidence that comes from the information available.

Source: Department of Basic Education, 2011:11

These are second-order concepts, as defined by (Ashby & Lee, 2000) and explored by (Seixas, 2006). The outline demonstrates that second-order concepts are considered important in the South African curriculum, they are not expected to just be absorbed “by osmosis” as Seixas argues happens in Canada (Peck & Seixas, 2008:1021). The English National Curriculum, like the NCS in in South Africa, does focus on second order concepts. This does not appear to be case with the North American syllabi. What then, does it mean to adapt materials from the United States to use in South African classroom?

Some of the key skills outlined in the table above include: collating, verifying, and weighing up information (information analysis), developing and debating

different viewpoints, (perspective taking), and deep comprehension of sources. These are some of the crucial skills that are the focus of the WordGen program. Moreeng (2014:768) argues that:

...History could be seen as having the potential to address most of the principles underpinning the South African curriculum, for example, social transformation, critical learning, and thorough knowledge of human rights, inclusivity and social justice.

Here, History includes a set of socio-political skills, as well as a set of academic skills. This is in turn conveyed through historical content. However, for History to encourage this thinking it needs to be taught as a skill set, not only as a knowledge repository. There are several ways in which the current NCS for the intermediate phase encourages this:

History is about learning how to think about the past, and by implication the present, in a disciplined way. History is a process of enquiry and involves asking questions about the past: What happened? When did it happen? Why did it happen then? It is about how to think analytically about the stories people tell us about the past and how we internalise that information (Department of Basic Education, 2011:10).

History then serves particularly as a link between the past and then present, but one that requires constant investigation and analysis. In its function as a tool to understand the links between the past and the present, History is also used to teach ideological tools, particularly those of political paradigms. The History syllabus is also expected to teach concepts of citizenship and leadership. The CAPS document outlines:

The study of History also supports citizenship within a democracy by:

- 1. explaining and encouraging the values of the South African Constitution;*
- 2. encouraging civic responsibility and responsible leadership, including raising current social and environmental concerns;*
- 3. promoting human rights and peace by challenging prejudices involving race, class, gender, ethnicity and xenophobia, and*
- 4. preparing young people for local, regional, national, continental and global responsibility (Department of Basic Education, 2011:10).*

While the linking of History teaching and citizenship teaching is contested (Lee & Shemilt, 2007),⁵ and the language of “responsibility” is similarly problematic, the analytic and critical skills required to engage with these

5 Lee and Shemilts (2007) provide a summary of the arguments. Some contestations are whether teaching History with concepts of citizenship would result in ideologically weighted, and so biased, History, or whether teaching the so-called ‘mistakes’ of History will facilitate so-called ‘good’ citizenship.

civic education points remain valuable (Davies *et al*, 2002). They create the space for situating one’s own position and the position of others in the world, understanding causality, and being able to debate these understandings.

If these parts of the syllabus are taught along with the critical thinking, analysis and research skills, then the content presented is opened to debate and complexity. Therefore, in teacher education, a History syllabus should ideally cover enough content to make the teachers comfortable in their subject matter, but, crucially, this content must be accompanied by stimulating student teachers to develop research and critical thinking skills. Thus, first and second-order concepts need to be taught (Stearns, Seixas & Wineburg, 2000). The teachers then need to pass these skills onto their students.

The benefit of using the WordGen in the tertiary classroom is that the teaching students themselves develop these materials that will develop both teacher students’ skill and school learners’ skill.

In South Africa the History syllabus has been anchored to promoting and entrenching ideological projects. Apartheid era (1948-1994) history as was taught in school is a particularly striking example of how History can be used to support, promote, and solidify structural inequalities (Chisholm, 1981). However, there are also more subtle and persistent ways in which History – and heritage – are used in school curricula to normalise particular values, ways of being, and ways of thinking (Moreeng, 2014). With this understanding, it is critical to provide students with tools with which to question the positionality and veracity of the materials, to examine their assumptions, and the assumptions of their teachers (Van Eeden, 2016).

Students need to be engaged deeply, at an appropriate level for their learning age, for these critical skills to be developed, and this prompts several questions: what materials can be used to supplement the already existing CAPS curriculum that could deepen the engagement of students in the primary school classroom? How can these materials be developed in a way that stimulates teachers’ development and subject engagement? In what ways do these promote a holistic and thorough curriculum History classroom?

History in the Classroom: School and University

As this article has explored, the challenge presented in History classrooms is how to present information about the past in a way that provides students with sufficient content from the curriculum, but also involves them in the work of historical thinking. At the primary school level History provides an excellent

space for incorporating some of the core principles of WordGen: perspective taking, debate and class discussion. These cover some of the second-order concepts discussed above: historical perspective taking, cause and effect, emphatic understanding. The second order concepts that WordGen doesn't explicitly cover, such as analysis of sources, or historic import, can be engaged with by pre-service teachers in the process of translating the packs to a South African context. Student teachers, in compiling WordGen packs, must engage with these questions. This deepens their own experience of their relationship to knowledge production. An awareness of this relationship is key for the History teacher, where the factual information selected to be taught in class is so important. It is pertinent to qualify what we see and use as "authentic" information.

An engaged History classroom should be attentive to the interplay and co-construction of "absolute truth" (e.g. the pyramids exist and can be roughly carbon dated) and the multiple angles and constructed meanings that relate to "facts" (e.g. the pyramids show the pharaohs as either wise investors or wasteful spenders⁶). WordGen materials – from the daily turn and talk exercises to the final debate and essay – encourage students to take a position on classroom topics. If students at a tertiary level (in this case SOSHIA 3A) present topics, they can then assess to what extent these are appropriate for their South African classrooms. This promotes an iterative process of teaching and learning where student teachers themselves take perspectives and positions in the debate, and prepare their classroom spaces accordingly.

Authenticity and presentism: What we say, how we say it; what we see, how we see it

One of the key things that the WordGen for Social Studies (SoGen) History modules has grappled with is how to avoid what is known as 'presentism', that is, looking at and thinking about the past through the lens and subjectivities of the present while still maintaining the authenticity or truthfulness of the historic sources with which we are working (Hunt, 2002).

Part of this centres on how close we can get to 'sources' – the closest being an oral source, hearing from a person involved, alive, present, at the time we are examining. However even this proximity is complicated. Portelli (1998:36) writes, "Oral sources tell us not just what people did, but what they wanted to do, what they believed they were doing, and what they now think they did"(Portelli, 1998:36). Godsell (2015) highlighted in theory and practice

6 I am taking this example from the Social Studies Generation unit 6.01.

both present and past difficulties of fact, knowledge and power. Students in both school and university need to engage with ideas of ‘truth’, but understanding positionality plays an important part in this. Understanding why a particular position is taken by a particular person opens up different avenues of understand historical “truths”, and opens the historical landscape. White (2000:32) expands on this:

But what if historians didn't care about which version of events was true? The creation of a master narrative, so much a part of the project of social History, wasn't so much about finding a single truth but a way to talk about different experiences. To talk about both the experiences of mine workers and mine owners as part of a single History.

White's engagement with “truth” here needs qualifying: which version of events, whose memory, whose narrative, whose History is “true”? Again, these questions highlight the importance of perspective taking. The debates presented in WordGen require nuanced engagement with different facts and positions, and so make it particularly appropriate for teaching History.

SoGen and teaching History: An approach that understands students' contexts

WordGen presents an approach towards academic literacy and discourse and debate focused learning, as well as cross-curricular engagement. However, my proposal would be to use WordGen approaches to teach History in primary school classrooms in South Africa. The following section engages the research that went into developing materials specifically to teach Social Studies (SoGen) which has been outlined in (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015). Thus, this section engages in depth with (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015)'s paper, as the authors and constructors of SoGen.

The research that went into developing the SoGen packs focused on disciplinary literacy,⁷ disciplinary content, and discipline specific approaches. With regards to History, this covers some of the attributes described in the CAPS document (Department of Basic Education, 2011). Importantly, a decision was taken to focus on engaging with historical concepts, rather than focusing on teaching large amounts of historical content. The intent is to focus on students' ability to engage with the concepts, giving them opportunities to digest, and explain, what their understandings are. This focuses on engagement, which is intended both to boost confidence and encourage students to learn historical thinking (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:602).

7 Disciplinary literacy, Chauvin and Theodore (2015) explain, teaches the skills, background knowledge, and concepts necessary to engage in a specific field and content area.

Here, as with moving from vocabulary expansion to academic language expansion, we move from disciplinary knowledge to disciplinary literacy. The discussion of History throughout this article argues the importance of the skills taught in History. As explained above, academic language and analytical reasoning are strengthened in WordGen by structuring lessons around understanding different perspectives, including a two-sided debate. This is particularly useful in History, where it is crucial to understand the existence of a myriad of past mindsets. SoGen is instructive:

Whether a developmental obstacle during early adolescence or a lack of relevant information and exposure accounts for adolescents' difficulty with past mindsets is unclear. But organizing relevant information around a two-sided debate may facilitate deeper contextualization, because defending one's own argument and weakening an opponent's argument motivates disciplined attention to comprehension of text (Duhaylongsod et al., 2015:600).

A central debate around the development of the SoGen History curriculum remains the depth of engagement with historical knowledge. This is because each lesson unit is designed to fulfil WordGen principles that will teach the skills of historical thinking (teaching History as a skills set), rather than just teaching the historical content, and focusing on teaching students historical knowledge (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:600). I argue that a focus on the skill set and the historical concepts allows a deeper and more in depth engagement with historical knowledge, that is in the end more beneficial to students than a face-value engagement with a lot of historical content. The designers of SoGen did this by choosing core concepts in History and organising the content of the SoGen lesson units around these concepts. Importantly, the content is organised around the concepts in varying multiple contexts. These contexts are both historical and present day, allowing the students to engage the concepts in their own lives. (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:601).

The context of the students' lives is invaluable in the process of translating to the South African context. This is where the major contextualization and translation of the WordGen packs will need to happen. The WordGen researchers provided examples of this with writing the historical content packs to teach History. They state that their goals were for students to engage intensely with historical topics, and for students to be supported to develop "a deep understanding of analogical concepts" (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:606).

The focus of the units is in depth engagement with the historical world that the students are exposed to, and promoting thinking about what that world looked or felt like in the past, and why. Analogies with contexts that would

be familiar to students’ own lives facilitate this process. But what about the dangers of presentism? Is providing modern day analogies of historical situations not encouraging seeing everything through the lens of today’s sensibilities and understandings? The researchers for WordGen argue the opposite, that in fact using present-day examples prevents presentism (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:607).

The argument the authors make is that getting the students to engage with different ways that people may have experienced things in the past, while at the same time engaging their own feelings about their current context, makes it easier to grasp past worlds and contexts. The research around SoGen also engaged with several classic problems with teaching History, such as students possible disengagement with lengthy or dense historical texts. This weighs up different second-order concepts, and chooses engagement with concepts (for example) of cause and effect, change over time, historical perspectives and empathic understanding over engaging with primary sources. The WordGen programme is not moving away from lengthy historical texts. Rather the aim is to motivate and engage students with multiple shorter and easily accessible texts, so as to gradually move them on to longer and more difficult texts (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:607).

The process here is important. History is engaged with, but presented in a way that is accessible and ‘motivating’ for younger students. The number of texts allows for a multiplicity of voices and angles of History to be engaged, even briefly. Here positionality is being taught, as well as familiarizing students with a variety of types of historical text. However primary historical texts themselves can be hard to engage with, no matter how they are presented. The SoGen researchers also grappled with this problem. Their solution was to use “simulated primary sources”. That is, fabricated materials that stand as primary sources, which demonstrate points of view, give historical information, but also engage the school pupil (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:607).

The choice to use simulated, or fabricated, sources is controversial. However, the approach is useful in several ways. Even with easier to access sources students are still required to make interpretations about the information they are accessing, and they are still required to test those interpretations through discussion and debate. These engage the second order historical skills of perspective taking, understanding change and continuity, cause and effect, and empathic understanding. While it will be necessary for these skills to be engaged more explicitly, and developed more, the initial engagement is important. For this to happen in an accessible and motivating manner is crucial (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:608).

The question of older students presenting their opinions on historical debates poses the question of how student teachers engage with historical material. My own research (Godsell, 2016) suggests that first year students also tend to engage with historical concepts rather than weighing in on historical debate. The SoGen units are themselves designed to teach teachers and students, to at the same time boost teachers' discipline knowledge and understanding and assist their implementation of instructional approaches, that focus on improving students' historical literacy. This happens through the teachers facilitating students' historical interpretations, rather than the teacher being a location of historical truth. This shifts the focus from a "right" answer, to students being required to make claims that they can support with evidence (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:608).

This change in the teacher's role is also a part of decolonizing knowledge: the teacher curates the students' interaction with knowledge, rather than the teachers themselves being knowledge dispensers. Though this can result in historical inaccuracies (as SoGen researchers discovered in transcripts of students debates) Snow et al argue that the relationship to knowledge, and the movement towards historical argumentation, are more important in the learning process than correcting each historical inaccuracy as it comes up in debate (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:608).

This raises questions of how to treat historical inaccuracies in the classroom, while allowing students to engage with sources and historical concepts. The difficulty is to keep the discussion, and debate, while still covering the content. Some of the particularities and questions on veracity in History will be dealt with in the next section. The SoGen researchers argue that "student engagement with History in these classroom debates outweighs the historical content problems" (Duhaylongsod *et al.*, 2015:608).

The researchers make these considered, contentious, arguments that the potential historical inaccuracies (content inaccuracies) are outweighed by the relationship the students develop to historical ideas. I agree with this argument, and observed the same in my classes. While historical inaccuracies can (and must) be corrected relatively easily, getting the students to engage in historical ideas and debates is harder, but more crucial. The structure of the WordGen and SoGen material means that students engage with information in a way that is meaningful to them, that they can relate to their own lives and encounter and debate in discussions with their classmates. This means that, while there may be inaccuracies, students are likely to challenge each other,






and students learn to substantiate their arguments and claims. This develops fluidity of fact, argument and knowledge.

Possibilities in a South African context

Word for word translation runs the risk of flattening concepts, and would then remain at a superficial level and not engage conceptually. However, each WordGen unit comes with a “Word Study” page, pictured below:

Image 2: Word Study from Word Generation “What is Fair?”

decision • chosen • exclusion • discuss • suggest

Day 3		What is fair?	
Word Study		What is fair?	
A Closer Look at Our Focus Words			
	chosen	exclusion (n.) exclude (v.)	suggest (v.) suggestion (n.)
Definition 	(verb) picked or selected from a group	(noun) a practice of not including (verb) to leave out	(verb) to offer an idea (noun) an idea about what somebody should do
Sample Sentence 	Well, I wanted to play tag but I didn't get chosen for either side.	Exclusion usually happens to the shy kids and the slow kids. I'm not fast so I'm excluded from games like tag. It feels terrible.	I'll suggest to Ms. Feroletto that we talk about exclusion at our next class meeting.
Another Example 	Have you chosen your seats yet to watch the show?	Reporters were excluded from the secret meeting held by the president.	The waiter at the restaurant suggested that we try the soup.
Turn and Talk 	One thing I wish I had been chosen for is...	Think about a time you saw exclusion happening at recess. What happened?	What would you suggest we play at recess today?
Rewrite with a focus word 	The kids picked Igor to lead the team.	Mandy was crying because she wasn't included on the team.	Ben responded to Marvin's unwelcome advice.

Source: Word Generation Unit 4.01: What is Fair? (SERP, 2015)

The above figure shows the various way three of the focus words are defined, explained, and contextualised in WordGen units. They provide the following possibilities for explaining and exploring the word: Definition, sample sentence, example, turn and talk, rewrite, cognate (not pictured), and choose a picture. I propose that for a WordGen class where discussion and debate would be happening in multiple languages, well-translated Word Study pages can provide a scaffolding and tool for both teachers and learners. The skills taught in WordGen are those of using academic language, discussion and debate, which promote analysis and reasoning.

These skills can be learnt in any language. The difficulty is, however, fluency in whatever the chosen language of instruction is, and what kind of deep concept learning is possible with different kinds of language input. Henning points out that long-term research still needs to be conducted in this field. (Henning, 2012).

The word study pages would need to be translated contextually to be applicable for South African learners. Studying a translation project that focused on concept and context translation, rather than just word translation, would also provide useful data on how concepts are conveyed and embedded in different languages. The next section will focus on outlining some issues around translation, and concept translation.

Practicalities in WordGen

Productive talk

An important consideration in South African classrooms is what language the classroom talk happens in. Productive talk is another important principle in WordGen. Professor Catherine O Connor explained that ‘productive talk’ is supposed to enable specific skills in children (O’Connor, 2016). With productive talk we want students to be able to describe and listen, to be able to state what they think (the focus here is on their thought process rather than on the right answer), to be able to ask and answer the question “why do you think that”, to not give up when they don’t understand what someone said or when someone doesn’t understand them. Productive talk involves talk that supports improvement in reasoning, and in explaining reasoning. This is crucial in a History classroom, as reasoning and being able to explain the reasoning is important in understanding causality and positionality. Productive talk involves students externalising their own reasoning and working with others’ reasoning.

O’Connor went on to describe exactly why talk and discussion are important in the classroom, beyond the immediate skill set development. Classroom talk reveals understanding and misunderstanding, so the teacher can gauge and intervene where necessary. Children also remember what they say: talk boosts memory for content and procedure. Classroom talk and discussion also supports academic language development and perspective taking (O’Connor, 2016).

These benefits, however, are offset by obstacles that teachers face with implementing productive talk in the classroom. The most substantial of these being time: classroom talk and debate take up time that teachers often feel should be allocated to covering content, when teachers are pressured to

complete a syllabus. The WordGen materials can assist with this when they are based on material that is covered in the curriculum. Another obstacle to classroom talk is the students’ reticence, but again, this can be managed in strategic ways, and WordGen suggests several tools.

At the crux of this is that we need to talk about what we are thinking. Reasoning is not just about coming up with the right answer, but as in maths or physics, about showing how you got to the argument you arrive at. Children need to be able to point to the different kinds of evidence that they used to make their argument, and show their thinking around that. Again, this is important in History, but it is also a useful life skill, and necessary if we are working towards decolonising education.

Possible ways forward: A glimpse into the classroom

If they do not cover specific content that is laid out in the national curriculum The WordGen packs may be difficult to incorporate into South African classrooms, especially across curricula. This article has outlined the WordGen programme, and why it aligns particularly with the skills taught and learnt in History. Now the article will briefly touch on how and why I have used WordGen materials in my classroom. I tried to achieve a balance in my classroom between factual historical knowledge, conceptual knowledge and historical thinking, and how these might be transferred to the primary school classrooms they will be working in. Students helped to achieve this balance: whenever the class or material became too heavily based in the subject knowledge of History with no links to the classroom, the students became bored. When we worked with WordGen materials, students would take the WordGen materials and adapt them to South African context and content. This forms part of a process to support pre-service teachers in becoming history teachers (Pendry *et al.*, 1998).

Mapungubwe and Great Zimbabwe: Reader’s theatre

This research intends to work with third year teaching students to generate research packs, and a list of focus words, that will span content covered in multiple curriculum areas. This research was started in 2016, but the major part of it will be carried out in 2017. An ethics application was carried out through the Department of Childhood Education, and the students were enthusiastic about creating materials to be publicly and freely available to be

used in classrooms. While this did not come to fruition in 2016, I intend to further this research in 2017. There were two basic aspects of WordGen that we focused on in class- the idea of focus words, and discussion of language around them, and generation of Reader's Theatre materials in a South African context.

I observed in class that the class discussion happened in several languages, none of which was English. Because of my linguistic deficiencies, and because the language of instruction that we were working in was English, we switched back to English for the debate and discussion sections. However, for the turn and talk, or the group exercises, the students used languages common and comfortable to them. Through this, we explored the possible usefulness of WordGen materials that allows for talk, discussion, and concept formation in languages other than English. To support this, I propose further research into translating the lists of focus words, with the idea to translate them conceptually (so, to translate into paragraphs that explain the idea behind the words rather than simplistic one word translations). With "concept dictionaries"⁸ translated the teachers can know that their learners have a grasp on the meaning of the focus words in multiple languages, so that the conceptual and analytical development that needs to happen around the focus words can take place.

Adapting the Readers Theatre contained in WordGen to a South African context was an exciting task for the students, and an exciting marking process for me as their teacher. The Readers Theatre sections in WordGen are intended to present the content dealt with in the units in a way that is engaging to the learners. The content must be presented in a way where learners are drawn in to engage analytically and intellectually with the social issues contained in the content. However, these have to be presented in ways that connect to the learners' lives. We worked with the WordGen modules on Ancient Egypt as examples, and the students needed to construct their own WordGen material to teach Mapungubwe, (a complex pre-colonial African society that lived in present day South Africa between 1075 and 1220 AD), one of the topics in the CAPS grade 5 syllabus. The third year students took to the Reader's Theatre task particularly well, engaging current political issues to teach political hierarchies and structures in Mapungubwe. Below is an excerpt from one Reader's Theatre:

8 The Zenex Foundation produced something that reads as a concept dictionary that translated concepts relevant to Maths and Science in high-school. The translations of focus words would draw on this methodology.

Excerpt: Reader’s Theatre submission, SOSHIA 3A

Paul: Our country is like Mapungubwe

John: What are you talking about?

Paul: I am talking about our President and the inkandla story.

Tom: Oh yah, our president is like the king of Mapungubwe

Paul: Yes, because Inkandla is built for the President and his family only.

John: The king of Mapungubwe lived at the hilltop, I do not understand how these two things mix together.

Tom: Me too I fail to understand, where are you going with this.

Paul: What I am saying is that our President has isolated himself from the community because he has money and the king of Mapungubwe lived at the top of the hill because it was believed he was communicating with the gods.

John: But the king of Mapungubwe was rich.

Paul: Yes but he did not use his power and the money.

Tom: There are similar things about the king of Mapungubwe and our President for example they both have body guards and they are rich.

Paul: I agree but the king of Mapungubwe did not take the money or belongings of his community members, unlike our President.

John: Yes our president used the state money to build inkandla.

Tom: That is not fair and is against our constitution.

Paul: My point exactly, now you both get my point.

The above is an example of the potential in setting education students the task of creating the “reader’s theatre” aspect of the WordGen sessions. The use of Paul, John, and Tom as names points to a closer adherence to the USA WordGen names, thus the student has translated the ideas but not the people. In creating WordGen reader’s theatre, it will be important that students create characters that they feel read to their own lives and their own classrooms. However, the use of the example and comparison with between President Zuma and Nkandla with the king of Mapungubwe shows an engagement and analysis with present day politics and a topic that can easily be engaged and discussed in class. While the student presents a surface skim of issues from one perspective, the possibilities for unpacking a comparison between ideas and engagements around Nkandla, and ideas and engagements around royalty at Mapungubwe, would be rich in terms of analysis, debate, critical thinking and perspective taking. The processes of perspective taking at work

in the excerpt display the effectiveness of giving this as a task at university level. The student used a consistent argument to put their point across, convincing others to see things from another perspective. Although there are historical issues with the analogy, the critical analysis work, and the work of engaging both historical issues and students' current lives is clearly evidenced. This is clearly something that the student feels strongly about, which is also a positive indication of the effectiveness of the task. The WordGen materials are designed to present topics that the students will want to engage in, and then present issues in ways which encourage perspective taking. While the above presents merely one example of where I propose to take this project, it shows the potential for bringing WordGen strategies and materials into the tertiary teacher-education classroom.

Conclusion

For historical literacy to grow, history needs to be taught as a skill set rather than a knowledge repository. Word Generation approaches, particularly in the units created specifically to teach Social Science subjects, help students to develop these crucial skills through discussion and debate. This approach encourages students to engage with positionality and ideas of historical "truth". As students are pushed to take a position on a topic, and defend their position, they need to interact with the sources they are given or the research they do to construct arguments. This reinforces the need to critically analyse information, and understand different positions.

This article has argued the WordGen project, and more specifically the development that focused on the generation of WordGen materials for the social sciences, SoGen, can be engaged productively for the teaching of History in South African classroom contexts. I work from the premise that historical thinking and historical literacy, working with second order historical concepts, is crucial in the history classroom. WordGen and SoGen units focus on in depth engagement and support of the learners creating their own opinions from historical information. As this information is placed both in historical context, and in context that reflects realities of the students' everyday lives, the students are brought into close proximity with processes and concepts of history. The units touch on both first and second order skills – so, both the concepts around the "things" of history, and the concepts around the "why" of history. Debate, discussion, perspective taking and an encouragement of in depth engagement with all concepts facilitates engagement with historical concepts such as causality, positionality, continuity, and empathic historic

understanding. These skills align with the skills pointed to in the CAPS National Curriculum statement, and so WordGen, rather than distracting from what teachers need to achieve (according to the Department of Education) can be used as a tool to help teachers engage students.

Where WordGen is contentious, and potentially lacking, is engaging with direct primary sources. While I have elaborated the reasons for this, I argue that getting pre-service teachers to engage and translate the materials for a South African context will make up for this lack: in compiling the historical information for the units, the students will have to engage with primary sources. WordGen materials can be helpful for South African education students to interact with, if some aspects are translated thoughtfully. The translation process needs to involve both language and context if it is to be helpful to teachers and beneficial to students’ learning processes. The language translation could help teachers to manage multilingual classrooms, while maintaining conceptual and academic language development in English.

I propose furthering this research to broaden the exercises in the SOSHIA 3 classroom, and to translate WordGen packs to the South African context to use in South African school classrooms.

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UNDERPERFORMANCE IN SOCIAL STUDIES IN GRADES 5–7 IN NAMIBIAN PRIMARY SCHOOLS: A CASE STUDY

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Abstract

This article focuses on the challenges of learners' underperformance in Social Studies in Namibia. The study investigated the possible factors that may contribute to learners' underperformance in Social Studies in the selected schools. The following research question guided the investigation: What are the possible causes of underperformance of learners in Social Studies in Grades 5–7 at primary schools in Namibia? The aim was thus to investigate the possible factors which may contribute to learners' underperformance in Social Studies. Data were collected from selected teachers and principals via questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, lesson observations and an analysis of appropriate documents. Different data collection methods were used to assure the validity and reliability of the research through triangulation. Triangulation was used through the collection of data by means of questionnaires, interviews, observation, an analysis of relevant documents and a literature review. A number of factors that constitute obstacles and inhibit performance were identified. In addressing the challenges in the teaching and learning of Social Studies, teachers need to be empowered to address these factors and implement the curriculum effectively. Findings from the data identified a number of possible causes for the underperformance of learners and recommendations are made to address these problems.

Keywords: Assessment; Learners; Namibia; Social Studies; Teacher training; Underperformance; Primary Schools; GET phase.

Introduction

Before Namibia gained independence in 1990, the curriculum was based on what was then called the Bantu education system. In this system, History and Geography were implemented as two separate subjects. After independence was obtained in 1990, the Namibian government reformed the education system. In this new dispensation, History and Geography were now integrated at Grades 5–7 (upper primary phase) as one subject, called Social Studies. The

National Curriculum for Basic Education (Ministry of Education, 2010:13) (MoE hereafter), with specific reference to Social Studies, intends learners to learn and understand the importance of human rights and democracy and environmental issues. Learners should also explore and come to understand the interaction between social, cultural, economic, civic and political issues. Despite the important role that Social Studies plays in learners' lives and the promotional requirements to progress to the next grade, there are some factors that influence learners' underperformance in Social Studies in Namibian schools. The question arose: What are the factors that may cause underperformance?

Literature review

There are many common challenges that face school principals in Namibia, some of which also influence learners' performance negatively. Mutorwa (2004) Makuwa (2004) and Nyambe (2015) single out serious problems in the Namibian education system, especially those related to learners' underperformance as compared to other countries. The Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) was formed in 1991 to build the capacity of Ministries of Education of 15 member countries to monitor and evaluate the quality of their basic education systems. Botswana, Kenya, Lesotho, Swaziland, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, Tanzania (Mainland), Tanzania (Zanzibar), Uganda and South Africa (Makuwa, 2005: Foreword). In comparing Namibia to these other southern African countries, the following was found: in Namibia, there are high levels of failure and school dropout, lower levels of literacy and numerical skills and poor results in tests and examinations at both primary and secondary education level (see full report by Makuwa, 2004).

This article focuses on the major challenges and possible factors that may contribute to learners' underperformance in Social Studies in Namibia. Much has already been written (see Adekunle, 2001; Aston, 2011; Dhurumjai, 2013; Etsey, 2005) about possible causes or factors that may contribute to the learners' academic underperformance in general, but not much with regard to a specific school subject. The literature review provided in this section describes possible factors that may contribute directly or indirectly to learners' underperformance in Social Studies. Some key factors that may influence learners' performance negatively were identified from the literature such as: untrained teachers who teach Social Studies; teaching and learning strategies

of teachers; the role of motivation; a lack of parental involvement; the role of teaching and learning support materials; English as language of instruction as a possible barrier to learning, and the possible role of educational policy.

Untrained and shortage of teachers

According to the National Policy Guide for Social Studies (MoE, 2008:1), the establishment of a Social Studies policy is aimed at providing a well-organised and practically orientated programme in the teaching and management of Social Studies in schools. It further states that the policy guide aims to provide guidelines for subject managers in monitoring and supervising teaching and learning activities in schools. However, Negumbo (2016:123) found that the participating schools in her investigation do not put this policy into practice because teachers are not always appointed based on appropriate qualifications. Negumbo's research (2016:124) also revealed that inappropriately qualified and unqualified teachers were used to teach Social Studies in most of the schools that participated in this study. This state of affairs is contrary to what the policy requires and it could create certain challenges for untrained teachers because they could find it difficult to implement the Social Studies curriculum.

In general, teachers are thus expected to implement the curriculum based on skills and knowledge they gained during either their initial teacher-training phase and/or during continued in-service teacher training programmes. In support of this view, the National Curriculum for Basic Education (MoE, 2010:10-11) states that teaching emphasises the varied processes and skills (e.g. personal, social, cognitive, communication and numeracy skills, as well as skills with regard to Information and Technology) and learning experiences needed for the creation of knowledge (e.g. the ability to organise and apply new knowledge and skills or to apply existing knowledge and skills in new situations or innovative ways; evaluating and reflecting on completed processes; problem solving; working effectively, independently and in groups; increasingly taking responsibility for own learning). These varied learning processes should thus be emphasised, rather than relying predominantly on the mere transmission of knowledge by teachers. Carl (2012:193; Carl, 2005:223–228) argues that it is within the process of curriculum development where the teacher can and should become involved in creative ways. Teachers can implement the curriculum effectively provided they are effectively involved in curriculum development. Furthermore, teachers should not only receive effective initial

teacher training in that particular subject but also in-service training to enable them to deliver the curriculum efficiently. Creative and productive teacher involvement and participation in curriculum development can bring about positive results (Carl, 2005:228).

A serious cause for concern in Namibia is that, despite having a policy in place, there are not enough teachers. The Minister of Education informed Parliament during the budget discussion of her ministry in March 2015 that the continued shortage of teachers in general would haunt the country for a long time (Shinovene, 2015:1). This state of affairs can also have a negative affect or impact on the availability of Social Studies teachers.

In a study conducted in Botswana, Jotia and Matlale (2011) found that teachers who did not undergo formal training in Social Studies were not aware of any special teaching and learning strategies to teach Social Studies. The Social Studies teachers indicated that they taught the subject because they did not have any other option or subject to teach (Jotia & Matlale, 2011:119). This provides evidence that these teachers were neither formally trained, nor were they comfortable to teach Social Studies as they lacked a sound foundation of content knowledge. Although this study was done in Botswana, the question does arise as to whether this might also be the case in the Namibian context? The concern thus arises as to what the impact of being untrained in one's subject might have on learners' performance. If it is a negative impact, then what should be done with regard to teachers' preparation to implement the curriculum? The other concern is: if teachers are only teaching because there are no other options, will this not affect the teaching and learning process as well as the academic performance of learners? This formed part of the research done to investigate the possible reasons for the high failure rate in Social Studies in Namibia.

From the literature it is clear that the undertraining of Social Studies teachers may have a negative impact on learners' academic performance. If teachers are not adequately trained and therefore lack the basic subject knowledge and skills to teach and implement the Social Studies curriculum, they might hamper the learners' performance in this subject.

Language, communication, and medium of instruction as a barrier to learning

Effective communication and language literacy are of the utmost importance in teaching any subject. The medium of instruction is therefore an important factor to consider. Although English is not the home language of most

Namibian learners, it became the medium of teaching and learning after Namibia gained independence in 1990. According to the language policy document of the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MBESC, 2003), English is the medium of instruction from Grades 4-12 in Namibia. Government implemented the decision through a language policy for schools, which states that learners should be taught in their home language from Grades 1-3, while from Grade 4 onwards, learners must receive instruction in English (MBESC, 2003:3).

The policy was developed to enable learners to be adequately proficient in English. The Namibian language policy thus stipulates that every school-going child in Namibia should acquire adequate proficiency in English at primary school level so that learners can learn the curriculum content with ease (MBESC, 2003:63). Harris (2012:19) claims that one of the factors contributing to the high failure rates in Namibian schools is that learners are now required to learn the subject content through the medium of English. Namupala (2013:88) confirmed this claim by referring to the on-going high failure rate caused by learners' lack of proficiency in the language of teaching and learning.

The question is why English is only introduced in schools in Grade 4 and not in the pre-primary stage. Furthermore, if the transition from teaching through local languages to teaching in English should only start in Grade 5, one may ask whether other subjects would not be negatively affected. The concern is thus that this policy may increase learners' poor performance in subjects such as Social Studies. The point is that learners may take longer to adapt to a new language of instruction. In this respect, they may not easily understand the content of the subject and their academic performance may be influenced negatively. In support of this argument, Aston (2011:43) suggests that policy writers may need to re-evaluate the policy and reintroduce English as a compulsory medium of instruction in earlier grades, e.g. from the pre-primary stage onwards. Thus, learners may gain proficiency in English earlier and hence find it easier to study other subjects. In the class and term tests as well as in the examinations learners may misinterpret the questions and provide incorrect answers because they are not proficient in the language.

Even though the Namibian education system now requires that English is not only a compulsory subject but also the medium of instruction, learners in Grades 4-12 may find it difficult to understand the content of their subjects because they are not proficient in English. The late Minister of Education,

Abraham Iyambo, confirmed this issue as he stressed that the Ministry of Education was concerned about the on-going high failure rates caused by learners' lack of proficiency in the language of teaching and learning (Iyambo, 2011:14). The linguistics researchers, Mwindi and Van der Walt (2015:115), found that "[l]earners are able to receive information in a home/community language, but they are unable to produce the information in English." They mention that this issue is a big challenge for both teachers and learners, and they explain that learners in such a situation would not be able to produce subject content knowledge due to the lack of language proficiency.

From the literature review, it is clear that English, as the primary medium of instruction according to the Namibian curriculum, may need to be revisited to address issues of continuing high failure rates of many learners in Social Studies and other subjects. It is clear that a lack of a suitable level of proficiency in English might be one of the barriers impacting negatively on learners' performance in Social Studies in Namibian schools. In support of this view, Dhurumraj (2013) reports that the medium of instruction at schools affects learners' performance because the language barrier makes it difficult for learners to interpret questions during assessment activities.

Lack of parental involvement

In general, the lack of parental involvement in schools is a major concern with regard to the quality of education in Namibia. According to Peters (2014:23), parental involvement in the school context often requires parents to attend general and specific meetings, meet their children's teachers and be involved in school activities. Deslandes and Bertrand (2005:165) also refer to parental involvement as parents' role in the lives of their children both at home and at school. Parental involvement enables parents to monitor their children's schoolwork and classroom activities at home, thereby contributing to their children's success. Parents can support their children in their schoolwork by encouraging them, arranging for appropriate study time and space, monitoring their homework and showing an interest in their classroom activities. This means parents can volunteer to assist their children with school activities at home. They can also take an active role in the school governance and decision-making and so contribute towards ensuring that their children get a good education.

Although parents are required to be involved in their children's education, it seems this does not always occur. The literature indicates that often there is a

lack of parental involvement in their child's school education; indeed, there is evidence that most parents are not involved in their children's academic activities. According to Frempong (2011:23), parental involvement is thought to decrease as children move from junior to senior school subjects. She further argues that some parents in Namibia stop caring about monitoring the academic progress of their children because of the perception that their children are then mature enough to do their schoolwork on their own. Mbugua, Kibet, Muthaa and Nkonke (2012:90) state that many parents and guardians did not receive any formal school education themselves and therefore they may not be able to support their children in academic matters. This implies that if parents' and guardians' educational background is not sound, it may influence their understanding of the importance of education. It may cause them to be uninterested in their children's school activities. On the other hand, one may argue that a lack of basic education should rather motivate parents to encourage and support their children to do well in school. Parents should help their children where they need assistance and uplift them to have a better future. Kandumbu (2005:67) argues that when parents are informed about what goes on in schools, they can play a more active and productive role in school activities to encourage their children to attend school, work hard and complete their homework on time. She further states that parents may also be able to encourage teachers to work hard and improve poor results. Parents' support to schools in the form of attending regular information sessions and meetings is likely to contribute to their children's academic achievement. In such meetings, parents could be given opportunities to address learners on any important issues concerning their academic work. By doing so parents may develop greater competence as they learn to make decisions and take responsibility within the school.

Parental involvement and positive parent-teacher interaction may positively influence learners' performances; therefore, the value of parental involvement cannot be over-emphasised.

Lack of teaching and learning support materials

For effective teaching and learning to take place there must be relevant and enough resources that may help teachers and learners in teaching and learning the content of the subject. There is a strong indication that sufficient teaching and learning resources will assist teachers in offering quality education in Namibia. Adekunle (2001:2) describes teaching resources as anything that can assist the teachers in promoting meaningful teaching and learning.

Kandumbu (2005:96-97) identified a lack of teaching and learning support materials as one of the challenges that face the primary school education sector in Namibia.

Promotional policy

In the SACMEQ III report, Miranda, Amadhila, Dengeinge and Shikongo (2007:12) note that the promotional policy seem to have assumed that learners in Namibia would progress through Grades 1–9 without having to repeat any grade. In some cases, learners do not even achieve the basic competencies and in such instances, repeating might not be part of the solution; therefore, the Namibian education has a policy of automatic promotion. The educational policy, in particular the non-promotional policy, promotes the idea that learners should not repeat the phase or grade more than twice. This approach might lead to a high rate of failure in Social Studies, because if learners cannot cope with the subject in a lower grade, the chances are very good that they will not be able to cope with the subject in the next grade(s).

Teaching and learning strategies

There are several teaching and learning strategies that teachers can use to improve the performance of learners in Social Studies, e.g. teacher-directed methods (e.g. lecture, demonstration) and learner-centred-methods (e.g. discussion, cooperative learning, project work, role-play, experimentation) (see Jacobs, Vakalisa & Gawe, 2004:155-213). Cawood, Strydom and Van Loggerenberg (1980:24-79) and Carl (2012:97-99) also elaborate on teaching strategies which could be considered to enhance learning, namely lectures, discussion methods, group work, self-activity and experiential learning.

In the learner-centred approach, teachers and learners play an equally active role in the learning process. Learners' learning is measured through both formal and informal forms of assessment, including group projects and classroom participation. On the other hand, in the teacher-centred approach (lecture teaching and learning approach), teachers talk more while learners are listening. In this approach, learners are viewed as empty vessels that receive information through teaching and direct instruction. Sometimes teachers write on the chalkboard and learners are requested to take notes (Negumbo, 2016:55).

According to the discussion document on learner-centred education in the Namibian context (MoE, 2003:1), learner-centredness was introduced

in 1991 as a foundation policy for the new educational system Namibia. It replaced the teacher-centred teaching and learning approach which was the only approach which was used before Namibian independence in 1990. The document identified that there has been different understandings of what is meant by learner-centred education and how to put it into practice. This discussion document (MoE, 2003:1-2) also reported that research which was done in Namibia on learner-centred education, indicated that circulars and syllabuses, textbooks, teaching materials, assessment practices and examinations developed during the 1990, are not consistently based on the learner-centred principles as required by policy. This means that circulars and syllabuses for school are not always based on the learner-centred principles as required. As a result, teachers may not have clear ideas on how to implement a learner-centred approach.

In the light of this above section on teaching and learning strategies, it is thus important for teachers to learn more about the learners in their classrooms, in other words to know their learners, and to determine which strategies will best suit all the learners' needs in the classroom to enable them to optimise their learning experience. It is also important for teachers to be able to identify the criteria which might impact on the selection of appropriate teaching and learning strategies for the teaching of Social Studies. This will, however, require that teachers are well-trained and skilled in various teaching and learning strategies.

Summary of literature

It is clear from the literature that many factors could contribute to learners' underperformance in Social Studies in Namibian schools. The following factors were identified: untrained teachers who are often required to teach Social Studies; a lack of suitable and acceptable levels of proficiency in English, which is the language of instruction in Namibian schools; not enough effective parental involvement in schools; a shortage of suitable teaching and learning support material; the possible impact of a lack of skills in appropriate teaching strategies and, lastly, the impact of policy-related factors.

Problem statement

An analysis of the results of Grades 5-7 for the period 2008–2014 revealed that there is a problem of underperformance of learners in Social Studies at primary school level (Grades 5–7) in Namibia. There has been a notable underperformance as is evident from an analysis of the assessment results of Grades 5–7 from 2008–

2014 in three primary schools in a particular Namibian school district (see Tables 1-6). These summative assessment results are based on the marks obtained in final examinations the learners wrote at the end of each year.

Table 1: Analysis of assessment results for Social Studies Grade 5 for 2008-2012

Mark	A-B					C					D-E				
Year ►	08	09	10	11	12	08	09	10	11	12	08	09	10	11	12
SCHOOL X	3	9	0	0	1	8	8	8	6	3	14	7	17	29	35
SCHOOL Y	3	9	27	17	26	8	8	46	40	44	14	7	48	60	31
SCHOOL Z	8	8	4	8	20	10	13	20	27	40	26	19	18	35	19
TOTAL	14	26	31	25	47	26	29	73	73	87	54	33	83	124	85
	15%	30%	17%	11%	21%	28%	33%	39%	33%	40%	57%	38%	44%	56%	39%

The results of Table 1 indicate that in all the years between 2008 – 2014 learners who scored an A or B symbol, were by far in the minority. It varies from 11% to 30 %. Those who scored C symbols were an average of between 28% to 40 %, whilst the majority of learners (between 38% tot 57%) scored either a D or an E symbol.

Table 2: Analysis of assessment results for Social Studies Grade 5 for 2013-2014

Mark	A-B		C		D-E	
	2013	2014	2013	2014	2013	2014
SCHOOL X	16	10	13	23	45	39
SCHOOL Y	17	26	34	44	31	57
SCHOOL Z	14	38	35	19	22	39
TOTAL	47	74	82	86	98	135
	(20%)	(36%)	(43%)	(25%)	(29%)	(46%)

Table 2 shows that in 2013, of the Grade 5s, only 20% of the learners scored above average (A or B), while 36% of the leaners scored a C symbol (average) and 43% of the leaners scored below average (D or E). In 2014, 25% of the learners scored an A or B, 29% obtained a C and 46% obtained a D or E.

Table 3: Analysis of assessment results for Social Studies Grade 6 for 2008-2012

Mark	A-B					C					D-E				
	08	09	10	11	12	08	09	10	11	12	08	09	10	11	12
Year ▶															
SCHOOL X	0	2	0	0	3	4	6	7	8	15	19	10	9	8	4
SCHOOL Y	7	5	4	27	13	34	26	46	70	43	53	82	89	19	44
SCHOOL Z	4	6	11	13	16	44	46	48	46	59	37	45	54	40	31
TOTAL	11	13	15	40	32	82	78	101	124	117	72	137	152	67	79
	7%	6%	6%	17%	14%	50%	34%	38%	54%	31%	44%	60%	57%	29%	35%

Table 3 indicates that between 2008 - 2014, only between 6 and 14% of Grade 6 learners achieved an A or B symbol, between 31% and 50% obtained a C symbol, whilst a very high 29% to 60% obtained D and E symbols, which is below average. In 2009, 6% of the learners obtained an A or B, 34% achieved a C and 60% obtained D and E symbols. In 2010, 6% achieved an A or B, 38% obtained a C and 57% obtained D and E symbols. In 2011, 17% of the learners achieved an A or B, 54% obtained a C and 29% obtained D and E symbols. Moreover, in 2012, only 14% obtained an A or B, 31% achieved a C and 35% scored below average.

Table 4: Analysis of assessment results for Social Studies Grade 6 for 2013-2014

Mark	A-B		C		D-E	
	2013	2014	2013	2014	2013	2014
SCHOOL X	14	15	32	26	14	39
SCHOOL Y	19	21	30	56	73	46
SCHOOL Z	14	7	47	28	29	44
TOTAL	47	43	109	110	116	129
	(17%)	(15%)	(40%)	(39%)	(43%)	(46%)

Table 4 shows that the results for Social Studies for Grade 6 in 2013 were as follows: 17% of the learners achieved an A or B, while 40% of the learners obtained a C and 43% obtained a D or E symbol. In 2014, the results for Grade 6 show that only 15% obtained an A or B, while 39% of the learners achieved a C and relatively high 46% of the learners obtained either a D or E symbol.

Table 5: Analysis of assessment results for Social Studies Grade 7 for 2008-2012

Mark	A-B					C					D-E				
	08	09	10	11	12	08	09	10	11	12	08	09	10	11	12
SCHOOL X	1	4	0	3	5	10	4	2	4	3	5	7	5	9	7
SCHOOL Y	19	16	8	5	19	30	34	45	63	56	54	51	44	58	41
SCHOOL Z	8	4	10	4	10	45	44	34	41	48	44	48	57	46	40
TOTAL	28	24	18	12	34	85	82	81	108	107	105	106	106	113	88
	13%	11%	9%	15%	15%	39%	50%	39%	46%	47%	48%	48%	52%	49%	38%

Table 5 shows that in 2008, only 13% of Grade 7 learners managed to obtain an A or B symbol, 39% achieved a C and 48% obtained either a D or E symbols in Social Studies. In 2009, 11% of the learners obtained an A or B, 39% achieved a C and a relatively high 50% obtained either a D or E symbol. In 2010, only 9% obtained an A or B, 39% achieved a C and 52% of the learners obtained D and E symbols. In 2011, the results for Grade 7 shows that 15% achieved an A or B, 46% obtained a C and 49% obtained D and E symbols. Furthermore, the analysis results of Grade 7 in 2012 indicate that 15% of the learners achieved an A or B, 47% obtained a C and 38% obtained D and E symbols.

Table 6: Analysis of assessment results for Social Studies Grade 7 for 2013-2014

Mark	A-B		C		D-E	
	2013	2014	2013	2014	2013	2014
SCHOOL X	13	11	24	25	21	50
SCHOOL Y	5	21	63	45	30	25
SCHOOL Z	13	23	30	25	23	39
TOTAL	31	55	117	95	74	114
	(21%)	(36%)	(43%)	(14%)	(53%)	(33%)

Table 2 indicates that in 2013, 21% of the Grade 7 learners achieved an A or B symbol, whereas 36% of the learners obtained a C and 43% obtained a D or E symbol. In 2014, only 14% of the learners managed to achieve A or B symbols, whereas 53% of the learners obtained a C symbol and 33% learners obtained a D or E symbol. It is evident from the results that there is a strong trend of underperformance in Social Studies in this particular district.

In the analysis of the results of grades 5-7 for the period 2008-2014 in Social Studies, it is thus clear that a problem exists with regard to underperformance. The challenge is that if learners fail Social Studies at primary school level,

they will probably lack understanding of the interaction in social, cultural, economic, civic and political spheres, and the relationship between people and environments. However, the exact causes of underperformance in Social Studies (Grades 5-7) at primary school level in Namibia are unknown. Therefore, Social Studies can be seen as an important vehicle by which to enhance learners' understanding of these different spheres.

The research sought to determine the possible factors that play a role in the underperformance of Grades 5-7 learners in Social Studies in three selected schools in a particular Namibian school district.

Research question and research aims

The following research question guided this investigation: What are the possible causes of underperformance in Social Studies in three selected Namibian primary schools (Grades 5 and 7) of a particular school district?

The aims of the study were:

- To investigate the possible causes of learners' underperformance in Social Studies in Grades 5–7 in the three selected Namibian primary schools;
- To determine whether there are possible ways to decrease learners' poor performance in the upper primary phase in Social Studies;
- To determine the challenges of teaching and learning experienced by teachers of Social Studies, and
- To determine the efficiency of teaching and learning methods used in the teaching of Social Studies.

Research design and methodology

A research design is a master plan that provides a clear guidance on how the study is to be conducted. Both Mouton (2005) and Yin (2009) describe a research design as a blue print for conducting the research. Yin (2009:27) describes a research design as being much more than a work plan, whilst Flick (2014:112) agrees that research design concerns issues of how to plan a study. Mouton (2005:161) adds that the research design is used to describe and evaluate the performance of programs in their natural settings, focusing on the process of implementation rather than a quantifiable outcome. Merriam (1998:6) describes a research design as similar to an architectural blueprint; it is a plan for assembling, organising and integrating information. This research employed a qualitative design because the qualitative research paradigm served

the purpose of collecting data in the form of written and spoken language, as well as through observations in the classroom (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006:47)

The research design used was a case study design within a qualitative research paradigm. This design consisted of the following broad elements or components:

- Methodology and paradigm (case study and qualitative).
- Purpose (identify possible factors contributing to learners' underperformance in Social Studies).
- Context (three selected Namibian primary schools in a particular school district).
- Research techniques (sampling, semi-structured interviews, lesson observation, analysis of policy documents).

The main purpose of the design for this research thus was to ensure that the evidence addressed the research questions. The research was designed to investigate the underperformance of learners in Social Studies at primary school level in three selected schools in a particular school district within a Namibian context. In this way, the descriptive data from the participants were gathered through semi-structured interviews, lesson observations and analysis of policy documents. Denscombe (2003:31) states that the case study offers an opportunity to explain why certain outcomes might happen. This investigation focused on identifying factors that may influence learners' poor performance in Social Studies. The researcher chose a case study in order to analyse personal and individual experiences in the field of Social Studies about the needs and the possible causes of the underperformance of learners in this field.

According to Harding (1987:2), methodology is the theory of knowledge and an interpretive framework that guides a particular research process. In other words, a framework guides the research activity. An appropriate interpretive methodology was chosen to guide the researcher in generating the data as well as in answering the research question. In this research, a case study was used to explore the experiences and challenges of the three selected principals and the five Social Studies teachers in their teaching in order to identify possible factors that may contribute to learners' underperformance in Social Studies. The methodology was shaped by the methods that were used in this study to generate data, namely a literature review, interviews, lesson observations and an analysis of policy documents.

Ethical clearance was obtained from the specific university, and permission was given by the Namibian Education Department to conduct the research.

Sampling

Sampling is a process in research whereby a small group is identified, examined and viewed as representatives of a larger group. According to Denscombe (2003:11) the sample needs to be carefully selected if there is to be any confidence that the findings from the sample are valid, trustworthy and reliable. Flick (2014:80) argues that in qualitative research, sampling is a very important step because by sampling, researchers construct the cases they study in their research. One thus needs to select a sample from which one can learn the most. Through purposive sampling the researcher can probe the case selected as the sample. Merriam (1998:48) describes purposive sampling as based on the assumption that the researcher wants to determine, understand and gain insight. Johnson and Christensen (2004:215) define purposive sampling as a type of sampling where the researchers specify the characteristics of a population of interest.

In this research, the researcher identified three different schools from a specific school district in Namibia. Five subject teachers of Social Studies and three principals of the selected schools were approached to participate in this study as they may have an influence on learners' academic learning. These participants were also selected as they were knowledgeable and well-informed with regard to the phenomenon the researcher investigated. The researcher had easy access to the schools, teachers and principals and this aspect formed part of the purposive sampling process.

The researcher decided to choose only three schools for interviews and lesson observations because they were manageable within the proposed time allocated to complete the research report. In selecting the three schools, the following aspects were taken into consideration:

- the 2008–2014 Grades 5 -7 Social Studies analysis results;
- the distance from the researcher's place of residence (in order to make the study economically sustainable);
- the availability of resources;
- the upper primary phase, and
- ease of communication of the required information.

The researcher was of the view this approach would make it easier to obtain information from the selected principals and the teachers who taught Social Studies and had experience of the subject matter.

Triangulation

In this research triangulation was used to validate the findings of the study and to making these findings trustworthy. Briggs and Coleman (2007:100) state that triangulation means “comparing many sources of evidence in order to determine the accuracy of information or phenomena”. This means that triangulation is a mechanism used to ensure that data collected, as well as the findings, are valid. Triangulation is thus a process of using more than one approach towards the same phenomena to check and increase the validity of the findings.

Denzin (1987, cited in Decrop, 1999:159) identified the following four basic types of triangulation:

- Data triangulation: This method involves the use of a variety of data sources in a study.
- Method triangulation: This method refers to the use of multi-methods to study a research question.
- Investigator triangulation: This method involves different researchers interpreting the same data.
- Theoretical triangulation: This type of method involves the use of multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data.

In order to ensure the validity of the qualitative data of this research, theoretical and method triangulation were applied in this research. Multiple data sources and multiple methods to gain more understanding of the phenomenon were utilised. The multiple methods used in this research were interviews and observations and document analysis.

Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interview is an approach used in qualitative research to gather relevant information the researchers are looking for. Bryman (2012, cited in Savin-Baden & Major, 2013:356) confirms that semi-structured interviews are often used in qualitative research. A qualitative inquiry seeks to gain an understanding of and provide insight into the problem under investigation. Patton (2004:248) recommends that a rich variety of methodological combinations can be employed to illuminate an inquiry question. He refers to the semi-structured interviews format as an interview guide approach. According to this approach, the researcher follows an interview guide that consists of two set of questions to guide the interviewer when particular

information is required from each participant (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002). In this study, the first part contained questions with regard to biographical information of the participants, whilst the second set of questions of the schedule contained the main questions that aimed to explore the possible factors which may contribute to learners' underperformance in Social Studies in the selected schools.

This study employed semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions. The researcher selected semi-structured interviews to collect data because this method was deemed best suited to answer the research question of this study. This type of interview allows one to have a conversation and it allows interviewees to use their own words and develop their own thoughts (Denscombe, 2007:176). Interviewees may raise their own views regarding a particular subject. This helps the participants to convey and disclose information regarded as relevant to the topic. In addition, the advantage of using this interview method is that it is a powerful tool to gain insight into educational issues through understanding the experience of individuals whose lives centre on education.

During the interviews, this semi-structural approach also allowed the interviewer to ask follow-up questions to generate even more data. Apart from the interviewing, another other technique which was used to collect data, was lesson observation.

Lesson observations

It is necessary to briefly explain why and how lesson observation was utilised. The researcher needed to observe on a first-hand basis the teachers in action whilst they were teaching the subject in order to (1) observe the approaches they were using, (2) identify possible training needs, (3) determine to what extent they were implementing the required curriculum, (4) observe learner participation and (4), observe the teaching and learning strategies utilised by teachers. An observation template was thus designed to guide and assist in focusing the lesson observation. This template or form was submitted and approved as part of the ethical clearance process, prior to undertaking the research. Field notes were taken during the lesson observation process. Permission was also obtained from all the participating teachers to sit in their classroom and observe their teaching.

Document analysis

Savin-Baden and Major (2013:403) define documents as written, printed, visual or electronic matter that provides information or evidence or that serves as an official record. Similarly, Cohen et al. (2011:249) describe a document as a record of an event or process, as such records may be produced by individuals or groups and take many different forms. Cohen et al. (2011:250) make a distinction between primary and secondary documents. Primary documents are produced as a direct record of an event or process by a witness or subject involved in it. In this research appropriate primary documents such as the Social Studies subject guide, lessons that were prepared, assessment record sheets, as well timetables and subject files, were analysed. The researcher viewed the primary documents because they offered first-hand information. Data obtained from these documents contained information on the academic performance of the selected schools in the Karas Region, Namibia. The Social Studies syllabus, Social Studies policy, as well as copies of the scheme of work were also analysed because they are supporting learning materials of the subject.

In this research, document analysis was important, because the documents convey a message of information, for example on learners' academic performance and learners' attitudes or behaviour in the classroom during Social Studies lessons.

Ethical considerations

In this research, before conducting the interviews, observing the lessons and doing the document analysis, application letters were sent to all the appropriate authorities to obtain permission to conduct the research. Permission was asked from the Director of the Education Regional Office of the specific school district, while another letter was sent to the principals of the selected schools to grant permission for the researcher to conduct a study at their schools. Permission was granted to the researcher in writing from the specific regional office, as well as from the selected schools. Permission from all of these participants was obtained allowing the researcher to proceed with the research. Participating principals and teachers also signed a consent form and anonymity was guaranteed. The selected principals and teachers could also withdraw at any stage of the research. This study adhered to the ethical consideration procedures of the university under whose auspices the research was undertaken. An application for ethical clearance was submitted to the Research Ethics Committee of the university and permission was granted. Strict adherence was paid to the requirements when the research was done.

Interview questions

The interview questions were divided into two sub-sections, namely interview questions for the principals and interview questions for the Social Studies teachers. These interview questions were as follows:

Principals' questions

- What are the possible factors contributing to academic underperformance in the three selected schools?
- What are the challenges for you in terms of learners' performance?
- How do you motivate and support teachers in accepting the changes to the curriculum and enable them to meet the educational demands in school?
- How often does teaching supervision occur through class visits?

Teachers' questions

- What in-service training programme(s) did you attend with regard to teaching Social Studies?
- How do you assist learners in learning Social Studies?
- What teaching and learning strategies do you use in Social Studies?
- What are the challenges of teaching and learning you have experienced in Social Studies?
- Does educational and curriculum reform contribute to the poor academic performance of learners?
- How do government policies affect learners' academic performance?
- What are the problems that hinder the teaching and learning of Social Studies at upper primary school level?

Profiles of participating teachers and principals

Results indicate that out of five teachers only one had been formally trained during initial teacher training to teach Social Studies, while the rest did not have this formal training to teach the subject. The current study also revealed that not one of these teachers had attended any professional development workshops that might have enabled them to teach the subject. It can therefore be concluded that mainly untrained teachers teach Social Studies at the selected schools. If teachers are not properly trained, are not suitably equipped, and lack the basic subject knowledge and skills to teach and implement the Social Studies curriculum, their learners will probably not perform well in the subject.

The three principals above had different profiles. They had varying management experience as principals. One principal had 26 years of teaching experience, of which 16 years were in management, the second principal had five years of management experience and the third principal six years of management experience. Two principals were male and one female. None of them teach Social Studies (only two also still teach a subject), but they all have management experience of more than five years. All three principals had done formal leadership training courses, namely two principals held a Diploma in Education, while the third principal obtained a Diploma in Business Management.

Results and discussion

On being asked, “What are the challenges for principals in terms of learners’ performance?” one of the participants responded as follows:

Learners [who] are transferred from one grade to another are contributing to academic underperformance in schools because they are transferred without reach the promotional requirements. This learner may fail the next grade because he or she did not qualify to be in such grade.

Another response that revealed that the policy on the automatic transfer of learners to the next grade is a challenge at school was expressed as follows:

When it comes to the assessment policy I do not have problem but the automatic transfer, I do not support it because if learner fails, it is a fail. There must be a reason behind in this policy but it does not help to take learners to the grade if the level is the same.

The principals were asked the following question with regard to supervision: “How often does supervision of teaching occur through class visits?” This question also helped the researcher to ascertain whether management do monitor the teaching and learning process regularly. The principals responded to these question as follows:

I do supervision once per term; and teachers do not have any problem with class visits. We compromise on the date of class visits. If you want to see the results you must monitor and supervise. [The] principal is now responsible for head of departments and the counselling teacher while head of departments are the ones who [are] responsible for teachers. So far, we did not encounter any problem with teachers’ attitudes. Class visits take place every term by myself or the senior teacher; many teachers welcome class visits especially when they are well prepared.

The researcher found that all the principals only do class visits once per term. The concern is how the principals will ensure that effective teaching and learning has taken place if the class visits are only done once every term. Therefore,

supervision, monitoring and the control of teaching must be done regularly. The participating principals were also asked how they control or monitor teaching and learning. The researcher further prompted the participants, based on responses received during the interview, whether the teaching and learning process as well as assessment is being controlled and monitored regularly. This was not a planned question included in the interview schedule but came out during the interviews. In general, supervision, monitoring and controlling are an everyday process. Therefore, principals should ensure that the teaching and learning process occurs effectively at their schools. The aim was to identify whether the management style at the school may influence learners' academic performance negatively (Negumbo, 2016:109-110).

Linked to the question above, a further question was posed to the participating principals on how they motivate their teachers. One principal responded in the following way to this question:

It is a good question you are asking, but you know only when [the] principal is motivated, [he/she] can motivate teachers. There are many ways teachers can be motivated, through teacher development programmes such as training, through peer teaching, general subject meetings and they may also be motivated to upgrade themselves. All these things depend on teachers themselves, teachers they can go for training but the output is the best.

In order for principals to be able to motivate their teachers to accept and implement any curriculum reform, the implication is that they as principals themselves need to be motivated to take ownership and responsibility of the change process. However, if principals are not motivated, they cannot motivate their teachers. The same applies to the teachers. If teachers are not motivated, they cannot in turn motivate their learners to perform well. This argument is supported by Hodgetts (1990:42), as he claims that motivation is a force that pulls a person towards a desired objective. This means that it forces people to become determined and hard-working in reaching their objectives. As can be seen from the above response, the participants were, to a certain extent, aware of the value of motivation.

Another principal responded by saying: "I used to motivate my teachers through team building and send[ing] them to the workshops when it is necessary". The third principal responded as follows: "Continuous encouragement, send[ing] them to the workshop and praise will keep the teacher motivated".

During the interviews the three school principals indicated that they motivated their teachers through training or workshops. This is a good idea,

because training or workshops is where teachers may improve and develop their teaching skills. They may also learn how to improve their teaching strategies through training or workshops. However, the study found that out of five teachers, four indicated that they have never attended any training or workshops with regard to Social Studies. This clearly indicates that there is a contradiction between what the teachers and principals had said. There was a clear indication from the teachers' responses in this section that they are not motivated through workshops because they are never sent to workshops (Negumbo, 2016:103-104).

“The participants explained that the challenges that their schools face in terms of learners' underperformance are mainly due to the automatic transfer policy (Negumbo, 2016:112)”. It is clear that one of the major challenges school leaders face is the automatic transfer policy, which has a negative impact on learners' academic performance. The participants' responses are in line with literature by Sichombe, Nambira, Tjipueja and Kapenada (2011). According to these authors, Namibian schools are faced with the problem of high grade repetition and the transfer of learners to the next grade without their achieving the basic competencies for the previous grade (Sichombe *et al.*, 2011:25). The non-promotion transfer policy may have a negative impact on learners' performance because learners are transferred without reaching the promotion requirements. This in turn leads to a high rate of underperformance in the next grades.

Apart from the non-promotion transfer policy there are other challenges experienced by Social Studies teachers and principals when they responded to the following question: “What are the possible factors contributing to academic underperformance in schools?”

One of the participants commented as follows:

Most of the things which are contributing to the learners' poor performance at this school are lack of parents' involvement, lack of motivation, time, because most of the time children are just alone at home, their parents are always at work.

Participating teachers and principals, held the same view when one says:

One of the contributing factors really is the automatic transfer, lack of motivation, parental involvement, sometimes you may find children alone at home, their parents are working at other places. [...] Some parents [are] involved in alcoholism, so they do not pay attention to their children' education. Even the situations in our town, most of the parents are factory workers, sometimes when they go to work children are sleeping and when they come back from work they find them sleeping again.

One of the participants agreed with this view:

What contributes toward learners' academic performance are learners that are transferred from one grade to another, lack of parent's involvement: parental involvement always remains a challenge.

Another participant had the following to say:

Parents do not like to come to school and they always excuse themselves with work. They would like to tell us that work won't allow them to come to school. This is a challenge to the school, therefore most of the time the school schedule the parents' meeting after hours.

It is clear that both the participating teachers and principals were of the view that parents were not involved in their children's education. They felt that parents were not involved in their children's education because of their work situation and alcohol abuse (Negumbo, 2016:102-103). From the analysis of the responses, it became clear that lack of parents' involvement in their children's education may have a negative influence on learners' performance. Therefore, it is suggested that proper arrangements be made so that parents may assist their children with schoolwork. They could also seek an opportunity to discuss their children's progress with the school instead of waiting for the child's report.

During the interviews with the participating teachers, the following question was also asked, "What are the challenges of teaching and learning you have experienced in Social Studies?"

Participants' responses show that a shortage of teaching and learning materials may be one of the challenges and factors that contribute to learners' underperformance. One of the participants stated:

Social Studies is ... [about] learning and understanding the subject, what usually I do is present my lesson with the project, because most of the time we do not have some materials. Most of the time I use copy and paste from the internet to present the lesson.

Another respondent remarked:

Some of the challenges are lack of materials, sometimes I have to go and make copies because learners do not have enough textbooks and it is time-consuming.

These data clearly indicate that there is a lack of teaching and learning support material at some schools. This state of affairs was verified when the researcher did the classroom lesson observations. Teaching and learning is not effective if there is a lack of support materials. Materials and appropriate resources form the foundation on which teachers base their teaching in attempting to help learners understand the subject content. Teaching and learning support

materials also promote successful teaching and learning and help the teacher to communicate with learners more effectively (Negumbo, 2016:106).

During the interviews, some participants responded to the question, “How do government policies affect learners’ academic performance?” by arguing that learners have difficulty in reading and learning in Social Studies. Some of the comments are presented below:

Learners have a problem with language; the majority do not really understand English.

So far learners whom I am teaching they cannot write English, some of the learners do not understand the content of the subject.

Sometimes learners do not understand English because most of the time they speak Afrikaans at home and at school when they are playing outside with others.

With regard to the language policy, the researcher found that some learners struggle with the content of Social Studies because of their poor proficiency in English (Negumbo, 2016:116). This is similar to the argument of Dhurumraj (2013:24), who reports that the medium of instruction at schools affects learners’ performance in a subject because learners are unable to interpret questions in examinations if they do not understand questions due to the language problem.

Furthermore, the above extracts demonstrate that English as the medium of instruction is a challenge to many learners and that many lack proficiency in using the language. Owing to the language barrier, learners may find it difficult to understand the content of the subject as well as the teacher’s explanation. Therefore, learners may not understand what the teacher is attempting to explain and cannot express themselves when it comes to tests or examinations. The participants’ views are similar to Harris’s (2012:19) argument that, learning subject content in English is one of the contributing factors to the high failure rate in Namibian schools. It is clear that a lack of a suitable level of proficiency in English might indeed be one of the barriers that have an impact on learners’ performance in Social Studies in Namibian schools.

Conclusion

It is clear that the policy of automatic transfer is one of the challenges facing schools in terms of learners’ poor performance. In this regard learners are transferred to the next grade even though they did not meet the subject or grade pass requirement. Another factor that affects learners’ performance is untrained teachers, in the sense that they are not trained to teach Social Studies. Untrained teachers have neither sound subject knowledge nor the skills required for implementing the Social Studies curriculum. As a result,

learners might not perform well.

The teachers indicated that since Afrikaans is the main home language in the area where the research was undertaken, English as the language of teaching and learning is a barrier that prevents learners from fully understanding the subject content. The current language policy thus also poses a challenge. It is also evident that principals do not always monitor the teaching and learning process and that the participating teachers experience a lack of in-service training opportunities or workshops. Class visits by the participating principals to monitor teaching and learning, do not occur on a regular basis. This shows a lack of leadership and management. The results of this study highlighted the above-mentioned challenges to the learners' performance in Social Studies. This study has achieved its aim of identifying possible causes of learners' underperformance in Social Studies in selected schools in Namibia. The recommendations arising from the study are presented below.

Recommendations

This study revealed that four of the five teachers of Social Studies who participated in the research had not been trained to teach the subject. The Education Department had therefore appointed teachers who were untrained and who were required to teach a subject in which they had not specialised. It is recommended that the Education Department appoint properly trained teachers and that teachers be appointed in their area of specialisation. It is also recommended that unqualified teachers further their studies to ensure that they are competent to teach the subject. Teachers could request training by voicing their training needs to the Education Regional Office in order to engage in professional development programmes offered by educational support institutions such as the National Institute for Educational Development (NIED). Through professional development programmes, teachers may attend workshops, receive appropriate induction, be encouraged to further their studies, and become empowered to implement the curriculum of the subject they are teaching. With regard to the language policy, it is recommended that educational policy makers revisit the language policy with regard to using English as the medium of instruction. From the study it is clear that learners are struggling with the content of Social Studies because of a lack of proficiency in English. It is therefore recommended that the language policy in education be considered, which will facilitate the learning process.

It is also recommended that principals fulfil their roles as curriculum and instructional leaders to enhance the teaching and learning quality in schools.

It is also recommended that educational policy makers review both the promotional and the non-promotional policy, as these policies are contradictory and clearly have a negative impact on learner success. This study achieved its aim of identifying possible causes of learners' underperformance in Social Studies. Further research and the resultant recommendations could assist in progressively improving learner performance in Namibia.

The road ahead

It is clear that lobbying and more groundwork will have to be done to address the identified problems. These problems need to be addressed at government as well as at district and school level as the challenges facing the problem of underperformance, is multifaceted. In this particular context, Social Studies is clearly not achieving its goals of educating and forming learners as future responsible citizens. Collaboration between all stakeholders is required; we owe it to the children.

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LEARNERS' ENCOUNTER WITH ARCHAEOLOGICAL FIELDWORK: A PUBLIC PARTICIPATION ARCHAEOLOGY ACCOUNT OF THE EAST FORT ARCHAEOLOGICAL PROJECT

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Abstract

Public Archaeology as a concept is generally defined as civic involvement during the various public phases of Cultural Resources Management. The practice of archaeology in South Africa seldom extends towards public participation in archaeological activities or the production of knowledge. Public Archaeology constitute the active participation of the public in the archaeological excavation and the documentation of an archaeological site. The aim of the East Fort Archaeological Project is to provide an opportunity to members of the public interested in archaeology, as well as to assist high school learners and prospective tertiary students considering archaeology as a career, to participate in an active archaeological project regardless of their skills level. Initially the project was only aimed at high school learners, since heritage is included in the History curriculum for high school learners. Later members of the general public and primary school learners were included due to the interest shown in the project. This article provides an overview of the project from 2013 to the present. It looks at the different aspects thereof, consisting of an orientation course, educational excursion and practical archaeological field work. The project can be considered a success as it proves that the public can participate in and assist with the production of archaeological knowledge. It is foreseen that History teachers could be involved in similar projects that can be used to make history come alive for learners. It is also a first step in creating a heritage-literate society.

Keywords: Public Archaeology; History teaching; Heritage management; Education; Excavation; Documentation; Knowledge production; FET phase.

Introduction

History, Archaeology and Heritage are three very closely related disciplines and may even be regarded as one (Van Vollenhoven, 2016:4-5). The question over whether archaeology is history or not has been concluded during the last quarter of the twentieth century. Heritage has also gradually become a part of both

these disciplines. Just like History, both Archaeology and Heritage are historical disciplines and are aimed at studying the past, specifically the past as created by humans. Although this article does not aim to discuss the relationship between these three subjects in detail, attention is given to this relationship because heritage management, which stems directly from archaeology, forms a vital part of not only the collective historical knowledge we possess today, but also is imbedded in the national curriculum in South Africa (RSA, 2011:5, 34-35).

Du Bruyn (1983:30, 38) states that archaeology is history, or at least should be regarded as such and goes further by declaring that in South Africa it is even more so as both disciplines aim at reconstructing and explaining the South African past. Dymond (1974:76-85) agrees when he states that both disciplines try to reconstruct the story of human life as fully and accurately as possible. It is mainly due to the incomplete evidence of both these subjects that they should be used complimentary to each other.

It is therefore clear that archaeology has long been accepted as being history. The best example of this is that general history publications since the 1980s usually start with a chapter on the prehistory of South Africa (e.g. Cameron & Spies, 1986; Pretorius, 2012) which relies on archaeological enquiry. Many other examples show that history and archaeology are intertwined to such an extent that they can no longer be regarded as being separate.

The discipline called “Heritage” also forms an integral part of the study of Archaeology and History. The scientific approach to heritage evolved in the USA during the 1970s where it originated as a sub-discipline of archaeology (Coetzee, 1991:3). It spread throughout the world becoming one of the many aspects archaeologists deal with (Renfrew & Bahn, 1991:471-473). Since 1989 its inclusion has been common practice in South Africa (Deacon, 1996:841) and soon other historical disciplines, such as History, also added heritage to its study field (Coetzee, 1994:26). Heritage management was institutionalised with the promulgation of the National Heritage Resources Act (Act 25 of 1999). In this act History and Archaeology are both mentioned as key aspects in dealing with heritage.

The National Curriculum Statement for History includes the concept of heritage. Not only is it mentioned with History in the aims of the curriculum, but a heritage investigation forms part of the assessment programme of Grade 10 learners (RSA, 2011:5, 34-35). The three historical disciplines of History, Archaeology and Heritage, therefore, are unmistakably linked and it sometimes is extremely difficult to draw the line between these.

The East Fort Archaeological Project combines these three disciplines. In the project historical information from primary and secondary sources, for example documents and photographs, are combined with archaeological information gained through excavations and analyses of artefacts. The fort was built during the Anglo-Boer War (South African War), which is also a theme in the History curriculum (RSA, 2011:18) and as such is regarded as part of the heritage of South Africa.

In South Africa public participation seldom extends to physical involvement in the production of historical knowledge. Perhaps even more so, it is almost unthinkable to engage with school learners in doing research. In this article the East Fort Archaeological Project is presented as an example of how a participatory project can be mutually beneficial to the distinct archaeological discipline and secondary education spheres for learners.

Public Archaeology

Public Archaeology is the passing along of information discovered through the academic process to people outside of the profession. This is done through museum exhibits, the use of popular and social media and/or opening excavations to the public. This is done in order to promote stewardship of cultural resources and to make Archaeology, History and Heritage relevant to society (McDavid, 2002:2). In South Africa, this process is generally defined as civic involvement during the various public phases of Cultural Resources Management, in which communities are consulted on the heritage and significance of the archaeological and historical site in question. The National Heritage Resources Act (Act 25 of 1999) states in article 38 that communities affected by certain development processes that may impact on their heritage, should be consulted. These engagements sometimes broaden into community education and outreach endeavours. It, however, seldom extends towards public participation in the archaeological activities and/or the production of knowledge.

Although interaction between professionals and the public is desired, physical participation by the public in archaeological activities is often ignored and remains the proverbial “elephant in the room” within South Africa. Mick Aston reminds us that “members of the public do not have the expertise to become involved in brain surgery. In a similar fashion, there are aspects of archaeology which are too complicated for involvement without extensive expertise”. However, he continues that “just as the public are capable of applying plasters and are involved in basic first aid, they can also be involved in some of the less complicated practical aspects

of archaeology” (Aston 2012:447). Time Team producer, Jeremy Cross, aptly states: “professionalism does not mean – should not mean – that all archaeology can only be done by professionals” (Kennedy, 2003).

The existing dialogue between archaeologists and the public focuses on the narrative told by the archaeologist to the public. It has been argued that a power relationship exists in which archaeologists are producers of knowledge and the public are consumers of that same knowledge (Bartoy, 2012:557), and where innovations and ideas are seen as originating solely from the academics (Little, 2005:284). On the other hand Levine, Britt and Delle (2006: 399) explain that historic sites, like East Fort, should serve as a window into the past. They further state that the artefacts recovered should assist in narrating the story of that past to the public. This narration is the beginning of the dialogue that should exist between the archaeologists and the public. It is this dialogue that shapes a community and builds its awareness of heritage. This is the essence of public archaeology.

The existence of amateur bodies, such as the South African Archaeological Society, highlights public interest. Unfortunately, the public are rarely seen as possible contributors in the production of archaeological knowledge, despite some members being well-read and educated. Although it is understandable that these individuals cannot be given free rein to act as professionals, archaeologists must provide them with the necessary guidance to empower them to create academically sound narratives. If channelled correctly, the public’s contribution to knowledge production will be of greater significance if they possess insight into archaeological research and are also allowed access to the existing knowledge base (Franklin & Moe, 2012:570). Professional archaeologists should therefore foster the public’s understanding of essential archaeological concepts, theory and practice with the long-term goal of creating an “archaeologically literate citizenry” (Franklin & Moe, 2012:570). Academics, and in this case archaeologists, must therefore aim for Participatory Action Research, in which members of the public actively engage in research alongside academics, within an environment that inspires joint decision-making in terms of research aims and objectives (Baugher, 2007:188).

Problem statement

The authors are, apart from their academic specialities, all involved with public archaeological enterprises. During the course of this public work they were all confronted with the public’s frustration at the lack of opportunity

to participate in what the latter termed “real” archaeology. Members of the public are often knowledgeable and enthusiastic, yet they cannot find any opportunity to live out their passion or apply their knowledge.

The same comments were heard from high school learners and their parents as well as prospective tertiary students considering archaeology as a career. The latter group may suffer the most under this lack of civic involvement, as informative practical experiences, that may guide career choices, are almost wholly absent from the public sphere.

As a result the authors decided to join forces and create the East Fort Public Participation Initiative. Archaetnos¹ acts as Principle Investigator, permit holder and main researcher and contributes many years of public participation experience through the Steinaecker's Horse Research Project.² HeritageworX³ runs the educational and training side as well as logistics of the project.

The problem being addressed is whether public participation and educational exercises may play an academically valuable role in the production of archaeological knowledge. The article discusses the East Fort Archaeological Project and aims to provide an overview of the project from 2013 to the present and to look at the different aspects thereof, consisting of an orientation course, educational excursion and practical archaeological field work.

East Fort Public Participation Initiative

The East Fort Archaeological Project is regarded within the sphere of Public Archaeology (Public Engagement Archaeology). It encourages the active participation of the public in the archaeological excavation and the documentation of an archaeological site. This means that apart from the professional archaeologists who oversee the excavations, the excavators are members of the public. The excavations are advertised for anyone between the ages of 16 and 160. This lower age limit is deliberately set as the project leaders feel that younger learners might not be able to cope with the physical demands of the excavation. When enquiries for the participation of younger ages are received, it is insisted that one of the parents accompany the learner. The unrealistic upper age limit is in direct response to members of the public

1 Archaetnos is a private company providing a service in cultural heritage management.

2 The Steinaecker's Horse Research Project is a private initiative and has been running for 20 years. Archaeological research is conducted on Anglo-Boer War sites in the Kruger National Park for two weeks each year. The project is based on the contribution of volunteers to do the physical excavations on site, while the professional archaeologist and historian does background research and compiles the research reports.

3 HeritageworX endeavours to fill the gaps and broaden the general understanding of those interested in the fields of heritage and archaeology with lectures, sandwich courses and practical experience that brings knowledge to life.

that express interest and then stating that they believe themselves to be too old to participate. It is explicitly stated that no prior knowledge is required and the only condition is interest and a degree of fitness needed for the physically taxing activities. All first-time participants are required to attend a two-day intensive “Introduction to Archaeology” course.

The research is done in line with ethical guidelines set out by the South African Heritage Resources Agency and the National Heritage Act (Act 25 of 1999). An excavation permit is obtained from the first mentioned and the permit conditions are adhered to. This includes, but is not limited to, standard protocols when dealing with such sites, for instance the full documentation and mapping thereof, careful packaging of excavated artefacts and expert analyses thereof.

Theoretical framework

The archaeological research of the East Fort site is done within the framework of the Heritage Resources Management Paradigm as developed by Van Vollenhoven (2000:553-555). This is an extension of the Contextual Paradigm, but with the emphasis on making heritage accessible to the community. The Contextual Paradigm is one of many post-processual theories in archaeology and is the only scientific framework directly linked to the concept of heritage management (Meyer, 1995:1-15; Van Vollenhoven, 1998:21-24). Furthermore, it is the only paradigm mentioned as having the possibility to be utilised in the public sphere, for instance providing knowledge to assist with land claims and tourism development (Hodder, 1995:168, 182).

Post-processual archaeological theory became popular in academic archaeology during the late 1970s and early 1980s. It proposes that there is no single paradigm of interpreting archaeological sites. Although different paradigms have different approaches, they all place emphasis on archaeological interpretations, the importance of archaeological context, the importance of a personal agent (the archaeologist) and the fact that interpretation of the past may possess political resonance in the present (Richardson & Almans-Sánchez, 2015:196). However, it seems to be only the Contextual Paradigm that makes a direct link between education and archaeological theory (Van Vollenhoven, 2000:105-118).

The Heritage Resources Management Paradigm strives to link a historical site to a current community and therefore provides a wider applicability which is not only aimed at the production of knowledge, but also on the meaning

the site could have for society. In this way it contributes to and potentially could assist any community with the preservation of local heritage. Such a community may only be a small section of the larger community (Van Vollenhoven, 2016:22). In this case the East Fort Archaeological Project not only contributes to the preservation of the heritage of the residents of the area, but to everyone who has an interest in the Anglo-Boer War, archaeology, heritage and education. As a project with an educational aim, it falls within the Educational Approach to Public Archaeology, one of four approaches constituted by Matsula, the others being Public Relations, Pluralist and Critical Approach (Matsula, 2016:3).

In summary the Heritage Management Paradigm views that:

- The cultural context of a historical or archaeological site creates a direct link with a section of the current society. This society may be direct descendants of those who created the site, anyone who regard the site as being important or anyone with a specific interest in the site.
- Communities have a need for their heritage to be researched, preserved and managed which is only possible within the thorough description and all-inclusive evaluation, interpretation and explanation which this paradigm allows.
- Historical and archaeological sites can be optimally utilised and marketed for educational purposes when the research and management thereof is based on sound scientific principles.

The approach for the East Fort Archaeological Project therefore is a participatory methodological one where the public are contributing to the production of knowledge. At the same time the experts (archaeologists, historians etc.) assist the community in the preservation of the site and participation in an educational endeavour. The latter may be useful to assist History teachers in making History come alive and tangible.

Course content

Introduction to Archaeology and participant orientation

Over the four years that the project has been running, the participants have included two primary school learners and ten high school learners, as well as 18 adult enthusiasts older than 18 years. These people were enrolled or prospective Archaeology students, interested members of the public and/or members of the South African Society for Amateur Archaeologists. During

a two-day orientation course, participants received course manuals and CDs containing recommended reading, tutorial videos and presentations. Participants were encouraged to participate actively in the orientation course by asking questions and contributing to the discussions through personal insights and experiences. The course serves to fulfil the following purposes:

- The introduction of participants to archaeological and historical sites;
- The creation of greater awareness of heritage and conservation;
- The facilitation of active communication and Participatory Action Research.

The course introduces participants to concepts not generally thought of by the general public, such as how sites are located, working in and with the law, artefact types and their analyses, the vital necessity of site documentation etc. The course follows a 60% theory and a 40% practical layout. Most of the lectures are followed by practical sessions to enhance the theory and also demonstrate how it is applied. HeritageworX is responsible for writing and presenting the Introduction to Archaeology course. As they firmly believe and reinforce the mantra “the only stupid question is the one not asked”, effort is made to ensure that all the participants understand the course material. The course material is written and presented in an easily digestible format while still remaining academically sound. The parents of the two primary school learners were specifically asked to make sure their children understand the lectures. The same effort is afforded to all participants regardless of age or knowledge level and questions are encouraged throughout every lecture. This method has proved very valuable in that, during the fieldwork, participants were heard linking the practical to the theoretical aspects, proving that the course material was understood and absorbed.

One of the main aims of archaeology is to reconstruct past ways of life (Renfrew & Bahn, 1991:11-14). The theoretical concept of analysing artefacts is explained during the practical garbology⁴ exercise. During this exercise participants are grouped and each group receives a full garbage bag. From this they have to create narratives for each household/individual, reconstructing their daily habits based purely on the physical and documentary evidence revealed by ordinary household objects. Feedback is given by the group with explanations on why the conclusions were reached. A variety of theories are constructed surrounding the contents of each garbage bag's profile. Wild conspiracy theories regarding the possible links between the owners of garbage bag A and B arise to much fun and laughter. The desired result is achieved

⁴ Literally referring to ‘garbage’, in this case household garbage.

through questioning and asking for explanations to the answers given. Lateral thinking is encouraged and this in turn fuels the synthesis of information.

The second day of the course is mainly devoted to the practical aspects of archaeological fieldwork, i.e. setting up an excavation grid, completing context sheets and making plan view drawings.

Image 1: Theoretical training



Source: AM Harcombe, 2013.

Image 2: Completing context sheets and making plan view drawings



Source: AM Harcombe, 2013.

Excursion to Fort Daspoortrand and the West Fort community (2013)

In 2013 the participants were taken on a tour of the ruins of Fort Daspoortrand (West Fort). Although this fort was larger and structurally more impressive than East Fort, its crumbling state highlighted the natural degradation of structures in the archaeological record.

All the participants, regardless of age, asked insightful questions and offered valuable insights on the topics of history, architecture, warfare and engineering. The high school learners, of whom one may sometimes expect simple or even irrelevant questions, came up with surprisingly logical ideas and sensible arguments. The authors feel that the questions posed by the participants had a wide scope and showed “out of the box” thinking. If the group were restricted to trained archaeologists, the questions would have been more focused and in line with their expertise and training. The value of fresh, unbiased input from individuals outside the professional realm of archaeology made it clear that members of the public, regardless of their age or background, could produce viable interpretations of archaeological evidence.

Issues surrounding the conservation of historical buildings were highlighted by a site visit to the West Fort community, where a mixed community now occupies the buildings and grounds of the old Pretoria Leper Hospital. Questions relating to the continued civic use of historical buildings after their official abandonment were asked and concerns about the impending destruction of the neighbourhood were raised. This visit provided an excellent opportunity to educate the general public to regard history and heritage as a whole in a responsible way, a concept that was raised as far back as 1995 (Van Vollenhoven, 1995).

Unfortunately due to the socio-economic deterioration of the area surrounding Fort Daspoortrand, security concerns have made that it is no longer possible to take the participants on this tour.

The East Fort excavations as an example of practical archaeological field work

The excavations are normally scheduled for the week after the introduction course, during the July school holidays. The theoretical information learned is fresh in the minds of the participants. Each individual excavation is led by an experienced post-graduate student, called a Trench commander, many of whom are also members of the Association of Southern African Professional Archaeologists. A team will consist out of high school learners, university

students and members of the public. The mix is intentional as the participants have to learn to work together in a team and assist each other.

Trench commanders are carefully chosen for their skills in working with the public. They need to be able to manage younger and older participants. They are required to encourage participants actively to ask questions and engage in conversations. This is achieved by reinforcing the concept introduced during the weekend course that there are no stupid questions. The Trench commanders treat all questions and suggestions seriously and encourage group discussions. These discussions can be brought up at the communal lunches where everyone's opinion and participation is asked for. Each day starts with the Site Director giving an overview of what is expected for the day and ends with a summary of what was achieved, as well as highlighting noteworthy findings.

The first day of excavations always kicks off with a great level of enthusiasm. Although uncertainty over some aspects of the excavation is clearly visible, expressions soon transform into gestures of understanding and confidence. The day starts with the Site Director leading a site tour. During this tour the archival photographs and documents of the fort are used to show the layout of the fort. It is explained how these documents assist archaeologists to decide where to excavate and how this context could help in interpreting the artefacts found and in writing up the history of the site.

By day two, everyone is accustomed to the routine and is conscious of the work ahead. In spite of fatigue setting in, participants are well-aware of the time constraints and do their best to achieve the daily targets. Trench commanders attempt to utilise the strengths and weaknesses of their individual team members and focus on creating cohesive and productive units. Physically strong individuals are commandeered to assist groups where muscle is needed, while those less physically able are used to take charge of sorting and documentation. Where the soil is exceptionally hard or compacted with small stones (due to the collapsed Rice Pattern walling)⁵ the experienced excavators are brought in to assist. In more than one instance, the subject knowledge and logical reasoning skills of older participants greatly outweigh their contributions in terms of the physical excavation.

5 The Rice pattern refers to a type of blockhouse, invented by Maj. SR Rice of the Royal Artillery. It consisted of different shapes made out of galvanized corrugated iron. These usually had a wooden frame, with a double corrugated iron wall attached thereto and with small stones in between. By January 1901 the large scale erection of blockhouses was at the order of the day. At first these were octagonal in shape, but from March 1901 circular shaped ones were also made National Archives of South Africa (NASA, A1619:278-279).

Participants are involved in the administration of their excavation and each participant is afforded a chance to write their excavation's field notes for the day. Participants are also in charge of the labelling and packing of the artefacts collected and, if required, drawing of in situ artefacts or excavation trench profiles drawings. On the last day of the excavation, individual trenches are closed down and sandbagged waiting reopening the following year. The week's activities are wrapped up and each participant is awarded a Certificate of Participation.

Image 3: The site director teaching site drawing



Source: AM Harcombe, 2013.

Image 4: One of the excavation teams hard at work



Source: AM Harcombe, 2013.

Discussion

Interpreting Feedback

It is important to acknowledge Bartoy's (2012:558) recommendation that course programmes should be evaluated in order to assess whether or not the educational objectives have been reached. This is especially true since having a good time does not necessarily result in actual learning. Thus, each team member participating at East Fort is requested to complete a feedback form and the responses are overwhelmingly positive. The critique is constructive and helps in identifying and addressing problem areas in either the course or in the fieldwork. The participant feedback is used in future marketing and in publications and presentations, popular and academic, about the project. Their consent is obtained in a direct question on the feedback form.

During the early Introduction to Archaeology courses it was suggested by the Trench commanders with prior experience as educators, that the content of the orientation course could be restructured to suit the requirements of younger participants. Thus by including more examples from international archaeology that act as drawing cards for the discipline through channels like National Geographic, these examples will be complimented, where possible, with examples from local archaeology. After all, the public expect us to reveal an exciting world that teaches them about our past, not some grand epistemology (Franklin & Moe, 2012:566). It is always encouraging to see that the participants, especially the school learners, know about these international examples (e.g. Stonehenge and the Egyptian pyramids) and even some of the more well-known South African ones (e.g. Mapungubwe), although the local heritage is not at all as well known as the international ones.

Expectations of field work

It was envisaged that the first excavation season (2013) would take the form of a structural dig in which a comparison would be drawn between the 1979 site map, compiled by Mervin Emms and the remaining physical features. The material record is not rich in terms of artefacts but a number of unique items did emerge which ignited great enthusiasm. The objects were of an everyday nature, and far from spectacular, but it was clear that the participants held more realistic expectations of the artefact record. It became apparent that no one was disappointed by the lack of jade masks, golden rhinos or crystal skulls. Indeed bullet casings, glass shards with maker's marks and partial smoking pipe stems proved just as exciting. These outlooks indicated that, despite

the original attention fuelled by pop-culture archaeology and romanticised documentaries, members of the public possess a more realistic expectation of archaeology than previously thought.

Career guidance

During the introduction course the lecture on the fields of specialisation within the discipline most everyone finds an eye-opener. Sending prospective Archaeology students into the field can have dual consequences. They can either recognise their expectations of the discipline were misguided and make the informed decision to follow another career path, or confirm that their interests were based on certain truths and that the added experience and newly gained information, solidified their decision to pursue archaeology as a career. Whatever the case, both scenarios result from the provision of career guidance and practical experiences gained nowhere else but through Public Archaeology. The perception that all artefact analysis is done by the archaeologist him/herself is laid to rest. Archaeological fieldwork is generally held by the public as the be all and end all of archaeology. In the media very little attention is paid to the analyses of the material and when findings are presented it is normally the lead archaeologist who is interviewed. This creates the perception that he/she alone is responsible for every aspect of the physical excavation to the writing of the final report.

The impression is thus created that if you are not fond of working outside, you cannot be an archaeologist. In conversations with students the knowledge gained in this lecture not only showed them that they do not have to be a field archaeologist to make a valuable contribution in the discipline. It also exposed them to understudied areas in the discipline. In conversations with the learners they mentioned that they thought they could not combine their particular interest, for example art or mechanics, with their interest in archaeology. They thought that by studying their main field of interest, they would have to give up their interest in archaeology.

The other side of the coin is that many believe fieldwork is exactly as it is portrayed by the media or in the movies such as the *Indiana Jones* films with spectacular finds and dangers lurking around every corner. Sending prospective Archaeology students into the field before they start studying or early in their university education can help them to recognise that their expectations of the discipline were misguided and to make the informed decision to follow another career path. The consensus among all is that,

within the overly romanticised world of pop-culture or inadvertently created perceptions in archaeological documentaries, a true archaeological experience is exactly what the public needs.

Findings

Each year the project goes from strength to strength and the previous participants encourage new participants because of their personal experiences and knowledge gained. Each year also brings new ways of interacting and new groups to interact with. It can be stated unequivocally that the East Fort Archaeological Project is a success because the basic premise remains firmly imbedded in principles of academia and archaeological ethics while creating an enjoyable experience for all who participate. The project further proves that the public, regardless of age or skills level, can participate in and assist with the production of archaeological knowledge.

Adhering to the fundamental principles of archaeology means proper orientation, pre-fieldwork education, on-site training, as well as consistent supervision, guidance and the maintenance of site ethics. There is no reason to dumb down information or compromise on academic standards just because you are dealing with learners and non-professionals. From the authors and other archaeologists' (Trench commanders) experience there is no reason why the public (in this case school learners, students and other volunteers) should not be involved in real archaeological projects.

Furthermore, the project can be seen as a test case study for History teachers and could add value to the heritage component in the national curriculum. As with other aspects which are annually evaluated and improved, the educational component needs improvement, *inter alia* by not only evaluating the experience of learners, but providing them with a specific assignment to be completed and evaluated. The programme can for instance be run in concert with schools, therefore allowing an entire History class to attend during the semester (currently the programme is hosted during the school holidays). As such it will have a more direct bearing on the national curriculum.

Conclusion

As the East Fort project evolves, some transformation and revision has already taken place. The feedback received from the participants as well as the questions and comments during the course and fieldwork is reviewed

and applied after every excavation. The fundamentals by which the successes can be measured and carried forward have been established. The central achievement is that the project managed to move away from the popularist view that archaeology is a “fun digging activity”. It provides a more realistic vision of archaeology as “a way to study and learn about the past” (Lewis, 2007:305). Participants derive enjoyment and learning from the experience

From the feedback it is clear that part of the enjoyment originated from knowing that it is a real excavation. Participants gave a positive response in knowing that their hard work and sweat was generating actual knowledge and making a contribution to the archaeological and historical record of South Africa. This is the start of fostering the much needed dialogue between the archaeologists and the public.

Exposing and educating specifically the learners to real tangible history and the archaeological process makes them conscious of heritage and history, the importance of it being studied and above all, the importance of it to be conserved. The active participation in an on-going research project makes it relevant to learners and brings the heritage to life. It shows that history is exciting and needs to be taken out of books in order for learners to be captured by it. If possible, archaeologists should be involved in the History learning program for schools. This can be done by learners participating in projects like the East Fort Archaeological Project, but at the very least archaeologists could visit schools to give guidance with regards to the heritage section of the History curriculum.

The project therefore serves as proof that the public can contribute to the production of our knowledge of the past. Apart from the scientific site reports created, the research has already been published in peer reviewed journals and presented at conferences. Without the participation of the volunteers and learners, this would not have been possible.

Although the East Fort Archaeological Project deals with only a small part of South African history, illustrating how it fits into the whole creates a willingness to learn more. The project engages with the learners in a non-traditional educational environment and the discussion of Archaeology, History and Heritage is an alternative way of dealing with these subjects. In this way the project, or similar ones, may also benefit History teachers in realising an active way of creating awareness about Archaeology, History and Heritage. At the very least it would assist in the heritage investigation that Grade 10 learners are assessed on. The excitement of finding artefacts and

being taught about the meaning of each makes history alive. It affords the opportunity to be part of the creation of historical knowledge in a way the classroom cannot.

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CONTEMPORARY RELEVANCE – A CATEGORY OF HISTORICAL SCIENCE AND OF THE DIDACTICS OF HISTORY AND ITS CONSEQUENCES IN TEACHER TRAINING

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Abstract

Contemporary relevance as a category of the didactics of history teaching includes not only historical facts which might be deemed the causes of present-day problems and circumstances but also those which, on the grounds of the values or ideas inherent in them, are identical, equivalent, or contrary to present-day problems or notions. A context of meaning is created between present and past which gives rise to orientation knowledge, making it possible to reflect on solutions to present-day problems, to think of alternatives to habitual contemporary patterns of thinking and living, and to develop future perspectives. Selected examples of the various aspects of contemporary relevance are discussed, such as the conflict between Israelis and Arabs in the Middle East, and the role of religion at various times in history. The consequences arising from this category for both the didactic and subject-specific training of History teachers will be discussed, as well as the nature of the relationship between subject-specific and didactic training.

Keywords: Contemporary relevance; Context of meaning between present and past; History; Didactics of History; History teacher training; History lessons; Israel and the Palestinians, State and religion.

Introduction

Anyone who has taught history has experienced how interested students are when they are able to touch an ancient object like a Neolithic axe or a fragment of Roman pottery. They are therefore encouraged to put questions about the object, about the material and the period from which the object originates. If together with students you visit Celtic or Roman remains or a medieval castle in the vicinity, a similar effect is achieved. It is important that the students not only look at the remains, but have the opportunity to explore them, to take their measurements and to discuss them.¹ In this way remains from times long past become part of the students' lives.

¹ W Stadtmüller, "Sachquelle", W Schreiber, *Erste Begegnungen mit Geschichte. Grundlagen historischen Lernens*, 2nd ed., Vol. I (Neuried, Ars Una, 2004), pp. 441-454.

These examples show how past and present are connected. It is not surprising that in 1992 an experienced teacher stated: “Historical contents without contemporary relevance are irrelevant for students and cannot be taught”.²

Before examples for contemporary relevance in history and in history lessons are given and consequences for history teacher training shown, it is important to determine what role contemporary relevance plays in History as science and in History didactics.

Contemporary Relevance

Development since the late 1960s

During the late 1960s and the beginning of the 1970s historians and history education experts were already discussing contemporary relevance, because History as science at university as well as history teaching at school were controversial.³ How could it be justified to teach History at university and at school, since universities and schools were socially relevant and had an effect on existing society? Several articles were published about why history should be taught, not only at universities but also in schools.⁴ In these articles contemporary relevance played an important part. Historians and history education experts made proposals in order to outline the different tasks of History as science and of teaching history. Only the arguments for contemporary relevance will be discussed below.

Causes of present-day problems and circumstances

Primarily, historical insight is necessary for the understanding and explanation of present-day phenomena and subsequently their historical causes and developments. As a rule this would draw the attention mainly to phenomena of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, such as the Middle East conflict or the German division. But other subjects are rooted further

2 P Karsten, “Unterricht in Geschichte-Politik”, *Geschichte, Politik und ihre Didaktik*, 20, 1992, p. 14.

3 K-E Jeismann (ed.), “Funktion und Didaktik der Geschichte”, J Rohlfes & K-E Jeismann (eds.), *Geschichtsunterricht, Inhalte und Ziele. Arbeitsergebnisse zweier Kommissionen* (Stuttgart, Klett, 1974), pp. 106-139; I Geiss, “Der Ort der Geschichtswissenschaft in der Gesellschaft oder Die Funktion des Historikers”, E Jäkel & E Weymar (eds.), *Die Funktion der Geschichte in unserer Zeit* (Stuttgart, Klett, 1975), pp. 192-207; E Weymar, “Funktionen historischen Unterrichts in der Schule”, E Jäkel & E Weymar (eds.), *Die Funktion der Geschichte...*, pp. 265-279.

4 I Geiss, “Der Ort der Geschichtswissenschaft in der Gesellschaft...”, E Jäkel & E Weymar (eds.), *Die Funktion der Geschichte...*, pp. 196 et sqq.; K-E Jeismann (ed.), “Funktion und Didaktik der Geschichte”, J Rohlfes & K-E Jeismann (eds.), *Geschichtsunterricht ...*, pp. 115-116.

in the past, for example the splitting of the Roman Catholic Church by the Reformation.⁵

A context of meaning between present and past

Contemporary relevance includes not only the causes of present-day problems but also those which, on the grounds of the values or ideas inherent in them, are identical, equivalent, or contrary to present-day problems or notions. A context of meaning is created between present and past which gives rise to orientation knowledge, making it possible to reflect on solutions to present-day problems, to think of alternatives to habitual contemporary patterns of thinking and living, and to develop future perspectives. Moreover, History as science can provide categories of and insights into object areas which are similar to the present, but at the same time distant enough not to evoke emotional barriers. Also, central categories of political decision-making processes like the scopes of action of states of different size can be better understood from certain temporal distances and compared with the present. It is to be noted that with a comparison or an analogy between present and past, only the characteristics of the respective eras and the historical difference must be considered. Only then is a context of meaning as described created.⁶ Rohlfes defines contemporary relevance as a category of historical science and of historical didactics. According to him, contemporary relevance comes into play only “if you have empirical evidence for the connection between past and present”. He is convinced that the present is illuminated by the past as well as the past by the present.⁷ A still a more important role as regards contemporary relevance comes up in the didactics of history rather than in historical science. Since didactics of history requires not only structure and form, genesis and function of historical consciousness, but in its practical area also takes into consideration the respective addressees, in History lessons the learners look and discuss which aims, contents and methods are to be found. Thus contemporary relevance is defined in the didactics of history, not only as a case connection and a context of meaning between past and present, but it also needs to be determined what meaning the connection has for the present and life reality of the respective addressees. For school children contemporary

5 K-E Jeismann (ed.), “Funktion und Didaktik der Geschichte”, J Rohlfes & K-E Jeismann (eds.), *Geschichtsunterricht...*, pp. 118-119.

6 HD Schmid, “Verfahrensweisen im Geschichtsunterricht”, J Rohlfes & K-E Jeismann (eds.), *Geschichtsunterricht...*, pp. 54-56; K-E Jeismann (ed.), “Funktion und Didaktik der Geschichte”, J Rohlfes & K-E Jeismann (eds.) *Geschichtsunterricht...*, p. 126.

7 J Rohlfes, “Gegenwartsbezug als Kategorie der Geschichtswissenschaft und des Geschichtsunterrichts”, R Schörken (ed.), *Der Gegenwartsbezug der Geschichte* (Stuttgart, Klett, 1981), p. 60; “...wenn der Konnex zwischen der Vergangenheit und der Gegenwart konkret und empirisch ausweisbar ist”.

relevance is a sort of existence relationship, because they want to know what meaning history has for them, which is why they should deal with it. In addition, in the context of meaning in past and present, it is necessary for the addressees to not only perceive the action motives in the sources and interpretation categories, but also to understand and explain them. Finally, from it follows the orientation towards the past which affects the present and future.⁸ To produce a context of meaning of the various epochs, a so-called “longitudinal section” is often suggested as a subject-specific teaching procedure.⁹

Cause connection and a context meaning between past and present can be made clear in different and multiple phenomena of history. Of course, contemporary relevance can also include testimonia of the historical culture like remains, monuments, anniversaries etc. These are intentionally not shown as an example, because they often differ on regional level. Their inclusion in the lessons should therefore occur according to the sphere of reference of the addressees. An example of cause connection and one of context meaning between past and present will be outlined next, before conclusions are introduced for history teacher training.

Examples for contemporary relevance

Causes of today's conflicts in the past: Israel and the Palestinians

An end to the conflict between Israel and the Palestinians is currently not in sight, although there have been attempts to orchestrate reconciliation. However, armed hostilities and wars flare up constantly. Solution possibilities have covered a wide field. How did it come about that in the area of the former Ottoman Empire Arabs and Jews clash so bitterly?¹⁰

The Middle East belonged to the Ottoman Empire. However, in 1882 Egypt was taken by British troops and during the last quarter of the nineteenth century Arab nationalism emerged in the towns of Egypt and Syria. In Egypt this nationalism was directed against the English, and in the Arabian countries

8 J Rohlfes, “Gegenwartsbezug als Kategorie...”, R Schörken (ed.), *Der Gegenwartsbezug der Geschichte...*, pp. 62-63.

9 Compare E Erdmann (ed.), *Thematische Längsschnitte für den Geschichtsunterricht in der gymnasialen Oberstufe* (Neuried, Ars Una, 2002). This volume refers mostly to secondary school learners (about 16 to 19 years old). The first two articles deal generally with longitudinal sections; E Erdmann, “Thematische Längsschnitte im Geschichtsunterricht”, E Erdmann (ed.), *Thematische Längsschnitte für den Geschichtsunterricht...*, pp. 11-24; A Michler, “Längsschnitte im Geschichtsunterricht”, E Erdmann (ed.), *Thematische Längsschnitte für den Geschichtsunterricht...*, pp. 25-42.

10 For the following I refer to the book of E Krautkrämer, *Krieg ohne Ende? Israel und die Palästinenser – Geschichte eines Konflikts* (Darmstadt, Primus, 2003). In the appendix there is a German translation of the draft of the British Zionists and the letter of Minister Balfour to Lord Rothschild, 2 November 1917, pp. 160-161.

against Turkish rule. In 1914 a total of 700,000 Arabs and 80,000 Jews, amongst them approximately 12,000 Zionists, lived in Palestine. The term “Zionism” emerged only at the end of the nineteenth century. Theodor Herzl (1860 – 1904) is regarded as its founder; his ideas were taken up by the already existing “Zionist” movement. Herzl was clearly aware of the Arabs living in Palestine, but he could only imagine a peaceful and prosperous immigration for the whole Palestine.¹¹ Also, the Zionists did not want to hurt or provoke the Arabs.¹² For centuries the Arabs and the Jews resident in Palestine had been living together peacefully. However, this changed in the decade before the First World War when the number of Jewish immigrants grew perceptibly. Until that time the principle “conquest by work”, i.e. substituting Arabian workers with Jewish ones, had been unknown in Palestine.

During the First World War British government officials made promises and concluded agreements with the Arabs, with the Zionists and with French government officials. These promises or agreements were partly rather vague, so that they could be interpreted differently. Moreover, they contradicted each other. Here we have the birth of the Middle East conflict. How did it come about?

During the First World War the Middle East as third front gained in importance. The west side of the Arabian peninsula was strategically significant for Great Britain in order to guard the Suez-Aden line. Emir Hussein, the ruler of Al Hijaz and the most influential Arab prince, wanted to free himself from Ottoman domination and expand his rule over the entire Arabia. He offered the British Empire an alliance in order to gain his independence with the help of the Britons. Since he had to show consideration for the Arab nationalists, the condition for an Arab uprising to take place, was the recognition of an Arab great Empire which would enclose today’s state areas of Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, the Arab peninsula (without Aden), the sheikdoms in the Persian Gulf, Saudi Arabia and Palestine, then part of Syria. In this regard his son Faisal negotiated with Sir Henry MacMahon, the British High Commissioner in Cairo. MacMahon, however, had to consult the Foreign Office, who could and did not want to go over the head of the French, who were also very interested in this area. The French government suggested secret negotiations between France and Britain about the subdivision of the area to protect English and French interest areas. From the British side diplomat Mark Sykes and from the French side François Georges-Picot, secretary of the

11 A Shlaim, *The Iron Wall. Israel and the Arab World* (London, Allen Lane, 2000) pp. 3-4.

12 F Schreiber & M Wolfsohn, *Nahost. Geschichte und Struktur des Konflikts*, 4 (Opladen, Leske und Budrich, 1996), pp. 42, 52.

French embassy in London, were asked to negotiate. On 16 May 1916 they reached the following conclusion: France would receive Syria and Lebanon, and England would receive Mesopotamia as well as Palestine and Jordan as interest areas.¹³

Under the impression of the German-Turkish advance to the Suez Canal, MacMahon was urged to hurry, because Britain wanted the Arabs' active support. He sent an appropriate letter to Hussein on 14 October 1915 in which he expressed his hope for "a firm and lasting alliance" between Great Britain and the Arabs. Indeed, "the two districts of Mersina and Alexandretta and portions of Syria lying to the west of the districts of Damascus, Homs, Hama and Aleppo cannot be said to be purely Arab, and should be excluded from the limits demanded".¹⁴ In his reply on 1 January 1916 Hussein pointed out that he would deviate from his demands only out of consideration for France. He could assume that the Arab great Empire was guaranteed, and that there would only be an argument about the Syrian coastal areas. In the summer of 1916 the uprising against Ottoman rule commenced. Colonel Thomas Edward Lawrence instructed Faisal's Bedouins in the art of guerrilla warfare and they were provided with British money and French weapons. His point of view, which he expressed in his book "The Seven Pillars of Wisdom", has to be read critically.¹⁵

The third agreement involved Chaim Weizmann (1874 – 1952). He had developed a process to produce larger quantities of acetone, which was very important for the armaments industry. During the First World War the British Admiralty provided him with a research laboratory and in this way he came into contact with leading politicians whose support he could win for Zionist plans, amongst others Winston Churchill, the First Lord of the Admiralty. Prime Minister Lloyd George and his Foreign Minister, Arthur Lord Balfour, were convinced in 1917 that the Jewish concern had to be supported; considerations of the British Middle East strategy probably also played an important role. If a Jewish community in Palestine was under a British protectorate, the Suez Canal could be safeguarded from the East and the overland route from Egypt to India could be opened. The British Zionists, being in contact with American like-minded individuals who had in

13 W Laqueur (ed.), "The Sykes-Picot agreement", *The Israel-Arab Reader. A documentary history of the Middle East conflict*, rev. ed. (London, Pelican books, 1970), pp. 29-33.

14 W Laqueur (ed.), "The MacMahon Letter", *The Israel-Arab Reader...*, pp. 33-35.

15 E Krautkrämer, *Krieg ohne Ende? ...*, p. 13. Critically about Lawrence: W Koch, "Entzauberung einer Legende", *Die Zeit*, 47, 1969 (available at <http://www.zeit.de/1969/47/entzauberung-einer-legende>, as accessed on 24 January 2017), pp. 1-3.

the meantime won over President Wilson and other prominent politicians to their aim, demanded and obtained a declaration which had been submitted to, and approved by, the British Cabinet. This decision, that a national home may be established in Palestine for the Jewish people, was made known in the form of a letter by the Foreign Minister, Lord Balfour on 2 November 1917.¹⁶

The Balfour Declaration was neither compatible with the MacMahon-Faisal-letters (1915/16) nor with the Sykes-Picot agreement (1916). Until this day the State of Israel bases its claim for existence and legal right on this declaration. It is therefore necessary to look at it more closely. Lord Rothschild, friendly with Weizmann, the Upper House member and Vice-President of the British Organisation of Jewish Communities, had in July 1917 presented Lord Balfour with the draft of a declaration in which the British government would recognise Palestine as the national home of the Jewish people. The draft therefore demanded Palestine as a whole. However, Balfour in his reply only referred to the establishment “of a national home in Palestine”. Moreover, he insisted on respecting the rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine. The Zionists had demanded the re-establishment of a national home in Palestine, but the declaration mentioned only “establishment”. Re-establishment would have meant the recognition of historical rights in the whole of Palestine. The expansion of the current state of Israel does not, in Israeli view, contradict the Balfour Declaration, because the historical Palestine extended over parts of Syria and Transjordan and for the British in 1917 it was also part of Transjordan.¹⁷

In 1919 negotiations between Weizmann as spokesman for the Palestinian Jews and Emir Faisal in Damascus, who actually controlled an Arab great Empire, led to an agreement. With this Faisal approved the competence of Weizmann to speak for the Palestinian Jews. Provided that changes should occur with regard to the foreseeable independence of the Arabs, Faisal had made the reservation that he could not be held accountable for the non-realization of the agreement. This in fact transpired. In July 1920 France expelled Faisal from Syria, after which the British installed him as king in Iraq and he became anti-Zionist. Something similar happened to his brother Abdullah who was installed in Jordan as administrator, later on as Emir. France received the mandate over Syria and Lebanon, and Great Britain the mandate over Mesopotamia as well as over Palestine.

16 W Laqueur (ed.), “The Balfour Declaration”, *The Israel-Arab Reader...*, pp. 35-36.

17 CH Weizmann, *Trial and Error. The Autobiography*, 4 (London, Hamilton, 1950), pp. 252-262; E Krautkrämer, *Krieg ohne Ende? ...*, pp. 22-23.

In the context of this article, the further development until the present cannot be followed, but it may have become clear that the different promises of England and France during the First World War are irreconcilable. The local population in the Middle East were not consulted, rather they were used. Also, the states created there by the Great Powers were without legitimacy, which has an effect until today.¹⁸

Context of meaning between past and present: State and religion

Topically the relationship between the state and religion is increasingly discussed. Hence it is logical to outline a longitudinal section about this theme from Roman antiquity until the present in order to look at the relationship between polytheistic religion and the state, as well as the relationship between monotheistic religions and the state through the centuries, e.g. Judaism, Christianity and Islam.

Polytheism was the norm in antiquity. Thus the Romans worshipped a multitude of gods and goddesses. For them it was important that on certain holidays sacrifices had to be made in a traditional way and they also observed signs in nature, such as the flight of birds and lightning. Because they worshipped so many deities they permitted other people to adore their own deities. Often they tried to harmonize their gods with foreign gods. The Romans therefore equated Zeus, the supreme god of the Greeks, with Jupiter, their supreme god. If there was no correspondence with the Roman gods, foreign gods were borrowed to maintain the name, as with the Greek god Apollo. They tried to equate Oriental, Celtic and Teutonic gods or deities which were worshipped in a certain region only with their own gods, e.g. the name of the Celtic god Grannus, who was attributed with the gift of curing people was added to Apollo, who besides other qualities, had the same attribute. Inscriptions exist containing the name Apollo Grannus.¹⁹ If it was not possible to equate foreign and Roman deities, the Romans also worshipped foreign gods like Epona, the Celtic goddess responsible for horses.²⁰ The main thing was that all inhabitants of the Roman Empire considered Jupiter to be

18 F Schreiber & M Wolfsohn, *Nahost. Geschichte und Struktur des Konflikts...*, pp. 39-40.

19 W Czysz et al. (eds.), "Six dedication inscriptions to Apollo Grannus from Faimingen and surroundings", *Die Römer in Bayern* (Stuttgart, Theiss, 1995) p. 443; compare PH Filtzinger, D Planck & B Cämmerer (eds.), *Die Römer in Baden-Württemberg*, 3 (Stuttgart-Aalen, Theiss), p. 85.

20 Epona was worshipped not only in present-day South-West Germany, but also in the Balkans, in Rome and in present-day Algeria and Morocco; compare M Euskirchen, "Epona", H Cancik & M Landfester (eds.), *Der Neue Pauly*, 4, column 2 (Stuttgart, Metzler, 1998). To different places and inscriptions compare W Czysz et al. (eds.), *Die Römer in Bayern...*, p. 271; compare PH Filtzinger, D Planck & B Cämmerer (eds.), *Die Römer in Baden-Württemberg...*, pp. 197-198, 238, 370, 374, 395, 435, 465, 588.

their supreme god and honoured the emperor in the usual fashion. As long as this was maintained the Romans had a tolerant attitude.

The Jews were monotheistic and recognized no other deity except their own god. In the Roman Empire they had a privileged position with regard to their religion. The Roman Empire expanded into large parts of the countries around the eastern Mediterranean. In the last third of the second century B.C. the Diaspora-Jews who lived there came under the direct rule of the Romans. In 63 B.C. Pompeius conquered Syria and Palestine. Caesar and Augustus were supported by the Jewish rulers, of whom Herod the Great is probably still the best-known. For this reason the Jews were privileged: they were allowed to practise their religion and to observe their religious laws and rites freely. The Jewish communities were *collegia licita* according to Roman law.²¹ Apart from an expulsion of Jews from the city of Rome in 139 B.C., which obviously soon became obsolete, and the exception under Caligula (37-41 A.D.), the Roman state was tolerant. The intense clashes flaring up repeatedly between Greeks and Jews in Alexandria were a special case which can be explained by specific structures and developments of this city. The Jewish uprising, which ended with the destruction of Jerusalem and the taking of Masada, had its origin in different internal Jewish religious endeavours competing with each other, with which social and economic tensions were also connected. The Bar Kochba uprising during the reign of Hadrian (132-135 A.D.) was unleashed by the construction of a temple for Jupiter instead of Jahweh and a disputed banning of circumcision.

The tolerant attitude of the Roman state was not affected by the wars, although the government tried hard to hold the Jewry within its ethnic borders and to prohibit missionary work and proselytism. Prejudices against the Jews are testified to in written comments of the Roman upper class, although prejudices surely also existed in the lower classes, but of these we have no written testimonies. Because of their religious laws the Jews were perceived as separate from society and different, to the extent that they were regarded as anti-social beings.²²

21 H Castritius, "Die Haltung Roms gegenüber den Juden in der ausgehenden Republik und in der Prinzipatszeit", TH Klein, V Losemann & G Mai (eds.), *Judentum und Antisemitismus von der Antike bis zur Gegenwart* (Düsseldorf, Droste, 1984), pp. 17-23.

22 H Castritius, "Die Haltung Roms gegenüber den Juden...", TH Klein, V Losemann & G Mai (eds.), *Judentum und Antisemitismus...*, pp. 32-33; W Schmitthenner, "Kennt die hellenistisch-römische Antike eine 'Judenfrage'?", B Martin & E Schulin (eds.), *Die Juden als Minderheit in der Geschichte*, 3rd (München, Deutscher Taschenbuchverlag, 1985), pp. 9-29, 21.

At what time Christianity became an independent religious community cannot be exactly determined. The name Christiani arises about the middle of the first century. The Christians did not call themselves so; this evolved at a later stage.²³ In Rome Christianity possibly already gave rise to conflict under emperor Claudius (41-54 A.D.). The Roman historian Suetonius reports in his biography of Claudius that the emperor expelled the Jews because, incited by a certain Chrestus, they constantly caused trouble (Suetonius, Claudius, 25, 4).²⁴ Here it becomes clear that the government did not as yet distinguish between Jews and Christians. On the other hand, the expulsion had occurred not due to religious motives, but to maintain public order.

Under the reign of Nero (54-68 A.D.) the known persecution of Christians took place, about which the historian Tacitus reports. In order to oppose the rumour that the emperor himself had set fire to Rome (64 A.D.), Nero cast suspicion on the Christians. The population of Rome seemingly harboured an aversion to and even hatred of Christians. According to Tacitus, Christians were convicted of “hatred for the human race” (*odium humani generis*), condemned and executed. At the same time they were reproached for disgraceful religious practices, which pertains to the fact that Christians did not practise their religion in public, so that the population had to rely on suppositions (Tacitus, *Annales* 15, 44).²⁵

It is controversial as to whether persecution of Christians took place under Domitian (81 – 96). Christians probably felt threatened because the emperor took actions against high-ranking persons specifically.²⁶ From the reply of emperor Trajan to an inquiry by his special legate in the province Bithynia-Pontus, Pliny the younger, it can be deduced that the government had no interest in tracking down and convicting Christians. It happened only if somebody was accused by name. Anonymous reports should not be considered. Who claimed not to be a Christian had to sacrifice to the Roman gods and went unpunished (Pliny the younger, *Letters* X 96-97).²⁷

23 K Piepenbrink, *Antike und Christentum* (Darmstadt, Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft, 2007), pp. 2-3.

24 Suetonius, *De vita Caesarum*, 2 (London, Loeb Classical Library, 1914). With an English translation by JC Rolfe. The English translation of the life of Claudius (available at http://penelope.uchicago.edu/Thayer/e/roman/texts/suetonius/12caesars/claudius*.html, as accessed on 25 January 2017). The Latin text refers to “Chrestos”, the translation of Christus according to the interpretation of the Church Fathers.

25 Tacitus, *Annals*, translated by AJ Church & WJ Brodribb (London, Macmillan, 1876) (available at <http://www.sacred-texts.com/cla/tac/a15040.htm>, as accessed on 25 Jan.2017), book XV, 44.

26 J Moreau, *Die Christenverfolgung im römischen Reich*, 2 (Berlin, De Gruyter, 1971), pp. 37-44; K Piepenbrink, *Antike und Christentum...*, p. 2.

27 Pliny the younger, *Letters*, with a English translation by W Melmoth, revised by WLM Hutchinson, 2 (London, Heinemann, 1915), pp. 96-97 (available at <https://archive.org/details/letterswithengli02plinuoft>, pp. 401-407 as accessed on 24 January 2017).

In the second century persecutions became more frequent, due to accusations from the community. At the time when Marcus Aurelius (161 – 180) came to power, epidemics, famines, barbarian invasions and flooding in Rome occurred increasingly. Christians were firmly opposed, because they did not sacrifice to the Roman gods and consequently did not participate in reconciling with the gods. The Church Father Tertullian describes this as follows: “If the Tiber reaches the walls, if the Nile does not rise in the fields, if the sky doesn’t move or the earth does, if there is a famine, if there is a plague, the cry is at once: ‘Away with the Christians to the lion!’” (Tertullianus, *Apologeticum* 40).²⁸

During the third century the Empire experienced one of its heaviest crises. The external, but also the internal situation worsened noticeably. It was believed that the gods had turned away from the Empire. Hence, emperor Decius at first (249) ordered a general sacrifice to the gods. All inhabitants of the Empire were requested to donate incense and some wine and to eat from the sacrificial animal. Because many Christians refused to do so, from the state’s point of view they showed a lack of loyalty, leading to the persecution of Christians throughout the Roman Empire. Because the situation of the Empire deteriorated, emperor Valerian (253 – 260) took legal action against the clerics in order to disturb the structures of the Christian communities.

All Christians who belonged to the social elite were also persecuted so as to persuade them to relinquish their faith.²⁹

A few more or less quiet decades followed, after which the Christians were again persecuted under Diocletian and his colleagues. Diocletian’s edicts against the Christians (303) applied to all four parts of the Empire, even if the edicts were executed with different intensity. The system of the tetrarchy meant a religious authorization of the rule. Diocletian as Jovius was not Jupiter, but he received from him all authority, which he transmitted to Maximian Herculeus. At the same time he was higher than Maximian, because Hercules had to carry out the orders of Jupiter. The same was also valid for both the Caesars who were designated successors of the Augusti. If the Christians refused to sacrifice to the Roman gods on whom the political

28 Tertullian, *Apology, De Spectaculis*, with an English translation by TR Glover (London, Heinemann, 1977), p. 40 (available at <https://ryanfb.github.io/loebolus-data//L250.pdf>, as accessed on 25 January 2017), p. 183.

29 J Moreau, *Die Christenverfolgungen im römischen Reich ...*, pp. 85–90; K Piepenbrink, *Antike und Christentum...*, pp. 15–16.

system of the tetrarchy was founded, they were not only guilty of a political offence, but were also committing a sacrilege.³⁰

With the tolerance edict of the emperor Galerius (311) the persecutions of the Christians formally came to an end in the whole Empire. Galerius did not convert to Christianity, but near the end of his life he had to accept that although the Christians were persecuted they could not be persuaded to sacrifice to the traditional gods and so support the continued existence of the Roman Empire. With his edict he allowed the Christians to worship their god, provided that they prayed for the welfare of the emperors and of the state as well as for their own well-being and did not violate the public order.³¹

Other themes which could be treated within the scope of a “longitudinal section” about “state and religion” include: Constantine and the absolute tolerance of the Christian faith; the fight for freedom of the church versus the state; bishop Ambrosius’s opposition to the emperor Theodosius; the difference between the development of the relationship between state and church in Rome and Byzantium; the investiture conflict in the eleventh and twelfth centuries; Protestantism and its relation to the state; the so-called Kulturkampf (conflict between the Prussian state and the Roman Catholic church) in the nineteenth century; the Christian churches in the time of national socialism; progressive secularisation and the separation between state and church in our time;³² the special case of Islam.

Consequences for future history teacher training

The wide range of examples shows how important the scientific basis is for future history teachers. Therefore, subject-specific lectures or seminars on causes of present-day problems and about a context of meaning between past and present should be presented to those students. In seminars, dealing with didactics of history should be broached and discussed, not only theoretically regarding contemporary relevance and its significance for history lessons, but also citing concrete examples, to make contemporary relevance in its different manifestations conceivable. Indeed, exact planning and agreements

30 K Piepenbrink, *Antike und Christentum...*, p. 19; K Christ, *Geschichte der römischen Kaiserzeit* (München, HC Beck, 1988) pp. 726-727.

31 J Moreau, *Die Christenverfolgungen im römischen Reich...*, pp. 112-113; K Christ, *Geschichte der römischen Kaiserzeit...*, pp. 735-376. With a translation of the edict of Galerius; K Piepenbrink, *Antike und Christentum ...*, pp. 70-71, also with a translation of the edict.

32 It is obvious to start this theme with the discussion paper of the FDP (Free Democratic Party), “Freie Kirche im Freien Staat”, from 1974 (available at <http://gbs-hh.de/pdf/Thesen-FDP-Kirchenpapier.pdf>, accessed on 24 January 2017).

between historians and history education experts are necessary in order to present coordinated or common seminars. Bachelor and master studies have since been introduced in some countries; other countries have adhered to the state examination, but have been modularizing all courses of study for future teachers. Such agreements can be made not in general but only in accordance with the different regulations either of the country or of each university.

If historians and history education experts succeed in cooperating, future teacher students will learn how they can use subject-specific knowledge for the didactically well-founded planning and carrying out of history lessons at school. On the one hand, it is necessary for future teachers to acquire a detailed knowledge of the subject. On the other hand, it is absolutely necessary to determine to what basic insight the subject can be reduced. The reduction is one of the most important didactic categories.³³ Future history teachers must learn to resist the temptation of considering everything they have learned about the subject to be equally important and therefore of interest to their learners. They should rather ask themselves the question as to what aspects of the subject could be relevant for the young learners. In this way the subject can be summarized under a question or a problem question. At the same time, the subject and an interest in learning can be combined. In the didactic analysis, it may be asked what the current theme means for our present and for the interests of the learners. By planning lessons, future history teachers need to consider the age and the pre-knowledge their learners already bring with them.³⁴ For history classes at secondary school level (about ten to 16 years old) it is definitely adequate to deal e.g. with the causes of a conflict that is significant for the present. It is also possible for younger children to deal with actual physical remains from the Celts or the Romans, with historical monuments, old buildings, memorial statues, or with a museum in the region, all of which are manifestations of historical culture.

A longitudinal section, as mentioned above, produces a context of meaning through the epochs. For younger learners it is difficult to contextualize, because they do not have enough previous knowledge, especially during the first years of history lessons. Consequently there is the danger that with it a short-logical progress devoutness, a mono-causal connection and a lack of complexity in

33 H Buszello, "Zum Problem der 'didaktischen Analyse' im Fach Geschichte: Fachspezifische Lernzielkategorien und ihre Anwendung in der Praxis", *Die Realschule* (84)10, 1976 pp. 600–609; F Conrad & E Ort, "Didaktische Analyse", U Mayer, H-J Pandel & G Schneider (eds.), *Handbuch Methoden im Geschichtsunterricht* (Schwalbach/Ts, Wochenschau, 2004) pp. 561-576.

34 N Zwölfer, "Die Vorbereitung einer Geschichtsstunde", H Günther-Arndt (ed.), *Geschichts-Didaktik. Praxishandbuch für die Sekundarstufe I und II* (Berlin, Cornelsen Scriptor, 2003), pp. 197-205.

the way things are perceived, are promoted. In any case, the teacher's support is necessary.³⁵ History education experts have mentioned this problem quite often. On the other hand, the longitudinal section intensifies contemporary relevance and therefore contributes to political education. The motivation of the students is also strengthened.

Of course, future history teachers have to consider which materials, either written sources or pictures, caricatures, maps, diagrams etc. are available to and advantageous for their learners. In the end this also enables future history teachers to prepare themselves to differentiate in their classroom.

Conclusion

For future history teachers, detailed subject-specific knowledge is absolutely necessary in order to recognize possibilities to teach the different forms of contemporary relevance. At the same time, they need to possess detailed didactical knowledge to take the interests and age of their learners into consideration. For these reasons, planning that coordinates historical and didactical seminars and lectures is considered desirable in universities.

35 E Erdmann, "Thematische Längsschnitte im Geschichtsunterricht", E Erdmann (ed.), *Thematische Längsschnitte für den Geschichtsunterricht...*, p. 18 with note 20; H Strotzka, "Globale Aspekte in nationalen Geschichtslehrplänen. Probleme und Perspektiven", K Pellens et al. (eds.), *Historical consciousness and History teaching in a globalizing society* (Frankfurt am Main, Peter Lang, 2001), pp. 287-290.

HANDS-ON ARTICLES

NOSTALGIA, MEMORY AND HISTORY TEACHING AND LEARNING

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Abstract

“... there is a twilight zone between history and memory; between the past as a generalized record which is open to relatively dispassionate inspection and the past as a remembered part of, or background to, one’s own life” (Hobsbawm, 1987:3).

Nostalgic writing, as a cultural phenomenon, allows the writer to occupy the present whilst searching in the experienced past for a historical narrative. The writer seeks a specific narrative, one which connects the recorded past to his/her lived experience.

This article explores the use of nostalgic writing in pre-service teachers as they attempt to define the “length of the twilight zone”. By allowing the pre-service teachers to engage in nostalgic writing the writer finds that through personal reflection they are able to experience its limitations and seek to remedy this myopia through the development of a historical gaze.

Using Svetlana Boym’s (2001) concepts of restorative and reflective nostalgia the article shows how pre-service teachers are enabled to plumb the depths of their own twilight zones. In doing so they identify areas of anxiety which shape and mis-shape the lenses with which they view the recorded past.

Keywords: Heritage; Memory; Restorative nostalgia; Reflective nostalgia; Identity; Symbolism.

Introduction

Every year, in many schools around our country novice history teachers enter classrooms and set about practicing their craft. Within the walls of those classrooms teachers, both novice and experienced, give credence to the intended curriculum through their enaction and assessment of it.

The thrust of this article is to look beyond the constructs of the curriculum and framework within which these teachers operate. For regardless of the ideological gaze of the teacher, or the academic layering to which he or she has been exposed, at the centre of this matrix is an individual with his or her

own experiences who is attempting to negotiate a space, a “twilight zone” where shadow and shape are linked in a dance of interpretation tempered by academic rigor but not conceived by it.

So the manner in which teachers, novice and experienced, reach understanding with regard to cause and consequence, or selecting sources, or determining the rigor with which perspective is either provided or interrogated is subject to their mediation of this twilight zone. EJ Hobsbawm (1987) foregrounds a space, a “twilight zone” in which positions have to be mediated and negotiated because of a compromised gaze. This has significant consequences for learners bereft of a strong second register who find themselves in a class guided by a teacher who stumbles in this zone.

History teaching and memory

In a history class, even where learners are engaged in activities congruent to the aims of the official curriculum, their gaze is being shaped primarily by the selection made by the teacher. Content (topic and related events), the sources foregrounded and the narration thereof is largely determined by the teacher. This is because it is the teacher who places the learner into a relationship with the content and sources through the activities (what learners must know) and tasks (what learners must do) prescribed during the lesson.

History, as a school subject, is characterised by a move away from a received narrative to one where source work is an unmissable component of class activities (Seixas, 1993). The learner, when using the tools of the historian, sifts through a variety of sources trying to find reliable evidence from which to construct a probable narrative. However, if the sources provided by the teacher reflect a single perspective it is unlikely that the learner would be able to construct a narrative which does justice to the complexity of events and concepts.

It becomes problematic and unhelpful, when using sources which reflect multiple perspectives, to employ polarising concepts such as “collaborators” and “perpetrators”. These concepts, for example, are not sufficient to serve as constructs of a narrative which allows the reader neither to determine the cause of these actions nor to determine ethical considerations of these actions. And, yet, those who lived through periods such as the protests in South Africa during the 1980’s clearly understood the use of these terms: to those who lived through the Trojan Horse-event, or were present during the Battle of Belgravia these terms are well understood. So when teachers, novice or experienced, select content based on their own lived experience,

their memories, they run the real risk of exposing their learners to activities which are not necessarily history.

Restorative and reflective nostalgia

Svetlana Boym (2001) has developed two concepts of nostalgia: restorative and reflective. When employing restorative nostalgia the view of the past is characterised by an attempt to protect an absolute truth – a received narrative. Cause and consequence are easily identified whilst ethical responses are shaped from a singular perspective. It is also characterised by a yearning for the restoration of a homeland lost, whether it be real or imagined.

On the contrary, reflective nostalgia tries to bring the absolute truth into doubt. It attempts to instil a less subjective approach to selection of content and pedagogy employed by teachers. According to Boym (2011), restorative nostalgia acknowledges the imperfections of narration and, critically, that the past cannot be restored. The reader or viewer is situated firmly in the present trying to draw, from an interrogation of the past, possible reasons which would explain the state of affairs shaping their current landscape.

The consequences for teaching are enormous when considering the impact either restorative or reflective nostalgia holds for the content to which learners are exposed. With restorative nostalgia learners will not be engaged in history. It is through reflective nostalgia that learners open themselves sufficiently to a plethora of sources from which evidence can be used to construct a narrative.

Foregrounding nostalgia

Whilst working with pre-service teachers, tension between history and memory was made manifest when observing how they selected and sequenced knowledge to produce, at times, very different narrations of events: especially those events through which they themselves had lived. It was evident that awareness of academic layering and rigor is not enough to negate the embryonic residue of their remembered past: how they remembered the past was informing their selection of content which would serve as sources and evidence of a particular narrative.

In an attempt to reveal the influence of memory and nostalgia on practice I chose to expose my students to the guile and seduction of personal reflection. Students were required to use nostalgic writing as an extreme form of subjective memory. They had to write about a person, space or event and

through their writing reveal its significance. I was expecting the students to delve into the “personal” and write with a degree of personal reflection not previously required of them. This was evident from the questions which they posed. They were concerned by the usual demands of academic writing. “What about referencing?”, “Are we able to decide for ourselves on whom we want to focus?” Their questions reflected a degree of understanding of what history is which was congruent with the general view the history community: history was an enquiry-based activity.

I chose to model for them an example of nostalgic writing. I showed them a photograph of a beautiful, rural landscape and allowed them to imagine the space and quality of life which they associated with it. This activity drew them into an animated discussion of possibilities and limitations. I then chose to reveal my relationship with the landscape in the photograph, that it was the place of my childhood and that the significance of the space lay way beyond the beauty of the rolling hills. It was intimately connected to the construction of my identity. This significance they understood when I read to them a piece of my own nostalgic writing which articulated, in minute detail, how the winding river and rolling hills shaped my identity.

This is the task which I gave them to complete for class the following week:

Write a piece of nostalgic writing entitled:

A place of significance OR A significant day OR My Grandmother (OR suitable alternative)

Length: 1 page, Word count [350 – 400 words], Total: [50]

What they wrote

Students wrote with a sense of freedom albeit with a degree of artistic licence. The adjectives and adverbs contained in their writing displayed intent to show personal association with the significant space or person: not the accuracy of narration.

There were two broad themes which emerged:

1. Nostalgia with regard to significant people
2. Nostalgia with regard to places

It was notable that students from rural areas focused on significant individuals, someone who was the cornerstone of the family. Or it was someone who made it possible for the student to pursue higher education.

There were several submissions from students who identified themselves as coming from urban areas. For them significance was expressed as places visited: a holiday home or a house in which they grew up before the fortunes of the family changed.

Students wrote nostalgically about these themes placing themselves, unapologetically, at the centre of the narrative. They foregrounded their sense of loss or appreciation of a specific meeting of time and place (the past) from a location within the present.

Very few submissions were based on significant events which could have served as turning points in the history of South Africa or the world. I was disappointed by this as it would be a window on how these novice teachers would remember and ultimately recontextualise events through the lenses of their memories.

What they discovered about their writing

Students actively encouraged each other to write and complete this assignment. One student explained to a fellow student how she experienced the assignment. “Jy moet krap, jy moet diep krap.” (You have to dig...dig deep). They discovered that their narrative, though unique and significant to themselves, was often a variation on a theme. Other students had similar experiences, visited similar places and shared similar losses. They realised that both their achievements and emotional trauma were not unique.

They discovered this because they insisted on reading their stories of significance to each other. This was done in small groups to allow for maximum participation. One student expressed her intention that this was an activity she would employ in her own classes one day.

What I discovered about their writing

This activity served not only its intended purpose but had an unintended consequence too. In reading their essays I was alerted to the manner in which they placed themselves centrally through the act of memory. In written feedback for each essay I showed them how through word choice they used the “power of the signifier” to allocate roles to characters in their stories.

In addition, many had written in a mode of nostalgia similar to restorative nostalgia, especially when making a significant person the subject. Descriptions were flowery and few attributed weaknesses to their subjects. There were a notable few who wrote with a clear sense of reflective nostalgia. Their writing expressed an awareness of the present as a consequence of the past. It was this past they were interrogating.

I became aware of the immense personal journeys many students had undertaken to reach university. Many had to delay their studies for various

reasons ranging from parents passing away and having to take over the household to giving birth or simply lack of funds. I also discovered to what extent command of English was a limiting factor in their ability to express themselves: a barrier to learning. The writing sorely required editing. Though intention and significance was clear many sentences and paragraphs were constructed clumsily. I would not have noticed this were it not for the subject matter: a subject of their choice.

How does this link with teaching and learning history?

It was my intention to alert students to the way in which people approach events of the past. History is an unnatural act (Wineburg, 2001). By having students become aware of the universality of their narrations this assignment succeeded in encouraging them to look for stories similar to theirs. It opened up a plethora of alternatives in terms of thinking about the past. The events of the past were also populated by people other than themselves: it was not just about them.

What I would do differently

I would do this assignment differently next time. I would still require students to immerse themselves in glutinous nostalgia and experience the seduction of foregrounding their own experiences at the expense of a multi-perspective gaze. But I would change certain aspects:

- I would not do it as an assessment. This diluted their focus. I would just let them write and in this way they become co-constructors of content for the class. Their generated content will help to contextualise the theory to which I will expose them.
- Rather than just reading their stories to each other I will have them tease out aspects of historical thinking in these narrations. To what extent is perspective lost or limited in such a narration? How accurate or complete are the descriptions contained therein?
- I was disappointed by the lack of submissions on an event through which they had lived. As a consequence I would in future divide the assignment into two sections. Firstly, they would have to account how they all remember a particular event. I would identify the event. This would allow me to see to what extent they allow memory to corrupt their historical gaze. Secondly, I would then have them identify a significant individual or space. In this way they and I would see to what extent they allow restorative - or reflective nostalgia to shape their respective historical gazes.

Conclusion

When I peruse the worksheets drawn up by student teachers on topics such as the uprisings of the 1980's, uprisings through which I lived as a university student, I am struck by the mechanistic way in which the content is presented to learners. I look for the excitement, the uncertainty, the terror and perhaps even the smell of tear-gas that characterised that period for me. I am aware that my expectations are shaped by a knee-jerk reaction to engage in restorative nostalgia: to somehow ensure that the intimacy of those moments is never lost, that each drop of blood spilled is accounted for.

But I am also aware that my responsibility extends to ensuring the development of a sound historical gaze: one which is characterised by, amongst others, the seeking of multiple perspectives, use of a variety of sources and becoming aware of change and continuity- in short, reflective nostalgia.

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CROSSING THE “CHALKBOARD-KEYBOARD-DIVIDE” ON A SHOESTRING BUDGET

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Abstract

This article focusses on creative ways that history teachers can use technology in their classroom especially where resources are limited. Ideas are shared on how to make the teaching and learning process fun and how to use online assessments to assist in assessing learners without the burden of marking.

Keywords: Information and Communication Technologies; Budget; History teaching and learning; Cell phones; Assessment; *ClassMarker*.

Teaching the current generation of learners, the so-called Millennials- requires a shift from the chalkboard to the keyboard. They are the first generation in history that have grown up totally immersed in a world of digital technology and teachers have no choice but to adapt their teaching approach to include technology in the classroom. As much as the pedagogical integration of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) is advocated by the Department of Education in the ICT in Education policy, (DoE, 2004) the implementation thereof faces a number of challenges.

ICT integration does not simply refer to the placing of computers in the classroom or the belief that learners should have access to information from the internet. Integration implies that technology is used to facilitate teaching and learning, i.e. where students learn with or through ICTs. Unfortunately research suggest that the knowledge of most teachers in South African schools of ICTs, is not at a level where they are confident with the new tools or how to use them to enhance learning (Ndlovu & Lawrence, 2012). Lack of access to resources has furthermore been cited as one of the main barriers to ICT integration. Previously disadvantaged schools are still struggling to keep up with well-resourced schools (Nkula & Krauss, 2014). Despite the opportunities that ICTs offer, there are still many schools in South Africa that do not have access to ICTs (Ndlovu & Lawrence, 2012).

The aim of this article is to make a few suggestions on how to introduce the use of technology into the classroom where access to ICT is limited. As much as the majority of schools in South Africa are not equipped with interactive

whiteboards and tablets, it should be no excuse not to include technology in teaching, even if it is only from time to time. Many schools have a computer lab and if such a lab is not available, utilise the fact that many learners, even in remote areas will have access to a cell phone. Using a few rands of data to create a temporary Wi-Fi hotspot in your classroom may change the whole teaching and learning experience for both teacher and learner.

The study by Ndlovu and Lawrence (2012) mentioned earlier, refers to the fact that many teachers, currently in front of a classroom, do not have the necessary knowledge or skill to make use of ICTs. If you, like me, have been teaching for many years, you may also fall in this category. What I know of the use of technology is self-taught or what my children have graciously shared with me. Realising that teaching using ICT means more than showing a video or delivering a lesson making use of a power-point presentation, I had to come up with a creative way to close the gap between myself, a Baby Boomer, and the Millennials sitting in front of me. What I therefore share with you is by no means lessons in how to use ICTs to facilitate teaching and learning but rather ideas based on my own experience on how to negotiate the “chalkboard-keyboard-divide” in a classroom with no interactive whiteboard and with learners still using textbooks.

An easy way to use technology in the classroom and to disperse the notion that you date from the Stone Age, is to make use of cell phones. Being allowed to use a cell phone in class where the general rule forbids it already makes the history class “cool”. Running an online history quiz by dividing learners in teams where at least one learner has a cell phone with access to internet, can be a lot of fun. A number of ready-made historical quizzes are freely available online. The following two links are a good start:

- <http://www.quizfactor.com/quizzes/history-and-politics-10>
- <http://www.proprofs.com/quiz-school/story.php?title=basic-world-history-quiz>

Designing a worksheet for group work where the use of cell phones are allowed to complete the task will give the learners an opportunity to be actively involved in the lesson with the use of technology even if on a basic level.

Creating a treasure hunt based on a historical topic where clues and answers are sent back and forth between teams via a cell phone must surely beat any effort of the teacher explaining the topic by writing key words on the black board.

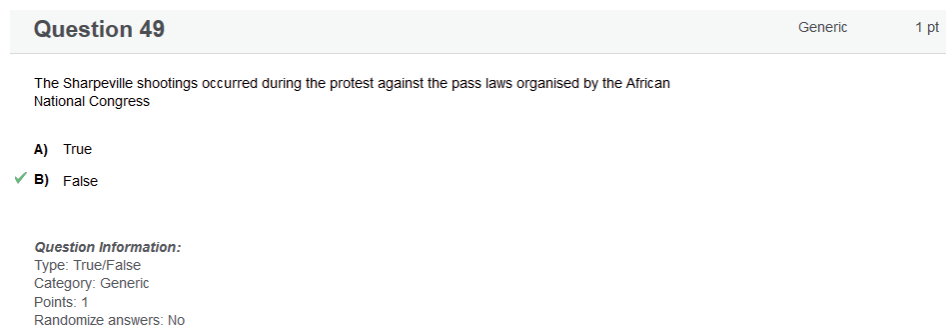
The focus of this article however, is to discuss the value of a programme that is very useful in assessing learners’ basic content knowledge and the interpretation of historical sources, without having to mark it! *ClassMarker* (Anon., n.d.) offers various options of setting questions, provides instant results as well as valuable feedback after the test was completed. The use of this programme does not replace the required assessments but provides the opportunity to do regular class and revision tests as it eliminates the burden of having to mark.

To take the test, learners have to log on to the website and the test is taken online either via computer or a smart phone. In instances where the number of computers or phones are limited, the teacher can create individual login numbers for each learner which will allow them to take turns to complete the test using the same device.

ClassMarker has various options one can use to set questions testing basic knowledge as well as the learners’ ability to interpret and analyse various sources.

Example of types of question:

True of False question – testing knowledge



The screenshot displays a question interface with the following content:

Question 49 Generic 1 pt

The Sharpeville shootings occurred during the protest against the pass laws organised by the African National Congress

A) True
✓ B) False

Question Information:
Type: True/False
Category: Generic
Points: 1
Randomize answers: No

Multiple choice

Photos, cartoon or snips of documents in jpeg format can be uploaded as sources and by carefully phrasing, the learners’ ability to analyse or interpret sources can be tested. The free version of *ClassMarker* does not allow users to upload documents but this can easily be overcome by creating a printed addendum with labelled sources learners can refer to when answering questions.

Question 42 Generic 1 pt

The Prime Minister, Dr Verwoerd, is looking angry because



- A) He is trying to protect human rights by laws, but is failing to do so
- ✓ B) Human rights keep getting in the way of him enforcing apartheid
- C) Apartheid has been unsuccessful in protecting human rights for all
- D) He is trying to lift the blinds to let in human rights but is failing

Results of tests

Results of the test are available directly after the test is completed and can be sorted alphabetically or by the mark achieved. The results can also exported to an excel worksheet.

Example:

All dates ▼ Any status & score ▼ Any duration ▼ No grade filter ▼ Actions ▼						
Name	Percentage	Score	Duration	Date	Statistics	
Average	57.1%	28.6/50	00:01:03			
M Alberts	50%	25/50	00:00:59	Sat 8 Oct '16 1:18pm	Answers	
B Boshoff	50%	25/50	00:00:57	Sat 8 Oct '16 1:21pm	Answers	
C Candice	80%	40/50	00:01:10	Sat 8 Oct '16 1:32pm	Answers	
D Dlamini	80%	40/50	00:01:05	Sat 8 Oct '16 1:35pm	Answers	
E Ellis	20%	10/50	00:00:56	Sat 8 Oct '16 1:38pm	Answers	

ClassMarker also allows for candidates to view the result per question and to see the correct answer and where a wrong answer was provided.

Example:

What was the basic task of the Tomlinson commission?

Correct answer: A)

Selected answer: C)

- A) To investigate the socio-economic problems of the reserves.
- B) To investigate the position of the urban African
- ✗ C) To investigate the socio-economic interaction between whites and blacks
- D) To draw up a map of new boundaries for the reserves.

Lastly, *ClassMarker* automatically generates a certificate that can be downloaded and printed as an incentive for learners to do well in the test. (Not all features are available on the free version).

Making use of *ClassMarker* for assessment is only one of many options. The following links provide other options that may be worth exploring:

- <https://getkahoot.com/>
- <https://www.onlineassessmenttool.com/>
- <https://www.polleverywhere.com/>

Conclusion

As much as the government’s attempt to move education into the new era of digital classrooms should be commended, many schools are still a far cry from running paperless classrooms of the future. The Gauteng Department of Education estimates that the “Big Switch On” (moving classes to the digital system) launched in 2015, will cost around R17-billion (SAinfo reporter, 2015). I do not know if the rollout is on track but until all schools are “switched on” teachers will have to improvise to cross the “chalkboard-keyboard-divide”.

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BOOK REVIEWS

A Jacana Pocket History – Poverty in South Africa: Past and present
(Jacana Media (Pty) Ltd, 2016, 176 pp. ISBN 978-1-4314-2412-2)

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The theme of book *Poverty in South Africa: Past and present* is captured in the title. The emphasis of the book is on poverty within South Africa. The essence is on what poverty means materially, socially and politically. The history of the phenomenon of poverty is highlighted within the context of South Africa's past and current evolution. The focus of the book is on providing "an historical overview of poverty in South Africa" (p. 12). The book acknowledges that poverty is not exclusive to South Africa as it is prevalent in many countries and has been the focus of researchers' overtime. The book makes a case for the "distinctive dimension" (p. 13) of poverty in South Africa. In other words, poverty in South Africa is affected by racial discrimination, prevalent through the country's legislation, its traditions, discriminations within its systems and deep-rooted prejudices.

The structure of the book is logical. The theme of poverty's past is encapsulated in the beginning of the book, which features a historical look at the precolonial past with a focus on the nature of poverty. There is a mindful attempt in the beginning to outline the anguish of the poor against the background of precolonial and colonial South Africa. This gives the author the margin to present the various arrangements of the disparities and poverty that were prevalent within precolonial indigenous societies. These disparities marginalized some members of the communities in comparison to others. Having set the arguments that South African poverty has been profoundly racialized (p. 13), the book proceeds to look at poverty among the white and black population as well as poverty in urban and rural areas of South Africa.

Poverty within the white population is approached more as a question

than a problem. Whilst acknowledging the severity of poverty suffered by the African and Coloured population, the book makes a case for a chapter on “white poverty” (p. 40). The case in point being the implications for policy implementation to address poverty within the white population and implications for poverty for the black population. One of the stark contrasts explained is on policy differentiation in addressing poverty among the white and black people. Poverty among the rural and urban blacks was well noted by policy makers, yet very little was done to tackle this problem (Chapter 3).

The chapter details poverty experienced by the rural and urban blacks. The causes of rural poverty explained from social and economic perspectives start as far back as the first half of the twentieth century. Urbanisation of Black areas in South African cities is described as typical of urbanization in other countries, in terms of pace. The urban areas described include Sophiatown (p. 67), Johannesburg (p. 69) and Durban (p. 72). One of the motivations for such urbanization was to create barriers for growth and to create restrictions for blacks within these cities. The discussion on such barriers is carried through the chapter on apartheid and urban poverty. The main features of the three phases of apartheid are provided as an explanation for urban poverty. The author goes on to explain “social engineering” (p. 110) during the period of apartheid and the ripple effect for poverty in the rural areas. Having attained the goal of discussing poverty in South Africa before 1994, the next chapters explains post-apartheid poverty. The arguments from the post-apartheid period are used to show through empirical evidence how the assumptions under the first five chapters have shaped the present. It is against this background that the author maintains that: “All visible aspects of poverty – some of which are so familiar they are barely noticed – are historically formed” (p. 34).

Several theoretical arguments are presented in the first five chapters. The first argument is the acknowledgement that poverty is a global phenomenon and not solely a South African problem. That poverty in South Africa has uniqueness in that it is “colour-coded” (p. 13). Inherent within this assumption is the reference to blacks were subservient in comparison to white settlers. Accordingly, Bundy closes chapter one with the following statement: “For three centuries, poverty in South Africa was profoundly shaped by changing forms of unfree labour and by social and political relations that were colour-code” (p. 39). The second argument is that capitalism and urbanization was result of colonialism. The intention of policy in response to poverty experienced by blacks was to create measures that controlled the black population and strengthen the white supremacy. Bundy

captures this as “stringent measures controlled where Africans lived, worked, were schooled – and on what terms” (p. 56).

The chronological presentation of arguments is important for this book and is in keeping with the theme of past and present. This is evident firstly in the title of chapter one, namely, *Precolonial and colonial poverty* and in the introduction of poverty during precolonial and colonial times. Secondly, in the discussion of the poor white problem from 1860 to the Union government as well as the creation of employment for whites around 1933. Thirdly, in chapter three’s discussion of poverty in the rural and urban areas where blacks resided prior to 1948. In addition, the chapter on apartheid and poverty in urban areas records the period of apartheid as part of three subdivisions from 1948 to 1990. Finally, is the post-apartheid period in which African National Congress (ANC) rules and the organization’s policy response to poverty in South Africa from 1994 to 2004 and 2014 election.

The emphasis in chapters 6 and 7 is on policy with respect to poverty in South Africa. In chapter six Bundy provides a brief description and analysis of how the ANC uses social security policies as an integral part of the organizations’ campaign. The importance of social welfare and its distribution form an essential part of the chapter. This is followed by a tracing of racial appropriation of social welfare during the Pact and Fusion government in favour of whites. The arguments on social welfare are fully explored with the author using different literary text to explicate his views. An explanation is given on the how social protection policies began from 1994. The discussion and illustration of expansion and technology associated with the distribution of pensions and grants is charted in this chapter. Following on the expansion is thinking that by not changing the “shape” as opposed to the “size” of the welfare system, the author explains that “there was less incentive to reconceptualise” (p. 123) and to question the assumptions that were part of purpose of such a system. The author then looks at the impact, limitations and ideology of the ANC with respect to social security. The chapter then notes the paradox of the ANC with regard to its “pro-poor policy” (p. 126).

The concluding chapter in the book revisits the theme of the book. The author starts the chapter with three questions, one of which is: “How did [poverty] come about”? (p. 133). The conclusion drawn is that poverty has its “scars” from factors such as “colonial dispossession and coerced labour (p. 133) and capitalism that resulted in racial segregation and exploitation of black labour in South Africa. The impact of capitalism post-apartheid

through inequality and unemployment are covered in this chapter using both the broad and narrow definitions. The conclusions drawn with respect to policy options in this chapter relate to the following two issues. The first relates to how the importance of growth in the economy is recognised with the proviso of such growth being “pro-poor” (pp. 144-145). Second is the recommendation to create jobs through “public works or public employment projects” (p. 147). Finally, Bundy recommends “political solutions” (p. 154) to address the challenges of poverty. These include: (i) poverty alleviation by means of “redistribution through welfare and social wage” (p. 149); (ii) capacity building; (iii) land reform that favours the poor.

This book is certainly a valuable and useful source on understanding poverty in South Africa. It is well written and provides an in depth historical account and analysis of poverty from as far back as precolonial times. The theoretical assumptions are clear and can make sense even to new scholars entering the field of poverty studies. The book provides the theoretical underpinnings behind the broad theme of colonialism having a lasting impression on poverty in South Africa’s past and present. This book is a notable contribution to the current body of knowledge on poverty. Its contribution to South African context is noble. The contents of the book span an economic, political, social with an emphasis on historical dimensions, to name just a few. The style, language and scholarly approach of the book are of a high quality especially with regard to the challenging subject of poverty in South Africa and the author thus should be applauded.

The art of life in South Africa

(UKZN Press, Pietermaritzburg, 2017, pp. 408. ISBN 978 1 86914 359 6)

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“Our Africans should never be composed of nurses, doctors, lawyers and ministers, but artist also” (p. 217).

Dan Magaziner’s second book, *The art of life in South Africa* is a sublime, well-considered and solid contribution to the history of KwaZulu-Natal and to the history of the education of black art teachers in South Africa. It is rendered

in beautiful literary prose, which masterfully foregrounds the historical voices that take centre stage in the book. These voices are brought forth by a sharp, skilful scholarly mind that is wise enough to be humble and allow historical voices to “school-us” in 2017.

In the prologue, Magaziner states that the book is a study of art education in South Africa under segregation and apartheid. Magaziner contends that the book considers the community of artists and educators specifically in Indaleni, outside Richmond in what is today KwaZulu-Natal. “It is a story of a community that nurtured its own ideals and practices and promoted nothing less than a new way of being in the world” (p. xv). Even though Ndaleni was not an art school in the strictest sense, it was one of a few places where black South Africans could study and develop their art (p. 4).

The prologue maps the shifts and dissonances in pedagogical imperatives in the 1920s with contentions over the discourses of the education of black children, as some argued for the prominence of manual work in education. Students were poor, and manual work offered them the chance to make some money. Students also spent fewer than five years at school and some thought that those few years ought to be spent giving students practical skills for the rest of their lives.

By the mid-1920s, the number of African schools that were offering manual work had increased from 73% to 86%. It was argued that carpentry, woodwork, basketry and sewing by children in school, would be the foundation of the future African society’s economy in their villages and native reserves – rehearsal of apartheid (p. xxv). By the 1930s though, the market for African industrial work seemed to have dried up. Regional inspector Dent proposed a shift in the purpose of handwork away from “inculcating industry to aesthetic appreciation” (p. xxvi).

Chapter one introduces us to Ndaleni which was a specialist art and craft teachers’ school, ran by South Africa’s Bantu Education between the 1950s and early 1980s (p. 3). During its operation nearly a thousand students did the art and craft course, which initially ran for two years before being shortened to just one year. The course qualified its graduates (most were already practicing teachers) to teach the department’s art and crafts syllabus, which was a mandatory subject for black South Africans in government-funded schools (p. 3).

The course was paid for by government bursaries and upon completion, a pay increase was offered and in return for the bursary, Ndaleni graduates would have to teach art in Bantu Education schools. Arts and culture featured in the apartheid governments efforts to preserve the absolute distinction between African and European education in the lead-up to the Bantu Education Act of 1953 (p. 3).

Magaziner indicates that Ndaleni offers “difficult data” as life under apartheid was not a single experience, as life is multiple and contradictory (p. 5). “Ndaleni generates difficult data precisely because it opens a window into the closed room of the past – through its archives, we can see the faces looking at us, blind to the world of knowledge and hindsight that we inhabit” (p. 6). This is a similar argument that Jacob Dlamini makes in *Native Nostalgia* of the multiplicity of apartheid experiences for those that lived through it – as some chose to live under and besides apartheid. Magaziner illustrates this with an interesting historiographical concept of, “history in chords” as he argues that “people live their lives multiply, at times striking one note – that of protest, perhaps and at times striking others - laughter, sorrow, satisfaction...there are always other notes, other ways of experiencing – and therefore capturing time” (p. 9).

The book also focuses on art as a creative practise conditioned by what was possible then and there (p. 14). The artist creates by not merely inhabiting convention and context but also moving within it. Context is both “opportunity and restraint”, by “working and using the opportunity [the artist] becomes conscious of some of its limits [and] pushes against one or several of them. According to [the artists’] character and historical situation, the result of his pushing varies from a barely discernible variation of a convention...to a more fully original discovery, a break-through” (p. 14). The art students understood art as beauty not shut off the world and they had the faithful conviction that the world is worth beautifying (p. 16). By conditioning themselves to the rules and regulations of the art school community, Ndaleni art students insulated themselves from the tremors afflicting their society (p. 20).

Through a select few black artists such as Moses Tladi who is regarded as South Africa’s first celebrated black artist, chapter two looks at the issue of “native genius” and that the black community, as is the case in any other community, had its few and select geniuses (p. 26). By WWII primitivist discourse was an established element of art education (p. 39). It was an established fade to discover African artists, providing them with little tuition so as to not destroy their

originality (p. 39). With the approach of the 1930s politicians and pedagogues having observed the carrying out of manual work in mission schools, developed new justifications that crafts were what Africans did (p. 43).

Chapter three introduces John Gossert who conceptualised Ndaleni as a specialist art teacher's course, he believed that art was also "education in the profoundest sense of the word as it trained people to think, to create, to be, and be better members of a community" (p. 54). Gossert as a primitivist like other white South Africans worried about the loss of "black South Africa's cultural tradition and fretted about whether the institutional training of African artists risked seeding a dangerous cultural schizophrenia" (p. 54).

Canadian art educator Arthur Lismer in the 1930s submitted a recommendation report to the Natal Provincial government foregrounding the importance of art education to African students. Over the next few years, the Natal government began to implement Lismer's recommendations characterised by a combination of primitivism and progressive ideas about the work of art (p. 75). Thus, South Africa needed more specialist art teachers.

Chapter four examines the multiplicity of students that journeyed to Ndaleni from around the country to undertake the specialist art teacher's course. It is a significant important chapter, examining the theme of journey's that students took to get to Ndaleni; the journey of art education pedagogy; the journey of learning and the journey of leaving Ndaleni to find employment. It also illustrates the journey of the head teachers such Ann Harrison, Ewan Atkin, Peter Bell and Lorna Peirson and their various educational pedagogies. The chapter characterises Ndaleni as a place of convergence and intersections making this chapter a crown jewel of the book.

Chapter five examines the process of learning and the ever present problem of material want for the art student's art work. By the early 1970s the campus was a "living museum" of the students work, a public art gallery (p. 128). Students were further taught art philosophy; art as an ultimate experience. The school prospectus called for students to develop their sense of aesthetic discrimination, thus the work of the self-began with learning to see (p. 145). Trips to Pietermaritzburg, Durban, and Drakensburg Mountains to gather art material, to engage with and critic art and nature, formed part of the educational journey at Indaleni. Some aspects of the trip aimed to prepare/condition students to the realities of Bantu Education they would face upon completion and the constant reality of material want.

Chapter six, titled “Apartheid,” examines the students lived experiences with the system of apartheid and the school’s closure and relocation in 1982. The reality of apartheid South Africa that came after the time at the idyllic Ndaleni art school was devastating. The numerous compromises and adaptations that students undertook included taking the government bursary, which, in turn, meant working for the government upon completion (p. 206). “Apartheid was navigating Bantu education and Bantustan bureaucracies for wages and materials; it was a school with fifteen teachers and more than one thousand students” (p. 206).

Getting employment was a struggle and once employed in the Bantu Education system, the graduates struggled with translating philosophy into pedagogy and this is meticulously captured in correspondences with Ndaleni graduates. The Group Areas Act, ethnic grouping and ideologies of separate but equal development acted as hurdles to students’ securing employment (p. 223).

Chapter seven, titled “Artists,” examines Ndaleni graduates that identified themselves as artists and explores notions of art. Not all graduates became art teachers or artists; some became department store window dressers and sign-designers. “Ndaleni art school trained hundreds of students, who negotiated discipline and opportunity and did what they could to make their way through apartheid” (p. 243). To their understanding, “artists were those who made the most of bad situations, repurposing tired, wasted materials to create and to speak. Black South African political, intellectual and social life was strewn with rubble. “Rubble was what there was, so these South Africans built with it” (p. 244).

The epilogue titled, “The art of the past” examines the life of a select few art pieces that the Harmon Foundation in New York procured from Ndaleni and their classification as part of contemporary South African art and Ndaleni’s place in contemporary art history literature (p. 272). Currently, Ndaleni is a cluster of schools, for the deaf and a secondary school and unfortunately, most of the students have no idea who created the monumental art works around their school.

Magaziner has produced a marvellously impactful book, taking the concept of “history in cords” and producing a book which is *legato* in its flow but each note that he strikes is given due consideration for its contribution to the aural assemblage of a single cord.

Author of *Double Negative* Ivan Vladislavic writes “Sometimes photographs annihilate memory; they swallow the available light and cast everything around them into shadow...” Magaziner in *The art of life in South Africa* includes photographs that are powerfully paired with literary proses, which yield forth the life of journeys’ that Ndaleni once symbolised.

Magaziner’s *The art of life in South Africa* is a magnificent contribution to South Africa’s art history education and gives the reader a glimpse of a school, its educators and its students enacting the idea that people everywhere are creative beings, capable of making manifest their unique visions of the world.



**SOUTH AFRICAN
SOCIETY for HISTORY
TEACHING (SASHT)**



**INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY
FOR HISTORY DIDACTICS**

PROGRAMME

HISTORY FROM THE CORE TO ZERO GRAVITY

INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR HISTORY DIDACTICS (ISHD)

CONFERENCE

in cooperation with, and hosted by, the

SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIETY for HISTORY TEACHING (SASHT)

Riverside Sun Hotel, Cnr Wenning & Emfuleni Drive, Vanderbijlpark 1900 SOUTH AFRICA

13 -15 September 2017



NWU-Vaal Triangle Campus

Wednesday 13 September

08:30 - 09:15	Registration all delegates ISHD & SASHT membership applications & renewals					
SESSION ONE						
Facilitator:	Dr Pieter Warnich					
09:15	Prof Susanne Popp (President, ISHD)					
09:25	Prof Elize S van Eeden (President SASHT)					
09:35	Welcome Prof Robert Balfour (Dean, Faculty of Education Sciences, NWU)					
10:00-11:00	Keynote speaker (1) Prof Falk Pingel (Georg-Eckert Institute, Germany) <i>Nation, Supra-national Communities, and the Globe: Unifying and Dividing Concepts of Collective Identities in History Teaching</i>					
11:00 - 11:30	Mid-morning Tea & Coffee					
SESSION TWO						
Facilitators:	Prof Ackson Kandusa		Mr Barry Firth		Dr Oldimar Cardoso	
11:30-13:30	VENUE 1		VENUE 2		VENUE 3	
	Exploring the core of History in teaching (1)		Assessing the status of History education (1)		History and its features of gravity (1)	
11:30-12:00	Dr Philipp Marti (FHNW School of Education, Centre for Civic and History Education, Switzerland)	<i>"Gesellschaften im Wandel": A competency-based history textbook for the 21st Century</i>	Prof Markus Furrer (University of Teacher Education, Switzerland)	<i>History: A school subject and its functional change from the 19th to the 21st century</i>	Dr Hannes Liebrandt (Historisches Seminar Didaktik der Geschichte, München)	<i>Augmented reality and virtual reality - the future of history teaching? Advantages and dis-advantages of digital concepts inside and outside the classroom</i>
12:00-12:30	Prof Susanne Popp (University of Augsburg, Germany & President of the ISHD)	<i>Multi-layered meanings of visual sources: Global perspectives in national history curricula</i>	Dr Urte Kocka (Retired from the Free University of Berlin, Germany)	<i>History classes for today's students</i>	Dr Michael Wobring (University of Augsburg, Germany)	<i>The "history of technology" as an approach to modify concepts of modernization and globalization in history teaching</i>
12:30-13:00	Prof Elisabeth Erdmann (University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, Germany)	<i>Sources in history lessons and "fake news"</i>	Prof Thula Simpson (University of Pretoria, South Africa)	<i>Transformations in the South African Higher Education system, 1994 - 2016</i>	Mrs Rika Odendaal-Kroon (Rand Girls' School, South Africa)	<i>Enhancing history teaching through blended learning: The integration of technological devices and online teaching in the history class</i>
13:00-13:30	Prof Rob Siebörger (University of Cape Town, South Africa)	<i>"Kyk weer": The use of political cartoons in South African school history teaching</i>	Dr Kate Angier (University of Cape Town, South Africa)	<i>The state of the subject: The who, what, where and with what success of school history since 1994 in South Africa</i>	Prof Claudia P Ribeiro & Prof Helena Vieira (Center for Transdisciplinary Research, Portugal)	<i>Implementing flipped classroom in History: The reactions of students</i>
13:30-14:30	Lunch: chef's choice menu					

SESSION THREE			
Facilitators:	Mrs Rika Odendaal-Kroon		Prof Thula Simpson
	VENUE 1		VENUE 2
14:30-16:00	Exploring the core of History in teaching (2)		Assessing the status of History education(2)
14:30-15:00	Prof Luis Fernando Cerri (State University of Ponta Grossa, Brazil)	<i>South America's Youth and History: Some compared results in the field of historical learning and historical consciousness</i>	Prof Terry Haydn (University of East Anglia, England)
			<i>A conflict of ideas about how to teach history in schools: a new front in the 'history wars' in the UK</i>
15:00-15:30	Mr Dennis Röder (University of Augsburg, Germany)	<i>"Schools without racism"? Report on a project seminar on the sensitive issue of "racism" in the German (history) classroom</i>	Prof Masayuki Sato (University of Yamaneishi, Japan)
			<i>Textbooks rather than better History teachers: The Japanese experience of history teacher education, 1947-2017</i>
15:35-16:00	Dr Claudia Gouws (North-West University); <i>Snippets of history on the Vaal Triangle (Vanderbijlpark) area</i>		VENUE ONE
16:00-16:30	Mid-Afternoon Tea & Coffee		
16:00-16:30	Publisher Displays		Hotel foyer
16:30-17:30	Book Launch... Van Schaik Publishers (Mr Louis Gaigher, Publisher, Education/Health Science) ES van Eeden & PG Warnich (eds.) <i>Teaching History and Geography in the South African classroom</i> (2017)		Venue 3
18:00-19:30	SASHT Executive Committee meeting	Prof Elize S van Eeden (Chair SASHT)	Venue 3
19:30 -	Gathering & dinner ISHD Board members & SASHT Extended Executive members		Riverside Sun Hotel



Thursday 14 September

08:45-09:15	Registration delegates ISHD & SASHT membership applications & renewals					
SESSION FOUR						
Facilitator:	Prof Susanne Popp (President, ISHD)					
09:15-10:15	Keynote speaker (2) Mr Michael Harcourt (Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand) <i>Teaching 'difficult history' in an era of high curriculum autonomy: A New Zealand case study</i>					
10:15-10:45	Mid-morning Tea & Coffee					
SESSION FIVE						
Facilitators:	Prof Rob Siebörger		Dr Urte Kocka		Prof Terry Haydn	
	VENUE 1		VENUE 2		VENUE 3	
10:45-12:15	Exploring the core of History in teaching (3)		Assessing the status of History education (3)		History and its features of gravity (2)	
10:45-11:15	Prof Harry Haue (University of Southern Denmark, Denmark)	<i>The development of the use of normative ethical attitudes in Danish history textbooks, 1777-1993</i>	Dr Mare Oja (Tallinn University, Estonia)	<i>History teaching on the second school level in Estonia – success and challenges</i>	Mr Paul Haupt (The Settlers High School, South Africa)	<i>History education: Reaching beyond the confines of the class-room. A hands-on study of the implementation of rapidly improving technological tools and ease of connectivity in history pedagogy</i>
11:15-11:45	Dr Oldimar Cardoso (Anima Educational Transmedia, Brazil)	<i>History curricula and the social functions of History</i>	Prof Karl Benziger (Rhode Island College, USA)	<i>The strong state and embedded dissonance: History education and populist politics in Hungary</i>	Dr Mahunele Thotse (University of Limpopo, South Africa)	<i>Memories of violence and oppression: The relevance of the Time Travel methodology for South African history</i>
11:45-12:15	Ms Leevina Iyer & Dr Marshall Maposa (University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa)	<i>Student teachers' use of their historical consciousness in explaining their engagement with prejudices in History</i>	Prof Caio Lima (Federal University of Rio Grande do Norte, Brazil)	<i>A Brazilian historical trauma? Military dictatorship (1964 - 1985) and History Didactics</i>	Prof Ackson Kanduza (The Eastern University, Zambia)	<i>Founding the African State in the end of Empire</i>
12:15-13:15	Lunch: chef's choice menu					

Facilitators:	SESSION SIX					
	Prof Markus Furrer		Dr Mahunele Thotse		Mr Michael Harcourt	
	VENUE 1		VENUE 2		VENUE 3	
13:15-15:45	Assessing the status of History education (4)		History teaching and assessment (1)		History and its features of gravity (3)	
13:15-13:45	Dr Alžbeta Bojková (Pavol Jozef Safarik University in Kocise, Slovakia)	<i>We don't need no Roman Empire in Slovakia - teaching for society of 21st century</i>	Mr Belmondo Atanga & Dr Marshall Maposa (University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa)	<i>A case study of novice teachers' engagement with diverse perspectives in the teaching of the Cold War</i>	Dr Valencia T Mabalane (University of Johannesburg, South Africa)	<i>Exploring the role of folklores in the teaching and learning of South African history</i>
13:45-14:15	Dr Anu Raudsepp (University of Tartu, Estonia)	<i>Dealing with World War One's impact on the rise of Estonian national state: Challenges of recent researches for history teaching</i>	Mr Jake Manenze (Limpopo Department of Education, South Africa)	<i>A comparative analysis of IEB and DBE assessments for History Grade 12 question papers</i>	Prof Elize S van Eden (NWU Vaal Triangle Campus, South Africa)	<i>Exploring the practicalising and decolonizing of local and regional histories in history curricula themes</i>
14:15-14:45	Ms Keneilwe Mosala (SASHT Regional representative Mpumalanga Province)	<i>Educators as anchors : Challenges of 21st century history teachers</i>	Dr Pieter Warnich (NWU Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa)	<i>Assessing history trainee teachers' experiences in utilizing historical enquiry as an assessment tool: A case study</i>	Mr Barry Firth (Cape Peninsula University of Technology, South Africa)	<i>"Who killed Catherina van der Zee?" Using the mantle of the expert to develop historical thinking in first year students</i>
14:45-15:15	Ms Henriette Lubbe (University of South Africa, South Africa)	<i>'Fix a Flat?': The role of the Subject Advisor in empowering history educators</i>	Mr Phillip Modisakeng (NWU Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa)	<i>Assessment practices and challenges for history students in an Open Distance Learning (ODL) context</i>	Ms Marj Brown (Roodepan School, South Africa)	<i>Visual thinking skills in teaching the history curriculum: The US Depression and Civil Rights Movement (incl. SA)</i>
15:15-15:45	Dr Boitumelo Moreng (Sol Plaatje University, South Africa)	<i>History mentor teachers' perspectives of the Historical Pedagogical Knowledge (HPCK) that student teachers' possess</i>	Mr Knysna T Motumi (NWU Vaal Triangle Campus, South Africa)	<i>The place of nostalgia in teaching (e.g. museums, tourism, material culture, identity)</i>	Dr M Noor Davids (University of South Africa, South Africa)	<i>Forced removals in District Six as a decolonized theme in the history curriculum</i>
15:45-16:00	Mid-Afternoon Tea & Coffee					
	VENUE 1			VENUE 2		
16:00 - 17:30	Panel Discussion on Textbooks in History Facilitator: Prof Johan Wasserman					ISHD GENERAL MEETING
	Prof Johan Wassermann & Mr Anand Naidoo (University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa) <i>An analysis of the depiction of "big men" in apartheid and post-apartheid era school history textbooks;</i> Dr Denise Bentrovato & Dr Imke Rath (University of Pretoria, South Africa & Georg-Eckert Institute, Germany) <i>Transnational perspectives on global history: a comparative study of WW1 lessons in African and European history textbooks;</i> Dr Annie Chiponda (University of Malawi, Malawi) <i>The contradiction between policy and the representation of people with disabilities in Malawian junior secondary school history textbooks</i>					
18:00-till late	Boat trip on the Vaal River and conference dinner on the Island					

Friday 15 September

08:30-09:00	Registration delegates ISHD & SASHT membership applications & renewals					
SESSION SEVEN						
Facilitator:	Mrs Henriette J Lubbe (Unisa)					
09:00-10:00	Keynote speaker (3) Prof Peter Kallaway (University of Cape Town, South Africa) Title: <i>Knowledge for the people: Understanding The Complex Heritage Of Colonial Education In South Africa</i> Dr Kate Angier will present this paper on behalf of Prof Kallaway					
10:00-10:30	Mid-morning Tea & Coffee					
SESSION EIGHT						
Facilitators:	Prof Harry Haue		Prof Masayuki Sato		Dr Pieter Warnich	
	VENUE 1		VENUE 2		VENUE 3	
10:30-12:50	Assessing the status of History education (5)		History teaching and assessment (2)		History and its features of gravity (4)	
10:30-11:00	Mr Philipp Bernhard (Augsburg University, Germany)	<i>Colonialism and National Socialism as an entangled history - an innovative perspective for teaching German 20th century history?</i>	Prof Jukka Rantala (University of Helsinki, Finland)	<i>Assessing historical literacy among elementary pupils</i>	Ms Nangamso Koza (Inkubela Leadership Academy)	<i>Counter-cultural leaders</i>
11:00-11:30	Prof Caroline Pacievitch (Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil)	<i>Young students, teachers and History: Change factors for the past and future of Mercosul</i>	Prof María Sánchez Agustí (University of Valladolid, Spain)	<i>Historical perspective and empathy in primary education pre-service teachers: Making the connection</i>	Mr Johan Buys (NWU Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa)	<i>The decolonization of the South African history curriculum through indigenous knowledge</i>
11:30-12:00	Dr Susan Bester (NWU Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa)	<i>A quest for the integration of African cultural and indigenous knowledge in the Social Sciences/ history curricula and textbooks</i>	Dr Mario Resch & Dr Christian Heuer (University of Education Heidelberg, Germany)	<i>"Diagnosing" and "being able to formulate tasks" – (Belonging) to the vignette-based gathering of didactical competences of history teachers at the beginning of the practical apprenticeship</i>	Ms Kinga Siejek & Prof Elize van Eeden (NWU Vaal Triangle Campus, South Africa)	<i>Sharing students' experience in being exposed to Miracle Rising® as a source for teaching and learning History</i>
12:00-12:30	Ms Leah Nasson (Herschel Girl's High School, Cape Town)	<i>Is the grass always greener on the other side? ('Teaching GCSE and A Level History in South Africa')</i>	Mr Jongikhaya Mvenene (Walter Sisulu University, South Africa)	<i>The place and role of oral history in the teaching and learning of South African history in the FET phase</i>	Ms Murray-Hancke Oberholster (NWU Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa)	<i>Self-assessment of first year students in the history classroom: A luxury or essential?</i>
					Mr Titus Mudenda (University of Pretoria, South Africa)	<i>Westerners and others in Zambian school history and Social Studies textbooks</i>

12:30-13:10	Review & closing the ISHD-SASHT Conference Prof Susanne Popp, Dr Pieter Warnich & Prof Elize van Eeden & Mrs Henriette Lubbe	
13:10-14:30	Brown bag lunch	
13:30-14:30	SASHT ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING & Election (incl. SASHT Presidential Address)	Venue 1
13:30-14:30	ISHD GENERAL MEETING (continued)	Venue 2
14:00-14:20	Dr Claudia Gouws (North-West University): Info on the Vredefort Dome	Venue 3
14:30-18:00	Afternoon post conference excursion: Vredefort Dome	Transport will be arranged and communicated at the conference

EXCURSION

An excursion to the Vredefort Dome is organised at the cost of R150 per person. This can be paid at the registration desk during the conference.

REGISTRATION FORM

If you have not completed a registration form yet please follow this link in order to do so:
[ISHD/SASHT History Conference Registration Form](#)

Please take note:

All costs (travel, accommodation, subsistence) related to your participation in the conference must be arranged and covered by the participant. The ISHD and SASHT and conference organizers are not liable and hold no responsibility for any of these costs.

GENERAL

If you require any other information or assistance please contact Ms Ronélle van Staden:
Tel no. (018) 285 2102 Email: conferenceishd@gmail.com



NWU-Potchefstroom Campus



NWU-Mafikeng Campus



MINUTE
SASHT ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING
6 October 2016
Fifth Avenue Guest House, Port Elizabeth

Core SASHT Executive, 2014-2017

- **Chairperson:** Elize S van Eeden Elize.vanEeden@nwu.ac.za
- **Vice Chairperson:** Henriette Lubbe lubbehj@unisa.ac.za
- **Secretariat:** Susan Bester sjbdok@telkomsa.net

Additional members:

- Patrick McMahon (Website-Facebook portfolio & core meetings)
mcmahons@netactive.co.za
- Jake Manenzhe (General SASHT Marketing-DoE & other podiums)
Manenzhej@edu.limpopo.gov.za
- Siobhan Glanville-Miller (G- Province – FET marketing & reporting)
Siobhan.glanvill@wits.ac.za
- Rob Siebörger (DoE; DBE and DHET-communication and GET-marketing//reporting) rob.sieborger@uct.ac.za
- Pieter Warnich (NW- Province rep. and *Yesterday&Today* editor)
pieter.warnich@nwu.ac.za
- Barry Firth (WC- Province rep. and History Textbooks developments)
barryfirth29@gmail.com
- Marshall Maposa (Popular SASHT-Teaching Journal exploring and Book Review reporting *Yesterday&Today*) maposamz@ukzn.ac.za

Co-opted members (for regional representative and/or particular sub- committee positions):

- Matthew Marwick (KwaZulu-Natal province regional representative)
marwickm@mc.pmb.school.za
- Sunet Swanepoel (Northern Cape Province) sunet@museumsnc.co.za
- Keneilwe Mosala (Mpumalanga Province) kmosala@mpg.gov.za
- Wilfred Chauke (Limpopo Province) chaukew@gmail.com
- MG (Gladstone) Nhlapo (Free State) mgnhlapo@gmail.com
- Rika Odendaal-Kroon (History Olympiad developments and Web-quiz)
rikaod@gmail.com
- Eastern Cape representative -Vacant

1. Welcome and Personalia

Prof Elize van Eeden welcome all SASHT members at the Annual Meeting. Two members are congratulated with the successful completion of their postgraduate studies Marshall Maposa (Phd) and Rika Odendaal-Kroon (MA with distinction and an extraordinary award from UJ as best MA-student performer).

2. Previous minute (9 October 2015) and matters from the minute

The completeness and correctness of the minute was seconded by Dr Warnich.

3. Chairperson's Report

Prof Van Eeden reports on the activities of 2015-2016, and mentions that the reports of all portfolio members had been well received by the Executive. Prof van Eeden thank all for their time and valued input to promote, contribute and accentuate the discipline's value and meaning on so many platforms.

3.1 Membership and correspondence

Up to date there are about 88 paid up members: Some tends to remain inactive. The recruitment of new members also remain a challenge, especially in view of the fact that most sources and info are exposed to open access is not always easy. The life line for new recruitments remain the SASHT regional representatives. Ordinary members are also encouraged to do their bit on strengthening the membership, and so the enormous task, of the SASHT.

3.2 Marketing – DoE and other podiums

Mr Manenzhe fills this portfolio since 2015. Based on his suggestion, the SASHT will apply for the position of service provider to SACE to ensure that the Society activities in workshops and conferences receive accreditation and to ensure that educators are able to earn points from attending.

3.3 SASHT-Website & Facebook

The webpage and Facebook page have been maintained throughout the year, but have been fairly dormant, with the emphasis being on the annual conference.

Some emphasis was given to the History quiz, organised by Rika Odendaal – the pilot quiz at the end of last year was publicised and reported on, as was the full quiz earlier this year. Encouragement to take part and the results were publicised (now removed from the pages) and the promotion of the quiz was also extended to the Facebook page.

The Round Table meeting in connection with the position of History in the curriculum was reported on fully. It's an important topic and although it took place some time ago, the report is still on the webpage.

At the beginning of 2016, a couple of anti-racist posters were put up on the Facebook page, following the reports of racism (Penny Sparrow etc) that went viral over the Christmas holidays. I thought it was important to take a clear view before any questions might be posed to the society – it attracted quite a few “likes”.

There was little correspondence on the webpage, but attention was drawn to a video in connection with the 1981 Springbok tour of New Zealand – could provide some interesting viewing.

More recently, as mentioned earlier, the webpage posted the latest membership form and focused on the current conference in Port Elizabeth, with the call for papers, preliminary and final programmes.

In addition, the website continues to put up the latest *Yesterday&Today* journal. It is hoped that educators utilise them for refreshed ideas on topics related to the curriculum.

It is hoped that the webpage can be more active, and an attempt will be made to continue to do so. Likewise the Facebook page, which should be more interactive, but its level of activity remains in the hands of the educators who should respond, be interactive and contribute. Most recently, we have had many “likes” on our page: The

most recent being from a group called the “Nerdy Historians” (from Canada), showing that we still have quite a presence in the electronic world!

The Executive has given some consideration to split the tasks of the SASHT fb and the SASHTW-webpage. After discussion and consultation one of these tasks may be allocated to another member of the current executive to relief Mr McMahon from this extensive obligation.

3.4 *Yesterday&Today* journal

It is reported that the Journal that is currently published in conjunction with the SASHT is making annually excellent progress as an accredited scholarly journal. It shows an impact factor of 0.0233 calculated on the citation of the articles for the last three years. It is also linked to the open access Scientific Electronic Library Online (SciELO) platform as well as to Boloka which is an open access institutional repository of the North-West University. All the articles, starting from April 1981 are available in the e-journals that can be seen on the SASHT website at:

<http://www.sashtw.org.za>.

As illustrated by the statistics in the Tables 1 and 2 below it is obvious that the journal is still growing in stature in establishing itself as a reputable educationally focused History journal.

Table 1: Total of visits from April 2014 to September 2016



Table 2: Top countries views by October of each year (2014-2016)

Country	2014	2015	2016
Unites States	139	257	732
South Africa	99	189	374
Russian Federation	-	96	175
Germany	41	113	169
China	31	48	93
France	25	53	93
United Kingdom	38	45	68
Canada	14	16	23
Hong Kong	-	06	17
Romania	-	-	18

NWU Financial status of the Y&T August 2016 (after 2 issues)

Expenses: R36 884

Page fee income: R41 763.99

Balance: R5 673.69

Prof Van Eeden reports on the Journal finances that the financial status of the Y&T is still not too healthy, and that – if need be in 2017 – a lifeline will have to be provided by the SASHT from its investment savings to the *Y&T* in order to enable the Journal to grow towards independence. So far the journal has been mainly sponsored via the page fees income from 2013 and some generosity expressed by the NWU. It's also necessary for the Journal not to publish too many scientific articles (it's not a reference to the "hands-on) from authors (especially from other countries) that cannot afford, or does not normally pay page fees. To carry about R5000 per author not willing/not in the position to pay, can be an expensive venture.

3.5 History and the DBE & DoE

Prof Siebörger inform that the Ministerial Committee have an extensive task on hand that stretches wider than just History, and about compulsory History. Role

players have time to comment on the quest for compulsory History, and it is here that the SASHT as organisation can play, and have already played an important role. Prof Siebörger will still follow up and report on the work of the Committee.

3.6 SASHT History Olympiad-*MadeSA*

After having run a pilot in 2015, and steered by Ms Odendaal-Kroon, the SASHT launched its first formal online quiz this year on 23 May 2016. The quiz is similar to a History Olympiad based on multiple choice questions and is completed on line. The focus for this year's questions was Resistance in South Africa during 1948 – 1964.

Schools that entered paid a nominal fee of R100-00 and schools from Gauteng, North West, KwaZulu Natal and Western Cape were represented. A total of 173 learners logged in to complete the test during the 90 min it was available on the website. Learners had a limited time to complete the test once they have logged on. The questions proved to be quite challenging but a total of 48 learners qualified for a certificate for scoring above 50% average.

The results for the top participants are: First place: Cyle Smith from Hoërskool Jan van Riebeeck; Second place: Grace Taylor from Cornwall Hill College; Third place is shared by: Nombuso Mthembu from Glenvista High and Sean Cameron from Cornwall Hill College.

The *MadeSA* online quiz will be run annually and we believe participation will grow as the feedback from schools was very positive. Other colleagues that also contributed in making the quiz possible are Patrick McMahon and Jimmy Verner with the SASHT chair always somewhere around. To Mrs Rika Odendaal-Kroon a warm thank you for keep on driving the initiative, even if it took bloodshed and tears time at some stages.

3.7 SASHT Finances

The following information was shared:

ABSA Investment account: R47 613.461 (as by Sept 2016)

Currently SASHT receives over 5% interest p/m. This means that ± R141.130 is added monthly to the investment and there is a 24 hour notification before the money is available. It's a healthy status in which the SASHT finds itself, though the

Society may in the near future consider allocating an amount of this investment to ensure the Journal's continuation. As far as it concerns the Savings Account:

SAVINGS ACCOUNT

Income

The income is mostly from membership fees, now dormant in growth of a higher fee rate since 2012:

Individual: R200

Institution: R400 and

Registration for 2016-conference: R900 (Early bird)

R1100 (Normal)

R 1250 (Late registration)

Day visitor rate: R550

Expenses since October 2015

Website: Afrihost: R99 X 12 (months)

Quiz support and prizes: R5 700

1 Payment for Internet vender: R1 363.90

Bank fees for year ± R460

Oct 2016- state of financial affairs:

Conference expenses paid to Pine Lodge for 42 attendees (though only 38 attended in average):

R33 420.37 in total was eventually paid to Pine Lodge.

The bank balance by 27 Sept close to the conference was R30 149.47. Cash registration was used at the conference to afford the rest of the expenses for the conference at Pine Lodge.

5. Regional activities

Prof Van Eeden asks Mrs Lubbe (Vice Chair) to report:

Eastern Cape

The Eastern Cape does not have a formally appointed SASHT regional representative but is hosting the 2016 SASHT Conference, thereby making a significant contribution to supporting History teaching and raising the profile of the SASHT in the Eastern Cape.

State and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN)

No feedback was received from the current SASHT regional representatives in the Free State and KZN.

Gauteng

Siobhan Glanville and Michelle Friedman conducted workshops for small groups of educators in conjunction with the South African Historical Association (SAHA). These workshops focused on the TRC and 'Women in the struggle', as well as the Sinking of the SS Mendi, aimed at commemorating South Africa's involvement in World War 1. They also conducted a special workshop on teaching historical thinking at Jeppe Boys High in June.

Limpopo

SASHT Regional Representative, Mr Wilfred Chauke, reports that the Grade 12 History pass rate in the province showed a steady improvement in 2016. Limpopo teachers received external support from both the Holocaust Foundation and the University of South Africa (Unisa) -- the latter as part of a Community Engagement project run by Henriëtte Lubbe of the Unisa History Department. Report-back from participants indicates that this intervention greatly strengthened their confidence and motivation and that they have committed themselves to spreading the learning to other colleagues in the province.

Mpumalanga

Here a very successful one-day Oral History Conference – organised and funded by the Oral History Committee of the Department of Culture, Sports and Recreation – took place in the Steve Tshwete (Middelburg) District Municipality on 15 September 2016, attracting the attendance of more than 100 delegates. In addition, the Steve Tshwete (Middelburg) teachers, together with the Subject Advisor, held a Saturday Revision Session for the Matric candidates in October 2016. Despite these positive developments, a few challenges remain, for example the dwindling number of schools offering History.

North West Province

SASHT Regional Representative, Dr Pieter Warnich, initiated a collaborative research project with Henriëtte Lubbe from the Unisa History Department. This project focused on providing final year History Education students of North-West

University (Potchefstroom Campus) with an additional training opportunity in classroom assessment, in the hope to empower them as future History teachers.

Henriëtte presented a workshop to the students during March 2016 in which she shared a number of interactive group activities which she had been using with great success in corporate staff training – activities that were subsequently adapted to serve as teaching, essay writing, research, community building and assessment tools. The challenge was to see to what extent these assessment strategies could be applied to the history classroom. (The results of this project will be reported on at a later date.) In addition, more than 80 History teachers from the districts of Mahikeng and Vryburg, received practical skills training in teaching and assessing historical writing during two two-day workshops as part of a Unisa registered community engagement project.

Western Cape

In the Western Cape, SASHT Regional Representative, Barry Firth, managed to break down barriers between the SASHT and the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) and reach a ‘record of understanding’ which does not require the SASHT to prove its bona fides each time it interacts with the WCED. Barry and Prof Rob Siebörger also attended the History Quiz prize giving ceremony where they issued framed certificates and a book prize, all of which assisted in boosting the image of the SASHT with the school community in the Western Cape. In addition, Barry interacted with students from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, Stellenbosch University and the University of Cape Town during 2016, and recommended to both their PGCE and 4th Year B Ed students to take out membership of the SASHT.

Prof Van Eeden, on behalf of the core executive and general members, thank Mrs Lubbe and the regional representatives for keeping History visible in their respective provinces and regions. All initiatives in this regard are highly appreciated.

6. Report of the NMMU, Eastern Cape, as host for the 2016 SASHT Conference

Dave Edley of the NMMU assisted in planning the conference which was supposed to take place at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. Due to the *Feesmust-fall* campaign by students, topped by dissatisfaction from contracted workers, the conference venue had to be moved on the last minute to Pine Lodge who was able to accommodate the SASHT. This move also resulted in more expenses than was originally catered for. Mr Edley’s contribution to ensure that a conference was possible, is appreciated.

7. ISHD-SASHT International Conference 2017

Dr Warnich reported that the SASHT will in conjunction with the International Society for History Didactics (ISHD) convene an international conference on the teaching and learning of History. This will be held at Vanderbijl in September 2017. The first call for papers will follow soon. The conference probably will be from 13-15 September 2017 at the Riverside Sun Hotel, Vanderbijlpark. All the info and programme will be send to members. Prof Van Eeden also stated that the SASHT will apply for NFR funding. It was also decided to find funds that will support educators to attend which cannot afford the conference. The idea Mr Manenzhe that authors who write 'hands on' articles prior to the congress, should be subsidised for the 2017 conference, also was well received.

8. New Matters

8.1 Future Conferences

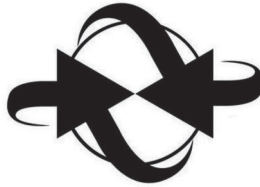
The SASHT looks into the possibility of hosting a conference in the Western Cape in 2018. It is hoped that volunteers from the Free State, or KZN or the Northern Cape will queueing next as hosts for am SASHT conference.

8.2 Nominations/election 2017

Prof Van Eeden reminds all that an election will have to be held in the course of 2017 to determine the new SASHT team for the period Sept 2017-Sept 2020. All are encouraged to consider playing a core role in the healthy functioning of the Society and consider to be nominated once that time arrives. Prof Van Eeden will retire her position as Chairperson in 2017, and not be available as nominee for any SASHT position after 2017.

Closure & Executive dinner as arranged

Occasionally the SASHT Executive requests that the SASHT constitution is displayed in an Yesterday&Today edition to inform and/or update their members. Members are invited to request a review of any section of the SASHT constitution at an SASHT General Meeting. Prior consent of a section review must be received in written form by the Secretariat of the SASHT or the Chairperson/vice Chairperson of the SASHT (see communication details in the SASHT AGM-minute)



SASHT CONSTITUTION

THE SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIETY FOR HISTORY TEACHING (SASHT)

(An Association of History Educators, Organisations, Publishers and People interested in History Teaching as well as the educational dissemination of historical research and knowledge)

1. CONSTITUTION

1.1 There shall be constituted a body known as the SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIETY FOR HISTORY TEACHING (SASHT). The provisions herein contained shall be known as the Constitution of the Society, which provisions may be altered by a majority of those members present at a general meeting of members, considering that:

1.1.1 the precise terms of any proposed alteration shall be set out in a notice prior to convening the meeting and/or Circulated to members via electronic medium at least a month before the meeting;

1.1.22 the purpose and objects of the Society shall not be altered without the consent of 66% of the members (via electronic medium and formally communicated/confirmed at the AGM that follows the approved/disapproved alteration.

2. OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the Society (since date of founding in 1986) shall be to assist its members in every possible way and in particular:

- 2.1 To improve the contact between educators of History training at tertiary level and teachers in the broad educational field.
- 2.2 To renew a training in the didactics of History education.
- 2.3 To utilise the expertise of educators teaching History to assist with the training of future History teachers.
- 2.4 To continuously debate the content of basic and advanced educational programmes in the training of History educators with the intention to continue to improve quality.
- 2.5 To make history educators and student teachers aware of the relationship between History as an academic discipline and the didactics and teaching of History at school level in order to keep abreast with educational development and academic debates.
- 2.6. To encourage educators of History to strive towards achieving and sustaining high academic standards in the teaching methodology and in the general knowledge of History as a discipline.
- 2.7 To make educators of History and student teachers in History aware of the relevance or “value” of History for communities and the nation at large.
- 2.8 To explore, if the SASHT grows in membership, the idea of identifying and organising committees that can explore and develop certain fields in History to benefit all the educators of History in South Africa.

3. MEMBERSHIP

3.1 Membership shall consist of three types:

3.1.1 Individual membership (History educators or other academically-focused members from institutions) who are fully paid up members of the Society (Annual fees will be determined by the Executive each year and communicated timeously to members and potential members). The individual members representing an educational, institution will be eligible to vote or serve on the SASHT Executive and any committees/portfolios, and will receive electronic correspondence as well as a copy (twice annually) of the peer reviewed and DHET-indexed reviewed SASHT- connected Journal, *Yesterday&Today*.

3.1.2 Group membership (schools, academic institutions, private organisations & publishers): Will pay an annual membership fee determined by the Executive Committee on a yearly basis which will include a membership provision of more than one individual. These members will be eligible to vote but not all be eligible to serve on the committees. Electronic correspondence will be received as well as a copy (twice annually) of the SASHT-connected *Yesterday&Today* Journal obtained.

3.1.3 Individual membership outside the borders of South Africa: Will pay the annual fee as determined by the Executive Committee in Rand or in another currency as indicated on the SASHT membership form.

The individual members outside the borders of South Africa will be eligible to vote but not serve on the Executive Committee (these members could serve on other committees as occasionally identified, as well as on the *Yesterday&Today* editorial board) and will receive electronic correspondence as well as a copy (twice annually) of the SASHT-connected Journal, *Yesterday&Today*.

3.2 The following persons are eligible as members of the Society:

3.2.1 any History educator/organisation/publisher who subscribes to the objectives of the Society; and

3.2.2 is approved by the Executive Committee as a member.

3.3 Any member may resign by notice to the chairperson, the vice chairperson or the secretariat/treasurer.

3.4 Membership will be held confidential, and it is up to individual members to disclose his or her membership to the general public.

4. MANAGEMENT

4.1 The interests of the Society shall be managed by at least a ten-member Executive Committee consisting of a chairperson, a vice chairperson (when required), a secretariat and a treasurer (this position can also be combined into a secretary-treasurer position) and six to seven additional members as portfolio members and/or regional representatives. These members in the leading position of the SASHT shall hold the respective positions for a maximum of three years, after which they may be re-elected at an annual general meeting (usually to be held in September-October). Two additional members (the guest hosting a conference during the following year and a History educator abroad) may be nominated.

The temporary Executive member hosting the next conference may be nominated fully on the Executive as well, but if not he/she only has a temporary executive position to smooth the conference organization process with efficient communication.

4.2 An election of new Executive Committee members for the SASHT Executive during every third Annual General SASHT meeting should be conducted by one of the SASHT members or an executive member who has been nominated to undertake the task (and not the current chairperson or vice chairperson).

4.3 A process of nomination and election becomes necessary if Executive Committee members have served a three-year term. Both new nominees and retiring committee members are eligible for re-nominating in a re-election. Electing the new SASHT Executive of 10 members through Internet will be conducted at least two weeks prior to an annual SASHT conference. The secretariat manages the term of office of the SASHT Executive, sends out notifications to retiring/re-election status members and invites new nominations, to be done formally and on a standard SASHT nomination form.

4.4 Only fully paid-up members of the SASHT (and preferably only one member per institution in the Society having served in the Society for at least one year) are eligible for election as Executive Committee members. A nominator of a nominee and the seconder (inclusive of the nominee) must all be paid-up members of the SASHT.

The newly elected SASHT Executive from the nominations received will be formally revealed during an annual AGM meeting of the SASHT.

From the ten nominees, fully elected by secret vote and accepted, the positions of chairperson and vice chairperson should be voted for by the newly elected SASHT Executive Committee. This voting process will normally be done after the AGM meeting in the year of election.

4.5 The SASHT Executive Committee may co-opt a member to the Committee in the event of a vacancy occurring for the remaining period of the term of office of the person who vacated the position OR the opening of a vacancy due to any other reason and with the consent of the rest of the SASHT Executive.

4.6 The Executive Committee of the Society may appoint sub-committees as it deems fit.

4.7 Each sub-committee or portfolio of the Executive Committee shall be chaired by a committee member and may consist of so many members as the committee may decide from time to time.

4.8 A sub-committee may co-opt any SASHT member to such sub-committee or portfolio.

5. MEETINGS

5.1 Executive Committee Meetings

5.1.1 Committee meetings shall be convened by the secretariat/secretary-treasurer on the instructions of the chairperson or vice-chairperson or when four committee members jointly and in writing apply for such a meeting to be convened. Three committee members shall form a quorum. Most of the correspondence will be done via e-mail.

5.1.2 SASHT Executive Committee meetings will take place BEFORE an annual SASHT conference and AFTER the conference.

5.1.3 Committee decisions shall take place by voting. In the event of the voting being equal, the chairperson shall have a casting vote.

5.1.4 Should a committee member absent himself from two successive committee meetings without valid reason and/or not replying twice on e-mail requests in decision making, he/she shall forfeit his/her committee membership.

5.2 General Meetings

5.2.1 The Annual General Meeting (AGM) of the Society shall take place during the annual SASHT Conference.

5.2.2 A special general meeting may be convened by the Executive Committee upon the receipt of a signed, written request of at least ten registered members of the Society which request must be accompanied by a full motivation for requesting such a meeting.

5.3 The Executive Committee may call a general meeting as it deems fit.

5.4 The following procedures shall apply to all general meetings:

5.4.1 A minimum of ten members will form a quorum. In the absence of such a quorum, the members present may adjourn the meeting for a period of seven days where the members present at the adjourned date will automatically constitute a quorum.

5.4.2 Decisions shall be taken by a majority vote.

5.5 Finances

5.5.1 All the income of the Society shall be deposited in an account at a bank and/or other approved financial institution. One to two members, consisting of either

the chairperson and/or the vice-chairperson and/or the secretary-treasurer if so arranged, shall be empowered to withdraw and deposit funds for the use of/on behalf of the Society.

5.5.2 Any amount that must be withdrawn, and exceeds the amount of R3 000 should beforehand be properly communicated among the two to three empowered Executive members (namely the chairperson, the vice chairperson and, if a position of treasurer exists, the treasurer). All these aforesaid empowered executive members should be able to exercise their signing right (to withdraw and deposit funds) on behalf of the SASHT in the absence of a/ the treasurer, but with the consent and approval of the core SASHT Executive.

5.5.3 Proper accounts shall be kept of all finances of the Society as set out in the regulations published in terms of the Fundraising Act, 1978.

5.5.4 A financial report shall be produced by the Executive or Secretary-treasurer (the latter if appointed as such) at the annual general meeting or upon request from the SASHT Executive Committee. Otherwise a full general account at least should be provided in the Chairperson's report.

5.5.5 Financial contributions will be collected from all persons and/or organisations, worldwide, which support the objectives of the Society.

5.5.6 Guest SASHT conference organiser(s)/Society member involved, shall be accountable for transferring the remaining income obtained from organising an annual conference into the SASHT bank account, as part of the effort to strengthen the SASHT's financial capacity. Any contributions, towards the covering of conference expenses by the Society are on a strictly voluntary basis.

6. RIGHT TO VOTE

Each individual subscribed member (and one member of a subscribed institution) has one vote at any meeting.

7. CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENTS

Any amendment to this Constitution shall only be effected by a two-thirds majority decision at a general meeting or via proper E-mail communication prior to a general meeting; or a special general meeting, and further provided that seven days' prior notice was given of the proposed amendment.

Notice is to be given in the same manner as a notice for a general meeting.

8. DISSOLUTION

8.1 The Society may dissolve, or merge, with any other association with a similar purpose and objectives in each case only:

8.1.1 On a resolution passed by the majority of members present at a duly constituted general or special general meeting of members; or

8.1.2 On an application to a court of law by any member on the ground that the Society has become dormant or is unable to fulfil its purpose and objectives,

8.1.3 On a merger, the assets of the Society shall accrue to the Society/Association with which the merger is affected.

8.1.4 On dissolution, the assets of the Society shall be realised by a liquidator appointed by the general meeting or the court, as the case may be, and the proceeds shall be distributed equally amongst such Societies/Associations with similar objectives as may be nominated by the last Executive Committee of the Society.

9. MISCELLANEOUS

9.1 Every Executive member/ordinary member of the Society shall be entitled at all reasonable times to inspect all books of account and other documents of the Society which the custodian thereof shall accordingly be obliged to produce.

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

Editorial policy

1. Y&T is a scholarly, peer-reviewed journal (accredited since the beginning of 2012).
2. The Y&T journal is a journal for research in especially the fields of history teaching and History discipline research to improve not only the teaching, but also the knowledge dissemination of History. The Journal is currently editorially managed by the North-West University and published under the auspices of the South African Society for History Teaching (SASHT).
3. Contributions may be either in the humanities (historically based theoretical discourses), or from education (best practice workshops, or focused content research with a fundamental theoretical basis reflecting History or other histories). Articles, in which interdisciplinary collaborations between the humanities and education are explored, are also welcome.
4. Regional content mostly considers quantitative and qualitative research in Southern Africa, but international contributions, that may apply to History teaching and research in general, are equally welcome.
5. Authors may submit individual contributions or contributions created in teams.
6. All manuscripts are subjected to a double-blinded review process.
7. The language of the journal is English. However, abstracts may be in any of the 11 official languages of South Africa.
8. Contributions must be accompanied by an abstract of not more than 250 words.
9. The titles of articles should preferably not exceed 20 words.
10. The names of authors and their institutional affiliations must accompany all contributions. Authors also have to enclose their telephone and fax numbers and E-mail and postal addresses.
11. The Harvard or the Footnote methods of reference may be used (see the last pages of the journal for the reference guidelines for more detail on the Harvard and Footnote reference methods). The authors' choice of which reference method will be respected by the editorial management. References must be clear, lucid and comprehensible for a general academic audience of readers. Once an author has made a choice of reference method, the Y&T guidelines for either the Harvard reference method or the Footnote reference method must be scrupulously followed. The guidelines for referencing according to the Harvard method are provided on the last pages of the journal. The most recent *Yesterday&Today* journal articles could also serve as guideline.

12. Editorial material with images (illustrations, photographs, tables and graphs) is permissible. The images should, however, be of a high-density quality (high resolution, minimum of 200dpi). The source references should also be included. Large files should be posted in separate E-mail attachments, and appropriately numbered in sequence.
13. Articles should be submitted to the editor electronically at: pieter.warnich@nwu.ac.za and also to his administrative assistant, Ronelle van Staden at: 20505957@nwu.ac.za. Notification of the receipt of the documents will be done within 48 hours.
14. The text format must be in 12pt font, and in single spacing. The text should preferably be in Microsoft Word format.
15. The length of articles should preferably not exceed 8 000 to 10 000 words, or 15 to journal pages.
16. Articles which have been published previously, or which are under consideration for publication elsewhere, may not be submitted to the *Yesterday&Today* journal. Copies of the Journal is also electronically available on the SASHT website at www.sashtw.org.za.
17. For scientific research articles, page fees of R220.00 per page (for 10 pages R2 200) will be charged from the author's institution. However, in the end it remains the responsibility of the author to ensure that these fees are paid.
18. The journal utilizes the Portico digital preservation system in order to create permanent archives of the journal for purpose of preservation and restoration.
19. *Yesterday&Today* is an Open Access journal which means that all content is freely available without charge to the user or his/her institution. Users are allowed to read, download, copy, distribute, print, search, or link to the full texts of the articles, or use them for any other lawful purpose, without asking prior permission from the publisher or the author. This is in accordance with the Budapest Open Access Initiative (BOAI) definition of Open Access.
20. The journal has a registered deposit policy with SHERPA RoMEO. This policy indicates to institutions whether they are allowed to upload a duplicate copy of an article by an author affiliated with the home institution, into their institutional repository (Green Open Access). The following link to SHERPA RoMEO can be followed: <http://www.sherpa.ac.uk/romeo/issn/0038-2353/>.
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Yesterday & Today

Template guidelines for writing an article

1. **Font type:** Adobe Garamond Pro (throughout document)/Arial (if the first font type is unavailable).
2. **Font size in body text:** 12pt.
3. **Author's details: ONLY provide the following:** Title, Campus & University and E-mail address

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

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

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

The abstract body: Regular font, 10pt.

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

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

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

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

6. **Heading of article:** 14pt, bold.
7. **Main headings in article:** 'Introduction' – 12pt, bold.
8. **Sub-headings in article:** '*History research*' – 12pt, bold, italics.
9. **Third level sub-headings:** 'History research' – 11pt, bold, underline.
10. **Footnotes:** 8pt, regular font; **BUT** note that the footnote numbers in the article text should be 12pt.

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

11. **Body text:** Names without punctuation in the text. Example: “HL le Roux said” and **NOT** “H.L. le Roux said”.
12. **Page numbering:** Page numbering in the footnote reference text should be indicated as follows:
Example: p.space23 – p. 23. / pp. 23-29.
13. **Any lists** in the body text should be 11pt, and in bullet format.
14. **Quotes from sources in the body text** must be used sparingly. If used, it must be indented and in italics (10pt). Quotes less than one line in a paragraph can be incorporated as part of a paragraph, but within inverted commas; and **NOT** in italics. Example: An owner close to the town stated that: “the pollution history of the river is a muddy business”.
15. Quotes (**as part of the body text**) must be in double inverted commas: “...and she” and **NOT** ‘...and she’.
16. **Images: Illustrations, pictures, photographs and figures:** Submit all pictures for an article in jpeg, tiff or pdf format in a separate folder, and indicate where the pictures should be placed in the manuscript’s body text. All visuals are referred to as Images.
Example: **Image 1: ‘Image title’** (regular font, 10pt) in the body text.
Sources of all images should also be included after the ‘Image title’.
Example: **Source: ‘The source’** (regular font, 9 pt). Remember to save and name pictures in the separate folder accordingly.
Important note: All the images should be of good quality (a minimum resolution of 200dpi is required; if the image is not scanned).
17. Punctuation marks should be placed in front of the **footnote numbers** in the text. Example: the end.¹ **NOT** ...the end¹.
18. **Single and left spacing** between the sentences in the footnote.
19. **Dates:** All dates in footnotes should be written out in full. Example: **23 December 2010; NOT 23/12/2010 [For additional guidelines see the Yesterday & Today Reference guidelines].**
20. Language setting in Microsoft Word as **English (South Africa); do this before starting with the word processing of the article.** Go to ‘Review’, ‘Set Language’ and select ‘English (South Africa)’.

The footnote or Harvard reference methods – some guidelines

Both the footnote reference method and the Harvard reference method are accepted for articles in *Yesterday & Today*. See some guidelines below:

The footnote reference method

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

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

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

NOT

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

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

Examples of an article in a journal

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

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

Example of a shortened version of an article in a journal

From:

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

To:

P Erasmus, “The ‘lost’ South African tribe...”, *New Contree*, 50, November 2005, p. 77.

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

Examples of a reference from a book

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

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

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

Example of a shortened version of a reference from a book

From:

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

To:

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

Example of a reference from a chapter in a book

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

Shortened version:

S Brown, “Diplomacy by other means...”, C Leys, JS Saul et.al, *Namibia’s liberation struggle...*, pp. 19-39.

Example of a reference from an unpublished dissertation/thesis

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

Examples of a reference from a newspaper

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

or

Zululand Times, 19 July 1923.

Archival references:

- **Interview(s)**

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

- **Example of interview reference**

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

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

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

- **Example of an Electronic Mail - document or letter**

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

- **National archives** (or any other archive)

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

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

A source accessed on the Internet

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

A source from conference proceedings

First reference to the source:

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

B Sautmann, "The forest for the trees: Trade investment and the China-in-Africa discourse" (Paper, Public Seminar: China in Africa: Race, relations and reflections, Centre for Sociological Research, University of Johannesburg, 28 July 2007), p. 7.

Shortened version:

D Dollar, "Asian century..." (Paper, GDN Conference, 2007), p. 7.

B Sautmann, "The forest for the trees: ..." (Paper, Public Seminar: China in Africa: ..., University of Johannesburg [or UJ]), p. 7.

GENERAL:

Illustrations

The appropriate positioning of the image should be indicated in the text. Original copies should be clearly identified on the back. High quality scanned versions are always welcome.

Authors, PLEASE obtain copyright and reproduction rights on photographs and other illustrations.

Copyright on all material in *Yesterday&Today* rests within the Editorial Advisory Committee of *Yesterday&Today*.

The Harvard reference method

References in the text

References are cited in the text by the author's(s) surname(s) and the year of publication in brackets, separated by a comma: e.g. (Weedon, 1977:13).

If several articles by the same author and from the same year are cited, the letters a, b, c, etc. should be added after the year of publication: e.g. (Fardon, 2007a:23).

Page references in the text should follow a colon after the date: e.g. (Bazalgette, 1992:209-214).

In works by three or more authors the surnames of all authors should be given in the first reference to such a work. In subsequent references to this work, only the name of the first author is given, followed by the abbreviation *et al.*: e.g. (Ottaro *et al.*, 2005:34).

If reference is made to an anonymous item in a newspaper, the name of the newspaper is given in brackets: e.g. (The Citizen, 2010).

For personal communications (oral or written) identify the person and indicate in brackets that it is a personal communication: e.g. (B Brown, pers. comm.).

Ensure that dates, spelling and titles used in the text are accurate and consistent with those listed in the references.

List all references chronologically and then alphabetically: e.g. (Scott 2003; Muller 2006; Meyer 2007).

List of references

Only sources cited in the text are listed, in alphabetical order, under References.

Bibliographic information should be in the language of the source document, not in the language of the article.

References should be presented as indicated in the following examples. See the required punctuation.

• Journal articles

Surname(s) and initials of author(s), year of publication, title of article, unabbreviated title of journal, volume, issue number in brackets and page numbers: e.g. Shepherd, R 1992. Elementary media education. The perfect curriculum. *English Quarterly*, 25(2):35-38.

• **Books**

Surname(s) and initials of author(s) or editor(s), year of publication, title of book, volume, edition, place of publication and publisher: e.g. Mouton, J 2001. *Understanding social research*. Pretoria: JL van Schaik.

• **Chapters in books**

Surname(s) and initials of author(s), year of publication, title of chapter, editor(s), title of book, place of publication and publisher: e.g. Masterman, L 1992. The case of television studies. In: M Alvarado & O Boyd-Barrett (eds.). *Media education: an introduction*. London: British Film Institute.

• **Unpublished theses or dissertations**

Fardon, JVV 2007. Gender in history teaching resources in South African public school. Unpublished DEd thesis. Pretoria: Unisa.

• **Anonymous newspaper references**

Daily Mail 2006. World Teachers' Day, 24 April.

• **Electronic references**

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 communications**

Normally personal communications should always be recorded and retrievable. It should be cited as follows:

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

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