

An Investigation of History Teaching In
Ethiopian Senior Secondary School:
Historical Perspectives and
Current Status



A Thesis

Submitted in Partial Fulfilment for the
Degree Master of Arts in Education
In the Addis Ababa University



By

Abebe Fisseha

June 1992

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ABSTRACT

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The study was conducted to investigate the teaching of history with respect to four associated problems, viz., the basic reasoning for the placement of history in the senior secondary school curriculum, the practices and processes of syllabus development, the teaching strategies, methods and techniques, and the teaching materials used both in the past and the present. To this end both historical and descriptive-survey research techniques were employed. The historical research attempted to investigate what happened and why it happened in a definite chronological period. It indicated trends, developments, phases, or perspectives of past history teaching in Ethiopian senior secondary schools. Main findings of the historical study were: (i) The inclusion of history in the senior secondary school curriculum was a concomitant development with the beginning of secondary education in the country; (ii) At the earlier stage the history syllabi were solely constructed by subject specialists; (iii) Before 1963 the teaching of history was not aimed at enabling students to know something about their own country; (iv) except the 1967 syllabus, all other syllabi reflected the traditional view of history teaching; the objectives of the syllabi were the acquisition of knowledge; the view of history reckoned that students should learn history to know about the past and history teaching emphasized on the transmission of information.

The descriptive-survey research attempted to describe the present status of history teaching, with particular reference to the senior secondary schools of Addis Ababa. The findings of this descriptive study are mostly reflective of the situation in these schools. The descriptive-survey derived data from a questionnaire, interviews and a classroom observation. The data obtained from the questionnaire were tabulated and presented in tables expressed in numbers and percentages. The views of the interviewees were used to substantiate the interpretation, analysis and the discussion wherever deemed necessary. The frequencies of the categories embodied in the observation schedule were expressed as average lesson percentages. To determine variation among the observed teachers in using the categories, a two-way analysis of variance (teacher by visit) was carried out. main findings of the descriptive-survey research were: i) School administrators and principals seem to hold an assumption that anyone who could read and understand what is presented in the textbook could teach history; ii) There is a high level of dissatisfaction among history teachers with the quality of the current educational provisions; iii) history teaching is highly textbook oriented; iv) the size of the history classroom is found to be big. A large-group instruction with expository teaching strategy predominates the history classroom. There is no significant difference among teachers who used expository strategy ($F = 5.48, 9 \text{ df}, P < 0.001$).

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My gratitude also goes to Mr. D. Chapple who spared his precious time in reading the manuscript and giving me valuable comments. I would like to express my gratefulness to all my friends for their unreserved encouragement throughout the preparation of this essay.

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In the light of the problems envisaged, it seems extremely important to design the history syllabus based on a clearer understanding of the nature of history, its educational values and purposes as well as the teaching and learning it requires. The syllabus should be also designed in such a way that it would enable students to exercise socially useful processes or ways of thinking, such as reconciling conflicting evidence, inducing concept from a context and identifying facts from opinion.

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CHAPTER ONE

PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

Menelik II School ushered in modern education in Ethiopia. After two decades some other government schools were established. The function of these schools was highly dictated by the political consideration that necessitated their establishment. Thus, their educational provision was mainly the teaching of foreign languages (Mahteme Sillasié, 1962: 594 and 612)

It was after 1942 when the educational system of the country was re-established that a history syllabus was, for the first time, included in the curriculum. Until 1967 this syllabus had been subject to several revisions. In the process some of the problems of history teaching were discussed and hence, some improvements had been made (Secondary School curriculum, 1958, 1959, 1962 and 1967).

But after the 1974 Revolution the old history syllabus was criticised for being irrelevant to the objective realities of Ethiopia and a new history syllabus, which is currently in use, was developed (History Notes: The Ancient World, 1976).

1.2. The Problem

Right from the introduction of history in our senior secondary school curriculum, heavy reliance is placed on the subject as a vehicle for conveying understanding of society, its operation, and its condition. Thus it is in history courses where the great majority of students ought to gain understanding of self and society. This means that the understanding of

social dynamics which students acquire depends to a considerable extent upon the treatment of the history courses.

Educational research, particularly in Britain, in history teaching is entering a new phase. As its pre-occupations with the philosophy of history diminish, a variety of other research interest seek to achieve pre-eminence. In the past the nature of history and the teaching and learning it requires, students method of work in history and students' idea about history had been marginal pre-occupations for educational research in history teaching. As such the traditional view of history teaching holds that all that most secondary school students can do is to learn some information which they can reproduce in simple form. It does not demand students to undertake historical inquiry. Consequently, classroom practice appears to remain didactic and the subject lacks intellectual stimulus and challenge (Portal, 1987).

More recently a shift of research emphasis has taken place. Studies of the nature of history and the teaching and learning it requires, students idea about history as well as principles and priorities that govern the actual shape of the school history course and specific teaching objectives have become more frequent (Ibid.). Research workers have come to recognize that an understanding of these aspects of history teaching is important to the good teaching of the subject. Recent studies and investigation have also facilitated recognition that even more crucial, as well as the most pertinent, problems which civilization faces are social in nature. This cognizance then calls for urgent and essential need to improve instruction and learning about society. This end in view, Smallbone writes:

The history course should be seen in total as developing certain attitudes, concepts and skills. Content should relate to objectives, be relevant and develop the pupils' experiences. General objectives should be established which become specific objectives when applied to the course content. Criteria should be developed which establish the means to assess how much the objectives are being realized. Classroom practices should genuinely encourage the acquisition of historical skills, concepts and attitudes [Smallbone, 1987: 142]

This means that the aims and objectives of the teaching of history are necessary to point to the broad ideals. History and the educational process of which it forms a part should be socially relevant. Although the varieties of meaning that may be attached to this notion of relevance are not clear, Crinnion (1987: 162) has suggested that the social relevance of the subject may be judged by its capacity to equip a student with those intellectual skills and attitudes appropriate to an understanding of self and society. The syllabus and classroom practice should facilitate rather than obstruct the realization of these three types of relevance.

It is pertinent to ask at this point; To what extent does the history course of our senior secondary school meet such characterization? Do the syllabus and classroom practice actually facilitate rather than obstruct the realization of the three types of relevance mentioned above. As the reports of the syllabus reviewing and revising committees, 1962-1967, stated history teaching had suffered from some persistent problems. The General Secondary School Curriculum committee (1962, viii) for instance, stated the then problem of history teaching as follows:

Our previous syllabus and text-books merely reproduce what is taught in other countries or what had once been adopted in a particular country at a particular time for a particular stage of its development.

The present status of history teaching has been assessed by Tekeste Negash. He has stated the problem of history teaching in a much more similar way as it had been stated by the General Secondary School Curriculum Committee (1962). In his book entitled **The Crisis of Ethiopian Education**, Tekeste Negash has observed.

The history textbooks for grade eleven and twelve are photographic reproductions of a Russian book on world history by Professor A.Z Manfred... The Curriculum pays too little attention to Ethiopia and Ethiopian world view. The curriculum pays more attention to European and American history than the curriculum of any developed state [Tekeste, 1990: 67]

The above quotations show how some of the problems of history teaching which the working committees of the earlier history syllabi complained about have not yet been mitigated. Therefore, for better understanding of the current problems pertaining to history teaching historical explanation seems to be necessary.

To date, it need not be emphasized that the quality of education becomes the concern of the public. One way of responding to this urgent demand would be the study of the problems of a specific subject of the school curriculum. This study, therefore attempts to make an investigation into the stages of development that history teaching underwent in Ethiopian senior secondary schools and to examine problems

pertaining to history teaching at present. Its main focus lies in pointing out the fact that history teaching should be about issues of some importance, presented coherently and in depth and taught so as to encourage student participation. These qualities have to be seen as more important than content or coverage as a starting point for syllabus planning.

1.2.1. Statement of the Problem

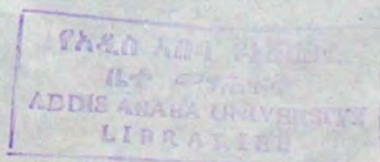
It is the purpose of this study to examine the problems of history teaching, both the historical background and the current status, in Ethiopian senior secondary schools in terms of:

- a) the syllabus - its objectives, contents, organization, and provision of educational experiences.
- b) textbooks - their preparation, their up-to-datedness, authoritativeness, breadth of view points represented, usability, suitability and reliability.
- c) classroom practices - Method of teaching and learning to be considered to relation to both teachers and students, the organization and activities of study, and emphasized techniques and approaches.

A possible solution to the problem demanded answers to the following basic questions:

(1) History syllabus

- 1.1. What guiding principles are used to develop the syllabus?



1.2. Whom does the syllabus development involve?

(2) **Objectives of the history course**

2.1. What objectives are placed on the course?

2.2. What are the bases on which the course objectives are defined?

2.3. How far these course objectives are defined clearly?

2.4. Do these objectives align themselves with those objectives put forward by researchers?

(3) **The Course Content:**

3.1. Does the content relate to the achievement of these objectives?

3.2. How do content and learning experiences organized?

3.3. Does the content show a difference of emphasis and of degree of factual content?

(4) **Textbooks:**

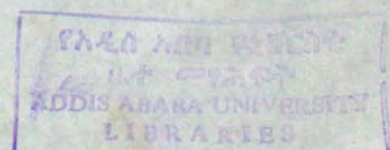
4.1. Who prepared the textbooks?

4.2. How are the organization and presentation of the textbook?

4.3. Do the textbooks lend themselves for skill development?

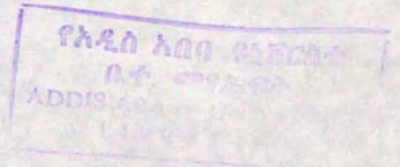
4.4. How is their up-to-datedness, authoritativeness and emphases in contents?

4.5. Is the textbook the principal source of information?



(5) Classroom Practice:

- 5.1. Do history teachers employ variety of teaching methods?
- 5.2. Who is handling the history class?
- 5.3. How do history teachers motivate pupils' to study history?
- 5.4. How do teachers use the textbook?
- 5.5. How far students are interested to learn history?

**1.2.2. Significance of the Study**

The major concern of history is people, their interactions and their relationships with their environment. It has many potential values both for students and society. It traces for the children the fascinating story of how man has developed through the ages; how his life has been influenced by the environment; how he himself has influenced the environment; how our institutions have grown out of the past; how man has struggled with his environment in the past; how he is struggling today and man's use or misuse of his powers. As such the study of world history would aim to provide historical perspective of where mankind has come from, what man's struggle have been, how and why they have done what they have done. Whereas Ethiopian history would aim to heighten students' mature self awareness and understanding of the nature of their society, its problem, and the direction it is headed to. Such an understanding is vital in a country like Ethiopia which seeks to mitigate its many social problems. This is what justified the place of history course in the school curriculum.

However, these potential values and purposes of the subject are only realizable through effective teaching of the course. If the teaching of the subject only imparts miscellaneous and unrelated information and does not throw any light on or provide insight into social conditions and problems or create the desire to improve the existing state of things, its educative significance will be negligible (Crinnion, 1987: 154). As result, as recent studies indicate, improving the effectiveness of history teaching has regained a major attention. To this effect, a noteworthy group of historians and educators have increased their participation, organized improvement efforts have expanded and professional and public interests in the field heightened. It is a good effort aimed to aid history teachers who bear a major responsibility for educating youth to furnish substantial background for understanding the basic nature of society while also developing the social skills needed by students. Their efforts have resulted in propositions and suggestions of what they consider desirable approaches and techniques, such as source based inquiry approach (Portal, 1987: viii).

It is obvious that ultimately the quality of education is highly dependent upon the quality of instruction. However, as Vincent Crinnion puts it, inadequate and unsatisfactory educational provision tends to inhibit rather than encourage desirable classroom practices (Crinnion, 1978: 154). Therefore, the answer to the problems of history teaching is not to be found in improving teaching methods alone. Nor is the answer simply to evaluate the textbooks and improve their preparation. The problems of history teaching, therefore, need to be tackled

from different angles. Such kind of study with regard to the problems of history teaching in our senior secondary schools is highly needed. Hence, this study attempts to focus on the problems of history teaching which need to be dealt with from many angles.

Therefore, the significance of the study is based on the following rationales.

Firstly, some of the problems that our society faces today are social in nature. The proper study of history thus has a contribution in mitigating such problems by showing a possible line of attack. The study will show the possible ways of improving instruction and learning history that will prepare future members of the society to solve their own social problems.

Secondly, since research work on the teaching-learning process of specific subject of the school curriculum has not gained attention, this study may prompt other researchers' interest.

Thirdly, the problems at the secondary school level have implications to the teacher training programs. As such the findings of this study might provide pertinent information to teacher trainers and the trainees as well.

Fourthly, although the problem of history teaching with the question "what should Ethiopian students study under the subject history?" in view has been attempted by one researcher, this study approaches the problem of history teaching with

an additional question, Why should Ethiopian students study the subject history?

Finally, efforts will be made to come up with recommendations that may points towards a possible solution of the problems of history teaching.

1.2.3. Methods of Procedures and Sources of Information (Data)

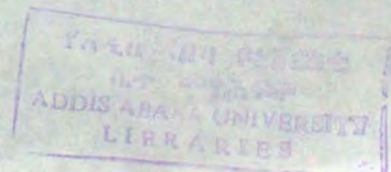
Starting from the place of history as a subject in the history of Senior Secondary School Education, the study attempted to show a link with current problems of history teaching. Therefore, the study used two research methods, namely historical research and descriptive survey research. These ends in view, the study employs various approaches in gathering and analyzing data.

Sources of The Data

The sources of data were (1) books, periodicals, textbooks, syllabi and documents, (2) information provided by teachers and students who currently engage in the teaching and learning process, (3) experts who took part in syllabus development and textbook preparation and (4) the actual classroom setting.

Sampling Technique and Data Gathering Tools

Of the probability sampling technique, simple random sampling was used. This random sampling technique was only applied to the descriptive-survey study, for the historical research focuses on documentary analysis. While all history



teachers in the twenty senior secondary schools of Addis Ababa were addressed by the questionnaire ten history teachers from five schools were selected for the classroom observation (please see Appendix 1 for the list of the schools).

The data were gathered by (1) examining the different syllabi, textbooks, teaching notes, history examiners report and other accessible documents, (2) developing discussion (interview) items. The principal data collection tool used to investigate students' choice of stream at the end of grade ten and the reasons for their choice was the interview. A total of one hundred students from five schools (schools selected for the observational study) were interviewed over a three week period. Interviews lasted between 5 and 10 minutes and were conducted individually. Interviewees were selected randomly from twenty different section of grade ten (five students from each section). Of those experts (they were two) who developed the syllabus in 1975/76 one expert was interviewed (please see Appendix 2 for the interview items) (3) developing and administering structured questionnaire items to the history teachers of government senior secondary schools of Addis Ababa. The questionnaires were distributed to a total of 80 history teachers. All the questionnaires were filled in and returned. The questionnaire was the principal tool used to investigate the opinion and/or attitude of the history teacher towards some of the practical problems they have faced with. The content of the questionnaire items were framed to this end (see the questionnaire items in Appendix 3).

The questionnaire was tested by a pilot study and consequently some items were excluded and other items were

included. In order to know whether there was a difference of opinion between the history teachers in Addis Ababa schools and the history teachers outside of Addis Ababa the same questionnaire was distributed to 50 history teachers who were attending a summer course in Addis Ababa University in 1991/92. There was a significant variation in the percentages of the response to items 6 and 38 which asked them about the size of the history class (the average size of history class in the schools outside of Addis Ababa was 62) and the sources of supply for reference materials. There was no significant variation in the percentages of the response to the other items.

The other data gathering tool employed in the study was an observation schedule. It was designed to gather a descriptive data about the actual classroom practices. Its focus was both the teacher and students while they were in an interactive setting. In the available literature no schedule which was specifically designed for history teaching was found. Therefore, in designing the observation schedule no attempt was made to adopt one specific schedule developed by authorities, for observation schedules differ in purpose and focus. In order to see whether traditional methods of history teaching (Exposition) or the newly emphasized method (Source Based Inquiry) are under practice, the categories of the schedule were framed to monitor the two strategies. To this effect the observation schedule consisting of 34 categories was initially designed.

The basic format of the schedule was a sheet of paper with horizontal divisions; each horizontal division indicates a category space, so on the left of each sheet are categories

written vertically. The top of the sheet is to indicate the actual time space of four minute interval. When the schedule was used to observe a lesson, records of observed events were made in 1 minute time unit. Thus a lesson of 40 minutes duration contains 40 time units (see the categories, descriptions of these categories and the format of the recording schedule in Appendix 4).

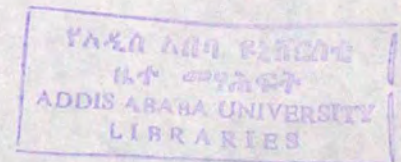
At the beginning of the observational program the reliability and validity of the system was assessed by obtaining indications of agreement among measurements by different observers applying the system to the same sample of classroom behaviour. Two judges were trained to use the system and they applied it to a particular teacher and group of students. The level of agreement (Number of code agreement/Number of units to be coded) reached 0.85. To find out whether or not the aspects of classroom behaviour the system purports to measure actually differ from one grade level to another the measurements of each teacher across grades were compared and no significant differences among measurements were obtained. The actual results of applications of the system was checked to see if all behaviours under study could be coded in one of the categories provided. And all behaviours under study were coded in one of the categories provided. The actual results of applications of the system was also checked to see if all the categories were being used to code behaviour. It was found that one major category was not used to code behaviours and it, together with the minor categories specified under it, was excluded from the schedule. But other minor categories which belong to another major category and which were not used to code behaviour were

maintained in the schedule (see Appendix 4 for the first and the final schedules).

The teacher sample consisted of ten senior secondary school teachers teaching in five different schools of Addis Ababa (two teachers from each school). At the time of the study the teachers averaged 12 years teaching experience and had an average class size of 78 students. There were nine men and one women (teacher c). Each teacher was visited once a week in the four observational weeks. This systematic observation was meant to answer the question whether or not the aspects of classroom behaviour the system purports to measure are stable in one classroom. It was meant also that every teacher was seen four times at two grade levels and that 40 history lessons of 40 minutes duration were available for analysis (10 teachers x 4 observational visits = 40 lessons). Five of the teachers were teaching in the grades 9 and 11, and the other five teachers in the grades 10 and 12.

Data Analysis

The information gathered from various documents were analyzed and discussed in Chapter Three, Part One. The data gathered through the questionnaire, interview and observation schedule were analyzed in Chapter Three, Part Two. In analyzing such data the following procedures were used: first, the response obtained from the questionnaire item were tabulated, interpreted and analyzed. As shown in Chapter Three (Part Two, Section One) there are fourteen tables in which the responses of the study group were presented. In each table the reactions of the respondents were indicated in numbers and/or percentages.



The interpretation, analysis and the ensuing discussion therefore were based on the results obtained. Next, the view of the interviewees that have been gained from the interview items were used to substantiate the interpretation, analysis and the discussion where ever deemed necessary.

The data obtained from the observation schedule were tabulated, interpreted and analyzed in the last section of Chapter Three. As shown in that section there are three tables in which the data were presented. The frequencies of different teaching strategies used by the teacher and the frequencies of the minor categories pertaining to teacher talk and student talk and activity were expressed as average lesson percentages. To determine whether the difference between teachers is significant or not and to determine the associated coefficients of reliability, a two-way analysis of variance (teacher by visit) was used.

1.2.4. Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

The main concern of this study was to examine the problems of history teaching in terms of their historical perspective and current status at the senior secondary school level. To this effect, the attempt started by examining historical accounts about history teaching in government senior secondary school since the beginning of secondary education in Ethiopia. In examining the current status of history teaching the study was confined to government senior secondary schools (9-12) in Addis Ababa.

The study was so delimited due to the fact that, first, the syllabus and textbooks are the same in all the secondary schools

of Ethiopia; hence the findings of the study would have wider application. Secondly it was assumed that more experienced teachers are placed in Addis Ababa schools, in that the Ministry of Education makes decision on the transfer of teacher from other administrative regions to Addis Ababa on the basis of their service years. So that attributing the problems of history teaching to poor teaching by inexperienced history teachers would be guarded.

One limitation of the study was that the data concerning current problems, as reflected from the actual classroom practices, were gathered from Addis Ababa and hence, the findings may be applicable to schools which have a similar kind of situation. Due to the absence of a particularized approach or identifiable school of thought the study did not attempt to use a model against which the aspects of the study would be compared or contrasted. The study did not focus on history examinations or assessment criteria set in the syllabus because the issue was exhaustively dealt in a Ph.D dissertation (See Yusuf Omer Abdi's dissertation).

1.2.5. Definition of Terms

1. Senior secondary school- is a labelling in formal education which covers grades 9 to 12 in the Ethiopian school system.

2. Teacher Training program- is a program designed to equip the would be teachers with knowledge and skills of teaching.

3. Experts- refers to those people who are subject specialists and have some training in Education.

4. Teacher behaviour- refers to classes of verbal behaviours that a teacher exhibits in the classroom when interacting with students.

Organization of the Study

The study is broken down into four chapters. Chapter One deals with the Introduction, the Problem, Statement of the Problem, Significance of the study, Methods of procedure and Sources of Information, Delimitation/Limitations of the Study, and Definition of terms used. Chapter Two attempts to review briefly some of the arguments having to do with history teaching in the general literature and related research. In Chapter Three the main subject of the study is discussed, i.e. the teaching of history in Ethiopian senior secondary schools - past and present. The Chapter is sub-divided into two parts. Part One deals with history teaching in the past, whereas Part Two (again subdivided into Two sections) deals with the present status of history teaching. The final chapter presents Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations.



REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

Starting from the question of the purpose and value of history teaching in secondary schools this chapter deals with: (a) the problems of what criteria to apply in building a history course in schools; (b) the problems governing the actual shape of the history course and specific course objectives; (c) principles and priorities for selection and organization of content and (d) strategies, methods and techniques as well as instructional materials. As a closer look into the literature reveals, a long line of historians and educators, in western educational systems, have written much on the questions or problems pertaining to history teaching (Johnson, 1940: 33-34). In view of this fact this chapter embodies information obtained from the works of these scholars and researchers.

2.1. The Purpose and Value of History Teaching

The importance of a certain discipline as a school subject is determined by the extent to which its distinctive contribution in meeting some cardinal educational purposes and values can be assessed. In western educational systems history of some kind is said to be a feature of almost every curriculum known so far (Crookall, 1965: 8). But it was only some time after the middle of the eighteenth century that history transformed itself from the status of optional subject into a required lesson to be learned like lessons in other subjects (Johnson, 105). Since then justifying the place of history in terms of its purpose and value has become the main preoccupation of concerned authorities.

Even though so much had been said and written about the purpose and value of history teaching by the close of the eighteenth century (Ibid. 33-34), the centrality of the issue has resulted in posing an inescapable duty on those who, in recent decades, have written articles or published books, to allot a sizeable portion of their work to the discussion about the purpose and value of history teaching as a school subject.

This is partly because there is the assumption that a history teacher should know the many reasons that justify the place of history in the curriculum, if he/she is to teach well "for no one", says Crookall (10), "can put his heart into his work unless he knows why he is doing it and believes in its value". Partly, the recognized results of historical instruction have been challenged on the ground that they are undesirable and some of the claims for the educational value of history invite a questioning attitude toward history (Johnson, 110). This last point, in particular, served as the main propellant factor for the continuation of the discussion on the issue. Then, out of this continuous discussion, two different view points have emerged.

On the one hand are those who see no value and purpose in the teaching of history. At this extreme is the argument that the very subject history in the school curriculum is considered to be undesirable and non-essential, for history as a school subject has proved its unpopularity. Here, Bruce Wesley (1969) can be mentioned as one of the leading proponents of this position. In his article, "Let's Abolish History Courses", he advanced an argument that emphasized history's failure as a school subject (Wesley, 517 - 526).

In his view the failure of history teaching cannot be reduced to a pedagogical factor alone, in that it is by and large a societal failure. He puts what he refers to as "insincere and fraudulent" social purposes he meant indoctrination, conditioning, and the fostering of docility and obedience. He then sought a remedy in no less than abolishing history courses (Ibid.)

Wesely's objection to the promotion of these social purposes is well taken by other researchers-including those who have held the extreme position. Invariably all researchers who have discussed the issue have suggested that history teaching, more often than not, has suffered from misuse or exaggerated claims of its purposes (Johnson, 106; Commager, 1965: 91; Daniels, 1981: 15). But the question, for those who held the extreme position, is, does history only promote insincere and fraudulent social purposes? Or, might not these misuses or exaggerated claims of its purposes be mitigable?

There are indeed researchers who have accepted this question as proper, but they appear to stand at the rearguard of the first position. These are people who see the purposes of history in a utilitarian sense. They have assumed historical knowledge to be practical knowledge and perceived or measured the purposes of history teaching in terms of its practicality. For them a history course that does not promote practical purposes should not be given a place in the curriculum (Johnson, 109). Although these researchers have accepted the desirability of maintaining history as a school subject, their argument suffers from one serious limitation. This is to say that the frame of reference for their argument seems to be the erroneous

assumption that lessons drawn from the past could directly be applicable to the present.

It is important to note here that applying historical knowledge to the present with no fuller understanding and proper scrutiny of the fundamental differences and similarities between past and present may amount to sheer anachronism and would become the most dangerous of the uses that can be made of history. The assertion that history would help us understand our present world does not refer to or imply the direct applicability of historical knowledge in solving current problems. As Engle (1969: 29) points out, what is rather implied is that historical understanding would suggest possible lines of attack on the persistent problems of society, in that some of the present problems have their roots in the past.

When one moves from the first extreme position to the other, one would find people who see history as an essential school subject. These are researchers who have tried to respond to the above position and who have tried to justify the place of history in the school curriculum. It suffices, among others, to present Commager's (1965) and Daniels' (1981) discussions as supportive arguments of this position.

Commager and Daniels did not overlook the fact that history has suffered from many abuses. Nor did they try to defend the place of history in the curriculum by being uncritical advocates. They were rather the ones who have provided a more substantial discussion about the abuses of history by citing specific cases. In discussing how history had been used to promote insincere and fraudulent purposes, Commager (91-92), for instance, has this to say:

Over the years history has been made to do service for almost every cause. The rich and the powerful on both sides of the Atlantic invoked the history of the French Revolution to damn all popular reforms and protect their privileges. Southern planters [in America] used the history of Greece and Rome to prove that slavery was a beneficent institution, and essential for a high civilization... Even in smaller matters politicians do not hesitate to summon up history to vindicate their arguments. (emphasis added)

Daniels (15) also mentions circumstances under which history teaching becomes a mere instrument of political propaganda. Since it has greater relevance to the current provisions of Ethiopian schools his description is worth quoting. For history teaching:

...much more serious offenders, in recent decades, have been the ideological movements of communism and fascism, with their commitment to certain absolute visions of the past, present, and future. Not only do these movements censor historical thoughts that contradict their own preconceived doctrines, but they produce official, rewritten versions of history in which all manner of distortion, half-truths, lies, and suppression of fact are employed to justify the movement, its power, its leaders, and even its particular policies of the movement.

However sound the preceding extract might appear, with respect to communism as an ideological movement and the teaching of history it requires, the explanation of Daniels seems to be inadequate. One can say the argument is inadequate on the ground that it does not question the materialist conception of history and the materialist methodology of historical analysis and explanation. Considering the aims that justify history

teaching in the current Ethiopian secondary school curriculum and the objection raised by some authors about the direct applicability of this methodology to the study of African traditional society, it is of greater importance to have a brief discussion about such a materialist conception and methodology.

There is quite a definite materialist conception of history-both its nature and the purposes of teaching it. By its nature the history of mankind is viewed as a history of successive modes of production and a history of class struggle (Tsomondo, 1978: 63). As such, as Tsomondo (60-62) points out, materialism holds that all history is unilinear and mono-directional, and that in their transition from barbarism all societies have to pass through the stages of primitive communism, feudal and bourgeois modes of production to that of socialism. Not only is history presented as a linear process but also as being divisible into clear-cut and consecutive stages. Tsomondo then objects the applicability of the materialist linear - dialectics and historical periodization to African traditional societies, as in traditional African societies such stages have frequently been contemporaneous; "primitive communism has existed side by side with feudalism and serfdom, and with commercial (as opposed to industrial) capitalism." this approach has a wider implication for the education system of those countries, including Ethiopia, which have adopted the socialist ideology. There, the successive modes of production and the concept of class struggle are the underlying themes for the construction of a history syllabus (Ibid.). As we shall see in the next chapter, this is what is exactly reflected in the history syllabus of Ethiopian secondary

schools after 1974.

To come back to Commager's and Daniels' point, with an understanding of the misuses of history, both of them contend that such misuses are mitigable problems (Commager, 92-93; and Daniels, 15). Abolishing history from the school curriculum would be more harmful than being a solution, given history's tremendous potential value and purpose which could not be achieved otherwise. By the same token it is absolutely unjustifiable to make use of history as mere instrument of propaganda or indoctrination. This kind of purpose is not congruent with the true nature of history, that is, objective inquiry (Daniels, 15).

This does in no way imply that honest historical inquiry cannot serve the body politic. Daniels (Ibid.) has suggested that history can serve the body politic provided that society and its leaders have proper understanding of the true nature of history. Both society and its leaders need to be open minded in accepting unpleasant facts and interpretations. They should not always expect success-oriented history because history deals both with the success and failure of a society. What is objectionable is thus the attempt of the politicians who vigorously try to justify their actions and policies by summoning up the services of history - history which suits their actions and policies.

History is said to have numerous purposes which are beneficial both to the society and the students. Very many purposes have been listed down by scholars. The following are, among others, the most frequently mentioned in different literature.

- a. History provides perspective and thereby serves as a frame of reference. This purpose of history would moderate pervasive parochialism, a parochialism of both time and space, a parochialism which is social or political (Commager, 92).
- b. History introduces children to their heritage. Introducing children to their heritage has some basic positive outcome. It equips the rising generation with the skills which are essential to cope with societal problems. It also enables the young to know about the society itself-its values, beliefs and the culture it cherished (Crookall, 16).
- c. History can expose students to contrasts of a political, economic and cultural kind which enables them to develop a disciplined tolerance of the viewpoints and beliefs of others and to focus their attention on what man has been and is becoming. A tolerant outlook is essential to develop harmonious relationships from the family level to the nation. On the other hand, lack of a tolerant outlook might drag people into conflict. A tolerant outlook is particularly vital to a country where different ethnic and cultural groups make up the nation. In the face of such diversities intolerance would lead to violence and bloodshed which would result in the waste of both human and natural resources (Ibid.).
- d. History exposes students to different concepts. It enables them to develop awareness of change and continuity and understanding of causation, empathy for the past; and a sense of chronology and time, etc. (Sansom, 1987: 116; Smallbone, 1987: 142; Shemilt, 1987: 39 and Booth, 1987:

- 22).
- e. History teaches patience. It teaches patience with the errors of men, the mischief of their enterprises, the failures of their institutions, and the frustrations of their hopes and ambitions (Commager, 92-92).
 - f. History helps to broaden the horizon of our knowledge about the world in which we live (Daniels, 13).
 - g. History helps to develop detachment that enables people to rise above human conflicts and see all sides of a question (Ibid.).

2.2. The History Syllabus

Principles and Priorities

As we have already seen in the preceding section, in the past writers have expended much of their effort discussing primarily the reasons that justify the place of history in the school curriculum or about its wider social value. There is, as a result, a fundamental lack of work which deals with principles and priorities that would govern the development of the history syllabus. But today scholars and researchers have made a radical shift in their emphasis and the problem pertaining to principles and priorities is receiving much more attention than ever before.

Research studies, time and again, have proposed to show that traditional history syllabi tend to inhibit rather than encourage good classroom practices. This problem is said to have arose from the traditional view of the value of history and

from the Piagetian approach. The traditional view of the value of history reckons that the most important reason for students to study history is to learn about the past (Crinnion, 1987: 160). There is indeed nothing wrong with this assumption. But the point is that the traditional syllabi undervalue the significance of its implications. This is to say that in order for students to know the past they should be able to think historically, meaning there should be a room for some of the epistemological complexities and fascinations of the subject. It does not, however, mean to criticise the traditional syllabi for not resembling the activities of an academic historian. After all producing academic historians is not the primary objective of history teaching at the secondary level. Rather, it is to say that for most secondary students history is difficult to understand or becomes very boring. Conversely it is not possible to develop students' historical thinking, if the subject is taught as a body of compiled information ready to be transmitted (Ibid., 160-161).

Until recently the history syllabus has been greatly influenced by the work of Jean Piaget. As such the use of the Piagetian approach resulted in the supposed inadequacies of traditional syllabi. This approach suggests that "... memorization and recall of knowledge were all that most 16-year-olds could cope with; they simply had not the mental capacity for engaging in historical thinking of a higher order" (quoted in Booth, 23). This assumption has said to be an obstacle to the development of concepts/skills based history syllabi because the assumption holds that students at the age of 16 lack mental capacity to learn concepts and skills (Ibid.).

The small amount of researches undertaken in the late 1960s and early 1970s to distil practical conclusions from the legacy of Piaget have not been particularly helpful for those wishing to change the teaching of history in schools. Since these researches were undertaken using Piaget's theory as a general framework all the findings have turned out strongly to confirm Piaget's stance.¹

However, the legacy of Piaget has been challenged over the past fourteen years in Britain by the work of the Schools Council History 13-16 Project established in 1972.² History 13-16, as Macintosh (1987: 184-185) points out, has become not only a curriculum development project but also a research project. Accordingly, researchers both within and outside of the project have questioned the significance of the Piagetian approach to be used as a framework on the ground that Piaget developed his theory not by determining the particular nature of history as well as the teaching and learning it requires. Thus, in the Piagetian approach history is not viewed as a discipline of inquiry that reconstructs past events using the surviving evidences and their explanations in terms of certain concepts.

With this understanding these researchers have undertaken both theoretical and experimental investigations. In their

¹ Roy Hallam, for example, suggests that 'the material must be so selected that it matches the pupils' schemata or thinking skills; history... for nearly all the pupils under 14 years of age should not be over abstract in form, nor should it contain too many variables' (as quoted in Booth, 25).

² Initially it was intended to be a curriculum development project. Now it has also become a research project designed to investigate the nature of adolescent ideas about history as a discipline and to see whether these ideas can be enhanced by teaching and assessing the subject as a distinct way of knowing rather than as a body of information (see Christopher Portal, *The History Curriculum For Teachers*, 1987).

study they have attempted to distil practical conclusions from the legacy of Piaget and from the theories of explanation. Their experimental investigations also focus on the nature of the subject; the teaching and learning it requires; the nature of the idea of adolescents about history as a discipline; and to see whether these ideas can be enhanced by teaching and assessing the subject as a distinct way of knowing rather than as a body of information (Portal, 1987: VII).

These research works have proposed to show that traditional history syllabi need a radical overhaul. The reasons that necessitate a radical overhaul lie in the supposed inadequacies of traditional history syllabi. It is noted that such inadequacies appear to be self-evident from the steady decline in the number of students opting for history courses; from the general demands for greater social relevance in the curriculum and from overtly expressed dissatisfaction among history teachers with the quality of the provision of traditional history syllabi (Crinnion, 154).

Empirical researches undertaken by those writers who have viewed history as a discipline of inquiry, however fragmentary, suggest that childrens' ability to think historically has so far been underestimated. They have also shown that the level of historical understanding, however rudimentary initially, can be developed significantly. For instance, a study conducted at secondary comprehensive schools (11-16 age) in England in the 1980s suggests that:

...the major factor behind the increased scores was not general intelligence or greater maturity but a syllabus and teaching method which was specifically

geared to the development of conceptual understanding and the skills of historical reasoning (Sansom, 117-118)

This and other empirical researches into childrens' thinking and learning of history have identified some patterns in the development of childrens' understanding of the tools of thought of history, i.e. the concept of time, evidence, change, causation, and motivation. Shimelt's (39-60) recent research on the way in which children make sense of the concepts (change, cause, motive and evidence) gives an indication of the possible levels of childrens' historical understanding. What actually emerges from his research is levels with no precise boundaries but levels as points on a continuum. Sansom (121) has described these levels of understanding as "... sequenced descriptions of a dynamic thinking process rather than stages of mental development."

After reviewing many of the recent researches which tend to refute the legacy of Piaget, Sansom (118) summarizes the findings as follows:

- a. The ability to think in an historically sophisticated way develops gradually in our pupils over the ages 10 to 18.
- b. There are no clear 'break through' points, but by age 14 to 15 perhaps 40-50 per cent of our pupils can operate at a sophisticate level some of the time.
- c. The ability to respond at a high level is present in some pupils at first year secondary age, and may not be present in 18 year-olds studying for 'A' level.
- d. Where there was a 'control' group a significant minority achieved results as good as those of the

b. 'experimental' group-but only when asked deliberately probing questions.

The main issue then becomes not whether such deficiencies (initial imperfection of levels of historical understanding) invalidate the worth of concept/skills based history courses but whether the syllabus and the teaching methods encourage students to learn to work with and beyond such imperfect beginnings. This is mainly because research studies have revealed the fact that students enter the secondary schools with a clear potential for historical thinking which grows gradually during their adolescence (Ibid.).

It is an obvious fact that the quality of learning depends on both intrinsic and extrinsic determinants of learning quality. Other than student readiness and motivation (intrinsic determinants), what is important are extrinsic determinants. These include teaching methods which include encouragement to work out, discuss and refine thoughts and ideas; the concern of the teacher, including: weaving together knowledge, concepts, cognitive skills, empathy, interest and personal experiences; and a course structure designed specifically to develop skills, attitudes and concepts (Sansom, 118-119 and Booth, 28).

Recent researchers hold the assumption that students at the secondary school should be taught history not as a body of information but as an approach to knowledge. They have suggested the following principles and priorities which would form the basis of a history syllabus:

- a. The nature of the subject and students' ideas about it should be the underlying theme (Booth, 33).

- b. History has to be viewed as a discipline of explanation and inquiry into and reconstruction of past events. It has to be presented not as a received story about the past but as a distinct form of knowledge with its own logic, methods and perspectives (Smallbone, 142).
- c. History teaching should be about issues or problems of some importance, presented coherently and in-depth and taught so as to encourage student participation. Such qualities are more important than content or coverage as a starting point for syllabus planning (Crinnion, 154).
- d. The history courses should be seen in to to as developing certain concepts, skills and attitudes. Students should not be regarded as a storage bin of a body of information but as learners requested to distinguish information from evidence, to make inferences, to make hypotheses and to test these hypotheses (Smallbone, 142-145).
- e. The history syllabus should allow students to pursue their investigation of historical events or problems within the context, i.e., the context of the problem, the antecedents, consequences and concomitants. Students pursue a course that encourages the possibility of acquiring genuinely historical skills, concepts and attitudes as direct consequence of the structure, pedagogy and methods of assessment of the syllabus (Crinnion, 170).

- f. Documents and sources (both primary and secondary) need to form a significant part of the history syllabus (Ibid., and Shemilt, 50-51).

Even though these researchers have attempted to suggest principles and priorities for the construction of a history syllabus, none of them provides a model of historical practice. Only Vincent Crinnion (174-175) has gone one step forward and attempted to show how the above mentioned principles and priorities can take shape in a history syllabus.

Crinnion has suggested that such principles and priorities would take shape in a history syllabus by introducing a framework of separate but interrelated modules of study. These modules, viewed as spot lights on the past, would provide flexible and economic vehicles for the principles that should underpin a history syllabus. The use of a modular approach is said to be helpful because;

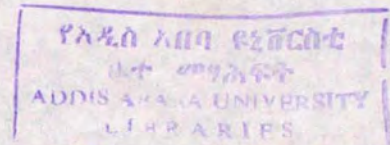
- a. A modular approach would enable us to define curricular objectives clearly, which in turn generates precise assessment criteria.
- b. Modules can be repeated or studied simultaneously to suit the particular learning needs or interests of the student, in that modules embody units which are gradual and progressive in nature.
- c. Modules would enable teachers to make variations in subject matter or resources according to regional or local references (Ibid. 172).

The suggested modular course for history has the following five separate but interrelated modules:

MODULE 1: The Role of the Individual in an Historical Event.

The centre of this module is a biographical study and intended to serve as an introductory part of the syllabus. Beyond focusing students' attention on some of the main characters and ideas to be developed in the other modules, it opens lines of inquiry by providing a starting point for students' understanding of historical explanation and historical sources.

MODULE 2: Depth Study.



At the centre of this module is a detailed study of a particular historical event aiming at the development of certain skills, concepts and attitudes. "The various threads that may make up a historical event (political, social, economic, intellectual, and so forth) can be considered separately and in combination."

MODULE 3: A Local Study

At the centre of this module is a detailed study of local variation in national developments. That history as a subject should not be remote from the students' own experience and existence is the important point of principle in this module.

MODULE 4: A Study in Development

At the centre of this module is a broad survey of a theme which would help inform that change and difference are the chief

characteristics of the past. The idea of continuity can be revealed as well. Introducing two or more case studies will provide depth to the development study.

MODULE 5: A Foreign Parallel

This module focuses on the study of a foreign parallel to a national and continental history so as to promote the idea of difference and variety in human experience. It is also aimed at stimulating students' historical imagination through sharp contrasts and comparisons (Crinnion, 172-176).

Crinnion has suggested that this modular approach form a nexus for the syllabus in which the syllabus would be constructed with 'vertical' (depth study) and 'horizontal' (development study) axes for the same period. He has presented schematic representation of a modular syllabus (see appendix 5).

This modular approach seems to be more helpful to the educational system that is highly centralized. This is mainly because the approach gives room to the study of local history. In a syllabus which is organized on the basis of chronological breadth it is not possible to deal with local variations. Added to this, the inclusion of a foreign parallel as one of the aspects of the approach is of importance, as it gives the history syllabus a feature which would include content other than the national history. Therefore, the approach would enhance students' understanding of the world at large.

Objectives of the History Syllabus

Setting out objectives is a primary task in the process of devising a curriculum or a syllabus, for these objectives play

a significant role in the selection of content, teaching methods and criteria of evaluation. Many objectives have been stated for the history syllabus. But there are besetting problems in these objectives. The problems are twofold.

The stating of many objectives is the first problem. As Johnson (108) put it, hundreds of objectives used to be stated for the history syllabus. The list included some objectives which could be more effectively promoted by other school subjects, such as civics, rather than by history. This, in itself, raises a problem of steering any specific course objectives with complete conviction (Ibid.). It is an open educational principle that general instructional objectives should be established which become specific objectives to be realized by specific learning outcomes.

The other most difficult problem arises out of lack of clearly defined objectives (Ibid.). If objectives are not defined clearly and unambiguously it would be difficult to select content which relates to the achievements of the stated objectives, to select appropriate organizational pattern and teaching methods, and to develop criteria for the assessment of how much and how well the objectives are being realized. Thus, this problem is attracting the attention of recent researchers.

If history is to be treated as a distinct form of knowledge with its own methods, logic and perspectives, Smallbone (142-143) suggests that the subject within the school should be defined not in terms of the subject matter but in terms of skills, attitudes and concepts. He goes to the extent of identifying those skills associated with historical knowledge and concepts which are essential to historical study and

relevant to the personal and social needs of adolescents. These include the critical and discriminatory use of source materials, historical empathy, the role of the individual in history, causation, motivation, change and interpretation of current events in relation to the past.

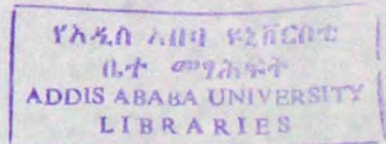
For such a stress, i.e., the essentiality of defining objectives in terms of skills, attitudes and concepts, much of the impetus has come from the findings of recent researches which specifically studied students' conceptualization and ideas about history. Until recently few constructive attempts have been made to define conceptually the objectives of a history syllabus. This is due to the effects of the Piagetian approach which has been exclusively used as a basis for the development of a history syllabus. As we have already seen in the preceding section, recent studies tend to reject the Piagetian approach.

Not only do researchers tend to reject the Piagetian approach but they have also identified a number of concepts, skills and attitudes in terms of which the selection of content and the criteria of evaluation may be dictated and the teaching of history can be controlled. Such key objectives, around which a study of human societies might be organized include, *inter alia*, the following.

I. CONCEPTS:

- a) Change, Development, Continuity and Time.

Here the general educational aim is to develop an awareness of change, development, continuity and time by introducing ideas and testable propositions, such as: things change at varying rates; a wide variety of



factors have stimulated change and also have inhibited change; sometimes things change for the better and sometimes for the worse; some things do not change (Sansom, 132-133; Smallbone, 145; Crinnion, 164).

b) **Causation:**

Under this concept, students are supposed to realize three essential things: (1) relationship between cause and effect, (2) the multiple character of cause and effect, (3) methods of thinking, i.e., a search for explanation (Smallbone, 144).

c) **Evidence:**

The aim is to develop an understanding of the question How do we know?; to distinguish the concept evidence from information; to know the evidential basis of history; to guard against the assumption that knowledge as being justified by authority, i.e., authority of the teacher and the textbook (Shemilt, 39-60).

d) **Empathy:**

To see the concept empathy in history and its connections with historical understanding. Empathy is important to historical understanding because, "it is where we get to when we have successfully reconstructed other people's belief, values, goals, and attendant feelings" (Ashby & Lee, 1987: 63). It is also vital so as to avoid anachronism. The aim is then to help students develop an understanding of empathy as a way of thinking imaginatively, which needs to be used in conjunction with other cognitive

skills in order to see significant human values in history (Ashby and Lee, 62-86; Portal, 98-98 and Sansom, 136-137).

e) **Motivation:**

Understanding people's actions from the driving want. History, time and again, demonstrates that man may act from moral conviction as well as from material wants and needs (Sansom, 120-121).

- f) **The Concept of Culture:** the concept of social group, including the relation of the group to the development of the individual; the concept of economic organization, including the relation of economic organization to human goals and to developing technology; the concept of political organization, including the nature of political rights and responsibilities and means of political control (Engle, 1965: 34).

II. SKILLS:

- a) To develop the skills of communication and self-expression in a variety of written forms; to engage in oral discussion or present a case verbally; to listen and persuade; to pose questions (Smallbone, 145; Crinnion, 163).
- b) To develop the ability to locate information in historical sources.
- c) To develop the skills of evaluation: the ability to evaluate critically sources of evidence and the ability to test hypotheses.

- d) To develop the ability to distinguish facts from Opinion and the truth from falsehood.
- e) To develop the skills of analysis: "the ability to categorize observations, to recognize content and bias, cause and effect, omissions and irrelevancies, to distinguish the verifiable from the unverifiable; above all, the ability to relate statements about people to evidence."
- f) To develop the skills of synthesis: the ability to analyze fact, select evidence, use historical data for imaginative reconstruction (Smallbone, 145).

III. ATTITUDE: Under this concept the aims are:

- a) to develop an attitude of informed scepticism.
- b) to develop a tolerant outlook.
- c) to develop patience.
- d) to develop the attitude of empathizing (Sansom, 139).

Content and Organization of the History

Syllabus

As curriculum designers indicate, once the general objectives have been stated or implied the next step is the selection and organization of content. It has been common to suggest that consideration of the stated objectives would serve as guidance in selecting content. But there are circumstances which lead to the divergence from the point of using the stated objectives as a way of selecting content. As a result, selection and organization of the content of the history syllabus remain the perennial problems besetting those who are

concerned with the construction of the syllabus. The debate on the issue of deciding upon the content to be selected and the kind of organizational approach to be adopted has gone on for many years now and many positions are held.

At the one extreme are those who demand a 'skills-dominated' and 'concepts-dominated' syllabus. This is a demand for a syllabus "that would leave people able to do things rather than just knowing facts." In support of them come others who demand a history syllabus that may enable students to learn "basic organizing principles that are essential to the understanding of the world at large." They suggest that history be taught not for its own sake but for wider social value. On the other extreme are those who demand a "facts-dominated" syllabus. For them skill-based and concepts-based study of the past cannot be anything other than sterile and bogus (Fines, 1987: 103).

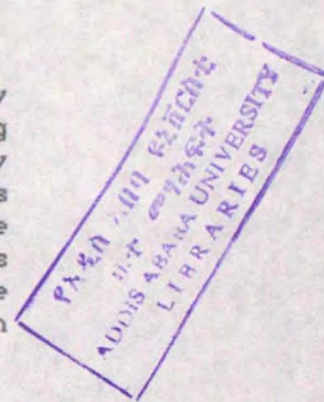
Other than this, the shape of the history syllabus has been governed by other elements. Johan Fines (1987, 108-109) in his essay "making sense out of the content of the History Curriculum", has presented three common considerations in the selection of content. He also labelled them as notions that have constantly constrained the development of a good history syllabus.

Nationalism is one of these notions. Other 'isms', such as fascism, socialism, are also subsumed in this notion. The content of the history syllabus, says Fines (Ibid.), has all too frequently been influenced by the ideals of nationalism as well as by other 'isms'. The ideals of nationalism refer to the selection of the content of the history syllabus in to to from

the history of the nation. The major impetus for this claim has come from the pre-occupation for national development or from the attempt to use national history as a main vehicle for citizenship education. But in the face of ideological commitment nationalism given way to other 'isms'.

The second common consideration is the notion of breadth. In this notion what matters is content coverage with due emphasis on the ancient, medieval and modern period. As Fines (Ibid.) points out, this notion has done infinite harm to history teaching in schools, for:

It turned history into a race which nobody could ever win, with the teacher getting faster and faster the nearer the exams they get, leaving out greater and greater chunks of reality in the hopes of making it to the winning post. Fast history teaching leaves out all the best bits, the stories, the detail, the rambling by-ways which intuition tells you to follow.



'Lines of Development' is the third common consideration. It was first proposed and advocated as a principle of selection by Jeffreys way back in 1939. One of the principal advantages alleged for this method is that the method makes it possible to study development in terms that the pupil can understand (Jeffreys, 1939: 33-37). That children could logically deduce about the processes of time and change, if they learn history through lines of development, is the other assumption that works behind this method (Fines, 163). Fines argues that this method has its own pitfalls, for it does not enable students to comprehend the presence of a "determined continuity, a reluctance to change, a tendency to hang on the past ways in the face of the whirling crises of the every day world."

In spite of such continuous debates there is still a good deal of confusion as to what ought to be taught and what left out. Providing a firm selective principle for steering a course through it still remains a central problem. Therefore the content of a history syllabus varies from one educational setting to the other. This is to say that in some educational systems syllabi are arranged on the basis of topics, while in the case of others syllabi are arranged on the basis of periods. For some educational systems, the syllabus would need to draw its content from the national history alone. But for others, it would need to incorporate three features: national history, continental history and world history.

The history syllabus that draws its content from the national, continental and world history is said to be preferable. Two reasons account for this preference. In the first place, each of these sections has a particular contribution and concern. The major concern of world history is, for example, all mankind living in a universe through out all time and in a great variety of cultures. A study of world history would help students develop understanding of the world at large when they consider the broad lines along which the development of human society proceeds, the role of both change and continuity in human society, the significance of uniformity and variety among human institutions, the persistent problems faced by all human societies and the resources for improvement in human affairs. These contributions cannot be acquired by means other than the teaching of world history (Engle, 17).

In the second place, exclusive teaching of national history is harmful. Research studies have shown that teaching private

citizens the public virtues of loyalty and responsibility has been attributed to the function of history ever since the dawn of civilization. Conditioning school children to an automatic loyalty to the nation has been the main feature of traditional teaching of history. Even though historical understanding is invaluable for the citizenry, simple conditioning to loyalty is undesirable because it has hampered the communication of the real values of historical study in its "reflective and objective quest for truth". Conditioning students to loyalty is also undesirable for "... the foundations of real loyalty (commitment) rest not on indoctrination, but go deep down in the whole network of social life" (Daniel, 13-16).

National history is of importance. It promotes a country's mature self-awareness. As the study unfolds students will get a realistic perspective on the nature of their society and its problems. But this could be realizable only when it is taught and studied in a spirit of objectivity. For this reason national history should not be taught and studied in isolation. What is important is to teach or study national history in the context of parallel or divergent developments in other countries of the continent or the world. The teaching of national history in isolation could result in stimulating a one-sided view. If so the tendency would be attributing everything good to one's own nation or glorifying one's own heroes, while blackening or underrating the achievements of others. Over emphasizing of the nation's achievement and glossing over its shortcomings and failures are also normal results of this approach. Moreover, it would deprive students of the chance to develop an understanding of the world at large (Ibid.).

The difficulty in selecting content is quite understandable. It is, however, possible to draw certain inferences from the foregoing discussion. In the first place, it is advisable to know the advantages and pitfalls of each of the suggested principles. As a closer look into the literature reveals, so far no conclusive evidence is presented by the advocates of each of the approaches which prove the relative effectiveness of the approach they advocate. In view of this fact it is of utmost importance carefully to consider the arguments of the advocates of other approaches, in that it helps to evaluate the approach being adopted in selecting the content.

In addition, consideration of the main objective can provide guidance in the selection of the content of the history syllabus. The question to be answered is, What can school children learn from the study of the selected content that will contribute most effectively towards the attainment of that objective?

Once the content has been selected the next step is the organization of the already selected content in such a way that it is taught effectively. But organization of the subject matter in history is still an important problem. The problem is two fold. Firstly, a generally agreed upon organizational approach is lacking. There are, rather, four different approaches proposed by different authorities. These are the chronological, topical, problems, and social processes approaches. Of these some authorities advocate more than one approach and they have proposed one specific form of organization for one grade level and a different form for another. Secondly, there is disagreement on the issue of

organizing the history syllabus as a separate subject or organizing it as part of the social studies program (Cartwright, 1965: 41).

The debate over the first problem has gone on for many years with no concrete result. What has appeared from this debate is opponents and proponents for each of the approaches. In an attempt to justify the form of organization they advocate these authors have advanced arguments and counter arguments.

For a long time the organization of the history syllabus was used following a chronological approach. For those who support this approach the underlying belief is that "a chronological organization is the only approach by which historical events can be studied as they were taking place "and which can also" make the study clear so that an individual or group is always contending with many problems at the same time" (Ibid.).

Their argument is however, countered by those who support one of the other approaches. For these people a chronologically organized content imminently lends itself to easily sliding into mere succession of names, dates, and events many of which have no relevance to the present or the future (Ibid.). A history syllabus that prefers to organize itself around the principle of periodization rather than a discussion of historical problems is said to be a wrong approach. This is mainly because it forces teachers and students to work inwards from a chronological periphery rather than outwards from a problematic centre; hence teachers suffer from a want of time (Crinnion, 259).

The supporters of a topical approach, for instance, have sought a remedy for this presumed deficiency. They say that

only a topical approach can make the study of history relevant and significant. A study of history would become relevant and significant because a topical approach can stop rushing and superficial treatment by allowing the student to concentrate on a particular topic unit he/she understands it well (Cartwright, 1941).

There are others who contend that the content of history syllabus should be organized in a problem or in a social process approach. Essentially, only with some addition, the supporters of these two approaches use the same argument advanced by the supporters of topical organization. The advocator of a social process approach, for instance, add that approaching the matter through a social process "provides topics of importance to all people at all times and places." On their part, in addition to what the supporters of a topical and social process approach say, the advocates of a problem approach give the matter a psychological dimension. In this line they say that "learning takes place only when there is a problem to solve" (Ibid. 41-42).

The arguments of the supporters of a topical, social process and a problem approach are countered by the supporters of chronological approach. These people contend that the use of these three approaches not only "leads to the omission of important matters" but it also "introduces the bias of those who selected the topics, processes, or problems to be studied" (Ibid. 42).

Seen in the light of some research findings, the arguments of the supporters of each approach have some validity but none of them is conclusive. In the 1940s a five-year study was

conducted by the Stanford Social Education Investigation to determine the relative effectiveness of the three approaches in social studies classes at senior high school level. The results of this study are not compatible in a number of ways with the merits alleged for each of the aforementioned approach (Gross and McDonald, 1958; 236).

The supporters of the problems approach, for instance, claim that "students always learn more facts as well as varied social studies skills when using the problems method, no matter what the course may be." But according to the results of the above mentioned study it was through the chronological approach that students learned more factual information about American history and did make the most significant gains in research techniques, whereas, contrary to the alleged advantages for a topical organization, students did make the "least significance progress in a number of areas" when they learn through a topical approach (Ibid. 236).

Such an absence of conclusive evidences has made researchers restrain themselves from dictating a specific form of organization. From the Stanford Social Education Investigation it became apparent that the role of the teacher has much more importance than the form of curricular organization (Ibid.). Cartwright (4) is another writer who insists on the inconclusiveness of the arguments put forward by the supporters of each approach. He suggests, then, that teachers and supervisors need to be familiar with the arguments and counter-arguments, for "sound planning or unsound planning, effective or ineffective teaching, can be carried out under any of the proposals. The negative arguments will be useful to

teachers and supervisors as warning against weaknesses in any approach."

With regard to the second problem two different positions are held. There are those who support the organization of the history syllabus as a separate subject and others who support the teaching of history as part of the fused social studies program (Ibid.). Those who support the former view say that meaningful study of the development and problems of society is better promoted when students study successfully the various aspects of society from the point of view of various disciplines (each with its contribution), in that "these subjects have resulted from the best efforts of scholars and teachers to devise means for learning about society." The advocates of the latter view, on their part, contend that since the boundaries around any of the social studies are not rigid it is an interdisciplinary approach that would provide meaningful study of the development and problems of society (Ibid.).

Like the first problem there is no conclusive evidence which would buttress either of the arguments. As a result adopting any of the proposals depends upon the educational experiences of that particular country.

2.3. Methodological Strategies and Techniques of History Teaching

The quality of Education is largely dependent on the quality of instruction being provided in the actual classroom. It is therefore essential to pay proper attention to change conventional methods of teaching that are found ineffective and to expend efforts to introduce new methods which have been

determined to be effective in facilitating students' learning.

There are certain problems which require drastic changes in the existing methods of history teaching. The first problem which necessitates introduction of change and invigoration is the reported incessant waning of the status of history as a school subject. Many studies and investigations have facilitated recognition that history as a school subject is one of the least popular subjects (Crookall, 46-47; Crinnion, 155 and Wesley, 520).

Crinnion (155) stated the problem in the most specific of terms when he wrote "more alarming for those who care about the health of the subject that lives in the past is that increasingly fewer students are willing to visit it there. The figures reveal a steady decline in the relative popularity of the subject at school and university." In his view, though vocational relevance or concern of employability is becoming a key consideration in students' choice, the most valid reason for such decline of status lies in the inadequacies of traditional history syllabi and teaching methods (Ibid. 156-157).

The other problem in history teaching emanates from the nature of history. This problem can be seen and analyzed from two sides: from the side of students and from the side of pragmatic people. To begin with, this problem has many implications for the students. History is a subject that deals with past events. With all of its exasperating details it has tremendous scope. Its great mass of detailed information tends to overwhelm students. Any attempt to cover this mass of detailed information all too often becomes burdensome. What is more, being a record of eras remote from the students' time and

place in the millennia of human existence, students usually find the subject - matter of history alien to their limited experience (Allen, 1969: 306).

The major questions arising out of this problem include:

- a) how can history be made meaningful to students?
- b) how can secondary school students find purpose in the study of history?
- c) how can the history teacher motivate his students to learn, so that they come to understand the place of history in their lives and that of the society?
- d) by what kind of strategies, methods and techniques can history be taught more effectively

The answers to these questions appear to be twofold. First, the history teacher must make history meaningful. He can make it meaningful by linking it to students' experiences and by building certain conceptions in a variety of ways. He should, for instance, help students grasp the relationship between themselves and history's engendering forces. He should help students understand the fact that many current human problems (social, political, diplomatic and economic) cannot be understood and thus properly dealt with without adequate knowledge of the nature and significance of related past event. A good understanding of the past will thus help people to know much about themselves and to deal with the present and prepare for the future. In other words, the teacher has to help students understand the concern of history which is not just to tell what happened but to explain the causes, nature and significance of what happened as well (Aik and Edmonds, 1976:

132).

Secondly, the history teacher needs to have certain understandings and attitudes so as to motivate students to learn history. He must always seek to understand his students, their needs and interests and the methods best suited to them as well as the methods best suited to what the nature of history requires. To the latter effect, knowing the nature of history is of importance. He has, for instance, to know the fact that historical facts are essential in so far as they are considered as means but not as ends in themselves. Historical facts have to be considered as means to make generalizations, to test hypotheses and to develop concepts. Thus the role of the teacher must be the selection of teaching methods which would facilitate students' learning and which would offer them the chance to use historical facts as tool for developing further knowledge (Palmer, 1966; 73-75).

Other than the students, the problem that emanates from the nature of history has a wider implication to pragmatic people. These are people who have a widespread distaste for history. As such, they consider history to be as dry as dust. Their distaste for history is primarily the result of their prime concern and their acquaintance with history in their school days (Aik and Edmonds, 132).

The main concern of these people is their material welfare. As such they feel certain that they should care only for the present and the future. Their acquaintance with history in their school days was, on the other hand, unhappy because they were forced to memorize a great mass of detailed information presented within the cover of traditional history textbooks for

regurgitation in conventional history examinations. They have then developed a conviction that history lessons are mental tortures which have no relevance to future learning once the examinations are over and students leave school. For them a study of history cannot serve as a tool for thinking; nor does it give students tools for dealing with the affairs of the world beyond school (Ibid.).

This is an unhappy impression which, by and large, traditional methods of teaching history, textbooks and examination questions left imprinted upon many people (Ibid., 133). If history is considered to be a dull subject, says Crookall (47), it is because of the way the subject is taught - the way of teaching which never challenged the interest, nor excited the imagination of students. This is a view commonly shared by other writers. Rogers is one of those writers who emphasises the same argument. He is of the opinion that traditional methods of history teaching not only bored students but also misrepresented the nature of the subject. History is simply construed as a string of facts arranged chronologically within the covers of textbooks and which are not difficult to read and understand. This misrepresentation makes adults sceptical about the study of the subject. They greatly doubt that the subject is worthy of pursuit at all (Rogers, 3-5).

The problems referred to above which, in one way or another, confront history teaching are by and large results of the supposed inadequacies of traditional method of history teaching. As a result, today more than ever before the problem has attracted the attention of educational researchers as well

as history teachers. Over the past decades they have been increasingly concerned with the introduction of change in the teaching and learning of history. A substantial contribution is being made along this line through the work of the Schools Council History 13-16 Project established in 1972. In attempting to introduce change they have forwarded a number of critiques of the traditional method of history teaching. The purpose of such critiques is twofold. First, to examine the drawbacks of traditional methods and thereby to suggest certain invigorations. Second, to propose new methods which the nature of history demands and which enhance students' study of history (Portal, Vii). It is to these issues that the following discussions turn next.

Traditional Methods of History Teaching

The issues of analyzing traditional methods and suggesting new methods of teaching and learning of history are approached from two angles. Some researchers see the issue of history teaching in terms of content and process, while others approach the problem from the side of historiographical issues. Of the former group, Rogers' (1987) discussion stands out as more illuminating, whereas Palmer's (1966) argument is more revealing from the latter group. Presenting the discussion of these two writers would give us a more comprehensive understanding of the issues at hand.

 The central issue for Rogers is the teaching and learning of history in terms of content and process. He has made two concepts - the "know that" and the "know how" as the focus of his discussion. Of these two types of knowing, in his view, the

traditional method of history teaching rests exclusively upon the "know that" with total neglect of "know how" (Rogers, 4-5). Nevertheless, nowhere in his paper does Rogers explicitly say exactly what he means by these two types of knowing. From several of his statements, however, it appears that "know how" refers to skills or process or operations. For example, knowing how to reconcile conflicting evidence from different sources. On the other hand, "know that" refers to content or one's cognitive repertoire, that is, to knowledge of factual statements (Ibid.).

What Rogers has objected to here is the exclusive stress on the "know that" and the neglect of the "know how" in its entirety. He does not, however, tend totally to dismiss the essentiality of giving due emphasis to the "know that". Nor does he tend to propose undue stress on the "know how". What is rather implied in his contention is that for effective history teaching there needs to be an interplay between the "know how" (process) and the "know that" (content) aspects of history. Such an interplay is of importance for there can be no "know that" except as the outcome of the "know how". Also it is important and essential to have genuine historical questions or materials upon which the "know how" can be exercised. Thus, the two types of knowing should be viewed as indispensable elements of history teaching (Ibid.).

Failure to comprehend the inseparability of the two types of knowing or the neglect of the "know how" renders the subject educationally sterile. This is so because an exclusive stress on the "know that" would certainly deprive students of the experiences which would enable them to ascertain the truth of

what they learn and the tools for further learning (Ibid.).

Aside from the issues of content and process, as Palmer (70-71) points out, history teaching has been profoundly affected by historiographical issues. On these historiographical issues there are two extreme view points. On the one extreme are those who hold the view that historical study involves essentially a descriptive task. On the other extreme are those who view historical study basically as descriptive and also explanatory in nature. To the former group, the teaching of history should concern itself with enabling students to learn factual information. Whereas the latter group maintains the view that, however important descriptive activities are, describing events, dates and facts is not an end in itself. In historical study descriptive activities are the means to the making of generalizations, testing hypotheses, practising correct application of logical process, concept formation and attainment. For items of historical information are useful in so far as they can primarily serve as data (Ibid.).

If history teachers are well disposed and prepared to carry out descriptive activities alone, as is the case in traditional history teaching, they would still without doubt, leave students unguided to their own devices when it comes to explaining why things have occurred as they have. In order for the history teacher to teach his/her subject more effectively, he/she has to go beyond mere description and rather to explanation, citing causes, showing the interconnection between causes and consequences and to analyzing; for explanation is what contributes most to students' understanding (Palmer, 71-72).

It should, however, be emphasized that students concept of what historical explanation is all about rests on the experiences they have had of historical thought (Sansom, 122). It is therefore essential to have a teaching-learning process wherein history is viewed both as descriptive and explanatory in nature. This provides a necessary corrective methodology to the exclusive stress laid upon the transmission of information by uncritical advocates of the conventional history teaching (Palmer, 72).

By traditional method of history teaching researchers are referring to expository teaching. Now it is the expository teaching, more specifically the lecture method that is under attack by scholars and researchers.

As Beyer (1971:10) points out, selecting, arranging and applying instructional techniques are the major task of teaching. It is such arrangements of teaching techniques which are referred to as teaching strategies. Arranging teaching techniques in many different ways has resulted in the development of many teaching strategies. Characteristically, some of these strategies are in essence finding-out-for-yourself (Inquiry), whereas others are essentially "telling" (expository). Quoting Fenton, Beyer suggests that these strategies may be put on a continuum as extremes. Expository teaching strategy is presented on one end of the continuum, while inquiry teaching strategy is placed on the other end of the continuum. Other types of strategy can be placed in between these two ends.

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Providing students with information to be memorized and recalled later is basically the objective of expository teaching strategy. Expository teaching strategy is appropriate when the aim is the transmission of a specific body of knowledge to a student. In such a strategy there is little room accorded to students' active involvement (Ibid. 11-13).

The lecture method is one of the methods which is essentially telling and thus it belongs to expository strategy. As Perrott (1982: 19) points out, this method occupies much of the lesson time in classroom instruction of every subject. Research studies conducted specifically on history teaching have also shown that, despite damning criticisms, yet the lecture method remains the basic form of instruction in which history courses are most commonly taught (Crinnion, 157 and Crookall, 47-48).

This method involves the presentation of concepts, ideas and information by using narration and description. It requires much talk from the teacher, while students remain passive and chair-bound listeners. Thus the lecture method has been under criticism for being teacher dominated; for it ignores the principle of active student participation and it does not enable students to develop tools of knowing- i.e., tools for finding out meaning for themselves (Aggarwal, 77-78 and Crookall, 50).

Despite these drawbacks, many advantages are ascribed to the lecture method. This method is said to be more appropriate to cover a large amount of material. It is effective also when the task is to impart ideas and information. It is very effective in giving factual information and in relating some of the thrilling anecdotes that go with a history lesson. The life stories of great adventurers, experimenters, investigators and thinkers can be presented in very interesting and valuable talks by the teacher (Aggarwal, 78). Added to this it is economical as a large number of students can be taught at a time (Brown, 1978: 41).

Moreover, people strongly defend this method on two grounds. First, they say that it is a way of introducing students quickly to conflicting historical interpretations and thus stimulating critical thought, and is also a method that can make history "come alive", that probably no other method can. Secondly, secondary schools with large class size cannot pay special attention to individual students, or to small groups of them, no matter how convinced the history teachers are that this is desirable. The way to more personalized as well as the new methods other than the lecture in history teaching can be found in secondary schools only through substantial reductions in the size of classes and work loads of history teachers (Crookall, 50).

It is important to note that among the researchers who have criticised the lecture method no one suggests a total rejection. Invariably indeed all of them have laboured to suggest ways of invigorating it, along side the suggested new methods. They have even gone to the extent of proposing that the lecture

method be one aspect in the mode of presentation of the new suggested methods.

What they have rather suggested is that lecturing should be supplemented by discussion. Opportunities for semi-independent study need to be provided for students who are capable of profiting from independence. Parallel reading has to accompany lectures and textbook study. In addition to the textbook the history teacher has to make use of materials that present primary sources. History teachers need also to use a variety of available media (discussed extensively in the concluding part of this section) to convey to students the spirit of the age through which they are asked to pass vicariously. In short, what is being suggested is augmentation of the lecture method (Ibid.).

'To improve its effectiveness teachers need to use other teaching techniques which ensure students' active participation. Questioning technique is one way of providing opportunities for student involvement. However, the effect of this technique is largely dependent upon the ability of the teacher in framing and asking the more appropriate questions. Perrott (1982; 55) has classified these types of questions into two categories on the basis of cognitive thought required from students. These are lower-order questions and higher-order questions. Primarily, the purpose of lower-order questions is to determine if students have acquired or obtained a desired amount of factual information. Higher-order questions require students to go beyond memory and use other thought processes in forming answers. Perrott (55) argues that "while both types of

questions have their part to play in teaching, a heavy reliance on lower-order questioning has encouraged rote learning and does little to develop higher-order thinking processes."

It is important to note that traditional history teaching is coming under attack because it gives greater emphasis to memorization of facts. It is therefore, essential that history teachers must go beyond asking lower-order questions. History teachers need to ask questions of a different sort which would help students:-

- a) put together and organize into some sort of relationship the facts which they have gathered - to make some sense out of their data.
- b) exercise reason, make inferences, seek causes and effects.
- c) seek and determine for themselves what they consider to be acceptable answers.

By these types of questions the teacher would improve the quality and quantity of students' participation as well as help students develop higher-order thinking processes (Fraenkel, 1969: 301-305).

It needs to be emphasized, however, that students cannot develop their historical thought through a pure lecture method which emphasizes mastery of factual information. In addition to the invigoration of the traditional method of history teaching, making a radical shift to propose new methods has become essential. The reason for such a radical overhaul is the fact that traditional history teaching deprives students of the tools to appraise the truth of what they learn and to establish further knowledge. Shemilt (42) stated the problem in the most

specific of terms when he wrote:

For some adolescents the methodological problem of how we know does not appear to exist. Pupils know that what the teacher says is true because the truth is there to be known... Historical facts are construed as inviolate and pre-existent entities which might prove awkward to remember but are not more difficult to know than to read and write about.

To date this and other similar findings (Rogers, 1987; Smallbone, 1987) have prompted researchers to give much more emphasis to the question of how history could be taught through appropriate teaching methods which could bring a remedy to this methodological problem, i.e., how do we know? Or the neglect of "know how". The next section will address issues related to inquiry teaching in history—a teaching strategy which is believed to be a proper tool in mitigating the aforementioned deficiency of traditional history teaching.

History Teaching Through a "Source-Based Inquiry

As Martin Booth (1987: 26-27) points out, a clearer understanding of the particular nature of history and the learning and teaching it requires has to be the first requirement for anyone concerned with the development of students' historical thinking. Consequently, one can determine teaching strategies, methods and techniques in the light of the understanding he has of what history is.

History is a discipline of inquiry. It is a type of inquiry that deals with the past. Historical accounts are fundamentally reconstructions of the past through inquiry. It is a reconstruction of the past which really happened on the basis of its traces. These past events can only be known

through appropriate handling of such traces. But historical accounts are constructed by means of tracing themes which link related events in explanatory and causal chains. This also makes history explanatory in nature (Rogers, 3-8).

This task of explanation is problematic, however. The problems that surround explanation stem from; first, the problems with the "explained." What history explains is people-people as a complex phenomenon based on the surviving evidence. But there are gaps and ambiguities in the surviving evidence. Second is problems with the "explaining" such as inferential analysis and generalizations, causation and motivation, contingency and accident. Thirdly, problems with the "explainer" - these problems refer to personal competence of historians, intellectual ability and opinions, bias and values (Crinnion, 169).

It is this very nature of history that enhances the essentiality of inquiry teaching. This is to say that the spirit of inquiry should be the foundation of history teaching; for by its nature history does not lend itself to the transmission of what is regarded to be a right answer. Rogers (10) stated this point in the most specific of terms when he wrote:

Any idea of there being a right answer to be dispensed to the masses through education (or to anyone else by any other means) involves a total misunderstanding of what history is, and what anything validly claiming to be a course in it could possibly be.

With such an understanding, recent researchers (Sansom, 122; Crinnion, 167-169 and Ashby and Lee, 86) have suggested inquiry teaching as an effective way of teaching history. And yet these researchers have not developed a model which could be specifically applied to the teaching of history.

Beyer (1971: 6) aptly describes inquiry teaching as "putting learners into situations in which they must engage in intellectual operations that constitute inquiry. It requires learners to make their own meaning of what they experience." His emphasis on meaning is one the consideration that developing meaning is the essence of real learning. It is the learner himself as a result of his interaction with information who should develop meaning. It considerably requires his mental effort (Ibid., 9).

Inquiry teaching, in contrast with traditional methods, does not emphasize the content of the lesson as an end in itself, rather it emphasizes on the process through which learners would develop broader, more meaningful knowledge, concepts, skills and attitudes (Crinnion, 167-168). Inquiry as Beyer 914-22) describes it, demands certain kinds of knowledge - "knowledge about the nature of knowledge", a set of attitudes and values, such as scepticism curiosity, respect for the use of reason, respect for evidence as a test of accuracy, objectivity and willingness to suspend judgement; and a certain process which has the following steps:

- a) defining a purpose or a problem
- b) hypothesizing
- c) testing the hypothesis

- d) drawing a conclusion
- e) applying the conclusion to new data and generalizing.

On the basis of this general understanding of the nature of inquiry, researchers have attempted to make it specifically applicable to the teaching of history. In so doing, they have made a slightly different emphasis. Here history is understood as an outcome of a more or less continuous interchange among historians, past and present, over the meaning of evidence. This leads to a greater stress on documents and sources (primary and secondary) which must be embodied in the classroom practice. Accordingly, this strategy is being referred to more specifically as "Source-Based Inquiry" for teaching history (Crinnion, 171).

Very many merits are attached to this teaching strategy. It is the explanation of different historians about the meaning of their evidence which invests past events with their coherence and significance. Thus "source-based inquiry" would present students with historians' varying interpretations. This is indeed a historiographical issue. Although it is not the primary aim of history teaching at the secondary level to produce historians, it is of paramount significance for students to engage in the process so as to develop historical understanding. Moreover, it can give them the opportunity to understand the nature of historical sources and historical methodology. Students would also develop understanding of how historians use historical sources and historical methodology. This strategy would further enhance students' understanding of the problems of question framing, of factual significance and

verification of historical explanation and argumentation (Ibid.).

By and large, this strategy is found to be more helpful in mitigating the methodological problem "how do we know." Understanding of the question "how do we know?" would serve students as a basic tool for their learning. They would develop meaning for themselves. Students may also develop an attitude of informed scepticism through critical evaluation of sources of evidence. Thus, it would serve them as a basic tool for their future learning. Sansom (1987: 139) describes this point in a more illuminating statement by saying that "it is a tool which the pupil can carry out of the classroom into the media-dominated world, a tool of value even at the basic level of distinguishing between fact and opinion and spotting propaganda."

There are also suggestions as to how significantly and imaginatively the source of evidence can be embodied into the actual classroom instruction. Crinnion (168) suggests a mode of presentation as being a combination of narration, description and analysis. In order to select, discover, order, compare and interpolate the sources, the records have to be the substance of critical and interpretative apparatus. But the source should not be treated as mere illustrative stimuli or as historical evidence which is divorced from an understanding of the content to which it relates.

In order to make "source based inquiry" a success, the history teacher has to know about the desirability of building a context. Building of a context is essential; for historical inquiry can not be carried on without context. This context is

what one's previous study of history has largely provided (Rogers, 8). This is to say that the teaching and learning of history requires an intermixture of source-based inquiry and the study of scholarly work. Here, source-based inquiry primarily refers to the use of primary sources. The assumption here is that the study of scholarly work (secondary sources) coupled with teacher guidance would give students a general context and then students would engage in analyzing the selected body of primary sources. By making use of the primary sources, within the context provided by secondary sources, students would analyze, for instance, the historical correctness of a given assertion or discover the solution for a particular problem. This makes the role of the teacher as facilitator of students' learning by selecting appropriate materials and giving guidance. It is note worthy that in selecting such source materials (primary and secondary sources) the teacher must pay due attention to the teaching objective and students' widely varying abilities (Crinnion, 170-171).

The success of source-based inquiry lies not only in building context but also in ways of introducing sources in the classroom instruction. Care must be taken, though, while introducing them. Presenting sources which would support one historian's viewpoint is not commendable for there would be opposing views among historians. It is essential to introduce sources progressively because it is helpful to consider the inherent difficulty of sources. In other words, sources have to be presented in such a way that they should become progressively more difficult (Ibid., 172 & 177).

At this juncture, what is worth mentioning is the role of course work in source-based inquiry teaching. Course work, says Crinnion (Ibid.) would "...better motivate students, introduce variety into classroom practice and, at its best, more subtly discriminate levels of historical thinking..." Resolving a specific question or problem upon a given body of historical evidence, primary and/or secondary, should be the purpose of the assignments. Students' work should be assessed as a process of inquiry, rather than a mere outcome - that is rewards have to be given to the expected standard of performance at each stage, such stages like question framing, data-collection, hypothesizing, testing of the hypothesis and report (Ibid.).

As Sansom (1987: 122) points out, historical understanding is built up in a student by the cumulative experience of historical thought-process he/she has been through in tackling historical questions or problems. The development of this historical thought is said to be a function of inquiry teaching (Rogers, 4-5; Shemilt, 42; Crinnion, 158 and Smallbone, 142-1430. Bayer (109) points out that inquiry relies upon command of several different types of learning tools. Concepts are, *inter alia*, one important set of inquiry tools because concepts constitute students' frames of reference which guide their perceptions of new data or experience and shape the kind of meaning they are able to make of it.

In introducing source-based inquiry teaching, researchers basically intend that students should develop the skills relating to the use of sources whose development is designed to enable students to make the crucial distinction between information and evidence. This is because students take

knowledge about the past for granted. For them, people in the past left behind knowledge rather than evidence about their lives and activities. Historians also are perceived as memory-men whose task is simply to memorize information left behind by people in the past (Shemilt, 42-44). This is with doubtless a clear manifestation of students' conceptualization. As such, other than the development of skills relating to the use of sources, the introduction of source-based inquiry strategy is aimed at the development of certain basic concepts which categorize historical events and help understand the methodology of history. It is an obvious fact that inquiry based approaches based on primary sources usually presuppose understanding of the question "How do we know?." Understanding of this question in turn helps students distinguish the concept of evidence from information. Thus, developing the concept of evidence becomes one of the ultimate objectives of such approaches (Macintosh, 184-185).

In view of the fact that inquiry teaching results in the development of concepts and the importance that concepts have in inquiry teaching, discussion about teaching concepts in history appears not only imperative but also essential. It is to this that the discussion focuses next.

The Teaching of Concepts in History Lessons

There have been numerous studies and serious discussion about the nature of concept and its uses in the teaching - learning process. "Concept", says Bayer (8) "is a mental image of something. The something may be anything - a concrete object, a type of behaviour, and abstract idea." Concerning the role of

concept in learning, Brunner elaborates that a concept categorizes events and objects of the world about us; hence, a reduction of the complexity of the environment and the necessity of constant learning, as well as the provision of direction for instrumental activity (Brunner et.al, 1967: 11-13).

Bayer and Penna (1971: 29) point out, that the paramountcy of concept in learning appears more apparent when one considers the present information explosion. What is more, attempting to memorize all this information is futile because so much of it becomes obsolete within a short time. As such, trying to make students a storage-bins for this information is absurd. It is rather commendable to attempt to help students make sense of this information.

This statement has a direct bearing on the teaching of history. History is, by its very nature, a discipline that calls for constant reinterpretation, as new sources of information are uncovered through time. That is precisely why historical statements about the past are thought to be provisional, open to question and made from within the framework of historians' own time and culture (Sansom, 138). History is not therefore a static body of information neatly compiled for all time between the covers of a textbook. Rather, it is a process, a continuing development involving constant change. History then has got a great mass of detailed information (Ibid.).

It is people's failure to grasp this fact which usually brings problems in the history course. As Engle (27) puts it, the world history course, for instance, exhibits a persistent defect in that:

...too frequently the course bogs down in the effort to cover and to remember a great mass of detailed information heedless of the general ideas and broad vistas to be drawn from and tested against such information.

Much has been said and written about the nature of historical concepts and their functions in learning. By nature historical concepts are believed to be "colligatory concepts". It is a derivative of the term colligation (Walsh, 1967: 72) . Making the human past intelligible and significant is part of the historian's task. To make the human past intelligible and significant he should bring the events of the past together in a particular sort of way. The events grouped have a specific and internal connection with each other. Such a process of grouping is referred to as colligation (Thompson 1967: 87).

Accordingly, historical concepts are "open-ended concepts". They lack precise and definite boundaries for their use because, being empirical concepts, they are used for the purpose of describing particular phenomena in our world of experience. Concepts such as "democracy" and "imperialism" , are highly influenced by changes as a result of which new usage would emerge. But there are instances where something approaching "closed" concepts, such as treason (as defined in constitutions), is attainable. This would be the case only when the concept is employed in like contexts (Illinois curriculum Program, 1971: 12-13).

Research works or studies have shown that concepts have a vital role to play in history teaching; they can serve as objectives of teaching and as tools of learning history (Smallbone, 142-143). Concepts in history would serve the



learner as "... intellectual tools in perception, generalization, prediction and evaluation" (Illinois Curriculum Program, 1971: 36-38). In other words, concepts in history can be used to describe, point out, or refer to objects and events or relations among them and to evaluate things (Ibid.).

In spite of considerable research on the nature and function of historical concepts, no attempts were made to teach students conceptually before 1970. Such attempts were lacking because of the prevalence of Piaget's and Elton's idea that concepts cannot be meaningfully taught to children below 16 (Smallbone, 143). There has been much talk in recent decades (1970s and 1980s) about teaching concepts in history. Purposeful teaching of concepts in history has also begun quite recently. In Britain, as the experience of the School Council History Project 13-16 shows, there is a successful and purposeful teaching of concepts in the history classrooms. The evaluation of this program has also demonstrated that students' understanding of concepts "... is cumulative; concepts fit into the Brunerian scheme of the spiral curriculum as ideas refined and reshaped on successive encounters throughout a pupil's school life" (Smallbone, 143).

One of the most important findings of the more recent research and the experience of the School Council History Project 13-16 has thus supported Brunner's contention (Sansom, 119 and Smallbone, 143). Concerning concept teaching Brunner (1960: 20) says that:

If one respects the ways of thought of the growing child, if one is courteous enough to translate material into his logical forms and challenging enough to tempt him to

advance, then it is possible to introduce him at an early age to the ideas and styles that in later life make an educated man.

The setting of educational objectives in part determines the kind of teaching methods, techniques and strategies to be employed (Bigg and Collis, 1982: 57). It is remarkable that defining objectives of a history course in terms of concepts implies conceptual teaching-conceptual teaching which has to be controlled by the stated conceptual objectives.

The need to choose certain concepts as being essential to historical study and relevant to the personal and social needs of adolescents is obvious. But the problem here is to set criteria for identifying some of the more basic concepts. Indeed recent studies have attempted to identify certain concepts which seem to be used most consistently in history. A group of such basic concepts that might be considered as objectives and tools for any conceptual - oriented history syllabus are those listed in the preceding section that dealt with objectives of the history syllabus.

Concept teaching has important implications for both the learners and teachers of history. For successful concept teaching it is highly essential that both the teacher and the student behave somewhat differently than they do in a traditional classroom setting. In a classroom setting where concept teaching prevails learners would not be passive participants in that conceptualization is hard work and requires active intellectual involvement by the learner. Conceptualization requires large "experiential inputs" to generate, validate and broaden concept. The acquisition of

concept is also gradual and cumulative. As such conceptualization requires quite a considerable amount of time, therefore, for students well accustomed to memorizing of information presented by the teacher or textbook, conceptualizing can be at the initial stage quite frustrating (Bayer and Penna, 88-89).

It is important to note that, even though it is time consuming, it requires hard work involving certain learning activities, such as brainstorming grouping, identifying interrelationships and synthesizing (see below) and it is frustrating at the initial stage, conceptualization is highly rewarding. It would above all enhance students potential for learning by providing the skills needed to broaden conceptual structure in the future.

Concept teaching has also wider implications for the teacher of history. Since concept teaching requires a different environment the function of the teacher has become different. The function of the teacher is determined by the essential characteristic feature of concept teaching. As Beyer (119) clearly puts it, "teaching concept...really means putting students into learning experiences that will facilitate their own conceptualization about a given concept." By so doing the teacher would help students conceptualize from a given body of content; help them refine or broaden a simplistic or general image they already have; and put them into learning situation where they can come into contact with facets of concepts (Ibid.).

The role of the teacher is therefore to facilitate students' conceptualization. After all, teaching, as defined by

Beyer (9), is an act of facilitating students' learning. The teacher can carry out this task of facilitating learning, through two sets of operations: introducing students to a concept and helping or guiding them to broaden or refine it.

There are various ways by which the teacher can introduce students to certain concepts. Beyer has suggested that the teacher, in introducing a concept, might start by outlining it to students and then goes on to describe it by giving illustrative examples. Or the teacher might "... present a concept as imagined and explained by a social scientist." Then after the students need to internalize the concept already presented to them. By so doing, students are required to be engaged actively in subsequent lessons where they can use the concept to analyze new and different bodies of content. Here the task of the teacher is to involve students in "learning activities that require them to invent their own conceptual images about a particular thing" (Ibid., 119-120).

As a means of involving students in the process of conceptualization Beyer (62) suggests the following four learning activities:-

- a) Brain storming:- an activity of listing of all the various implications of the thing to be studied.
- b) Grouping or classifying:- an activity of categorizing of what has been already listed-associated terms or features of the thing to be studied.
- c) Identifying interrelationships:- an activity of examining of the items listed and grouped to determine existing relationships among the items.
- d) Synthesizing: arranging mentally or visually so as to

make the already established relationships apparent. Here all data will be synthesized, hence concept development.

What follows this introductory stage is, the second major step in conceptualizing-broadening a concept. At this stage the teacher would guide students to develop their own concepts by providing them with opportunities to work with new data. Students will therefore reinforce the basic elements of the concept as well as broaden the total concept by adding new dimensions (Ibid.).

By and large, for effective concept teaching, the teacher needs to have the following points in mind:

1. In concept teaching factual content must be viewed as a means to an end. Factual content is not supposed to be memorized and regurgitated. Nor is the aim to cover content, rather the ultimate objective is to help students conceptualize about a particular idea of thing through the presented content.
2. The teacher should know the nature of the conceptualizing process as a lengthy process or as cumulative. Concept development needs repeated experience. Conceptualization is also sequential whereby complex concepts are built on simple concepts.
3. The teacher needs to have a clear image of the concept he has planned for students to develop.
4. The teacher needs to have a repertoire of a number of teaching techniques, methods and strategies. Concept teaching involves "a judicious inter-mixture of

exposition and inquiry." Thus, teacher's success in concept-teaching lies in knowledge and skill of using inquiry strategy as well as expository strategy. Moreover, teachers search for learning experiences that are varied, interesting and meaningful should be carried out with sufficient concern for the conceptual objectives to be developed. The fact that concepts develop from vicarious experiences and noting similarities and differences as well as from direct experiences implies that both inductive and deductive reasoning may be employed in developing concepts (Fancett, 1971: 78).

5. The teacher has to know the kinds of instructional materials that could be used in concept teaching. A textbook is not sufficient for concept-teaching. The teacher should attempt to use instructional materials ranging from the personal experiences of the student to audio-visual media. Furthermore, in concept-teaching instructional material must not be viewed as supplemental to a lesson but as integral part of the teaching-learning experiences. This makes then the use of multi-media an essential tool of concept teaching.
6. Asking learners to apply their concept to explain data that is new to them appears to be the most important way of evaluating concept teaching. Among the wide variety of available techniques of evaluating concept teaching, Beyer and Penna (88-93) have suggested the



following:

- objective test item
- essays or oral examination
- translating and interpreting new data from one form to another.
- creative activities.

If they are properly used all of them would serve to put students in a situation where they must apply their perception of the concept to be evaluated against new data.

2.4. Instructional Materials

Textbooks have been identified by many educators as the most important teaching material. Research in education often considers them as a prime source of data because they are regarded as reflecting so fully and accurately the curriculum content (Palmer, 314). But the way a textbook has been used varies from one area to another. As Johnson (241) points out, the textbook is the most important teaching material in American schools, while it is less important in European schools. Palmer (315) also has stated that in many American high schools history instruction is highly textbook oriented.

Given this importance, a textbook has to be well prepared. There are certain essential characteristic features that a well prepared textbook has to exhibit. The selection of content, manner of presentation and organization are the main determinant of its well preparedness.

Content of a textbook has to be selected in accordance with the stated objectives. It is an obvious fact that topics of a syllabus are selected in such a way that they can be means to

the realization of the syllabus objectives. It is therefore highly essential that the content of a textbook should give adequate coverage to such topics. What is more, content of a textbook not only gives adequate coverage but it has to be also authentic and up-to-date.

A textbook is a learning instrument to be placed in the hands of the learner. Thus it has to be prepared in such a manner that its content would be intelligible for students for whom it is intended. Its intelligibility is, by and large, a function of the presentation and organization of the selected content (Aggarwal, 132).

The content of a history textbook needs to be presented in an attractive and interesting manner so as to sustain students' interest. Although there is no concrete evidence about what makes a textbook interesting, research studies suggest that a combination of the literary style, the author's choice of material, picturesque details and spicy quotations might perhaps make a textbook interesting (Johnson, 256).

Besides this issue of sustaining students' interest, the author of a textbook need to be cognizant of the factors that influence students understanding in history. It is important to note here that the nature of the medium of instruction through which the student attempts to come to grips with the problem is one of the factors influencing students understanding in history. What is presented in history lessons cannot be experienced directly. Rather students must learn them through vicarious experience which must be gained for the most part, through the written and spoken word. This is to say that language as a medium of instruction by which history is taught

has a paramount importance in students' understanding of history lessons (Carr, 1964: 232). The above statement of Carr has validity concerning historical education of every country. But, as Brown (1966: 25-26) points out, the problem of language in historical education is much more significant for most African countries. There historical education is more complicated and problematic because of the co-existence of at least two languages: native language and the second "official" language. It is an established fact that in most African countries history is taught and learnt through a second language rather than the mother tongue. In view of the fact that history learning relies on the basic skills of reading, writing and speaking, the problem that the use of second language as a medium of instruction brought about is quite understandable. The co-existence of three languages, mother tongue, Amharic as an official language and English as language of instruction in the junior and senior secondary schools, makes the language situation in Ethiopian education more grave. (A.P.S., 454-465).

The involvement of language element in the study of history has important implications to the preparation of a textbook. Particularly, in countries where students' mother tongue is not used as a medium of instruction this element needs dully concern to the author of a textbook who needs to pay regard to the levels of students' understanding. This is to say that in order to convey ideas the vocabulary should be appropriate for the class level; there should be incisive sentences; the language should be grammatically correct; long and complicated sentences should be avoided; and the technical terms should be used appropriately

(Aggarwal, 133). Moreover, to enhance students' understanding the content of a textbook presented through written word should be further illustrated by visual communication. For a good textbook illustrations, such as pictures, sketches, maps, diagrams and time-charts are important. The measure of a well illustrated textbook is not, however, the quantity rather what matters is the quality. This does mean that illustrations need to be clear, simple, accurate, purposeful, supplementation of the text and they should have ample explanatory notes (Crookall, 84).

Lists of suitable activities for students are also useful. A textbook need to have lists of suggestions and questions which appear at the end of each chapter. Reading such questions before actually reading the chapter helps focus attention on what the author has judged to be of most importance. The questions need not be mere fact finding rather they need to be thought provoking in nature. If so, looking carefully at these questions might be of help to the student to emphasize on the essential aspects (McPhie, 464-465).

In addition to the presentation of the content, the way the textbook organized is also equally important. A good textbook, says McPhie (463), is the one which is clearly arranged with an information - table of contents, preface or forward, and index at the end. The table of contents would give the student a summary of the textbook in outline form and help him to locate the chapter he wants; whereas the preface gives the student information which would help him understand the text. The index would help the student to find information about specific items in the textbook. Other than this, the author of a textbook

Using the Textbook

In far many classrooms the textbook is said to have been used solely for the acquisition of factual information (Palmer, 315). In view of the fact that the textbook is the most commonly available teaching material, it should be used for skill development. O'Connor (1969, 254) has presented a number of skills identified by educationist which can be developed partly through the teaching of the social studies. These include: locating and gathering information; reading, speaking and listening; organizing and evaluating information; interpreting pictures, charts and tables.

Instruction in school involves a large amount of reading. Tavel (318) has observed that lack of success on the part of students is quite often the result not of laziness but of inadequate development of reading and study skills. This inadequate development of reading and study skills are said to have been accountable for the labelling of students as slow learner. When one refers to students as slow learners what is really meant is that they are slow readers. Students who have not mastered the different reading skills would have reading difficulty, hence difficulty in class work.

For this reason many studies have singled out reading skills as the most basic skills. They are considered as basic skills because they are the ones that lead to most other skills. One should not, for instance, expect the ability to outline, summarize and take notes effectively from students who have not yet developed their reading skills (O'Connor, 255). It should be remembered that history teaching involves language element. Learning of history thus relies more on the basic skills of

reading, speaking and writing. Therefore, the history teacher must pay regard for the development of such basic skills through the use of the textbook (Brown, 1966: 25). that the teacher can use historical novels to enrich a particular unit; expand a

Collateral Materials developed in class; provide depth to a unit. A textbook is only one type of instructional tool. It is not supposed to be the sole instructional material to be used in history class. However, McPhie (460-465) points out that "in far many classrooms... the text becomes the curriculum; it becomes the objective of the course; it becomes the end rather than a means to the end." What follows then is that the teacher too often becomes the "assistant" and covering or finishing the textbook rather than helping students to develop understanding becomes his significant task. helps the history teacher to

The fact that most textbooks contain references for collateral materials presupposes the need for using such materials. The fact that some teaching tasks, such as the teaching of concept and historical skills, require multimedia use seems to imply that a single textbook cannot fully respond to the demands of the actual classroom situations. Educationist have then suggested that the history teacher can draw such collateral materials from any field of human endeavour. The history teacher can enrich history instruction by using various materials which are products of other field of studies. The history teacher would, *inter alia*, make use of historical novels, poetry, and speech (Allen, 1969: 321-326; Fitzpatrick, 1969: 327-334 and McGoldrick, 1969: 318-320).

Obviously, the effective use of any learning device requires for-thought, by the teacher, of the merits that could

be enhanced through the utilization of such materials. The teacher therefore has to know before hand the use of these materials. It is, for instance, indicated that the teacher can use historical novels to enrich a particular unit; expand a concept only partially developed in class; provide depth to a unit; cover a topic usually omitted from the syllabus and present a different or unusual view that students would not normally get (McGoldrick, 319). The merits of the use of speeches to enrich history instruction also lie in presenting the spirit of an age to students far removed from the time and place of their original delivery and also in developing students ability of rationally analyzing contemporary problems when learning of an age by examining its speeches (Allen, 322).

The use of poetry also helps the history teacher to vitalize history instruction. The history teacher can motivate his students, who usually find the past foreign to their limited experience, to learn history by using poetry because poetry is dramatic in its form and popular in its appeal. More than this, poetry can be insights into a specific period of history as well as a source for history as constant element in the deeds of men in the flux of time. Both epic poetry and lyric poem, with their specific nature and qualities would serve the teacher to accomplish the aforementioned purposes (Fitzpatrick, 328).

items, and observation schedule.

CHAPTER THREE

REPORTS, INTERPRETATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION ON FINDINGS.

History in Ethiopian Senior Secondary Schools

A specific research problem may be pursued in more than one way, but circumstances surrounding the nature of the problem and the limitations usually play an important part in the selection of a method. With this in mind the present survey attempts to pursue the problems pertaining to history teaching in two ways: historical research and a descriptive survey research. The purpose of the historical research is to analyze past history teaching so as to identify more clearly its status, and to indicate trends, developments, phases, or perspectives of the teaching of history. Approaching the problem historically will be helpful to trace trends or prior actions which may have bearing on the present. Tracing trends or prior actions and identifying problems pertaining to history teaching in historical perspective will in turn give direction to future planning. This chapter has, therefore, two major parts. In part one analysis of the historical development of history teaching in Ethiopian senior secondary schools is presented. In this part of the chapter the study focuses more on documentary analysis. Part two of the study analyzes, interprets and discusses data obtained through questionnaire and interview items, and observation schedule.

a state of affairs which is the result of the evolution of modern education in the country in order.

Until the first decade of the twentieth century education in Ethiopia was in the hands of religious institutions. The establishment of secular schools in 1908 marked the beginning

PART ONE

3.1. Analysis of the Historical Perspective of the Teaching of History in Ethiopian Senior Secondary Schools

3.1.1. The Inclusion of History in the School Curriculum: The State of Affairs up to 1957

As has been shown in the preceding chapter, in the tradition of western education history of some kind is said to be a feature of almost every curriculum at all levels. To be sure, the inclusion of history in the secondary schools curriculum dates back to the first half of the sixteenth century. Consequently, those scholars and historians who have proposed history instruction in schools have written textbooks, suggested methods of teaching and discussed its value and purpose. Johnson's (1940: 28-33) retrospection about history teaching revealed that "by the close of the eighteenth century, so much had been discovered about history teaching..." But in Ethiopia's education system history was not included in the early school curriculum prior to 1943. When it was included after 1943 it had western orientation so that the need to discuss its value and purpose, and to suggest methods of teaching did not arise. History, as a school subject, both in the elementary and secondary schools of Ethiopia began to be offered in the 1940s. To seek the reasons that account for such a state of affair a brief account of the evolution of modern education in the country is in order.

Until the first decade of the twentieth century education in Ethiopia was in the hands of religious institutions. The establishment of Menelik II school in 1908 ushered in the

genesis of western types of education in the country. In the ensuing years the number of such primary schools increased and the education system showed some progress. As noted by Teshome Wagaw (1979: 40) before 1935/36 (the year when this modest beginning was interrupted due to the aggression perpetrated by Italy) there were at the minimum twenty-one government schools which offered primary education.

The curriculum of these primary schools placed greater emphasis on the teaching of foreign languages, namely, french, English, Italian and Arabic (Mahteme Sillassie, 1963: 601). The reasons for such greater emphasis and exclusion of other school subjects (science and liberal arts subjects - to talk only of the academic subjects) are not far to seek. That is, the foundation of modern education, being largely political and as a post-Adwa phenomenon, needs to be seen within the context of developments that followed Ethiopian success at the battle of Adwa (1896).

In Ethiopia the post-Adwa period witnessed the introduction of some elements of early capitalism. The beginning of the construction of the Djibouti - Addis Ababa Railway (1897) and the establishment of the Bank of Abyssinia (1905) are good manifestations of the penetration of early capitalism into the country (Bahru Zewdie: 1981: 11). These capitalist ventures were indirect results of the threat of colonial powers. This threat became alarmingly self-evident by the time the three colonial powers signed the Tripartite Treaty in 1906 (Shiferaw, 1985: 63-65). From this colonial threat it had become apparent that Ethiopia's existence as an independent nation would be secured only on condition that Ethiopia adopted western forms of

government and administration, in particular, and it met the standards of western "civilization", in general. Thus the ministerial system that marked the genesis of the presumed civilian bureaucracy was introduced. The fact that modern infrastructures and civilian bureaucracy made a modest headway in Ethiopia resulted in the need to have educated young men on the western model, who could effectively run the system (Ma'aza: 1966: 55-56).

On top of this, the political consideration had much more importance because the introduction of western forms of government and administration, moreover superficially, would not by itself be a sufficient measure that could minimize or avert the colonial threat hovering over the country. Rather producing educated young men who could effectively engage in the political dealings into which Ethiopia was entering became a felt-need of Ethiopian government. Thus, in the eyes of Ethiopian rulers the need for competency in the major languages of diplomacy made exigent the establishment of modern schools whose curriculum would emphasize the teaching of the four major languages.

Perhaps, this might partly explain the reason why primary education was not timely followed by the establishment of secondary education. The existing demand or need appeared to be adequately met by the outputs of elementary schooling. If the curriculum of such schools had embodied other school subjects, it would have been possible that secondary education ensued from the already-established primary education system much earlier than its actual commencement.

Such an exclusive stress on the teaching of foreign languages should not be, however, misconstrued as if it implies

lack of awareness on the part of Ethiopian rulers of the educational value of other school subjects. Nor did it also imply lack of concern on their part to indigenize modern education by providing an Ethiopian setting. They did actually express their concern on different occasions, though much of what they said remained unimplemented.³

Even though history as a school subject both at the elementary and secondary schools only began to be offered in the post liberation period (starting from 1943), it would be wrong to assume from this that in earlier times no history was thought to Ethiopian youths. It is the belief of many scholars that history in some form, though not as a school subject, has

³ The legislation (Emperor Menelik's proclamations of 1908 and Empress Zewditu's proclamation's of 1928) and Ras Tafari's speeches of 1925 and 1928 were good gestures and showed the extent to which education had become a concern of Ethiopian government, although the emphasis of such legislation and speeches did not correspond with what was actually practised in the schools. Emperor Menelik's proclamation, for instance, stressed the importance that traditional crafts, which were despised by the society, had in the life of Ethiopian society. He also made a reference to the status of education in other countries and talked about their creativity. Having said this, he urged the people of Ethiopia to send their children to the newly-established school (Mahteme Sillassie, 601-603). Tafari's speech (1928) also was a clear indication of the awareness of Ethiopian rulers of the educational value of other school subjects. He put the potential value of history, for example, as follows:

"Although the greatness of Ethiopia and the history of all her achievements may be found fully recorded in the books of many learned men, I constantly revert in my speeches to this theme of her past history, to show how the dissensions that arose within the country in former times pulled her back and prevented her regular breathing..." (Quoted by R. Pankhurst, "The Foundations of Education", 269)

But Ras Tafari, despite such remarkable understanding of the role of history, did not suggest that history be taught at any of the schools.

probably been part of instruction since the earliest dawning of historical consciousness. Since the dawn of civilization, in almost every society, it has been made part of instruction for history has been regarded as the natural vehicle for teaching the private citizen the public virtues of loyalty and responsibility (Daniels, 1980: 13; Crookall, 1965: 8-9; and Johnson: 25). In taking the discussion a little further Johnson (25) argues that in the remote past there were people to whom the handing down of tradition from the old generation to the new was entrusted as a national duty. In the African social milieu, however, such a practice was not a phenomenon of the remote past. The practice of handing down tradition from one generation to the other was in existence until recently (Vansina, 1985: 35-47). In Ethiopia too a number of traditions have been passing from generation to generation (Ibid. 188 and 198).

Aside from this, history teaching had been a feature of Ethiopian Church schools. These Church schools used to teach their students, both at the elementary and advanced levels, some kind of history (Teshome, : 11-17). What is more, though history was not placed in the curriculum of the early modern schools as a study in itself, from some fragmentary evidence, it appears very likely that some kind of history (other than Ethiopian) might have been taught along with the teaching of foreign languages. Earnest work (1934: 67) who studied Ethiopian education in the early 1930s observed that, although their primary task was the teaching of the aforementioned foreign languages, those expatriate teachers (who almost entirely staffed the schools) as products of the educational

system of their respective countries and being also culture-bounded themselves, engaged in teaching the values and culture of their respective countries. His observation has been indeed substantively supported by recent research findings. This recent study has shown that in Menelik II school (in the early decades of the 20th century) teachers of the different foreign languages used to apply teaching materials of liberal arts subjects⁴ (Fasil, 1986: 25-26)

What the foregoing discussion tries to indicate is the fact that the teaching of history in both the church and early modern primary schools was carried out with a selection of historical materials with some other end in view rather than the teaching of history as a subject in itself. To be sure, though not under the auspices of the Ethiopian government, it was during the occupation period (1936 - 1940/41) that history became a school subject. Ethiopian youths who had got the chance to join the schools established by the Fascist government in Ethiopia were taught the history of Italy (Teshome; 47).

Other than the experience of the education system of the fascist government the placement of history as a school subject

⁴ These were teaching materials prepared for another educational system. As such the teachers met a strong reaction from their students who dispassionately wanted to learn about their own country. In Menelik II school the French teacher, for instance, faced the following reaction. While teaching French language he used a Geography book entitled **Geographic Anee Preparatoire**. From page 3 he read two questions:

Q. 24. "Laquelle des cinq parties du monde habitons nous?
Expected answer:- "Nous habitons L' Europe".

Q. 25. "Quelle contree de L'Europe Habitons nous?
Expected answer. "Nous habitons La France".

But his students answered these questions by replacing L'Europe (to the first question) by L'Afrique" and replacing La' France by L' Ethiopia (Fasil; 25-26)

in itself was a concomitant development with the beginning of secondary education in the country. In Ethiopia, secondary education began in 1943 when the first secondary school (Haile Sillassie Secondary School) was established. Ever since secondary education, under the auspices of the government, has continued to expand. In 1946 the Wingate Secondary School was opened and Tafari Mekonnen School also started offering secondary classes (Ma'aza, : 84). Three years later three provincial secondary schools, in Harar, Keffa and Wollo, were opened (Ibid).

Even though secondary education commenced in 1943, the system was not immediately followed by a standardized curriculum. School subjects used to be chosen by the teaching staff of each school. As a result, there was variation in the kinds and numbers of subjects taught in the different schools, and the selection of school subjects was highly determined by the nationalities, knowledge and experiential background of the teaching staff⁵ (Ibid.). It appears, from some fragmentary evidence, that history was taught in these early secondary schools (Sylvia Pankhurst, 1955: 591-599). It is, however, quite understandable that in the absence of a standardized curriculum it is very difficult to talk about the nature of this provision.

The first attempt at unifying curricular offerings came just in 1949. In that year the Board of Education of the Ministry of Education approved and issued a secondary school

⁵ The teaching staff of these schools were predominantly expatriates with different nationalities. For example, the teaching staff of Wingate Secondary School were British, while Tafari Mekonnen School was staffed by Canadians.

curriculum of four-year (9 to 12) duration based on the requirements of the General School Certificate of Education (GCE). Partly with a supposition to maintain a desirable standard with that of the requirements of the GCE and partly to provide the country with an educated elite, urgently needed to staff the modern administrative system, the curriculum of 1949 was completely academic (Ma'aza, 84-85). As an academic subject and as part of the requirements of the GCE, history was one of the components of this curriculum. The fact that the curriculum was prepared on the basis of the requirements of the GCE revealed its western orientation. Resulting from this western orientation the history syllabus had a Euro-centric character (Secondary School Curriculum, 1949; 123).

This attempt at unifying the secondary school curriculum, appreciable as it was, resulted in mere adoption of a curriculum prepared for the British social setting. Hence the curriculum appeared to be inadequate in the Ethiopian setting. This is not, however, an objection to adoption as a whole. It is rather to stress the fact that an educational system or curriculum which is relevant to one society may do nothing to meet the educational needs and demands of another. But when there is a need to adopt, education must be adapted to the realities and cultural values of each individual country if it is to be of value. In its reports the long-Term Planning Committee (a committee set up in 1953 to study Ethiopian Education) objected to the way the GCE curriculum was adopted, when it wrote:

Ethiopian secondary school curriculum is an adoption of European secondary school curriculum that existed before the second world war. It has the same status with that of American school curriculum prepared

thirty years earlier which was low in standard and which was not subjected to change (1954: 39).

This general comment about the status of the secondary school curriculum also holds true of the status of history which was one of the components of the curriculum. It seems unrealistic, indeed, to expect the teaching of Ethiopian history, other than the European, in an adopted syllabus. For one thing, those expatriate teachers did actually lack adequate knowledge of Ethiopian history. For another, there was at the time an undeniable scarcity of historical works on the history of the country.

The above-mentioned criticism of the Long-Term Planning Committee became a starting point for the realization of the unsuitability of the 1949 curriculum for Ethiopian needs and reality. From this it follows that what to teach and how to teach had become important questions in the educational enterprise. As a result, a relatively more thorough study of the curriculum was made by the Department of Research and Curriculum Development soon after its establishment in 1956 (Ma'aza, 125-126). The Department then proposed a new academic secondary school curriculum which was approved by the Board of Education of the Ministry of Education in 1957 (Ibid).

3.1.2. History Teaching in Ethiopian Secondary Schools (1957-1974)

During the period under discussion history teaching underwent several stages of development. The first history syllabus was constructed in 1957. In subsequent years it was subjected to revisions. Therefore, starting from 1957 to 1974

four history syllabi were developed by a series of working committees⁶ under the direction of the Department of Research and Curriculum Development.

The first history syllabus (1957) for Ethiopian secondary schools was developed by a committee consisting of three expatriate secondary school teachers. Aiming at introducing change it was issued as provisional. To this effect, it was subjected to evaluation in the 1957/58 academic year. The work of its evaluation was undertaken by a committee consisting of ten members. The evaluation results led to the development of the second history syllabus of 1958. This newly-developed syllabus was also made provisional. Two main considerations accounted for its provisional status; first, consideration of making further alterations on the basis of comments and suggestions to be elicited from another committee and secondly, consideration of making alterations of the basis of the new education program which had been under consideration by the Ministry of Education (Secondary School Curriculum; 1958).

Other than being provisional these two syllabi shared many common features. For this reason they will be treated together.

⁶ Starting from 1957 to 1967 the four history syllabi were prepared by a series of working committees. The first syllabus was completely a work of secondary school history teachers. The committees that designed the second (1958) and the third (1963) syllabus consisted of for the most part subject specialists at the University and secondary level and advisers from EUSEP (Ethiopian United State Cooperative Education Program) and UNESCO. There were also participants from the Curriculum Department, Ministry of Education. The fourth history syllabus was designed by a committee consisting of subject specialists from the university, secondary schools and people from the Ministry of Education.

3.1.2.1. The Two Provisional History Syllabi

Both the first and the second provisional syllabi consisted of three component parts: (a) statements of objectives (b) ways and means of teaching, and (c) content [Secondary School Curriculum, 1957: 47-52; and Secondary School Curriculum, 1958; 110-123].

Objectives of the Syllabi

The first provisional syllabus began by setting out the following four objectives: (1) informing students about past historical developments of their country and the world at large; (2) broadening the mind of the students by examining historical events across the five continents; (3) enabling students to weigh evidence critically which would help them acquire some skills to distinguish facts from opinion, history from legend and to detect biases and prejudices in historical accounts; and (4) to make students good citizens (Secondary School Curriculum, 1957; 47-48). These objectives were adopted, as they were, by those who worked out the second provisional syllabus (Secondary School Curriculum, 1958: 110-111)

These objectives are worth while objectives but they are not without problems. Many writers on education hold the view that educational objectives need to be stated clearly and unambiguously (Tyler, 1949; 46-47; Taba, 1962: 200-201). However, quite on the contrary, the objectives of these syllabi were not stated clearly, and unambiguously. It was not, for instance, clear in what way students would broaden their minds, whether it was by developing historical concepts or by memorizing a string of facts. Aside from this, producing good

citizens as an objective of history teaching some what exaggerated the contribution of history. Here history was considered as a natural vehicle for teaching the private citizen the public virtues of loyalty and responsibility (Secondary School Curriculum, 1957: 47-48; Secondary School Curriculum, 1958: 110-111). Partly this might have been the result of American influence, in that by that time they had been involved in drafting the educational program of the country. In the American educational system the study of American history was required everywhere by state action with a belief that knowledge of the history of the U.S.A was necessary for effective citizenship (Cartwright, 1969: 36). The same rationale seemed to exist in the provisional history syllabi of Ethiopian secondary schools.

The inclusion of this objective, producing good citizens may partly have emanated from the way the curriculum was organized. In the two provisional secondary school curricula, of the social studies program the two disciplines, Geography and History, were organized as separate school subjects. Thus, in the Ethiopian secondary education system, in the absence of a social studies program, heavy reliance was (and still is) made on history to teach students about society. As a result, citizenship education that could have been more effectively promoted through the teaching of civics was ascribed to history teaching.

It is important to note in this connection that when history is taught as a separate subject, it must be recognized that it may carry special burdens and obligations. To the extent that it is the only subject among the social studies to

be required of all students, it must carry most of the load of giving students essential ideas about the nature of society and the skills and attitudes needed to deal with human problems. Obviously, it was with such understanding that the above mentioned objective was left out from the history syllabus worked out in 1967. It was suggested that the history syllabus should be supplemented by classes on civics so as to help students to understand rights and duties they have within their society. From 1967 to 1974 students used to learn civics as supplementary to the lessons of history in grade seven and eight (Secondary School Curriculum Development and E.S.L.C. Examination Seminar, 1967: 159).

Suggested Methods of Teaching

The other component part of the first provisional syllabus was list of ways and means of teaching history. The proposed ways and means of history teaching were arranged as follows: (a) history teaching should emphasize biography, economic and social history as well as causes and effects of historical events; (b) history teaching needs to be conducted to enhance better understanding of present day problems; (c) history teaching through a topical approach is necessary so as to examine topics of primary importance in greater detail; (d) history teaching should give some emphasis to historiographical questions; (e) history teaching should aim at the development of students' ability in note-taking as well as their independent study habit; and (f) history teaching must be carried out in an imaginative and stimulating manner (Secondary School Curriculum, 1957; 48-49)

These suggested ways and means clearly displayed the expertise of the developers. These were ways and means which had been used for the teaching of history in the European schools. For instance, the biographical approach to history teaching, an approach first suggested by Rousseau, had been commonly used in history teaching of western schools (Johnson, 1940; 34-35). Today many of the above mentioned ways and means of teaching are regarded as more appropriate for the teaching of history. It appears that the developers had a clear understanding of the nature of history and the learning and teaching it requires. Their mention of the use of historiographical questions as one way of approaching history teaching is worth mentioning here. Their suggestion is in agreement with the view of recent writers. On the same point, Crinnion (1987; 169) argues that approaching history teaching with a historiographical dimension would enable students to develop a clearer view of the complexity of historical problem. Moreover, it would enhance students' understanding of the nature of historical sources and historical methodology such as question framing, factual significance and verification, as well as historical explanation and argumentation.

Despite this remarkable understanding and attempt, they failed to indicate appropriate learning experiences. It was not, for instance, indicated how history teaching could give emphasis to historiographical questions or how history teaching could be made imaginative and stimulating. As Crinnion (Ibid) points out, presenting an accurate account of people's past actions by the evidential use of a variety of records of that past is one way of enhancing students' understanding of the

nature of historical sources and historical methodology. Thus, due to lack of provision of appropriate learning experiences their suggestion had little practical value.

Other than this, proposing a topical approach for the teaching of the content of the syllabus which was organized chronologically was also unrealistic. This is so because it appears to be easier to use a chronological approach in a syllabus whose organizational pattern is topical (Cartwright, 166).

Syllabus Content

As an introductory remark to the second provisional secondary school curriculum, the Department of Research and Curriculum Development stated that the content of the various syllabi in the first provisional curriculum had not been radically altered. Rather much more attention was given to the improvement of the approach to teaching the various subjects, by which the general aim of the program might be achieved more efficiently (Secondary School Curriculum, 1958). This statement does not, however, hold true for the revised history syllabus of the second provisional secondary school curriculum. As a matter of fact the second provisional history syllabus had little difference from the first one. This little difference existed in the content. Here the difference lies in the omission of some topics and inclusion of others as well as in the presentation of the course content of grade ten. But, despite their claim of introducing a radical change, the suggested teaching approaches remained the same in both of the syllabi (Secondary School Curriculum, 1957: 48-49 and Secondary School

Curriculum, 1958: 111-112). For that matter, let alone to introduce change in the second provisional syllabus, such teaching approaches appeared once again in the history syllabus that was developed in 1963 (Secondary school Curriculum; 1963: 125-126).

Even the difference that existed in the contents of the syllabi should not be exaggerated. This is so because the selection criterion, the organization and the provisional statements were one and the same. As a selection criterion, it was laid down that the content of the syllabus should emphasize those countries of the world with which Ethiopia had been in closest contact (Secondary School Curriculum, 1957: 50-52). Topics and periods which were supposedly selected on the basis of this selection criterion were organized chronologically. In the lower grades (9 and 10) topics drawn from the history of the ancient Mediterranean world and Medieval and Early Modern Europe were listed. For the upper grades (11 and 12), however, topics were left unspecified. As a provision it was simply stated that the remaining part of the history of Europe (19th and 20th centuries) should be taught but with due consideration for the requirements of the internal examination (Ethiopian Leaving Certificate) and external examination (General Certificate Education).

Perhaps, topics were left unspecified on the supposition that appropriate topics would be indicated from time to time. But the content of these courses seemed to be an adoption of course requirements of the G.C.E and also seemed to give greater emphasis to the preparation of students for examinations. Of course, the provision would give the history teachers relative

freedom in selecting topics. But the likelihood was that different teachers would select different topics and this would be disadvantageous for students who were required to sit for centralized examinations.

In the process of selecting such contents, the developers did actually make a side-track from their initial premise. According to their premise, topics and periods were supposed to be selected from countries with which Ethiopia had closest connection. But the work remained partly undone. In fact, with a fuller understanding of the gravitation of Ethiopia into the orbits of the Arabic and Mediterranean civilizations, they selected the content of the grade nine history course (in both syllabi) from these areas. But still one can question the reason why the history of Greece (in both syllabi) and the history of Byzantium (in the second one) were omitted. Such omission appears to be deplorable in that Ethiopia, in the ancient period, had been in closest connection with them rather than with the Franks whose history was maintained in the contents of both syllabi. What was also the ground for the inclusion of Japan, Mongolia, Newserland, Australia and the islands of the Pacific? Had Ethiopia been in closest contact with these countries in the period under study? The answer is emphatically no. These were then sufficient evidence for their failure to work on their initial premise.

The ultimate purpose of these topics, topics selected from those countries with which Ethiopia was said to have been in closest contact, was to provide a realistic setting for the teaching of Ethiopian history. It was indeed a highly commendable approach. As Daniels (15-16) points out, national

history should be taught and learnt in a spirit of objectivity. As one way of ensuring such a spirit of objectivity he suggested that "national history... should be studied not in isolation, but in the context of parallel or divergent developments in other countries and of the pertinent historical antecedents." Although the developers of the two provisional syllabi seemed to share the same belief, their work did not reflect this belief. From a syllabus which was worked out on the basis of such a premise one would expect the history of Ethiopia to be the focal point. But, let alone being the focal point, Ethiopian history rarely appeared in the syllabi. The first provisional syllabus did not include any topic from Ethiopian history, whereas the second one had some (Secondary School Curriculum, 1957: 50-52 and Secondary school Curriculum, 1958: 117).

Even though some topics from Ethiopian history were included in the second provisional syllabus, their selection was dictated by another consideration rather than the teaching of Ethiopian history per se. As the organization of grade ten course content revealed, topics from Ethiopian history were selected while designing the syllabus on the basis of the assumption that the students would understand better what happened in the rest of the world (including Ethiopia) if they learnt world history by reference to major events in Europe (secondary school curriculum, 1958: 114-122). Hence, the course was organized around three major historical developments: the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Exploration and Discoveries. It was then aimed to show the impact of these historical developments upon the history of the rest of the world. With this purpose in view some topics from the history

of Ethiopia ("Post-Aksumite and Gondarine Period") were included into the content of the grade ten history course. To put it more specifically, the intention was to present the activities of the Portuguese soldiers and the Jesuit Missionaries in Ethiopia.

This approach had, however, two major pitfalls. The first problem arose from the breadth notion which was used as a governing principle for the construction of the course. In an effort to present a great mass of information the course was overloaded and bogged down in irrelevant details. The course was supposed to cover topics selected from the following continents and countries with reference to the three major historical events mentioned above. These continents, and countries were: America, Africa, India, China, Japan, Mongolia, South-East Asia, Australia, Newzealand, and the islands of the Pacific. The intention was to teach some aspects of the history of these countries and continents before and after the coming of the Europeans.

This breadth notion, as Fines (1987: 108) points out, is one of the notions which has done infinite harm to history teaching in schools, for it encourages fast history teaching which aims at covering the selected content rather than helping students to develop understanding. In the case of the content of the grade ten history course, not only fast history teaching seemed to be encouraged but adequate coverage of the course content within the period allotted for history (3 to 4 periods per week) also seemed to be practically impossible.

The second problem sprang from the assumption that formed the basis for the construction of the course. To reiterate the

point, the course was designed with a belief that the student would develop better understanding of historical events in the rest of the world by reference to major historical events in Europe. This approach indeed, would help students understand the way historical developments in Europe affected the history of the rest of the world. Despite this virtue it could not, however, take them far in understanding the internal dynamism of historical developments within countries outside Europe, Rather, it might have generated an erroneous conception among students. That is to say students could have conceived of every historical event in the different parts of the world as an extension of the history of Europe. Thus equating world history to that of the history of Europe would be the ultimate result.

In fact this was a major problem in the construction of a course in world history. Speaking about the experiences of the American schools, Engle (1969: 27) stated that a course in world history used to equate the history of the world to that of the history of Europe. The prevalence of the same conception in African educational systems of the both the colonial period and after independence was indicated by Brown (1966: 1-2). That 'Africa has no history' or 'the history of Africa is nothing more than the activities of European in Africa' was the assertion that made the whole history syllabus of African schools Euro-centric in character (Ibid). Although Ethiopia had hardly experienced colonial rule, it is little surprise that the history syllabus of that time shared this common character.

Educationalist hold the view point that the stated educational objectives determine the selection of content (Biggs and Collis, 1982: 164; Sansom, 124 and Smallbone, 142). The

selected contents of the two provisional syllabi not only failed to reflect the assumption that worked behind the selection but also failed to reflect the general aims of secondary education and the objectives of the syllabi. Among the general aims of the secondary education program of the country the following two aims had direct bearing on the teaching of history.

- (a) To foster in students the traditional value of loyalty, unity and devotion to Emperor and country which have sustained the Empire of Ethiopia for thousands of years.
- (b) To develop in students a sense of citizenship so that they may emerge from this educational experience cognizant of their responsibilities in society (Secondary School Curriculum, 1958).

In translating these general aims into syllabus objectives, it was stated that history teaching in Ethiopia should aim at producing good citizens (secondary school curriculum, 1957: 47-48; and Secondary School Curriculum, 1958: 111). Those writers who have written on the teaching of history argue that nationalism as a notion has been widely used in the construction of the history syllabus (Johnson, : 63; Fine, ; 108 and Brown, : 2). This is so because the teaching of national history has been regarded as a natural vehicle for producing good citizens and a means to enhance national development (Daniels, : 13, and Fine, : 108). this was not however, the case in Ethiopian schools.

To enable students to develop a "sense of citizenship" it is of importance to give provision for the teaching of national

history. In order for students to broaden their knowledge about the world, says Gross and Allen, 1969: 306-307, first of all they need to know who they are, where they are, and what their cultural heritage is. This was however missing in the syllabi. It was, therefore, foolhardy of the developers of such syllabi to expect success in achieving these objectives without giving due attention to the teaching of Ethiopian history. Perhaps their failure to emphasize the teaching of Ethiopian history might have been an expression of the status of historical study of the country. It is true, at the time no significant historical study on the country was being made. It should be remembered that emphasis on the teaching of Ethiopian history would make a new demand upon teachers with respect to the teaching of new content at a time when there was few works on Ethiopian history.

As we have already noticed, the two provisional syllabi never gave room for the teaching of Ethiopian history. However, for two main reasons the Euro-centric nature of the history syllabus of Ethiopian secondary schools was changed in 1963. For one thing, the participation of educated Ethiopians had increased. These educated Ethiopians saw the exclusion of Ethiopian history as an anomaly (minutes of the Meeting of Senior History Teachers in Addis Ababa Schools, 1963). The most important reason, perhaps, was a change of political environment in Africa. In the 1960s the getting of independence by many African countries stirred a new preoccupation for national development which soon began to find expression in school programs. It was a time when most African states were in the process of transforming their educational provision to make it

accord better with their newly won independence. To this effect many conferences on African education were held and these conferences called for the teaching of their cultural heritage to African students. To introduce change in accordance with the decision of African education conferences, such as the Secondary Curriculum conference held in Tananarive in 1962, a committee was set up to revise the second provisional history syllabus and to develop a new one. This committee made stringent criticism of the syllabus. The criticism marked a radical departure since it pointed irrevocably towards the need to give the history syllabus an Ethiopian and African setting (Ibid).

3.1.2.2. The Revised Senior Secondary School History Syllabus of 1963

The committee, set up in 1962 to revise the second provisional secondary school curriculum and to prepare a new one, claimed that the new curriculum had been designed with due consideration to the needs of the Ethiopian student, his country and his continent. It also criticised the previous curriculum as being a mere reproduction of what was taught in other countries or what had once been used in a particular country at a particular stage of its development (Secondary School Curriculum, 1963: viii).

Concerning the history syllabus, it was stated that hitherto history teaching in the secondary schools had concentrated on the history of Europe to the virtual exclusion of all other areas. The developers believed that such a failure to include Ethiopian history was deplorable and a serious anomaly. With such an understanding, the history of Ethiopia viewed, as part

of African and world civilization, was suggested to form the focal point of the syllabus (Ibid. 124).

Objectives of the Syllabus

In any respects the 1963 history syllabus showed a marked improvement, compared with the two provisional syllabi. There were, however, noticeable improvements in the objectives and content of the syllabus rather than in the suggested teaching approaches which were simply reproduced from the previous syllabi.

The syllabus began by stating two general aims and five specific objectives. The first general aim was to give a knowledge to Ethiopian students of the outline of the history of their own country, but set against the background of the history of Africa and the world (Ibid). This shows clearly how the program was intended to make the history of Ethiopia the focal point of the study. The second general aim, on the other hand, referred to the acquisition of basic skills and values, such as weighing evidence, understanding the basic fact that some of the present problems have had their precedent root in the past and appreciating the variety of human motives, which the study of the past can give (Ibid). This general aim also shows how the nature and purposes of history were understood by the developers of the syllabus.

Following these general aims, specific objectives which were believed to be important in the practical operation of the syllabus were arranged. It is important to note here that the developers did not attempt to define the history course in terms of the subject matter. Rather, they defined the course in terms

of attitude, concept and skill by associating them with historical knowledge. The objectives defined in terms of historical knowledge embodied knowledge of facts and concepts. In stating such objectives the intention was to help students know something about the content of history, particularly the history of their own country so as to understand their national identity. It was also the intention of the program to give secondary students a general course in the most important aspects of African history from earliest man to the present day. Suggesting the study of African history from the earliest man to the present was aimed at dispelling the belief that African history and civilization began with the coming of the Portuguese in the fifteenth century. It was a suggestion to study African history from an African standpoint (Ibid. and Minutes of the Meeting of Senior History Teachers in Addis Ababa Schools, 1963).

Certain concepts, such as the concept of change, time or chronology, interpretation of current event in relation to the past and the concept of motivation, were also chosen as being essential to historical study and relevant to the personal and social needs of the students (Secondary School Curriculum, 1963: 124). Here what the observant reader will detect is that the developers were not exhaustive in listing the basic organizing concepts that may be developed through a study of history (see chapter two about the list of such concepts).

As objectives of the syllabus, the development of attitudes and values mainly referred to tolerance for different viewpoints and appreciation of mankind's achievement. The stated skill objectives include.

- a) weighing evidence
- b) detecting bias and distinguishing truth from falsehood.
- c) distinguishing fact from opinion (Ibid.).

Defining the distinctiveness of history as a school subject in terms of these objectives was a fair indication of the conception of history. Smallbone (1987: 142) argues that the history syllabus should be seen in total as developing certain attitudes, concepts and skills. Since the developers of the 1963 syllabus saw the history course in this light, the objectives of the syllabus aligned themselves in part with those objectives proposed by scholars. Thus their attempt was praiseworthy.

This does not, however, mean that their work was without limitations. For one thing, no attempt was made to relate one type of objective to the other. For instance, the skill objective weighing evidence - was not related to historical knowledge, such as the evidential basis of history. For another thing, the skill objectives were stated inadequately. Such objectives appeared to show that the subject was supposed to be taught with one main learning outcome in mind; the acquisition of knowledge of the content or concept under study. The way the objectives were stated did not refer to the content and process aspects of learning a subject matter. It should be remembered that these objectives refer to certain processes and their ultimate virtue lies in modifying the concept structure of the student. This could be realized when they are stated as learning activities and learning outcomes. If stated in this way the mechanism of the learning that is taking place would be

into chronological order and explain their reasons for doing so (Ibid).

Providing a carefully planned leaning experience is a necessity for the realization of other skill or concept objectives too. As such, in order to develop the skill of weighing evidence historical materials, i.e., primary sources, upon which the student can exercise his skills, should be presented. That is why the source-based inquiry method has got momentum to day (see chapter two). The same is also true of the development of sensitivity to local history. To develop sensitivity to local history it is not only imperative but also essential that the syllabus should give room for the study of local variations. As has been shown in the preceding chapter, that the study of local history should seek to exploit the student's preoccupation with himself and his immediate environment, that its study should enable students to go from known to unknown and that history as a school subject should not be remote from students' own experience and existence are important points of principle that facilitate its place in the syllabus. Today, more than ever before, its study finds an important place in the school syllabus. It must not be forgotten, however, that "the development of sensitivity to local history" was stated as an objective of the 1963 syllabus without making local history part of the syllabus content.

Selection and Organization of Content

As educationist argue, the stated objectives of a curriculum or a syllabus in part determine the content of the syllabus. Contrary to the previous syllabi, in the 1963

syllabus an attempt was made to relate the content to objectives and to make it relevant to students' experience. In an attempt to relate the content to objectives, the syllabus drew its content from three areas of study (World, African and Ethiopian history) with a supposition that equal weight would be given to each section. Accordingly, topics were selected from Ethiopian, World and African history and organized under three sections respectively. As a form of organization a chronological approach was used (Secondary school curriculum, 1963: 126-130).

Viewing the selection and presentation of the subject-matter in the light of the maturity and previous knowledge of the learner, the notion of a spiral curriculum was used to underpin the construction of the syllabus. The assumption was to place the subject-matter within two cycles. Ethiopian secondary school graduates were supposed to study each section of the syllabus content (Ethiopia, Africa and the world) at two levels of instruction. In an attempt to place the subject-matter at two levels of instruction the developers first undertook the job of designing the junior secondary school history syllabus. African and world history were placed in this syllabus. Having finished their first task they designed the senior secondary school syllabus in which Ethiopian, African and world history were placed. Eventually the placement of the subject-matter of history had got one certain pattern; Ethiopian history was placed in the elementary and senior secondary schools, whereas African and world history were placed in the junior and senior secondary schools. The basic tenet behind this placement was to provide a general course of study in the elementary and junior schools which would be taken up again with

a more detailed, complex and complicated treatment in the senior secondary schools where students were older (Ibid.).

It is important to note in this connection that such an approach would demand the use of earlier learning to support new learning, reconsideration at a more advanced level of facts and idea that were already somewhat familiar, and the development of new understanding and skills. As Beyer (1971: 23) point out, concept development is cumulative. Since the developers of the syllabus had defined objectives conceptually their adoption of the approach mentioned above was sound. However, as a closer examination of both the junior and senior secondary school syllabi shows, the topics specified in the Junior school were repeated in the senior one (Secondary School Curriculum, 1963: 126-130). There was no attempt to make plans for the junior school course to stop at a certain period and for the senior course to begin there with only a brief review. This must not be taken to imply that a certain amount of repetition is undesirable. In fact repeated coverage of a period with the introduction of new ideas and new materials is the only way in which a historical period can ever be fully understood. Rather, it is to say that the continuation of a chronological approach to organize the content of the syllabus requires that the periods at the different levels be planned so that no kind of duplication is permitted.

The syllabus organized itself around the principle of periodization. From grade nine through grade twelve students were required to learn ancient history, then medieval and then modern history. The course content of each grade was organized under three headings. The three headings for grade nine course

content were: "Africa to 350 B.C", "Ethiopia to 600 A.D", and "The Mediterranean World to 600 AD." The periodization of the latter two headings had correspondence, while the heading for the African section was made to stop in the year 350 B.C. From this land mark (350 b.C) and from the topics listed under the heading, "Africa to 350 B.C.", it appeared that the course was intended to give students a general course in some important aspects of ancient African history. It also seem to be an attempt to approach African history from an African standpoint so as to dispel the belief that African history and civilization began with the coming of the Europeans in the fifteenth century.

Under the second heading, "Ethiopia to 600 A.D", the history of ancient Ethiopia (Aksumite period) was supposed to be taught, whereas the history of Greece (for the first time in the Ethiopian school syllabus) and the history of Rome were listed under the third heading, "The Mediterranean World to 600 A.D." In organizing the course content of grade ten the first two headings remained constant, while the third heading was replaced by another- "The Mediterranean World and Europe (600 - 1648)." In the previous two provisional syllabi, as we have already seen, the course contents of grade eleven and twelve were not detailed with a list of topics. To their credit the developers of the 1963 syllabus provided a list of topics in the same way as they did for the course content of the two lower grades. These topics were listed under three headings but a slight change was made from the previous pattern. While keeping the two headings - Ethiopia and Africa - constant, a new heading ("The World") was introduced substituting the previous headings, "The Mediterranean world" and "The Mediterranean World and



Europe" (Ibid.)

This alteration was made in accordance with the tenet that prevailed behind the selection and organization of the syllabus content. According to such a tenet topics from world history, which were believed to be relevant to the Ethiopian scene, were supposed to be selected (Secondary School Curriculum, 1963: 124). The selected topics were then organized through a chronological approach that divided the content of the syllabus into courses for each grade dealing with distinct chronological periods. As a result, the earlier periods were placed in the first grade (grade 9), the medieval period in the second (grade 10) and the period after the middle of the seventeen century in the upper grades - grades 11 and 12 (Ibid 127-130). In view of this, their alteration was sound because the relevancy of the Mediterranean world gave way to that of European history in the later periods.

Starting from 1963 this pattern of organization, with some minor changes, has become the main feature of the senior secondary school history syllabi. This is to say that the history syllabi have been drawing their contents from Ethiopian, African and world history. The inclusion of current events as part of the syllabus content was also another contribution of this syllabus (1963). Current event used to be one main feature of the history syllabus until 1974 (Ibid.).

With the construction of this syllabus, history teaching in Ethiopian senior secondary schools had undergone a radical transformation. Despite its radical transformation from the status of the previous syllabi, the 1963 syllabus did however suffer from some limitations. Its limitations range from the

stated objectives and go through the selected content and the suggested ways and means as well as the question of teaching materials. Its limitations pertaining to the stated objectives have already been indicated in the foregoing discussion. As to the content, the 1963 syllabus seems far more adequate than the previous one. But this does not mean that its content was free from any shortcomings. Its shortcomings are revealed more in the African and world history sections than in the section on Ethiopian history. In this regard the following loop-holes can be pointed out.

First, there were some topics in the world and African history sections which appeared vague. It was difficult therefore to understand what the syllabus meant by such topics. For instance, the topic in the African section (for grade eleven) entitled "Traditional art, thought, and customs in Africa", remained vague and subject to various interpretations. If it meant the history of traditional art, thought and customs of the people of Africa as a whole, it was not possible for a teacher to discuss these aspects of a continent which is characterized by great diversity without approaching the issue by dividing the continent into broad geographical zones. Even this approach would not solve the problem altogether since people who live in the same geographical zone have different arts, thought and customs. The unavoidable result of this vaguely stated topic seemed to be lack of uniformity in implementing the syllabus; one teacher would seem to emphasize the people of east Africa, and others on the other part of Africa. And other would leave out this topic altogether perhaps. It is doubtful if many teachers knew much about art,

thought and customs in many parts of Africa.

Secondly, in the African section there was difference of emphasis between the various geographical Zones. Of these geographical zones West Africa weighed heavier than the other parts of Africa. Perhaps, this might have been dictated by the availability of books.

Thirdly, the list of topics in the world history section did not comprise some important historical developments, such as political unification and liberation movements in Europe. Moreover, there was a tendency to equate world history to that of European history.

Fourthly, current events were supposed to be taught for their own sake. Their teaching was not intended to create historical awareness or to explore specific current problems by tracing their historical origins. As such, the way this part of the syllabus ought to be taught was not in agreement with the approach proposed by scholars. Gross and Allen (1969: 306), for instance, proposed history teaching with a unit on current events. The rationale behind their suggestion was that "students need to grasp the relationship between themselves, their prime concerns, their day, the problem of the hour and history's engendering forces." In saying this, they were countering the views of history as something dead and fixed, as memorization of names, as a mere chronology of events, and as a collection of affairs largely unrelated to contemporary events. In addition, they proposed this approach with an underlying belief that "... the major justification for the study of history lies in its current application..." (Ibid. 308). But here in the Ethiopian school syllabus the primary objective of

the teaching of current events was to enable students to know what was going on around them.

Lastly, new contents were included into the syllabus without providing teaching materials. The inclusion of Ethiopian and African history made new demands upon teachers with respect to teaching new content. The history teachers were required to teach this new content at a time when teaching materials for the new syllabus had still not been produced. Needless to say, these teachers (many of whom were expatriate who seemed to have very limited knowledge of African and Ethiopian history) would be confronted with a formidable challenge in teaching the new syllabus effectively. Even graduates of the University College of Addis Ababa⁷ who were qualified as secondary school teachers might have been confronted with the same challenge because historical works on the history of Ethiopia were still very few. The implication of this problem is twofold: firstly, there might have been a different degree of emphasis on the different sections of the syllabus. The difference in the degree of emphasis should be seen as an expression of the availability of historical works. Since little had been written on the history of Ethiopia more emphasis might have been given to the other sections.

Secondly, in such a circumstance the likelihood was that students would demand the teacher to dictate class notes, in which case it became impossible for the teacher to cover all the relevant points. The classroom practice would also appear to remain didactic and the subject to be lacking in intellectual

⁷ The University College of Addis Ababa began its teacher training program for secondary school teachers in 1959 (O'Connor, 265-266)

stimulus and challenge. It was in relation to the 1963 syllabus that a report on the then classroom practice was made. In one of the position papers presented to the History Commission, set up in 1967 to consider the evaluation of the 1963 syllabus and ESLCE as well as the enrichment of history teaching, this same problem, i.e., the didactic nature of the then classroom practice, was reported. It was stated in the paper that "the general practice in schools is that there is too much talk and chalk and little student participation" (Secondary School Curriculum Development and ESLCE Seminar, 1967: 160).

Consequently, the pressing problem of lack of teaching materials got due attention from the concerned authorities. This was initiated by a group of history experts who met on December 10, 1966 to consider the urgent demand for history materials especially on African and Ethiopian history. The general consensus of the group was that a committee should be formed to revise and suggest changes for the senior secondary school syllabus of 1963. A committee which consisted of ten members was then formed and prepared a new history syllabus which was considered and approved by the History Commission set up in 1967 (Ibid. 121).

3.1.2.3. The History Syllabus of 1967

A number of factors may necessitate the introduction of change in the syllabus. As has been shown in the review of literature section, in England, advances in knowledge and reevaluation of the past practices have called for changing and reshaping the history syllabus (Portal, 1987: 1). The need for changing and reshaping the 1963 syllabus of Ethiopian senior secondary schools had essentially come up as an out growth of

one of the above mentioned factors, i.e., reevaluation of the past practices.

For good reasons it is safe to say that the 1967 syllabus was well done and the first of its kind to be produced after a thorough and careful review of all aspects of the problem. The committee had evaluated and reviewed the 1963 syllabus on the basis of position papers presented by members. These position papers assessed the problems of the history syllabus, history teaching and the ESLC History Examination and thereby pinpointed the weak and strong parts of the program (Secondary School Curriculum Development and ESLC Examination Seminar, 1967: 115-116).

A position paper on the objectives of history teaching criticised the objectives of the 1963 history syllabus as vague and subject to various interpretations. The paper stated that history teaching was aimed at encouraging memorization of endless facts and dates as well as to rush students to cover the history syllabus. The writer of this position paper believed that history teaching should aim to see how these facts and dates become meaningful to students and also to enable students to understand what they have covered. It was further stated that students should learn history as a process, constantly changing and in need of continual re-interpretation. With such an understanding the objectives of the 1967 history syllabus were clearly defined in terms of concepts, generalizations, values, attitudes and skills (*Ibid.*). Since recent writers have stressed this point (Ashby and Lee 85-86; Portal, 89; Sansom; 116; Smallbone, 142; Crinnion, 163-164) this attempt appears to have been congruent with current thinking about the objectives

of history syllabus.

The other position paper that dealt with the content of the syllabus suggested that the 1963 syllabus did omit some important topics, while some topics were stated vaguely. In addition, some of the topics were found to be inappropriate to the maturity level of students. On the basis of these criticisms omission, inclusion and reshuffling of topics were made. Thus in its final form the 1967 history syllabus differed from that of the 1963 in such omissions, inclusions and reshuffling of topics.

It was in connection with the development of the 1967 syllabus that the actual classroom practice and practical problems faced by history teachers were discussed for the first time. Classroom practice was found to be didactic, characterized by too much teacher's talk and too little student participation. As a way of improvement, it was suggested that the teacher should assign topics on which students would read, take notes, and prepare themselves for discussion in class. The role of the teacher would then be that of a guide (Secondary School Curriculum Development and E.S.L.C. Examination seminar, 160). In discussing practical problems faced by history teachers, it was stated that the total absence of textbooks written in a simple way was the most serious problem faced by history teachers. The problem was found to be twofold: total absence of textbooks on Ethiopia and Africa, and lack of reference books for the use of the teachers. Discussing the problem of textbooks and reference books, the History Commission suggested a short-term and a long-term solution. As a short-term solution immediate action was called for, compiling

information and mimeographing it for the use of the teacher. Setting up of a committee for preparing textbooks was considered to be a long-term solution (Ibid. 172).

Nevertheless, it was only the short term solution which became practical. Mr. Gilkes^a compiled information on Ethiopia to be used by the Teachers. He claimed that "the notes are certainly not intended to be used in the place of a textbook. They were drawn up for use with students not for students to use by themselves, and to help those teachers whose knowledge of Ethiopian history is very limited" (Gilkes, 1967: 1). A close investigation revealed that the proposed long-term solution never materialized until 1979. Despite such proposed solutions the problem remained unsolved and history teachers constantly complain about it.

Even though research work on the practical problems of history teaching of the time is completely lacking, analyzing the content of the reports of History Examiners and the views of secondary school history teachers is of importance. After 1967 it had for some time become mandatory for history examiners (for examiners of other subjects too) to produce reports on the problem of history teaching by analyzing students' performance on the E.S.L.C. History examination. In almost all their reports they repeatedly state that student performance continued to be discouragingly poor. In their reports, the history examiners were pointing out what they considered some of the basic reasons for the "continuous poor performance" in the

^a Mr. Gilkes was a member of the History Department of what was then Haile Sillassie I University. He, it should be noted, himself was not an expert in Ethiopian history, though he has since done research and published material on modern Ethiopia.

history papers. Students "continuous poor performance" was attributed to students' command of English language, which was said to be very weak, and to teachers', administrators' and Ministry officers' indifference to and failure to heed, the reports of history examiners (History examiner's Report, 1972)

Owing to their poor command of English language students were said to be unable to express their ideas in simple, clear and grammatically correct English (Ibid.). Of course the secondary school history teachers appeared to be in agreement with such an inference of history examiners (Letter from Nekemet Comprehensive secondary School, Department of History, January 28, 1973). It is obvious that a language element is involved in the teaching of history. It greatly affects the teaching learning process by posing communication problem. The English language which has been the medium of instruction in the secondary schools of the country, is the students' second and even third language. In such a kind of school situation historical study becomes an ally of language learning. Indeed secondary school history teachers seemed to realize this fact. But, as it appears from the above cited letter, they expressed their predicament to expend their limited energy and resources on teaching English in the light of the time available to them.

Concerning secondary school history teachers, administrators and ministry officials, it was stated that due to their "increasing indifference" to working in accordance with history examiners' suggestions, history was found to be "one of the worst taught subjects" in Ethiopian secondary schools. the examiners argued that history teachers appeared to give too little emphasis to the Ethiopian and African section of the

syllabus, though they were advised not to do so. On their part despite history examiners' recommendation, school administrators and ministry officials were found to be uncooperative in providing history teachers and students with general history books, textbooks and other appropriate teaching materials, particularly on Ethiopian and African history. The history teachers, school administrators and ministry officials were then accused of "increasing indifference" to work towards the implementation of the examiner recommendations because the questions on world history were done relatively better than questions on Ethiopian and African history (History Examiners Report, 1972).

This criticism appeared to evoke a strong protest from the part of secondary school history teachers. On their part, the history teachers alleged the absence of appropriate textbooks (Ibid) and the prevailing mode of indifference on the part of students as fundamental factors that affected the teaching-learning process and eventually students' performance in the E.S.L.C. History Examination (Letter from Lekemte..., 1973). History examiners referred to this explanation as the "usual excuse" (History Examiners Reports, 1972). But the complacency of the history teachers had a grain of truth in that the history syllabus had undergone so radical a transformation after 1967.

Even though the history examiners reports (1972) attributed students' poor performance to the above mentioned reasons, the seemingly continuous poor performance of students seemed to lie essentially in the program itself. The first point concerns the objectives of the syllabus. As shown above, the objectives of the 1967 syllabus were stated in terms of skills, attitudes and

concepts. Such syllabus objectives seemed to be defined with a clear understanding of what has been suggested by educationist. On this point Biggs and Collis (1982: 164) argue that:

Academic subjects are taught with two main effects on the student in mind: The assimilation and understanding of the content of the subject (i.e., the facts and concepts that constitute **knowledge** of the subject); and the cognitive processes that are induced by a proper understanding and application of the subject (i.e., the skills and strategies that constitute the appropriate **way of thinking** for that subjects). We may thus refer to the **content** and **process** aspects of learning a subject matter (emphasis not added).

Both the content and process aspects were addressed in the objectives of the syllabus. But much still remained to be done. The way objectives are stated in part determines the appropriate teaching methods (Ibid. 57). But it would be incorrect to assume that the statements of objectives are by themselves a method of teaching. Obviously, they presuppose a certain type of instruction; specifically, that which applies in situations involving learning of a given body of facts, concepts and skills. These presuppositions imply that the developers of the program have certain, definite intentions about the amount and quality of learning that is to take place. To give effect to such intentions, content should be defined and analyzed into components of content or process skills and appropriate materials, through which the process skills would be experienced, should be provided. The nature of those components and materials in turn implies that certain techniques of presentation will be used to give the student the opportunity to learn them.

However, the history program of the time was not fully developed on such bases. Only the type of evaluation used was highly related to the stated objectives. The program was concerned with the development of certain skills, such as reading and writing skills. By and large, aimed at measuring the development of such skills, the E.S.L.C. History Examination used to be completely essay type. In the light of such an emphasis, history examiners also evaluated students' level of performance on their ability to communicate ideas on paper (History Examiners Reports, 1972).

Essay type examination requires students more than recalling events and dates, for it measures their written analytical skills. The proper interpretation of those events requires the teacher to emphasize written work. Such written work would help the student learn to locate information, and to organize, interpret and present it. It would also help him/her learn "to argue a case and weigh evidence, to seize a point at issue, to arrange his thoughts and marshal facts to support a theory, to discover when a statement is proved and when it is not, to reason logically and express himself clearly" (Bragdon, 1969: 265)

However, to experience this sort of interaction both the teacher and the student need to have, among others, appropriate materials. In the absence of teaching materials the student could not locate, organize, interpret and present information. The above cited letter (1973) indicated that, let alone having appropriate teaching materials at their disposal, secondary school history teachers were required to teach with out textbooks. For this reason, students did not appear to be

experiencing the value of proper written work; as a result, their learning tended to be factually focused. It was quite possible that, in a quantitative sense, students might have learned several facts, although they might have little clear notion of how those fact interrelated, either among themselves or with other items of knowledge. It was therefore hardly surprising that students' performance, in an examination which evaluated not how much had been learned but how well it had been learned, became discouragingly poor. If more emphasis had been placed on the program itself, the problem could have been tackled effectively. That is why the problems pertaining to textbook preparation and provision, and students' command of English Language remain to be persistent challenges to the history teacher.

In summary, the teaching of history underwent several stages of development. Based on an evolutionary approach the history syllabus used to be frequently revised until 1967. A new history syllabus was always developed on the basis of the reevaluation results of past practices. Such an approach enabled the designers of the program to bring about a substantial improvement to the teaching of history. In every aspect the 1967 syllabus was then by far better than the previous syllabi.

In addition, the then view of curriculum development did not underestimate the humanizing needs of the teacher, his teaching task, and his mission. Curriculum development was viewed as something that is developed with the teacher. The teachers were not viewed as technicians and technologists, as mediators of curricula designed and devised by others. In

short, curriculum development was viewed from the vantage point of what is most human about teaching, then the teacher became the focus. Nevertheless, after 1974 influenced by ideological commitment, i.e., building socialism, both the evolutionary approach and the view of curriculum development mentioned above discontinued. What happened was that the existing evolutionary approach was replaced by a revolutionary approach. History teachers were also viewed as instructors who implement the plans, goals, and objectives of school wide curriculum guides, as pedagogues who teach from textbooks written by experts. It is to this that the discussion turns next.

3.1.3. The History Syllabus and Textbooks Currently in Use: The History Syllabus.

As has been shown in the preceding section the history syllabus has been changed many times based on the reevaluation results of past practices. The 1967 syllabus that was developed on this basis was in use until 1974. What happened after 1974 was that the political revolution being introduced into the country called for a radical overhaul of the syllabus. Political revolution seems to be one of the factors that has necessitated the introduction of change into the school curriculum in other parts of the world. For instance, "in Russia the Soviet Revolution threw history out of the school curriculum and substituted for it indoctrination in the principle and practice of Sovietism.." But after 1933 history was called upon to be part of the school curriculum (Johnson, 69).

In Ethiopia, from the outset, the 1974 Revolution magnified the importance of history by proclaiming an emphasis on socialist ideals. History for schools was then called upon to link those ideas with the ideals of the new regime. Obviously the existing syllabus did not serve that purpose. As a result, curriculum experts and some secondary school teachers were set to work to produce the kind of history which would serve the purpose stipulated by the government. The old syllabus was then found to be irrelevant, which necessitated a radical overhaul of the subject in the school curriculum.

At this particular time the evolutionary approach that had been used over the past decades suddenly gave way to a revolutionary approach. In other words, the new syllabus was constructed with a revolutionary zeal rather than on the basis of the evaluation of the old syllabus. As such, those experts and teachers who assumed the task of constructing the new syllabus set to work by condemning the old syllabus. Speaking about the irrelevancy of the old curriculum in general, a document prepared by the Curriculum and Supervision Department (1981: 1-2) declared:

The content was highly academic and as a result there was little attempt to train productive citizens; it encouraged the development of wrong attitudes so that students despised the traditional handicrafts, ways of production and productive culture, as a whole the methodology was poor in which the spirit of inquiry and research were missing, the system of evaluation was a means for the selection of the few who were to serve the regime in its various organizational activities and the like things.

Having made this criticism those who took part in the development of the curriculum specified three educational objectives, namely, "Education for production", "Education for Scientific Research", and Education for socialist consciousness" (Ibid. 3). The obviousness of the point should not detract from the significance of its implications. The second objective, "Education for Scientific Research", and the reference to inquiry and research in the statements quoted above seemed to call for an emphasis upon inquiry. However, a counter-reference to another document, the "Programme of the National Democratic Revolution (NDR)" of April 1976, clearly reveals that greater emphasis was in actuality given to the last objective, "Education for Socialist Consciousness." There it was stated that "such a programme will aim at intensifying the struggle against feudalism, imperialism and bureaucratic capitalism" (NDR, 15). As a reflection of these general educational objectives the history syllabus of Revolutionary Ethiopia was essentially shaped by the ideology of the state.

Objectives of the Syllabus

In his book, *The Crisis of Ethiopian Education*, Tekeste Negash (1990: 54-55) criticised the history syllabus for not aiming at "nation - building." Tekeste appears to have a desire to impose a national pattern upon the teaching of history. It is true that the national pattern has been well recognized as the most powerful and pervasive pattern which is frequently imposed upon the teaching of history. John Fines (108) has eloquently described this point when he said, "how strange it is, when Sweden, after years of ideological commitment to

teaching children only the history of modern China and India, has now turned full circle to look again at itself, of course most dispassionately." It should be remembered that ideological commitment is as powerful as nationalism in governing the construction of the history syllabus. As a closer look into the syllabus objectives and the teaching materials, in which the reasoning of the designers of the program was clearly set forth reveals, it was the ideological commitment of the state rather than nationalism that underpinned the construction of the syllabus.

The ideological commitment of the state, building socialism, postulated that the designers of the program should make sure that the materialist conception of history formed the basis of the syllabus. A teaching material, "**History Notes: The Ancient World**", prepared by the designers of the program in 1976 (7-8) summed up the spirit in which history ought to be taught. Speaking about the use of history it stated that:

... people who live in a class society (such as ours) belong to different classes, and these classes have **different** (and in times of antagonistic class struggle) opposite interest. And so they study history from different points of view and different reasons... In our case, when we study history as true socialists (the followers of Marx, Engels Lenin, etc.) it is not for simple curiosity but for its practical from the point of view of the exploited and down trodden... Thus we need to study the whole range of human history stretching back to the origins of humanity in order to **understand our present society and to mould our future**. In short the study of history, from the point of view of the exploited, that is from the point of view of scientific socialism helps us to enhance the breaking down of feudalism and to replace it by socialism and to end exploitation of one class by another class (emphasis not added).

Even the history textbook that was prepared four years later in 1980 came out with the same reasoning; that students must be educated to develop socialist consciousness and to support the Ethiopian Revolution as well as to take active sides with the progressive forces by putting their "whole life in the service of the Revolution, peace, democracy and socialism" (see the preface of the grade ten textbook, 1980). While the developers claimed or actually believed themselves to be following the ideas of Marx, Engels, and Lenin, they were in fact using or intending to use the materialist conception of history to underpin the program of historical instruction.

A number of questions arise, however; were the developers actually committed to what they thought they were committed to? What was the ground for their belief that a history course designed on the basis of the materialist conception of history could produce students who would devote their whole life to the service of socialism? Could the program cultivate democratic ideals so as to enable students to put their whole life at the service of democracy? Was it not educationally sterile to expose students to one particular point of view?

In the statement quoted above, the designers alleged that they were true followers of Marx, Engels, and Lenin. Adhering to the principle of Marxism-Leninism, they tried to develop the syllabus on the basis of the materialist conception of history. As has already been shown in the preceding chapter (Chapter Two), history of class struggle and successive modes of production. Although this conceptual framework underpinned the syllabus, one can witness inconsistency in the work produced by those who assumed the task of constructing the syllabus at the

initial stage. They were hesitant in applying the materialist methodology of explanation, analysis and periodization to the ancient history of Ethiopia. This inconsistency was apparently displayed in their own statements:

In the following chapter on Aksumite society, we are afraid that we are unable to analyze fully the ancient history of Ethiopia from the materialist conception of history. It proved a difficult task. Therefore we leave you with many unanswered questions - questions on the mode of production, the relations of production, etc., have to be answered (**History Note: The Ancient World, 127**).

Even though they held an ambiguous position, historical scholarship appeared to be not totally sacrificed. Perhaps, this position might have been resulted from the composition of the group that involved itself in the construction of the syllabus. As one of the experts who took part in the development of the syllabus and the preparation of the teaching material briefed the researcher, people of various backgrounds - including those whose line of thought was not in conformity with the ideology of the state participated in the construction. At a later stage, with the coming of East German experts, what happened was that members of the panel⁹ were strictly selected on the basis of their ideological orientation. As a result, a number of former panel members who initially designed the syllabus were dropped from the panel. It follows then that syllabus development was viewed as something that is developed

⁹ The syllabus was a panel work. Initially the panel was composed of some experts (who were subject specialists with some training in education and secondary school history teachers who were not participating in the Development Through Cooperation Campaign).

with out the teacher. The teachers were viewed as technicians and technologist, as mediators of curricula designed and devised by others. While the former members of the panel were dropped, the periodic classification of the ancient history of Ethiopia (as pre-Aksumite and Aksumite) gave way to the materialists periodization in terms of modes of production.

In the document of the Ethiopian school syllabi prepared in 1984 the history of Ethiopia has thus been divided into consecutive modes of production. As such the Aksumite period of Ethiopian history falls under the "slave owning system," (The Ethiopian School Syllabuses..., 1984: 102-111) It needs to be stressed, however, that such an attempt at periodizing the ancient history of Ethiopia as a slave mode of production has done infinite harm to the history of the Aksumite society. As shown in chapter II, the direct applicability of the materialist linear dialectics and historical periodization to African traditional societies has become debatable. With regard to the ancient history of Ethiopia available historical sources have shown that periodizing and explaining Aksumite history from the materialist point of view as a "slave owning society" results in mere historical distortion. A closer investigation into the available documents reveals the fact that both a tributary system and highly developed commercial activity were contemporaneous.¹⁰ Now it has become an established fact that the Aksumite society owed its prosperity and civilization to the Red Sea Trade. It is equally true that the Aksumites' inability

¹⁰ See *Adulis Inscription* for the tributary system and the existence of slavery. The *Periplus of the Erythrean Sea*, and *Cosmas'*, *Christian Topography* have ample material about the commercial activities of Aksumite society.

to maintain their hegemony over the Red Sea Trade was consequent upon the decline of their civilization. In view of this, the periodization and explanation of Aksumite society as "slave owning" is highly questionable and untenable. This must not be taken to imply that slavery was non-existent. Indeed slavery was in existence in the Aksumite society. But no proof that the Aksumite society benefited for its civilization from slavery.

In fact such kind of historical distortion appears to be a general trend when the ideological movement of socialism becomes the basic consideration for the construction of the program of history teaching. Daniels (15) has stated that the same state of affairs used to prevail in those countries where socialist-oriented education was advocated. Under such circumstances the study of history and the teaching of it would suffer from distortion in that this ideological movement censors historical thought that contradicts its own preconceived doctrine and produces official rewritten versions of history by distorting and suppressing historical facts.

To infer from the statements of the developers' themselves, history ought to be taught "from the point of view of the exploited and the down-trodden" (see the above cited quotation). The implication of the statement is quite clear; it implies none other than the presentation of a one-sided view. Some critics of research argue that if an educational process continually presents a one-sided picture of a society then it becomes dangerously close to propaganda and indoctrination (Chuan Aik and Edmonds, 1976: 175). Generally speaking, evidence of the purpose of indoctrination in the educational process of the country is abundant, prolonged, and overwhelming. The extent to

which the school curriculum as a whole has been affected by the program of indoctrination established by the state is clearly manifested in the mathematics syllabus. The teaching of mathematics has been astonishingly intended to promote the concept of class struggle.¹¹ In such an educational system one should not fail to imagine the extent to which history, a subject which lends itself to be used easily as an instrument of propaganda or indoctrination more than any other school subjects, has been made to do service for the cause of the state ideology.

From a closer investigation of the new syllabus objectives it appears crystal clear that the immediate aim of history teaching at the secondary schools is used for indoctrinating students with one kind of explanation. Virtually, the syllabus appears less preoccupied with the students and less bent on introducing them to socially essential skills and methods of historical study. Rather, it seems to cling to the view that to teach history means to fill students with a mass of facts, but facts that do not contradict socialist ideals. This is to say that all the objectives of the syllabus are only defined in terms of knowledge. Of the fourteen stated objectives no single objective refers to skill development. Strikingly enough, the objectives of the old syllabus (1967), a syllabus which was condemned as "irrelevant and inadequate", were by any standard far more adequate and to some extent found to be in conformity

¹¹ "In Chapter I, attempt has been made to relate the topic with class struggle since one of the objectives of Ethiopian Education is to intensify the class struggle. This being the case each teacher should try to relate the respective topic with scientific socialism and make maths serve the proletarian politics." This is a statement made by the authors in the preface of the grade nine mathematics textbook.

with the current approach of defining objectives far more so, in fact, than the new syllabus. The 1967 syllabus did not also presuppose the presentation of a one-sided picture of a society. A comparison between the objectives of the two syllabi is presented in Appendix 6.

It is important to note at this juncture that after setting out these objectives (see Appendix 5) those people who worked out the new history syllabus presented cultivation of democratic ideals as one of the reasons for students' learning of history. Although their concern is appreciable, much has remained to be done. It is true that educational literature has been concerned with curricular innovation and above all democracy in the classroom, for a major educational task is cultivation of democratic ideals. The role of history is said to be both central and essential to upholding democracy (Ohlen, 1966, 9-12). The obviousness of the point should not, however, detract from the significance of its implications. Students should not be required, as presumed by the designers of the syllabus, "... to devote their whole life in the services of ... democracy.." (see grade ten textbook) without practising democracy. This is to say that school life should be first democratized. None the less, this cannot be done without knowing the basic means of democratizing school life.

One cannot, however, presume to speak of the development of democratic citizens under a circumstance in which history has had a purpose of indoctrination and conditioning. This very purpose is against democratic ideals, such as tolerance of other view points, and the modern conception of teaching itself. As characterized by Israel Scheffler (1965: 131), teaching is an

activity (a goal oriented activity) "aimed at the achievement of learning, and practised in such a manner as to respect the students intellectual integrity and capacity for independent judgement". It is such characteristics that differentiate it from propaganda, conditioning and indoctrination.

The objectives of the history syllabus barely reflect this view. Here students are considered as docile subjects who can easily be moulded. The teaching of history is meant at the bottom to foster socialist ideals whereby students would be exposed to one preordained point of view. There is no chance for them to see all sides of a question which, as Daniels (1980: 14) eloquently describes, is "the ultimate virtue of history instruction, no matter which position one personally prefers." It is, therefore, foolhardy of the developers of the syllabus to expect such a type of history program to contribute to the development of democratic citizens.

From the foregoing discussion it seems reasonable to contend that history is placed in the school curriculum with a belief that it will be instrumental in fostering socialist consciousness. But no proof that this is so has ever been adduced. This lack of evidence has never deterred the designers of the program from their continual emphasis. Such an emphasis requires and compels the distortion of history in order to achieve its preconceived results. In brief, the teaching of history has been required for the sake of docility, inculcating obedience, and promoting socialist ideals. As long as the student senses this duplicity of purpose he may resent history courses.

Selection and Organization of Content

From 1963 up to the present, with the introduction of a radical overhaul of the syllabus, history teaching in Ethiopian senior secondary schools has concentrated on World, African and Ethiopian history. Theoretically, the old syllabi of 1963 and 1967 aimed at the placement of Ethiopian history as the focal point of the courses. As such the history program was designed in such a way that the courses at each grade level would have three divisions: World, African and Ethiopian. Although the current syllabus reflects the same pattern by drawing its content from the three fields of history mentioned above, the basic assumption (making Ethiopian history the focal point of the courses) that worked for about ten years ceased to underpin the program just after the 1974 revolution.

The syllabus currently in use was constructed with an assumption that the history of revolutionary movements would serve as the focal point of the program of history teaching. Therefore, the present emphasis on Russian history represents such a major change that has been introduced since the outbreak of the revolution. This change reverses the traditional western world orientation of the history syllabus and makes it Eastern - oriented. The history of Eastern areas, which have followed the socialist ideology, becomes much stronger in the syllabus. And courses arranged by a combination of topics, periods or areas have become increasingly common, especially courses in the history of the revolutionary movements.

As has been indicated in the foregoing discussion, lack of appropriate teaching materials (textbooks and reference books) and the inadequacy of teachers' knowledge about Ethiopian and

African history were reported as major factors that brought about variations in the degree of emphasis given to the different sections of the old syllabi. But the varying degree of emphasis in the current syllabus should be seen in the light of the basic reasoning that worked behind the placement of the subject in the school curriculum as well as the basic notion that served as the principal dimension to structure the choice of content in the syllabus.

It is crucial to distinguish the motive for studying the subject from the nature of what is studied. The motive or the reasoning for placing history in the school curriculum is to foster socialist ideals so as to produce citizens with a socialist consciousness (The Ethiopian School Syllabuses..., 198: 100-101). But history can only fulfil this role if the versions of the past it provides are congruent with the materialist explanation of history. It follows that the only history which can be useful in the relevant sense is a type of history produced by historians from the point of view of the materialist conception of history. That is why the content of the syllabus that deals with African and World history was copied from the works of socialist historians. The content that deals with African history was copied from **The History of Black Africa**, a book produced by Endre Sik (a Hungarian Historian). Whereas the content of world history was reproduced from the work of Soviet Historians edited by A.Z. Manfred, **A Short History of the World**, Vol. I and II.

However, due to the absence of any book on Ethiopian history produced on the basis of the materialist conception of history that would meet the ideological needs of the state, the

designers of the program had a difficult time in producing their own version of Ethiopian history that could fit into the materialist conception of history. Presumably, such absence of historical works and minimal preoccupation with national development appear to be conditioning factors in varying emphasis; hence, Ethiopian history, to a larger extent, and African history, to some extent, got little attention and occupied a very marginal place.

The reasoning that brought the designers of the program to the belief that the teaching of history would promote the socialist ideology must have been a conditioning factor in the selection, organization and presentation of the content of the syllabus. Logically, to teach students about the legalities of the establishment of the socialist system one has to show how the establishment of the socialist system is a low governing development in the history of mankind. The essentiality of studying the history of mankind on the basis of the materialist approach is thus apparent. It should be emphasized that the approach stresses the need to study the whole range of human history which is periodized in terms of successive modes of production. In fact, this very fact is admittedly declared by the designers themselves when they wrote, students are required "... to study the whole, range of human history stretching back to the origins of humanity in order to **understand our present society and to mould our future**" (History Notes: The Ancient World, 1979: 7-8).

The fact that the syllabus attempts to survey a considerable area, period or body of themes suggests that breadth notion was used as the only dimension which structured

the choice of content. As Fines (1987: 108) points out, breadth is a belief that real history implies an attempt to memorize all of it, regardless of the superficiality of the treatment. The main concern is that students should do ancient, then medieval and then modern history. Similarly, Ethiopian youths in the senior secondary schools are required to learn the feudal mode of production, then the capitalist with due emphasis on imperialism and then the world socialist system (The Ethiopian School Syllabuses..., 1984: 102-111)

There is no doubt that the syllabus embodies topics selected from a considerable area (from six continents) and period of time (from the 15th century to the present). This makes the content of the courses overloaded. Owing to time¹² and space limitation a number of ideas or themes must be compressed into a small spaces. But for some topics room was accorded for expansion and amplification. While the syllabus greatly emphasizes those topics which were found relevant in promoting the socialist ideals, it has done injustice to African and Ethiopian history by giving too little emphasis. This point may, perhaps, be further elaborated by citing specific examples.

- 1) The topic "Black Africa in the Period of Industrial capitalism (1789-1870)" is presented in 20 pages, whereas The First Russian Revolution and Its Influence on International Labour Movement are presented in 30 pages (Grade Ten History Textbook, 1980).
- 2) The topic "The Partition of Africa" is presented in 17 pages, but "Paris Commune" is treated in 21 pages (Ibid.).

¹² For grade nine and ten history courses two periods per week (40 minutes each) are allocated, while for grade eleven and twelve four and five periods are allocated respectively.

The assertion that the syllabus gives too little emphasis to Ethiopian and African history is fully supported by the results of the most recent study. Speaking about the degree of emphasis given to Ethiopian history, Tekeste Negash (1990: 67-69) reported that.

... the curriculum pays far too little attention to Ethiopia and Ethiopian world view... The fact that only two chapters out of the total of 26 chapters (or 98 pages of 908) deal with Ethiopian history give the impression that Ethiopian history is not as important as European or American history.

Even though Tekeste overstates the importance given to American history, which is in actuality given marginal place, and he does not specify which part of Europe is given much more importance, his diagnosis deserves much attention. One thing that should be clarified is that the two examples cited above and the statement which has just been quoted refer to pages as indication of the relative importance attached to topics. In view of the fact that adjectives may be used to show emphasis, pages alone do not necessarily indicate the relative importance attached to topics. Pages are none the less a rough test.

The placement of Ethiopian history in the syllabus is another indication of the relative importance attached to it. It should be remembered that in the old syllabi Ethiopian history was supposed to be taught from grade nine through twelve. It also occupied one-third of the syllabus. In contrast the new syllabus required the teaching of Ethiopian history only in the ninth and tenth grades. Even there, in both grades, it occupies only one-fifth of the whole subject matter.

The designers of the new syllabus placed Ethiopian history in the ninth and tenth grades with a supposition that students who were placed into various streams after grade ten and who would not take history courses thereafter could acquire knowledge about the "legalities of the social development of Ethiopia towards socialism and communism" (See the preface of grade ten textbook).

Such a supposition would have made much sense, if the content of the courses was meant to deal only with Ethiopian history, or if Ethiopian history was made the focal point of the courses. Given that the courses have three divisions (Ethiopia, Africa and the World) and given that a range of periods has to be studied, a depth and detail study is not possible. Since breadth notion was used as a criterion for selection, the content of the courses would not allow adequate treatment of the most outstanding developments of the nation's history. This makes students' knowledge too superficial. It also makes the syllabus far less of a useful preparation for students who choose history as their subject of study after grade ten.

It would be neither original nor wholly controversial to say that history and the educational process of which it forms a part should be socially relevant. In fact, the varieties of meaning that may be attached to this notion of relevance are difficult areas to talk confidently about. Discussing the problem, Crinnion (162) has mentioned three types of relevance "... that the study of history helps students understand their present world, that it increases self understanding, that it provides a useful intellectual training." The present history syllabus in fact facilitates none of the three types of

relevance mentioned above.

For one thing, it does not have the capacity to help students understand their present world realistically, for it presents a one-sided picture of the world in which they live. Nor does it increase self understanding because it treats the history of students' own society inadequately. It does not also give students an opportunity to deepen their knowledge and to extend themselves to utilize and to widen their experience of their environment through a detailed study of local variations in national developments. As it is presented Ethiopian history has depicted a centristic view. This approach is harmful to a country which is highly characterized by diversity. For some students the approach would give an impression that their local history is not as important as that of others. Thus, this inadequate treatment, together with all manner of distortion, cannot give students a realistic perspective on the nature of their society, its problems, and the direction it is heading to. Moreover, when one measures its relevance on the basis of the third variant of relevance, the syllabus appears to be incapable of providing a useful intellectual training to the students since the syllabus is far from introducing students to skills and concepts (see the list of the objectives of the syllabus).

If the social relevance of the subject is best judged by its capacity to equip a student with those intellectual skills and attitudes appropriate to an understanding of self and society, one can safely conclude that the current syllabus falls short of such lofty aims. On the contrary, giving justification to the righteousness of the then ideology of the state has remained the main pre-occupation of the syllabus. Given that a

range of periods has to be studied in order to have a wide range of themes or topics with which to justify the establishment of the socialist system in the world, the materialist approach is so much recommended. It is true that the aim chosen is to study history not just to equip students with those intellectual skills and attitudes appropriate to an understanding of self and society but for its practical utility and usefulness in helping to explain what the Marxian calls the inevitability of the final victory of communism. This is precisely the practical history' view against which Daniels (15) warns us, where the choice of subject and the selection and use of evidence are determined by the desire to produce a version of the past which will buttress a desired view of the present. A version which may degenerate into mere propaganda.

Vincent Crinnion (165) voiced much of the same sentiment in a recent article. Although he saw nothing improper in the use of current social issues and educational needs in determining the shape and substance of the history syllabus, he reminded us of the same possibility of degeneration when he wrote:

Syllabus content may be chosen in order to inform contemporary issues that are deemed to be not morally **right** but **salient**. The dangers here of anachronism, whether in the form of historical determination or moral indoctrination, are obvious. (emphasis not added).

The commonplace tendency to use history for the purpose of propaganda may be untenable, it is hard to see how it could have crystallized. An historical understanding, says Crinnion (163), surely comes less from the accumulation of knowledge about particular event than from the learning of general historical skills and predispositions towards those events.

On the contrary, the designers of the Ethiopian secondary school syllabus seem to have viewed an historical understanding as a function of the accumulation of knowledge about particular events which buttresses a desired view of the present. They also seem to have conceived of instruction as the imparting of subject matter. It also follows that they wanted to see senior secondary school students trained in the subject matter contained in the textbooks, which fully reflect the syllabus content, until they could spout answers to almost any question that might be put to them.

The above criticism is not hold to a slogan that content does not matter or that facts are unimportant; they are indeed principal materials required for the construction of generalizations and for students' learning of general historical skills and predisposition towards the events. While there is some merit in emphasizing the subject matter, it is one part of the equation. Under the present syllabus the significance of students' interest and motivation is not given due consideration and the function of the teacher as facilitator of the learning process is minimized. The subject matter seems to be isolated from students' own preoccupations. It is aloof from the habits and ideals of the society that established the school. Consequently students appear to see no connection between the subject matter of the classroom and the matters of society. This in turn seems to prompt students to ask, why must I study this?

What the designers of the program may know, but have forgotten to consider, is that content of a textbook is a means to an education. It is not the end. They have failed to see

that the desire of the student to learn, to want to continue to learn, is important, possibly more important than any one set of facts that can be learned. Thus the syllabus appears to fail to create and sustain students' interest and motivation to learn. It merely assumes. Obviously, this must not be taken to imply that if students are to learn it is important to let them do what they want. On the contrary, it is to say that for the syllabus to allow students to learn it is important to strike a balance between the two elements - the subject matter to be studied and students' interest. It was John Dewey (1916: 155) who sought to balance the two elements when he wrote:

The problem of instruction is thus that of finding material which will engage a person in specific activities having an aim or purpose of moment or interest to him, and dealing with things not as gymnastic appliances but as conditions for the attainment of ends.

The problem of the syllabus lies not only in the reasoning and the notions that were used to select content but also in the organizational pattern. As a reflection of the breadth notion the syllabus was organized around the principle of periodization. It follows that the chronological approach was used as the only form of organization. Breadth notion, which structures the selection of content and the chronological approach that serves as the only organizational pattern are problems of some consequence in history teaching. Two things are strongly implied in all this. First the syllabus is firmly centred on encapsulated periods of time. Therefore, it forces teachers and students to work inward from a chronological periphery, rather than outwards from a problematic centre.

Since the approach implies content or coverage as the starting point for planning, the syllabus seems to encourage fast history teaching against which Fines (108) warns us when he wrote, "fast history teaching tells lies, for it paints history not as it is, confused and confusing, bedraggled and messy, gloriously cluttered, inexplicable and maddening, and sorts it all out into one almighty washing line with only the pages left in place."

The second implication is that a chronologically organized syllabus encourages didactic, superficial and selective treatment of complex questions. It also deters depth inquiry that enables students to grasp the surrounding circumstances of problem, antecedents and consequences, concomitants and contrasts which affect the solution of the specific details of the problem itself.

The History Textbooks

The purpose of this section is to evaluate the textbooks currently in use by raising the following questions: Does the content of the textbook reflect the course objectives: Is there any correspondence between the content of the textbook and that of the syllabus? Is the content of the textbook accurate? What is its special point of view? Is the content intelligible to students for whom it is intended? Is it illustrated adequately? What is the character of these illustrations? Are the questions, and outlines, if it contains any, helpful?

History textbooks are part of the current provisions. The foregoing discussion has illuminated the fact that lack of appropriate textbooks has long been a challenging problem to the history teachers. The compiled notes provided for the teachers had only gone half way to solve the problem. Though change was

introduced into the syllabus after 1974, the problem remained unsolved until 1979. For various reasons the designers of the new history syllabus were unable to prepare textbooks so that the same tradition of providing history teachers with new compiled notes began in 1975 (New History Notes For Grade 9, 1975). But students had been without compiled notes all along. The response to the needs of students and teachers alike, for textbooks, only came in 1979 when the social science panel began the preparation of the presumed standardized textbooks (History Textbooks For grades 11 and 12, 1979).

Understandably, with the preparation of standardized textbooks that reflect so fully the syllabus content, the question of the history teachers would make a shift; a shift from the need for any type of textbook to a need for a quality textbook. If a textbook is used as a principal teaching material the quality of the textbook becomes a problem of some consequence in history teaching. A test of relevance is one of the steps to be taken in the examination of the quality of textbooks. In his recent book, Tekeste Negash has attempted to evaluate the history textbooks. The evaluation of contents in terms of relevance was his major intention. With this end in view he raised a question "what should Ethiopian students study under the subject history?" as a basis for his evaluation (54-55).

Tekeste has found the history textbooks "irrelevant, purposeless" and poor in quality. For such inadequacies he then primarily blamed the "authors" and accused them of being "incompetent" (Ibid.) But with what degree of fairness? Is the poor quality of the textbook due totally to the incompetence of

the "authors" or due to other prevailing factors? It is evident that Tekeste did not try to evaluate the relevancy of the content in terms of the syllabus objectives. Nor did he attempt to evaluate it in relation to the ideas or programs that determined the "authors" general point of view. As his evaluation evidently shows Tekeste was lacking an understanding of the notion that shaped the history program and the factors that determined the authors' general point of view.

Concerning the notion that shaped the history program he seems to have understood that the state considers history teaching as a useful means for "nation building". This belief is self-evident from the mention of the heavy reliance of the state on history "in its campaign against the forces of secession" (Ibid.). Does the government call upon the teaching of history for "nation-building?" The answer to this question is emphatically no. It is one thing to use history in public speeches or through mass media against the forces of secession but it is a different thing to demand the placement of history in the school curriculum for nation-building. As has been shown above, the history syllabus was shaped by the ideological commitment of the state rather than by the notion of nationalism. In view of this fact the first thing that Tekeste had to seek to answer should not have been the type of history which students are supposed to learn but the reasons that worked behind the placement of history in the school curriculum or the reasons why students are required to learn history.

To be sure history teaching has not been intended for the enhancement of nation-building. For none of the syllabus objectives are meant to reflect this ideal. Since history

teaching has been intended to foster a socialist consciousness, quite the contrary to Tekeste's belief or expectation, all the objectives are meant to reflect socialist ideals. The criticism that can be made against him is that it is unfair of the author to draw such an unfounded conclusion and indictment by evaluating the relevancy of the content in terms of an objective which is not part of the syllabus objectives but one of his own creation. Therefore, Tekeste's use of "nation-building" as an evaluation criterion is consequent upon his failure to determine the idea or program that shaped the history syllabus. He then failed to determine the factors that determined the "authors" general point of view.

A number of factors will determine the authors' general point of view. As stated in the review of related literature section, textbooks have sometimes shaped and sometimes followed the idea of the makers of history programs. As a result, the authors' general point of view may be determined by some program of indoctrination established by the state or official decree or by public opinion or by personal conviction of the authors themselves. Moreover, the authors' general point of view can sometimes be set forth in the preface of the textbooks and sometimes left to be determined from the facts selected, from the manner in which these facts are interpreted and from the distribution of emphasis.

The first thing that strikes one in studying these textbooks is the scarcity of recognized authors. The textbooks were produced by Kindergarten and Formal Education Division, Social Science Panel of the Curriculum and Supervision Department (see the title pages of the textbooks). These are

also people who developed the syllabus itself. Members of these Panels are also employees of the Ministry of Education. From this it appears quite clear that the Ministry of Education has assumed the role of both producer and consumer. Therefore, beyond any reasonable doubt, the history textbooks have followed the ideas of the makers of the program whereby the authors' general point of view was determined by the program of indoctrination established by the state. Personal conviction as a determining factor in the authors' general point of view cannot be therefore assumed. Of course, no one who has a good deal of experience of the Ethiopian educational system would expect public opinion to be a conditioning factor, for public opinion has barely an influence in the educational system of the country.

The "authors'" general point of view is clearly set forth in the preface of the grade 10 textbook. There it is stated that some of the important events in Ethiopian history are presented to help students acquire knowledge about the "legalities of the social development of Ethiopia towards socialism and communism." It is also said that historical events selected from world history ought to serve as important precondition for understanding the social development of Ethiopia at present. With this end in view the section of Ethiopian history is presented in part two of the textbook, while the section on world history, which is the major part of the textbook, occupies part one (History Textbook For Grade 10, 1980). This point of view is certainly a reflection of the basic notion, fostering a socialist consciousness, that governs the program of history.

Seen in terms of the syllabus objectives, not only are the contents of the textbooks relevant but they also reflect the basic notion by which the syllabus was shaped. The textbooks were prepared in such a way that they fully reflect the content of the syllabus. All the topics in the syllabus have been given coverage, though the distribution of emphasis varies from one topic to another. However, the criticism that has already been made does not totally invalidate Tekeste's evaluation. His evaluation pertaining to other related problems are highly valid. Of all aspects of the textbooks, he has examined most critically the accuracy of the presented content. He has presented many instances that depict the inaccuracy of the content of the textbooks. It would be, therefore, a waste of time to go all over again and evaluate the accuracy of the content.

One thing that can be added is that the presentation of the content lacks coherence. Although the instances are many, presenting one example from the grade ten textbook will demonstrate the incoherent presentation of the content. The topics in chapter eight deal with the end and the aftermath of the First World War. But before discussing the end of the war and the Peace Treaty of Versailles, the content deals with the topic "The General Crisis of Capitalism: First Phase" - which covers a period between 1917 and 1939. According to the arrangements of the course, this is a topic that should be presented in the grade eleven textbook in the chapter that deals with the capitalist world between the Two World Wars (History Textbook For Grade 10, 1980: 180-185; and History Textbook For Grade 11, 1979: 38-80).

Other basic elements to consider relate to the intelligibility of the content, the presentation of different points of view and the adequacy of illustrations. Of the four textbooks the grade nine textbook is better of in terms of intelligibility and illustrations. Those who prepared it did, to some extent take into account students' comprehension ability. They did not, of course reproduce the work of one single historian. In this respect one can refer to them as authors. But this term of designation cannot be applied to them when one considers the three remaining textbooks. It appears that in an attempt to relate to the experiences of other socialist countries both the syllabus and the resulting textbooks have much to draw from the syllabi and textbooks of some socialist countries. What happened was that the Soviet historians' book, *A Short History of the World* (1974), and Endre Sik's book, *The History of Black Africa* (1976), were simply reproduced (with some chapters left out) in the form of textbooks. In the light of such a mere reproduction, let alone to referring to authors talking of compilers appears to be too much.

This must not be taken to imply an objection to the reproduction. There is nothing wrong in reproducing a work which is found appropriate and suitable to Ethiopian realities. It must not be forgotten, however, that the reproduction was made only to meet the need of the state. Students' needs, capabilities, background and the realities of Ethiopian senior secondary schools were not, at the least, taken into account.

Two things are strongly implied in all this. First, while the need for suitable materials that reflect the materialist conception of history caused the reproduction of certain books

in the form of a textbook, the need for intelligibility, to enhance students' understanding, means that substantial attention should have been paid to the students' comprehension ability and the language problem in historical education as well. Reproducing these books, which were originally produced with general readers in mind and with no attempt to relate to the comprehension ability of Ethiopian senior secondary school students, eminently creates problems of intelligibility.

This question of intelligibility can also be seen from another dimension. The books which were reproduced in the form of textbooks attempt to survey a considerable area or periods of time. For example, as stated in the preface of the first volume, the Soviet historians' book (1976) "attempts to trace the long and complex path traversed by the human race from the era of primitive society right up to the present day." At the same time the authors of the book informed their readers that the size of the book makes it impossible to give an equally full and detailed account of all the events under discussion. The implication is that in such an attempt the book compressed a number of ideas, topics or themes into a small space. As Tavel (1966: 318) points out, the more an idea is compressed the more vague and abstract it becomes and consequently the more difficult it becomes for the learner to grasp.

Seen in this light, the textbooks appear to be far less concerned with the factors that influence students' understanding in history. The fact that history lessons cannot be experienced directly but students must learn them through vicarious experience indicates the central role of language as a medium of instruction in historical education. In the

preceding chapter (review of the related literature) it was discussed that the co-existence of two languages (native language and the second official language which is a medium of instruction) makes historical education in most parts of Africa more complicated and problematic. In fact, the problem is more grave in Ethiopia because of the co-existence of three languages; mother tongue, Amharic as an official language and English as a medium of instruction. In the process of observing the classroom interactions the researcher has attempted to note some problems pertaining to history teaching. The researcher's observational evidence clearly reveals that the Amharic language is becoming the informal medium of instruction. Students more frequently ask question in Amharic and the teacher too used the same language in his explanation. This is a rough indication of students' problem with the existing medium of instruction, i.e. English.

The second implication is that the textbooks do not present different interpretations or points of views. The fact that historians differ in their interpretation of the past seems to suggest that these differences will be available and familiar to readers. If historical instruction is far more bent on exposing students to one point of view or form of interpretation true education will be sacrificed. It follows that some of the recognized results of historical instruction, such as tolerance of different faiths, different loyalties, different cultures, idea and ideals, will not be realized. As mere reproductions of those two books mentioned above the textbooks come out with the point of view that is presented in the original sources. Although Sik's book is totally concerned with African societies

and the other with the world at large, both of them have reflected one general point of view. For instance, as clearly set forth in the preface of the first volume (1974) of their work, the Soviet historians report that they wrote the history of the world basing themselves on the concrete historical material and the Marxist - Leninist theory on the laws governing development of human society.

Even though historical writings are not free from partiality, it has to be recognized that the seriousness of the problem varies from one type of reader to another. It is not, for instance, a serious problem to professional historians or to those readers who can draw conclusions from the facts that are submitted to them, for they are not so obtuse as to fail to discern bias, prejudice, distortion and partiality. But this is by no means a familiar common place quality that can be found in the student who comes, to a large extent, unprepared to the contemplation of a chapter of history. In view of this, reproducing books that reflect one point of view and attempt to erect a sole standard of historical judgment is nothing more than confining students to a single account of a chapter of history.

This danger can be warded off when the authors' or compilers attempt to be ever on guard against religious, racial, class, national or ideological preconceptions which was, of course, impossible under the circumstance in which the textbooks were prepared. As a way of guarding against these preconceptions, historians (Crookall, 128; Daniel, 13; and Commager, 37) suggest that the writer should try to see every problem from all possible points of view. Taking the argument

one step further, Crookall (128) has recommended the preparations of two textbooks by different authors that would present different points of view. Although important this suggestion is, its application in our school situation is unfeasible. This is so because it is the Ministry of Education which undertakes the preparation as well as the distribution of textbooks. As a matter of policy the Ministry produces and then distributes textbooks to each school from where students can borrow.

The reference to the unfeasibility of the suggestion should not, however, be misconstrued as a justification of the policy of the Ministry in toto, or the deeds of those who prepared the textbooks. It is not, of course, proper to prepare a textbook which reprobates all past achievements and exalts socialism and rejoices in the triumph of the October Revolution of Russia. They should not go out in this way to condemn or to praise these things. As things stand, the assumption seems to be that students have no mind of their own, no moral standards, no capacity to exercise judgment. Or students' minds are considered as *tabula rasa*. As for the policy of the Ministry, although the act of distributing textbooks to different schools to be lent to students is advantageous in taking care of those who could not afford to buy textbooks, the Ministry should devise a means which would encourage subject specialists to participate in the preparation of the textbooks.

Visual Communication

Not only should a textbook be written in a simple and understandable language to enhance students' understanding but

it should also be adequately illustrated by visual communication. It should be emphasized that in a school environment where the new medium of recordings hardly exists the written words of the textbook should be supplemented by illustrations. A closer look into the textbooks reveals that a number of illustrations are presented in the text. The following table attempts to show the type of illustrations used and their frequency of appearance. The table is constructed by counting the illustrations from each textbook.

Table 3.1. Type of Illustrations and Frequency of Appearance

Textbooks by grade level	Type of Illustrations and Frequency of Appearance in no.				
	Picture	Map	Sketch	Diagram	Time-Chart
Grade Nine	21	15	32	2	3
Grade Ten	18	11	32	-	-
Grade Eleven	48	41	1	-	1
Grade Twelve	19	-	-	-	-

The number of illustrations presented in the textbooks is seemingly adequate. Yet it should be remembered that Crookall (84) remarked: the measure of a well illustrated textbook should not be the quantity of illustrations but the quality. Quality wise, to be regarded as a well illustrated textbook, the illustrations need to be clear, simple, accurate, purposeful, supplementation of the text and they should have sufficient explanatory notes.

The illustrations of these textbooks do really lack these attributes. Almost all of the illustrations appear in the texts without explanatory notes. A number of them lack simplicity,

clarity and accuracy. The map of South Africa in grade nine textbook (p. 45), the map of Europe in grade ten textbook (p.200) that shows state frontier in 1914 and in 1923, and the map of Europe in grade eleven textbook (P. 202) that shows territorial changes in Europe following the Second World War are notable examples of those illustrations which lack simplicity. They are too detailed, so much so that they tend to confuse students instead of helping them understand the text. The political map of Africa that appears on page 140 of the grade ten textbook to show the colonies of different European countries can be cited as an example that demonstrates the inaccurate presentation of illustrations. On this map Sp. Guniea which was a Spanish colony is indicated as a colony of Germany. Besides Northern Somalia, on the same map, is painted with a dark colour differently from other British colonies.

There are also a number of illustrations that reveal the slackness of those who prepared the textbooks. Many illustrations' were presented carelessly with no purpose and not as a supplementation of the text. To cite one example, the sketch on page 208 of the grade ten textbook refers to hunting in Ethiopia by traditional means but no where does the textbook present a description about hunting. Moreover, the repetitive appearance of same pictures is also nonsense. These are the pictures of Marx, Engels, and Lenin; the picture of Marx and Engels appear both in grade nine and grade ten textbooks, whereas Lenin's picture appears in grade ten and grade eleven textbooks. These are, however, pictures that do not need repetitious appearance, for they are abundantly available in the revolutionary squares of every city and town of the country as

well as in many school compounds.

In short, the illustrations of grade nine textbook, to a larger extent, and that of grade ten, to some extent, both in terms of quality and quantity, are better by far than the illustrations of the other textbooks. It is particularly the former textbook which was illustrated by a variety of illustrations. Especially the attempt of the writers to illustrate it through diagrams, sketches and time-charts is an indication of the amount of effort they exerted, and it is indeed appreciable.

Lists of Suitable Activities and Textbook Organization

Lists of suitable activities for students and the manner of textbook organization are also important elements that reflect the quality of a textbook. As indicated in the review of the related literature, lists of suitable activities that usually appear at the end of each chapter are helpful in focusing students attention on what the author has judged to be the most important points. The textbooks for grade nine and ten have fulfilled this requirement. But not the textbooks for the upper two grades. The textbook for grade nine contains a number of questions just on every page, while the questions in the grade ten textbook appear at the end of each chapter. In both cases questions of different type, fact finding and thought provoking, were framed. In fact the grade nine textbook contains too many higher order questions which seem to be very difficult for a grade nine student who seemingly has no prior experience of that type of question (see Appendix 7).

It is with respect to the manner of organization that these

textbooks have displayed their strong side. All of them have a table of content that will give the student a summary of the textbook in an outline form and help his/her to locate the chapter he wants. Of course, all the textbooks lack any index which would enable the student to develop a skill of locating information about specific items in the textbooks. The subject-matter of these textbooks are divided into units, chapters, headings and sub-headings. This is an important aspect of the textbooks because, as McPhie (1969: 463) points out, dividing the content into chapters, then into headings and sub-headings will help students to organize the content in their mind which consequently serves them as comprehension check point.

Equally important are the introduction of the grade nine textbook and the prefaces of the three other textbooks that contain the authors' or compilers explanatory remarks. They provide students with information that is essential for understanding the texts. However, the suggestion in the preface of the grade eleven and twelve textbooks (what is written in the preface of both textbooks is one and the same) is absurd. Its absurdity lies in recommending students to make a careful additional reading of relevant African and Ethiopian history by consulting the Soviet historians' book, **A Short History of World**. Strikingly enough, other than being reproduced in the form of textbooks for these grades, the book only contains one picture and a description of less than 80 words about Ethiopia (Manfred, 184).

To be used as an effective instructional tool in the teaching - learning process, a textbook must be well prepared. It needs to be stressed, however, that the well preparedness of

a textbook is not a guarantee in itself. The effectiveness of a textbook as an instructional tool depends on the manner of its utilization. Effective utilization of a textbook is also a function of the skill and predisposition of the teacher. The next section of the study attempts to analyze the attitudes of history teachers towards the current provision, that is, both the syllabus and the textbooks.

PART TWO

Report, Analysis and Interpretation of Findings

The purpose of this part of the study is to substantiate the major concerns raised earlier in the study and to answer the basic questions of the study by reporting, analyzing and interpreting data obtained from the questionnaire, classroom observation and information gathered through interviews. The part is divided into two sections. In section one, the data obtained through questionnaire and interviews' are tabulated and reported in whole numbers or percentages, then analyzed and interpreted. Section two is concerned with analysis and interpretation of data collected by a classroom observation schedule. The data pertaining to the classroom interaction are analyzed in terms of average lesson percentages. A two-way analysis of variance is also used to determine variation in the use of teaching methods and the associated coefficients of reliability.

Section One

3.2. Practical Problems in the Teaching of History at Present

Following are fourteen tables in which the reaction of respondents to the items raised in the questionnaire are presented.

Level of Qualification, Teaching Experience and Teaching Loads of respondents

It was one of the items of the questionnaire to determine respondents preparation for the teaching of history. By way of ascertaining their preparation for the teaching of history,

respondents were asked to indicate the level of qualification they have attained. It has been found that 29 per cent of the respondents have qualification at a diploma level, 65 per cent (almost two-third) have earned a B.A. degree and 6 per cent of the respondents have neither a degree nor a diploma (see Table 3.2). As can be understood from the same table, not all who have earned a diploma or a degree graduated in history. Out of 94 per cent (sum total of those who have earned a diploma and a B.A. degree) 85 per cent have a diploma or a B.A. degree in history, while the remaining 9 per cent have a diploma or a degree in some other subjects other than history.

Table 3.2. Distribution of Respondents by Qualification

Level of Qualification	Percentage of Respondent Qualification		
	In History	In Other Subjects	Total
Below Diploma	6	-	6
Diploma	25	4	29
B.A. Degree	60	5	65
M.A. Degree	-	-	-
	91	9	100

There can be no doubt that the senior secondary schools need capable history teachers. Speaking in the most specific of terms, Crookall (218) says that the history teacher belongs to the teaching profession and the profession of an historian. It follows that to be competent, the history teacher needs to fulfil the requirements of his/her professions. Two things are strongly implied here. First, being a member of a profession of an historian, the history teacher should attain the level of

qualification which would make him/her knowledgeable in his/her subject. In this respect, if qualification is measured by diploma or degree obtained, the majority of the respondents seem to have adequate qualification. But it is doubtful to say that qualification at a diploma level is adequate for senior secondary school teachers.

As shown in Table (3.2), teachers who are not qualified in history but in some other subjects are being assigned to teach history courses. Although the number of these teachers is very small (9 per cent), their assignment to teach history tends to reflect the assumption that anyone who could read and understand what is presented in the textbook could teach history. The prevalence of this assumption in many social studies programs of the past and the present is noted by Aggarwal (184). This assumption seems to suggest that all that is necessary is a textbook and the ability to read it. In this case the concern of the teacher is then merely to see that the students knew the facts presented in the textbook. If so where is the cultivation of the ability to inquire in this scheme of educational values?

The assumption valued insufficiently the fact that textbooks are the means to an education. They are not the end. While the significance of imparting information is given some consideration, the function of the teacher as director of the learning process is minimized. Given that teachers who have never studied history are assigned to teach history courses, even the consideration given to the content should not be exaggerated. The fact that history requires constant re-interpretation suggests that the history teacher needs to have a genuine professional interest in the study of history. He/she

should not loose interest in the subject and stop reading new publications. For a history teacher who stops reading history, says Crookall (223), would tend to rely on the class textbooks and on what he/she already knows.

The second implication is that the history teacher should not only keep his/her professional interest in the study of history and be knowledgeable in the subject but he/she should also have the essential skills and understanding that are necessary for the good teaching of his/her subject, in that teaching is a profession with its own purposes, standards, techniques and accumulated body of knowledge. As shown in Table (3.2), the majority of the respondents appear to have the necessary pedagogical background, since the graduate of history both at the diploma and degree level have been required to take education courses which would equip them with some skills and understanding of teaching.

As to the accumulated body of knowledge Table (3.3) shows that the respondents have had a good deal of teaching experience. As indicated by the respondents 7.5 per cent of them have taught between one and five years and 22.5 per cent have taught between six and ten years. Whereas the majority of the respondents (62.5 per cent which is a sum total of respondents who have taught between 11 and 15, and between 16 and 20 years) have taught between eleven and twenty years. The number of respondents who have had more than twenty-one years of teaching experience is the same as the number of teachers who have taught between one and five years.

Table 3.3 Teaching Experience of Respondents

Range In Years	Respondents	
	No.	%
1 - 5	6	7.5
6 - 10	18	22.5
11 - 15	25	31.25
16 - 20	25	31.25
21 - and above	6	7.5
Total	80	100

Perhaps on the basis of what the study group has reflected, it may be argued that, the number of respondents who appear to have adequate qualification and number of years of experience is significant (concerning the number of years of experience the applicability of this data to the history teachers in most of the provincial schools is doubtful, since fresh graduates are usually assigned there). It needs to be stressed, however, that the level of their qualification and their years of experience are not guarantees for teaching competence. Their teaching competence would by and large depend on the kind and quality of training they have gone through, their predisposition towards teaching and their effort exerted to improve their competency, the follow-up studies (if there is any) undertaken by their institution and the working conditions they have had.

While most of these factors are beyond the scope of this study, the working condition of history teachers is one area of

investigation. The study approaches the problem from two angles: from their teaching load and from the quality of current provisions. Table (3.4) and Table (3.5) present the teaching load of respondents - teaching load in terms of teaching hours and class size. This survey of the teaching loads of history teachers shows that all the respondents teach less than 30 hours which is the maximum load specified by the Ministry of Education. As shown in Table (3.4), on the average the respondents teach 19 hours per week. Better than a quarter (29 per cent) teaches more than 20 hours load; somewhat fewer than one-seventh of the respondents (14 per cent) teach not more than 10 hours.

Table 3.4 Teaching Load of Respondents

Teaching Hours Per week	Respondents.	
	No	%
Some but less than 6	-	-
6 - 8	3	4
9 - 10	8	10
Total Under 10	11	14
11 - 12	4	5
13 - 15	9	11
16 - 18	-	-
19 - 20	33	41
More than 20	23	29
Total over 11	69	86
Grand Total	80	100

As another measure of teaching load, this survey obtained data about the average size of history classes and number of sections the respondents are teaching at present. The average size of a history class is seventy-four, but 29 percent of the respondents are teaching more than 75 students in a classroom. On average (total number of students/total number of respondents) respondents are teaching 567 students in a semester (see Table 3.5).

To a question (In which grade/s do you teach at present?) posed to find out whether or not respondents are required more than one course preparation, more than half of all the respondents (54 per cent) reported that two separate course (courses of different grades) preparation are required, forty-six per cent reported one course preparation requirement (only for one grade).

Table 3.5. Average Sizes of History Classes at Various Grades

Average Sizes of History classes	Number of Respondents	Assigned Sections	Total Number of Students
40	7	10	2800
54	5	12	3240
60	8	3	1440
62	3	11	2046
65	20	11	14300
70	10	11	7770
73	4	7	2044
73	9	7	4225
80	2	6	960
82	5	5	2050
96	7	6	4032
Total 757	80	89	45407

N.B.: Since the number of students assigned per section and number of sections assigned per teacher varies the figures are presented in average.

predominate in history classes (the issue pertaining to teaching methods will be discussed in section two of this part of the study).

**Respondents Attitude Towards the Quality of the
Current Syllabus and Textbooks**

This survey demonstrates that a great number of the respondents have a widespread dissatisfaction with the current syllabus and textbooks. Table (3.6) shows the respondents' attitude towards the quality of the syllabus. From this table (3.6), it appears that respondents have dissatisfaction with the three aspects of the syllabus: objectives, content, and form of organization. The three elements of the syllabus are rated inadequate by 95, 94 and 93 per cent of the respondents respectively. The remaining respondents (5, 6 and 7 per cent respectively) have rated them as adequate. In order of inadequacy, the objectives come first, the content second and the form of organization third.

Table 3.6 The Quality of the History Syllabus

Order of Inadequacy	Aspect of the Syllabus	Respondents Reporting Adequacy		Respondents Reporting Inadequacy	
		No.	%	No.	%
1	Objectives	4	5	76	95
2	Content	5	6	75	94
3	Organization	6	7	74	93

In addition to their rating of the three aspects of the syllabus as inadequate, respondents have indicated some specific inadequacies. The specific inadequacies reported by respondents

on the objectives and content of the syllabus are presented in Table (3.7). Of those who rated the objectives as inadequate (see Table 3.6) ninety-seven per cent said that the objectives have had a purpose of propaganda, and twenty-seven per cent said that the objectives are not stated clearly and unambiguously. Only six per cent of them indicated that the objectives are not defined in terms of concepts, skills and attitudes.

Concerning the content of the syllabus, a majority of the respondents (87 per cent) reported that the content of the syllabus does not include the most significant and relevant events or topics. A very significant number of respondents (99 per cent) reported the inadequate treatment given to Ethiopian and African history. To a question posed to know their over all opinion almost all of the respondents (99 per cent) stressed on the inadequate emphasis given to Ethiopian and African history. Particularly, they reacted against the total exclusion of Ethiopian history from grades 11 and 12 courses.

Table 3.7 Specific Inadequacies of the Objectives and Content of the Syllabus.

Specific Inadequacies	Respondents	
	No.	%
Objectives are not stated clearly and unambiguously	21	27
The objectives have had a purpose of indoctrination	74	97
Objectives are not stated in terms of concepts, skills and attitudes	5	6
The content does not include the most significant and relevant topics or events	71	87
Equal emphasis is not given to each section of the syllabus	74	99
Ethiopian and African history have not given due place	74	99

The basic reasoning for the justification of the place of history in Ethiopian school curriculum was discussed in the preceding section (section 3.1.3). As clearly shown in that section, after 1974 the place of history in the school curriculum was justified by its utilitarian purpose. Historical knowledge was assumed to be practical knowledge and the purpose of history teaching was perceived in terms of its practicality. Thus the teaching of history was supposed to justify the Marxist-Leninist ideology which the then regime attempted to implant in the minds of the peoples. As a result, all the objectives of the syllabus were meant to reflect this ideal. Such a notion does not therefore, appear illusive for the majority of the respondents. They have clearly sensed the basic reasoning that postulated the designers of the program when they said the teaching of history has had a purpose of indoctrination

with students' interest. Therefore, the suggestion of the respondents for the placement of Ethiopian history in the upper grades (11 and 12) is not unrealistic. Surely, it is an indication of the respondents' notion of the many reasons that justify the teaching of history. They seem to oppose the teaching of history for the purpose of indoctrination.

Nevertheless, the majority of the respondents appear to have little clear notion of how syllabus objectives should be defined. The fact that only 6 per cent reports about the absence of objectives defined in terms of concepts, skills and attitudes tend to suggest that a great number of the respondents seem to have no idea about the recent emphasis on such an approach. Rather, they seem to be well accustomed with the traditional way of defining objectives, i.e., objectives defined in terms of knowledge. What is more, those (27 per cent) who said the objectives are not defined clearly and unambiguously also seem uncritical about their evaluation. To be fair, the objectives are clear and unambiguous (see appendix 6).

Seen in terms of the discussion in section 3.1.3, the specific inadequacies reported by the respondents about the content of the syllabus are sound. A significant number of respondents (see table 3.7) appear to repine at the omission of significant topics and variation on the different sections. As the discussion in section 3.1.3 shows; the reports of the respondents is fully supported by the findings of the most recent study. To a question posed to know their opinion about students' area of interest, all the respondents reported that their students have had a keen interest in learning the history of their own country. Perhaps on the basis of respondents' response, it may be argued that the variation of emphasis given to the different section of the syllabus is not in consonance

From the response obtained it appears that the number of respondents who expressed a favourable attitude towards the chronological approach by which the syllabus they have used is being organized is insignificant. It appears that the majority of the respondents are in favour of one of the other three approaches. As shown in the review of literature and related research, the superiority of one form of organization over the other has not yet been established. Due to the absence of conclusive evidence researchers then stress on the importance of considering the alleged advantage of the other approaches, while using one specific approach. Only one respondent appears to support this viewpoint.

Such lack of evidence, of course, has never deterred educationist and historians from proposing a form of organization which they consider as more appropriate. Over the recent decades, the three approaches (topical, problem and social-processes) have gained much more emphasis (Rogers, 19; Sansom, 139; Smallbone, 142 and Crinnion, 154). At the same time history syllabus that is organized around the principle of periodization rather than historical problems is now under attack. For it suggests content or coverage as a starting point for syllabus planning and it encourages didactic and superficial treatment of complex historical problems. Looked at from this angle, one can say that the suggestion of the majority of the respondents (sum total of those who suggest the three approaches) is congruent with current thinking about the form of syllabus organization.

The negative attitude of the majority of the respondents to a chronological approach seems to be caused by the inadequacies

of the approach. A chronologically organized syllabus is said to have caused teachers suffer from a want of time and encouraged fast history teaching (Fines, 108). In answering the question. How many chapters of the textbooks do you often cover? respondents indicate their suffering from a want of time. While the problem is less prevalent in grades 9, 11 and 12, it is more prevalent with the course content of grade ten. Invariably all respondents who have taught in this grade have reported that they usually cover three-fourth of the course content. One can imagine how unfortunate history students are who do have to play race horse with their teachers as their course goes into the stretch near the end of May. At this time real learning becomes less important than the obviously significant task of covering the content.

Another basic area to investigate relate to the textbooks which are part of the current provisions. Table (3.9) shows that 76 per cent of the respondents declared that the textbook is their principal material for the teaching of history. About 16 per cent of the respondents appear to supplement the textbook by other reference materials, while 8 per cent of the respondents seem to be totally repined at the textbooks and they have preferred to use books that cover some portion of the syllabus content.

Table 3.9. Instructional Tools that are used by Respondents
for the Preparation of History Lessons

Type of Instructional Tools	Respondents	
	No.	%
Only textbook	61	76
Only books that cover some portion of the syllabus content	6	8
Textbook Supplemented by other reference materials	13	16
Total	80	100

The number of the respondents who rely heavily on the textbook is significant (76 per cent). It follows that history teaching in the schools seem to be highly textbook-oriented. Of the seven means of enriching history instruction (see item 40 of the questionnaire in Appendix 1) not a single one was reported by the respondents. It seems that all the respondents have never used such means to enrich history instruction. There is an agreement between this finding and Tavel's (1966) finding about history teaching in most of the American schools in the 1960s (see Chapter Two). It needs to be stressed, however, that these schools in which the respondents teach suffer from a scarcity of reference materials. As the researcher personally observed, the libraries of the different senior secondary schools of Addis Ababa have few history books (see the list in Appendix 8). It is found, of course, that some enthusiastic teachers have been borrowing books from the library run by the British Council and also bought books from the book centre of Addis Ababa University and the book shops of Kuraz Publishing Agency (see Table 3.10).

But one thing we should know is that not only a limited number and variety of books are available at the book centre and book shops mentioned above, but also their prices are discouragingly expensive; at least prohibitive enough for the teacher who cannot afford to buy more than, at the most, one book after a year's saving. What is more serious is that almost all provincial towns do not have some of these privileges.

Table 3.10 Sources of Supply for Reference Materials Used

Sources of Supply	Number of Respondents
British Council Library	16
The Book Centre of Addis Ababa University	3
The Book Shops of Kuraz Publishing Agency	6
Total	25

Given the limited library service, given the scarcity of bookshops that carry a large stock of books, given the expensive cost of those available books and given the total absence of historical societies that are especially concerned with historical research and with the teaching of history in the country, one should not be surprised if the history teacher relies on the textbook. In the face of material scarcity heavy reliance on the class textbook seems to be unavoidable, no matter how convinced the history teachers are that heavy reliance on the textbook is undesirable. This must not be taken as an apology but if history teachers fall short of using a variety of teaching materials then the teachers cannot primarily be blamed. The only way to prevent this happening is to resolve

that the history teachers will have the means to maintain and expand their historical interest.

Even though the number of respondents who seem to reject totally the use of the textbook is small (8 per cent), their reaction pointed towards one problem—the quality of the textbook. When history teaching becomes textbook-oriented the quality of the textbook becomes a problem of some consequence in history teaching. As Table (3.13) shows, the majority of the respondents (66 per cent) reported that the "authors'" general point of view was determined by the program of indoctrination established by the state, whereas 34 per cent of the respondents have attributed it to the personal conviction of the authors' themselves. No one of the history teacher participating in this survey reported public opinion as a determinant factor in the authors' general point of view.

Table 3.11. Factors that Determined the Authors

General Point of View

Factors	Respondents In %
Program of Indoctrination established	
by the State	66
Public Opinion	-
The Authors' Personal Conviction	34
Total	100

The earlier discussion on the history syllabus clearly demonstrates that the syllabus is clearly understood by the significant number of the respondents. In most cases their response showed a complete agreement with the results of the most current study, by Tekeste Negash, and the evaluation results of the researcher himself (see section 3.1.3). As shown in Table (3.11), a significant number of the respondents also seem to have a clearer understanding of the factors that determined the authors' general point of view. As the preceding discussion (Section 3.1.3) revealed, the authors' general point of view was clearly set forth in the preface of the grade 10 textbook and it is certainly a reflection of the program of indoctrination established by the state.

It should be remembered that the selection of facts, the manner in which these facts are interpreted and presented as well as the distribution of emphasis are greatly influenced by the authors' general point of view. These are elements which, to a larger extent, affect the quality of the textbook. Thus, other basic elements to consider relate to the intelligibility of the content, the accuracy of the presented content, the presentation of different points of view and the adequacy of the illustrations.

As Table (3.12) shows, a considerable number of the respondents respond to most of these elements negatively. Concerning the two features of the textbook (No. 1 and 4) there is a significant difference in the number of respondents who reacted negatively across the grades. A significant number of respondents (41 and 66 percent) respond positively to these features of the grade nine textbook. But in the case of the

three other textbooks (grades 10, 11 and 12) a significant number of respondents (75%, 100%, 100% to feature 1, and 56%; 100%, 100% to feature four respective of the grades) reacted negatively. With regard to the accuracy of the content and the presentation of different points of view the majority of the respondents (100% to the accuracy of the content and 84% to the presentation of different points of view) respond negatively to the textbooks of grades nine to twelve.

Table 3.12. Reactions of Respondents to the Features of the Textbooks (9 to 12)

Features	Reactions of Respondents															
	Grade 9		Grade 10		Grade 11		Grade 12		Grade 11		Grade 12					
	Yes %	No. %	Yes %	No. %	Yes %	No. %	Yes %	No. %	Yes %	No. %	Yes %	No. %				
1. Content of the textbook is intelligible to students	33	41	47	59	20	25	60	75	-	-	80	100	-	-	80	100
2. Content of the textbook is accurate	-	-	80	100	-	-	80	100	-	-	80	100	-	-	80	100
3. The textbook presents different points of view	13	16	67	84	13	16	67	84	13	16	67	84	13	16	67	84
4. Content of the textbook is adequately illustrated	53	66	27	34	35	44	45	56	-	-	80	100	-	-	80	100

The response of the respondents to the intelligibility and illustrations of the grade nine textbook is highly valid. It is true that the grade nine textbook is better of in terms of these features than the other textbooks. This is mainly because the authors' did exert a large amount of effort in the preparation of the grade nine textbook, which is a revised one. The other textbooks exhibited inadequacies not only with these two features but also with the other two features. Of all these

aspects respondents appear to stress more on the intelligibility of the content. To quote the statements of one respondent stated in response to the question that asks respondents overall opinion about the textbooks:

In vocabulary and construction the textbooks are not suitable for the class for which they are intended. They are full of jargon, unnecessary long and involved sentences. In short they seem to be written for third year university students.

Seen in terms of the preceding discussion (section 3.1.3) which pointed out the fact that the contents of the textbooks are mere reproductions of Andre Sik's and A.Z. Manfred's books, the criticisms thrown by the respondents are highly valid.

The reaction of the respondents to the other aspects of the textbooks is also fully supported by the findings of Tekeste's recent study. He has presented many instances which depicted the inaccurate presentation of historical facts and event (see *The Crisis of Ethiopian Education*, 1990, pp. 60-93). The results of the evaluation of the textbooks presented in section 3.1.3 of this study also support the reaction of respondents concerning the inadequacy of the visual communication of the textbooks.

From respondents' response, it can be argued that specific inadequacies related to the different aspects of the textbooks often trouble respondents. To be used as an effective instructional tool in the teaching-learning process, a textbook must be well prepared. Besides the well preparedness of a textbook, the manner of its utilization is also a concern in the educational enterprise. As Table (3.13) shows, more than two-third of the respondents are not using the textbook for skill

evaluating information; interpreting pictures, charts and tables (O'Connor, 1969: 253; Edgar, 1969; 438 and Tavel, 1966: 318).

Moreover, as shown in Chapter Two, over the recent decades researchers have suggested that the objectives of the history syllabus should be defined in terms of skills, concepts and attitudes. Such an emphasis further exacerbated the need to use the textbook for skill development. The worthiness and attractiveness of this suggestion should not be allowed, however, to obscure its fundamental implication. It must not be forgotten that to work towards such worthy end necessitates the development of a syllabus and the preparation of a textbook which encourage rather than obstruct skill development. A substantial reduction of teaching loads of the teacher is also essential, so that the teacher could pay attention to individual student. As had already been shown, these conditions are not available in our school situation. The syllabus includes no skill objective; the textbooks are not prepared in simple and understandable language which can be read and understood by the students without demanding a substantial help from the teacher. What is more, the size of the history class (the number of students in one classroom as well as the total number of students a teacher handles in a semester) does not enable the teacher to pay attention to individual student. Therefore, the defect seems to lie primarily in the program itself.

The foregoing discussion clearly demonstrates the existence of a long-felt discontent among respondents with the quality of the current provisions. Both the syllabus and the textbooks seem to obstruct rather than encourage good classroom practices. It should be emphasized that the quality of the provisions is

not only a concern to the history teachers but also a concern to students. The discussion in the review of the related literature and research shows that a steady decline in the number of students choosing the subject catalogued as one of the reasons that necessitate a radical overhaul of history teaching. The most valid reason for such decline is said to be found in the inadequacies of the syllabus, teaching materials and methodologies. The current status of history, seen in terms of the number of students choosing the subject, is therefore one area of investigation of the study.

Table (3.14) shows that, with the exception of four respondents who did not respond to the item, a great majority of the respondents (81 per cent) reported that senior secondary school students are opting, to a larger extent, for the natural science subjects rather than for the social science subjects. Only fourteen per cent of the respondents have answered I Do Not Know.

Table 3.14 Respondents Opinion about Students' Choice of Stream

Type of Stream	Responses in Percentage		
	More Students Opt for	Less Students Opt for	I Do Not Know
Social Science	-	81	14
Natural Science	81	-	14
Total	81	81	28

N.B. While completing grade 10 students have to opt for two streams (Natural Science and Social Science) but not for subjects. The social science stream includes history and geography whereas the natural science stream includes Biology, Physics and Chemistry.

There is no doubt that increasingly fewer students are willing to choose history (of course geography too). In Yekatit 12 and Entoto Academic and Vocational Schools, for instance, those students who have chosen social science stream are assigned in two sections whereas natural science students are being assigned in 11 and 13 sections, in the two schools. On the basis of respondents' reaction, it is reasonable therefore to argue that history is not popular among senior secondary school students. In fact there is no discordance between the response of the respondents and the response of the interviewees (students) as to the unpopularity of the subject.

The reasons for such decline of the subject's popularity seem to be varied and complex. Concern of employability, concern of winning scholarship and language difficulty are just few of the influencing factors reported by students selecting streams at the end of grade ten. The information obtained from the interviewees revealed that students' decisions concerning their choice of stream are directly or indirectly influenced by senior students (who are their friends) and high school teachers. There seem to be much talk from their friends about the necessity of language proficiency to learn history. The interviewees appear to have also a positive predisposition to their teachers of science subjects.

It is of interest to compare the findings for interviewees with comparable data obtained from the respondents (history teachers). As another measure of the factors that influence students' choice of stream, respondents were asked to indicate which of the six factors accounted for students' choice. Almost two-third of the respondents (66 per cent) reported concern of

science stream, while it discourages them from opting for the social science stream. The evidence to support this assertion is not far to seek. A simple assessment of the announcements for vacancy or further training provide us ample supportive data. Almost all the announcements require students/candidates better results in Mathematics English (which are common courses) and other natural science subjects rather than history or geography.

Additionally, although not a significant number of the respondents reported the attraction of the subject as an influencing factor, the effects of this concern (concern of employability) seem to be disproportionately exacerbated for history by the organizational and curricular expedients that are invoked by schools to meet these challenges. For one thing, the teaching of history is required for the sake of indoctrination. History is merely the incidental means in which this debatable outcome is embodied. As long as the student senses this purpose he will resent history courses. For another, the majority of the respondents appear to have a long-felt dissatisfaction with the current provisions. They could not, therefore, be as enthusiastic as they ought to be. Although the influence of the high school teacher was reported by a very small number of respondents, the history teachers seem to indirectly influence the decisions of students. Perhaps, then, one of the most valid reasons for such a state of affairs lies in the supposed inadequacies of the history syllabus, the teaching materials and methodologies. It is the purpose of the next section of the study to provide descriptive data about the classroom practices.

SECTION TWO

RESULTS OF THE OBSERVATION OF THE HISTORY CLASSROOM

To date educational research is entering a new phase. The classroom has become a central pre-occupation for educational research. Researchers are becoming increasingly concerned with what actually happens in the classroom and somewhat less concerned with what is assumed to happen. So that some descriptive data about the classroom behaviour is now available. The purpose of this section of the study is to describe current classroom practices in history teaching.

3.3. Analysis of Classroom Interaction.

Teaching Strategies

The frequencies of teaching strategies used by the teachers were expressed as average lesson percentages. The results are shown in Table 3.16. A two-way analysis of variance (teacher by visit)¹³ showed that the difference between teachers in the frequency with which they used expository teaching is insignificant ($F = 5.48, 9 \text{ df}, p < 0.001$). The very low incidence of source based inquiry was also coupled to a lack of significant teacher variation ($F = 5.48, 9 \text{ df}, P < 0.001$). The coefficients of reliability found by subtracting residual variance from teacher variance and expressing this answer as a proportion of teacher variance was 0.82.

¹³ An example for the computation of a two way analysis of variance is presented in Appendix 9.

Table 3.16 Variation in the Use of Teaching Strategies
(Average Lesson Percentages).

Strategies	Teacher										Average
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	
Exposition	99	99	98	98	98	98	96	95	94	94	97
Source-based											
Inquiry	1	1	2	2	2	2	4	5	6	6	3

N.B. The alphabets (A to J) are meant to represent the observed teachers.

Table 3.16 shows the frequencies of the two types of teaching strategies. Further analysis was carried out to determine the frequencies of different minor categories embodied in the two strategies. The frequencies of different minor categories were also expressed as average lesson percentages for each teacher. Eight of the minor categories were not used at all ($b_2, b_3, b_4, C_3, C_4, C_5, C_6, C_7$). Three of the minor categories were rarely used (a_7, a_8 , and a_{11}). Seven of the minor categories accounted for 27 per cent of the total lesson time ($a_1, a_2, a_4, a_5, a_6, a_9$, and a_{10}). By contrast one minor category (a_3) accounted for almost half of every teacher's conversation. A two way analysis of variance (teachers by visits) showed a significant variation only with a_3 ($F = 9.4, 9 \text{ df}, p < 0.05$), and c_1 ($F = 6.45, 9 \text{ df}, P < 0.05$). The associated coefficients of reliability for these two minor categories were 0.89 and 0.94, respectively. The average lesson percentage for each of the ten teachers were then averaged to give the average lesson percentages presented in Table 3.17.

Table 3.17 Average Incidence of the Twenty-two Minor Categories of Teacher Conversation (Average Lesson Percentages)

Minor Category	Lesson Average
1a. Teacher Exposition includes	
a ₁ . Orientation	3
a ₂ . Defining	3
a ₃ . Describing	49
a ₄ . Narrating or reporting	5
a ₅ . Explaining	7
a ₆ . Use of audio-visual materials	3
a ₇ . Varying students activities	1
a ₈ . Giving direction	1
a ₉ . Comparing and contrasting	2
a ₁₀ . Closure	4
a ₁₁ . Citing examples	1
1b. Teacher directs students to sources of information for the purpose of:	
b ₁ . Acquiring or confirming facts	3
b ₂ . Identifying problems	0
b ₃ . Making Inferences	0
b ₄ . Seeking guidance on historical methodology	0
1c. Teacher asks question that calls for:	
c ₁ . Recall	9
c ₂ . Comprehension	2
c ₃ . Application	0
c ₄ . Analysis	0
c ₅ . Synthesis	0
c ₆ . Evaluation	0
c ₇ . Heuristic	0

Students Participation in History Lesson

The survey further attempted to investigate talk and activity initiated and/or maintained by students. The frequencies of the minor categories of student talk and activity were expressed as average lesson percentages for each teacher. The results are shown in Table 3.18. Five of the minor categories were not used at all (d_2 , d_3 , e_2 , e_3 , and e_4). A two-way analysis of variance (teacher by visits) showed that the low incidence of consulting sources to acquire or confirm facts by students was coupled to a lack of significant teacher variation ($F = 1.41$). The difference between teachers in the frequency with which students participated in history lesson through expository activities is significant ($F=3.89$, 9 df, $p < 0.05$). The associated coefficient of reliability for this category (e_1) was 0.76.

Table 3.18 Incidence of the Minor Categories of Students Talk and Activity (average lesson percentages)

Minor Category	Lesson Average
2_a Students seek information or consult sources for the purpose of	
d_1 Acquiring or confirming facts	1
d_2 Identify problems	0
d_3 Making inferences, formulating or testing hypothesis	0
2_c Students participate in history lesson through	
e_1 Expository activities	6
e_2 Role playing	0
e_3 Simulation	0
e_4 Case studies	0

spent on a source-based inquiry strategy. Despite the fact that some incidence of source based inquiry was observed students were directed to the presented sources of information for the purpose of acquiring or confirming facts (b₁). They were not encouraged to go beyond mere acquisition of facts to identify problems, make inferences, and seek guidance for historical methodology.

The results of this observational study also showed that talk and activity initiated by students only accounted for 7 per cent of the total lesson time. Even then most of their talk and activity came as a response to the exposition of the teacher (e₁). The student's main responsibility appears to be absorbing and remembering the facts and events presented. Thus, the classroom interaction was, by and large, teacher dominated.

The classroom practice which emerges here is completely at variance with the current popular view of the classroom practice which ought to be, in the words of Sansom (124) "the provision of experiences which modify the pupil's concept structure through the exercise of his skills or historical material" rather than letting students know what the teacher or historian believe is the right answer. It should be remembered that the current provisions of Ethiopian senior secondary schools do not encourage such kind of classroom practice.

a revolutionary approach after 1974. Prior to 1974, in the revisional works some of the practical problems pertaining to history teaching were discussed and some solutions were suggested.

1. The content of the early syllabi (1924, 1957 and 1958) was selected from the history of Eastern Mediterranean World and Western Europe with a total exclusion of Ethiopian history. The educational reform movements in Africa in the 1960s had a bearing on the history syllabus of Ethiopian senior secondary schools; hence the inclusion of Ethiopian and African history in the syllabus. From 1963 to the present the history

CHAPTER FOUR

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This part of the study deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations.

SUMMARY

In the study attempt was made to investigate the trends, developments, perspectives or phases and the current status of history teaching in Ethiopian senior secondary schools, with emphasis on the schools in Addis Ababa. Following is a summary of the major findings of the study:

- I. Trends, Developments, Phases or Perspectives of the Teaching of History.
 1. The placement of history in the senior secondary school curriculum dates back to 1943. From 1943 until the present it has gone through several stages of development. In the process, the syllabus was subjected to several revisions; revisions with an evolutionary approach before 1974 and a revision with a revolutionary approach after 1974. Prior to 1974, in the revisional works some of the practical problems pertaining to history teaching were discussed and some solutions were suggested.
 2. The content of the early syllabi (1949, 1957 and 1958) was selected from the history of Eastern Mediterranean World and Western Europe with a total exclusion of Ethiopian history. The educational reform movements in Africa (in the 1960s) had a bearing on the history syllabus of Ethiopian senior secondary schools; hence the inclusion of Ethiopian and African history in the syllabus. From 1963 to the present the history

syllabus has got one definite feature by drawing its content from Ethiopian, African and world history but with a variation of emphasis.

3. The old syllabi (1963 and 1967) aimed at making Ethiopian history the focal point of the courses, whereas the syllabus currently in use aimed at making world revolutionary movements the focal point of the courses.
4. The old syllabi aimed at the teaching of national history in the context of parallel or divergent developments in other countries and of the pertinent historical antecedents, while the aim of the new syllabus (1975 to the present) has become justification of the post 1974 political system of the country by teaching how the socialist system has been established in many countries of the world.
5. Theoretically only the 1963 history syllabus suggested the teaching of local history but without giving any kind of provision.
6. Starting from its inception to the present the history syllabus was organized chronologically with an attempt to survey a considerable topics and periods (ancient to the present).
7. The objectives of the 1949, 1957, 1958, 1963 and the present syllabi were, by and large, defined interms of knowledge. The objectives of the 1967 syllabus were defined interms of concepts, skills and attitudes. But learning experience for the realization of such objectives were not provided.

8. The 1949, 1957 and 1958 syllabi were completely the works of senior secondary school teachers. The work of the 1963, 1967 and 1975 syllabi involved senior secondary school teachers, subject specialists and curriculum experts. But after 1979, with the coming of curriculum experts from East Germany, only curriculum experts assumed the task.
9. Total absence of textbooks, especially on African and Ethiopian history, was one of the practical problems faced by history teachers. Until 1979 history teachers were provided with teaching notes prepared by some historians (before 1949) and by those who prepared the syllabus (after 1975). But students were without textbook all along.

II. The Present Status of History Teaching.

10. The majority of the respondents (94 per cent) have qualification at a diploma and B.A degree level. On average they teach 19 hours per week. But they have a big class size (average 74 students in one classroom). There are some teachers who teach history without any training for the teaching of history (9 per cent).
11. The current educational provisions (the syllabus and the textbooks) are rated inadequate by a very significant number of the respondents.
12. Despite such dissatisfaction with the quality of the current educational provisions, the textbook was found to be the principal sources of information for the

majority of the respondents (76 per cent).

13. With regard to manner of textbook utilization more than three-fourth of the respondents have employed the textbook for factual acquisition.
14. The results of the classroom interaction revealed that expository teaching was the most common teaching strategy. Teachers spend 97 percent of the lesson time in transmitting information. To a larger extent history teachers spent the lesson time in describing (49 per cent). Even teachers' question required students only to recall information. Accordingly students also participated in the history lesson by listening, writing, asking and answering.

CONCLUSION

The following conclusions are made on the basis of the findings of the study and the basic questions raised in Chapter One.

1. While the objectives of the 1967 syllabus aligned themselves with those put forward by recent researchrs, the other syllabi objectives reflected the traditional view of history teaching. Since learning experiences were not properly indicated even the objectives of the 1967 syllabus were not far from reflecting the traditional view of history teaching. By and large, the place of history in the senior secondary school curriculum was defined in terms of the subject matter but not in terms of skills and concepts.
2. Right from the beginning the history syllabus has been underpinned by the breadth notion. So far no attempt was made to create balance between breadth and depth. Content coverage has been a preferred priority.
3. From 1943 to 1962 the history syllabus was Euro-centric in character, so that students learnt the history of other societies without learning the history of their own country.
4. In Ethiopian senior secondary schools the history of Ethiopia, even after its inclusion in the syllabus, has never been treated adequately. The subject in the school curriculum has not been capable to equip a student with those intellectual skills, attitudes and concepts appropriate to an understanding of self and

society.

5. History teaching in Ethiopian senior secondary schools has never been concerned with the study of local history to show local variations in national development and hence, it has never attempted to exploit students preoccupation with themselves and their environment.
6. History teachers are found to be highly dissatisfied with the quality of the current educational provisions. History teachers and students have never been, particularly, provided with suitable and well prepared textbooks.
7. History appears to be unpopular subject in the senior secondary schools. The inadequacies of the history syllabus partly explains the unpopularity of the subject.
8. The history syllabus and the textbooks that form the basis of the course appear to obstruct rather than encourage good classroom practices. The classroom practice appears to remain didactic. Expository strategy, particularly, lecture method predominates the history classroom. Therefore, the history classroom is teacher dominated, while absorbing and remembering facts become the sole responsibility of the student.
9. The size of the history classroom is appropriate for a large-group instruction. The size of the history class has its share in discouraging history teachers from applying a variety of teaching methods.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The problem of Education cannot be viewed apart from the general problems of the society. The solutions to these problems depend on the over-all development of the country. The following suggestions are made on the basis of such an understanding.

1. A decision about why history should be studied is a question about history. History is more than recalling of events and dates; the proper interpretation of those events require a special interaction between students and subject-matter. Therefore, history as a school subject should not be defined in terms of the subject matter, but in terms of its contribution to the student and the society at large. Therefore, as a first orientation to the task of designing the syllabus, syllabus developers in the future need to give some consideration to the nature of history, the objectives that can be realized through the teaching of the subject and the teaching and learning it requires.
2. A decision about what history should be studied is not a question about history at all; it concerns what things are important. The big social, political and economic fundament of peoples collective existence, understanding of which is a prerequisite for effective and intelligent living. Content for history in the school syllabus, then, needs to consist of political, social and economic affairs. Since each field of history has its own concern and contribution it is

logical to maintain established practice of selecting the content of the syllabus from Ethiopian, African and World history. But Ethiopian history should be the focal point of the syllabus and taught in the context of parallel or divergent developments in other countries, so that adequate treatment would be given to the history of Ethiopia with which students are much more preoccupied. It would be also possible to give room for the study of local history; not a local study in a sense of comprehensive coverage but a study of local variations in national developments (for example, what role did the people of Gondar, or Tigray or Illubabor play in the Patriotic Struggle?)

3. Classroom practice is the ultimate test of the virtues of any syllabus and senior secondary school teachers require assistance, especially in terms of:
 - a) Resources:- textbooks and other teaching materials are required. Making teaching, such as new publications and recordings, other than the textbook, accessible to the teachers raises a financial issue which may not be congruent with the economic situation of the country. Therefore, much more attention should be paid to the preparation of the textbook. The textbook should incorporate an evidence based approach (for example, the content of a textbook that deals with Tewodros' foreign policy would incorporate letters that were written by the

Emperor).

- b. Pedagogy-seminars and workshops are required to make history teachers familiar with modern strategies and methods. The teachers, perhaps, would develop a positive predisposition.
4. To prepare a package of program materials for the teacher is no guarantee that their implementation in the classroom will be effected. In the future of syllabus development the teacher and student need to be the focus. Content coverage should not be taken as a starting point in designing the syllabus, rather much more attention should be given to the enhancement of students' understanding. The syllabus, then, should not attempt to survey a considerable area and period of time. Rather it needs to allow students to pursue their investigation in sufficient depth to grasp the surrounding circumstances of problem, antecedents, and consequences, concomitants and contrasts which affect the solution of the problem itself. Future syllabus should be better understood by the teacher. History teachers should not be viewed as instructors who would implement the materials prepared by other people. Syllabus development needs to be viewed as something that would be done with the teachers. Syllabus development in the future needs to involve the teacher, subject specialists, curriculum experts and psychologists.

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11. Kokohe Teseh

Selected for observation

12. Girak Comprehensve

13. Tisar Ambasa

14. Nensik 11

15. Yekati 12

16. Higher 12

17. Totata

Selected for observation

18. Bedhano Alon

Selected for observation

19. Stalopia Tikson

20. Higher 7

2.5. Teachers who teach in all of these schools were addressed by the questionnaire.

Appendix 2
Discussion Items

Following are eight questions to be posed to the interviewees. The first four questions will be posed to experts who constructed the syllabus before 1979. The other four questions will be discussed with selected students of grade ten.

Questions For the Experts

1. Who did participate in the construction of the syllabus?
2. What criteria were used for selection of Participants?
3. How long did you work in the panel?
4. Why were you dropped from the panel?

Questions for the Students

1. In which stream are you interested? Why?
2. Do you think that History is a difficult subject to learn?
3. Is there any person who advised you as to what stream you should select?
4. What is your opinion about your senior secondary school teachers?

Appendix 3

Addis Ababa University
Faculty of Education

School of Graduate Studies

Questionnaire to filled by High School History Teachers

Dear Respondent;

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data on the problems of history teaching in some selected secondary schools of Addis Ababa. The truthfulness of information will certainly contribute to the results of this study. Please try to be as objective and candid as possible in responding to each question.

Thank you for your cooperation

Date _____

Direction:

Please do not write your name. To those questions with alternatives you can provide the answer by putting the sign () in front of your choice. Questions with no alternatives need to be answered by writing. If you have observations or suggestions other than what is referred to in the questionnaire, please feel free to express by using the back sides of the questionnaire.

1. Sex: Male _____ Female _____
2. Name of School _____
3. Number of years of service as a history teacher _____
4. Qualification:
 - a. Diploma _____ obtained in 19__ in the subject _____
 - b. B.A _____ obtained in 19__ in the subject _____
 - c. M.A _____ obtained in 19__ in the subject _____
 - d. others _____
5. Number of sections you teach at present _____
6. The average number of students being assigned in one classroom _____
7. At which grade level/s do you have teaching experience?
grade 9 _____ grade 10 _____
grade 11 _____ grade 12 _____
8. Which grade level/s are you teaching now?

9. How do you rate the following aspects of the syllabus?

Aspects	Adequate	Inadequate
a) objectives	_____	_____
b) content	_____	_____
c) organization	_____	_____
10. If your rating is inadequate put in order of inadequacy
 1. _____

a. pick out the main idea of a paragraph or a page

b. ask two or three important questions based on what they have read

30. Do you encourage students to use the textbook effectively?

Yes _____

No _____

31. How do you motivate students to use their textbook effectively?

a. by giving reading assignment

b. by asking them to prepare their own note

c. by giving study questions to guide their reading

32. How many chapters of the textbook do you often cover?

a. grade 9 _____

b. grade 10 _____

c. grade 11 _____

d. grade 12 _____

33. If you do not cover the whole chapters, what have you done to the remaining uncovered chapters or portions?

a. students are encouraged to cover by their own independent reading

b. in the case of grade 9, 10 and 11, students are suppose to learn the remaining portion in the next grade before they start learning the other textbook

c. so far, nothing has been done

34. What difficulties have you encountered in using the textbook as an instructional tool?

35. What do you think, are some aspects of the textbooks that must be improved so as to produce usable textbooks? (your suggestion can focus on the textbooks that you have used)

a. grade 9 _____

b. grade 10 _____

c. grade 11 _____

d. grade 12 _____

36. Are there enough additional reference materials in the school?

Yes _____

No _____

37. If there is no enough reference materials in the school library indicate your sources of supply

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

38. Do you encourage students to use or read other reference materials?

Yes _____

No _____

39. How many of the following means have you utilized in order to enrich history instruction?

a. inviting class room guest

b. using historical novels

c. using speeches

- d. using poetry
- e. using music
- f. presenting primary sources
- g. using artifacts
- h. others _____

40. If you have used none of these, please mention your reasons.

41. What is your opinion about students choice of stream?

- a. natural science stream
 - 1. students are more interested
 - 2. students are less interested
 - 3. I don't know
- b. social studies stream
 - 1. students are more interested
 - 2. students are less interested
 - 3. I don't know

42. What are the factors that account for students choice of stream?

- a. concern of employability
- b. attraction of the subject
- c. influence of high school teachers
- d. influence of friends
- e. others _____

43. How many of your students show a keen interest toward the subject of history?

- a. almost all of them are interested _____
- b. only a small number of students are interested _____

c. other _____

44. In which part of history lessons are students more interested? (put in order of preference)

a. World history

b. African history

c. Ethiopian history

45. How do you motivate students to learn history?

Availability of instructional materials

46. Does the school have a pedagogical centre?

Yes _____ No _____

47. Does this pedagogical centre produce instructional materials that could be used in history instruction?

Yes _____ No _____

48. Does the school have necessary wall maps?

a. Map of Ethiopia Yes _____ No _____

b. Map of Africa Yes _____ No _____

c. Map of the World Yes _____ No _____

49. If your answer is "No" how are you managing while you are teaching some lessons which demand the use of maps?

50. Does the school have film strips?

Yes _____ No _____

51. Have you ever taken out your students for a field trip?

Yes _____ No _____

Appendix 4

HISTORY TEACHING OBSERVATION
SCHEDULE

Categories and Format of the recording Schedule

Name of School _____ Section _____

Name of Observer _____ Class Size _____

Date of Observation _____ Teacher's Name _____

Number of Observation 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th (Circle one)

Lesson Topic _____

c₅. Synthesis

c₆. Heuristic

2. Talk and Activity initiated and/or maintained by students:

2d. Students seek information or consult sources for the purpose of:

d₁. Acquiring or confirming facts

d₂. Identifying problems

d₃. Making inferences, formulating or testing hypotheses

2e. Students participate in history lesson through

e₁. Expository activities

e₂. Role playing

e₃. Simulation

e₄. Case studies

DESCRIPTIONS OF THE CATEGORIES

Categories Included in Teacher Exposition

Orientation: Refers to the opening of a lecture, introducing a topic or theme. This behaviour was recorded when the teacher tried to focus students attention on what is to be learned; revised a lesson previously learned; told students in advance what is expected of them and when he gives guides or cues through examples and analogues which will be helpful to the students in understanding the lesson.

Defining: Is concerned with how words or other symbols are used to refer to objects or events. This behaviour was recorded when the teacher asked for the meaning of terms.

Describing: To describe is to represent something by words or drawing, to tell about something. Thus the behavior making up this category mention or suggest something and require that an account of this something be given.

Narrating or

Reporting: Refers to teacher's use of dictation and expressive speech. Thus the behaviour was recorded when the teacher chose apt quotations; reading from a historical novel, play, poem or a

text to illustrate or exemplify a point of view; and when he told story.

Explaining: Explanation gives a particular consequent and it requires that an antecedent be supplied. Thus the behaviour was recorded when the teacher related an object, event, actions or state of affairs to some other object, event, actions or state of affairs; when he showed the relation between an event or state of affair and a principle or generalization; and when he showed the relation between cause and effect.

Use of Audio-Visual

Materials: This refers to teacher's use of any equipment or materials. Teacher may use in a lecture: hand outs, the blackboard, overhead transparencies, models, slides, films, maps, text, and others.

Varying Students

Activities: Recorded when the teacher tried to involve students in different activities-such as reading assignment, listening; reciting, discussion, reporting, commenting.

Giving Direction: Recorded when the teacher indicated how to carry out procedures, how to do assignment, how to solve various types of problems and how and where to consult sources of information.

steps in conceptualizing can be subsumed within the various stages of inquiring. Hence this recording schedule was designed with the same assumption, that is, though the categories are meant for inquiry teaching, it is possible to tell about concept teaching or students conceptualizing from the same data.

Identifying Problems:

Although inquiry is learner-centered, it requires considerable teacher involvement. Teachers commonly present a purpose for inquiry in the form of a question to answer or a problem to solve or teacher allows the students to generate a purpose for their own. Teacher's behaviour of this category will be recorded when he does either of these two activities. He may initiate students' inquiry by presenting

- 1) Unpopular argument about a topic
- 2) Several conflicting opinions on the same issue
- 3) An incomplete data

Invent Hypotheses:

Is a behaviour that will be recorded when the teacher creates the following learning experiences: (1) when he provides the necessary data, (2) when he gives direction

classify evidence, (g) seek relationships, (h) note similarities and differences, (i) identify trends, sequences, and regularities. by using the sources. It was to be recorded when

Draw Conclusions: Is a behaviour that will be recorded when the teacher directs students into learning experiences that require them to combine identified relationships among the evidences and between the evidences and hypotheses into statements that bear on the initial problem.

Applying the Conclusion to

New Data: Is a behaviour that will be recorded when the teacher guides students to apply a conclusion, whether in the form of understanding, concept or other type of knowledge, to new data.

Categories Under

- 1c:** Refers to teacher's use of sources of information
- 1d:** The behaviours were recorded when the teacher presented a source of information (both primary and secondary sources) to the students in the classroom or gave students assignments to be worked out using sources of information.
- c₁:** Acquiring or confirming facts:- when the purpose was to collect information, i.e., events, names, dates etc.

- c₂. Identifying problems:- when teacher allowed the students to generate a purpose for their own or to answer a question by using the sources. It was to be recorded when the teacher presented sources of information for the purpose of reconciling conflicting opinion and to induce meaning from the context.
- c₃. making inferences: recorded when the teacher presents sources of information to combine identified relationships among the evidences and between the evidences.
- c₄. Seeking guidance on historical methodology. A behaviour which was recorded when the teacher tried to enhance istorical sources and historical methodology such as question framing, factual significane and verification, as well as historical explanation and argumentation.

Categories Under

ld: Categories under this group refer to the kind of questions the teacher uses.

Recall:- involves all questions that the teacher asks primarily to determine if students have acquired or obtained a desired amount of factual information. ex. When was Franklin D. Roosevelt first elected to the presidency of the United States of America?

Comprehension:- involves questions that the teacher asks to help students put together and organize into some sort of relationship the facts they have gathered, i.e., questions that require giving descriptions, stating main idea, comparing and contrasting, from the students.

Ex. Compare peasant life in Ethiopia under Tewodros II with peasant life during the Zemene Mesafine?

Application - Involves questions that require from the students applying rules and techniques to solve problems having a single correct answer.

Analysis - Involves questions that require from the students identifying motives, causes or effects, making inferences, finding evidence to support generalization.

Ex. What are the fundamental causes that brought about Tewodros's down fall?

Synthesis - Involves questions from the students - solving problems, making predictions, producing original communications.

Ex. Develop a proposal that could help us mitigate the problem of famine in Ethiopia?

Heuristic - Involves questions that require students to seek and determine for themselves what they consider to be acceptable answers.

Ex. What might have happened if Napier expedition had become un successful?

Categories under

2c. - These categories refer to students activity. The categories were to be recorded when the activities were initiated by the students. The descriptions of categories c_1 , c_2 , and c_3 also applied to the categories e_1 , e_2 , and e_3 .

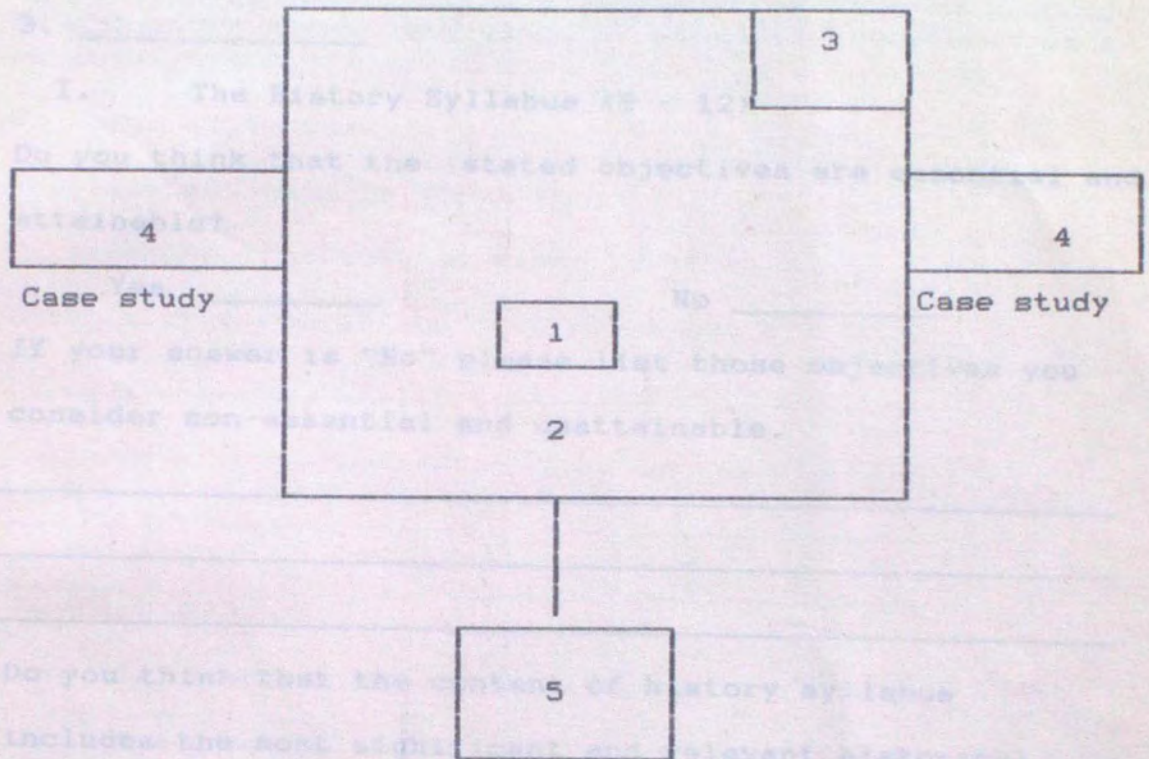
Categories under

2f. -

- f_1 . Expository eactivities - refers to listening question and answer, writing and speaking.
- f_2 . Role playing - when a student assumed a certain role and demonstrated it in the classroom.
- f_3 . Simulation:- when students simulated something in the classroom.
- f_4 . Case studies:- refers to students independent activity in carrying out one or two case studies.

Appendix 5

Schematic Representation of the Modular Approach



Module 1 Role of the Individual in an Historical event

Module 2 A Depth Study

" 3 A Local Study

" 4 A Study in Development

" 5 A Foreign parallel

13. Do the stated objectives correspond with the selected content?

Yes _____

No _____

16. Which one of the following organizations of content of the syllabus do you suggest to be employed by the developers of the history syllabus?

a. chronological approach

e. problem approach

b. topical approach

d. social process approach

17. Please justify your suggestion (Q. 16)

2. _____

3. _____

11. I. The History Syllabus (9 - 12)

Do you think that the stated objectives are essential and attainable?

Yes _____

No _____

12. If your answer is "No" please list those objectives you consider non-essential and unattainable.

13. Do you think that the content of history syllabus includes the most significant and relevant historical events or topics?

Yes _____

No _____

14. If your answer is "No" please mention what you consider the omitted significant and relevant events or topics?

15. Do the stated objectives correspond with the selected content?

Yes _____

No _____

16. Which one of the following organizations of content of the syllabus do you suggest to be employed by the developers of the history syllabus?

a. chronological approach

c. problem approach

b. topical approach
approach

d. social process

17. Please justify your suggestion (Q. 16)

18. The history syllabus is divided into three sections. Viz: Ethiopian history, African history, and World history. What do you think about the place of Ethiopian history vis-a-vis the other two sections?

- a. over emphasized
- b. less emphasis is given to it
- c. balanced treatment is given to it

19. What is your overall opinion about the syllabus?

II. History Text-books (9 to 12)

20. Are the contents intelligible to the students for whom the text-book is intended?

- | | | |
|----------|-----------|----------|
| grade 9 | Yes _____ | No _____ |
| grade 10 | Yes _____ | No _____ |
| grade 11 | Yes _____ | No _____ |
| grade 12 | Yes _____ | No _____ |

21. Have you come across some factual errors or fallacies in the text-books?

- Yes _____ No _____

22. What elements determined the point of view of the author's (s') of the text-books?

- a. program of indoctrination established by official decree or the state
- b. public opinion
- c. the author's (s') personal convictions.

23. Does the text-book contain enough illustrations, such as pictures, diagrams, sketch, map, etc. ?

- | | | |
|----------|-----------|----------|
| grade 9 | Yes _____ | No _____ |
| grade 10 | Yes _____ | No _____ |
| grade 11 | Yes _____ | No _____ |

grade 12 Yes _____ No _____
24. What are your sources of information that you use in preparing your lessons ?

- a. only the textbook
- b. only books that cover some portion of the syllabus content
- c. textbook supplementing by their reference materials

25. If there are other sources that you make us of them, please specify:

26. How do you use the textbook in the classroom?

- a. a student reads aloud a certain paragraph and others listen with textbook closed
- b. a student reads aloud a certain paragraph the class following with textbooks open
- c. a student will make a silent reading of a paragraph and ask the class what the paragraph was about

27. Have you developed a specific lessons or parts of a lesson on skills of using textbooks?

Yes _____ No _____

28. If your answer is "yes" on which of the following skills you emphazise?

- a. reading skills
- b. locating and gathering information
- c. organizing and evaluating information
- d. speaking
- e. listening
- f. identifying the main idea of a paragraph or section
- g. note taking
- h. skill of summarizing

29. Have you asked students from time to time to

Appendix 6

Comparison Between the Objectives of the Old and the New Syllabi

The following is an outline of the objectives of the new syllabus compared with the old one (Secondary School Curriculum Development and E.S.L.C. Examination Seminar, 1967 and The Ethiopian School Syllabuses, 1984).

Objectives of the old Syllabus (1967 to 1974)

Objectives of the new syllabus (1975 - to the present)

-
- The Students will be able to:
1. To give every student who passes through the school, a knowledge of an outline of the history of African and the world.
 2. To enable every student to acquire skills, values, concepts, and generalizations related to history.
- A. Skills**
1. Locating information independently, e.g. library use of reference works.
 2. Organizing information through formal outlining.
 3. Presenting, interpreting and evaluating information
- B. Values**
- History study should reveal to students the universally accepted human values.
- . obtain a vivid picture of the process of transition from feudalism to capitalism.
 - . See the role of the masses clearly in the anti-feudal struggle and the establishment of the bourgeois national states.
 - . recognize the process of transition from feudalism to capitalism as a historical process.
 - . be able to summarize the historical accomplishments of capitalism.
 - . recognize the dialectic of class struggle between bourgeoisie and the anti-colonial struggle of the African people.
 - . be able to prove the emergence of imperialism.
 - . be able to review the development of the international working class movement from the

- C. Students graduating from the secondary schools should be familiar with the following generalization and concepts
1. The concept of social change . see the rise of the modern Ethiopian states, the survival of its independence and the birth of the 1974 popular revolution
 2. Science and invention are sources of social change . understand and appreciate the example of the revolutionary struggle of the Russian working class and its allies.
 3. New ideas are sources of social change . recognize the historic mission of the working class in the epoch of the world wide transition from capitalisn to socialism.
 4. The concept of conflict. . obtain classification on the origin of the world socialist system and its achievements.
 5. The concept of interdependence . grasp the reasons fro the decay of the imperialists, colonial system in Africa and Latin America.
 6. There are political, economic and social interdependence. . be able to identify the increasing aggressiveness of imperialism.
 7. The concept of cause and effect. . trace the tendencies in the struggle between the force of peace and social progress and the forces of imperialism and the changes in the power relation infavour of the forces of socialism and peace.
 8. Things do not happen just like that, they are caused.
 9. The concept of inter action.
 10. The concept of community, nation, state,
 11. For many thousands of years men lived without government. The ideas about government an low slowly evolved.
 12. The concepts of colonialism, imperialism and nationalism.
 13. The concept of international organization.
 14. There are always social, economical and political problems.
 15. Geography has influenced history.
 16. The great civilizations of the past had their birth, growth decline and fall.
 17. The political needs of man has changed as

Appendix 7

1. "The Centenary of Dogali" Proceedings of the International Symposium, Addis Ababa, 1987.
2. Doresse, Jean. Ethiopia: Ancient Cities and Temples London: Elek Books, 1959.
3. Hayes, et. al. World History. New York: Macmillan Company, 1957.
4. Kaula, Mason. E. The land and People of Ethiopia. Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott co., 1965.
5. A. Lipsky, George A. Ethiopia: Its People, its Society, its Culture. New York: Hraf Press, 1962.
6. Lowe, Norman. Mastering Modern History. London, 1982.
7. Pankhurst, E. Sylvia. Ethiopia: A Cultural History. Essex: Lalibela Huse, 1955.
8. Tadesse Beyene et. al (eds.) Kassa and Kassa. Addis Ababa: Institute of Ethiopian Studies, 1990.
9. Tekle Zadik Mekuria, Aste Menelik, Addis Ababa: Kuraz Publishing Agency, 1983 (Amharic)
10. ----- Aste Tewodros. Addis Ababa: Kuraz Publishing Agency, 1981 (Amharic).
11. ----- Aste Yohannis. Addis Ababa. Kuraz Publishing Agency, 1981 (Amharic).

N.B. Book no. 2, 3 and 4 are only available in the Libraries of five schools, whereas book no. 5 and 6 are only found in the Library of one school.

Appendix 8

Number of questions Framed by the Authors' of the Textbooks; classified on the Basis of Cognitive Thought they Required (Cognitive thought seen interms of Bloom Taxonomy)

Grade	Number of Questions with respect to cognitive thought required						
	Know	Comp.	App.	An.	Sgn.	Eva.	Total
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>							
Grade Nine							
Unit One	18	21	1	9	5	6	60
Unit Two	9	11	1	4	3	3	36
Unit Three	7	8	3	3	1	2	26
Unit Four	10	15	2	10	5	3	45
Unit Five	12	17	2	9	4	4	48
<hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/>							
Grade Ten							
Chapter One	1	3	-	1	-	-	5
Chapter Two	2	2	-	1	-	-	5
Chapter Three	1	1	-	1	1	-	4
Chapter Four	1	2	-	1	1	-	5
Chapter Five	3	1	-	-	1	-	5
Chapter Six	2	2	-	2	-	1	7
Chapter Seven	1	-	2	2	-	-	5
Chapter Eight	1	4	-	-	-	-	5
Chapter Nine	3	1	-	5	-	-	9
Chapter Ten	-	6	-	-	-	-	6

N. B. Know = Knowledge
 Comp. = Comprehension
 App. = Application
 An. = Analysis
 Syn. = Synthesis
 Eva = Evaluation