

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

PUPIL AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE TEACHING OF  
HISTORY IN SOME BAGHDAD SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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TO  
MY PARENTS  
WHO GAVE ME MUCH SUPPORT AND  
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**CHAPTER ONE**  
**INTRODUCTION**



## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

If one were to accept the idea that "history is bunk" and wait to collect the full facts of events as they occurred, one might wait for ever, and might as well abolish the teaching of history in schools and universities. However, many scholars suggest that history teaching in schools has a special role, because it is primarily concerned with the intellectual and social development of school pupils. Nonetheless, history is not a great "dust heap" of the dead past, it is a body of knowledge some of which may be mistaken or open to re-interpretation, as with any field of knowledge. Thus, the importance of history is not as a body of knowledge only, but also as an approach to knowledge. For this reason, educationists pay great attention to its teaching methods, the qualities of its teachers, syllabus, teaching aids, and so on.

History teaching has often tended to depend on two elements; the teacher's capacity and pupils' memorization of a store of historical facts. These continue to be important facts despite the progress in methods and techniques.

In Iraq, as in many other countries in the developing World, the style of history teaching, particularly in secondary schools, relies primarily upon the above factors even though there have been some attempts to modernize teaching methods.

The most striking problem confronting the teachers and school administrations alike is the absence of modern teaching methods, associated with over-crowded classrooms and a shortage of illustrative and supportive materials. There are also problems in the areas of teacher training, curriculum development and motivation. All these problems are recognized by the Ministry of Education, coordinated with the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in attempts to resolve these difficulties.

This study is an attempt to evaluate history teaching, not as it has been, not as it could be, but as it actually is at present in a sample of secondary schools in Baghdad.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

History teaching today can draw on an accumulation of skills and experiences, and on a wide range of text books and other literature.

Even now, the style of teaching in Iraq depends on traditional teaching methods which derive from the past; depending on teacher's knowledge and pupils' memorization.

A great difficulty with the teaching of social sciences in Iraq is the lack of available information on many relevant questions, for example, what is the role of the school administration and staff in formulating and implementing effective strategies for future progress? What are the qualities of the teachers? Who draws up the

syllabus? What is the effect of over-crowded classrooms? Is the class adequately equipped with teaching aids? Are illustrative materials used at all?. In sum, is the teacher himself satisfied with his teaching?. Even if he is, the education process depends not upon one factor alone, but on the integration of, teacher, pupils, curriculum, and other elements.

This study will attempt to find clear answers to such questions by means of a field study conducted in some Baghdad secondary schools; to investigate: what success has been achieved in improving the pupils' intellectual experience and skills, and what resources teachers use in history teaching. Only when we have information about the current situation in respect of teaching aids, qualities of teachers, the nature of the syllabus, and the tests and examinations used, will it be possible to evaluate and develop teaching methods.

The present study will try to evaluate and assess the methods of teaching history in the following respects:

- The teachers' qualities
- Syllabus
- Planning for teaching
- The classroom
- Teaching aids
- Tests and Examinations.

To obtain the required information, questionnaires will be devised to collect data from secondary school teachers and pupils in Baghdad [the capital of Iraq].

### **1.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study of the problems associated with methods of teaching history in secondary schools is of great importance to history teachers, schools' administrations, syllabus makers and to all those concerned directly or indirectly with history teaching and teaching methods in general, especially in Iraqi secondary schools.

Many studies have been conducted in Iraq dealing with teaching methods for various subject areas; language, physics, chemistry, mathematics, geography ..etc, but rarely for history, because of the nature of historical problems and facts; history has been viewed as a subject essentially lacking in objectivity, which does not therefore lend itself to objective evaluation. Thus, the teacher faces, not only the problem of presenting historical themes in an effective way, but also the prolonged neglect by researchers in terms of defining problems in the classroom, evaluating history teaching comprehensively, and advising the teacher. For these reasons the present study is regarded as an addition to the education library, and acquires its importance from these objectives and from the following aims.

### **1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY**

This study aims to evaluate the teaching of history in some Iraqi secondary schools. Specifically, it examines and analyses the following:

1. The history teachers qualities, including an evaluation of effective teaching in relation to the teacher's characteristics, aptitude, motivation, training and reading of history books;
2. Planning for teaching, including course and lesson plans;
3. The present history syllabus of the secondary schools in Iraq;
4. The nature of the teacher's preparation for confronting and coping with the requirements of the history syllabus;
5. The teaching approach that has been adopted by the syllabus designers to fulfil the prescribed objectives;
6. The use of teaching aids and illustrative materials;
7. Control and management of the classroom;
8. The standard tests and examinations commonly used;
9. The uses and abuses of tests and examinations;

Before we describe the data collection methods and analysis, it would be helpful to present some relevant studies to provide a theoretical background, which may clarify the aims of the study. Such background information is presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER TWO  
LITERATURE REVIEW

## **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In 1958 Harris asserted that until the advent of Western influence in the nineteenth century, the education system in Iraq as elsewhere in the Middle East was dominated by the Islamic tradition of religious and classical learning which was dependent on memorization of the "Koran"; reading and writing received secondary emphasis<sup>(1)</sup>

Since then, there have been great changes throughout the education system. The content of teaching has been improved not only in higher education but also in primary and secondary schools.

Contact with Western culture impelled educators and the educational institutions to take advantage of their experience of teaching; theories and practices. Thus the teaching methods show considerable Western influence. However as yet, the improvements are insufficient.

Because the educational system in Iraq should be viewed in the context of education world-wide, the educational literature relating to the themes outlined in the previous chapter will be surveyed.

## **2.2 THE TEACHER'S QUALITIES**

Many people think of the teacher solely as a giver of information. It has been suggested that the pupils are like a collection of teacups, the teacher brews the tea

[prepares the content] sweetens it [motivation and methods], and pours it into the teacups, measuring the content according to the capacity of each [planning], then the teacher adds milk or lemon [praise or encouragement] and tastes to judge the contents [tests the information gained and retained].<sup>(2)</sup>

Although the teacher has many other roles beside that of purveyor of information, there is an element of truth in this idea at least for those not involved in the education system. The teacher needs to be well-equipped with information not only to pass on to the pupils, but also to provide clear answers about various questions with which he may be confronted both inside and outside the classroom. Of course this does not mean that the teacher should be an Encyclopaedia, but he should extend his knowledge as much as possible. Nonetheless, Stolurow [1972] pointed out:

If the objective is to understand teaching rather than teachers and find ways of redesigning education, then the educational psychologist needs to study the process of teaching by analysing and then synthesizing<sup>(3)</sup>

He suggested that one should consider the teacher's qualities rather than the teacher's characteristics or teaching process. He stressed that :

the research on teaching has been passive and analytical and has consisted of describing teacher characteristics rather than specifying the necessary and sufficient teaching behaviours<sup>(4)</sup>



In the same context, Worts [1932] called attention to one of the most important issues in the field of teaching, reflecting his own experience:

In our effort to solve the psychological problems met with in our daily task of teaching history, we test and examine our pupils; we do not test and examine ourselves. This is an unfortunate oversight. For instance, if we did honestly ask ourselves what we were doing ? how we are doing it ? why we are doing it ? and, particularly, are our pupil's mental powers able ( at any stage ) to withstand our methods profitably ? it is more than likely we should receive a series of shocks. Indeed, it may well be that we should have no need to test our pupils at all, for the solution of our troubles would be discovered in our own self-examination.(5)

This idea is very important for our purpose. The teacher is the main pillar of the teaching process; if he/she is inadequate, the pupils will suffer. However it must be realised that no course at training college or in university can make a good teacher. Teaching ability comes to a large extent from experience. As Barnard [1965] puts it "Ultimately one learns to teach by teaching"(6). This is not, however, justification for the obscurantist view, which even yet lingers in some quarters, that the teacher alone among professional men needs no special training for his work. Barnard continues:

There are doubtless teachers "by the grace of god" and on the other hand it is more than possible that we have not yet devised the best methods of training. But because there may be some effective unqualified and unregistered dentists still in practice no one in his senses uses this as an argument that dentists need not undergo a rigours training, or that there is some virtue in their having an amateur status. So also with teachers, no progress in their art is possible if they have to rely for their techniques simply on what they can remember of their own school days. The training institution exists in order to further the study of education, as well as to train its students.<sup>(7)</sup>

Unfortunately, many teachers forget that the teacher should also be a learner. Some, after they have spent several years in college or university, believe that is the end of learning, Ozigi and Canham [1978] described one teacher's feeling:

well now, I have spent several years studying and I have passed all my examinations, I am qualified at last, I want to be a teacher, so I am now going to pass my knowledge on to my pupils. No more learning for me -- only teaching.<sup>(8)</sup>

Ozigi and Canham warned that such teachers are making a great mistake when they think in these terms " A good teacher should always be learning"<sup>(9)</sup> If one stops learning, he ceases to be a good teacher. This is one reason why teaching is such an interesting career. Nevertheless, the teacher is most accurately described as a bridge between the pupils and skills; an agent between the learner and his subject of study<sup>(10)</sup> To be a strong bridge and an effective agent, he/she should continue

learning as a life long process. Thus it might be said that despite the significance of the formal training in college or university which helps to prepare a person for professional service, the most important thing is to bring him face to face with existing knowledge and create in him a desire to seek new knowledge if he would like to advance in his profession. Without such a desire, particularly in an occupation like teaching, one soon becomes out of date. Tagor, [the great Indian poet] once said " A teacher can never truly teach unless he is still learning himself. A lamp can never light another lamp unless it continues to burn its own flame"(11) The teacher who has no involvement with his knowledge, but merely repeats his lessons to his students can only load their minds.(12)

This idea has been supported by many scholars. Some have thought that the good teacher should be a good researcher. If his research is well done, his students gain more than from the cramming of repetitive information. Ferguson [1967] stressed that training in the methods of research will teach him how to find information, how to assemble the material needed and how to pass it to his pupils(13). Balassi [1968] assumed that time must be found for professional reading, though this is not always easy, the teacher should make the effort to keep up his reading, because it is an essential part of continued growth as a teacher. He advised "Budget your time as is necessary, but be sure to allow sufficient time for reading"(14)

Is this, then, all that is required good reader, involved in existing knowledge; or are there other qualities to be sought and roles to be accomplished? Yardley [1971] has presented a good basic description of the role of the teacher. By reviewing many relevant studies and research, she found that the first and foremost role of the teacher was to help his pupils to become a person<sup>(15)</sup>. However Balassi thought that the main role of the teacher is teaching, defined as follows:

Teaching involves, among other things, planning, securing materials, presenting content, asking and answering questions, guiding or leading discussions, giving assignments, checking work and evaluating achievement, maintaining and developing good discipline.<sup>(16)</sup>

He added that good planning is the major prerequisite, particularly for the new teacher<sup>(17)</sup>. Ozigi and Canham<sup>(18)</sup> cited six traits that which they believe every good teacher should possess:

1. Sympathy
2. Care
3. Patience
4. Orderliness
5. Willingness to learn
6. Ability to set a good example

Drayer (1979) suggested that to be a good teacher it is necessary avoid the following mistakes:

1. Poor voice
2. Elevated vocabulary
3. Errors of expression
4. Distracting mannerism
5. Neglect of personal hygiene
6. Lack of discretion
7. Lack of knowledge of pupils
8. Disproportionate individual help
9. Unprofessional manner
10. Negative approach
11. Lack of emotional control.

Clark and Starr [1967] assumed that the modern educational process depended on the teacher's knowledge. They stated:

Modern secondary school teaching techniques are dependent on the teachers having great knowledge of the materials and resources available in the field and mastery of its content. To give a satisfactory lecture or to hear lessons based on a textbook does not require much scholarship, but to conduct unit assignments, laboratory classes, differentiated lessons, research activities, the solving of real problems, or true discussion groups require, that teacher have the flexibility that only the command of a large fund of immediately usable knowledge can give<sup>(20)</sup>

Thus, any attempt to evaluate the teaching process should consider the teacher's knowledge as a key element in education as whole.

Hamachek [1969] however, after a careful review of literature concluded that the flexibility is the most important characteristic of good teacher. He pointed out:

The good teacher does not seem to be overwhelmed by a single point of view or approach to the point of intellectual myopia. A good teacher knows that he can not be just one sort of person and use just one kind of approach if he intends to meet the multiple needs of his student. Good teachers are, in a sense, "total teachers", that is, they seem able to be what they have to be to meet the demands of the moment. They seem able to move with the shifting tides of their own needs,.....A total teacher can be firm when necessary [say "no" and mean it] or, permissive [say, "why not try it your way" and mean that too] when research is appropriate depends on many things, and a good teacher knows the difference.(21)

Nevertheless, the effectiveness of the teacher does not depend upon one sole-trait, it is based on several qualities. Jorolmek and Foster [1976] stressed that "the teacher is interested in knowledge and learning. Teachers who possess this quality are open-minded"(22). Elsewhere, they asserted that knowledge only is not adequate for teaching, but knowledge and application of a variety of teaching modes are regarded as basic qualities.(23) The final basic requirement of the teacher is pedagogy which is the discipline that examines what the teacher does to inform, to stimulate, to activate the learner in ways that build a bridge between the learner and what he is to learn.(24)

Thus the teacher's qualities require three major dimensions 1) relationship to learners 2) relationship to the content of the school programme 3) pedagogy<sup>(25)</sup>.

### 2.3 HISTORY TEACHER

Although history as a subject is regarded as falling within the social sciences field, it has quite different characteristics. Historical fact can not be observed or tested empirically in the way testing can be done in chemistry or physics, because history deals with deeds events and people of the past and these cannot be recreated. Hence, the history teacher's task is to reflect on the nature of the facts of history. This draws attention to the methods which the history teacher can use for communication. He may be able to make some, little or no use of personal observation; he may or may not be able to use visual aids.<sup>(26)</sup> The other most striking problem is that of the objectivity of history; can history be an objective record of the past?. On this point Burston pointed out:

Some maintain that each historian's personal viewpoint must inevitably colour, if not dominate, the account which he gives of past events. Others argue that it is not the personal viewpoint of the historian which dominates, but that every historian is necessarily the prisoner of his own age, and writes, for instance, a twentieth-century version of the eighteenth-century: hence the need for each age to rewrite its own history. A further view is that religion is a determining factor; a Catholic gives a different account of

the reformation from a Protestant. And finally, there is a strong body of opinion that history is inevitably coloured by national bias, and therefore that, of international events, you can not expect to find an agreed account between two different foreign countries and their historians<sup>(27)</sup>.

For these reasons, it is suggested that the history is not and can not be an objective account of the past; that it is written from an individual viewpoint.

Thus, history teaching faces some unique problems but needs the same main qualities which any teacher should possess. The main quality which he should learn early in the teaching profession is flexibility. Also the history teacher should read widely, and if possible build up his own library.<sup>(28)</sup> The demands of everyday teaching are such that a great effort has to be made to keep one's knowledge up to date. These notions have been supported by the Association of Assistant Masters [1975]. They stress that history teachers should endeavour to write, either , thesis, books, or articles to experience self-discipline, which not only reminds the teacher of the difficulties of the historian's craft, but also reinforces his historical awareness, and gives him an essential understanding of what he demands from his pupils when he sets and marks essays.<sup>(29)</sup> Garvey and Krug [1977] emphasized that most history teachers have no time to write historical essays or books. It is assumed that they have an enduring interest in the subject, and most history teachers consider it part of their professional



obligation to keep abreast of the main developments in their field by reading academic and popular historical essays and books.<sup>(30)</sup> They added:

As long as the role of the history teacher was to impart knowledge of historical "facts", the reading of history books was probably sufficient to keep him informed of a new knowledge and to maintain a commitment to historical study.<sup>(31)</sup>

If the teacher is to instruct, his pupils in historical thinking, it becomes necessary for him to be constantly involved, not merely in reading historical books, but also in practising all aspects of historical thinking, including the creative thinking of the research historian.<sup>(32)</sup> This assumption has been well supported and represented by Peel [1967]<sup>(33)</sup>, Hallam [1971]<sup>(34)</sup>, Coltham [1971]<sup>(35)</sup>, Watts [1972]<sup>(36)</sup>, Booth [1987]<sup>(37)</sup>. They stressed that history teachers should have a good idea about psychological theories and the growth of logical thinking.<sup>(38)</sup> Peel, for instance, thought that in spite of the availability of many kinds of material, archives, letters, papers, pictures and maps or facsimile copies, in addition to actual objects, buildings surviving in varying degrees of imperfection; none of these materials is complete in itself. They demand interpretation and gathering with other evidence. The text book might oversimplify the situation and might need to be translated into the terms of the pupil's own limited experience. This might be done through

discussion, by use of analogical thinking to bridge the gap between what is to be learnt and such appropriate experiences as the pupils have.<sup>(39)</sup> Watts assumes that it is possible for the history teacher to construct an alternative model of thinking, but he could not neglect Piaget's work.<sup>(40)</sup>

The teacher of history must provide his pupils with some introduction to their ancestors' achievements and their cultural heritage, but he should recognise that the teaching of history should never be a vehicle for propaganda. This means that history teachers should exclude, as far as possible, personal attitudes and judgements. In brief, the teacher himself is the most important factor. In spite of the significance of the school equipment, libraries, illustrations etc, the keen and capable teacher with a good knowledge has the crucial role in the teaching process<sup>(41)</sup>.

#### **2.4 PLANNING FOR TEACHING**

Clark and Starr [1967] point out that "The key to successful teaching is good planning. There is no substitute for it"<sup>(42)</sup> this has been supported by many scholars and researchers; Wilson [1988]<sup>(43)</sup>, Perrott [1982]<sup>(44)</sup>, Waterhouse [1983]<sup>(45)</sup>, Rowntree [1986]<sup>(46)</sup>, Wallen [1979]<sup>(47)</sup>. They asserted that planning is a vital element and characteristic of good teaching. Obviously the teacher today faces so many pressures and demands that action can easily become merely reflexive. The

teacher is barely inside the front door of the school before the first problem presents itself, and he may frequently leave at the end of the day with feelings of having initiated nothing.<sup>(48)</sup> Planning is an essential element in overcoming these problems " It helps focus the mind on big issues and important considerations; it gives a sense of direction, and it demonstrates the interdependence of different activities and different people"<sup>(49)</sup>. A teacher's actions in the classroom should reflect his or her planning. In the absence of planning and with limited objectives, the teacher is relatively unsupported.<sup>(50)</sup>

So, what are the main ingredients of good planning?. As Clark and Starr observed,, they can be reduced to the following:

- a. What we anticipate the pupils to learn
- b. How we hope to bring about this learning.<sup>(51)</sup>

Every course must be planned carefully in specific steps. Failure to do so puts the teacher in the position of the novice described as follows:

One day a supervisor visited a beginning teacher who was having difficulty. This young person had taken on a job which was almost too much for him. He was teaching material difficult for him and was having considerable difficulty keeping up with the class. When the supervisor asked him for his plans, he replied. " I am so busy I have not been able to make any lesson plans yet .... A well-known teacher once said that there are three things important in good teaching. They are: determining what the

children are to learn, why they are to learn it, and how they best can learn it.<sup>(52)</sup>

According to this viewpoint, the good teacher lays down in some detail of his plan for teaching before he enters the classroom. This plan should involve the following steps:

1. Choosing the subject-matter of the lesson
2. Finding out what the pupils already know about the subject which has been chosen
3. Specifying instructional objectives
4. Devising instructional procedures which will help to achieve the objectives
5. Determining how to tell whether or not these procedures work.<sup>(53)</sup>

Although the planning process is not confined to teaching , but is important in many human activities, planning for teaching is particularly important, because teaching deals directly with human beings, and shapes a new generation.

Teachers differ in how they like to approach the planning of their teaching. Their habitual approach depends on whether they think primarily of their subject matter, including syllabus, teaching aids and time-table, or initially of the learners.<sup>(54)</sup> Nevertheless, planning denotes all the stages in the preparation of the curriculum before it is actually used with the pupils. It is a process which includes empirical research, trial of

material, text-books, and printed materials, a wide range of audio-visual resources, environmental sources and artifacts which are used in teaching and learning, in addition to briefing of staff who have to implement the course.<sup>(55)</sup> All these aspects will be explored in detail in relation to: Syllabus, teaching aids, classroom and examinations as follows:

## 2.5 SYLLABUS

A syllabus is a summary of the content of a subject which it is proposed to study. In other words it is a statement of the order in which it is proposed to study those contents.<sup>(56)</sup> The best history syllabus is that which enables the principles, aims and objectives of history teaching to be converted into practice most effectively and successfully.<sup>(57)</sup> This is easily said, but the simple question, "What shall we teach?" at once raises a host of problems and differing opinions.

The young teacher should not accept the anarchists view that the syllabus is not worth much in the teaching of history.<sup>(58)</sup> Nevertheless there is no ideal history syllabus, and no teacher of history would wish to see a sort of international blueprint.<sup>(59)</sup> A real syllabus as Bell [1945] determined about forty five years ago, is a work of art; it is made with a plan. He pointed out:

Now a real syllabus is a work of art and, like other works of art, it is made with a plan. A proper syllabus therefore has some introductory remarks which state what the aim of the

syllabus is, show what plan has been devised to reach that aim, and draw attention to the way in which each lesson topic in the syllabus, or each method unit, helps on the realization of the end in view.<sup>(60)</sup>

In answer the question " What is a syllabus ", Bell asserted that the syllabus is a coherent piece of work; it has a theme which stamps it and gives it unity and intelligibility, and round which the content is hung; it is like backbone to the body. Thus the pupils can see how each topic of the syllabus is part of the theme. They see it all as one; the beginning and the end at the same time.<sup>(61)</sup> Similarly Burston [1972] stressed that the syllabus has to cover two kinds of desiderata; the structure of the subject, and the limited but gradually maturing abilities of the pupil.<sup>(62)</sup>

#### 2.5.1 CONSTRUCTING A SYLLABUS: Objectives and Contents

Although the syllabus does not have the same characteristics everywhere in the world, and does not have the same context even throughout one culture, it should nevertheless, be drawn up on the same principles, whether it is drawn up by the head of the school and his staff or issued by the government or the state ministers of education\*. Hill made several general observations on the construction of the school history syllabus. These can be summarized as follows:

1. A syllabus must be planned and coherent, directly and carefully designed to meet the needs of the school which it is to serve.
2. This planning should take account of the relationship of history to other subjects in the school curriculum.
3. Two other factors should be considered in designing the syllabus; the age and the aptitude of the children<sup>(63)</sup>.

In the same context, Garvey and Krug [1977] stressed that the history teacher, like other teachers, works within an educational system. His key role in that system is not only related to his subject specialism, but to understanding the function of a teacher in his society. Therefore, when the teacher sets about designing a syllabus rather than a single course, he is likely to be influenced by considerations outside the realm of history and history teaching.<sup>(64)</sup> The teacher is aware that his main concern is people, those whom he teaches.

#### 2.5.2 ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT

Dance [1970] asked, " How does one convince an open adolescent mind that the Middle Ages were really "Middle" or that Hitler was a "Contemporary?". He asked further, " In what classes are the different periods taught, and what are the prevailing priorities as between, ancient, medieval, modern and contemporary?".<sup>(65)</sup> He replied that

since there is no escaping the fact that ancient history happened first and that contemporary history happened most recently, it is therefore natural that ancient history should be studied in the lowest classes and contemporary history in the highest.<sup>(66)</sup> Thus Dance suggested that the natural chronological sequence is preserved, and there is an easy flow through the syllabus in chronological order from the earliest times to the latest, and from the simple to the complex, which is convenient to the development of the mental aptitudes of the pupils. Bell strongly supports this notion. He suggests that the syllabus does not propound that a series of lessons should be given on such topics as houses through the ages. On the other hand, the topics propounded for this thematic syllabus follow one another in time.<sup>(67)</sup> Similarly Blyth [1989] summarized the basic principles of the syllabus:

- a. There should be some kind of plan for the syllabus of history teaching;
- b. Chronology must be the aim as far as possible<sup>(68)</sup>.

In the same context, Garvey and Krug defined four main ways of organising history syllabus content in history classes as follows:

a. THE CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACH

Starting from the earliest topic and proceeding to the most recent. This common way of organizing history





content has two advantages; it helps to promote an understanding of the passage of time through the changing fortunes of peoples and their societies; it helps also to develop part of what can be called a "time sense". However the disadvantage is that a purely chronological approach leads to scattering of concepts and themes throughout the syllabus, with little chance to show the development of these themes.

b. LINE OF DEVELOPMENT APPROACH

The line of development approach certainly tends to see history in terms of evolution towards the present day. This has an advantage for the pupils in that they are enable to relate the past to the present.

c. THE PATCH APPROACH:

Because of the huge accumulation in every field of knowledge, it is impossible today to know every thing about every period that may appear in chronologically organized syllabus. One solution is to select certain periods and study them in great detail.

d. THE COMPARATIVE THEME APPROACH:

In some cases it is more useful to link patches, to compare them. For instance, one might study for a term various revolutions either taking the word in its broadest sense including the Reformation, the American War, the Industrial and French Revolution, or limiting it

to social unrest; mediaeval peasant, agricultural and industrial development.(69)

Certainly, the work of the younger pupils is generally concerned with the earlier periods of history, and the work of older pupils with more recent history. This seems natural enough since, if the story of history is to be followed progressively as the boy or girl grows older, it will follow that earlier history should be taken with the youngest pupils and the most recent with those who are older, but the syllabus should not be rely upon this approach only, it should be organized according to many other factors.(70) Incorporating a line development and the comparative approach gives what can be called the integration approach to the syllabus.(71)

Recent study has investigated some patterns of development of children's understanding of tools of thought of history; the concepts of time, evidence, change, causation and motivation. With an understanding of these developmental patterns, history teachers can use them to structure their syllabus. This type of approach gives the pupils tools for survival and growth, and puts history teaching in a key position in the school Curriculum(72).

As a result the trend in the history syllabus nowadays is to integrate several approaches; the chronological approach seems to be more convenient to the mental ability of the pupils who learn accordingly from the simple to the complex considering natural growth; the patch "era" approach which deals in more detail with

shorter periods; pupils may be concerned, for instance, with life in general in Elizabethan England or more specifically with an event such as the Spanish Armada; the line of development approach, which traces the development of a concept through the ages, this approach largely associated with the chronological approach; the comparative approach which deals comparatively with international events; and the regressive approach, which approach commands considerable attention today. The regressive approach means starting a study in the present and tracing its development back into the past.(73)

Obviously, the history teacher in planning his course has had to make decisions about the shape of the syllabus and the sort of approach he intends to use, identifying the main themes of the subject.

## 2.6 CLASSROOM

What is the classroom and how does it is affect the teaching process? Obanya [1985] pointed out that ones view of the classroom depends on ones conception of teaching, and also on what one is teaching.(74) Nevertheless, the classroom is very important in the process of teaching. It is, in Marland's [1975] terms "An ally or an enemy in teaching"(75) He adds "... part of the art of classroom is to use the room itself. Its arrangement can contribute to the control, the learning, the relationship, and the pleasure of working together"(76) Solity [1987] views the classroom

environment as comprising three components: physical, social and educational. By separating these out, the teacher is enabled to organise and manage each so that together, they provide for effective management of pupils' learning and behaviour in class.<sup>(77)</sup> Brooks [1979] indicated that three significant factors in which classrooms vary are: their size, their group character and their instructional purpose.<sup>(78)</sup> He asserted that good teaching seems to be as much the cornerstone of successful management as the reverse.<sup>(79)</sup> Moreover, whether the inhabitants of the classroom constitute a group or merely an assemblage is a matter of some consequence for its management. Regardless of the status of the entire class as a group, it usually contains a number of informal pupil groups, which derive some behaviour and activities from out of school associations.<sup>(80)</sup> Besides, a large class poses a more difficult management problem than a small one, so when the room itself is of inadequate dimension, the effects of crowding further aggravate the management problem.<sup>(81)</sup>

#### 2.6.1 SUCCESS IN THE CLASSROOM: Some Considerations

The teacher's success in the classroom depends on various factors, but the most important is the organization and detailed planning of each day, in this context Lemlech [1988] asserted that daily planning is not confined to the teachers, it includes the pupils as well. To enter the classroom unprepared is easiest for

the student, but not for the teacher. The student can remain relatively passive if he does not wish to participate; he can easily say to himself, "I pulled it off", but it is more difficult for the teacher to "pull it off if he is not well acquainted with his subject field or has not prepared his teaching strategy."<sup>(82)</sup> Thompson [1973] recommended that the planning procedure should be to draw up an overall framework of a year's work within which more complex plans can be laid for periods of three to four weeks at a time. Using these guide-lines, the teacher will find his task easier if each night he plans the details of the next day's work.<sup>(83)</sup> Similarly, Zaklukiewicz et al [1982] regarded the teacher's planning of his or her lesson as the key of his/her success.<sup>(84)</sup>

One of the most important factors of the teacher's success in the classroom is his "motivation". In this context, Howard [1977] stressed that "Motivation breeds academic success and success enhances motivation"<sup>(85)</sup> Gammage [1971] adopted Wiseman's idea that the teacher's motivation and his self-image are constantly reflected in the classroom. He goes on to say that the teacher should be regarded as controller and manipulator of the intellectual environment.<sup>(86)</sup> Dunhill [1957] pointed out that "the very manner in which you walk into the classroom sets the tempo of your lesson".<sup>(87)</sup> Moreover he assumed that the personal preparation of the teacher is adequate; having the qualities of an able teacher, effective speaking voice, an inspiring and purposeful

manner and happy relationship with his pupils. He then asked, "is that enough to carry on through the lesson?", the answer was negative because the teacher should enlist the support of diagrams, pictures, the blackboard, visual and aural aids to add interest and focus the attention of the class on certain factors vital to the lesson.<sup>(88)</sup>

Obviously, the start of the lesson is very important in the process of teaching, and plays a large part in determining the teacher's success. In this sense Smith [1984] indicated from a study of twelve London schools that fewer behaviour problems arose where lessons started on time and teachers did not spend lesson time setting up or giving out materials. The process of beginning a lesson smoothly and promptly involves greeting, seating and starting.<sup>(89)</sup> In the same context Smith [1988] stressed the importance of time management to the competence of the teacher in every subject. He reminded the teacher that until he has learnt his timetable by heart, he needs to have it in an easily readable and accessible form.<sup>(90)</sup>

#### **2.6.2 EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT**

The teacher's professional practice is described in terms of two major and apparently separate tasks. One is instruction, involving the selection and sequencing of appropriate lesson content, the transmission of knowledge, skills and attitudes, of feedback to pupils about their learning progress. The other is the task of

classroom management, involving the organisation of pupils, lessons and materials.<sup>(91)</sup> Lemlech [1988] determined that successful teaching requires pre-planning, and this should not be confined to the instructional side of the lesson. He states:

To be successful, the teacher must also think about avoiding common classroom occurrences that motivate misbehaviour. The best planned lesson will fail if the teacher forgot to provide appropriate instructions, or give resource information, or to decide what to do with finished papers. Each of these pitfalls can motivate inappropriate classroom behaviour that will make the difference between productive and non-productive learning<sup>(92)</sup>.

Brooks [1979] argued that effective management "is a requisite for instruction and good instruction is the key to the successful management"<sup>(93)</sup>. Smith [1984] proposed four aspects to be considered to enable all teachers to improve efficiency and harmony in their classrooms. These can be summarized as follows:

1. Planning the start of each lesson
2. Concluding the lesson and dismissing the class
3. The lesson itself: its content, manner and organization
4. Pupil-teacher relationship<sup>(94)</sup>.

In so doing, Smith gave specific examples to help the teacher to fulfil his duty successfully. For instance, the teacher should establish his role as host, this carries the practical advantage that he is able to

check that the room is tidy, and that materials are available;<sup>(95)</sup> moreover, every lesson should start with some activity that keeps each child quietly occupied in his own place.<sup>(96)</sup> Planning the start and the end of the lesson seems to be part of the smooth transition from one activity to another<sup>(97)</sup>. Variety is very important within the lesson to maintain interest, curiosity and motivation. Simple techniques such as remembering all the pupil's names are very important.<sup>(98)</sup>

Some writers have focused on classroom control as an important element in teaching. Fontana [1985] pointed out that the principle of classroom control is not that the teacher is enabled to sustain his personal authority over the children, but that he is able to work towards a situation in which his exercise of such control becomes less and less necessary<sup>(99)</sup>. He asserted three main aspects of the classroom control process:

1. Control is based upon an enlightened understanding of child behaviours, and upon the fostering of their psychological and academic development
2. It is based upon an understanding by the teacher of his own behaviour
3. Many problems of control which arise in the classroom are a direct consequence of the way in which teacher acts or reacts toward the children concerned.<sup>(100)</sup>



However Tattum [1986] emphasized the teacher's role as a manager exercising his authority in a variety of settings in order to enforce classroom rules. Whether the teacher is seen as asserting his personal authority, or enabling his pupils to work toward respect for rules, the ultimate purpose of classroom control should be help the pupils to develop into the adults of the future. To this end teachers use various forms of reward and punishment in the classroom.(101) Thus, classroom control and management will not necessarily be confined to effective academic learning, but also involve learning and developing effective behaviour which reflects positive teaching or instructions.(102)

#### 2.6.3 THE HISTORY CLASSROOM

Ideally the history classroom should be larger than the average classroom, but in practice most of are classrooms similar in size to those of any other subject. Dwyer and Litt [1962] recommended the following:

A floor area of six hundred square feet is ample for class of thirty, leaving space at the back for the history units and at the front for teaching, demonstrations and playlets.(103)

Why does the history classroom need somewhat special characteristics? It may be answered that the teaching of history requires a great deal of material which can not be satisfactorily carried about the school, and cannot be

properly used without a history classroom.(104) In this sense Litt pointed out:

The large history units, the work top, plan chest, sand-tray, tracing-table and film storage unit are of similar shape and size and can be butted together to form a large working surface.(105)

Thus, the history classroom may take a special design. Nevertheless, the ideal history room is that which perfectly fulfils the requirements of the teacher who uses it. It is not, however, out of place to make suggestions with which we believe most teachers will agree. The room must be large enough to allow floor space for the construction and demonstration of models, and for such activities as the acting or reading of short historical plays, at the same time pupil's desks must not be far from the teacher.(106)

Many teachers adapt their lessons and equipment to the classroom and organize the class in accordance with the existing position, and their planning and instruction is determined accordingly. Where open facilities and equipment are available these must be considered in the planing of each lesson. The teacher must ask himself, how he will start the lesson and what models pictures, charts, films, maps or documents will be used or made(107).

## 2.7 TEACHING AIDS

Many years ago there was only one method of teaching history: the pupils sat in straight rows, in silence, and the teacher faced and addressed them. Afterwards, the pupils set to and wrote what they had heard, memorising the content. The success of the lesson was judged by the amount the pupils remembered.(108)

Nowadays, the image is changed, particularly since the widespread availability of technological aids, and the accumulation of knowledge which created various models for history teaching. Bruner [1966] distinguished three modes of presentation; the enactive, the iconic, and the symbolic. He pointed out:

We can talk of three ways in which somebody "knows" something: through doing it, through a picture or image of it, and through some such symbolic means as language.(109)

Undoubtedly, the appropriate use of teaching aids requires special care and discretion in the selection process according to the themes of the lesson and the pupils mentality(110). Although the most common teaching aids are: books, papers, pens, pencils, chalk and crayons, these are not often what educators mean when they discuss the use and value of teaching aids. They mean the apparatus which is used to help the learner; the various things which are specially prepared for use in schools such as blackboards or blocks of wood of different shapes and sizes, as well as audio-visual aids

including pictures, drawings, writing, radios and cassette players, filmstrips, TV, and computers<sup>(111)</sup>. In history teaching the most striking development of the last thirty years has been the acceptance of the idea that the pupils should work in the style of the professional historian. This has impelled many teachers to use historical sources in the classroom and to consider their possible role in developing thinking skills. <sup>(112)</sup>

The use of resources in the classroom to develop thinking skills is combined with their other roles of providing atmosphere and illustration<sup>(113)</sup>. Generally speaking, the teaching aids and illustration can be examined through two dimensions, the visual dimension and activity-based learning in the teaching of history.

### **2.7.1 THE VISUAL DIMENSION**

The visual dimension can be related to many elements: pictures, slides, filmstrips, TV and computers and so on. This apparatus makes a vital contribution in helping the pupils to think historically. They can bring to children objects of rare historical value that they might otherwise never see. One may not be able to provide fossils for them to handle, and doubtless, most history pupils, and perhaps history teachers also, have never seen a Ming vase or handled the precious jewellery of ancient Sumer, but pictures or films can bring these things into the classroom. It is not quite the same as

actually having these things, but it is the next best thing. The film or overhead projector are particularly useful in illustrating a process. A film showing the working of Jethro Tull's seed-drill or James Watt's steam engine can explain them more clearly than anything we can say(114).

### 2.7.2 PICTURES

The best way to provide pupils with pictures which are suitable for the particular lesson, is to make use of the class text-book. In this sense Brown (1967] pointed out that the teacher who orders books that contain more words and fewer illustrations for his class, is putting them at a great disadvantage. He is not doing his best to make history meaningful to them. He should always take every opportunity he can to ensure that the text-books he uses are well-chosen and clearly illustrated throughout.(115)

Moore [1978] calls attention to pictures made by men from past areas. Such pictures can tell us a great deal about the times when the artist lived, and can help historians and history teachers to visualise and test their own findings, and can fire the imagination of the less interested beholder.(116) In this content, Moore warns that colour pictures are dominant in communication today and " history will lose its interest for the majority if it relies too much on the printed word"(117) Similar considerations apply to wall pictures and charts.

The teacher must use them as much as possible and ensure that they are understood. He should also seek to supplement wall pictures and charts with his own collection of pictures gathered from newspapers and magazines, to enable his pupils to learn by seeing; in Brown's term "History should enable people to acquire the habit of learning by looking"(118). However, Sharpe [1961] cautions that not every picture is better than none at all. He illustrates this idea as follows:

Any picture that you use in your lesson should be one which will interest the children, or make something clearer to them. A picture which does neither is not worth showing.(119)

### **2.7.3 SLIDES AND FILMSTRIP**

The first essential for any kind of thinking is accurate knowledge. Slides, films and filmstrip, can provide this abundantly. Without such materials the imaginative reconstruction of the past and the formation of complexes of historical facts, which in turn lead to the sense of historical development, are rendered difficult, if not impossible.(120) The effective teacher should be try to find out what teaching aids are suitable and what teaching aids are available; filmstrip, tapes, slides, TV etc, and use them according to the theme of the lesson(121). As psychological research has indicated that learning through seeing is an integral part of the

cognitive process in building mental images; storing experiences, ideas and concepts<sup>(122)</sup>.

Clearly, slides and films are already teacher-directed, Fairly asked "Why the children should not themselves make use of such media"<sup>(123)</sup> and replied that "The simple pocket viewer and appropriate slides would obviously enhance the value of the little class library by providing additional visual material which all could see and handle"<sup>(124)</sup>. Nevertheless, most teachers feel that these visual aids should be used sparingly and, as a rule, to illustrate a particular topic in the history course<sup>(125)</sup>.

#### 2.7.4 MAPS

Many times throughout the course, the teacher will feel that he wants to draw a map on the blackboard, or use a wall map to make the topic clearer and more interesting, and he should certainly do so whenever he can. When he is planning to use his map, he should remind himself of one or two points about the use of maps and sketch maps. The map should be big enough to be seen clearly by the whole class. It must also show clearly what the teacher wants it to show<sup>(126)</sup>.

However, while the map as a visual aid may be useful, Brown thought that "Using a map as visual aid is not sufficient<sup>(127)</sup>. He suggested that the sand-tray can be more important as an illustration<sup>(128)</sup> Similarly Healy [1974] suggest that the map has disadvantages. He states:

The actual drawing or tracing of conventional map outlines is a slow process with little if any educative value.(129)

However the teacher needs to use maps in same cases; for instance, when he teaching topic "The river cities of Iraq" will almost certainly require the use of a sketch map(130).

The map often provides the pupils with a new view of the familiar ground, so it is essential equipment for history study(131).

#### 2.7.5 COMPUTER

In developed countries the microcomputer is now a very widely recognized part of school apparatus, but in underdeveloped countries most pupils have only heard of such equipment. At best, they may have seen it in some other institution such as a bank, air way office or university etc, but have never used it. However, since the computer now is required as one of the salient dimensions of human experience development, it should be available in schools in developing countries as soon as possible.

As yet, however, even in many schools in developed countries, the use of the computer for history teaching is very limited or non-existent, though it is also true that the number of teachers using the microcomputer in history lessons is growing rapidly. In this context, Hulme [1986] found that more than 52 % of 1.362 secondary



school teachers in the United States of America had used a microcomputer in history teaching during 1985.(132)

The computer can be used to introduce pupils to the techniques of quantitative analysis using historical data(133). Wilkes [1985] considered why CAL [computer assisted learning] is becoming an essential part of the study and teaching of history. He asserted that:

CAL is a powerful new subset of methods with three special strengths: the amount of accessible information which a computer can store; the extraordinary rapidity with which computerized data can be made available to the user and the learning opportunities provided by the computer's capacity to display rapidly changing states of information easily(134).

Similarly, Colins [1985] regarded the computer like other resources as a teaching tool(135).

#### 2.7.8 OTHER ILLUSTRATIONS

There are many other illustrative materials in history teaching; text-books, sources and documents are among the most important devices. Obviously, reading from original sources is increasingly used in history teaching everywhere(136). The teacher should also use documents which provide rich details and original historical evidence, including written manuscripts, artefacts, buildings, paintings and other genuine relics of the past(137). In this sense Jamieson [1971] asserted that the local museum can play a key role(138).

#### 2.7.9 ACTIVITY-BASED LEARNING

The fine idea of Reeves [1980] that " No learning is complete without some activity of body, mind or imagination"(139) is a useful point of departure for discussing the process of understanding history through activity.

The enactive mode [learning through doing] encompasses a pervasive range of situations. In the context of history teaching, these activities fall into three main categories: games, simulation\* and projects(140). Sylvester [1968] suggested three characteristics for pupils' activities; firstly, they are akin to those activities which mature and professional historians engage in; they differ not in kind but in degree from mature historical skills. Secondly, they are activities which individualize learning; some of course, may demand co-operation within a group, but all involve an individual learning task. Finally, they present the pupils with concrete material(141). Individual and group tasks alike are well represented by the following activities:

#### 2.7.10 GAMES

History games provide the pupils with opportunities to employ skills and concepts which are essential to an understanding of the subject discipline itself.(142) The point can be illustrated by the Merchant Adventure, for example, or attempts to act out a

problem from a commercial game or any popular game.(143) Although it is far removed from the real world of human activity, it should encourage pupils to use historical skills and concepts in a way which is active rather than passive.(144) Wilson and Nichol [1976] drew attention to many types of game designed for use in the classroom:

- a. Board games; simple games based on such ideas as "Snakes and ladders" have been devised to teach pupils the pitfalls and hazard of certain historical situations, where there is a strong chance or risk.(145)
- b. Map games, in which pupils may chose sites, fill in a map according to a predetermined outline, and discussion games involving either class debates or intergroup negotiation.(146)
- c. Incidental games; not all history games require intricate preparation. With a little imagination, the teacher can devise an elementary game lasting no more than a few minutes to illustrate a major theme of the lesson. For example, he can involve pupils in making envelopes from sheets of paper. The first time they make them individually, then in small

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\*. Simulation can be taken to include both role-play and drama.

groups, the point of the exercise being to show that the second method is much quicker, thereby illustrating the advantage of division of labour. Such a game could be slotted into a lesson on the industrial revolution and the rise of the factory system.(147)

#### 2.7.11 SIMULATION AND DRAMA

The use of simulation and drama represents a further extension of the use of sources and activity methods in the history classroom.(148) Nichol explained historical simulation in simple and clearly words. He wrote:

History simulation is based on the simple idea that pupils should act out the role or roles of characters in history. As such, it is a rationalization of much previous classroom practice. But, as a rationalization, it enables the techniques to be much more systematically developed and applied.(149)

Simulation in this sense is an integral part of historical thinking. The simulation exercise is a sort of role-play and drama. One method of achieving the recreation of the characters and events of the past is through role-playing, defined by Ments [1983] who pointed out:

The idea of role-play, in its simplest form, is that of asking someone to imagine that they are either themselves or another person in a particular situation.(150)

Drama is very similar to role-playing, but drama implies something more theatrical, involving a high degree of preparation.<sup>(151)</sup> However dramatic work has a great value in history teaching. It gives pupils another opportunity to express themselves orally, a skill which comes more easily than writing. They place themselves in the situations in which real people in the past found themselves.<sup>(152)</sup> Drama and simulation can also give children the sense of the uncertainty of history.<sup>(153)</sup> Dramatic work might take the following forms:

- a. Miming to an extract read aloud in class.
- b. Making puppets.
- c. A programme similar to that used in broadcasting.
- d. A play written by the teachers or by the pupil themselves.<sup>(154)</sup>

This type of learning has great importance in changing historical facts and events from the abstract to perception information.

#### 2.7.12 OTHER ACTIVITIES

There are several other activities in which the pupils can be engaged in the classroom, such as, drawing, sketching maps, re-telling a story, projects and so on. Among all of these activities, the project is a favourite method of teaching, because it keeps pupils happily and gainfully employed at their own pace and in their own

way.(155) The project method provides training in historical research and is more valuable than making pupils memorise large numbers of facts to regurgitate in examinations.(156) In 1975, Labett et al designed classroom projects about local history, using a computer as one aspect of that work. They concluded that the pupils become involved in the problem of what questions to ask, more time to be spent generating a hypothesis, and more time was spent exploring the idea of generalization.(157)

Project work may take several forms\*. It may involve individual assignments pupils or may be organized in teams. Projects, can relate mainly to secondary or primary resources. They give the pupils a large amount of freedom in selecting a topic for investigation, and in pursuing it through the available resources with a minimum of teacher supervision.(158)

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\*One of the earlier forms of project work was the Dalton plan. This scheme envisaged the almost complete disappearance of the separation of school time-table into periods: instead, teachers directed individual and class investigations into topics that cut across both time-table and subject divisions. Another type of project may be carried out through group work. So there are advocates of other methods of organising project teaching, the line development, the topic, the theme, the patch etc. See: Jamison, Op. Cit., P. 8-9.

## 2.8 TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

### 2.8.1 THE AIMS OF EXAMINATION

Why do teachers have to set examinations? The common answer is to find out what the pupils have learnt. In other words, the teacher has to test and examine his pupils to test their knowledge and reasoning ability.<sup>(159)</sup> Booth [1969] thought that it is questionable whether we need any sort of formal written examination in history at the end of the fourth or fifth year in the secondary school.<sup>(160)</sup> Some scholars<sup>(161)</sup> might think that continuous assessment and topic work give a fuller and more satisfactory picture of the pupil's achievement than any history paper, particularly as it seems as though many of the present external examinations are no more than tests of fragments of knowledge whose influence extends beyond the examination room and affects the quality and emphasis of the teacher's classroom practice.

A good examination is one that really deals with the purpose and objectives of history teaching. In this sense Dance [1970] pointed out that the purpose of history examinations is to test the following<sup>(162)</sup>:

- a. A conventional body of knowledge, consisting mainly of names and dates, and some accepted generalization;
- b. The ability to arrange this knowledge into meaningful sequences;
- c. Powers of judgment and appraisal;

- d. An understanding of our own times;
- e. A realization of the unity of human evolution;
- f. An appreciation of the importance of certain spiritual values;
- g. A method of work.

These steps indicate that any examination in history has to cover a variety of skills, subject values, knowledge and understanding<sup>(163)</sup>.

#### 2.8.2 TYPE OF TESTS

Several types of tests and examinations have already been adopted in history teaching. The common types have been outlined by the Assistant Masters Association [1975] and many other scholars:<sup>(164)</sup>

1. Oral questions and answers: this type of test has a twofold difficulty; firstly, the teacher is unable to deal with more than one pupil at time. Secondly, the more sophisticated forms are extremely difficult to mark, so that the pupils do not know how well they have done.
2. Written questions on source material requiring short written answers: These tests are not suitable for general use in class, because they take up too much time. One obvious source is a map; the teacher can indicate significant places by letters and ask the pupils to identify them.



3. Objective tests: there are several types of objective tests, but the most common is the multiple-choice; it consists of short questions or statements, complete or incomplete [called stem], followed by four or five alternative answers (distractors) usually identified by letters, of which one is correct and the others incorrect.
4. Answers of paragraph length, which may take shape, such as, "Write a short note about...." or "Define a selection of historical terms, e.g, Whig, Prerogative court....etc".
5. Essays: the pupils try to write from memory, finishing the essay for homework.
6. Project work: this is used to test the pupil's capacities for construction and appreciation, by means of reports on projects or other extended essays.
7. Public examination: question papers for public examination go through a long process of preparation and revision before they see the light of day. The first draft is often submitted to a reviser or moderator and sometimes to a large committee. One of the most important elements in the standard type of exam is that the pupils should be made familiar with the format and style of an objective test before they come face to face with one in a public examination(165).

### 2.8.3 THE USES AND ABUSES OF EXAMINATIONS\*

As we have mentioned before, the objective of tests and examinations is to help the pupils; to show them the extent of their knowledge and to indicate their progress in a limited field at a definite moment; to measure their success in highly specialised exercise<sup>(166)</sup>.

The difficulties here tend to arise from the fact that the overall aim of the history teacher is to achieve certain attitudes of mind in his pupils, to impart certain values or to develop certain qualities through the study of his subject. These attitudes, values or skills are not readily susceptible to the forms of measurement used in schools; the amount of factual material remembered is much easier to measure comparatively. Thus there is a great danger that the testing process can lead to undue emphasis on cramming or learning of facts simply for the purpose of reproducing them under examination conditions. In such cases, much of the value of studying history might be lost<sup>(167)</sup>. Therefore the teacher has to determine? How long he is going to spend on the subject-matter to be examined, and when and how he is going to prepare pupils for the form of the exam<sup>(168)</sup>. In so doing, the effective teacher should take into consideration the individual differences in the capacity,

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\*The title quoted from, Lamont, Op. Cit P. 129.

mental aptitude and memorising ability of his students, and encourage varied ways of teaching and learning. All these should be taken for granted before he designs the question paper<sup>(169)</sup>.

Generally speaking, every test must have aims, which have to be explained to the pupils before the test is taken. This is a vital part of effective teaching.

## 2.9 CONCLUSION

As we have seen, the teaching process involves many aspects, the teacher's qualities, his previous training and qualification, experience, ability to plan his teaching effectively, preparation of the syllabus, use of teaching aids, in addition to classroom management and setting of examinations. All these aspects determine the method of teaching and the degree of failure or success. Nevertheless, the teaching process primarily relies upon the teacher's role in the classroom. He is the backbone of the educational body. Evaluation of the teaching process should, therefore, focus on the teacher's role, his experience, his preparation, the lessons and courses alike, his motivation to teach, including the desire for self-development. He should be a good reader and a good researcher, not merely in his field, but also in other relevant spheres of knowledge, and he should have an

aptitude for recognizing his pupils' thinking. The last idea is very important indeed, but clearly this is a consequence of the teacher's qualities and experience. The teacher, according to the literature, should plan his work including preparation of his material aids; what kind of evidence to use, documents, pictures, maps, charts, film or filmstrip, TV and computer. Similarly, the teacher who hopes to be effective should arrange and control his classroom to ensure a better learning environment.

Finally, history teaching faces some obstacles and difficulties because it deals with the past events which cannot be testified to in the laboratory. Thus, the subject needs particular care to judge its acceptance by pupils, and this, of course, requires special care in choosing the shape of tests and examinations.

So far, the theoretical framework has been related to the study's general approach and dimensions. However, the study needs more focus. Thus the next chapter will look in more detail at issues of specific concern to the study, especially the educational system in Iraq, with special reference to history teaching in secondary schools.

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## **CHAPTER THREE**

# **THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN IRAQ**

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Iraq was the cradle of human culture. Educational institutions emerged as early as 2500 B.C, in so-called ancient Mesopotamia. Cuneiform signs on clay reveal the first cultural revolution in the ancient world there; they represented alphabetic scripts used to record native literature, administer bureaucratic activities and record legal transactions. Many surviving legal codes, such as the code of Hammurabi, recorded rules designed to arrange the daily life of a highly organized society; including the relationship between pupils and teachers, emphasising the qualifications, rights and duties of teachers. Schools of this period were of two types: the first one was the tablet-house, which concentrated on teaching, reading and writing, while higher education was provided in the "house of wisdom", which seems to have provided a complex curriculum based on systemized knowledge: mathematics, astronomy, medicine, art and theology (1).

In the Islamic epoch, education has been encouraged by God's commandments in the Quran, and by the prophet Muhammad's speeches and injunctions. The Holy Quran asserts that education leads to approved conduct and hence to happiness in this life and the next. Learning and the pursuit of knowledge, which is the duty of all Muslims, leads to wisdom and helps them to recognize God's injunctions. As the holy Quran emphasises, " God bears witness that men imbued with knowledge maintain his



creation in justice"(2), and "Say, shall those who know be deemed equal with those who do not?"(3). Thus, from the earliest time, the mosque was associated with education. Two types of mosque education were developed: the ungraded lower school, "Katatib", which taught the Quran and rudiments of reading, writing and arithmetic, and the ungraded higher school or university mosque, "Al-Massjid Al-Jami", which provided more specialized education, including more advanced mathematics, astronomy, philosophy, logic, medicine, linguistics and botany. The curriculum was based on the local cultural heritage, together with Greek and Indian texts(4).

The structure of the educational system in Iraq has been revised and modified several times since the fall of the Arab empire.

Modern Arab education has developed from the Islamic tradition, influenced by the European system. The national curriculum was born under the short period of British mandate (1918-1930), and the remaining traces of traditional education gradually declined. There has been great development since World War II, in the effort to keep in line with world developments in knowledge and communication.

### 3.2 THE OTTOMAN PERIOD.

For more than four hundred years, the Ottoman empire ruled Iraq. The people experienced the darkest age of their history. The Ottoman empire was united through the

Islamic system, following closely the educational trend of the golden age of the Arab empire that preceded it. The history of educational progress may roughly be divided into three stages:(5)

1. education in the middle ages, which began when the empire was founded and lasted until the end of the 18th century;

2. modernization of education from the end of the 18th century to the end of the 19th century;

3. the school created under the constitutional government known as "*Mashrutiyya*", which lasted till the end of World War I.

The educational system adopted was that of Persia, which in turn, was taken from the Arabs, when Persia was part of the great Islamic Arab Empire. The medium of instruction was Arabic, and the holy Quran was the only textbook used. The system was modernized under Sultan Fatih who introduced a changes in the three levels of education: primary, secondary and higher education. The Sultan's initiative for educational reform was deeply influenced by the pressure exerted by the European powers(6).

In the era of Sultan Muhammad II (1809-1839), compulsory education was enforced in some of the Ottoman towns in 1824. The foundation was laid for secondary education on modern lines by adopting what was

appropriate from European systems, thereby breaking with derelict old traditions.

Muhammad's successor, Sultan Abdul-Majid (1839-1861) laid the foundation for constitutional reforms. A civil committee was entrusted with educational affairs, which had for centuries been controlled by the "*Sheikh Al-Islam*" alone.

In 1869, the first education law was enacted and was modified after the revolution of 1908: primary and secondary schools were established and Istanbul University was founded<sup>(7)</sup>.

### 3.3 THE ENGLISH PERIOD

The Ottoman empire lost its control over Iraq, soon after the entry of Turkey into World War I. Iraq started a new era under direct British occupation till 1921 and under British mandate till 1932.

Although British domination, direct or indirect, was very short (about 12-14 years), many scholars and researchers consider this period as crucial for the establishment of a new system of education in Iraq<sup>(8)</sup>

On 11th of March 1917, British troops occupied Baghdad and started to manage its administration under a new governor called the "Civil Commissioner". The new governor nominated Mr Bolard to be in charge of educational affairs. Mr Bolard did nothing to stabilize the educational system, which he found in extreme chaos, because Ottoman troops as they withdrew, had removed all

the teachers, and destroyed all the schools' facilities and equipment, including the textbooks, school doors, windows and even desks. To overcome the shortage of qualified teachers, the educational authority undertook, in June 1917, to establish an education department for teacher training, which started with 81 students. At the end of the course, which lasted three months, only 29 students passed. With them five primary schools were established in Baghdad<sup>(9)</sup>. The next course lasted six months, and the number of teachers increased from 125 in January 1918, to 300 teachers by the end of 1919<sup>(10)</sup>. Under the pressure of public opinion through the media, the Civil Commissioner agreed to set up a committee for educational affairs. This was a consultative committee, which had no right to determine the educational policy. The committee consisted of five natives named: Ali Al-Alussi, Muhammad Shikry Al-Alussi, Jamil Sidky Al-Zahawi, Anstans Mary Al-Karmally and Hamdi Baban<sup>(11)</sup>.

Teaching went on without curricula and textbooks. The staff put forward temporary curricula, including, reading, writing, arithmetic, Quran and religion, geography, history and English language<sup>(12)</sup>.

In September 1917, the School of Survey was founded to meet the government's needs for irrigation and many other projects. At this stage the British administration gave financial subsidies to foreign and private schools; thus a sizeable number of these schools were established, especially for the minorities: Syrian, Kildan, Armenian, Protestant, Catholic and Jewish private schools<sup>(13)</sup>.

Secondary education had been ignored, but in response to a request from the Baghdad elite to introduce secondary education, the education office published in the local newspaper an advertisement, announcing its desire to open a secondary school of two streams: literary and practical, offering a three-year course. On the first of May 1918, the new educational officer, Mr T.W. Williams, met the educational committee to discuss the secondary school issue. The result of this meeting was to postpone the matter<sup>(14)</sup>.

On 22nd of August 1918, educational administration came under the direct control of Mr H.E. Bowman, who thought that secondary education should be minimized to encompass a small number of students, in order to avoid a serious problem of unemployment among the white colour class, reflecting his experience in Egypt and India. Thus he continued the previous policy that disregarded secondary education. Eventually, at the end of 1919, the first secondary school in Baghdad saw the light, starting with only seven students<sup>(15)</sup>.

On 7th of November 1919, the law college which had been closed before the World War I, was reopened with 45 students. The fees were extremely high, so only the richest students could attend<sup>(16)</sup>.

The first national Ministry of Education was set up in 1920, and subsequently, Iraqi officials took over the educational system from the British authorities. Since that time, those responsible in the Ministry endeavoured to extend the opportunities for all types of learning by

increasing the number of educational establishments and making the necessary modifications in curricula and courses<sup>(17)</sup>.

The most important step towards specialization in secondary education took place in 1926, when the usual four-year course was split into two stages: a two-year general course followed by two-year of specialization in either literary or scientific studies. Meanwhile, regulations governing the public secondary school examination were issued in that year by the Ministry of Education, and the first examination of this kind was held at the end of the academic year 1925-1926<sup>(18)</sup>.

In 1927, two technical schools giving education and training of post-primary level were opened in Baghdad: these were the School of Engineering and School of Agriculture. The former was intended to provide a three-year general course with a bias towards engineering, while the latter was designed to offer a three-year general course, with a vocational bias towards agriculture. Unfortunately neither of these schools made encouraging progress. This, and the financial crisis which badly affected the national budget after 1929, forced the Ministry of Education to close them down in 1931<sup>(19)</sup>.

The first Iraqi law for education was enacted in 1929. In the following year, training in the academic secondary-school course was extended from four to five years. The new course was divided into two stages; the first three years comprising the intermediate stage,

while the fourth and fifth years were called the preparatory stage. The whole course was made to offer general education, with a bias towards science and arts at the preparatory stage. Thus the modern academic secondary-school course began to take shape<sup>(20)</sup>.

While primary school education for girls had been established in the last decade of the nineteenth century, secondary schooling did not appear till 1929, when the first secondary school for girls was provided in Baghdad. Both the curriculum and the length of the course in girls' schools were deeply influenced by those of boys' schools, particularly in the matter of examinations<sup>(21)</sup>.

In the scholastic year 1931-1932, a new curriculum was introduced into the secondary schools. The old bilateral curriculum was replaced by one of four divisions: literary, social studies, physical science and mathematics. However this curriculum failed and prompted public opinion against it. This forced the educational authority to modify the curriculum in 1936, returning to the bilateral division<sup>(22)</sup>. Meanwhile, the Ministry of Education requested the International Institute of the Teachers College of Colombia to enquire into the whole organization of the Iraqi educational system and to make suggestions regarding its improvement. As a consequence, an educational enquiry commission headed by professor Paul Monroe was set up in the beginning of 1932. The commission team made a comprehensive survey of the Iraqi schools. In April 1932, the team put forward their conclusions in a report named "*Report on the Educational*

*Inquiry Commission*". This contained nine chapters, reflecting the nature of the educational system, its problems and suggesting some solutions(23).

Herman Saudov, a UNESCO expert in vocational education was invited to Iraq in 1935 to evaluate and advise on secondary education. He suggested on the basis of his investigation, that transformation from clerical and official education to education in commerce, industry and agriculture education was necessary for the future development of the country(24).

Although Iraq became a fully independent state in 1932 and became a member of the League of Nations, it continued under British influence, directly or indirectly, till 1958, when the 14th July 1958 revolution put an end to the rule of the monarchy which had been set up in 1921. The political, social, economic and educational systems were radically changed, to make them more popular and more appropriate to local needs.

### 3.4 DEVELOPMENT SINCE THE 1958 REVOLUTION

The period between British occupation and the 1958 revolution witnessed some important developments in many aspects of social life in Iraq, particularly in the education field. The *Katatib* (private traditional schools) gradually gave way to public primary schools. In this regard, the official records, show that by 1958, only two recognized *Katatib* remained. The relative expansion in primary education, however, was unable to



match the increase in the population. Under the post-1958 revolution, education received more attention, it was made compulsory and the number of pupils admitted for primary level increased from 430,000 in 1957-1958 to 849,000 in 1963, then to 926,000 in 1965.

Despite the legislation for compulsory education, however, it was not until the 1970s that the measure was fully implemented and all children were, in fact, attending school<sup>(25)</sup>.

The first university was established in Baghdad in 1958, and for the first time, teachers had their own union. Meanwhile, some attention was given to the problem of illiteracy.<sup>(26)</sup>

However, the 1958 regime had faced a chaotic system, not only in education, but in most aspects of social life. The problems seemed to be more visible in education, which had developed piecemeal, without accurate planning, thus it failed to provide the manpower needed by the modern state. The serious attempts of the government to reform the educational system were in collision with the old and unplanned system and quickly fell with the regime itself.

### 3.5 THE MODERN ERA: 1968-UP TO DATE

From the very beginning, the 1968 revolution leaders recognized that poverty, illness and illiteracy were the three great dangers to any nation that would like to move to the future. The Arab Ba'ath socialist party, which

ruled the state of Iraq, consistently stated that illiteracy was not just an educational, social or economic problem, but a central political issue with far-reaching implications. The problem was mentioned in the party's first manifesto in 1947, and in the report of the sixth national conference 1963. The Party leadership committed itself to the eradication of illiteracy<sup>(27)</sup>.

To achieve this goal, the government decreed rules, which laid the guide-lines for educational policies. An illiteracy eradication law was promulgated in 1971. This was followed by a free education law in 1974, whereby the state undertook the responsibility of covering all financial costs at all educational stages, from kindergarten to university. In 1976, a further compulsory education law was passed, making primary schooling compulsory for all children between the ages of six and fifteen, and committing the state to providing all the necessary facilities<sup>(28)</sup>.

These laws confirmed the government's commitment and underlined its policy objectives, which regarded education as a vital factor in the cultural, social and economic improvement. The former President of Iraq is reported to have said:

In view of the significant role it plays in preparing man-power qualified for leading desired change, the educational process is one of the important instruments not only for achieving adjustments in the status quo but also for the reconstruction of the political, social, economic and cultural order<sup>(29)</sup>.

The statement reflects the state's general objectives and the government recognition of education, which was clearly expressed through the national development plan of 1976-1980, a five-year plan set out and executed by the Ministry of Planning. This plan regulated agricultural and industrial projects in the country, together with many other services such as, transportation, communication, education, health, building and so forth. The plan referred to the necessity of expansion in social services in line with the increase in the national income and with the progress of the movement of socialist construction, to achieve a development rate amounting to 8.5% a year. This basically included free education, health and preventive hygiene, in addition to the investment especially directed to human development in education and training of all types. As the plan spelled out:

The programme for human development aims to direct the institutional and educational efforts at all stages of education in accordance with the needs of reconstructing the society and its political, social and economic changes<sup>(30)</sup>.

The state's concern for education as a key factor in human and economic development impelled the political administration to give priority to projects which could provide qualified manpower. Thus, education was given a significant share in state plans.

### 3-6 EDUCATIONAL FUNDS

The government is financially in charge of education at all levels, from kindergarten up to university. The Ministry of Education is responsible for financing kindergarten, primary, secondary, vocational education and teacher training, while the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research undertakes the funding of all the universities and post-secondary technical education. These funds cover all educational requirements, including supervision, development of curricula, textbooks and audio-visual aids<sup>(31)</sup>.

To clarify the significance of educational expenditure provided by the government, it is important to evaluate it with respect to the total government expenditure.

Table 3-1, reveals some fluctuation in educational expenditure. Educational expenditure was 16.6% of the total governmental expenditure in 1960-61. It increased to 19.2% in 1965-66, but declined to 14.8% in 1970-71 and to 5.2% in 1980-81 and to 6.5% in 1985-86.

However if we exclude the period of the war with Iran (1980-88), the average seems to be quite reasonable compared with that in other countries. The percentage share of expenditure in 23 developing and 18 developed countries for the period 1967-69 as Prest (1975) has reported, was 17.7% and 12.8% respectively<sup>(32)</sup>. Thus the percentage in Iraq was lower than that of developing

countries, but higher than that in the developed countries.

Table 3-1 The Level of Education Expenditure Compared with Total Government Expenditure, Expressed in Million Iraqi Dinars.

Year	Government expenditure	Education expenditure	Education expenditure%
1960-61	161.9	26.8	16.6
1965-66	247.3	47.6	19.2
1970-71	419.9	62.0	14.8
1980-81	9.014.9	470.6	5.2
1985-86	8.500.00	555.3	6.2

#### Sources:

1. Ministry of Finance, the Office of Accounts, Annual Reports of State Accounts, Selected Issues 1960-1971. (Arabic).
2. Ministry of Planning, Central Statistical Organization, Annual Abstract of Statistics, Selected Issues 1960-1980. (Arabic)
3. Ministry of Planning, Spending on Health and Education in Iraq, table 2. (Arabic)
4. Ministry of Education, Directorate- General of Educational Planning, Basic Educational Statistics for the Year 1979-80, Baghdad, 1981, P. 15. (Arabic)
5. Ministry of Education, Development of Education In Iraq, 1986-1987, Baghdad, 1987, P. 11 (Arabic)

Turning to the figures, the fluctuation which is apparent in the table can be attributed to several

interrelated factors, economic, social, political and the long period of war, which changed spending priorities.

Table 3-2 Distribution of Educational Budget by Educational Sectors

Education sector	1980 %	1986 %
Kindergarten and primary education	42.0	46.0
Secondary, vocational and teacher education	15.5	21.0
Higher education	20.8	26.0
Miscellaneous	19.5	7.0

#### Sources

1. Ministry of Education, Development of Education in Iraq During the Years 1981-82, 1982-83, Baghdad Al-Jahidh Press, 1984, P. 3 (Arabic)
2. Ministry of Education, Development of Education in Iraq for the Years 1986-87, Baghdad 1987, P. 11

However, the field of kindergarten and primary education, which was to some extent neglected in the past, has received the lion's share in recent years. As table 3-2 shows, kindergarten and primary education obtained about half the total budget of education in the years 1980-86. In fact, any government's expenditure depends on the revenue it receives, and the government in Iraq acted on this basis, so the proportion seems to be adequate to cover at least the minimum requirement of education.

### **3.7 STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM**

The education system in Iraq is comparable to that prevailing in most countries, especially the Third World systems. It consists of the following:

#### **3.7.1 PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION**

Kindergarten education is available for children of age 4-5 years. This kind of education is usually found in urban areas, while rural areas lack such facilities<sup>(33)</sup>.

#### **3.7.2 PRIMARY EDUCATION**

Primary school covers the age group between 6-11 years, it is fully compulsory for all children who have completed six years of age at the beginning of the scholastic year or on 31st December of the same year. It was planned that primary schools would all become co-educational, with all-female staff<sup>(34)</sup>.

#### **3.7.3 SECONDARY EDUCATION**

This stage, of six years duration, is divided into two levels. The first, called the intermediate level, covers the age group 12-14 years. Its objectives and curriculum are integrated with those of the previous and following stages<sup>(35)</sup>. The second level of secondary education covers the age group 15-17 years. A student who is successful in the general examination of the intermediate school is awarded a certificate which

enables him/her to proceed to the next stage(*preparatory*). This is divided into two branches: first: Vocational education, which encompass three main sections: industrial, agricultural and commercial. Students who pass the Ministerial general examinations (*Baccalaureate*) are awarded a certificate equivalent to the preparatory school certificate. This type of education aims to provide theoretical and practical training to meet the country's needs for skilled manpower in various fields of specialisation<sup>(36)</sup>. The second formal academic education is divided into two main sections: literary and scientific, starting from the second year of preparatory education. Thus, students may specialize either in literary or scientific subjects for a period of two years. In addition to these main sections, there are four comprehensive secondary schools which combine academic, vocational and technical courses of study on one site. Moreover, there are religious schools and institutes concentrating on the Arabic language, and Islamic studies. Development plans stress the improvement and diversification of preparatory education, and intermediate graduates are distributed according to their abilities, as assessed by their results in the general examinations<sup>(37)</sup>.

#### 3.7.4 POST SECONDARY EDUCATION

Post-secondary education is for 2-6 years covering the age group 18-23. Study in this stage is either in



technical institutes leading to a diploma (usually a two-year course) or in specialized colleges in the fields of Arts, Science, Fine Arts, Medicine, Engineering and so on, leading to B.A, B.Ed and B.Sc degree. In recent years post-graduate studies, M.A, M.Ed, M.Sc and Ph.D, were expanded in the field of science, humanities, arts and education studies<sup>(38)</sup>.

### 3.8 PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

School teachers are prepared through four main routes:

3.8.1 Teacher Training Schools: five years study after the intermediate stage, the first three years directed to general subjects, while in the last two years, the students are distributed among several specialisations such as general primary education and kindergarten, art education, physical education, English language, science and mathematical education.

3.8.2 Teacher Training Institutes: two years study after secondary stage, in which the students specialise in the English language, physical education and art education, in addition to the general subjects. These institutes exist in the capital, Baghdad and three other provinces: Nineveh, Maysan and Arbil<sup>(40)</sup>.

3.8.3 Specialized Teacher Preparation Institutes: such as fine arts institutes; the duration of study is five years after intermediate education, or two years after secondary education. This type of education leads to a technical diploma which qualifies the graduate to teach either primary school subjects such as drama, music, cinema, plastic arts, song and calligraphy or to specialize in teaching slow-learners, weak-sighted children and children with hearing difficulties<sup>(41)</sup>

3.8.4 Colleges, which grant B.Ed, B.A and B.Sc degree after four years of study. Colleges of Education are responsible mainly for preparing teachers for secondary school, in the fields of science, arts, social science, education and psychology. There are eight education colleges in the country, in eight among ten universities, namely: Baghdad, Al-Mustansiriya, Basra, Mosul, Anbar, Qadisiya and Salah-Aldeen University. The College of Fine Arts prepares teachers specializing in different branches of arts, such as painting, plastic arts, cinema and drama, while the College of Physical Education prepares teachers for intermediate and preparatory schools. Vocational teachers are prepared either by the College of Agriculture or by the College of Administration and Economics, in specialized departments. The University of Technology is responsible for preparing teachers for technical and

industrial institutes. In addition, some of the Colleges of Arts, train the staff of intermediate and preparatory schools in the fields of linguistics, psychology, social sciences and so on.(42)

The teacher plays a vital role in the educational process. Thus, the Ministry of Education, which recognizes the need to improve educational, scientific and cultural conditions to achieve its goals, adopted a long term plan for admission to the various types of teacher education institutes and revision of curricula and syllabuses, in order to raise the level of teaching staff by means of training courses inside and outside the country and by furnishing these institutions with higher degree holders and experienced teachers and researchers. The Ministry has also created new directorates, as well as technical and administrative offices, to guarantee the proper management of these education institutions, with appropriate building and necessary educational equipment(43).

### 3.9 CURRICULUM

The curriculum is designed and prepared centrally. The Ministry of Education is responsible for preparing, developing and following up curricula, textbooks and teaching aids(44).

The Ministry of Education has set up a National Curricula Committee, bringing together the expertise of university staff, researchers, inspectors, supervisors and teachers. They report to the Higher Committee for Curricula, Teaching Aids and Examinations, which in turn reports to the Council of Education, the highest authority in the Ministry, which is responsible for educational decisions in the light of state policy<sup>(45)</sup>.

The Directorate of Curricula and Textbooks has full responsibility for submitting annual suggestions and comments to the Ministry Council, concerning the curriculum and the time-table of each subject in primary and secondary education. It is also responsible for various steps which should be taken in the process of developing curricula and textbooks, which can be outlined as follows:

- To interpret the fundamental principles of social and cultural ideas adopted by the state and society into general educational aims; the objectives of various stages and subjects are derived from the general educational aims accredited in the country.

- To plan and list the basic curriculum objectives for each stage of study, covering all the aspects which contribute to improving the pupil's character and personality, taking into account the development of society as a whole.

- To prepare the curriculum and syllabuses for each subject, at all stages.

- To select and circulate adopted textbooks, teaching aids and many other relevant educational activities which ensure the achievement of the basic objectives of the curricula.

Curricula have been criticized as too academic, giving little time to the practical subjects, while the prescribed textbooks for each subject and class are the only resources used by both pupils and teachers, causing stultification<sup>(47)</sup>. For that reason, the curricula, syllabuses and textbooks are constantly revised and fundamentally modified. They are then submitted to the Higher Committee for Curricula and Syllabuses, to obtain final approval<sup>(48)</sup>.

Annual revision and modification comes as a result of several difficulties facing the teaching staff, e.g. pupils can not freely choose their subjects, there is no differentiation between sexes or areas, and use of standard textbooks often discourages pupils from broadening their interests. Thus syllabuses have not kept pace with technological development and advancement in sciences<sup>(49)</sup>.

Taking into consideration the process above, the curriculum emphasises the following:

- embodiment of state principles in achieving social and economic changes and meeting the demands of the society and the requirements of the development plans; also taking into account the learner's growth and that of the country, as well as the scientific cognitive

progress, in an endeavour to accomplish educational objectives in various contexts;

- confirming the interaction between education and society throughout productive work, amenities and cultural improvement by spreading manual workshops and industrial arts in school curricula;

- keeping pace with modern developments in the fields of curricula, teaching methods and relevant activities;

- giving due consideration to the technical aspects in preparing textbooks;

- taking into account new developments in the various school subjects, regarding teaching aids, teaching methods and teaching theory, to ensure pupils are provided with up-to-date information, and skills;

- identifying the social needs arising from the local environment and including them in the curricula, as well as encouraging innovative projects and studies<sup>(50)</sup>.

Although these aims are incorporated into most subjects, history is given particular emphasis; it would be difficult to put some of these aims in the content of mathematics, physics, biology, foreign languages or even geography, so history is the main subject through which the country's values and aims are transmitted.

### 3.10 EXAMINATION

The examination system in Iraqi schools is divided into two major types: the general examination

(Baccalaureate) is used to assess pupils' achievement and promotion. It is held by the Ministry of Education through the Examination Committee, and set up annually at the end of each stage: primary, intermediate, preparatory and vocational. To pass , students must obtain at least 50% of the possible marks in every subject. School examinations for the other classes which are not candidates for the general examination are held at the end of each scholastic year, executed by the examination committee in each school. The school committee consists of the head teacher, the assistant head teacher and two or more teachers, depending on the number of staff and students. The Examination Committee is nominated by the Teachers' Council as early as the beginning of the scholastic year<sup>(51)</sup>.

Further examinations and tests are held weekly and monthly, in addition to mid-year examination. To pass the final school examination, the student must obtain at least 50% in each subject and an overall average of at least 60%. Students failing one or two subjects have to resit at the beginning of the next scholastic year. A second failure means repetition of the whole grade<sup>(52)</sup>.

Examination, and examination only, determines whether or not the pupils will advance to the higher level of schooling. Al-Chalabi (1975) blamed the examination system for pupils' failures, regarding it as a useless system. He asserted that the system is financially wasteful, because of the high proportion of drop-outs and repeaters. As evidence, he reported that

only 17 out of a thousand pupils who began primary school in 1950, were able to complete secondary school<sup>(53)</sup>. Nevertheless there is no other way to assess pupils' capability and aptitude, at least for the time being. So despite the wide-ranging criticism, examination seems the best option, and it will continue, despite its problems, unless a better system can be found. However, criticism should be directed, not at the system, but at the way that teachers may abuse it.

### 3.11 IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING

To update the information of the teachers and to keep them abreast of developments in the world of teaching methods, pedagogy, examination systems and use of educational technology, the directorate-general of pre and in-service training has adopted a plan for in-service training of kindergarten, primary and secondary teachers, as well as educational leaders. Serving primary teachers are offered training in a special unit which uses a multimedia approach, including private study, self-supplementary, reading, video tapes, radio and television programmes as well as seminars, workshops on the job, supervision and summer courses. The unit is now called the Central Institute for In-service Training of Education Personnel.

Multimedia training courses and annual INSET courses for secondary teachers, are usually organised according to subject<sup>(54)</sup>.



Unfortunately, the information available from the Ministry of Education is only general. After more than three months waiting for accurate detailed information about in-service training according to subject level, the researcher received only rough data for all subjects together. However the figures below might help to shed some light on in-service training in general, from which one may be able to assess the amount of training suitable history teachers.

The information we received was only for the years 1981-1986, when the Ministry of Education ran 617 in-service training courses for secondary school teachers. 20969 teachers attended in the 1981-85 period. There were 227 in-service training courses for the year 1986, attended by 700 teachers.<sup>(55)</sup> The information revealed that an average 3611 teachers attended these courses every year. If we distribute those teachers over the 12 subjects taught at the preparatory stage, the average number of teachers in each subject who attended such courses is about 300 a year; half of those were for the intermediate stage. Thus, only about 150 teachers in each subject in the preparatory stage attended such courses, out of all Iraqi teachers, which indicates the lack of attention paid to this matter.

### 3.12 THE QUANTITATIVE DEVELOPMENT

From 1968 up to the present, the education system has witnessed a sizable quantitative development, not only

in the number of schools and students, but also in the field of teachers. The total number of pupils of both sexes in 1968-69, for instance, was 1,338,768, while it was 3,723,352 in 1980-81.

The increase continued, reaching 3,972,329 in 1984-85, an increase rate of 196.7% over the years 1968 to 1985. The total number of teachers leapt from 5847 in 1968-69 to 130917 in 1980-81<sup>(56)</sup>. To shed more light on the increase rate, the development is expressed in detailed figures, as follows:

Table 3-3 Quantitive Development in Kindergarten  
Education

Years	Number of children	Number of teachers	Number of kindergartens
1967-68(1)	15553	505	128
1970-71(1)	18462	762	138
1974-75(2)	35551	1397	202
1977-78(2)	56347	2603	306
1980-81(3)	76507	3235	387
1984-85(3)	80801	4335	549
1986-87(4)	80264	4701	612
1989-90(4)	87920	5010	643

#### Sources

(1) Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistics for the Years 1972, (2) 1978, (3) 1987, (4) 1990

### 3.12.1 KINDERGARTEN

According to the information in table 3-3, the total number of children in kindergartens for the year 1967-68 was 15553, while it was 87920 in 1989-90, an increase of 17.7% per year. Meanwhile, the total number of teachers was 505, increasing to 5010, an increase of 10.07% per year. The number of the kindergartens was 128, increasing to 643, an increase of 20% per year.

### 3.12.2 PRIMARY EDUCATION

The development in primary education seems to be quite different from that at the kindergarten level, because the kindergarten is confined to urban areas, while primary education is much more extensive, as a result of the Compulsory Law of Education No 118 in 1976, which emphasised that every child in Iraq aged six years and over should have equal opportunity to learn, regardless of sex, religion or ethnic background.

According to the information of table 3-4, the number of pupils rose from 990718 in 1967-68 to 3,168,563 in 1989-90, while that of teachers rose from 45201 to 132703 in the same period. The number of schools rose from 4907 to 11280 in 1980-81, but decreased to 8344 in 1989-90, because of the merging of schools' administrations which occupied the same building. In other words, the figures represent the number of buildings, not the number of schools.

Table 3-4 Quantitive Development of Primary School Education

Years	Number of pupils	Number of teachers	Number of schools
1967-68(1)	990718	45201	4907
1970-71(1)	1,120,213	49565	5617
1974-75(2)	1,521,604	57490	6170
1977-78(2)	2,048,566	78060	8387
1980-81(3)	2,612,332	93917	11280
1984-85(3)	2,754,887	115642	9897
1986-87(4)	2,917,474	122408	8210
1989-90(4)	3,168,563	132703	8344

Sources:

(1) Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistics, for the Years 1972, (2) 1978, (3) 1987, (4) 1990

The figures reveal a remarkable development in the field of primary education, not only in the number of students, teachers and buildings, but also in sex and environmental terms: the number of female students rose from 325452 in 1967-68 to 1,058,695 in 1978-79 and to 1,403,696 in 1989-90, an increase rate of 23.2%. This increase came as a result of compulsory education and the strong government concern with primary education in view of its importance as the basis for the following stages and for the education process as a whole. Similarly the proportion of the students in rural areas increased to 29.0% of all students at this stage;, this is equal to

the ratio of the rural population to that of the total population of the country<sup>(57)</sup>.

### 3.12.3 SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education development in quantitative terms depends on graduates from the primary schools. Thus, in conformity with the notable tangible increase in the number of the pupils attending the primary school, it is not surprising that the number of those attending secondary school also increased.

Table 3-5 Quantitative Development of Secondary Education

Years	Number of students	Number of teachers	Number of schools
1967-68(1)	254033	8602	757
1970-71(1)	304240	12309	921
1974-75(2)	452911	16642	1099
1977-78(2)	664297	21256	1384
1980-81(3)	950142	28453	1891
1984-85(3)	997071	33867	2106
1986-87(4)	1,011,899	39440	2316
1989-90(4)	986,983	45444	2615

#### Sources:

(1) Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstract of Statistics, for the Years 1972, (2) 1978, (3) 1987, (4) 1990

However, the figures in table 3-5, show a remarkable development, not only in the number of students, but also in that of teachers and schools. The figures show that the gross number of pupils was 254033 in 1967-68,

increasing to 986,983 in 1989-90. The number of teachers was increased from only 8602 to 45444 teachers. Similarly, the number of schools also rose, from 757 to 2615.

#### 3.12.4 VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Vocational education has not received the attention given to primary or secondary education, simply because it had failed in the recent past to meet labour market needs for qualified manpower; the preparation process at the vocational schools was poor and not adequate to enable those who obtained certificates to perform their work efficiently. Curricula were also inadequate.

Table 3-6 Quantitive Development of Vocational Education

Years	Number of students	Number of teachers	Number of schools
1967-68(1)	8217	938	44
1970-71(1)	10143	1100	52
1974-75(2)	21025	1506	71
1977-78(2)	35188	2333	92
1980-81(3)	56835	4150	143
1984-85(3)	99246	5315	202
1986-87(4)	133068	7660	230
1989-90(4)	147942	9223	278

#### Sources:

(1) Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstracts of Statistics, for the Years 1972, (2) 1978, (3) 1987, (4) 1990

The most important factor which prompted the students and their families to boycott this kind of education is the negative attitude of public opinion towards technical occupations. Thus, students prefer academic education<sup>(58)</sup>. Nevertheless, vocational education has witnessed some development.

The information of table 3-6 shows the development of this field over the period from 1967 to 1990. The figures reveal that the gross number of students in 1967-68 was 8217. This increased to 147942 in 1989-90, an increase rate of 5.5%, while the number of teachers numbers was 938 increasing to 9223, an increase rate of 10.7%. At the same time, the number of schools was 44, increased to 278, an increase rate of 15.8%.

#### 3.12.5 TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTES

In parallel with the tangible development in primary and kindergarten education, teacher training schools and Institutes witnessed similar development in order to meet the need for qualified teaching staff. The information in table 3-7 shows that the gross number of students in teacher training schools and institutions in 1976-77 was 21186. It rose to 29420 in 1989-90. The teaching staff was 837, rising to 1731, while the development in schools and institutes witnessed no change at all. However, the figures reveal that the number of students and teaching staff had doubled in eight years.

**Table 3-7 Quantitive Development of Teacher Training  
Schools and Institutes**

Years	Number of students	Number of teachers	Number of scho & inst
1976-77(1)	21186	837	43
1978-79(2)	20488	939	46
1981-82(2)	32361	1235	46
1984-85(2)	40313	1638	47
1986-87(3)	28164	1443	43
1989-90(3)	29420	1731	43

**Sources:**

(1) Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstracts of Statistics, for the Years 1978, (2) 1987, (3) 1990

**3.12.6 UNIVERSITIES AND TECHNICAL INSTITUTES**

Before 1968 only three universities existed in Iraq: Baghdad University, Al-Mustansiriya and Mosul University. After 1968 this increased to six Universities and Technical Institutions. The three additional universities were: Salah-Aldeen university in Arbil city (northern Iraq), University of Technology in Baghdad and Basra University (southern Iraq). In 1989-90 the number of Universities increased to ten, the four new Universities being: Tikret, Kufa, Qadisya and Anbar Universities.



**Table 3-8 Quantitive Development of Universities and  
Technical Institutions**

Years	Number of students	Number of teaching staff
1970-71(1)	43358	2288
1974-75(1)	70247	3016
1978-79(2)	91716	5207
1982-83(2)	116260	6674
1985-86(3)	142495	8327
1989-90(3)	184047	10171

**Sources:**

(1) Ministry of Planning, Annual Abstracts of Statistics, for the Years 1972, (2) 1983, (3) 1990

The number of students and teaching staff increased significantly to accomplish the planned development in education and to cover the labour market needs for suitable manpower.

The information in table 3-8 shows the development in this field. The gross number of students in the scholastic year 1970-71 was 43358, rising to 184047 in 1989-90, while the teaching staff increased from 2288 to 10171.

### **3.13 THE QUALITATIVE DEVELOPMENT**

In parallel with the quantitative development, the Ministry of Education made efforts to reform the education system in qualitative terms in the light of the

state policy and the principles of social change, in the following respects:

### 3.13.1 CURRICULUM

The curriculum is the cornerstone of the education process. It outlines the shape and nature of the knowledge that will be given to the students in an effective way, to build up the complete personality of the new generation: physically, mentally and psychologically. Thus, the construction of the curriculum has taken into account educational objectives, and the implementation process, attempting to create a balance among several aspects of the educational process, such as textbooks, teacher preparation, supervision, educational aids and administration<sup>(59)</sup>. On this basis the curriculum aims include the general objectives of the educational system as a whole.

The Ministry of Education faced several problems and obstacles in the field of curriculum as a result of the generalisation of the educational objectives. This problem was reflected in several textbooks which appeared in an academic shape which could not be easily be transferred to behavioural types, and as a consequence it was difficult to assess students' knowledge. For this reason, the Ministry of Education reviewed the educational objectives and reformulated them as follows:

Development of social consciousness, belief in God, love of country, belief in the Arabic

nation, her message and goals in unity, liberty and socialism, scientific thinking, armed with science and good manner, practical, self-learning, having a will to strive against enemies, aware of the foundation of cultural development, open-minded to human experience, and combining the traditional and contemporary<sup>(60)</sup>.

These general objectives were divided into twelve educational goals distributed to the various educational stages. The concern of the educational goals at secondary level is to help students who have completed the intermediate education and are continuing their study, to develop their personalities: physically mentally, spiritually and behaviourally; in addition, to improve their knowledge and ability to carry on their study, achieve national aims and contribute to the build-up of human culture<sup>(61)</sup>.

The general objectives are split into ten headings:

- Physical development
- Mental development
- Spiritual development
- Psychological development
- Social development
- Scientific Development
- Occupational developments

Patriotism

- Nationalism
- Universality<sup>(62)</sup>

Each of these headings consists of several sub-aims which deal with various aspects of the learner's personality development.

### 3.13.2 THE TEXTBOOKS

As in the curriculum, the Ministry of Education faced serious problems in the field of textbooks. The generalisation of the educational objectives, the lack of a dialogue between the officials, the authors and inspectors, the scarcity of fieldwork studies about curriculum, the lack of training, the weak coordination between the Ministry of Education and that of Higher Education in putting forward suggestions for the secondary curriculum and the absence of a library specializing in Arab curriculum. All these prevented textbooks from achieving the curriculum objectives and the educational aims as a whole. Thus the Ministry of Education reviewed all textbooks in public education, suggesting that a book was abolished if it did not accord with the educational goals or modified if it contained most of the goals. The preparation of textbooks follows a scientific methodology determined by the Ministry of Education:(63)

- A detailed outline of the suggested textbook is prepared and discussed with experts and field workers before being given to the National Committee. The outline is modified in the light of the committee's notes and then handed to the highest committee of curriculum. After

it has been revised, it is sent to the educational council for final endorsement

- The first draft of the textbook is shown to two subject specialists, linguistic and educational experts.

- An expansion seminar is held to discuss the first draft of the textbook. This is attended by educational experts, supervisors and teachers. Subsequently, it might be modified in the light of the notes and observations made.

- The textbook, before it takes its final shape must be displayed to the highest committee and then to the education council, to obtain the final approval for it to be printed and distributed.

As a consequence, large numbers of new textbooks have appeared, for instance, 26 text books for primary education, 42 textbooks for secondary schools and 36 textbooks for the teacher training schools and institutes, saw the light in the period 1980-86. On the other hand about 68 textbooks have been revised and modified according to social, political and educational objectives. Moreover, the Ministry of Education undertook the translation of 79 textbooks into the Kurdish language to be distributed over all the schools in the autonomous zone(64).

### 3.13.3 TEACHING AIDS

The educational administration in Iraq recognized that education could not be provided successfully without

teaching aids. Thus they gave more attention to this field, creating many centres to produce teaching aids and supply educational organizations with up-to-date audio-visual aids. Print material is not the only medium for learning as it was half a century ago. The scientific and technological revolution is reflected in the field of education, as well as in other aspects of social life. On this basis, the teachers and students realize that films, videotape, microfilm, slides, microfiche and so forth are necessary to dismiss the boredom that accompanied the old style of learning, which mainly depended on lecture and memorization. As a consequence, teaching methods were changed to incorporate non-print material<sup>(65)</sup>. In brief, technology opened the door for new methods of learning.

Although the Teaching Aids Directorate emerged quite early in the second half of this century, precisely on 30th May 1955, it did not work effectively until 1965 when 19 audio-visual aids centres emerged, 2 in Baghdad and 17 in other provinces. According to the 1980s plan, the Ministry of Education has produced 1,457,400 charts for Biology, Mathematics and English language as well as other school textbooks. It has also made suitable charts for kindergarten and produced 95,000 maps of Iraq, the Arab gulf, Palestine, and the continents together with several thousand tape-recordings containing recitations of several national and patriotic songs. Three instructional colour films have been produced and 120 objects (*Animals and birds*) have been prepared as well<sup>(66)</sup>.

The ministry owns a collection of machinery and apparatus for education, and preparation of teaching aids, such as silkscreen printing, waxing charts and maps, carpentry, paper trimming and duplicators. Operation of this apparatus is handled by a qualified technical staff trained through in-service training courses and visits abroad<sup>(67)</sup>.

#### 3.13.4 THE INSTRUCTIONAL FILMS

The educational authority recognizes the importance of instructional films in the educational process, so it has established a central library for educational films. This contained at the end of the scholastic year 1980-81, about 1605 motion-picture instructional films, 1152 filmstrips and 11764 slides. Moreover, six film libraries were established in six governorates. Audio-visual mobile units equipped with film projectors are used to show instructional films in schools located in rural and remote areas<sup>(68)</sup>. These cover such subjects as, physics, chemistry, biology, English language, geography and history. The ministry has paid great attention towards establishing such facilities in all schools together with mobile workshops for maintenance and repair, as well as a special workshop for the production of teaching aids<sup>(69)</sup>.

The ministry annually holds national, regional and Arab exhibitions of teaching aids, in order to show the progress achieved in manufacturing teaching aids and how they are utilized effectively in teaching and education.

It also participates in Arab and international symposiums and conferences in fields of development and utilization of teaching aids for the purpose of keeping abreast of the scientific progress gained in the technology of teaching and education<sup>(70)</sup>.

### 3.13.5 LABORATORIES

Although science laboratories were found in every secondary school, they faced several problems: lack of qualified technicians and supervisors, the absence of a separate class and they might even be used as normal classrooms for different subjects. Nevertheless, the educational administration paid attention to developing these laboratories. Up to the scholastic year 1986-87, it had accomplished the following:

- supplied about 600 primary schools with science laboratories,
- produced 125 laboratory kits and distributed them the governorates' schools;
- supplied secondary school laboratories with advanced equipment for physics, chemistry and biology;
- supplied secondary schools with more scientific slides, increasing from 7122 in 1981 to 8055 in 1985;
- printed and distributed standardized units for all the pre-university stages;
- installed hundreds of new laboratories units in secondary schools throughout the country, and supplied them with advanced equipment<sup>(71)</sup>.



In addition, the ministry put forward a successful plan to supply the secondary schools with language laboratories. They supplied 87 schools with advanced equipment for this purpose and aimed eventually to supply all secondary schools. By 1981, all pre-university stages were equipped with such laboratories<sup>(72)</sup>.

#### 3.13.6 T.V AND SCHOOLS BROADCASTING

T.V broadcasting is one of the most important technical devices in the field of education, according to Schramm(1973):

Television can serve many tens or hundreds of thousands of additional learners at relatively little additional cost, once the central facilities and production costs have been covered<sup>(73)</sup>.

On this basis, the Ministry of Education has given priority to producing educational programmes, lessons and films through the Educational T.V production unit, since the establishment of educational T.V in July 1971. Schools' programmes are broadcast during school hours on the general television network.

According to the information of table 3-9, the preparatory stage receives the lion's share of these audio-visual instructional lessons. The distribution of these lessons is concentrated on the scientific subjects, while subjects such as history are totally ignored<sup>(74)</sup>.

Table 3-9 Total Produced Lessons Over the Years 1981-86  
According to Educational Stages

The stages	Total produced lessons 1981-1986
Primary	221
Intermediate	144
Preparatory	278
Others	74

**Sources:**

1. Ministry of Education, Development of Education in Iraq, 1980-1987, Baghdad, 1988, p. 98-101

School broadcasting was available in most of the country's schools and the educational administration supplied more than 1484 schools with broadcasts in the scholastic year 1980-81, aiming eventually to cover all the country's schools(75).

**3.13.7 SCHOOL LIBRARIES**

From the very beginning, the school library has received great attention from the educational authority. Every school has its own library. The Ministry of Education supplied these libraries with 2,387,893 books in the scholastic year 1980-81, increasing to 3,530,247 books in 1986-87.

Although a sizeable number of these libraries are small in terms of the available number of books (less than 1000 books), a remarkable number are large (more

than 2000 books). These libraries serve the school staff and pupils, both during the scholastic year and in the summer holiday<sup>(76)</sup>.

#### 3.13.8 SCHOOL CARD

The school card is a modern device used to obtain a complete image of the pupil's development in various aspects of their personality: socially, health-wise, psychologically, economically and educationally through records classified according to a standardized system of information. The school card accompanies the pupils from kindergarten to university. It contains all the information needed in the various educational stages which might help the teachers to be aware of the characteristics of each individual, his aptitude, interests, strengths and weaknesses<sup>(77)</sup>.

Since this system was implemented in the scholastic year 1978-79, it aimed not only to assess the educational level of the pupils and the components of their personalities, but also to create a bridge between the school and home. Each card required information about the position of the family. Moreover, it might help the school staff to stimulate the pupils' development by directing them into suitable educational channels. For these reasons, it became the subject of study in teacher training schools and institutes and in colleges of education. However, the school card was reviewed and modified several times throughout the years 1978-1987 and

it will continue under supervision, in accordance with developments in the field of implementation<sup>(78)</sup>

### 3.13.9 EXAMINATION

Examination is the final step in the educational process, aiming to evaluate the students' achievement, scientifically and behaviourally. Thus there have been several attempts to modify it, through a sizeable number of evaluation studies which endeavoured to assess the types and method of examinations, the results of the school examinations, general examination administration, examination centres and to analyse general examination questions. In the light of its findings, the Ministry of Education endorses a particular standard of the examination, including changes and revisions as necessary.<sup>(79)</sup>

### 3.14 PROBLEMS AND DIFFICULTIES

Despite the quantitative growth of education and development of its qualitative aspects, there are some problems facing this development. These problems have been outlined by the Ministry of Education<sup>(80)</sup> as:

- Inability to provide adequate and qualified manpower in the scientific and technical fields in regard to teaching, training or administrative and technical offices.

- Insufficient school buildings and equipment to keep pace with the expansion in student admissions.

- Difficulties in recruiting graduates and higher degree holders to work at the teaching office in the ministry institutes and secondary schools affiliated to the Ministry of Education.

- Difficulties in carrying on the training of teaching staff, headmasters and educational supervisors, and developing their efficiency and ability through various training channels.

- Inability to construct new buildings with proper educational conditions as well as repairing the old ones and following up the provision of the best conditions.

### 3.15 THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Simon (1986) said that the Iraqis, like the French, the German and the Japanese, use their schools to inculcate nationalism. He added that despite the institution of the curriculum under the British mandate, history classes according to the prescribed course of study emphasized Arab nationalism and Iraq's significant role in a pan-Arab union. Throughout the 1920s, as independence from Britain and the treaty issue preoccupied the politicians, these were the topics discussed in the classroom. In the 1930s, pan-Arab issues emerged, and with the accelerated recruitment within the Ministry of Education of Syrian and Palestinian teachers, these nationalists' concerns with independence from France and Britain were reflected in the Iraqi curricula, syllabi and textbooks<sup>(81)</sup>.

Subsequently, there was a growth in hostile feeling toward Britain which was seen as an enemy rather than an ally. In May 1941, both the army and the schools supported the Rashid Ali coup, and the teaching of history took a radically new approach<sup>(82)</sup>.

As a matter of fact, history lessons in all secondary stages provide pupils with facts and events framed in political rather than historical terms. From 1921 up to 1968, a number of key figures such as S. Al-husari, F. Aljamali, and S. Showkat, successively held responsibility for the Education Ministry, and played a vital role in establishing the modern educational system in Iraq. Despite their differences in approach and their personal conflicts, these men were agreed that the curriculum should increase and broaden the study of Arab nationalism, emphasizing Arab precedence over Muslim, and expounding upon the detrimental impact of the British occupation in the Middle East. However, they regarded the language and history as key elements in Arab unity<sup>(83)</sup>.

In 1947 the Ba'ath Socialist Party emerged in Syria, declaring as its general objectives: unity, freedom, and socialism. The party quickly spread to Iraq, where it found a suitable ground for growth. The party, thereafter, led other rival parties in opposition to the monarchy, and after the 1958 revolution, backed by the communist party, the Ba'ath party, waged political war against the government and its policies. The campaign contributed to the overthrow of the military authority. The party launched the 1963 coup, which lasted about nine

months, and then the 1968 revolution as a result of which it secured the power which it has continued to hold to the present day.

Regardless of the differences in approach of the successive governments, all of them attempted to make the schools a forum for political ideas. They were directed to teach the superiority of the community, order, discipline, cooperation, love of the motherland and the role of the individual in service to the nation. The school was to be "not only a place for study", as an official report has said, "but also the theatre of a new life, the mechanism for social change, by indoctrination in an Arab nationalist culture"(84)

The political report of the eighth congress of the Arab Ba'ath Party in Iraq, summarized the politicization of the educational system in Iraq to be compatible with the principles and aims of the party and revolution, responsible for inculcating Pan-Arab, socialist and domestic principles in the young generations and enabling them to carry out social and economic transformation desired by the party.

The report insisted that a new curriculum and new syllabus must at once be prepared for every level from kindergarten to the university, inspired by the principles of the party and in conformity with political, economic, social and cultural objectives to be achieved in Iraq(85).

The report also outlined the shape and objectives of schools in the coming years:

Schools and institutions must be reshaped to meet the needs of the revolutionary transformations led by the party. In particular we must concentrate urgently on the different values and branches of science and technology which will give us the experts needed for the country's growth and for its resolute entry into the age of technical and economic development<sup>(86)</sup>

Accordingly, political socialization was given top priority, with special reference to history, the content of which was dominated by the slogans and principles of the party. In line with this objective, the party in 1981 invited all the historians and university experts to rewrite the local history according to the party's viewpoint. Soon afterwards, the basic history books and textbooks were replaced by new ones. History teaching in secondary school bore its share of the change. Most of the topics taught have changed since the researcher's time as a practicing teacher. To shed more light on this fact we display below the main topics of the three stages of the preparatory schools as follows:

#### THE FIRST STAGE (History of Arabic and Islamic Culture)

Chapter One: Arabs Pre Islam; Arab states, Social and Political Organization, Nationalism and Conventions;

Chapter Two: Islamic Era; The Prophet Period, Arab Culture After the Prophet up to the Decline of Abbasid Empire;

Chapter Three: Political and Administration System; Law and Order, Police, Military Construction and Organization;



Chapter Four: The Population; Urban and Rural Population;

Chapter Five: Economic Growth in Iraq and other Primate Cities in Arab Empire; Agricultural, Industrial, and Commercial Activities;

Chapter Six: Cultural and Educational Process; Mosques, Schools, Churches and Universities;

Chapter Seven: Scientific Development; Religious sciences, Linguistics, Translation, Philosophy and mental Sciences;

Chapter Eight: Sciences and Scientists; Medical care, Arithmetic, Mathematics, Astronomy, Chemistry, Physics, Arts and Fine Arts;

Chapter Nine: Mosques in Arabs Centres; Architecture and functions;

Chapter Ten: The Impact of Arabic and Islamic Culture on the Development of the World.

## SECOND STAGE: ( Contemporary World History )

Chapter One: The French Revolution; Philosophical and Ideological Pioneers, France before the Revolution, The National Assembly, The Terror Era, The Revolution's Influences on Europe;

Chapter Two: Napoleon; His Life, Europe Against France, Napoleon's Reforms, Wars and his Decline.

Chapter Three: Europe Pre-French Revolution, Vienna Congress, other congresses;

Chapter Four: The Industrial Revolution; England, the cradle of the Revolution, Spread of the revolution to Europe, Social and economic Development, Nationalism and Democracy;

Chapter Five: England and the Constitutional Reforms; the English Government System;

Chapter Six: France; The Second and Third Republics;

Chapter Seven: Nationalism in Italy and Germany;

Chapter Eight: Political and Economic Development in Russia.

Chapter Nine: The Independence of the United States Of America;

Chapter Ten: Ottoman Empire and the Colonialial Pioneers; The Independent Movement of the Balkans, Colonialism and International Relationships;

Chapter Eleven: The First World War, International Development between the First and Second World Wars;

Chapter Twelve: The Second World War, International Development After the Second World War.

**THIRD STAGE:** ( Contemporary Arab History )

Chapter One: The Invasion by European Colonialits of the Arab World;

Chapter Two: The Ottomanians Dominant on Arab World;

Chapter Three: The awakening of the Arabs in the 19th Century;

Chapter Four: Arabic's Ideological Development in Modern History;

Chapter Five: The Evolution of Arab Radical Movements and Associations;

Chapter Six: Modern European Colonial Movement in the Arab World;

Chapter Seven: The Influence of the First World War on the Arab World;

Chapter Eight: Palestine;

Chapter Nine: Arab Revolutionary Movements Between First and Second World War;

Chapter Ten: Contemporary Arab Revolutionary Movements;

Chapter Eleven: Revolutionary Movements Since 1968;

Chapter Twelve: Arab Revolution and Future Horizons.

These textbooks contain different topics, but, in fact, they are closely related to each other. The common

ground between them is the attempt to provide pupils with certain concepts: Arab unity, nationalism, colonialism and the new colonialism which created and maintains Arab partition. These issues can be easily inferred from the context of each chapter, but the concentration on Arabs and colonialism, becomes overt in the third stage textbooks, where most of the content focus on colonial aggression toward the Arab world, and Arab reactions, in the form of movements and revolutionary parties, most of them emphasizing nationalism and Arab unity.

The last four chapters of the third stage textbook, focus heavily on the revolutionary movement in Arab countries, with special reference to the Ba'ath party. Indeed, the party occupies the greater part of these chapters, with references to its evolution, aims, objectives, slogans and role as the leader of the revolution in Iraq since 1968, with special references to its achievements in the domain of social, cultural, economic and political reforms, with elaborated details.

The construction of these textbooks was fully politicized. Thus, history teaching in schools makes a major contribution to accomplishing government objectives in mobilizing people with specific ideas and attitudes.

However, this mobilization and inculcation of the party's ideas achieved nothing in the first confrontation with the Allied forces, because of the lack of correspondence between slogans and deeds. Nonetheless, nationalist feeling, regardless of the nature of regime,

is very strong, coming as a result of political socialization in the classroom.

### 3.16 CONCLUSION

Although Iraq was the cradle of human culture and its educational system emerged quite early, about 2500 B.C, the fall of the Arab empire and submission to the Ottoman empire for more than four hundred years, gave Iraqi people the darkest age of their history. The Ottoman education system followed the traditional Islamic system with a narrow approach, using the Quran as the only textbook. Even this was confined to certain people, often the richest urban people, who did not form more than five per cent of the total population, while the majority was illiterate.

In the eighteenth century, after about two centuries of occupation accompanied by poverty, illness and illiteracy, some attempts to modernize and expand the education system eventually came in slow and cautious steps, when Sultan Muhammad II imposed compulsory education in some of Ottoman towns in 1824, adopting a European system. A greater step was taken by his successor Sultan Abdul-Majid (1839-1861) who laid the foundation for constitutional reforms, but these reform attempts remained inadequate to deal with chronic problems in the field of education, along with other neglected socio-economic aspect of the empire.

The Ottoman empire lost its control over Iraq, soon after World War I broke out. Iraq started a new era under British domination. Despite the short period of direct British rule (1917-1932), many researchers and scholars consider this period as crucial to the establishment of the new educational system.

The British administration in Iraq found a devastated system because the defeated Ottoman troops destroyed everything in their retreat, and pulled out all the teaching staff. The British governor faced a severe shortage of qualified teaching staff, textbooks buildings and equipment. The educational administration, under the control of Mr Bolard, undertook to establish an education department for teacher training. Although courses were short and the pass-rate low, the number of newly-qualified teachers substantially increased.

In 1917 the School of Survey was established in Baghdad to cover the needs for irrigation and many other relevant projects, and the British administration introduced financial subsidies to foreign and private schools.

Secondary education was largely ignored, but in response to demands from the Baghdad elite, the possibility of opening a secondary school was considered. However, the educational officer was changed, and the new officer decided to postpone the matter. Eventually, at the end of 1919 the first secondary school in Baghdad opened, with only seven students.

The first national Ministry of Education was set up in 1920, and subsequently, Iraqi officials took over the educational system from the British authorities and endeavoured to extend the opportunities for all types of learning by increasing the number of educational establishments and making the necessary modifications in curricula and courses.

Some important steps to improve the educational system were taken through the period 1920-1930. The four-year secondary education course was split into a two-year general course followed by two years of specialization, either in literary or scientific studies. Regulations for public secondary school examination were issued and schools of engineering and agriculture were established.

In 1932 Iraq became a fully-independent state and joined the League of Nations, but in practice it was under British influence till 1958, when the 14th of July revolution overthrew the monarchy.

Under the post-1958 revolution, education received more attention. It was made compulsory and the number of pupils increased several-fold, but the regime faced serious problems in education as well as in other areas, and the attempts of the government to reform the education system collapsed with the regime itself.

A determined effort to reform the educational system was made after the 1968 revolution. The state leaders recognized the importance of education to the people and the country's future. The government issued an illiteracy

eradication law in 1971, introduced free education in 1974 and made education compulsory in 1976.

Education rapidly improved quantitatively and qualitatively at all levels. However, the education authority put forward a central curriculum and standard textbooks, giving the teaching staff less flexibility. Examination is completely in the hands of the teaching staff, except for the general examination (Baccalaureate) which is determined directly by the Ministry of Education.

The history curriculum is framed in political rather than historical terms. Politicization of history was one of the government's targets to socialize students according to the ideology of the authoritarian party.

There has been significant quantitative and qualitative improvement, in the fields of curriculum, examination, teaching aids, libraries and laboratories and so on. The criticism that might be levelled at this development is that the educational authority has given more attention to scientific subjects such as chemistry, physics, mathematics and biology, while the humanities have received less attention, especially in teaching aids. Knowledge should be seen as a unity. It is unacceptable to place more emphasis on some areas than others. In the construction of a scientific society, it is necessary to create awareness of the humans themselves through the humanities; scientific subjects alone are not sufficient to develop society.

The last two chapters have focused on relevant theory from an international perspective, with special focus on the educational system in Iraq. This theoretical background has prepared the way for the empirical part of the study. Hence, the construction of the questionnaire, data collection methods, sampling, data analysis and statistical treatment will be discussed in the next chapter.



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## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

According to the literature, teachers and students are the critical elements in educational process. While the student's progress is considered as the ultimate aim of the educational process, the teacher has the major responsibility for the physical and mental preparation of the student to play his role in the future manpower of the whole country. His success depends on many factors, of which the one on which we focus in this thesis is teaching method. To study this, standardized and open-ended questionnaires were designed to collect the data. The study used two separate questionnaires, and two populations were studied.

Included here is a description of the procedures used to identify the ingredients of teaching method for the questionnaire in order to determine its weaknesses and strengths. The chapter also explains the selection of the sample, data collection and statistical treatment.

Originally, the researcher's plan was to travel to Iraq to collect the data in person, by interview. Unfortunately, the Gulf crisis not only made this impossible, but also halted the progress of the study, due to financial constraints and psychological pressures. Because of the serious delay so caused, and the impossibility of arranging a field trip for the empirical research, it was eventually decided to entrust to an Iraqi colleague who was returning home on completion of



his study, the Arabic and English versions of the Questionnaires, to be conveyed to Dr. M.A. Amin, assistant Professor in Al-Mustansirya University. He collected the data on the researcher's behalf, according to the instructions enclosed with the questionnaires. Moreover, the researcher was able to maintain contact and direct the operation by telephone.

#### 4.2 DESCRIPTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

To give a complete picture of teaching methods, the questionnaire was divided into two parts: one was directed to teachers to assess their performance, and the other to the students, who are real partners in the teaching process. Thus, the evaluation process gave equal opportunity to both parties, to express their views.

##### 4.2.1 THE TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

The teachers' questionnaire (Appendix 1) contained more details than that directed toward the students, because teachers are directly concerned with teaching methods. Thus it included 60 items categorized into seven areas. The items were selected by the researcher on the basis of the literature and her own experience.

Within these general areas, the questionnaire covered most of the important components of teaching methods. As Smith (1963) among others, has noted:

Teaching consists of a number of components. Among these are techniques of classroom control, ways of involving students, and of evaluating the results of the educative process.<sup>(1)</sup>

These components are described below:

- Personal Information: This section was concerned with the background of the teachers, including sex, age, marital status, duration in the job, in-service training and the educational stage with which they are involved. This information seems to be essential to identify the teacher's experience, psychological settlement and adjustment to job. We asked, for instance: How long have you been teaching history? What class do you teach? Have you attended any in-service training course in teaching methods? such questions give a clear picture of the teacher's experience.

- Planning for Teaching: This refers to the way in which the teachers manage their teaching activities, including the distribution of their teaching units on the available time-table, planning their lessons, and evaluation of their last plan. We asked in this context: how they plan their work and lessons; did they change their plan. Such questions might reveal their capability and aptitude to organise their work which may influence teaching methods.

- History Teaching Methods: This is the focal point of the questionnaire, and included about a quarter of all the items of the questionnaire. It refers to the teachers' attitudes towards several statements of

specific concern with history teaching methods. The items were phrased in both positive and negative terms, to avoid stereotyped replies. An example of a positive statement was: It is necessary to help pupils to assess values and form judgments. A negatively worded example is: Teaching of history should be a vehicle of propaganda. Respondents were asked to react to each statement by selecting one of three options: Agree, No opinion, Disagree.

- Syllabus: This refers to the ability of teachers to cover the elements of the highly centralized syllabus. It also aimed to explore their degree of freedom to mix or overlap the official syllabus with subject-matter of their own choosing. We asked about the extent of teachers' dependence on the syllabus, how they would rate the content of the syllabus in the classroom and whether any freedom is given to the pupils to choose topics.

- Classroom: This section concerned the teacher's capability to control the classroom activities, in order to establish a healthy climate for learning. The ultimate goal of classroom discipline is to create a learning environment that is effective and positive. Therefore, we included both physical and psychological factors in this section.

- Teaching Aids: This section examined the use of available materials to explain and illustrate texts in the classroom, geared to the abilities and interests of various pupils. The items dealt directly with the usage of teaching aids. By this means, it was possible to

evaluate how the teacher could benefit from available materials, to enhance the traditional way of teaching.

- Tests and Examinations: This section was concerned with the sort of examination generally used to assess the pupils' achievement. The cornerstone here is to what extent the teacher is able to develop his methods in this field and whether it is possible to change the type of tests used, to obtain better results.

#### 4.2.2 PUPILS' QUESTIONNAIRE

The pupils' questionnaire (Appendix 2) covered similar areas to the teachers' questionnaire, except for those items concerned with teaching and syllabus which are only related to teachers. Although the questions directed to pupils were worded differently, they followed the pattern of the teachers' questionnaire to evaluate the performance of teachers in terms of their methods of teaching history. This second perspective seems to be important, not only to collect information which is reasonably reliable and objective, but also to see both sides of the educational equation.

The pupils' questionnaire consisted of 26 items, categorized into five areas. The items were formulated in terms aimed to elicit a direct or indirect evaluation of the teachers' performance in the field of teaching methods. Many of these items aimed to check the teachers' responses.

Before the two questionnaires were distributed to the samples, they were presented to a group of 12 Iraqi students (some of them graduates) at the University of Hull. These students had graduated from teacher education programmes or had taught in schools or Universities in Iraq. They were asked to indicate whether the teaching methods, described in the questionnaire are appropriate, understandable and compatible with their preparation and teaching experience. They responded in favour of the questionnaire's items except for few items, which was modified according to their suggestion.

This check of content validity was in essence a test to determine whether the questionnaire measured what it was supposed to measure. As Nunnally (1967) puts it:

If it is agreed by the most potential users of the...[questionnaire], or at least by persons in positions of responsibility, that the plan was sound and well carried out, the...[questionnaire] has a high degree of content validity<sup>(2)</sup>.

#### 4.3 THE SAMPLE

Questionnaires were sent to selected pupils from the last three stages of the secondary school, and to history teachers involved in teaching these stages, in order to evaluate history teaching methods in secondary schools in Baghdad city (the capital of Iraq). Ordinary secondary schools in Iraq have two history teachers at the preparatory stage (classes four to six). Accordingly, the

survey sample consisted of 100 teachers (with equal opportunity to both male and female) from 50 secondary schools scattered over various areas of Baghdad. The size of the sample would be justifiable according to Borg and Gall (1979) who stated;

In correlational research it is generally desirable to have a minimum of 30 cases. In causal-comparative and experimental research, it is desirable to have a minimum of 15 cases in each group to be compared<sup>(3)</sup>.

The sample of teachers was not chosen at random because the population of the sample could be accurately listed; in this case a systematic sample was appropriate to select the sample<sup>(4)</sup>, but the schools were chosen at random; all the secondary schools in Baghdad were listed and given numbers (1 to 505) so that each school had an equal chance of being included in the sample by selecting every tenth number ( 10, 20, 30....to 500)<sup>(5)</sup>. Boys and girls schools were given equal chance in the sample.

The pupils' survey sample consisted of 250 pupils from the stages mentioned above. The selection process followed the teachers' selection, 5 pupils from each of the 50 schools were chosen at random from the class lists.

The initial survey sample was to be 350 informants. 350 questionnaires were sent of which 283 were returned: 203 from pupils and 80 from teachers, two of the pupils' questionnaires were uncompleted and one ignored for

statistical reasons, so the final sample became 280 informants: 80 teachers and 200 pupils.

#### 4.4 DATA ANALYSIS AND STATISTICAL TREATMENT

As a result of the limitations already noted, data were analysed by transferring the crude data of the questionnaire into the computer. The researcher used the statistical package program (SPSSX), which has been utilized in data processing, and analysis. It was also found that Chi-square was useful for measuring the significant differences between the groups (often sex groups) of the sample in this study.

The technique of correlation research analysis has been used. To execute this technique, frequency and percentage have been used. This method has great value because it shows the performance of the teachers in the field of teaching methods.

The researcher also used weighted mean formula to identify the respondents' priorities towards the history teachers' performance in the field of planning for teaching. The formula used is:(6)

$$\text{Weighted mean} = \frac{W_1X_1 + W_2X_2 + \dots + W_nX_n}{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}$$

Where  $W_1$ ,  $W_2$ ,  $W_n$ , are the weighting given to the variables. This weighted formula was designed "to give recognition to the importance of certain factors when compiling the average of a group of values"(7)

This chapter has described the methodology used in the empirical work: construction of the questionnaire, sampling, data collection and analysis. The data obtained from the fieldwork will be presented and discussed in the next two chapters.



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**CHAPTER FIVE**  
**THE TEACHER**

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

We have argued that history teaching depends on a variety of factors: the skills and experience of the teacher, textbooks and a wide-range of knowledge. We must now examine this point in practical terms, that is to look at practice in the field as well as theoretical assumptions.

The teacher is largely responsible for the ultimate achievement of his pupils. His success depends mainly on his personality, knowledge, qualifications and use of teaching technique. His psychological, mental and practical abilities may be regarded as the focal point. Pupils' motivation and interest, and also the effectiveness of the textbook might play a contributory role in attainment, but the teacher remains the cornerstone of the teaching process, and determines whether or not the pupil's progress is satisfactory.

For this reason, in this chapter, we explore aspects of history teachers' qualifications, experience and methods. Subsequently this chapter will deal with a number of other salient issues such as planning for teaching, syllabus, teaching aids, examination, which were outlined earlier in this thesis.

The information obtained may contribute to an accurate picture, not only of history teaching, but of teaching performance in general, which is important to an evaluation of the teaching process in Iraq.

## 5.2 QUALIFICATION AND EXPERIENCE

When the teacher introduces pupils to history, he hopes to enrich their lives, to widen their horizons. He desires that pupils who lack a rich cultural background at home should become familiar with a world in many ways different from their own. He wants them to enter into the heritage of their culture, a culture common to themselves and to both their ancestors and their contemporaries in different social and academic contexts<sup>(1)</sup>. All this depends mainly on the teacher's qualifications, personal and social qualities and professional training.

A useful starting-point in discussing these issues is to consider the training received by history teachers. As Burston explains it:

The general assumption of all this is that the student of history needs a good knowledge of history, in breadth and somewhere in depth before he himself is equipped to start writing it. And this would imply, of course, that the use and interpretation of sources, as the historian does it, is a professional matter requiring specialized training and skill<sup>(2)</sup>

However, the teacher's personal qualities seem to be of particular importance in the instructional process. This is true not only in the field of professional training, but also in the teacher's social situation. For example marriage or single status might affect the teacher's psychological stability, which in turn may have an impact on his/her performance of the educational role, and his/her satisfaction or otherwise within it.

The information obtained from the fieldwork reveals that the overwhelming majority of the sample were married. As the data in table 5-1 show, more than three-quarters of the sample were married, and only 15% all male were single.

Table 5-1 Marital Status Among History Teachers  
(N=80)

Marital status	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Single	12	30	-	-	12	15
Married	28	70	40	100	68	85
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100
$\chi^2 = 11.8$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;"><math>Df = 1</math></span>						

Marriage in Arab World generally, and in Iraq particularly, is quite early for both males and females, as many empirical studies have indicated<sup>(3)</sup>; usually it is earlier for females than males. The social status associated with marriage may enhance social and psychological stability, which may have a bearing on the teacher's satisfactions and effectiveness in the job.

The data also reveal that the majority of the sample had more than five years teaching experience. Table 5-2 shows that 20% of the male teachers had 5-9 years experience, 45% had 10-14 years and 35% had more than fifteen years, while 27.5% of the female teachers had less than five years experience, 35% had 5-9 years, 27.5% had 10-14 years and 10% had more than 15 years.

Table 5-2 Duration in this Job

(N=80)

Duration in this job	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
5 <	-	-	11	27.5	11	13.8
5-9	8	20	14	35	22	27.5
10-14	18	45	11	27.5	29	36.3
15 >	14	35	4	10	18	27.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100
$\chi^2 = 19.8$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;"><math>DF = 3</math></span>						

The result reveals that most of the teachers under investigation had good experience in the field of teaching. Although there were significant differences between male and female teachers, the fact is that both were reasonably experienced.

In the same context , the data in table 5-3 show that not only did the teachers have simple experience of teaching in general, they also had good experience of history teaching: 17.5% of the male teachers had 5-9 years experience, while 47.5% of them had 10-14 years and 35% had more than 15 years. In comparison 27.5% of the female teachers had less than five years experience, 42.5% had 5-9 years. 22.5% had 10-14 years and 7.5% had more than 15 years.

Table 5-3 Duration in History Teaching  
(N=80)

Duration in history teaching	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
5 <	-	-	11	27.5	11	13.8
5-9	7	17.5	17	42.5	24	30.0
10-14	19	47.5	9	22.5	28	35.0
15 >	14	35	3	7.5	17	21.3
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 25$ DF = 3						

To complete the picture table 5-4 shows that the teachers' experience in history concentrated on topics taught to classes four, five or six (the grades of the preparatory school).

Table 5-4 The Classes Usually Taught\*  
(N=80)

What Classes do you usually teach	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Fourth	12	15	20	25	32	100
Fifth	38	47.5	37	46.3	75	100
Sixth	30	37.5	23	28.7	53	100
Total	80	100	80	100	160	100

\* The respondents were able to choose more than one option, so the percentage of each option is 100%.

The table shows that 12 male teachers were involved in teaching class four, 38 taught class five and 30, class six,

while 20 female teachers taught class four, 37 of them, class five and 23, class six.

To complete the picture table 5-4 shows that the teachers' experience in history concentrated on topics taught to classes four, five or six (the grades of the preparatory school). The table shows that 12 male teachers were involved in teaching class four, 38 taught class five and 30, class six, while 20 female teachers taught class four, 37 of them, class five and 23, class six.

In the field of training which is important to the teaching process, the informants complained of lack of training, especially in-service training. Table 5-5 shows that 85% of the male teachers and 92.5% of the females had never attended any in-service training course, while only 12.5% of the male teachers and 5% of the females had attended in-service training once and only 2.5% of both male and female teachers had attended such courses twice or more.

Although the official reports referred to intensive in-service training courses (see chapter three of this thesis), the fact is that such courses are quite limited in terms of the number of teachers involved in them. Thus, a large proportion of teachers had not had their opportunity to *gain* further knowledge and up to date information, which has an adverse effect on the teaching process.

The question now arises, why had so many teachers never attended such training courses? The majority of the respondents, as table 5-6 shows, indicated that they had not requested such courses; 83.8% of the female teachers and 64.7% of the males gave this response, 10.8% of the female



teachers and 2.9% of the males thought that such courses are not useful. 32.4% of the male teachers and 5.4% of females claimed that the school administration had not given them an opportunity to attend such courses.

Table 5-5 In-Service Training of history teacher

(N=80)

In-service training	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Never	34	85	37	92.5	71	88.8
Once	5	12.5	2	5	7	8.7
Twice >	1	2.5	1	2.5	2	2.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100
X <sup>2</sup> = 1.4                      DF=2                      N.S						

This suggests that the administration might be responsible for the failure of a remarkable number of teachers to attend in-service training courses.

Table 5-6 Teachers reasons for not attending in-service training courses

(N=80)

If never, why?	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
It is not useful	1	2.9	4	10.3	5	7.0
I have not been asked by the Adm*	22	64.7	31	83.8	53	74.6
The Adm do not give a chance	11	32.4	2	5.4	13	32.4
Total	34	100	37	100	71	100
X <sup>2</sup> = 9                      DF=2						

\* Adm = Administration

This suggests that the administration might be responsible for the failure of a remarkable number of teachers to attend in-service training courses.

### 5.3 PLANNING FOR TEACHING

Careful and efficient planing for teaching, given the traditions and the general goals of the field, is an essential task of the teacher. In fact though no teacher would want to be completely unprepared, the classroom situation holds the potential for extraordinary, and unplanned incidents which may be disastrous for learning, or may provide a stimulating opportunity. In view of this element of unpredictability, planning might not guarantee success, but it can provide a thoughtful structure and contribute to the self-confidence of a teacher.

In fact, for anyone involved in a career in education, planning is inescapable, some jobs might permit some element of trial and error, but in teaching, this could have dang<sup>e</sup>r~~o~~us consequences, because teaching directly effects the future of our boys and girls, thus the pursuit of goals and effective use of time and energy during school periods require planning<sup>(5)</sup>.

On this basis, course planning should done prior to teaching, and to be most effective, should avoid rigidity, while ensuring that the necessary ground is covered and the appropriate emphasis given<sup>(6)</sup>.

Table 5-7 Planning of Work

(N=80)

Planning of work	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Daily	26	65	27	67.5	53	66.2
Weekly	8	20	5	12.5	13	6.3
Monthly	4	10	4	10	8	10.0
Yearly	2	5	4	10	6	7.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 1                      DF=3                      NS						

Planning has to indicate a number of factors. It involves the constant weighing of values and goals established by an individual. It demands identification of the preferred course of action, as well as alternatives which seem to have possibilities. The teacher is looking for all possible sources of help, both in himself and in his environment<sup>(7)</sup>. As Richy (1958) summarized, he should "have a clear idea of what he wants, why he wants it, and how he is to achieve it"<sup>(8)</sup>.

To test these assumptions in the field, we asked the informants "How do you plan your work?" As table 5-7 shows, the majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers, indicated that they planned their work daily. 65% of the male teachers and 67.5% of the females did so. 20% of the males and 12.5% of the female teachers claimed that they planned their work

weekly, and 10% of each group did so monthly. 5% of the male and 10% of the female teachers planned their work yearly.

Table 5-8 Planning the Lessons

(N=80)

Planning the Lesson	Male		female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Daily	11	27.5	20	50	31	38.8
The whole course	6	15	6	15	12	15.0
Mixture of A and B	23	57.5	14	35	37	46.2
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 4.8$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;">DF=2</span> <span style="margin-left: 100px;">N.S</span>						

Gunning(1978) considered that there are two main components in planning for history teaching; deciding what concepts the teacher wants students to learn and use, and devising tasks in which they can use them. He thought that the teacher should write out a list of the main concepts to be worked on and should turn all these concepts into a detailed scheme<sup>(9)</sup>.

Moving from the general to the specific we asked the informants how they planned their lessons, the majority of the male teachers, as table 5-8 shows, claimed that they adopted a mixture of overall course planning and planning individual lessons day by day, while half their female counterparts claimed that they prepare each day's lesson.  $\chi^2$  indicated that there were no significant differences

between the two sets ( $X^2 = 4.8$   $DF=2$ ), Callahan and Clark (1982) pointed out:

Good teachers are in constant state of planning. They plan the scope and sequence of courses, develop the content within each course of study, develop units within courses of study and topics within units, and develop the activities to be used and the tests to be given. Teachers familiarize themselves with textbooks, resource materials and innovations in their fields. Yet, despite all this planning, the daily lesson plan is still the pivotal aspect of the process. Lesson plans should be clearly written, simply stated and above all flexible. Nothing gives the beginning teacher more confidence or greater sense of security than a well-developed lesson plan.<sup>(10)</sup>

To clarify the importance attached to specific elements within the plan, respondents were asked to rank seven given elements in order of priority in their plans. The data in table 5-9 reveal that the informants gave option one, the arrangement of topics top priority, with an average of 18.6. Second priority was given to option two, teaching aids with an average of 15.2. Test and examination were ranked third in the respondents' plans, while they put pupils' assignments in the fourth place. Pupils' ability, were ranked fifth, pupils' knowledge, sixth and trips, last.

The arrangement of the plan elements should, as many researchers have asserted, be designed according to several educational principles. Waterhouse, for instance, pointed out five planning questions every teacher should take into account, namely:

Table 5-9 The Plans Elements According to its Priority

(N=80)

The plans elements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	T	p-r*
Arrangement of topics	63	11	1	1	1	-	3	80	18.6
Teaching aids	3	36	31	6	2	2	-	80	15.2
Test and examination	2	20	38	13	5	1	1	80	14.1
Pupils assignment	7	4	2	46	11	6	4	80	11.3
Trips	-	-	3	3	27	18	29	80	6.2
Pupils ability	2	6	4	4	19	37	8	80	8.0
Pupils knowledge	3	3	1	7	15	16	35	80	6.6

\*Priority rate calculated by the researcher according to:

- Porkess, R., Dictionary of Statistics, British Cataloguing in Publication Data, Collins, London and Glasgow, 1988, p.230.
- Kendall, M. G., and Buckland W.R., Dictionary of Statistical Terms, 5th ed, London, Longman Scientific Technical, 1982, P. 219.
- See chapter four (methodology) about the formula

1. What are the basic facts about pupils in his school, at this time, which have a bearing on the work now being planned? What ought we to know about the pupils and the environment in which they are growing?

2. What are the educational objectives for the proposed programme? In other words, what are the teachers' ambitions

for their pupils? What new understanding and new skills are they helping to develop in them?

3. What subject content is to be covered by the programme? Is it relevant, up-to-date, useful, stimulating? Is it appropriate to the pupils' general intelligence and intellectual maturity, and will it interest them?

4. What learning activities must teachers plan to achieve their objectives and to cover the chosen content? What will the pupils actually do?

5. What arrangements will there be for the evaluation of the programme? How shall teachers know if their pupils have benefited in the ways that they intended?(11)

Others have put forward many other principles in order to enrich teachers' planning. Nelson and Michaelis, for example, (1980) suggested that pupils must given priority in planning and in the modification of plans. They asserted:

Since planning is done prior to teaching, the participation of students is not likely, but the teacher must consider student abilities, interests, and individual variation. The modification of teacher plans occurs usually as a result of student participation: the material is too hard or too easy; it does not stimulate student interest; it needs elaboration or simplification. These reasons for modifying plans develop as the course progresses. Student response provides the basis for continued alteration of teacher plans. In this sense the planning is student-centered, though clearly the responsibility is upon the teacher for initiating, evaluating, changing and continually assessing how the course is going(12).

Accordingly, teacher's plans should be modified and changed from time to time according to the students' responses and many other relevant variables. For that reason we asked the informants "How often do you change your plans?". The information shown in table 5-10 reveals that the majority of both male and female teachers, with non-significant differences between the two sets ( $\chi^2=4.4$  DF= 4) claimed that they changed their plans whenever they saw the need to do so; precisely, 65% of the male teachers and 57.5% of the females, said this.

Table 5-10 Frequency of Changes to Plan  
(N=80)

Changing the plan	Male F		Female % F %		Total F %	
Every course	2	5	8	20	10	12.5
Every year	2	5	1	2.5	3	3.8
When I see it is necessary	26	65	23	57.5	49	61.2
Rarely	10	25	8	20	18	22.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100
$\chi^2=4.4$ DF=4 N.S						

This result is in accordance with the theoretical approach referred to above, where teachers are in a position to assess their plans according to several elements, including pupils' responses. However, a considerable number of the informants claimed that they change their plan either



every course or every year, while a comparatively large number of teachers said they rarely changed their plans.

Continuing with the theme of planning, we then turned attention to teachers' self-estimation of their last plan. As table 5-11 shows, the overwhelming majority of the sample, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers ( $\chi^2 = 4.4$  DF= 4), claimed that their last plan was effective. Precisely 60% of the male teachers and 72.5% of the females said so. However, a considerable proportion of them claimed that their plans have only partially effective or not effective at all, which indicated the need for modification.

Table 5-11 Teachers' Rating Their Last Plan

(N=80)

How do you rate your last plan	Male f      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Effective	24	60	29	72.5	53	66.2
Partially effective	5	12.2	4	10	9	11.3
Not effective	11	27.5	7	17.5	18	22.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100
$\chi^2 = 1.4$ DF=2              N.S						

The question now arises, what were the reason for non-effectiveness of plans? According to the information in table 5-12, the responses revealed that teachers found their last plan not effective because it was designed too quickly or did not suit the pupils' ability. No one claimed the plan contained poor elements or gave any other reason. The

judgement of teachers about their own plans is a very good indicator of the reason for failure.

Although the number of teachers who admitted that their own plans had been unsatisfactory and they intended to modify them, is very small, the awareness of inadequate plans is in itself an indicator of effective teaching method, or at least it is an step in the right direction. As Callahan and Clark (1982) pointed out:

Effective teachers find it helpful to evaluate their plans so as to find out in what ways they succeeded and in what ways they failed. By saving the good plans and the good parts of mediocre plans and by revising (or discarding) the poor plans or poor parts of mediocre plans, you can build a collection of sound plans and repertory of effective teaching procedures.<sup>(13)</sup>

Table 5-12 The Reasons for Non-effectiveness of Plans  
(N=80)

If not effective Why not	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Designed quickly	7	63.6	2	28.6	9	50
Contained poor elements	-	-	-	-	-	-
Not suited to the pupils' ability	4	36.4	5	71.4	9	50
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	11	100	7	100	18	100

The investigation went on to enquire whether or not teacher' plans were suited to all pupils. The responses, as shown in table 5-13, revealed that the overwhelming majority

of the informants, 92.5% of the male teachers and 75% of the females, said that this was not the case.

When asked why plans were not suited to all pupils, the teachers, as shown in table 5-14, were generally agreed on the reasons, with extreme correspondence between male and female teachers: either the pupils were of different ages and therefore different capacity and ability, or different topics were studied which entailed different content, they were following different syllabuses, which also demanded various plans.

Table 5-13 The Suitability of the Plan  
(N=80)

Is your plan suited to all pupils?	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Yes	3	7.5	10	25	13	16.3
No	37	92.5	30	75	67	83.2
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100
$\chi^2 = 3.3$ DF=1						

Each plan, according to these results should be revised from time to time to decrease the differentiation indicated by the teachers themselves. Such revision and modification should involve preparation of a comprehensive plan including the major objectives of the education process, and necessary details as to the capacity of pupils, the topics and the dictated syllabus, if teaching is to be effective.

Table 5-14 Reasons Given by Teachers for Unsuitability of Some Plans\*

(N=80)

If not why not	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Different topics	37	100	30	100	67	100
Different ages	37	100	30	100	67	100
Different syllabus	37	100	30	100	67	100
Total	111	100	90	100	201	100.0

\* Every respondent was allowed to choose more than one option

#### 5.4 TEACHERS ATTITUDE TOWARD THE FUNCTION OF HISTORY TEACHING METHOD

In order to explore the teacher's experience and competence in the field of teaching, first it is necessary to take into account the identification of teaching methods.

Generally, teaching methods can be defined as those ways used by teachers to accomplish their goals or as Nicholas (1972) put it:

Teaching methods may be defined as those strategies or techniques adopted by the teacher as the most efficient means of achieving his goals; that is, they are to be seen as means to ends, and it is therefore the ends, the appropriate objectives of history teaching that determine what are the most effective methods.(14)

On this basis choice of an appropriate method facilitates, and gives purpose and direction to the learning task. Teaching methods can offer a system, a way of going about things in an organized fashion. If learning activities

become random, the resulting inefficiencies indicate an absence of organization, method is missing<sup>(15)</sup>. Medley (1979) thought that the effectiveness of teachers is a function of the teaching methods they used. He wrote:

The focus of process-product research was not on teacher characteristics as such, but on stable behaviour patterns that have been referred to as "teaching style".<sup>(16)</sup>

However, teaching method plays a fundamental role in the teaching and learning process. It is a guide-line which can pave the road for the teacher in order to dispel the ambiguity that faces those who do not adopt such a clear guide-line.

Table 5-15 Teachers' Attitude Toward Helping Pupils to Assess Values and Form Judgements

(N=80)

Help pupils to assess values	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Agree	33	82.5	38	95	71	88.8
No opinion	1	2.5	1	2.5	2	2.5
Disagree	6	15	1	2.5	7	8.7
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 3.9$ DF = 2                      N.S						

The overwhelming majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between the male and female teachers, as shown in table 5-15, agreed that pupils should be helped to assess values and form judgements. 88.8% of

both male and female teachers agreed on this. The result shows that the teachers' attitude toward helping their pupils to be able to assess values was extremely positive. Most teachers encouraged their pupils to develop these skills to equip them for later responsibility. This is consistent with the modern education approaches, where pupils, as many writers supposed, should prize the faculty of judgement, a gift of detachment and other intellectual qualities which the study of history can bestow<sup>(17)</sup>

To avoid stereotyped statements, we also proposed a statement of negative meaning "The teaching of history should be a vehicle of propaganda". The vast majority of the sample, as table 5-16 shows, with non-significant differences between the two groups ( $X^2 = 0.08$  DF=1), disagreed with the statement content. 82.5% of the whole sample rejected the idea that history teaching should be a vehicle of propaganda.

The minority (17.5%) who regarded history as a propaganda vehicle may be seen as politically motivated or misunderstanding history objectives. However they do not affect the result that history is an objective subject, or at least it should be so.

Another statement, "Historical study can introduce a pupil to his cultural heritage", was proposed to assess teachers' orientations toward the function of history as a subject.

Table 5-16 Whether or not History is a Vehicle of Propaganda  
(N=80)

History is a vehicle of Propaganda	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Agree	6	15	8	20	14	17.5
NO Opinion	--	--	--	--	--	--
Disagree	34	85	32	80	66	82.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 0.08                      DF=1                      N.S						

Another statement, "Historical study can introduce a pupil to his cultural heritage", was proposed to assess teachers' orientations toward the function of history as a subject. As table 5-17 shows, the majority of all respondents, with non-significant differences between the sexes ( $x^2= 3$  DF=2), agreed that history introduces pupils to their cultural heritage. 85% of the male teachers compared with 72.5% of the females gave this response. In contrast 10% of the male teachers and 14% of the females disagreed. Only three individuals claimed to have no opinion.

Although the majority understood the real function of history as a school subject, a minority were aware of this function in more comprehensive terms; several respondents commented that history is not confined to covering the local cultural heritage, but goes beyond this to encompasses the universe, or the human culture as a whole. It deals, as Gosden and Sylvester asserted, with human beings' experience, ambitions, problems and achievements. Thus, the

slight differences in response were concerned with details, not with principles.

Table 5-17 Historical studies introduce pupils to their cultural heritage.

(N=80)

History introduces pupils to their cultural heritage	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Agree	34	85	29	72.5	63	78.5
No opinion	2	5	1	2.5	3	3.7
Disagree	4	10	10	25	14	17.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 3$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;">DF = 2</span> <span style="float: right;">N.S</span>						

Despite historians' attempts to make history factual, accurately reflecting reality, and a more objective subject, its topics involve certain implicit moral issues and to exclude these from the classroom is impossible. We put a statement to this effect to informants. Table 5-18 shows that the vast majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between the two groups ( $\chi^2 = 1.3$  DF= 3) agreed. Precisely, 80% of the male teachers and 77.5% of the females thought that exclusion of moral issues from the classroom is impossible. Nevertheless, there was a remarkable proportion of both male and female teachers who thought that they could exclude moral issues from the classroom to make history topics more objective. Indeed, this is a controversial issue among educationists, many



believe that history teachers should inculcate moral values, while others insist that the teacher should not impose his own moral judgement upon his pupils(19).

Our result, indicates that in teaching history it is extremely difficult to avoid bias to one's cultural values. This is part of human nature.

Table 5-18 Exclusion of Moral Issues from the Classroom

(N=80)

It is impossible to exclude moral issues from the classroom	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Agree	31	77.5	32	80	63	78.7
No opinion	1	2.5	1	2.5	2	2.5
Disagree	8	20	7	17.5	15	18.8
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100
$\chi^2 = 1.3$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;"><math>DF = 3</math></span> <span style="margin-left: 100px;">N.S</span>						

In response to another statement, "It is necessary to urge the pupils to exploit the resources of the library", the data in table 5-19 reveal that the overwhelming majority of the total sample had extremely positive attitudes toward urging the pupils to exploit the library's resources. 92.5% of the male teachers and 85% of the females agreed with the statement's content. The information indicated non-significant differences between male and female teachers' responses ( $\chi^2 = 0.5$   $DF = 1$ ).

The result, shows that the teachers recognized the importance of the library resources not only to develop the

mentality of the pupils, but also to help the instructional process as a whole to proceed smoothly and successfully. Heinmann (1991) advised teachers to recognize historical sources which can stimulate pupils to search out, elaborate and expand their own knowledge and answer questions about the past. He went on to comment on the usefulness of historical sources by reference to their content, as evidence for a specific enquiry. He concluded that while the teacher should use and compare the usefulness of different sources for a particular enquiry, he should impel his pupils to discover more evidence by themselves<sup>(20)</sup>.

Table 5-19 Encouragement to Pupils to Exploit the  
Library Resources  
(N=80)

Encourage pupils to Exploit the library sources	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Agree	37	92.5	34	85	71	88.8
No opinion	-	-	-	-	-	-
Disagree	3	7.5	6	15	9	11.2
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
x <sup>2</sup> = 0.5		DF= 1		N.S		

In response to the statement, "History in school should be responsible for developing the pupil's critical faculties", the overwhelming majority of the whole sample, as shown in table 5-20, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers (x<sup>2</sup>= 1 DF= 2) were in

agreement; 87.5% of the male teachers and 85% of the females gave this response.

This result reflects the fact that the history teacher is responsible for encouraging pupils to make more effective use of their critical faculties, by reason of the comparative process which the subject entails. From the researcher's experience in this field, teachers understand that pupils by themselves can not go further than to copy the ideas and the suggestions of the teacher and even these should accompanied with perpetual encouragement.

Table 5-20 Critical Faculties

(N=80)

Critical faculties	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Agree	35	87.5	34	85	69	86.3
No opinion	-	-	1	2.5	1	1.2
Disagree	5	12.5	5	12.5	10	12.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 1$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;">DF= 2</span> <span style="margin-left: 100px;">N.S</span>						

The enquiry was then directed toward the statement, "It is necessary to be conversant with specialized terminology in history". As table 5-21 shows, the majority of the whole sample, with non-significant difference between male and female teachers ( $\chi^2 = 1.3$  DF= 2) agreed that special terminology should be used to give the subject its identity.

Precisely, 82.5% of the male teachers and 85% of the females agreed, only a minority, which did not affect the overall positive result, did not bother about specific terminology. The majority understood the value of using special terminology, not only for the subject's identity but also to underline the objectivity of the subject, in order to dispel accusations of bias and subjectivity.

Teachers who disagree with the use of terminology may do so because they lack interest in their job for one reason or another or they are not history specialists.

Table 5-21 Specialized terminology

(N=80)

It is important to use specialized terminology	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Agree	33	82.5	34	85	67	83.8
No opinion	-	-	1	2.5	1	1.2
Disagree	7	17.5	5	12.5	12	15
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 1.3$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;">DF= 2</span> <span style="margin-left: 100px;">N.S</span>						

In response to another statement, "The teacher should uncover hidden assumptions and recognize gaps in evidence", the majority as shown in table 5-22, disagreed with the statement content; 70% of the male teachers and 60% of the females claimed that the teacher was not required to uncover hidden assumptions and recognize the gaps in evidence.

Nevertheless, a remarkable proportion of the sample with non-significant differences between the two sets ( $\chi^2 = 0.9$   $DF = 2$ ) believed that the teacher should attempt to reveal these things.

While the information did not give the reasons of those who agreed, the others commented either that they would not like to explain some hidden assumption and fill the gaps in evidence, because it would not be suitable for their pupils' age and mental ability, or they would not like to elaborate topics as they need to cover all the prescribed topics of the national curriculum, in limited time. Some said "It is not easy to discuss some hidden assumptions if we take the pupils' age into account". Another said, "If we do so, what will they gain? It does no more than waste time and exhausts the pupils' mind" "we are bound to follow the plan, not to waste time". However, the researcher believes that one of the most striking evidences of the teacher's success is to give pupils objective analysis to convince them that history is not "bunk" as often believed.

Table 5-22 Teachers Should Uncover Hidden Assumptions

(N=80)

Uncover hidden assumptions	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Agree	11	27.5	15	37.5	26	32.5
No opinion	1	2.5	1	2.5	2	2.5
Disagree	28	70	24	60	52	65
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 0.9$	DF = 2		N.S			

So far, the respondents have shown quite positive attitudes toward their teaching methods. To complete the view we introduced another statement: "Pupils are able to make judgements". As table 5-23 shows, the majority of the sample, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers ( $\chi^2 = 1.8$  DF= 2) agreed that pupils are able to make judgements on their own; 70% of the male teachers and 65% of the females responded thus. On the other hand a remarkable proportion of the sample disagreed. Some of them commented, "Pupils cannot make judgement by themselves, they always need help, otherwise they take the wrong way in their judgments." Some said "Yes, they are able to make judgements, but following the teacher's advice, without the teacher's supervision, history may become science fiction" Another said " When I ask our pupils to give their own judgement about some events, we discover the majority have no scientific horizon, they offer fabulous explanations".

Table 5-23 Pupils' Ability to Make Judgements  
(N=80)

Judgement	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Agree	28	70	26	65	54	67.5
No opinion	3	7.5	1	2.5	4	5.0
Disagree	9	22.5	13	32.5	22	27.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 1.8$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;">DF= 2</span> <span style="margin-left: 100px;">N.S</span>						

These comments are extremely reasonable and reflect the orientation of many teachers in the sample.

Another aspect of teacher's attitudes toward pupils' ability was put forward with a similar result. As table 5-24 shows, 75% of the male teachers and 77.5% of the females agreed that pupils are able to form opinions of their own, but a remarkable proportion of them, with non-significant differences between the two sets ( $\chi^2 = 0.5$        $DF = 2$ ) disagreed. Many teachers commented that pupils need teachers to direct their attention toward what is relevant what should be ignored. Some teachers said, " It is not easy to find that pupils have a real interest in the subject, and without reminders they are not able to form their own opinion".

Table 5-24 Pupils' Ability to Form Opinions of Their Own  
(N=80)

Opinion	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Agree	30	75	31	77.5	61	76.3
No opinion	1	2.5	2	5.0	3	3.7
Disagree	9	22.5	7	17.5	16	20
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 0.5$ $DF = 2$ N.S						

In the researcher's experience in teaching, the pupils really need the experience of their teachers to direct their attention toward the vital points in topics. Without

teachers' direct supervision, pupils' opinions may take various directions which might not serve their acquisition of knowledge and might waste effort and time. So the role of the teacher is clearly to help pupils to make judgements and to form their own opinions, and also to develop their ability to synthesis. Teachers responded extremely positively toward the statement, "The history teacher should develop his pupil's ability to synthesis", As table 5-25 shows, the overwhelming majority of the sample with non-significant differences between male and female respondents ( $\chi^2= 0$  DF= 1) agreed. Precisely, 92.5% of the male teachers and 95% of the females, claimed that they should develop their pupils' ability to synthesis. This indicated again the importance of teachers' involvement in directing pupils' attention and interests.

Table 5-25 Pupils Ability to Make Syntheses  
(N=80)

Ability to synthesis	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Agree	37	92.5	38	95	75	93.7
No opinion	-	-	-	-	-	-
Disagree	3	7.5	2	5.0	5	6.3
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2= 0$ DF=1 N.S						



However many teachers regard history as a body of knowledge rather than an independent subject. This is revealed in table 5-26, which shows the responses of the teachers towards the statement, " History is a body of knowledge and not an approach to knowledge". The information reveals that a remarkable proportion of the respondents regarded history as a body of knowledge, rather than as an approach to knowledge. 20% of the male teachers and 42.5% of the females held this belief, though the majority regarded the subject as an approach to knowledge.

However, though teachers can distinguish between a body of knowledge,( which gives the subject comprehensive sight), and approach to knowledge (which tackle the subject in specific terms), such a distinction might not be easy for pupils. However history teachers, as Sylvester asserted, should think about their subject in terms of the whole field of human experience and achievement rather than a body of knowledge in itself<sup>(21)</sup>.

Table 5-26 History is a Body of Knowledge

(N=80)

History is a body of knowledge not approach to knowledge	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Agree	8	20	17	42.5	25	31.3
No opinion	-	-	1	2.5	1	1.2
Disagree	32	80	22	55	54	67.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100
$\chi^2 = 0.9$		DF= 2		N.S		

## 5.5 SYLLABUS

One of the most striking factors by which one can assess the teacher's performance is how he organizes his work before, during and after his work in the classroom itself. Dodd (1970) emphasized that teachers can organize their work by means of the syllabus, which tells the teacher in broad outline what aspects of his subject are to be covered<sup>(22)</sup>. Later Heywood(1982) in his diagram illustrating the assessment-instruction process, put the syllabus at the heart of the diagram; all the objectives and learning strategies are related to it. In devising a syllabus, he suggested that the teacher should ask himself such questions as:

- What change will there be in a pupil's performance at the end of the course?
- How will the pupils apply the knowledge from this course?
- What major insight will develop in the pupil as a result of this course?
- What do the pupils need to know, to do and to think?
- What attitudes should pupils have?<sup>(23)</sup>.

Obanya (1958) drew attention to three main objectives which should be considered in constructing a syllabus in every subjects, in order to go beyond merely writing out lesson notes:

1. Create a favourable attitude towards using the head and hands for learning;

2. Show the various ways in which man has attempted to master his environment;
3. Inculcate the basic skills of design and construction.

These objectives, he suggested, should guide the teacher in planning his syllabus. He wrote:

The syllabus is his because it is the one he should use to facilitate learning among a particular group of pupils<sup>(24)</sup>.

Although, as mentioned earlier, the educational system in Iraq adopts two kinds of syllabus, one highly centralized as a part of the national curriculum and the other drawn up by the teacher, we believe that the teacher's syllabus is most effective for the following reasons:

- The Ministry syllabus is quite general;
- The Ministry syllabus is theoretical rather than practical.

Therefore, teachers who devise their own detailed syllabus are likely to rely on it, more than the centrally dictated syllabus, in their day-to-day teaching.

On this basis we asked the respondents which syllabus they mainly depend on. As table 5-27 shows, a remarkable proportion of the whole sample claimed that they depend equally on both. In another words, they responded diplomatically to avoid censure from the administration. Though female teachers seemed to be more willing to explain their position of depending on their own syllabus; 35% of them, compared with only 15% of the males, claimed to do so. Nevertheless, less than 20% of the whole sample claimed that

they mainly depend on the syllabus dictated by the authorities. This result is highly consistent with the experience in many countries, where the syllabus is prescribed by the government or some other authority, and the job of the teacher is to follow the syllabus which is laid down. It is recognized that some teachers may not agree with the syllabus to be followed, but in most countries the teacher's viewpoint is not of immediate importance; the syllabus has been prescribed and has to be taught<sup>(25)</sup>.

In fact, the teacher's syllabus in Iraq has a priority in implementation terms, the Ministry syllabus might serve as a broad outline to guide the design of the teacher's syllabus but not to be followed rigidly. For that reason, the majority of the sample claimed that they use both.

Table 5-27 The Syllabus Mainly Relied On.

(N=80)

Syllabus	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
That dictated by the ministry	5	12.5	9	22.5	14	17.5
My own syllabus	6	15	14	35	20	25.0
Both	29	72.5	17	42.5	46	57.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 7.4$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;">DF = 2</span>						

We also asked the informants, whether or not they discuss the dictated syllabus with their colleagues. As table 5-28 shows, the majority of the sample, with

significant differences between male and female teachers, claimed that they discussed their syllabus with their colleagues either always or sometimes, while the rest followed the instruction without discussion. The result, however, indicated that the prescribed syllabus is often tested theoretically, as well as practically, by the teachers. Certainly, debate among teachers about its implementation in the classroom should enrich the syllabus if any of them has a great desire to follow that dictated. In fact the Iraqi teacher, in the researcher's experience, often criticizes the syllabus if it does not corresponded with his own view and sets up his own syllabus, though guided by the broad outline of that prescribed.

Table 5-28 Do teachers Discuss the Prescribed Syllabus with their Colleagues?

(N=80)

Is syllabus discussed	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Always	9	22.5	25	62.5	34	42.5
Sometimes	16	40	10	25	26	32.5
Never	15	37.5	5	12.5	20	25
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 14.4                      DF= 3						

To clarify the extent to which teachers modified the prescribed syllabus, a further question was directed. The data in table 5-29 reveal that the majority of the whole

sample with significant differences between male and female teachers claimed that they modified the prescribed syllabus, either frequently or sometimes. Periodic revision and modification of the syllabus, whether prescribed by government or devised by the teacher himself, is extremely important in order to suit the requirements of the teaching process, after due consideration of the alternative actions<sup>(26)</sup>.

Even a textbook which is mentioned in a particular syllabus may not be suited to the particular needs and capacities of pupils. Thus, the teacher needs to examine the whole syllabus. As Panton (1956) pointed out:

When presented with a section of a syllabus to be covered in a period of practical teaching, it is most important for the teacher to examine the whole syllabus to ascertain the relationship of the section which has been selected to the rest of the work. What the children have done previously may be essential to the new development. The way in which the present work is conducted may be greatly influenced by what is to follow. Coherence in teaching is most important and the syllabus is usually designed with this in mind. Where a syllabus consists of a number of unrelated topics it is usually a poor one<sup>(27)</sup>.

Accordingly, modification of the syllabus seems to be fundamental to cope with the requirements of educational practice, and it should re-examined from time to time, simply because the teacher is the only one who can assess and understand the gaps in the syllabus in practice.

Table 5-29 Revision and Modification of the Prescribed Syllabus

(N=80)

Syllabus Revision	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Frequently	4	10	24	60	28	35.0
Sometime	17	42.5	11	27.5	28	35.0
Never	19	47.5	5	12.5	24	30.0
Total 0	40	100	40	100	80	100.
$\chi^2 = 23$ <span style="float: right;">DF = 2</span>						

To assess the effectiveness of the syllabus adopted by the teachers, we asked the informants, "What margin of freedom do the pupils have to choose, in your syllabus?" As table 5-30 shows, the overwhelming majority of the sample, with significant differences between the two sets, claimed that pupils have either little margin of freedom or have no freedom at all. Precisely 90% of the male teachers and 55% of the females said they gave pupils no choice at all, while 40% of the female teachers and 7.5% of the males said there were some elements of choice. Only 2.5% of the male teachers and 5% of the females said pupils had considerable freedom of choice.

In fact, not only does the teacher in Iraq have to follow the prescribed syllabus, but he also has to use the textbook designed to cover the prescribed syllabus. This certainly restricts the teacher's ability to give his pupils a wide margin of choice in his syllabus.

The result, therefore, is consistent with common sense as Rogers (1969) remarked:

In our modern educational system, it seems to many that it is quite impossible to give students any freedom to learn, because there are so many limits imposed from the outside<sup>(28)</sup>

One of these limits, of course, is the prescribed textbooks which are designed to cover the dictated syllabus. Nevertheless there should be a margin of freedom of choice, otherwise the school becomes a prison of the mind, or as Gosden and Sylvester stated:

In planning his course the history teacher will allow as much latitude as possible for children to have some choice within their work if interest is to have a chance to develop fully.<sup>(29)</sup>

Table 5-30 Margin of Freedom, of Choice for the Pupils in the Teachers Syllabus

(N=80)

Margin of freedom	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Considerable freedom	1	2.5	2	5	3	3.7
Some element of choice	3	7.5	16	40	19	23.8
No choice at all	36	90	22	55	58	72.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2= 12$ <span style="float:right">DF= 2</span>						



To go further, we asked the informants if they have a clear idea about effective history syllabus construction. As table 5-31 shows, the majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between the two sets, claimed that they have a clear idea of an effective history syllabus. More than 90% said this, while only a very small proportion admitted that they had not.

Table 5-31 Teachers' Idea About Effective History Syllabus Construction

(N=80)

History syllabus construction	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Yes	36	90	37	92.5	73	91.3
No	4	10	3	7.5	7	8.7
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 0.9$		DF= 2		N.S		

Although only a small number of the teachers courageously admitted that they did not have a clear idea about effective syllabus construction, the problem should be taken seriously as a deficiency in this area might impede the achievement of educational objectives. The researcher, from her own experience, believes that the number of teachers' admitting to this weakness is much lower than the real figure. Very many teachers, because of limited income, have to undertake extra jobs to meet their families' needs and expenditure, and many others have extra obligations: familial, political and societal, which prevent them from following up developments in their subject and paying

attention to effective syllabus construction. The administration is aware that this situation is not conducive to good teaching, but in the present circumstances, there appears to be no alternative.

To evaluate respondents' ideas on a good history syllabus, we asked them, "What elements should an effective history syllabus contain?" As table 5-32 shows, the majority of the female teachers (57.5%) gave priority to the category, "Distribution of the subject units over the available time", while a remarkable proportion of the male teachers (32.5%) gave "Tests and examinations" priority. Although teachers ignored some other elements such as visits and trips to ancient places and museums, pupils' assignments and so on, however, they recognized the importance of the vital elements of the syllabus which positively effected the teaching process.

Table 5-32 The Components of an Effective History Syllabus

(N=80)						
The components of the effective history syllabus	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Distribution of the subject units over the available time	6	15.5	23	57.5	29	36.2
Choosing a suitable teaching method	10	25	8	20	18	22.5
Choosing appropriate teaching aids	11	27.5	5	12.5	16	20.0
Tests and examinations	13	32.5	4	10	17	21.3
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 17.2$ <span style="float: right;">DF=3</span>						

To complete the picture we asked the informants to indicate which of the given syllabus approaches they usually adopt. As table 5-33 shows, the majority of the sample preferred the second option "the line of development" approach; 75% of the male teachers and 60% of the females chose this option. The other options received marginal responses. None of the male teachers adopted the "Chronological" approach, while 27.5% of the females did so. Only 5% of the males and 10% of the females mentioned "Patch" approach. 20% of the males and only 2.5% of the females chose the "Comparative" approach.

Table 5-33 Syllabus Approach Adopted  
(N=80)

Syllabus approach adopted	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Chronological	--	--	11	27.5	11	13.8
Line of development	30	75	24	60	54	67.5
Patch	2	5	4	10	6	7.5
Comparative	8	20	1	2.5	9	11.2
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 17.7$ DF= 3						

This result reflects the fact that the majority of the sample followed the syllabus of the textbook prescribed by the Ministry of Education. This accomplishes two purposes at once, it enables teachers to conform to Ministry's plans and

also makes their task easier in that they avoid the other kinds of syllabus which require more effort to cover. Thus, the informants have little freedom to change their syllabus.

In this context, we asked respondents whether or not they changed their syllabus. As table 5-34, shows, only 12.8% of the male teachers and 27.5% of the females claimed they did. The majority of the male teachers (74.4%) said they followed the guide-lines of the Ministry , while the majority of the females (47.5%) said they follow the previous context.

Table 5-34 Changing History Syllabus

(N=80)

Changing the Syllabus	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Following the previous one	5	12.8	19	47.5	24	30.4
Changing from time to time	5	12.8	11	27.5	16	20.2
Follow the Ministry guidance	29	74.4	10	25	39	49.4
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 19.6                      DF= 2						

However, the margin of freedom to change the syllabus seems to be extremely limited because of the effective instructions of the Ministry which compel the school administrations to follow it. Any change should be suggested directly to the Ministry, which alone has the full authority to implement changes; these also entail modification of the

textbook, which is the only source used by pupils and teachers according to the central syllabus<sup>(31)</sup>. Thus the teachers who claimed that they change their syllabus are actually referring to their own syllabus, which is concerned with details, not principles, the latter being governed by the Ministry Syllabus.

## 5.6 CLASSROOM

The teaching process as a whole usually takes place and is organized in the classroom. Since most of the teaching and learning ingredients take place in the classroom, the classroom becomes one of the vital tools of the teacher<sup>(32)</sup>. Knowledge of the nature of the classroom, and how the teacher can use it to facilitate teaching and learning, might therefore be helpful in evaluating the effectiveness of teaching method. However, the way in which the teacher sees a classroom depends mainly on the nature of the subject. Some theoretical subjects such as philosophy, religion and mathematics often need no more than a four-wall enclosure with seats and desks facing a chalk board, but most school subjects need a dynamic classroom rather than a still space. As Obanya (1985) pointed out:

A classroom is, ideally, a creation of the teacher. Its mere existence as part of a building (still space) is not what matters for effective teaching. What matters is that the still space should become a dynamic force which should promote teaching and learning<sup>(33)</sup>.

The physical environment of the classroom in terms of space, furniture, light, ventilation and equipment, definitely affects the dynamics of teaching and learning, but what really matter is the way in which teachers use and arrange these aspects of the environment(34).

In this context, the field information provides us with vital indications about the physical environment and the way in which the teachers use it.

Table 5-35 History Classroom

(N=80)

History classroom	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Yes	7	17.5	7	17.5	14	17.5
No	33	82.5	33	82.5	66	82.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 0                      DF= 1                      N.S						

First we asked the informants whether they had a special history classroom. As shown in table 5-35, the overwhelming majority, 82.5% of both male and female teachers said no, while only 17.5% said yes. In the case of the minority who said they already had a special classroom, both male and female teachers shared the same modern schools in turn (one in the morning and the other in the afternoon). This kind of sharing is widespread throughout the country. These modern schools are very small, but seem to be well equipped.

As we mentioned above, modernized schools are well equipped. As table 5-36 shows, these schools have permanent teaching aids, while others have not.

To extend the investigation we asked the respondents "How well does your classroom accommodate your pupils?" the majority, as shown in table 5-37, claimed that their classrooms were over-crowded, (each classroom has more than 35 pupils) 77.55% of the male teachers and 47.5% of the females had this complaint. 15% of the males and 35% of the females said there room was somewhat crowded (25-34 pupils). Only 7.5% of the male teachers and 17.5% of the females said their room were adequate (15-24 pupils), and none claimed that his/her classroom was spacious (5-14 pupils).

Table 5-36 Permanent Teaching Aids in the History Classroom  
(N=80)

Permanent teaching aids	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Yes	7	17.5	7	17.5	14	17.5
No	33	82.5	33	82.5	66	82.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 0		DF=1		N.S		

Our finding that the majority of classrooms were either crowded or over-crowded is highly consistent with the number of students divided by the number of schools; there were 282753 pupils in secondary schools in Baghdad city in the year 1989-1990, allocated among 505 schools<sup>(35)</sup>. According

to the figures, each secondary school caters for about 560 pupils, so classrooms are likely to be crowded or over-crowded. However, although class size can have an important impact on the nature of the work done, and hence on goal attainment, many educational administrations are unable to reduce number of pupils in each classroom. In many developing countries, such as the one under study, classrooms are extremely crowded, but at present, there is little possibility of improvement, and teachers must adjust their work accordingly.

Table 5-37 Classroom Capacity

(N=80)

How does classroom accommodate pupils?	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Spacious [5-14]	-	-	-	-	-	-
Adequate [15-24]	3	7.5	7	17.5	10	12.5
Somewhat crowded [25-34]	6	15	14	35	20	25.0
Over-crowded [35>]	31	77.5	19	47.5	50	62.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 7.6$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;"><math>DF = 2</math></span>						

The information obtained about class size, suggests that many classrooms would be uncomfortable for the teaching-learning process. To confirm this belief, we asked the informants, "Are the physical conditions conducive to teaching?", As table 5-38 shows, the majority of the sample,



with significant differences between male and female teachers, responded quite contrary to our expectation. Only 35.5% of the male teachers and 10% of the females claimed that the physical conditions were not conducive to teaching, while the rest said either "yes" or "to some extent".

Table 5-38 Physical Conditions of the Classroom  
(N=80)

Are conditions conducive to teaching	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Yes	8	20	23	57.5	31	38.7
To some extent	18	45	13	32.5	31	38.7
No	14	35	4	10	18	22.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 13.6                      DF= 2						

Those who were relatively satisfied with conditions may have been thinking of the nature of the buildings itself, as most of the building in Baghdad are of modern design and construction. Those who were dissatisfied might have been given more weight to class size, and to some extent, to the facilities available.

Shifting our focus from the nature of the classroom to the action inside it, we asked the teachers how they manage their classrooms? The responses reflected extreme variety, as table 5-39 shows. 55% of the female teachers and 15% of

the males claimed that they manage their classroom with flexibility, while the majority (55%) of the male teachers and 37.5% of the females claimed that they manage with firm control. A small minority (7.5%) of the female teachers and (30%) of the males said a mixture of A and B. This variety of response is not expected, because this matter is very much related to the teacher's personal characteristics.

Table 5-39 Classroom Management

(N=80)

How to manage classroom	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Flexibility	6	15	22	55	28	35
Firm control	22	55	15	37.5	37	46.3
Mixture of A & B	12	30	3	7.5	15	18.7
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 16$ <span style="margin-left: 150px;"><math>DF = 3</math></span>						

Although the relationship between teacher's personality and classroom management has not been a fruitful area for educational research, as Calderhead (1984) emphasised, teachers themselves usually associate certain aspects of personality, such as self-confidence, dominance and assertiveness with managerial effectiveness<sup>(36)</sup>. Lemlech (1988) was one of many writers arguing in favour of flexibility and adjusting to students' needs. He stated:

The development of flexibility in the use of teaching strategies can be the teacher's greatest asset. When confronted with a learning problem, teachers are forced to make some instant decisions

concerning their teaching approach, the students' learning style, a new objective, work activity, use of materials, and time allotment. When teachers are unwilling to adjust their plans, they court disaster because if students are confused they will not stay on task, and this is when teachers have classroom management problems.(37)

Our finding showed remarkably less interest in flexibility among the male teachers, than among females. This perhaps to be expected in a patriarchal culture such as the one under study, where the male in various leadership positions often endeavours to assert his authority. This is not confined to teachers in school, but is a societal phenomenon.

Table 5-40 Names of Pupils

(N=80)

Do you remember your pupils names	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
All of them	10	25	28	70	38	47.5
Most of them	26	65	9	22.5	35	43.8
Few of them	4	10	3	7.5	7	8.7
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 16		DF= 2				

Effective managers should learn the names of their pupils early in the term, so if pupils misbehave or fail to attend, reprimands or reminders can be easily directed towards the appropriate target, instead of relying on more general commands issued to the class or group(38). In this context we asked the informants whether or not they

remembered the name of every one in the classroom. As table 5-40 shows, the responses exhibited some variety. 70% of the female teachers, compared with 25% of the males, claimed that they remembered everybody in the classroom, while 65% of the male teachers compared with 22.5% of the females said that they remembered most of them. Only 10% of the male teachers and 7.5% of the females said they remembered few of them. Although, the result is extremely consistent with the educational literature, the responses of the male teachers should taken seriously into account, and may require some interpretation. The low proportion of male teachers who were able to remember all of their pupils' names may be explained in the light of the deviation of their attention under socio-economic stresses, which compel most of them to take extra jobs to meet their families' needs, which inevitably leads to their giving each job less concentration compared with those who have only one job to do and to think about.

Table 5-41 Punctuality  
(N=80)

lesson begin and end on time	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Always	11	27.5	22	55	33	41.3
Usually	22	55	13	32.5	35	43.7
Sometimes	5	12.5	3	7.5	8	10.0
Rarely	2	5	2	5	4	5.0
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
X2= 6.3		DF= 3		N.S		

Management of the classroom also entails punctuality; starting and ending each lesson on time. Time is extremely important in schools. As Honeford (1982) pointed out:

Punctuality has a special significance in schools, for the use of time is a central feature and a major constraint in time-table planning. Heads of departments can have fierce arguments about allocation of time to their subject, so time is perceived with great respect and any one treating it carelessly will be regarded with suspicion<sup>(39)</sup>.

Our field research revealed that the majority of the sample, as shown in table 5-41, realized the importance of time in controlling their classroom. More than three-quarters of the whole sample claimed that they started and ended each lesson on time either always or usually, while only 15% said sometimes or rarely. The majority recognized the value of time in their job, and realized that if one is late, he has no grounds for complaining if his pupils are, and he will very quickly realize how infuriating it can be for unpunctual pupils to intrude once the lesson has begun.<sup>(40)</sup>

To complete the picture of classroom management, a question was directed toward the preparation by the teacher of all the equipment needed in the classroom. As table 5-42 shows, the majority of the whole sample, with significant differences between male and female teachers, claimed always to prepare all equipment needed in the classroom before starting each lesson. 72.5% of the female teachers and 37% of the males said they "always" did so, while 20% of the

females and 52.5% of males said they "sometimes" did so. Only 8.7% said they "rarely" prepared equipment before the lesson. In this context it is interesting to note that Oden and MacDonald (1973) accepted that "there are a few very talented teachers who can seemingly handle any situation and do well"<sup>(41)</sup>, even if they have not prepare what is necessary for teaching in classroom. They might use whatever is available to illustrate the lesson and successfully control the classroom. However, others simply do not have the basic professional skills, and inadequate preparation might lead to confusion of pupils' understanding and poor control of the classroom.

### Table 5-42 Preparation of Necessary Equipment

(N=80)

Do you prepare equipment before each lesson start?	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Always	15	37.5	29	72.5	44	55.0
Sometimes	21	52.5	8	20	29	36.3
Rarely	4	10	3	7.5	7	8.7
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 10.4$ $DF = 2$						

## 5.7 TEACHING AIDS

The growth of technology encompasses all aspects of life, and schools have not escaped these developments. The use of teaching aids to support work in the classroom has

become a vital integral part of the instructional process<sup>(42)</sup>. In this regard, the traditional role of the teacher has changed somewhat, as new resources for learning become available<sup>(43)</sup>. However, teaching aids can be of value to any teacher, and often add an extra dimension to the teaching process, unfortunately many teachers are wary of approaching educational technology because of the mystique which surrounds so much of it<sup>(44)</sup>. Where technology is available, it is often used to help the pure scientific subjects, while history and other social sciences make only limited use of teaching aids in certain areas of their work.

The situation in Iraq is generally similar to that in most developing countries, where such educational technology as is available is mainly used to enhance scientific subjects, and applied only to a limited extent in other subjects. However, the field information might shed more light on this point.

First, we asked the informants how often they use teaching aids, As table 5-43 shows, the overwhelming majority of the sample, with significant differences between the two sets ( $\chi^2 = 14.4$  DF = 3) claimed that they used teaching aids either frequently or sometimes, only 12.5% said rarely and 3.8% never. The result reflects that nearly all the teachers often used teaching aids. However, we need to consider what kind of aids they used, as blackboard, maps, pictures, and documents come into this category, as well as audio-visual aids and computers.

Table 5-43 Teaching Aids

(N=80)

How often do you use teaching aids?	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Frequently	10	25	26	65	36	45.0
Sometimes	21	52.5	10	25	31	38.7
Rarely	6	15	4	10	10	12.5
Never	3	7.5	-	-	3	3.8
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 14.4$ <span style="margin-left: 150px;"><math>DF = 3</math></span>						

We therefore went on to ask, "If frequently or sometimes, what kind of aids do you use?". As table 5-44 shows, 11 out of 40 male informants claimed that they used pictures, as did 13 female teachers. 16 male teachers used documents compared with 11 females. All the male and female teachers who claimed that they frequently or sometimes used teaching aids said they used maps, and 10 male teachers said they used audio-visual aids, compared with 18 female teachers.

Thus our findings revealed that of the aids mentioned, only maps were generally used. Pictures received second priority, followed by documents and audio-visual aids. None of our respondents used computers or other devices. Computers which are used even in primary school in developed countries, are not available at present in Iraqi secondary schools, and are not feature of public life, they are confined to some research offices and universities.



Table 5-44 Types of Aid Used\*

What kind of aids do you use?	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Pictures	11	45.8	13	54.2	24	100
Documents	16	59.2	11	40.8	27	100
Maps	36	49.3	37	50.7	73	100
Audio-visual	10	35	18	65	28	100
Computer	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-

\* The respondents were allowed to choose more than one option, so the percentage of each option is 100%

However, despite the current absence of computers from secondary schools in Iraq, one should not ignore the host of functions in the field of education, which computers can perform, especially at the instructional level. As Thomas (1987) stated:

At the instructional level, microcomputers are used by pupils to learn reading, mathematics, science, social studies, music, art, health practices, and games of all sorts<sup>(45)</sup>.

Nevertheless, the usefulness of computers does not negate the utility to teachers of other available aids in a subject such as history, which might need maps, pictures and documents more than audio-visual aids or computers. Kent (1969), for instance, regarded maps as "bread and butter" teaching aids for geography and history studies. He pointed out:

No study of geography or history is really without them [maps]. Teachers will find that no matter which aspect of educational technology they use to teach geography and history they will have to resort to a good atlas or wall map to bring home the salient points of most lessons<sup>(46)</sup>.

Obviously, using maps, pictures and documents in history as in many social science subjects, is likely to make teaching and learning more effective<sup>(47)</sup>.

Table 5-45 Reasons for not Using Teaching Aids

(N=80)

If rarely or never, why?	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Not available	4	44.5	2	50	6	46.2
These available are not suitable	4	44.5	2	50	6	46.2
History does not need aids	1	11	-	-	1	7.6
Total	9	69.2	4	30.8	13	100.0
$\chi^2 = 1.3$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;">DF= 2</span> <span style="float: right;">N.S</span>						

Meanwhile, a small number of the respondents in the previous table 5-43, said they either rarely or never used teaching aids. We asked them why. As table 5-45 shows, the majority of the sample with non-significant differences between the male and female teachers, claimed that such aids were not available in their schools or that those available were not suitable for teaching history. Only one out of 13

respondents expressed the belief that history does not need teaching aids.

The result shows that it is almost impossible to teach without teaching aids. Even those who claimed that they seldom or never used teaching aids probably did not mean that they did not use maps, blackboard or pictures, but might have taken the question to refer to contemporary educational techniques, which to most teachers means audio-visual techniques including video-tape, television, broadcast, slide, 16 mm film and so on.

Table 5-46 Kind of Audio-Visual Aid Used

(N=80)

Audio-visual aid used	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Video	10	90.9	14	77.8	24	82.8
Slides	1	9.1	2	11.1	3	10.3
Tapes	-	-	-	-	-	-
16 mm film	-	-	2	11.1	2	6.9
Total	11	37.9	18	62.1	29	100.0

To complete the picture, we asked the informants who used audio-visual aids in their teaching, which such aids they most often used. As table 5-46 shows all the male teachers claimed to use video-tape to depict historical ruins, and 14 out of 18 of the female teachers claimed to do so. Only one out of ten male teachers and 2 out of 18 females claimed they used slides. None of the male teachers

used tape recorders or 16 mm film, while only 2 out of 18 female teachers said they used 16 mm film, and none used tape-recorders.

The small number of teachers who often used audio-visual aids in their teaching reflects the fact that the development of the education system in Iraq is quite recent, especially in the field of using modern technology, and since 1980, the education budget has been severely damaged, first by the long war with Iran and then by the conflict with America and her allies. The lack of available finance has prevented the educational administration from giving educational technology its priority. No teacher can ignore the importance of audio-visual aids in passing information to the learners clearly and accurately. They are aware that "one picture is worth a thousand words"<sup>(48)</sup>, but Iraqi teachers must do what they can with the available materials.

In fact, history and other social science subjects demand more activities to involve pupils, such as simulation, drama and games. In this context, we asked the informants whether or not they used drama in their lessons. The overwhelming majority of the male teachers, as shown in table 5-47, claimed that they never used drama, while a considerable proportion of the females made a similar claim. only 10% of the male and 25% of the female teachers claimed they frequently used drama in their lessons. The result reflects lack of interest in drama on the part of most of the teachers, though female teachers were more likely than males to use it. Underestimating of drama is really tangible not only in schools but also in the society generally. The

traditional values stand firmly against simulation and drama. As a consequence teachers may be reluctant to use this kind of illustrative activity, and look for other, more traditionally acceptable teaching methods.

Table 5-47 Using dram in History Teaching  
(N=80)

Do you use drama	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Frequently	4	10	10	25	14	17.5
Sometimes	1	2.5	3	7.5	4	5.0
Rarely	6	15	14	35	20	25.0
Never	29	72.5	13	32.5	42	52.5
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 12.8$ <span style="margin-left: 150px;"><math>DF = 3</math></span>						

Similarly, teachers also underestimate the use of games in history lessons. In the researcher's experience, many teachers, if not the majority, regard such activity as a waste of time, for both teachers and pupils. However the information in table 5-48 might shed more light on this fact. The informants responded to the question, "What do you know about the use of games in history?" in a consistent manner the overwhelming majority of the sample, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers ( $\chi^2 = 2$   $DF = 2$ ), claimed that they knew nothing about history games. To be exact, 82% of the females and 70% of the males said this, while 25% of the males compared with

12.5 % of the females said they knew about them but had not used them. Many teachers made comments to the effect that such games are not allowed by the school administration, as a result the negative attitudes of the public toward games. Moreover, many traditional teachers, as we mentioned earlier, regard such activity as waste of time. However, a small number of informants recognized the value of history games and used them from time to time as a selected method of teaching and learning. These may be considered the elite among teachers, those who made the effort to keep abreast of development in teaching theory and to implement new idea in their own work.

This result is quite consistent with that found in the previous table with respect to the use of drama. These results compel us to conclude that the methods of teaching generally used are extremely traditional, mainly depending on verbal instruction and memorization.

Table 5-48 Use of History Games in Teaching

(N=80)

Do you use games	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
I don't know about games	28	70	33	82.5	61	76.2
I know but have not use them	10	25	5	12.5	15	18.8
I know and use them	2	5.0	2	5.0	4	5.0
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 2$		DF=2		N.S		

Table 5-49 Helping Pupils to Carry Out History Project

(N=80)

History project	Male F %		Female F %		Total F %	
Frequently	33	82.5	35	87.5	68	85.0
Sometimes	7	17.5	5	12.5	12	15.0
Never	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 0.09$		DF= 1		N.S		

To go further, we asked teachers whether or not they helped their pupils to carry out history projects. As table 5-49 shows, the overwhelming majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers ( $\chi^2 = 0.09$  DF= 1), claimed that they helped their pupils to carry out such projects. 82.5% of the male teachers and 87.5% of the females said they did so frequently, while 17.5% of the males and 12.5% of the females said they sometimes did. None claimed that they never did so. This result indicates that teachers are extremely concerned with history projects which can provide young children, as Pluckrose (1991) asserted, with knowledge in a "holistic rather than a subject-based framework; the project often provides an ideal method of presenting ideas in a meaningful form"(49).

To ascertain what sort of projects teachers helped pupils to carry out, we asked those who had replied "frequently" or "sometimes" to the previous question, "If

frequently or some times, are these projects, individual, group or both?". The responses, as shown in table 5-50, reflects extreme variety, where the majority of the male teachers (67.5%) claimed that they encouraged pupils to do both individual and group projects, while the individual projects were favoured by female teachers more than male (45% and 12.5% respectively). 35% of the females favoured group project, compared with 20% of the males.

The result indicates that all the teachers encouraged their pupils to carry out either individual or group projects in history, which help to broaden and deepen their historical horizons. Their responses reflect their recognition of the importance of the project approach and the ways they used to involve their pupils in educational activity.

Table 5-50 sort of History Projects

(N=80)

Sort of Project	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Individual	5	12.5	18	45	23	28.8
Group	8	20	14	35	22	27.5
Both	27	67.5	8	20	35	43.7
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 19.5$		DF= 3				

## 5.8 EXAMINATION

The purpose of the history examination should be to test how far the aims of the subject introduced to pupils in



a term or course have been achieved in each individual case. In a first testing, examination as Dance (1970) emphasized should not be difficult and should cover all the facts in the given text. He stated:

A number of factual questions spread over a large area will soon establish whether or not the knowledge is there. The answers required should be very short-- perhaps only one name or date in answer to each of a series of questions.<sup>(50)</sup>

The technique of examination should later be developed to a more complex paper, requiring a more sophisticated response.

The most common medium for the examination of history is the essay. The writing of essays provides a vehicle for the display of the pupils' ability to draw their thoughts together in a meaningful form, to create and place before the examiner a clearly and logically argued case. This, of course is an essential part of any history examination<sup>(51)</sup>. The examiner assumes that pupils have a good and useful stock of historical evidence. From that stock, he wants them to write an essay containing selected material which has a clear bearing upon problems concerning various aspects of the information required<sup>(52)</sup>.

Although the essay has long been accepted as the best method of examination in history, it carries within itself an element of unreliability which can not lightly be accepted in a medium for the award of qualifications designed to have national or international credibility<sup>(53)</sup>. Burton et al (1973) emphasized that "the first failing of

the essay examination which can be eliminated is its inability to sample more than a small portion of the knowledge of the well-prepared candidate"(54), He thought that the multiple choice test is a very good substitution; it could, within the specified time, provide an opportunity for the pupil to demonstrate his knowledge and understanding of the majority of topics and personalities covered in the course (55).

However, there are many other methods of assessment in history, such as oral tests, project work, short answer examination and so on. Teachers who seek complete assessment should not rely upon an stereotype test which might lead to intellectual rigidity.

Let us now explore the way in which history teachers in Iraq assess their pupils' achievements. First, we asked them how often their pupils are examined. The information in table 5-51 reveals that all teachers, both male and female, examined their pupils regularly, monthly, at the end of the course and annually.

In addition, 13 out of 40 male teachers claimed they gave weekly tests, as did 15 females. Only 2 out of 40 of both male and female teachers claimed that they tested daily. The daily test, in the researcher's experience, takes little time, perhaps the first or the last ten minutes of the lesson. This is not a real examination, it is only to assess the pupils' aptitude and to stimulate them to persistence. As Burton et al stated:

Continuous assessment can and will continue to play a valuable part in the grading of candidates<sup>(56)</sup>.

Of the examinations conducted in Iraqi schools, those at the end of every course and at the end of every scholastic year are compulsory as part of the national curriculum. The others are at the discretion of the teacher.

Table 5-51 frequency of History Examination\*

(N=80)

How often are your pupils examined?	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Daily	2	5.0	2	5.0	4	5.0
Weekly	13	32.5	15	37.5	28	35.0
Monthly	40	100	40	100	80	100
At the end of the course	40	100	40	100	80	100
Annually	40	100	40	100	80	100

\*Every individual were allowed to choose more than one option, so the percentage of each item is 100%

Continuing with this theme, we asked respondents what sort of examinations are used. The respondents were given five options: oral, multiple choice, written questions on source material requiring short written answers, essays and projects. The information in table 5-52 reveals that written questions on source material requiring short written answers were the preferred method of assessment, being used by all the sampled teachers. Next in popularity was the multiple

choice test, used by 14% of the total sample. There was considerable variation in the extent to which other methods were used. 9 male and 5 female teachers claimed that they used oral examination, 13 male and 15 female teachers reported using essays, and 23 male and 25 female teachers mentioned history projects.

Table 5-52 Sort of Examination Mainly Used\*

(N=80)						
What sort of examination is used	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Oral	9	22.5	5	12.5	14	17.5
Multiple choice	37	92.5	37	92.5	74	92.5
Written questions	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
Essays	13	32.5	15	37.5	28	35.0
Projects	23	57.5	25	62.6	48	60.0

\* The respondents were allowed to choose more than one option, so the percentage of each item is 100%

While the result reveals considerable variety of examination methods, there was a very clear preference for multiple choice and written questions. In this context Gregory (1980) recommended teachers to stimulate higher order thinking amongst pupils by including written questions in their examination.

Obviously, the traditional examination is not always the best or the only way to assess the pupils' aptitude and achievement. Many teachers complained that the traditional examination, which is used world-wide, is not sufficient to

assess fully pupils' achievement and understanding. We therefore asked the informants whether or not they believed their examination procedures could sufficiently assess their pupils' capability and achievements. As table 5-53 shows, a remarkable proportion of the sample, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers ( $\chi^2 = 3.7$  DF= 2), claimed that examinations gave them comparatively little insight into their pupils' capability and achievement. Precisely, 25% of the male teachers said examinations help to some extent and 30% said they help hardly at all, compared with 27.5% and 12.5% respectively of the female teachers.

Table 5-53 The Ability of the Examination Used to Assess the Pupils' Achievement

(N=80)

Do examinations enable you to assess pupils?	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Completely	18	45	24	60	42	52.5
To some extent	10	25	11	27.5	21	26.3
Hardly at all	12	30	5	12.5	17	21.2
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$\chi^2 = 3.7$		DF= 2		N.S		

Although the majority claimed that the traditional examination completely enables them to assess their pupils' capability, it may be doubted whether such examinations, in the context of over-crowded classes and other pressures is

really sufficient to provide a genuine assessment of each individual's capability. In the researcher's own experience, many very bright pupils may be unable to pass the examination for one reason or another. Every teacher should be aware of and consider this phenomenon.

However, the traditional examination may not only lead to intellectual rigidity, but may also diminish the opportunity to distinguish the fundamental differences among pupils, as expectation of and practice in certain types of questions might enable both the less able and the brightest pupils to respond similarly. For that reason we asked the informants whether or not they changed the type of test used. As table 5-54 shows, the vast majority of the sample (83.7%) claimed that they changed the type of examination they used, either frequently or sometimes. Only 16.3% said they never made such changes.

### Table 5-54 Changing the Type of Examination

(N=80)

Changing the type of examination	Male F %		female F %		Total F %	
Frequently	13	32.5	24	60	37	46.2
Sometimes	17	42.5	13	32.5	30	37.5
Never	10	25	3	7.5	13	16.3
Total	40	100	40	100	80	100.0
$X^2 = 7.6$						
$DF = 2$						

The result is quite convincing. All examinations, as Dickinson asserted, have to be changed frequently as a

result of genuine efforts to rethink examination aims, objectives and procedures to reach real improvement(58).

## 5.9 CONCLUSION

While the preceding chapters have focused on history teaching methods and teachers' performance from a theoretical standpoint, this chapter attempted to discover the actual practice. Teachers, responded to questions investigating several aspects of attitude and practice. In the domain of qualification and experience, it was found that all the teachers under investigation had at least five years experience in teaching. Similarly they had more than five years experience in history teaching. They were involved in teaching classes four, five and six, which form the preparatory stage in Iraqi schools. Most respondents complained of lack of training, especially in-service training. It was revealed, for instance, that more than three-quarters of the whole sample had never attended any in-service-training course, only about 11% had attended such a course.

In the field of planning for teaching, the data showed that the majority of the sample planned their work daily, while most of them planned their lessons either daily or prepared the course as a whole, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers. When the enquiry was directed toward specific component of the plan, arrangement of topics over the available time was perceived as the most important, while trips were seen as least

important. The majority of the respondents, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers, claimed that they revised and modified their plans when they saw it was necessary, though a remarkable proportion of them claimed that they rarely changed their plans.

Moving from the general to the specific, the enquiry went on to focus on teachers' evaluation of their own plans. In response to the question, "How do you rate your last plan?", the vast majority said it was effective. The minority who admitted to deficiencies in the plan attributed its lack of effectiveness to hurried drawing-up or being unsuited to the pupils. None said their plan contained poor elements or gave any other reason. However, the vast majority of respondents, in answer to another question, said that their plans were not suitable to all their pupils because they dealt with different topics, different ages and different syllabuses. In general, our finding was that teachers recognized the importance of planning for teaching, and revised and modified their plans in the light of experience and their pupils' responses.

Teaching methods were another theme of this chapter. The respondents revealed their attitudes toward several given statements. In response to the statement "It is necessary to help pupils to assess values and form judgments", most of the respondents agreed. However, they for the most part rejected the idea that history is a vehicle of propaganda, though the majority agreed that to exclude moral issues from the classroom is impossible. They generally agreed that "it is necessary to urge pupils to



exploit the resources of the library that history in school should be responsible for developing the pupils' critical faculties and that it is necessary to be conversant with special terminology in history. However, the vast majority disagreed with the proposition that the teacher should uncover hidden assumptions and recognize gaps in evidence

In the matter of the syllabus, we sought information as to who designs the syllabus, how the teacher implements, what is elements it should include and how teachers assess its effectiveness. It was revealed that teachers mainly depend on their own syllabus rather than that prescribed by the Ministry of Education, because the latter is often more general and more theoretical, while the former is practical and detailed, and enables the teacher to perform the duties required of him. The data showed also that most of the respondents discussed the prescribed syllabus with their colleagues and modified it either frequently or sometimes. The majority of teachers claimed that their pupils had little or no freedom of choice within the syllabus, because they were bound to cover the textbook topics designed to match the prescribed curriculum. In the same context, the majority of the informants emphasized that they had a clear idea about the construction of an effective history syllabus and its content. The majority claimed to follow the "line of development" as a typical approach, rather than the chronological, patch or comparative approaches.

The classroom which is regarded as the theatre of the teaching process was also investigated in this chapter. The data revealed that the vast majority of the teachers did not

have a special history classroom provided with permanent teaching aids. However, most classrooms in schools were somewhat or very crowded. In the same context, a remarkable proportion of the informants complained that the physical conditions were not entirely conducive to teaching.

Traditional management of the classroom was still the main way of controlling the pupils' activities. A remarkable proportion of the informants said they managed their classroom with firm control. The majority of teachers, however, emphasized that they remembered the names of most or all of their pupils. A similar proportion recognized the value of time in their job; they begin and ended their lessons punctually, and prepared the necessary equipment for teaching in advance.

In the field of teaching aids, the data revealed that the majority of the informants used teaching aids either frequently or sometimes, but most of these aids were quite simple; maps, pictures or documents. None used computers, but a small number claimed they used audio-visual aids. Those who rarely used teaching aids (less than 20%), claimed that such aids were not available, or that those available were not suited to history. The majority of respondents had little or no idea of the use of games in teaching history, but some used drama, and emphasized that they helped their pupils to carry out projects, either individual, group or both.

Examination was the last subject of investigation in this chapter. It was found that the overwhelming majority tested their pupils monthly, at the end of the course and

annually. They used different types of examination, but written questions on source material requiring short written answers were the favourite method used by all teachers, with multiple-choice test coming a close second. These were followed by projects essays and oral tests, in that order. Most teachers felt that these examination methods were effective in enabling them to assess their pupils, capability either completely or to some extent. However, this success seems to be as the result of frequent or occasional changes in the type of examination, which were carried out by most of the teachers in the sample.

So far the analysis has dealt with one party to the educational process, namely the teachers. To complete the picture, the other party, the pupils, will be considered in the next chapter. Their responses will balance those of the teachers to present a more rounded view of the history teaching in secondary schools in Iraq.

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## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **THE PUPILS**



## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The last chapter was concerned with the teachers' responses toward their performance in the field of teaching. However, we have assumed that one viewpoint alone is not sufficient to clarify the problem, since the teaching process is not confined to one party. Therefore in order to avoid this particular bias, it is necessary to investigate both sides of the equation. For this reason, the pupils who share the educational process are used in this chapter as a criterion to check the validity of the teachers' responses, not in a spirit of suspicion over the teachers' reactions, but as a scientific step to enrich the research and maximize the benefit of the evaluation process.

Obviously, pupils in the early stages might not be able to give an objective evaluation of the way in which their teachers carry out their task; they might respond emotionally, according to likes and dislikes, giving their personal view without the objectivity which is necessary to scientific research. However, pupils in secondary school who are on the brink of university might have crystallized their views about their teachers' performance. Moreover, the questions directed to them required more precise evaluation than just like and dislike. Thus, one can anticipate reasonably illuminating responses.

It is hoped that, the investigation in this chapter will shed more light on the teaching process and provide a balance to the views of teachers, cited earlier.

## 6.2 PERSONAL INFORMATION

Personal information is regarded as a fundamental basis of empirical studies, where the identification of the main theme of the study or the background of the informants will not only enrich the study, but also provide scientific credibility.

Table 6-1 Distribution of the Pupils Sample According to Sex and Age

(N=200)

Age/Sex	Male F	Female F	Total F %	
15-16	32	11	43	21.5
16-17	34	22	56	28.0
17-18	21	31	52	26.0
18-19	10	31	41	20.5
19-20	3	5	8	4.0
Total	100	100	200	100.0

The pupils who were involved in the investigation recorded their sex and age background as shown in table 6-1. where 32% of the male pupils compared with 11% of the females were in the age group 15-16. 34% of the males

and 22% of the females in the age group 16-17, 21% of the male pupils and 31% of the females in the age group 17-18, 10% of the males and 31% of the females in the age group 18-19, and 3% of the males and 5% of the females in the age group 19-20.

The pupils were all in class four, five or six, as shown in table 6-2. 53% of the male pupils and 19% of the females were in class four, 33% of the males and 42% of the females in class five, while 14% of the males and 39% of the females were in class six.

Table 6-2 Distribution of the Sample according to Classes  
(N=200)

Class	Male F	Female F	Total F    %
Class four	53	19	72    36.0
Class five	33	42	75    37.5
Class six	14	39	53    26.5
Total	100	100	200   100.0

Although the sample was randomly chosen from the teachers' registers, it does not represent equally the three classes of the preparatory stage, because the questionnaire was handed to the teachers, who distributed according to the numbers of each class they were involved in teaching. However the variety of age groups in the sample is extremely important to the reliability of the study.

### 6.3 TEACHING METHOD AND THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE TEACHER

Medley (1979) emphasized that the effect of schooling on the individual pupil depends mainly on the teacher. He thought that such an assumption "should not need much defence in a volume addressed to teacher educators"(1). Louden (1992) discussed the cases of several teachers who adopted certain teaching methods, which compelled him to conclude that teachers had fundamental differences of opinion about "the value and the possibility of making a particular teaching method compulsory"(2). However a considerable number of teachers still believe that they spend many years to introduce their own teaching method they thought it is extremely appropriate to conduct knowledge to their pupils(3). In other words, they adopted certain methods of teaching and thought theoretically are the most convenient to provide their pupils with knowledge, apart of their responses.

Regardless of the way in which the teacher passes on his information to his pupils, he should be prepared to assist students in forming concepts and making judgements. He should develop their ability to assess values, to have opinions of their own, and exercise their ability to synthesise, and their critical faculties, at a level appropriate for them. The teacher can help his pupils to identify and clarify the parameters of concepts. He can provide the children with an initial broad experience, for example by taking them on trips to archeological sites, showing films or slides, documents

and maps, which can be followed by organizing the details of the experience into a workable grouping of research topics, games, drama, and so forth<sup>(4)</sup>.

The teacher's most potent resource is possession of, access to and control over knowledge. He has knowledge and defines what should and what should not be learnt. He also controls pupils' speech, behaviour and even clothing. " Teachers have the right to monitor and correct pupils' talk in ways that differ sharply from the norms of everyday conversation". Moreover, the teacher should spend time "sizing up" pupils<sup>(5)</sup>.

Just as a teacher spends a great deal of time sizing up his pupils, pupils are also engaged in sizing up their teacher. Thus, understanding pupils' perspectives on teaching is extremely important for the evaluation of the teaching process as a whole, as Delamont (1976) pointed out:

Understanding the way pupils define the situation is the only way one can make sense of their action<sup>(6)</sup>.

On this basis, the attitude of the pupils towards their teachers' way of teaching might give a clearer picture of their teachers performance. Despite the sensitivity of the evaluation process, the way in which the researcher tackled the problem may shed light on this matter without misunderstanding.

Table 6-3 Collect and Examined Relevant Evidence

(N=200)

Collect and examine relevant evidence	Male F	Female F	Total F %
Always	62	46	108 54
Sometimes	33	44	77 38.5
Never	5	10	15 7.5
Total	100	100	200 100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 5.6                      DF= 2			

First we asked the informants, "Does your teacher collect and examine relevant evidence?" As table 6-3 shows, the majority of the whole sample claimed that their teachers always collected and examined relevant evidence. Precisely, 62% of the male pupils compared with 46% of the females said so, while 33% of the males and 44% of the females said their teachers did this sometimes. Only 5% of the males and 10% of the females said "never".

Although the overwhelming majority of the respondents claimed that their teachers collected and examined relevant evidence either always or sometimes, the responses of the small proportion of them who said never can be explained by disaffection, bad relationships with their teachers, or simply in the light of individual differentiation.

Table 6-4 Teacher Provides Pupils with Selected Work References.

(N=200)

Selected Work references	Male F	Female F	Total F %
Yes	40	34	74 37
No	60	66	126 63
Total	100	100	200 100.0
$\chi^2 = 0.5$ DF= 1                      N.S			

While the respondents gave various reactions to the question about collecting and examining relevant evidence, they reacted to the question, "Does he give you selected work references before he starts the lesson?", in a more consistently similar way. The majority of the respondents, with non-significant differences between males and females ( $\chi^2 = 0.5$  DF= 1), claimed that their teachers did not give them such work references. Precisely, 60% of the males and 66% of the females said "no". Despite the importance of selected work references, especially in history, the responses indicate that this issue is underestimated. The explanation of such neglect, according to the researcher's own experience, is that the teachers often depend on a prescribed textbook, which contains a huge number of topics. The teachers' main concern is to cover these topics, which might discourage them from going further. On the other hand, several teachers were not interested in work references, so they

would be unlikely to direct their pupils to such references

Table 6-5 Helping Pupils to Do Presentations

(N=200)

Presentation	Male F	Female F	Total F %
Yes	88	80	168 84.0
No	12	20	32 16.0
Total	100	100	200 100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 1.8                      DF= 1                      N.S			

In response to another question, the overwhelming majority of the pupils, as shown in table 6-5, claimed that their teachers helped them to do presentations. 88% of the male pupils and 80% of the females said this. This result implies that the pupils would have to use the library to prepare papers, reports or lectures for this purpose, and therefore suggests either that teachers gave them a list of work references or that they found references themselves, with the school librarian's help.

Further light on this topic is provided by the information of table 6-6 which concerns the sort of presentation pupils offered. The vast majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between the two groups (X<sup>2</sup>= 2.7    DF= 2), claimed that they offered reports, 79% of males and 88% of females saying this, while 10.2% of the males and 5% of the females said



they gave seminars, and 10.2% of the males and 6.3% of the females reported giving lectures.

Table 6-6 Sort of Presentation

What sort of presentation	Male F	%	Female F	%	Total F	%
Seminar	9	10.2	4	5.0	13	7.8
Report	70	79.6	71	88.8	141	83.9
Lecture	9	10.2	5	6.3	14	8.3
Total	88	52.4	80	47.6	168	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 2.2		DF= 2		N.S		

To go further, we asked the informants whether or not their teachers prepared their lessons well. As table 6-7 shows, the majority of the whole sample with significant differences between male and female pupils ( $X^2 = 6.7$  DF= 2), claimed that their teachers "always" prepared the lesson well, while 30% of the male pupils compared with 36% of the females said "sometimes". Only 5% of male pupils compared with 14% of the females said "rarely".

The result shows that the vast majority of the sample believed that their teachers prepared their lessons well, either always or sometimes, thus reflecting an extremely positive attitude towards the performance of their teachers.

Table 6-7 Preparation of the Lesson

(N=200)

Prepare the lesson	Male F	Female F	Total F    %
Always	65	50	115   57.5
Sometimes	30	36	66   33.0
Rarely	5	14	19   9.5
Total	100	100	200   100.0
$\chi^2 = 6.7$ DF = 2			

Obviously, the teacher can also arrange time, space, objects, pupils and himself into various types of learning environments. In this respect, Gump (1964) provided data from a study of 196 junior-year students in five different high schools chosen by the Midwest Psychological field station. The investigator invited students to tell about their classes instead of requiring students to talk about their teachers<sup>(7)</sup>. The inquiry encompassed five major categories, among them the teachers pedagogical ability, which took third place out of 12 categories, reflecting a positive attitude toward teachers and indicating the pupils' ability to assess their teachers' performance in several ways e.g, prepare the lesson, answering questions, interesting talks and so on<sup>(7)</sup>.

Accordingly, pupils' assessment of their teachers' teaching process, methods and performance, seems to be a good criterion for evaluation.

To complete the picture we asked the pupils, "What aspects of his lesson do you like?". The information in table 6-8, provides a clear image on this point. The way in which the teacher imparts the information and his enthusiasm received top priority in the pupils' responses. 41% of the male pupils and 22% of the females said, "teacher's richness and his way of producing the information", while 34% of female pupils and 13% of the males said "his enthusiasm". The other two options, "his control" and "arrangement of the lesson", received similar responses; 26% of the male pupils and 18% of the females favoured control, while 20% of the males and 26% of the females liked the management of the lesson. In this context, many educators have attempted to evaluate teachers in terms of management skills, as Travers (1981) pointed out:

If the classroom manager provides favourable conditions for learning, then the pupil will learn. If the pupil does not learn, then the conditions provided by the teacher must be blamed<sup>(8)</sup>.

The result showed that the pupils are aware of the aspects that affect the teaching process. They evaluated these aspects and distributed their responses in terms of the importance to them of these elements, which should be taken into account as a criterion to evaluate teachers' performance.

Table 6-8 Pupils' Preferences for Aspects of the Lesson

(N=200)

What aspects of his lesson do you like?	Male F	Female F	Total F    %
Richness and production of the information	41	22	63    31.5
His control	26	18	44    22.0
Arrangement of the lesson	20	26	46    23.0
Enthusiasm	13	34	47    23.5
Total	100	100	200   100.0
$\chi^2 = 17.3$ DF= 3			

To go further, we asked them whether or not their teachers were interested in everything they did. The majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between male and female pupils as shown in table 6-9, claimed that they were usually interested in whatever their pupils were doing. 47% of both male and female pupils said "usually", 34.5% of them said "sometimes", while only 18.5% of them said "never". Although the overwhelming majority claimed that their teachers drew attention to whatever their pupils were doing either usually or sometimes, a remarkable proportion of them said never. This, however, may indicate that those teachers either were not satisfied with the job or had personal or socio-economic problems, rather than that they did not understand pedagogical principles. However this does not affect the result,

which indicates that the vast majority of pupils showed extremely positive attitudes toward their teachers' performance.

Table 6-9 Teacher's Interest in Whatever Pupils are Doing  
(N=200)

Interested in what his pupils are doing	Male F	Female F	Total F    %
Usually	54	40	94    47.0
Sometimes	34	35	69    34.5
Never	12	25	37    18.5
Total	100	100	200   100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 6                      DF= 3                      N.S			

In order to assess the teacher's character, which is fundamental to the teaching process, we asked the respondents to describe their teacher's character in relation to some given traits. As table 5-10 shows, the majority of the sample claimed that their teachers were either sympathetic or humorous. Precisely, 87 out of 200 respondents said "sympathetic", a similar number said "humorous", while 69 respondents said "calm", 58 said "natural" and a similar number said "orderly". Only 44 respondents said "nervous and boring".

Although the majority of the sample had extremely positive attitudes toward their teachers' characteristics, their responses might be explained in

the light of what Kash and Borich (1978) said, that the teacher's role dictates the emotional climate of the classroom, where "the pupils find that the teacher is the dominant influence on the environment; it is the teacher's role to plan, organize, and manage the events occurring in the classroom"<sup>(9)</sup>. The teacher's role, therefore affected even the pupils' attitudes and gained a positive bias.

Table 6-10 the Teacher's Characteristics\*  
(N=200)

The teacher's traits	Male F    %	Female F    %	Total F    %
Calm	38    55	31    45	69    100
Sympathetic	53    61	34    39	87    100
Orderly	24    41.4	34    58.6	58    100
Humorous	43    49.4	44    50.6	87    100
Natural	23    39.6	35    60.4	58    100
Nervous and boring	20    45.5	24    54.5	44    100

\*The respondents were able to choose more than one option, so the percentage of each category is 100%

#### 6.4 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The theatre of the teacher, in which one can evaluate his performance, is the classroom. The evaluation process in our case should go beyond the classroom as an environment, to encompass multiple perspectives, including behaviour, methods of teaching,

management, control, pay attention to each individual, and so on. The classroom, however, is the main domain of the teacher's performance. Any attempt to assess the teacher's behaviour in the classroom, as Ryans (1960) determined, should take into account "critical incidents" of teaching or critical behaviour of teachers, by which is meant any observable teacher behaviour or act which might make the difference between success or failure in some specified teaching situation<sup>(10)</sup>.

In order to test the teacher's performance in the classroom, first we asked the pupils whether or not their teachers pay attention to each individual in the classroom. As table 6-11 shows, the responses reveal significant differences between the two groups ( $\chi^2 = 24$  DF = 2), where 67% of the male pupils compared with 33% of the females said "yes", the teacher paid attention to each individual in the classroom. 26% of the males and 45% of the females said "to some extent", while only 7% of the males and 22% of the females said "no". Although the result reflects a reasonably positive attitude toward teachers' interest in their pupils, the low proportion who had negative reactions might be explained in the light of individual differentiation. Gump (1964) emphasized that some of the differences in behaviour of teachers in relation to pupils are correlated to differences among teachers as persons<sup>(11)</sup>. Accordingly, pupils' attitudes could depict the relationship with their teachers, or at least they may indicate their personal impressions. In classrooms which are crowded or

overcrowded, it is difficult to pay attention to each individual, however, it is a basic principle of education that effective teaching and learning are enhanced by small class size, which facilitate such attention.

Table 6-11 Attention to Each Individual in the Classroom  
(N=200)

Does teacher pay attention to each individual	Male F	Female F	Total F %
Yes	67	33	100 50.0
To some extent	26	45	71 35.5
No	7	22	29 14.5
Total	100	100	200 100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 24                      DF= 2			

However, the investigation went further to define the teacher characteristics in terms of speaking (clear or poor voice), which we assumed would affect the performance of the teacher. As the information in table 6-12 shows, the overwhelming majority of the respondents claimed that their teachers' voice were either clear and high or moderate. Only a small proportion of them said their teacher had "poor voice". Precisely, 53% of the male pupils and 31% of the females claimed that their teachers' voice were clear and high, 38% of the males and 44% of the females said "moderate". Only 9% of the males and 25% of the females said "poor".



The result reveals that the majority of the sample responded in favour of their teachers. A clear, high or moderate tone of voice reflects the teacher's self-confidence, confidence in his information and psychological equilibrium, which would certainly have a positive effect on the teaching and learning process.

Table 6-12 The Teacher's Voice

(N=200)

Teachers' voice	Male F	Female F	Total F    %
Clear & high	53	31	84    42
Moderate	38	44	82    41
Poor	9	25	34    17
Total	100	100	200   100.0
$\chi^2 = 13.7$ DF = 2			

Once again, we called respondents' attention to their teachers' interest in their pupils personally. In this context we asked pupils whether or not their teachers remembered their pupils' names. The responses, as shown in table 16-13, reveal significant differences between the two groups. 42% of the male pupils and 30% of the females claimed that their teachers remembered the names of all of them. 32% of the males and 26% of the female pupils said they remembered most of their pupils' names. 20% of the males and 29% of the females said teachers remembered some of their pupils' names. Only 6%

of the males and 15% of the females said teachers remembered only a few of their pupils' names.

Table 6-13 Remembering of Pupils' Names

(N=200)			
Does teacher remember All his pupils' names?	Male F	Female F	Total F %
All of them	42	30	72 36.0
Most of them	32	26	58 29.0
Some of them	20	29	49 24.5
Few of them	6	15	21 10.5
Total	100	100	200 100.0
$\chi^2 = 8.1$ <span style="margin-left: 100px;"><math>DF = 2</math></span>			

The result reveals that about three quarters of the whole sample claimed that their teachers remembered all or most of their pupil's names, while the rest indicated that their teachers had less interest in remembering their names. This may be either because of the crowded or overcrowded classes, which make it quite difficult to remember the name of each individual among the huge number of the class, or because the teachers themselves were under chronic multiple pressures inside and outside the school which not only prevented them from concentrating on remembering their pupils' names but would also negatively affect their teaching. However, the proportion to whom this applied was not very high.

The investigation went further to cover the dimension of time-keeping and use of time in the classroom. In this context, we asked the informants

whether or not their teachers started each lesson on time. The responses, as shown in table 6-14, revealed significant differences between the males and females. 31% of the male pupils and 61% of the females claimed that their teachers always started each lesson on time, while 49% of the male pupils and 32% of the females said "sometimes". Only 20% of the male pupils and 7% of the females comprising 13.5% of the whole sample, said "rarely".

Table 6-14 Punctuality in Starting Each Lesson

(N=200)				
Does teacher started each on time	Male F	Female F	Total F %	
Always	31	61	92	46.0
Sometimes	49	32	81	40.5
Rarely	20	7	27	13.5
Total	100	100	200	100.0
$\chi^2 = 19$ <span style="float: right;">DF= 2</span>				

The result indicated that the vast majority of teachers were punctual in starting each lesson, while a small proportion gave time less value than one would expect. The lack of concern on the part of some teachers toward the value of time may be explained in the light of traditional conventions, which often show less concern for the value of time. Excellent evidence of misuse of time in traditional cultures is provided by Levine (1985), who described Brazilian abuse of time, which

quite corresponds with temporal behaviour in Iraq. He wrote:

I asked some-one the time. It was 9.05 a.m, which allowed me time to relax and look around the campus before my 10 o'clock lecture. After what I judged to be half an hour, I glanced at a clock I was passing. It said 10.20! In panic, I broke for the classroom, followed by gentle calls of "Hola, professor" and "Tudo bem professor?", from unhurried students, many of whom, I later realized, were my own. I arrived breathless to find an empty room.... I had learned my first lesson about Brazilians: their timepieces are consistently inaccurate, and nobody minds.(12)

In responses to another relevant question, "Does he prepare all equipment before the start of the lesson?" the information in table 6-15 reveals non-significant differences between male and female pupils, where 51% of the male pupils and 44% of the females claimed that their teachers "always" prepared equipment before the start of the lesson, while 36% of the males and 40% of the females said they did so "sometimes". Only 13% of the males and 16% of the females said they did so "rarely". The result reveals that the overwhelming majority of their teachers prepared the necessary equipment always or sometimes as their pupils claimed. Those who claimed that their teachers rarely did so, might have responded according to their experience, which is reinforced by the researcher's experience, that some teachers do not prepare all the equipment they need before starting each lesson, but have to ask the pupils when they are in the class to bring

maps, charts, documents and even chalks. As Good and Brophy (1978) explained:

The problems often begin when a teacher breaks the flow of a lesson or activity because he or she needs to prepare equipment that could have been prepared earlier(13).

Table 6-15 Preparation of Equipment Before Starting the Lesson

(N=200)

Does he prepare all equipment before the start of the lesson	Male	Female	Total	
	F	F	F	%
Always	51	44	95	47.5
Sometimes	36	40	76	38.0
Rarely	13	16	29	14.5
Total	100	100	200	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 1                      DF= 2                      N. S				

Some of them, however, totally neglect such preparation, but really that is a few teachers who do not take the job seriously and sincerely. However, the majority of teachers take their responsibilities seriously and regard teaching as a respectable job.

To complete the picture, we asked the pupils, "Does he forget to dismiss the class?". The reason we asked this question is that good teachers are those who are involved in the class, and do not have to count the seconds and minutes, but their experience and natural sense of timing enables them to start and finish the

lesson at the appointed time. Those who repeatedly look at their watches with boredom reflect a bad example of teachers. However, the data in table 6-16, might shed more light on this fact. The information indicated that 9% of the male pupils and 24% of the females claimed that their teachers frequently forgot to dismiss the class. 40% of both male and female pupils said that their teachers sometimes forgot to dismiss the class, while 51% of the male pupils and 36% of the females said they did so rarely.

The result reveals that a remarkable proportion of the respondents said that their teachers rarely forgot to dismiss the class which reflects less interest in the value of time. If the evaluation is genuine and accurate, they are not doing their job as well as one might expect, and they might lead the pupils backward instead of developing their information and abilities.

Table 6-16 Dismissal of Class

(N=200)

Does he forget to dismiss the class?	Male F	Female F	Total F    %
Frequently	9	24	33    16.5
Sometimes	40	40	80    40.0
Rarely	51	36	87    43.5
Total	100	100	200   100.0
$\chi^2 = 9.4$ <span style="float: right;">DF = 2</span>			

## 6.5 TEACHING AIDS

It would be difficult for any teacher today to perform his instructional function without teaching aids, which are used to make the teaching-learning process effective and interesting, "Seeing a picture", as Callahan and Clark (1982) said, "may give pupils a clearer idea than hearing a thousand words on the topic"(14).

Most of the teaching aids fall into the category commonly called audio-visual aids, which cover several tools from chalkboards to film projectors(15). Davies indicated that audio-visual aids are most effective when they are:

- simple and to the point;
- suitable and relevant to the task;
- essential and necessary;
- interesting and challenging;
- saving in effort and time(16)

Obviously, teaching aids do not do the teaching, they are a means to an end. Teachers use them, because they help realize a lesson's objectives(17).

In this context we asked the respondents how often their teachers used material aids. As table 6-17 shows, all their teachers used teaching aids, but the information reveals significant differences between male and female pupils, regarding the extent of use of these aids. 52% of the male pupils and 28% of the females

claimed that their teachers "always" used teaching aids, while 41% of the male and 46% of the females said "sometimes". Only 7% of the males and 26% of the females said "rarely".

The result indicated that overall, teachers recognized the importance of using illustrative materials in teaching history, but the question now arises, what sort of aids they used. The selection of proper material aids is quite important. As Callahan pointed out:

It would be difficult to think of anything more important in teaching than to select the proper tool. Using the wrong tool not only will not add to your teaching effectiveness but may actually cause a potentially effective class to become ineffective. To be sure that aids you select are effective, you should consider their suitability, visibility, clearness, level of understanding, ease of presentation, and availability<sup>(18)</sup>.

Table 6-17 Using Teaching Aids

(N=200)

How often do they use teaching aids?	Male F	Female F	Total F    %
Always	52	28	80    40
Sometimes	41	46	87    43.5
Rarely	7	26	33    16.5
Never	-	-	-
Total	100	100	200    100.0
$\chi^2 = 18.4$ <span style="margin-left: 150px;"><math>DF = 2</math></span>			



Although teachers realize that teaching aids do not replace teaching, but can make teaching more effective, few teachers use appropriate aids efficiently and effectively because they use poor aids, or they have mistaken ideas about instruction and learning or because of inertia<sup>(19)</sup>. However, the information in table 6-18 might shed more light on this matter. 60 out of 200 respondents claimed that their teachers usually used pictures, 128 out of 200 respondents said they usually used documents, but the overwhelming majority of the whole sample (194 respondents) said they used maps. Only 18 respondents (13 males and 5 females) reported use of audio-visual aids, and none referred to computers or any other illustrative tools.

Table 6-18 Sort of Teaching Aids\*

(N=200)

What sort of aids they often use	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Pictures	39	65	21	35	60	100
Documents	60	46.9	68	53.1	128	100
Maps	98	50.5	96	49.5	194	100
Audio-visual aids	13	72.5	5	27.8	18	100
Computers	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-

\*The respondents were able to choose more than one option, so the percentage of each category is 100%.

The result indicated that most teachers, as their pupils confirm usually used simple aids: pictures, documents or maps. The small number of teachers who used audio-visual aids and the none-use of computers might be explained in the light of availability rather than inertia. The overwhelming majority of primary and secondary schools in Iraq, in the researcher's experience, often lack devices such as video-tapes and computers, where schools have them, teachers may be able to use them only on very specific occasions. However, the long war with Iran and then the Gulf war, have certainly impeded plans to increase the availability of modern devices for use in teaching.

Audio-visual aids, however, are not the only way to illustrate lessons and make the teaching-learning process more effective. Workshops, drama, simulation, guessing games, detective stories, and puzzles are other effective activities in modern teaching. Teachers, as Thelen (1981) asserted, should encourage their pupils to engage in voluntary activities such as drama and simulation, which facilitate and illustrate problematic situations.<sup>(20)</sup> Milliken and Crookal (1962) suggested several historical models as aids to memory, helping also in development of imagination and realization of the importance of the truth<sup>(21)</sup>.

To test this point practically, we asked the informants whether or not their teachers involved them in simulation or drama activities to illustrate the lessons.

The information shown in table 6-19 reveals that the majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between the two groups ( $\chi^2 = 4.2$  DF = 2), claimed that their teachers never involved them in any kind of drama or simulation. Precisely, 50% of the male pupils and 52% of the females said this, while 22% of the male pupils and 31% of the females said they did so sometimes. Only 28% of the male pupils and 17% of the females said their teachers frequently arranged such activities.

Table 6-19 Drama and Simulation  
(N=200)

Do your teachers involve you in drama and simulation?	Male F	Female F	Total F    %
Frequently	28	17	45    22.5
Sometimes	22	31	53    26.5
Never	50	52	102   51.0
Total	100	100	200   100.0
$\chi^2 = 4.2$	DF = 2		N.S

The result indicated that drama and simulation were given little attention by history teachers, despite their importance in translating abstract events and historical figures into something tangible and recognizable. However, drama in schools and even in public life, is underestimated because public opinion is that drama and simulation might corrupt the younger generations and

violate traditional values. This has created negative attitudes not only toward these activities, but also toward all the fine arts. Teachers who do not uphold this idea, nevertheless have to bow to the majority view. In this context, it is not difficult to explain the lack of drama in schools.

Table 6-20 History Projects

(N=200)

Does your teacher ask you to do history projects?	Male	Female	Total	
	F	F	F	%
Yes	89	82	171	85.5
No	11	18	29	14.5
Total	100	100	200	100.0
$\chi^2 = 1.4$	DF = 2		N.S	

To go further, the investigation was directed toward whether or not teachers asked their pupils to do projects in history. The data as shown in table 6-20 reveal that the overwhelming majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between male and female pupils ( $\chi^2 = 1.4$  Df = 2), agreed that their teachers prompted them to do projects in history. Precisely, 89% of the male pupils and 82% of the females said yes, while 11% of the male pupils and 18% of the females said no. The result indicated that the general tendency of the teachers were to involve their pupils in history

projects, which not only develop their mental ability, but also, as Davies (1981) said, "might be used to assess practical skills such as the ability of a person to weld two pieces of metal together"(22).

However, the question for those who said "yes" is how their teachers designed and distributed the projects among their pupils. As table 6-21 shows, teachers gave the given categories (individual, groups and both) approximately equal opportunity. 41% of the male and 23% of the female pupils claimed that the projects they were assigned by their teachers were often individual, while 24% of the male and 32% of the female pupils said they often did group projects. 24% of the males and 27% of the females said they sometimes did individual and sometimes group projects. The result indicated that individual and group approaches received approximately equal opportunity.

Although individualized work is helpful in developing pupil's knowledge, group projects could help to develop social skills through interaction with the psyche-group or reference group, which has supportive expectations for spontaneity, creativity, personal opinions, effectiveness and expressiveness. It may also help the individual pupil to gain self-confidence by enabling him to find out that others do not regard his ideas as weak. Pupils in groups, stimulate each other to create new hypotheses; they also engage in rewarding interactions which should enrich and develop the project they undertake(23). Nevertheless, both individual and

group projects have an essential role in the learning process.

Table 6-21 Distribution of History Projects among the Pupils

(N=200)

Nature of Project:	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Individual	41	46	23	28	64	37.4
Group	24	27	32	39	56	32.7
Both	24	27	27	33	51	29.8
Total	89	100	82	100	171	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 6                                      DF= 2						

Teachers, however, could encourage their pupils in other activities rather than confine themselves to verbal instruction. One of these activities is to involve pupils in historical games which, as Davies said, "might be used to see how people behave under pressure." (24)

Instructional games can be played on a board involving two or more players. They can also be played with the help of a computer or word processor. In every real sense, these devices help introduce a competitive element, which adds an important motivating factor to the pupils (25).

To clarify this instructional activity we asked the informants "Does your teacher get you to play games in

history?". The information as shown in table 6-22 reveals a disappointing result, in that 98% of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between male and female respondents ( $\chi^2 = 0.2$   $DF = 1$ ), claimed that they did not play any historical games. Only 4 out of 200 respondents said yes, they were involved in playing games. The lack of this activity may indicate that teachers thought it is not suitable for secondary school pupils, or that they have no clear idea about it.

Table 6-22 Pupils and History Games  
(N=200)

Does your teacher involve you in playing historical games?	Male F	Female F	Total F    %
Yes	1	3	4    2.0
No	99	97	196   98.0
Total	100	100	200   100.0
$\chi^2 = 0.2$	$DF = 1$	N.S	

## 6.6 TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

Assessing pupils' achievement is one of the most important tasks of the teacher. The system used in examination might reveal the competence of the teacher and shed light on pupils' ability to achieve one given

task and their inability to achieve another; it provide a way of assessing what is and what is not difficult<sup>(26)</sup>.

Whatever the methods employed in the examination, the fact is that it is the only way to assess pupils' achievement and ability, as well as the teachers' performance. Dickinson (1991) regarded the assessment process as a key element in educational practice. In his words:

It is an integral part of the process of teaching and learning, essential for monitoring standards and a powerful instrument of change<sup>(27)</sup>.

The most common medium for the examination of history in Iraq, is continuous assessment, which is in line with what Burston has said:

...it is, in fact, quite wrong to attempt the measurement of anyone's ability by reference solely to performance in an examination hall on a particular day"<sup>(28)</sup>

However, the field information might shed further light on the assessment process as a way to of evaluating teachers' performance rather than pupils' achievements. First we asked the respondents, how often they have examinations. Table 6-23 reveals that all of the sample claimed to have regular examinations, monthly and at the end of each course, while 43 out of 200 respondents said weekly, but none said daily. The result indicated that



the most common procedure is to test monthly and at the end of the course, which, indeed, reflects the policy of the educational authority in the curriculum.

Table 6-23 Test and Examination\*  
(N=200)

How often do pupils have examinations?	Male		Female		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Daily	-		-		-	
Weekly	29	67.5	14	32.6	43	100
Monthly	100	50	100	50	200	100
At the end of the course	100	50	100	50	200	100.0

\*The respondents are able to choose more than one option, so the percentage of each category is 100%

To clarify the tests most commonly used, we asked the respondents about the sort of examination they generally had, The data in table 6-24 show, that the overwhelming majority of the sample claimed that written and multiple choice examinations were most usual. 196 out of 200 respondents said they had written examinations, while 177 out of 200 said multiple-choice. Only six out of 200 said they had oral examinations, but a remarkable number of them were assessed by essays and projects: 67 and 112 out of 200 respondents respectively referred to these methods of assessment.

The results reveal that the most common form of test in history in Iraqi schools is written questions which require written answers, followed by multiple choice.

From the researcher's experience, oral tests are often used in primary schools and to some extent in intermediate school, but rarely used in secondary schools. Essays in history are commonly used, examination by essay has been subject to criticism. For many pupils it is difficult to assess the value of what they have written<sup>(29)</sup>. Projects have begun to be widely used recently. They may be either half-term or course projects. These allow and encourage a much greater degree of independence and enable pupils to choose a topic that is of particular interest to them<sup>(30)</sup>. There may be some overlapping between essays and projects; the main operational difference is that the project framework covers a wider or deeper field and thus requires more time<sup>(31)</sup>.

Table 6-24 Sort of Examination\*

(N=200)

Sort of examination	Male F      %		Female F      %		Total F      %	
Oral	3	50	3	50	6	100
Multiple choice	87	49.2	90	50.8	177	100
Written	99	50.5	97	49.5	196	100
Essays	42	62.7	25	37.3	67	100
Projects	51	45.5	61	54.5	112	100

\*The respondents are able to choose more than one option, so the percentage of each category is 100%

Nevertheless, the examination system should be changed from time to time, otherwise it becomes stereotyped and rigid, and then may lose its effectiveness in assessing the pupils' ability and achievement.

For this reason, we asked the respondents whether or not their teachers changed the system of their examination. As table 6-25 shows, the vast majority of the sample, with significant differences between male and female respondents, claimed that their teachers either frequently or sometimes changed the type of test they used. 58% of the male pupils and 34% of the females said "frequently", while 31% of the males and 42% of the females said "sometimes". Only 11% of the males and 24% of the females said "never".

Table 6-25 Changing the Examination Type

Does your teacher change the type of examination?	Male	Female	Total	
	F	F	F	%
Frequently	58	34	92	46
Sometimes	31	42	73	36.5
Never	11	24	35	17.5
Total	100	100	200	100.0
X <sup>2</sup> = 12.7                      DF= 2				

The result indicates that the type of test is often modified or changed. In the researcher's experience,

teachers usually change the type of test. Even those who constantly use one type of test e.g. written, at least change of the type of question to a different formula, to break down the rigidity of the stereotype.

#### 6.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has been devoted to an analysis of the responses and attitudes of the pupils toward their teachers' performance in the field of teaching method, according to several relevant variables. Despite the constraints on pupils' ability to evaluate their teachers' performance, the researcher went ahead in investigating their opinions through questions, designed to elicit responses beyond those of simple like and dislike. They focused on observable facts, to avoid emotional responses. However, the investigation produced extremely important results. In the domain of teaching methods and the effectiveness of the teacher, pupils responded positively toward their teachers' performance. The majority claimed that their teacher was well prepared to collect and examine relevant evidence, and a similar proportion said their teachers helped them to do presentations, in the form of seminars, reports or lectures. More than 90% claimed that their teachers always or sometimes prepare the lesson well. The majority also said that their teachers were either sympathetic or humorous. They responded negatively to only one question: "Does he give you selected work references before he

starts the lesson?". The researcher believes these negative reactions may be due to the fact that teachers are mainly concerned to cover the prescribed textbook which contains a huge number of topics which must be covered in a limited time; this may discourage them from going further.

In the field of the classroom, pupils indicated other positive impressions, when the majority claimed that they particularly liked the richness of their information and the way in which they produced the lessons, while a remarkable proportion also rated favourably teachers' enthusiasm or arrangement of lessons; only a few of them particularly favoured their control. To the question, whether or not their teachers were interested in every thing their pupils did, the overwhelming majority of the respondents said either usually or sometimes. A similar response was obtained to the question "Does he pay attention to each individual in the classroom?". Regarding style of delivery, only a few respondents said their teachers' voice was poor, the vast majority said it was either clear and high or moderate. In the same context, the data showed that most teachers remembered all most or some of their pupils' names. Only a few respondents their teachers remembered few names, which may be due to class size, (classes are often crowded) or socio-economic pressures, which might have distracted some teachers. The investigation went further to cover the dimension of the use of time in the classroom in terms of punctuality in starting the lesson

or leaving the classroom. The information revealed that the vast majority of the sample said their teachers started each lesson on time either always or sometimes; only 13.5% said rarely. However, the value of time in traditional cultures such as the one under investigation is often not as highly esteemed as is common in industrial cultures. In the same context the vast majority of the respondents claimed that their teachers either always or sometimes prepared the necessary equipment before they started the lesson. A similar result was found in response to the question, "Does he forget to dismiss the class?".

In the section on teaching aids, the information revealed that the teachers always or sometimes used aids in their instructional process. No pupils claimed that his or her teacher never used teaching aids. However, the material used was often extremely simple: pictures, documents, maps and, very rarely, audio-visual aids. No one reported the use of computers or any other advanced devices. Regarding other illustrative activities the majority of all respondents said that their teachers never used drama and simulation in their teaching. This may be explained as a response to the traditional values which are unfavourable to drama, not only in schools but also in the wider society. Meanwhile, the data showed that the overwhelming majority of the sample, with non-significant differences between male and female pupils, claimed that their teachers urged them to do history projects, either individual, group or both.

Historical games showed disappointing results; only 2% of the whole sample said their teachers helped them to play historical games. The weakness of this activity may be explained in the light of suitability to the pupils' age or may indicate that the teachers themselves have no clear idea about it.

Finally, a section on tests and examinations referred to the assessment of the pupils' achievement. In this case, it was revealed that examinations took place monthly and at the end of each course; all of the pupils reported this. Meanwhile, the vast majority of the respondents claimed that written and multiple choice test were the main style used, while a small proportion claimed that teachers used essays, projects and, rarely, oral tests. The information indicated that teachers changed their style of examination from time to time, which might explain the variety of responses.

In these two chapters, we have looked separately at the responses of teachers and pupils. In order to evaluate the picture of the history teaching so obtained, it is necessary to examine in some detail the similarities and differences in pupils' and teacher' responses, since they represent two perspectives on the same situation. The next chapter, therefore, will attempt to compare and contrast pupils' and teachers' perspective.

## 6.8 REFERENCES

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**CHAPTER SEVEN**  
**TEACHER-PUPIL PERSPECTIVES**  
**CONTRASTED**

In the last two chapters, teachers and pupils separately indicated their opinions about the same problem, that is the teacher's performance in the field of teaching method. Inevitably, there are both differences and similarities. In this chapter, the researcher will try to shed more light on this matter by comparing the respective perspective of pupils and teachers.

Although there is a need for careful investigation of the findings gained from both sides, the fact is that the two groups were asked slightly different questions, which might make the comparison somewhat difficult. However, we will trace the general attitudes of them with reference to the areas they share.

In fact, many of the teachers' responses may be confirmed or otherwise by the pupils responses. The result might provide us with a comprehensive view of the teacher's performance in the field of history teaching, since the assessment encompasses both sides of the teaching-learning process.

The purpose of the analysis is to reveal the strengths and the weaknesses in the teachers' performance, in order to draw these to the attention of the educational administration in Iraq, which might help to improve any conditions which impede teachers from accomplishing their jobs successfully and with full satisfaction.

It has been said that "one of the best way of learning to teach is by teaching"<sup>(1)</sup>. On this basis, the teacher's experience in teaching must be taken seriously into account. Although he is an element in an complicated process, he is a decisive factor, and can direct and control the whole educational process. He is not bound only to inculcate the information he has, but should prepare his own syllabus, plan, his work and lessons, using suitable methods and teaching aids, control the classroom and assess his pupils' achievement.

Although the researcher trusted the teachers' evaluation of their own performance, scientific objectivity demands more than one source of evidence. In our case, the other side in the educational equation, the pupils, might give us a general view, and help to achieve greater objectivity.

Teachers' and pupils' responses in the domain of teachers' performance and their roles appeared to indicate some common ground. The majority of teachers' asserted that they covered the hidden assumptions in their lessons; most of them said they helped pupils to develop their critical faculties; a good proportion of them emphasized that they could not exclude moral issues from the classroom, as these are raised by history topics. Similarly, they claimed to help pupils to make judgements and to have opinions of their own, all of which are part of the role of the teacher in the teaching process. These findings were confirmed by the pupils' responses, the majority of pupils emphasized that their

teachers always collected and examined relevant evidence, urged them to do presentations, prepared the lessons well and were mainly humorous and sympathetic.

The only question which appeared to reveal a contrast between teachers' and pupils' responses is how far the teacher urges pupils to exploit library resources, where the majority of teachers claimed that they did urge their pupils to exploit library resources, while the majority of pupils said that their teachers did not give them selected work references, which would help them to exploit such resources. However, teachers may have agreed with the principle that pupils should use and discover the library resources on their own, while pupils may have felt that without more specific guidance, they could not explore the right way to relevant knowledge. The teachers, were right in theory, but in practice neglected the fact that pupils often depend on them and need help to do what is required. The principles are not always found to be reflected in practice, especially in the teaching process, so the disappointing implication is that many teachers understand this dependence, but under the pressure of work, they might neglect their leadership role, to control pupils, direct their attention and help them to exploit library resources, either by taking them to the library and showing them how to use its resources, or by giving them a list of relevant references. Otherwise, they may spend months trying to find relevant books, especially in the case of secondary school pupils,

who are not usually accustomed to using the library as are university students.

In fact, this difference does not change the reality that there was a general correspondence between teachers' and pupils' responses, which suggested that teachers were in general doing their job effectively, with a few exceptions. Meanwhile, the pupils confirmation in this domain could reinforce the positive role of Iraqi teachers in secondary schools.

Regarding classroom behaviour, the general impression obtained is that the pupils' responses confirmed those of their teachers, despite some individual differences. In many similar questions, the pupils and teachers responded in approximately similar ways. For instance, about 90% of the pupils claimed that their teachers remembered every individual's name in the classroom, despite the crowding of classrooms, which one might presume would prevent teachers from concentrating and giving each individual full attention. This proportion is consistent with that claimed by the teachers (92%). Similarly, the data revealed that teachers realized the importance of time in the teaching-learning process; about 85% of them claimed that they either always or sometimes recognized the importance of the time in starting and finishing each lesson. An approximately similar proportion was found in pupils' responses, where 68.5% said their teachers started each lesson on time, either always or sometimes. Only 5% of

the teachers, compared with 13.5% of pupils, said "rarely".

Although there were some differences between the two groups, the common ground between them is more significant, and the deviation might be explained only in the light of individual discrepancies.

Many questions directed to pupils to evaluate their teachers' performance in <sup>the</sup> classroom were related to those directed to their teachers, but expressed in a different formula. The responses to such questions as, preparing the lessons, preparing teaching aids before starting the lesson, the voice of the teacher, and attention given to each individual in the classroom, reflected similarities rather than differences.

Obviously, activities in the classroom, which represent the main theatre of both teachers and pupils, should be recognised as a good criterion to evaluate the teacher's performance in terms of his leadership role. As Obanya stated:

One important step the teacher can take is to minimise teacher-talk and maximise learner participation at all times. This he can do by playing the role of class leader most of the time.<sup>(2)</sup>

In this context, the data showed a positive interaction between teachers and pupils. In the researcher's experience in this field, teachers often start the lesson by giving assignments which prepare the mind of the pupils for the lesson, and then begin to

discuss the findings from the preceding assignment. What he does is to pose leading questions, to receive all sorts of answers, allowing for debate among the class. In this respect, pupils' responses were consistent with those of their teachers.

As we said earlier, the teacher's task is to create his own classroom by preparing all the necessary requirements to effective teaching and learning; that means he should prepare and use equipment, devices and any other possible aids. In this matter, once again, pupils reinforced their teachers' responses. Significant correspondence was found between responses from both sides. Although 12.5% of the investigated teachers claimed that they did not use teaching aids frequently or sometimes, the rest said they did.

None of the teachers or pupils, mentioned using computers or any other advanced aids. The most popular aids mentioned by both sides as being widely used in the classroom were maps, pictures, and to some extent, documents.

Regarding the use of other activities to illustrate the lessons, the information showed interesting results. Drama and simulation showed nearly complete correspondence, where 52.5% of the teachers compared with 51% of the pupils claimed that teachers never used such activity. Such activity as we explained earlier, has no public acceptance, due to the rigidity of the traditional values, which underestimate such activities. Historical games received similar results; only 5% of the teachers



compared with 2% of the pupils said teachers knew and used such games, while the rest asserted otherwise.

The activity that was widely used was the assignment of historical projects, which were complied by both individuals and groups. In our survey, 85% of the teachers compared with 85.5% of the pupils claimed teachers frequently gave their pupils such assignments.

The findings in the field of tests and examinations revealed convergence between teachers' and pupils' responses, rather than divergence. Both asserted that the normal test took place monthly, at the end of each course and at the end of each scholastic year. The preferred form of examination, according to both teachers' and pupils' responses, was written questions on source material, requiring short written answers. All of the teachers and 98% of the pupils referred to this type. Multiple choice tests took second priority. However the vast majority of both groups said examinations were frequently or sometimes changed.

According to the figures, one can conclude that the teachers and pupils under investigation had similar attitudes towards the performance of the history teachers. Thus the evaluation process was not only positive, but also reflected a genuine picture of history teachers' activity in some secondary schools in Baghdad. However, the approximate correspondence between the two sides of the educational equation in most of the variables tested in this study might indicate the following:

- History teachers really understand and are aware of their role in presenting the subject in suitable ways;
- Apart from some exceptional cases, teachers are doing their jobs according to educational principles and the national curriculum perspective.
- The failure to conduct the educational message by some teachers is not due to personal traits or institutional mistakes, but is mainly because of the pressures created as a consequence of the long war with Iran and then with the allies in the Gulf war. The lack of in-service training courses, pursuit of new information, communication with educational institutes outside, and concentration on the job to acquire effective methods of teaching and learning, are all related to the economic crisis caused by the unstable circumstances throughout the last fifteen years.

Pupils, however, responded in favour of their teachers, confirming their responses. However, although their responses could have indicated the truth as they experienced it in their relationships with their teachers in the classrooms, or they could reflect a desire to give the researcher a positive impression of their teachers. Although, the later view would be consistent with the Iraqi personality, which prefers to present only the bright aspects of a situation. The researcher tends to

believe that the pupils told the truth, because the nature of the questions directed to them was such as to discourage emotional responses and, therefore to remove bias. Moreover, pupils responded freely, outside their teachers' control, and were not required to put their names on the questionnaire.

So far, pupils' and teachers' responses reflect not only extreme correspondence in their viewpoints, but also provide vital insight into the process of history teaching in secondary schools in Iraq, which might be exploited to improve the educational system as a whole, if the administration takes the study findings seriously and directs future research toward many other uncovered aspects, especially the economic conditions of the teachers.

Empirical studies are extremely important in diagnosing the pathological aspects of the whole education phenomenon.

Unfortunately the educational system in Iraq has been badly affected in recent years, during and after the Gulf war, as a consequence of the harsh trade embargo and economic and technological sanctions, which might reduce the motivation of both teachers and pupils to pursue modern developments in the field of education as well as in other disciplines. However, having in mind the eventual lifting of the sanctions, the educational administration could review the impact of the sanction years and the associated bitter experiences. They may restore order and launch a new campaign of empirical and

experimental studies, utilizing the findings of studies such as the present one. This might help to reveal not only the desperate need for qualitative improvement in history instruction, but also for educational policy which more fairly balances scientific and humanities subjects, in order to achieve maximum development of the local communities.

The foregoing chapters have presented theory relevant to the theme of this study, and have described in detail an empirical investigation of history teaching in Iraq. It now remains to link the original aim of the study with the theory and empirical findings. Accordingly the research will attempt in the final chapter to highlight the implications of the present findings and draw conclusions.

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**CHAPTER EIGHT**  
**CONCLUSION**

### 8.1 THE PROBLEM

Although much has been said and written about teachers' performance and teaching methods in general, little has been achieved in the field of history teaching in Iraq, indeed it has been sadly neglected. The administration has tended to focus on scientific subjects rather than humanities, in the belief that the only way to accelerate the development of the country is by encouraging the scientific approach and scientific research. The researcher was disturbed by this one-sided approach. Balanced development should take into account both the sciences and the humanities.

History teaching in modern Iraq still depends on traditional teaching methods; teachers teach solely from prescribed textbooks, and pupils are required to memorize extensively. There has been no comprehensive attempt to evaluate history teaching from a contemporary educational viewpoint. The researcher was convinced that such an attempt would have great value not only for teachers and the educational administration, but also for the educational library. In this context, the aims and the objectives of the study were outlined and the project was undertaken.

### 8.2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The researcher has reviewed relevant literature indicating the ideal-types of teachers' performance and

teaching methods, as a theoretical introduction to the applied study.

The starting point was the qualities of the teacher. A discussion was presented of the importance of the teacher being not only trained in and in possession of an education certificate, but also a learner and researcher, well- equipped with vital information. The teacher simply is a giver of information, if he does not keep abreast of current and relevant information, he has nothing to give and then his pupils will suffer, so teacher should extend his knowledge as much as possible.

In fact, most educators realize that no course at training college or in university can make a good teacher. Teaching ability comes from experience, the pursuit of new information in his field and in his overall knowledge. In brief, the teacher must also be a learner or as Tagore (the great Indian poet) said, "A teacher can never truly teach unless he is still learning himself" (see Chapter Two of this thesis). This idea has been supported by many scholars. Some of them went further, emphasising that a good teacher should be a good researcher and a good reader.

While, some researchers have focused on the reading and research of the teacher, others has emphasized the importance of certain personal qualities: sympathy, patience, willingness to learn and the ability to set a good example. Nevertheless, all are agreed that teaching comes with practice, while learning needs patience and perpetual reading. Meanwhile researchers such as Hamachek



(1969) Jorolmek and Foster (1976), have emphasized that the effectiveness of the teacher does not depend on one trait alone, but it is based on several qualities. In addition to those mentioned above, the teacher needs qualities related to three major dimensions:

1. relationship to learner
2. relationship to the content of the school programme
3. pedagogy.

The history teacher's material can not be observed and tested, as can the facts presented in a chemistry or physics, lesson, which poses problems for history teachers. as Burston said, "history is inevitably coloured by national bias"(see chapter two of this thesis). As a consequence, history teachers need specific qualities to deal with the problem, these qualities can be summarized as follows:

- flexibility
- up-to date knowledge
- awareness of psychological theories and logical thinking.

The history teacher should recognize that the teaching of history should never be a vehicle of propaganda, thus personal attitudes and judgments, must be excluded, therefore, the keen capable and knowledgeable teacher has the main role in the teaching of history, despite the significance of the school equipment, libraries and illustrations.

The skills of the good teacher can be seen in the way he/she plans lessons. Clark and Star have said, "the

key to successful teaching is good planning" (see chapter two of this thesis). In this context no teacher should enter the classroom without choosing the subject-matter of the lesson, finding out what the pupils already know about the chosen subject, specifying instructional objectives and devising instructional procedures, in advance. In brief, the teacher should prepare the work in detail before undertaking instructional tasks. Thus preparation of the syllabus is another aspect of the teacher's task. The syllabus is very important, and has been asserted by many to be "like backbone to the body". in constructing the syllabus, teacher should take into account several factors: the needs of the school, the relationship of history to other subjects and the age and aptitude of the pupils.

The syllabus is concerned not only with the content of the subject, but also with how the teacher organizes the content. Theorists have put forward four salient approaches:

- chronological approach
- line of development approach
- the patch approach
- the comparative theme approach

Discussion has also focused on the classroom as a physical, social and educational environment, affecting the teaching process. Despite the importance of the physical and social aspects, the major part of the discussion focused on the educational aspect. Many researchers have emphasized three significant factors

helping the teacher to control, manage and organize the classroom: classroom size, group character and instructional purpose. Many researchers have recommended, that the history classroom should be larger than the average classroom and needs special characteristics, because the teaching of history requires great deal of material which can not be satisfactorily carried about the school, and can not be properly used without a history classroom. However in practice, most teachers adapt their lessons and equipment to a normal classroom and organize the classroom in accordance with existing facilities. Their planning and instruction is determined accordingly.

With regard to teaching aids discussion has focused on the vital aids needed and used in the classroom as an integral part of the instructional process. The appropriate use of teaching aids requires special care and discretion in their selection, according to the themes of the lesson and the pupils' mentality. Teaching aids, have been classified into two dimensions: the visual dimension and activity-based learning in the teaching of history. The visual dimension encompasses many elements: pictures, slides, filmstrips, maps, T.V, video-tape and computer, while activity-based learning covers history games, drama, simulation and history projects.

The visual dimension can bring history to life. History teachers themselves and their pupils have never seen a Ming vase or handled the precious jewellery of

ancient Sumeria, but pictures, films or overhead projector can bring these things into the classroom. On the other hand, activity-based learning encourages the development of historical skills, by individualized learning; although some of these activities may demand cooperation within a group, all involve individual learning tasks.

Testing and examination was another aspect of teaching theory considered, beginning by asking the purpose of examination. The common answers are to find out what the pupils have learnt, to test their knowledge and reasoning ability. For history, a good examination is one that fully reflects the purpose and objectives of the subject. There are several types of tests: oral, written questions on source material requiring short written answers, multiple-choice, answers of paragraph length, essays and projects.

To fulfil the objectives of history testing successfully, educators recommend that teachers take into account individual differences in the capacity, mental aptitude and memorising ability of their students, and, although, the test must have assessment objectives, teachers should explain these objectives to the pupils before the test is taken.

### **8.3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN IRAQ**

Education institutions in Iraq emerged as early as 2500 B.C in what was then called Mesopotamia. Several

signs found on clay tablets reveal that alphabetic scripts were used to record native literature, administer bureaucratic activities and record legal transactions. Many surviving legal codes recorded rules designed to arrange daily life, including the relationship between pupils and teachers. Schools in this stage were of two types: the *tablet-house*, which concentrated on teaching of reading and writing, while higher education was provided in the *house of wisdom*.

In the Islamic epoch, education has encouraged by God's commandments and the prophet's injunctions. Accordingly, pursuit of knowledge is a duty of all Muslims, regardless of age, sex or status. Thus, from the early times, the mosques provided schooling. Pupils learned reading, writing and religious principles. Two types of schooling were developed, the ungraded lower school, *katatib*, which taught the Quran and principles of reading , writing and arithmetic, while the other was the graded higher school or university mosque, *Almassjid-Al-Jami*, which focused on more specialized education.

The education system in Iraq has been modified several times since the collapse of the Arab empire in 1258 A.D .

The longest and darkest period in the Iraqi people's history was the period of occupation under the Ottoman empire, which lasted about four centuries. Although the Ottomans followed the education trend of the golden Arabic-Islamic age, the education system passed through three stages of development. The first stage was from the

establishment of the empire until the end of the 18th century. In this era, the medium of instruction was Arabic, and the holy Quran was the only textbook used. Some changes in the three levels of education: primary, secondary and higher education, have occurred, but very slowly.

In the second stage (from the end of the 18th century up to the end of the 19th century), Sultan Muhammad II (1809-1839) decreed compulsory education in some of the Ottoman towns. His successor enacted the first education law in 1869. In the third stage (the end of the 19th century to the end of the First World War), modern primary and secondary schools were established and Istanbul University was founded.

Iraq started a new era under British occupation soon after the collapse of the Ottoman empire. The British administration found an extremely chaotic education system. The officer in charge of education affairs did nothing until June 1917, when the department of teacher training was established. In September 1917 the School of Survey was founded. In 1919, the first secondary school in Baghdad saw the light, beginning with only seven students. The first national Ministry of Education was set up in 1920. The curriculum and many technical schools were established between 1920 and 1930. In 1932, Iraq became a fully independent state, but remained under indirect British control until the 1958 revolution. The period of British direct and indirect control witnessed important developments in the field of education, whereby

the private folk education gave way to public education, and the first curriculum and the first education law emerged.

After the 1958 revolution, education received more attention, and was made compulsory. The first university was established in Baghdad, and some attention was given to illiteracy. The programme to improve and modernize the education system collapsed with the regime in 1963. After five years of confusing in government, the 1968 revolution occurred, bringing new aspirations and immediate action to reform radically the education system. Up to the present time important developments have been achieved in all aspects of the education system.

In the field of education funding, the government made all education levels from kindergarten to the university free of charge. The legislation of compulsory education was fully implemented and all children over six years old now attend schools.

A comprehensive illiteracy eradication campaign was undertaken immediately after the illiteracy eradication law was promulgated in 1971.

Quantitative and qualitative development encompasses all aspects of the education system, including the remarkable increase in the number of the teachers, pupils, and schools at all educational levels, the availability of teaching aids and technology, and the perpetual revision of the quality of curriculum, syllabuses, teacher training courses and textbooks.

History has received attention in this development. The textbooks have been revised and modified according to the government's societal objectives. They have been rewritten and made more politicised to contribute in the political socialisation of the generations according to Ba'ath party objectives: Arab unity, liberty and socialism.

#### 8.4 METHODOLOGY

In order to produce relevant empirical evidence in line with the theoretical background, the researcher designed both standardized and open-ended questionnaires, covering both teachers' and pupils' attitudes toward the history teacher's performance and teaching methods.

The researcher's plan was to return to Iraq to collect the data in person, but unfortunately the Gulf crisis not only prevented the researcher's return, but also impeded the progress of the study, due to financial constraints and psychological stress. Nonetheless, a way was eventually found to carry on, by sending the Arabic formula of the questionnaire via an Iraqi colleague who was returning home. The questionnaire was conveyed to the researcher's brother Dr. M. Amin, assistant professor in Al-Mustansirya University, who was entrusted with the task of collecting the data on the researcher's behalf in accordance with the instructions enclosed with the questionnaire. The researcher also maintained regular



contact by telephone, to make sure that the procedures were being conducted as intended.

The questionnaire, was divided into two parts, one for the teachers, the other for the pupils, in order to give equal opportunity to both parties to express their views.

The teacher questionnaire comprised 60 items, categorized into seven areas, while the pupils' part consisted of 26 items, categorized into five areas, the difference between them in number of items and areas covered is explained by the fact that areas related to teaching, syllabus and training were only applicable to teachers.

Although, both parts of the questionnaire tackled the same problem, they were worded differently, to allow for differences in comprehension ability between the children and their teachers.

The sample, as described in chapter four, consisted of 80 teachers from 50 secondary schools scattered over various areas of Baghdad city, and 200 pupils from the same schools.

## **8.5 FINDINGS FROM THE TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE**

Having discussed the theoretical background and methodology of the study, we now turn to the empirical outcomes of the study.

### **8.5.1 QUALIFICATIONS AND EXPERIENCE**

The qualifications and experience of the teacher are decisive factors in the success of the teaching-learning

process. The information revealed that most of the sampled teachers had good experience in the field of teaching; more than three-quarters of them had more than ten years experience, and more than half of the sample had more than ten years experience in teaching history in particular.

Although the information showed that few teachers had attended in-service training courses, their long experience in teaching is likely to go some considerable way towards ensuring teaching of a high standard. Since a teacher in secondary schools in Iraq should have at least B.Ed, B.A, or B.Sc,

#### 8.5.2 PLANNING FOR TEACHING

Planning for teaching is viewed as a fundamental task of the teacher, to help him to carry out his job effectively. Planning should be done prior to teaching, and to maximize effectiveness should avoid rigidity, while ensuring that the necessary ground is covered and appropriate emphasis given. Responses to the questionnaire, revealed that most of the sampled teachers planned their work daily. Half of the sample said they adopted a combination of overall course planning and planning individual lessons day by day.

When the inquiry was directed toward the elements given priority in their plans, the sample gave top priority to "arrangement of topics", while the last priority given to trips. However, no plan can cover all

eventualities, so the informants responded positively regarding the possibility prospect of modifying and changing their instructional plans from time to time. Precisely, more than three-quarters of the whole sample said they modified and changed their plans, either every course, every year or when they see it is necessary. Only 22.5% said they did so rarely. In the same context, the sampled teachers rated their own last plan objectively; a remarkable proportion claimed that their last plans were only partially effective or not effective at all, when asked to explain the reasons for this, they claimed that they were either designed too quickly or not suited to the pupils' ability. The recognition of inadequate plans is in itself an indicator of effective teaching method, or at least an step in the right direction. Meanwhile, the majority of the sample admitted that their plans were not suited to all pupils, because they were of different ages and therefore, different capacity and ability. As a consequence, the comprehensive plan should not only be revised and modified from time to time, but also should take into account the pupils' ability, as well as general psycho-educational objectives.

#### **8.5.3 TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD THE ROLE OF TEACHER AND HIS TEACHING METHODS.**

Teaching methods are identified as those strategies or techniques adopted by the teacher as the most efficient means to accomplish his goals. They may be seen as means to ends. On this basis, teaching method has

significant influence on the teaching-learning process. They provide guide-lines which facilitate the teacher's task and reduce ambiguity and uncertainty.

The empirical study has shed more light on this subject. The respondents were first asked to give their responses to the statement, "It is necessary to help pupils to assess values and form judgments". The overwhelming majority of the sample agreed with the statement, while only 8.7% disagreed. Another statement "History teaching should be a vehicle of propaganda", was rejected by most respondents who asserted that history is an objective subject, or at least should be so.

In response to the suggestion that "Historical study can introduce pupils to their cultural heritage", the majority of the sampled teachers agreed, with non-significant differences between male and female respondents. The 17.5% who did not agree, actually expanded the idea rather than rejected it, as many commented that history is not confined to covering the local cultural heritage, but rather extends to covering the world-wide legacy.

In response to another statement, "It is impossible to exclude moral issues from the classroom", the majority of the sample, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers, agreed that exclusion of moral issues from the classroom is impossible, but a remarkable proportion of them thought that they could exclude moral issues from the classroom, to make history topics more objective. However, the result indicated that avoidance

of bias toward ones own cultural values is extremely difficult.

So far, the responses reveal quite positive attitudes toward the role of the teacher (and his methods). Similar positive attitudes were found in the respondents reactions towards, "It is necessary to urge pupils to exploit the resources of the library", where the overwhelming majority of the sample recognized the importance of the library, not only for the development of the pupils' mental ability, but also to help the whole instructional process to proceed smoothly and successfully.

The responses also revealed positive attitudes towards the statement, "History in school should be responsible for developing the pupils' critical faculties", where the overwhelming majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers, agreed that the teacher is responsible for encouraging pupils to make more effective use of their critical faculties by reason of the comparative process which the subject entails. Similarly, they agreed with the statement, "It is important to use specialized terminology in history", while the vast majority of the sample disagreed with the negative formula of the statement, "the teacher should not cover hidden assumptions and recognize the gaps in evidence", which reflected once again extremely positive attitudes toward the role of teachers and their methods. In the same context, in response to the statements, "Pupils are able

to make judgments" and "Pupils are able to form opinions of their own", the majority agreed, with the process that children could do so with the teacher's assistance, but not otherwise. Similarly they agreed that one role of the teacher is to develop the pupils' ability to synthesis, again they felt that children could not do this without the teacher's help.

#### 8.5.4 SYLLABUS

Just as the teacher can not perform his work successfully without planning and preparation in advance, he must also deliberately organize his classroom tasks by means of the syllabus. The syllabus provides him a broad outline, as to what aspects of the subject are to be covered, when the pupils will be examined, and when the teacher will take time to join pupils in trips or free discussions.

Although the education system in Iraq adopts two types of syllabus: one highly prescribed, as a part of the national curriculum, and the other drawn by the teacher, the teacher's syllabus is most effective , because the prescribed one is either very general or theoretical, while the teacher's syllabus is detailed and practical, so he relies upon it more than on the centrally dictated one. On this basis the information revealed only 17.5% of the whole sample rely solely on the centrally dictated syllabus, while 25% of them rely on their own and 57.5% on both. The Ministry syllabus may

serve as a broad guide to the design of the teacher's syllabus, which is why, the majority claimed to use both.

When the inquiry was directed towards whether or not teachers discussed the dictated syllabus with their colleagues, the overwhelming majority of the sample claimed that they always or sometimes discussed it.

To clarify the extent to which teachers modified the prescribed syllabus, the data showed that the majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between male and female teachers, modified the prescribed syllabus either frequently or sometimes. The information also revealed that pupils have either little margin of freedom or have no freedom at all to choose, in the teachers' syllabus. Only 3.7% said pupils have considerable freedom to choose. In the same context, the overwhelming majority of the sample, with non-significant differences between male and female respondents, claimed that they have a clear idea about history syllabus construction. When asked about the components of an effective history syllabus, they gave top priority to "distribution of the subject units over the available time". Tests and examinations were given second priority and then choosing suitable teaching methods and appropriate teaching aids, while elements such as trips and pupils' assignments were totally ignored.

The data also revealed that the vast majority of the sample adopted the "line of development approach", which seems to be more popular than other approaches such as patch and comparative. However the majority claimed that

they are not really interested in changing their syllabus; they prefer either to follow their previous one, or to follow the guidelines of the Ministry.

#### 8.5.5 CLASSROOM

All the activities of the teaching-learning process take place in the classroom. Thus, the classroom is not just a vital tool for the teacher, but is in fact the theatre of his performance. Thus, study of the way in which the teacher can use the classroom to facilitate teaching and learning, might be a helpful way to evaluate teachers' performance and methods. The field information provided vital indications about the physical environment and the way in which the teacher use it. Most of the informants emphasized that they did not have special history classrooms. Only 17.5% claimed that they had such classrooms, provided with permanent teaching aids and modern equipment. In the case of the minority who claimed they already had special classrooms, their schools were modern and well-equipped.

When the inquiry was directed to investigating how well the classroom accommodates pupils, the information revealed that most classrooms were either crowded or overcrowded, which adversely affected the teaching-learning process. Since classes are very large many classrooms are uncomfortable for the teaching-learning process. For that reason, a considerable number of the informants, in response to the question, "Are the



physical conditions conducive to teaching?" responded negatively.

When the investigation shifted from the nature of the classroom to the action inside it, the data revealed extremely important information. A remarkable number of the informants said they manage their class with firm control, while others claimed they did adopted more flexible approach. Only 18.7% said they mix both flexibility and firm control. When asked, "Do you remember your pupils' names?" The overwhelming majority, with significant differences between male and female respondents, claimed that they remember either all or most of them. Regarding the importance of time in controlling the classroom, 85% claimed that they started and ended their lessons on time, and a similar proportion said they prepare teaching equipment before they start each lesson.

#### 8.5.6 TEACHING AIDS

The growth of technology has, to some degree, changed the role of the teacher, as new resources for learning have become available. Though, such technology is used to assist the teacher and facilitate the teaching-learning process, not to replace the teacher. In Iraq, as in most developing countries, the available technology is often used to help the pure scientific subjects, while history and other social sciences make only limited use of teaching aids in certain areas of

their work. The field information showed that the vast majority of the sample used teaching aids frequently or sometimes, but these aids seem to be quite simple: pictures, documents and maps. Very few teachers used modern instructional technology in history, such as audio-visual aids. Computers, in particular had never been used by any of the sampled teachers. Indeed, many teachers said they did not use teaching aids at all. They justified that by saying that, such aids were not available in their schools, or that those available were not suitable for teaching history. However, they understood teaching aids to mean advanced technology, not maps and pictures, which is why they replied negatively.

History and other social science subjects, need illustrative activities, such as simulation, drama and games. When the inquiry was directed toward these activities, the data showed that the majority of the sample had never used simulation and drama in their lessons as instructional aids. They claimed that they did not favour drama, because of the society's traditional and religious values, which reject such activity, regarding it as decadent and improper. Similarly, teachers were not in favour of the use of games in history lessons. Many teachers regarded such activity as a waste of time, while the majority claimed they did not know about games in history lessons, so they never used them. On the other hand they strongly favoured the conducting of history projects. Overall, the sample often

asked their pupils to carry out historical projects either individually or in group.

#### 8.5.7 TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

Tests and examinations aim to assess the extent to which the aims of the subject introduced to pupils in the term or course, have been achieved in each individual case. However the technique of examination and method of assessment are important, not only for the pupils' achievement, but also for assessment of the teacher's performance. The sampled history teachers used several techniques and methods of examination: oral, multiple choice, written, essays and projects. First the investigation tested how often they examined their pupils (daily, weekly, monthly, or yearly). Overall the sample claimed that they held tests monthly and at the end of each course, while a small number of them did so weekly and even daily. The most popular method used, being adopted by the whole sample was "written questions on source material requiring short written answers", while the next in popularity was "multiple choice test", chosen by 92% of the total sample. Then came "essays" and "projects", while only 17.5% said they used oral tests, which are not regarded as real examinations but rather as an indication of the capability and aptitude of the pupils. The majority of the sample claimed that their examination was adequate to assess their pupils' achievement. Only 21.2% said it was inadequate. However,

this general satisfaction with testing methods seems to be a result of the policy of the teachers of varying their examination methods and techniques, which the majority claimed, to do frequently or sometimes.

#### **8.6 FINDINGS FROM THE PUPILS' QUESTIONNAIRE**

This part of the study pursued the analysis of the other side of the equation, the pupils' responses toward their teachers' performance over the teaching-learning process, in relation to several relevant variables. Despite the constraints on pupils' ability to evaluate their teachers' performance, the investigation went ahead with questions designed indirectly to collect responses beyond simply expressions of like and dislike. The field information provided extremely important results, which are presented below:

##### **8.6.1 TEACHING AND THE TEACHER'S EFFECTIVENESS**

The effect of schooling on the individual pupil depends mainly on the teacher. This fact was borne in mind even when the investigation was directed toward the judgments of the pupils. The literature has emphasized that the role of the teacher is not only to provide pupils with information and develop their knowledge but also to size up their pupils. On the other hand, pupils are also involved in sizing up their teacher. In response to the question, "Does your teacher collect and examine relevant evidence?" The overwhelming majority of the

respondents reacted in favour of their teachers. Only 7.5% responded against. While they responded positively to the question about collecting and examining relevant evidence, they reacted negatively to the question, "Does he give you selected work references before he starts the lesson?" 63% of the total sample claimed that their teachers did not offer such selected references. With regard to question, whether or not their teachers urge them to do presentations, 84% of the total sample, with non-significant differences between male and female, said "yes". These presentations were of three kinds: seminar, report, lecture. While a few have mentioned seminar and lecture, the vast majority (83.9%) said that reports were the sort of presentation they mainly did.

In response to another question, whether or not their teachers prepared their lessons well, the information revealed another positive reaction in favour of the teachers; more than 90% of the total sample believed that their teachers prepared their lessons well either always or sometimes. To complete the picture the investigation turned to the aspects of lessons that pupils preferred, the result showed that pupils are aware of aspects that affect the teaching process, as teachers' richness and production of information had the first priority (31.5%), while his enthusiasm (23.5%) came second, arrangement of the lesson (23%) third and his control came last.

When the investigation turned toward the teacher's interest in his pupils' activities, the majority, once

again, responded in favour of their teachers, emphasizing that they are usually or sometimes interested in everything the pupils have done. The responses offered non-significant differences between male and female respondents.

The teacher's character was another facet which came under investigation. The respondents gave various reactions. The majority responded in favour of the teachers, as calm, sympathetic, humorous, natural, though, a minority pointed out negative characteristics, saying their teachers were orderly, nervous and boring. The positive reaction explained in the light of the fact that the teacher's role dictates the emotional climate of the classroom, which might affect the pupils' responses.

#### 8.6.2 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The fundamental domain of the teacher, in which one can evaluate his performance, is the classroom, not simply as a physical environment, but as a psycho-social and educational milieu. Classroom management covers a wide area: behaviour, methods of teaching, control, interaction and so on. The investigation showed that most of the respondents were satisfied with their teachers' performance in paying attention to each individual in the classroom. They also were satisfied with their teachers' tone of voice; only 17% said their teachers have a poor voice. Although the voice is to some extent an individual characteristic, it affects the teaching-learning process,

as it often gives impression about the teacher's self-confidence and psychological equilibrium, which certainly influences the process of teaching and learning.

When asked about their teachers' interest in their pupils personally, the majority responded in favour of their teachers, claim that their teachers remember each individual's name. They also emphasized that their teachers started each lesson on time. However, a remarkable number of them claimed that they rarely recognized the value of time, which confirm the impression that people in developing countries have less concern about the value of time.

In response to the question, "Does he prepare all necessary equipment before he starts the lesson?" the overwhelming majority of pupils responded in favour of their teachers. More than 85% said their teachers always or sometimes prepare all necessary equipment before they start the lesson.

### 8.6.3 TEACHING AIDS

It can be difficult for any teacher today to perform his instructional function without teaching aids. Seeing a picture may give pupils a clearer idea than hearing a thousand words on the topic. In this context, the investigation was directed to the pupils concerning their teachers use of the available teaching aids. In response to the question, "How often does your teacher use material aids?" all the respondents claimed that their

teachers did use material aids, but some of them did so rarely. While all the sampled pupils emphasized that their teachers used teaching aids, the type of aids they used are varied. Maps were the most commonly used, with documents second and pictures third. Only a small proportion of them referred to audio-visual aids and none mentioned computers.

Despite the lack of audio-visual material aids in practical terms, these are, however, not the only way to illustrate lessons and make the teaching-learning process more effective. Workshops, drama, simulation, games and puzzles are other effective activities in modern teaching, which should encourage the pupils to involve themselves willingly and spontaneously with the subject. In this context, the respondents were asked whether or not their teachers involved them in simulation or drama activities. The majority of the whole sample, with non-significant differences between male and female pupils, claimed that their teachers had never involved them in any kind of drama or simulation, whereas the majority said their teachers urged them to do history projects, both in groups and individually. 98% of the sample claimed that their teachers did not involve them in any sort of historical games or similar activity.

#### **8.6.4 TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS**

Assessing pupils' achievement is one of the most important tasks of the teacher, which might give clear



indications about his performance. Whatever the method employed in examination, the fact is that it is the only way to assess pupils' ability and digestion of the information they have been taught. The most common medium for history examination in Iraq is continuous assessment. However, the field information shed more light on the assessment process as a way of evaluating teacher's performance. In response to the question, "How often do pupils have examinations?" overall the sampled pupils claimed that they were examined monthly and at the end of the course, while a remarkable proportion of them said weekly, but none said daily. The type of examination most often experienced was written questions requiring written answers, while multiple choice tests were second in popularity followed by projects, and essays. A small proportion referred to oral tests. The information revealed that teachers frequently or sometimes change the examination format. Only 17.5% replied that their teachers never did this.

#### **8.7 TEACHERS-PUPILS: A COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE**

Despite the differences in the questions and areas covered, between pupils and teachers, there were some similarities, if not in details, then in the general attitudes and areas they share. In the field of teacher's performance and teacher's role, most teachers emphasized that they cover hidden assumptions in their lessons, help pupils to develop their critical faculties, they can not

exclude moral issues from the classroom as these are raised by history topics, help pupils to make judgments and form opinions of their own. These findings were confirmed by pupils, who emphasized that their teachers collected and examined relevant evidence, helped them to do presentations, prepared the lessons well and were mainly humorous and sympathetic. Only one question in this domain revealed a discrepancy between teachers' and pupils' responses, that is, "how far the teacher urge pupils to exploit library resources?" The majority of the teachers asserted that they did urge their pupils to do so, whereas the majority of the pupils claimed that their teachers did not give them selected work references, which would help them to exploit the library resources. However, this result does not alter the fact that there was a general correspondence between the two groups' attitudes, which was reinforced in many other areas. Regarding classroom behaviour, the general impression obtained is that the pupils' responses confirmed those of their teachers. Most teachers, for instance, emphasized that they did remember their pupils' names, despite the crowding of classrooms, which may prevent teachers from paying attention to each individual, and pupils confirmed their teachers' claims. Similarly, teachers asserted that they realized the value of time in teaching, and pupils' agreed.

Although there were some differences between the two groups, the common ground is more significant, as many questions were presented in a different formula and

produced responses reflecting similarities rather than differences.

In the same context, teachers are bound to prepare all necessary equipment before starting the lesson and using all necessary material aids. In this matter, pupils once again, reinforced their teachers' responses. Correspondence between the two samples showed in their responses toward using audio-visual aids and computers in teaching. The findings were extremely consistent; none of the teachers or pupils mentioned using computers or any other advanced aids, but both agreed that the popular aids widely used in the classroom, were maps, pictures and to some extent documents. Regarding the use of other activities to illustrate the lessons: drama, simulation or historical games, the information showed complete correspondence: these were not used.

The findings in the field of tests and examination also revealed convergence between the groups rather than divergence. Both emphasized that normally tests take place monthly and at the end of each course or the end of each scholastic year. Both groups asserted that the most popular style of examination was written questions which required written answers.

The main findings were as follows:

1. The history teachers were well equipped, qualified and had good experience of history teaching, which helped them to perform their work effectively.

2. The history teachers realized that planning for teaching, including course and lesson plans, is essential to achieve success in their instructional performance.
3. They understood the need to adopt the prescribed history syllabus to make it more detailed and more practical. In other words, teachers appeared to be effective in translating the theoretical and general prescribed syllabus, into specific goals and content areas to be employed in the classroom.
4. Despite the lack of advanced teaching techniques, teachers recognized the importance of teaching aids and appeared to use the available materials to illustrate history topics.
5. The awareness of classroom control and management has gone beyond the purely technical, to cover the psycho-educational factors. Despite unsuitable and overcrowded classrooms, the teachers realized that the physical-educational environment should be utilized to fulfil the teaching-learning process in accordance with psycho-educational principles.
6. Assessment of pupils' achievement is a matter of great concern to teachers. They used different kinds of examination, changing the formula from time to time and adopting modern styles of questioning in line with world-wide developments in this field.

7. All these aspects are supported by the pupils' responses. They gave the general impression that history teachers are performing their tasks successfully in educational and scientific terms.

It can be concluded that teachers and pupils similarities in attitudes about the teacher's performance and method, leads one to conclude that teachers really understand and recognize their effective role and are doing their best to implement this role according to educational principles.

Finally, pupils' responses which came in line with those of their teachers, we believe reflected the truth as they experienced it, rather than (as sometimes suggested) biased responses aiming to give the researcher a positive impression about their teachers.

## **APPENDICES**

## Appendix 1

### The Teacher Questionnaire (The English Version)

#### A. Personal Information

##### 1. Sex

a. Male..... b. Female.....

##### 2. Age

a. 20-29.....b. 30-39.....

c. 40-49.....d. 50 and above.....

##### 3. Marital Status

a. Single.....b. Married.....

##### 4. How long have you been in this job?

a. Less than 5 years.....b. 5-9 years.....

c. 10-14 years.....d. 15 years or more ...

##### 5. How long have you been teaching history?

a. Less than 5 years.....b. 5-9 years.....

c. 10-14 years.....d. 15 years or more ...

##### 6. What class do you teach?

a. Four.....b. Five.....c. Six.....

##### 7. Have you attended any in-service training course on teaching methods?

a. Never.....b. Once.....

c. Twice or more.....

##### 8. If "never" Why?

a. I think it is not useful

b. I am not called for each course

c. The administration does not give me achance

## B. Planning for teaching

1. How do you plan your work?

- a. Daily.....b. Weekly.....
- c. Monthly.....d. Yearly.....

2. How do you plan your lesson?

- a. Prepare each day's lesson.....
- b. Prepare the course as a whole.....
- c. A mixture of a and b .....

3. Please rank the following in order of priority in your planning?

- a. The arrangement of topics throughout the course....
- b. Teaching aids.....
- c. Tests and examination.....
- d. Pupils assignment.....
- e. Trips and visits to places of historic interest....
- f. Pupils ability level.....
- g. Personal knowledge about pupils.....

4. Do you change your plan for each lesson?

- a. Every course.....
- b. Every year.....
- c. When I see it is necessary.....
- e. Rarely.....

5. How would you rate your best last plan?

- a. Effective.....[if so please give example]  
.....  
.....
- b. Partially effective....[if so why?].  
.....



- c. Not effective.....[if so why?].....  
 .....
6. If "not effective", [ if so why?]  
 .....  
 a. It was designed too quickly.....  
 b. It contained poor elements.....  
 c. It was not suited to the pupils' ability....  
 d. Other [ please specify].....
7. Do you think that your plan is suited to all pupils at every age or class?  
 a. Yes.....b. No.....
8. If "no" why?  
 a. Because of different topics.....  
 b. Because of different ages.....  
 c. Because of differences in syllabus....
- c. History Teaching Methods [your attitude]
1. It is necessary to help pupils to assess values and form judgements  
 a. Agree.....  
 b. No opinion....  
 c. Disagree.....
2. The teaching of history should be a vehicle of propaganda  
 a. Agree.....  
 b. No opinion....  
 c. Disagree.....

3. Historical study can introduce a pupil to his cultural heritage
- a. Agree.....
  - b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....
4. Historical topics involve certain implicit moral issues and to exclude them from the classroom is impossible.
- a. Agree.....
  - b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....
5. It is necessary to urge the pupils to exploit the resources of the library.
- a. Agree.....
  - b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....
6. History in school should be responsible for developing the pupil's critical faculties
- a. Agree.....
  - b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....
7. It is necessary to be conversant with specialised terminology in history.
- a. Agree.....
  - b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....
8. The teacher should uncover hidden assumptions and recognise gaps in evidence.
- a. Agree.....

- b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....
9. Pupils are able to make judgements
- a. Agree.....
  - b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....
10. Pupils are able to have opinions of their own
- a. Agree.....
  - b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....
11. History should be regarded as a body of knowledge, not an approach to knowledge.
- a. Agree.....
  - b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....
12. The history teacher should develop his pupils' ability to synthesise.
- a. Agree.....
  - b. No opinion.....
  - c. Disagree.....

#### D. Syllabus

1. Every teacher has two syllabi; one highly centralized and the other, designed by the teacher himself. Which of them do you mainly depend on?
- a. I mainly depend on the high centralised syllabus...
  - b. I mainly depend on my own syllabus.....
  - c. I depend equally on each.....
2. Does the syllabus [excluding that graduate pupils] allow pupils any freedom of choice of topics?

- a. Pupils have considerable freedom of choice.....
  - b. There is some element of choice.....
  - c. There is no choice.....
3. Do you have any idea as to what constitutes an effective history syllabus?
  - a. Yes.....
  - b. To some extent.....
  - c. No.....
4. Please explain what elements should an effective history syllabus contain, in your opinion?  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....
5. Which of the following syllabus approaches do you adopt?
  - a. Chronological .....
  - b. Line of development.....
  - c. The patch.....
  - d. The comparative theme.....
6. Do you discuss the syllabus contents with your colleagues?
  - a. Always.....
  - b. Sometimes.....
  - c. Never.....
7. Do you discuss teaching methods with your colleagues?
  - a. Always.....

b. sometimes.....

c. Never.....

8. Do you modify or suggest modifying some aspects of the dictated syllabus?

a. Frequently.....

b. Sometimes.....

c. Never.....

9. Do you always follow the same style of syllabus or do you change from time to time?

a. Follow the previous context.....

b. Change from time to time .....

c. Follow the guide-lines of the ministry...

E. Classroom

1. Do you have a special history classroom?

a. Yes.....b. No.....

2. Does your classroom have permanent teaching aids?

a. Yes.....b. No.....

3. If "yes" please give examples

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

4. How well does your classroom accommodate your pupils?

a. Spacious [5-12 pupils].....

b. Adequate.[13-20 pupils].....

c. somewhat crowded [21-28 pupils].....

d. Over-crowded.[29-and more].....

5. Are the physical conditions conducive to teaching?

a. Yes.....[how?].....  
.....

b. To Some extent.....[why] .....

c. Not at all.....[why?].....

6. How do you manage your classroom?

a. With flexibility.....

b. With firm Control.....

c. A mixture of a and b.....

7. Do you remember the names of everyone in your class?

a. Yes.....

b. Most of them.....

c. few of them.....

8. Do you start and end each lesson on time?

a. Always.....

b. Usually.....

c. Sometimes.....

d. Rarely.....

9. Do you prepare all equipment before the start of the lesson?

a. Always.....

b. sometimes.....

c. Rarely.....

#### F. Teaching Aids

1. Do you use any material aids in the classroom?

a. Frequently.....

b. Sometimes.....

c. Rarely .....

d. Never.....

2. If "frequently or sometimes", what kind of aids do you use?

- a. Pictures.....b. Documents.....c. Maps.....
- d. Audio-visual.....e. Computers.....f. Other.....

3. If "rarely or never", why?

- a. Because they are not available in school.....
- b. Because those available are not suitable to history....
- c. History does not need any aids or illustrations....

4. If you used audio-visual are they:

- a. Video.....
- b. Slides.....
- c. Tapes.....
- d. O.H.P.....
- e. 16mm film.....

5. Do you use any simulation or drama to illustrate the theme of the subject?

- a. Frequently.....
- b. Sometimes.....
- c. Rarely.....
- d. Never.....

6. Do you help your pupils to do History projects?

- a. Frequently....[because.....  
.....
- b. Sometimes....[because.....  
.....
- c. Never.....[because.....  
.....

7. If "frequently or sometimes", are these projects:

- a. Individual.....
  - b. Groups.....
  - c. Both.....
8. What do you know about the use of games in history?
- a. I do not know anything about such games...[because  
.....
  - b. I know about them but have not use them .....  
[because.....
  - c. I know about them and have used them.....  
[because.....

#### G. Tests and Examination

1. How often are your pupils examined?
- a. Daily.....
  - b. Weekly.....
  - c. Monthly.....
  - d. At the end of the course.....
  - e. Annually.....
2. What sort of examinations are used?
- a. Oral questions.....
  - b. Multiple-choice.....
  - c. Written questions on source material requiring  
short written answers.....
  - d. Essays.....
  - e. Project work.....
3. Do the examinations enable you to assess the  
capability of your pupils?
- a. Completely.....
  - b. To some extent.....
  - c. Hardly at all.....



4. Do you change the type of test used?

a. Frequently.....

b. Sometimes.....

c. Never.....

## Appendix 2

### The Pupils questionnaire (The English Version)

#### A. Personal Information

##### 1. Sex

a. Male.....b. Female.....

##### 2. Age .....

##### 3. Class

a. Four.....b. Five.....c. Six.....

#### B. Teaching Method

1. Does your teacher collect and examine relevant evidence in the classroom?

a. Always.....

b. Sometimes.....

c. Never.....

2. Does he give you selected work references before he starts the lesson?

a. Yes.....b. No.....

3. Does he ask you to do presentations?

a. Yes.....b. No.....

4. If "yes", what sort do you offer?

a. Seminar.....b.. Report.....

c. Lecture.....

5. Does he prepare the lesson well?

a. Always.....

- b. Sometimes.....
- c. Rarely.....
- 6. What aspects of his lesson you like best [explain please].....  
.....
- 7. Is your teacher interested in everything his pupils are doing?
  - a. Usually .....
  - b. Sometimes.....
  - c. Never.....
- 8. Which of the following words do you think describe your teacher [tick two that apply]?
  - a. Calm.....b. Sympathetic.....
  - c. Orderly.....d. Humorous.....
  - e. Natural.....f. Nervous or boring.....

**C. Classroom**

- 1. Does your teacher pay attention to each individual pupil in the classroom?
  - a. Yes.....
  - b. To some extent.....
  - c. Rarely.....
- 2. Does your teacher speak clearly in the classroom?
  - a. Clear and high voice.....
  - b. Moderate voice.....
  - c. Unclear and poor voice.....
- 3. Does your teacher know and remember the names of all the pupils in the class?

- a. All of them.....
  - b. Most of them.....
  - c. Some of them.....
  - d. Few of them.....
4. Does your teacher start each lesson on time?
- a. Always.....
  - b. Sometimes.....
  - c. Rarely.....
5. Does he prepare all necessary equipment before the start of the lesson?
- a. Always.....
  - b. Sometimes.....
  - c. Rarely.....
6. Does he forget to dismiss the class?
- a. Frequently.....
  - b. Sometimes.....
  - c. Rarely.....

**D. Teaching Aids**

1. Does your teacher use material aids?
- a. Frequently.....
  - b. Sometimes.....
  - c. Rarely .....
  - d. Never.....
2. If "frequently or sometimes" what sort of aids does he use?
- a. Pictures.....b. Documents.....
  - c. Maps.....d. Audio-visual.....

- e. Computers.....f. Other [please say which].....
- 3. Does he involve you in any sort of simulation or drama to illustrate the lessons?
  - a. Frequently.....
  - b. Sometimes.....
  - c. Never.....
- 4. Does he ask you to do history projects?
  - a. Yes.....b. No.....
- 5. If "yes", are these:
  - a. Individual projects.....
  - b. Groups projects.....
  - c. Both.....
- 6. Does he get you to play games in history?
  - a. Yes.....b. No.....

#### E. Tests and Examinations

- 1. How often do you have tests or examinations?
  - a. Daily.....b. Weekly.....
  - c. Monthly.....d. At the end of the course...
- 2. What sort of tests or examination do you do?
  - a. Oral questions.....
  - b. Multiple-choice.....
  - c. Written questions on source material requiring short written answers.....
  - d. Essays.....
  - e. Project work.....
- 3. Does your teacher change the type of test he uses?
  - a. Frequently.....

b. Sometimes.....

c. Never.....

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