Revisiting Social Science Education for Teachers, Version

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2012

This document has been prepared to stimulate discussion within the Social Sciences Education Interest Group within the African Teacher Education OER Network about what to teach and how to teach it.

Acknowledgement

Citation:
African Teacher Education OER Network Social Sciences Education Interest Group (ATEN SSEIG), (2012). *Rethinking Social Sciences Education for Teachers*. Pretoria: OER Africa.

Contents

Social Sciences Education for Teachers

Introduction and purpose

Welcome to this discussion document entitled *Social Sciences Education for Teachers*. It is hoped that this document will spark a discussion in the Social Sciences Education Interest Group within the African Teacher Education OER Network (ATEN) that will lead to further sharing of resources and hopefully eventually the development of a collaboratively developed resource for teacher trainers involved in Social Science Education. It simultaneously forms the basis of a teaching methods course offered by Mkwawa University College of Education in Tanzania, for which two sample modules are included as examples.

Why focus on Social Science Education?

Many countries are paying particular attention to trying to improve learner performance in Science, Mathematics and Technology (SMT) education. While this is an important focus for development, it should not come at the expense of neglecting the unique contribution of the social sciences to a well-rounded education.

As suggested in a recent South African curriculum policy document, the social sciences curriculum should:

> … provide opportunities for learners to look at their own worlds with fresh, critical eye, and perhaps more importantly, … to introduce learners to a world beyond their everyday realities. Schools should be special places that provide learners with knowledge to which they would otherwise not have access.[1]

The Social Sciences Education Interest Group (SSEIG) aims at assisting pre-service teachers to develop among (primary/secondary school students) the ability to acquire and learn to use knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will prepare them to be competent and responsible citizens throughout their lives.

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[1] Department of Basic Education (DBE). 2011. *National Curriculum Statement (NCS). Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement. Senior Phase: Grades 7-9.* Pretoria: DBE.

Our first assumption is that the building and consolidation of a vibrant democratic political culture in any African country, where groups and individuals are aware of their identities and fully exercise their rights and responsibilities, is necessary for sustainable development. The second assumption is that the destiny and future of any country in Africa depends on the participation of each and every citizen in building accountable relationships between government and society. The third assumption is that a well designed and implemented social studies curriculum can be an effective instrument for the development of responsible citizens with the requisite knowledge, civic competence, attitudes, values and behaviours appropriate for a democratic political culture.

As you read and use these materials, it is important to take note of the Tanzanian as well as other education contexts in Africa. As such, you will certainly need to grapple with one or more of the following issues:

- What should be the trade-off between the transmission of values intended as inculcation of beliefs and values and the development of moral selfhood and autonomy?
- Should the desired values be specified in curricular guidance, and to what extent are such values commonly 'shared'?
- Where value tensions are encountered, whose values should be given prominence?

Areas of focus

The preparation of these materials has taken into account four main dimensions of teachers' knowledge and competence as illustrated below:

Concentric circles from outer to inner:
- Other factors affecting science education
- Teachers' discplinary knowledge
- Technical Pedagogic Content Knowledge
- School curriculum
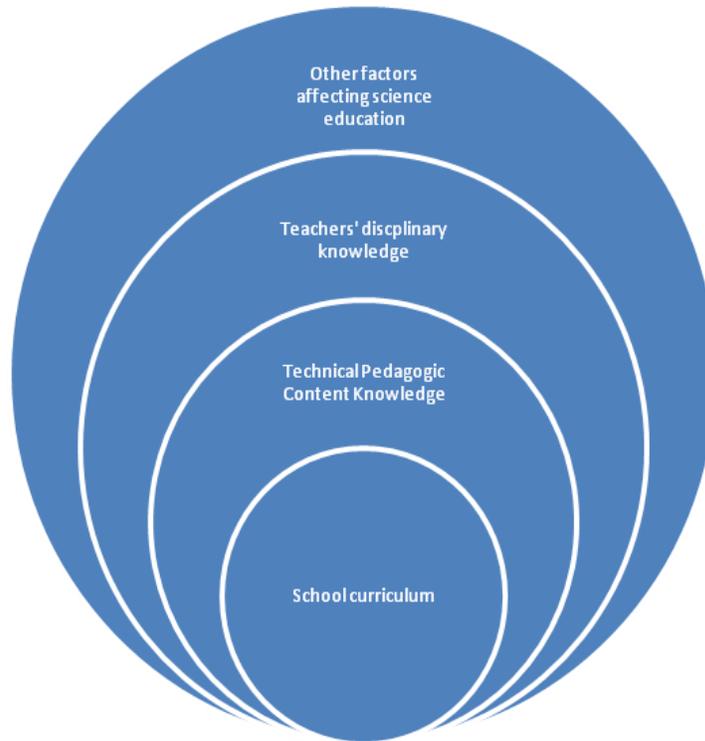
School curriculum

It is important that you know and understand the curriculum you will be required to teach. It will be wrong to assume that because you have successfully completed your bachelor's degree study in education that you have mastered all aspects of the school curriculum. For this reason, this section provides you with the range of topics covered in Tanzania's school curriculum for social science education.

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Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge

You will probably agree that it is a necessary but insufficient condition for teachers to have mastered the curriculum they are actually required to teach. As a teacher you **also** need to develop the ability to help your students to engage meaningfully with that content by using appropriate pedagogy for different concepts, learning needs and

contexts and by employing appropriate technology for the learning purpose and context.

Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) provides a useful frame of reference for thinking about what is entailed. As explained on a website dedicated to exploring this approach (www.tpck.org), TPACK attempts to identify the nature of knowledge required by teachers for technology integration in their teaching, while addressing the complex, multifaceted and situated nature of teacher knowledge. It builds on Schulman's idea of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK).

What is PCK? According to Shulman (1986), PCK includes "the most useful forms of representation of [topics], the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations - in a word, the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others ...Pedagogical content knowledge also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons."

Pedagogical content knowledge is an accumulation of common elements;

• Knowledge of subject matter
• Knowledge of students and possible misconceptions
• Knowledge of curricula
• Knowledge of general pedagogy/andragogy.

PCK is knowing what, when, why, and how to teach using a reservoir of knowledge of good teaching practice and experience.

The TPACK model adds a technology element to this consideration as illustrated below:
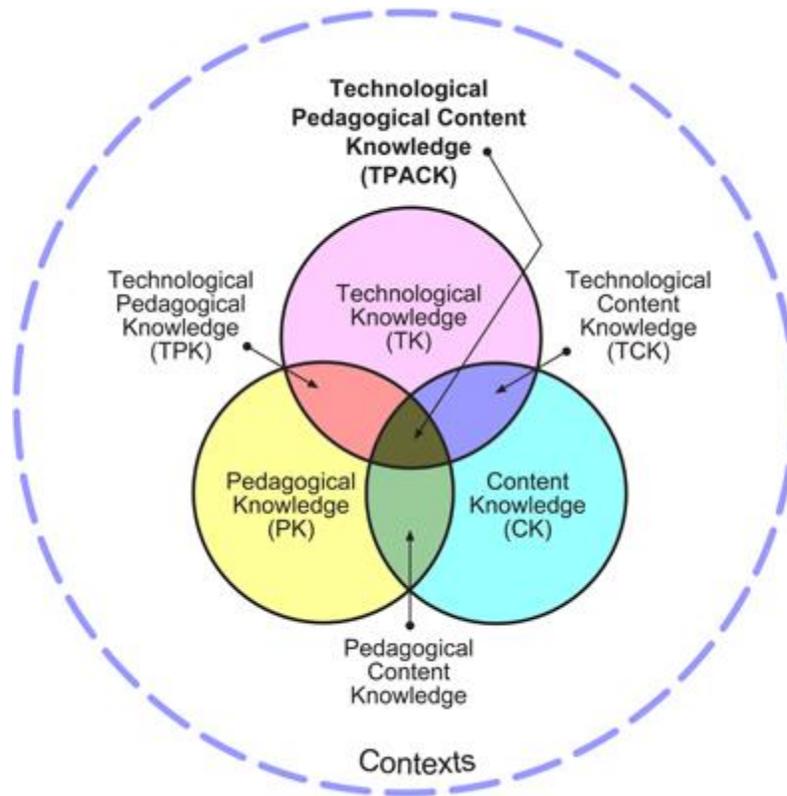
The TPACK model goes beyond seeing these three knowledge bases in isolation to consider the new kinds of knowledge that lie at the intersections between them. Considering P and C together, we focus on Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK), Schulman's idea of knowledge of pedagogy that is applicable to the teaching of specific content. Similarly, considering T and C taken together, we focus on Technological Content Knowledge (TCK), the knowledge of the relationship between technology and content. At the intersection of T and P, is Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK), which emphasises the existence, components and capabilities of various technologies as they are used in the settings of teaching and learning.

Finally, at the intersection of all three elements is Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK). True technology integration is understanding and negotiating the relationships between these three components of knowledge. A teacher capable of negotiating these relationships represents a form of expertise different from and greater than, the knowledge of a disciplinary expert (say a mathematician or a historian), a technology expert (a computer scientist) and a pedagogical expert (an experienced educator). Effective technology integration for pedagogy around specific subject matter requires developing sensitivity to the dynamic, (transactional) relationship between all three components.

Source: http://www.tpck.org. Now relocated at: http://www.tpack.org.

The skills presented in the modules of this Social Science Education course will help you as a teacher to refocus and re-orient yourself to the major changes that are taking place in both the colleges of education, as well as secondary and primary schools. At the end of the course, you should therefore, show competency in pedagogical related knowledge and skills in planning, implementing and evaluating teaching and learning processes.

The approach used in the modules and which you are expected to adopt when studying independently is probably radically different from that which you have been exposed to during your school days. It is much more practical, requiring you to inquire into and reflect upon what you are doing to a far greater degree than you have possibly been used to. As you interact with these materials, try to apply each approach and methodology to your work in the classroom. We have combined theory and practice; the practice stemming from your own experience in classroom use. So, this is not a "*How-to-do-it*" module. It is a "*How-we-do-it*" module. We are not presenting our experiences in order to set ourselves up as models to be emulated, but to ensure that all the ideas are rooted in reality, and therefore, are entirely possible and usable.

Take responsibility for your own learning that the modules offer. You might have probably sat passively for so long in so many learning situations that this change will not be easy. But we know that it is a very exciting development and ultimately you will welcome it. We have no doubt in your resolve to complete this course successfully. Finally, I want to wish you success in completing this vital course, not only for you, but especially for all secondary and primary students throughout Tanzania.

Part of the pedagogic content knowledge required by teachers relates to their wider knowledge of the discipline itself. In order, for example, to think of appropriate contexts to help learners to engage with key concepts and to accommodate the needs of gifted learners who can progress faster and further than is strictly required by the school curriculum, teachers' own knowledge must be wider than the content prescribed by the school curriculum for the levels at which they are teaching. But how much disciplinary knowledge does a teacher need and how does this knowledge differ, if at all, in the training of a primary school teacher or a secondary teacher, for example?

Teachers' disciplinary knowledge

What disciplinary knowledge do teachers need? And **how much** disciplinary knowledge do they need? This issue is contentious and needs further sharing of experience between countries and educational institutions. The policy discourse in South Africa, for example, has recently placed much greater emphasis on making explicit the knowledge embedded in the school curriculum as well as the knowledge required for students undertaking teacher development programmes.

At the University of Dar es Salaam, student teachers undergo a different curriculum depending on whether they will end up practising as secondary school teachers, teacher educators or primary school teachers. Nevertheless, regardless of their orientation, during the 3 or 4 year undergraduate study they share the fundamental and core courses as defined by the Faculty/programme the student teacher is registered in (viz. BA Education, BSc Education, BEd Arts/Science). Thus, BA Education students are registered in the College of Arts and Social Sciences, BSc Education

student teachers are registered in the College of Natural and Applied Sciences, while BEd Arts/Science student teachers are registered in the School of Education

Mkwawa University College of Education envisages similar but different programmes of study for its Secondary and Teacher Education student-teachers as illustrated in the programme structures Fig.1 and 2.

Programme structure

Fig. 1 B.Ed. Arts/Science Program
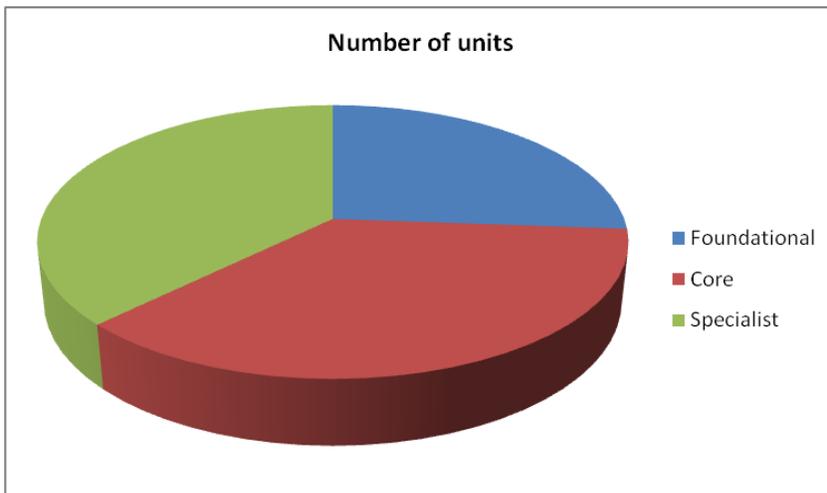
Fig. 2: B.A. Ed & B.Sc. Ed. Program
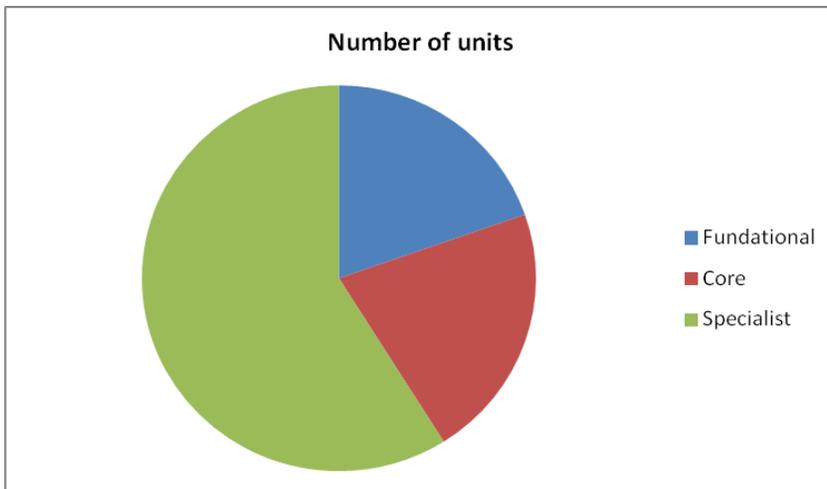
It should be noted that in the context of the University of Dar es Salaam, while B.Ed student teachers have 1/3 of the courses in content and 2/3 in education foundational and pedagogical courses, their BA Education/BSc Education counterparts have 1/3 of their courses in pedagogy/foundations and 2/3 in the content disciplines.

Having disciplinary knowledge taught outside of the Faculty of Education is quite common practice but raises a challenge: often the pedagogical (or andragogical) approaches employed by disciplinary experts are not the same as those advocated by the Education specialists and we know that teachers tend to teach the way they themselves were taught …

However, this discussion takes us back to the questions we posed earlier: how much disciplinary knowledge does a teacher need and how does this knowledge differ, if at all, in the training of a primary school teacher or a secondary teacher, for example? Provided below is an example of how these questions have been addressed by Mkwawa University College of Education (MUCE) which is affiliated to the University of Dar-es-Salaam (UDSM). The materials focus on one dimension of the social science education, variously known as civics, citizenship education or civic education.

Course title: Social and Civic Education Methods

Course Code: CT 107

Course description:

This course is intended for prospective teachers and other educators interested in teaching and the development of materials for civic education and general studies in secondary education. The course provides an opportunity for reflection and discussion on the aims, approaches and methods for the teaching and learning of Civics and General Studies.

Learning outcomes

It is expected that upon successful completion of this course, you will have:

- acquired a deeper understanding of the basic concepts of history, civics and geography and economics.
- analyzed the goals and aims of the social science subjects
- examined critically and applied selectively the main approaches, methods and strategies for teaching of history, civics, geography and economics.
- designed and produced teaching learning materials.
- acquired competence and ability to correctly evaluate teaching and learning of the social science subjects basing on the secondary, teacher education and primary school syllabuses.

Course modules

Module 1: Understanding the Philosophy and Nature of the Social Science Education

Learning Units:

- Understanding the basic concepts (politics, history, social studies, political education, citizenship education, general studies)
- Philosophical and psychological basis of social science education
- Understanding the history and purpose of social science curriculum in Tanzania

Module 2: Reviewing and Interpreting Civics Curriculum and Materials

Learning units:

- Developing and applying framework for reviewing syllabus, course package and T-L materials
- Developing and applying a framework for evaluating quality of textbooks and teachers' guides.

Module 3: Selecting Approaches for Teaching and Learning of Civics

Learning units:

- Examining the traditional, concept based and values based approaches in relation to the teaching of civics, and general studies
- Distinguishing participatory and non participatory approaches to learning and teaching of civics, and general studies.

Module 4:   Designing Teaching Materials for Civics

Learning units:

- Designing T-L resources and teaching aids using low cost materials from learners' environment
- Effective use of resources and practical activities to improve learner's achievement

Module 5: Designing Effective Assessment and Evaluation Tools for Civics
Learning units

- Designing tools and standards for evaluation of teaching and learning
- Using a variety of strategies for monitoring learner achievement
- Using information from evaluation process for continuous improvement of pedagogy and learners' achievement

Course Delivery Mode
This course will be delivered through lectures, seminar discussion, demonstrations and microteaching. Duration: 45 hours

Course Evaluation Mode
- Course work 50%
- University examination 50%

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Module 1: Understanding the Philosophy and Nature of the Social Sciences

Introduction

This module introduces you to the basic concepts of civics, history, economics and geography, as well as the inter-relationship, similarities and differences among the related school subjects. It also provides you with a background to the teaching of each of the four school subjects: history, civics, geography and economics. In the third section you will learn about learning outcomes for the social science subjects including their implications for the delivery methods.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this module you will have acquired:

- a deeper understanding of the basic concepts of history, civics, geography and economics;
- a deeper understanding the history and role of social science education in inculcating responsible citizenship as well as a democratic culture among the youth in Tanzania.

Learning Unit 1:   Interface of the social sciences

You may have wondered when, how and why this course came to exist in its present form. You may also have wondered what role the social science subjects play in the moulding of responsible citizens. It is therefore important that you get to know a little bit of the history of Social science education as well as its importance in the nurturing of a democratic culture among the youth in Tanzania. Through this module you will learn to understand better when, and why the different methods courses came to merge and how they relate to one another. Hopefully, you will also appreciate the usefulness of the subject. Social science education in its present form is a relatively new course that was designed to form part of the 2005 UDSM Senate approved three-year bachelor's degree in education programme. It combines about four different methods courses,

previously taught as separate courses, namely. History, geography, civics and economics. The decision to integrate the otherwise separate social science methods courses into one can be explained from three sets of rationales.

(i)   Administrative rationale

Part of the reason why the four methods courses were merged relates to the whole idea of trying to be efficient in the preparation of teachers by reducing the length of time taken to graduate and join the teacher workforce. This necessitated a reduction of the number of courses studied without diluting the programme and without affecting the quality of the graduates. The 4-year programme was critically reviewed, similar courses were merged to avoid duplication of content, and new courses were designed where necessary. The methods courses in the then Department of Curriculum and Teaching (now Department of Educational Psychology and Curriculum Studies) were subjected to such revision and a decision was made to merge the social sciences, physical and biological sciences, and language studies into three separate courses. This decision attempted to respond to the acute shortage of graduate teachers in Tanzania, and was part and parcel of the establishment of the two constituent colleges of education under the University of Dar es Salaam, namely Dar es Salaam University College of Education (DUCE) and Mkwawa University College of Education (MUCE).

(ii)   Philosophical rationale

The second reason for integration of the courses can be justified on the basis of the fact that in primary and junior secondary schools, related school subjects are combined. The principle used for such combination is that in the education of children, emphasis should be on the use of objects that are close and meaningful to the children, on ideas that are practicable and on things that are doable, rather than what is remote, theoretical and abstract. According to this perspective, instruction should proceed from the known to the unknown, from the simple to the complex, from the practical to the theoretical and hypothetical and from the present to the past and future. So, what integrated science and social studies have in common is the potential to adopt and put into practice this basic principle of curriculum and instruction, which the traditional subjects are not adequately suited for.

(iii)   Pedagogical rationale

The third consideration for merging the social science, science and language methods was recognition that the contents in each of the courses are similar or related, e.g. the objectives, learning outcomes, delivery approaches, and assessment. In order to appreciate this point, please take your time to study and complete Activity 1.1. Feel free to work with a colleague or as a team and share your findings.

Activity1.1

1. Choose two subject combinations and with the help of relevant secondary school syllabi, describe the relationship between the two subjects with regard to:

(i)   content focus

(ii)   student learning outcomes, i.e. expected competencies

2. Discuss your answers with a colleague and write a joint summary.

Learning Unit 2:   Nature of social science education

Your lecturers in History, Geography, Economics or Political Science will probably have introduced you to the definitions of your subject. You probably have read the literature that is trying to define the term social science education or social studies. You definitely have come across many different definitions. Of the many definitions offered by other scholars, Augustus Adeyinka (in Adeyemi, 2000) provides the simplest and quite useful definition. According to him social studies refers to 'the study of people in their physical and social environment'. You will find that this definition is all embracing because it covers the interests of geography, history, religion, art and craft, drama and literature, political science, citizenship education, economics as well as behavioural sciences. Barth et al.(1984), however, emphasize the integration of experience and knowledge concerning human relations for the purpose of citizenship education.

Activity 2.1

Now individually study the dictionary definitions presented below and try to relate them to the definition offered by Augustus Adeyinka.

Resource 2.1: Definitions

Civics

- Civics: Elementary form of political science taught from the point of view of the student's own position in the society in which he/she lives.
- Civic education/citizenship education: Adult education aimed at conveying an understanding of social problems and the workings of local government.
- Political science: Study of the principles, methods and aims of government.
- Political education: Education in the problems, affairs and methods of government.

Economics

The study of how people decide how to use scarce productive resources to satisfy material wants.

Study of the nature, production, consumption, distribution and exchange of wealth.

Geography

Study of the science and characteristics of the earth's surface and its inhabitants.

History

Systematic study of the origin and progress of peoples, nations, institutions, disciplines, etc.

Activity 2.2

Study **Resource 2** on the perspectives about how social studies should be organized and **Resource 3** on philosophical basis for social studies in primary and junior secondary school. What implications can be derived from philosophy and psychology as presented by the two scholars? Post your ideas on the discussion forum by Friday 18th January 2013.

Resource 2.2

Perspectives about how social studies should be organized

It is possible to look at and study social studies from three different angles:

(i)   One way is the Separate academic subjects approach. If this approach is chosen then the secondary school curriculum is designed in such a way that each of the social science subjects (history, political science or government, geography, economics, anthropology and sociology) is studied and examined separately.

(ii)   The second approach is Interdisciplinary or multi-disciplinary. Under this arrangement the subjects draw content from concepts, paradigms and methods from two or more academic disciplines.

(iii) The third approach is integrated subject. Over and above the second approach, this approach draws content knowledge from many fields. Instruction is organized around fundamental questions, topics or social problems. Facts, methods, theories, concepts and generalizations for answering the fundamental questions are drawn from the academic disciplines. Curriculum developers justify the integrated approach on the argument that children of primary and junior secondary school age are too young to understand the kind of complex presentation of ideas embodied in those subjects.

Resource 2.3

Philosophical basis for social studies in primary and junior secondary schools

Here we can refer to the ideas of the psychologist Jean Piaget and of the philosopher A. Whitehead regarding stages at which children can perform specific mental or intellectual activities:

Piaget	Whitehead
Pre-operational (age 1-5)	Romance: focus on fantasies and fables; all stories are true; learning through observation and handling of objects, and by doing things themselves
Concrete operational (age 6-13)	Precision; learning is limited to tangible things and people around them. They begin to see differences between true and untrue stories, what is possible and what is impossible, what they can do and what they can't.
Formal operational (age 13-17/18)	Generalization: they can think logically, formulate hypotheses and have the conviction that there are many ways of solving specific personal or social problems.

Philosophical perspectives have a great bearing on teaching and learning. The teaching of social science subjects is not free from such influence. There are four major philosophical currents that shape the social sciences; these are perrenialism and essentialism, scientific empiricism, pragmatism and progressivism, and finally, re-constructionism. Each of the philosophical positions is summarized below.

Perennialism and essentialism: This is a philosophical view, which believes in the existence of absolute truths that have to be acquired and mastered by students if they are to function properly in society. According to this perspective, historical facts for

example, which facts are construed as 'truths', are the ones that should be transmitted to the younger generation. Such transmission could be done either chronologically or thematically.

Scientific empiricism: This is a philosophical view which emphasizes the use of scientific methods and tools for the study of society, so as to arrive at laws, principles, theories and rules that guide human thought and behaviour. It emphasizes the inquiry method in the teaching of social studies. According to this perspective, the study of physical geography, for example, would require engaging students in outdoor activities visiting, observing, collecting information, analyzing the data and theorizing about how physical features such as a mountain, a rift valley, a river, etc, came to be.

Pragmatism and progressivism: John Dewey is considered to be the founder of this philosophy. He emphasized the development of student's reasoning and judgment capabilities in daily life. Related ideas include problem solving, discovery, reasoning, reflective thinking, and creative thinking. Essentially, progressivism is a view of schooling and the curriculum as an open and flexible curriculum which is capable of absorbing new ideas rather than a rigid, ready made final list of things to be done. The desire to develop learners who are autonomous and free thinkers is the hallmark of progressivism and pragmatism. According to this perspective, learners ought to be given latitude and freedom to exercise their mental faculties rather than be spoon-fed with readymade answers to difficult situations.

Reconstructionism: This is a view that schools must play an active role in changing or reconstructing society, i.e. they should not only be avenues for discussing controversial issues, but also as active participants in social action projects towards bringing about social justice. One can appreciate the application of this philosophy in Tanzania during the heydays of education for self reliance when schools and students were considered to be part and parcel of the community and therefore duty bound to contribute to its sustenance and development through national service, self help schemes and activities like adult education, road construction, health campaigns, and economic activities at school level.

Implications for the curriculum and for pedagogy

We can draw the following insights from philosophy and psychology as presented by the two scholars:

(i)   Curricula should be designed according to the interests and abilities of the learners at each level.

(ii)   Instructional objectives, content and methods should be appropriate to the specific stage of mental development.

Activity 2.3

Try to remember about how you were taught history, civics, geography, or economics either in secondary schools or at the college.

(i)   Which of the four philosophical perspectives, in your view, was dominant?

(ii)   Which of the four philosophical perspectives is desirable as a guide to the teaching of history, geography, economics, or civics? Why?

Share your ideas by posting them onto the discussion forum

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Learning Unit 3: The purpose of Social science education

Have you ever thought about why subjects like geography, history, economics or civics are included in the school curriculum? At a time when everybody is looking upon science and technology to address development challenges of poverty, hunger and disease, what practical application to real life do these subjects provide to the learner?

Activity 3.1

Using the latest edition of the syllabus prepared by the Tanzania Institute of Education,

(i)   examine carefully the objectives and content of the History, Geography, and Economics or Civics subject.

(ii)   explain how the study of the subject contributes to personal and social development.

Our first assumption is that the building and consolidation of a vibrant democratic political culture in any African country, where groups and individuals are aware of their identities and fully exercise their rights and responsibilities, is necessary for sustainable development. The second assumption is that the destiny and future of any country in Africa depends on the participation of each and every citizen in building accountable relationships between government and society. The third assumption is that a well designed and implemented social studies curriculum can be an effective instrument for the development of responsible citizens with the requisite knowledge, civic competence, attitudes, values and behaviours appropriate for a democratic political culture.

Resource 3.1

The purpose of Social science education

The purpose of social science education, across the world and in all political systems, is to produce responsible citizens. There are three major categories of the attributes that a responsible citizen is supposed to possess: (i) knowledge attributes, (ii) competencies or capabilities, and (iii) attitudes or values attributes. In other words, a responsible citizen must, first and foremost, be knowledgeable or have the desire to know.

Knowledge attributes and key concepts

The knowledge category can be further analyzed around five concepts (i) knowledge about **Identity**; (ii)Knowledge about **interdependence** among people; (iii) Knowledge about **social justice** and good governance, (iv) Knowledge about **conflict** and (v) Knowledge about **change and development**. The four social science subjects of history, civics (political studies), geography and economics provide students with a variety of such knowledge. Knowledge about the *interdependence* among people requires that the student seeks to understand how the social/political system operates; to understand the world as a system or an interconnected whole and also to understand the global implications of local decisions and actions. A responsible citizen needs to be conscious of one's *identity* (social, political, religious etc,) and seeks to know one's own culture, heritage and world view; but also to know other people's cultures in one's own community and in different parts of the world. In addition, a knowledgeable citizen understands that views about the world are not internationally shared, and that because they belong to different cultures, different people have different perspectives, which have their own logic and validity. Knowledge of one's own culture and of other people's culture comes along with knowledge of the common stereotypes about others, which exist in one's own culture and in other people's cultures. It is through knowing other people's cultures that we can understand why they behave as they do and we can begin to appreciate commonalities and differences, which is necessary for peaceful co-existence.

Other kinds of useful knowledge include the following: Knowledge about *social justice and good governance*. This entails awareness about widely accepted principles of human rights and justice; that personal, institutional and societal behaviour/attitudes/structures can have the effect of either promoting or denying social justice. This includes knowledge of the current situations in which human rights are not recognized, and social justice not available to all, both locally and globally, which engender the responsibility of all citizens.

Another kind of useful knowledge is knowledge about various types of *conflict* (e.g. conflict over values, needs, resources), common causes of conflict and potential outcomes. It is important that citizens know that conflict can have many possible solutions of which violence is only one. Similarly peace has many manifestations, and includes the absence of those structures which cause conflict (e.g. injustice, inequality, poverty and deprivation, and peace within oneself, as well as the absence of armed conflict).

Citizens need to acquire knowledge about the major *development* issues and trends, past and present, their causal factors as well as the difference between desirable and undesirable *change*. Most importantly, a knowledgeable citizen understands one's personal options for bringing about development.

Competences or capabilities

The study of history, civics, geography and economics does not end with the acquisition of relevant knowledge. If the programme is well designed it should simultaneously enable students to acquire useful skills for life. A responsible citizen requires skills that will enable him/her to participate and work effectively in a small (or larger) group to achieve a common goal; be critical and self-critical; to detect one's own biases, stereotypes and egocentric attitudes; and the biases that others might have owing to their cultures, beliefs or political ideologies. The methods of teaching of social science subjects must also enable the citizen to perceive differing perspectives in speech, print and audio visual media; and to use knowledge and imagination to develop insight into the ways of life, attitudes and beliefs of others. Moreover, the delivery approaches should develop a competent citizen who can apply ideals such as

democracy, freedom, equality and respect for diversity in daily life and in a global context. In addition, the products of the college programme must be of the kind who can do the following: Participate in their communities through membership in or contributions to organizations working to address an array of cultural, social, political, and religious interests and beliefs, such as advocating for the rights of oneself and others (using discussion, negotiation and assertiveness, etc.), or resolving conflicts peacefully, (e.g. generating alternatives, ranking, arbitration, compromising, decision making, negotiating, communicating effectively, working with others cooperatively);

Attitudes and Values

Ethical considerations are an important dimension of the teaching of social science subjects. Teachers need to create learning experiences that will mould a responsible citizen with appropriate, pro-social attitudes and dispositions. Such a person can be identified through demonstration of respect for diversity and commonality among peoples, empathy, commitment, and readiness to take constructive action to bring about change or development. A responsible citizen shows respect for the needs and contribution of all members of the community and positively values the ways in which individuals can support and benefit the whole, and vice versa. He/she believes in one's own ability to create positive change and has an outlook of hopefulness, of not seeing oneself as, or allowing oneself to become, the victim of larger global issues and problems;

It is interesting to note that the Kenyan National Civic Education programme (KNCE) and the California Civic Mission of Schools (CMS) programme share elements of this framework in regard to the major themes and learning outcomes. According to the KNCE the major themes of civic education are:

(i)   Nation-Building: Kenya and its citizens. In relation to the framework explained above, this theme relates to the identity concept but also talks about change and development.

(ii)   Democracy: Kenya and the 'will of the people';

(iii) Good Governance : Governing for development;

(iv)   Constitutionalism :The Constitution, constitutionalism and the rule of law;

(v)   Human Rights: Because Kenyans have rights.

According to California Civic Mission of Schools (CMS, 2003), the key Learning outcomes for civic education are as follows: Citizens

(i)   Are informed and thoughtful

(ii)   Participate in their communities

(iii)   Act politically by having the knowledge, skills, and competencies

(iv)   Have moral and civic virtues

The CMS recommends six approaches that can be implemented in combination:

(i)   Instruction in government, history, law and democracy

(ii)   Classroom discussion of current events can be made and demonstrated through high-quality history lessons.

(iii)   Civic-based service learning.

(iv)   Extracurricular activities.

(v)   Student voice in school/classroom

(vi)   Simulations of democratic processes.

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Module 2: Reviewing and Interpreting the Civics Curriculum and Materials

Introduction

Following the adoption of liberal education policy in 1995, the Tanzania government decided to involve other partners in the provision of education at all levels. Although it retained its responsibility for the preparation of school curricula, the government abdicated its role as the producer and distributer of school texts. Instead, after the new policy individuals and agencies were given freedom to write school texts according to the approved syllabuses. Heads of schools were required to purchase school texts from the open market using the capitation grant. An Educational Materials Approval Committee (EMAC) was set up under the Ministry of Education and Culture and was mandated to ensure the quality of the school texts produced commercially and sold to schools (MoEC, 1999). However, the new policy and the approval procedures meant for authors and publishers do not seem to have worked well for schools and students both quantity and quality-wise. Recent statistics published by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (BEST, 2012), indicate an alarming textbook situation in public secondary schools. For Civics the shortage is 84.7% in Form1, 83.0% in Form 2, 84.7 in Form 3, and 85% in Form 4. While the data provide a quantitative dimension of the problem of school materials, they also raise concern about the quality of school texts that are currently being used in schools and colleges of education in Tanzania since 1995. Hence, there is a need to find evidence on the quality of civic education materials for pre-service teachers.

In this module you will have an opportunity to examine the civics syllabus in relation to the materials that were designed, produced and made available for use in schools. Particular attention is given to developing a framework for reviewing syllabus, course package and T-L materials and applying that framework for evaluating quality of textbooks and teachers' guides.

Learning outcomes

Upon successful completion of this module you will be able to provide evidence based account of the following:

(i)   written civic education resource materials produced since 1995;

(ii) groups targeted by the resource materials;

(iii) design structures that inform the presentation of the materials and;

(iv) effectiveness of the designs structures.

Learning Unit 4: Syllabi and teaching and learning materials since 1995

There have been periodic changes in the syllabi and teaching and learning materials for civics, as for other social science subjects, since Tanzania adopted the neo-liberal education policy in the early 1990's. Part of the changes includes the name of the school subject from political education/elimu ya siasa to civics (in secondary schools) and uraia in primary schools. Another change was in the medium of instruction used for delivering the subject, where Kiswahili was retained in primary schools but English replaced Kiswahili in secondary schools. The third change was in the responsibility for production of school texts, where government encouraged individuals and non-government agencies to design and produce teaching and learning materials.

Activity 4.1

Critically examine the syllabuses for history, geography, economic or civics issued in 1997, 2005 and 2010 and write an account of your observations in regard to objectives, content and any other relevant issue. Submit your response by March 21st 2013. This assignment is allocated 20 marks.

Activity 4.2

This assignment has been allocated 30 marks.

(i) Find out from the library, bookshops, book stores, printers and publishers and present a list of civic education texts that have been published since 1995.

(ii) For each publication please indicate the target group (e.g. teachers, students, academicians or general public).

(iii) Which category of learners has more access to appropriate civic education resources?

(iv) Which category of learners has less access to appropriate civic education resources?

Learning Unit 5: School materials development paradigms

Think of the time you were preparing lesson notes for your class on a given topic. What considerations guided your choice of content to include in the lesson notes, the choice and use of language to communicate the content and the activities the learner would engage in as well as the questions that you would pose in order to obtain feedback on their learning? You may not have realized how much influence our beliefs about how young people or adults learn have on how we teach and design educational materials. Through the resources provided in this section you will be exposed to certain paradigms that have a major influence on educators' thought and practices.

Resource 5.1

Pre-service teachers need to be empowered if they are to be effective in the management and delivery of civic education in classrooms. Empowerment entails creating conditions that will enable the pre-service teacher to develop a certain propensity or competencies. As such, the design of materials intended for pre-service teachers requires an elaborate procedure of formulating learning outcomes or competencies, specification of appropriate content, choice of delivery techniques and measurement of the extent to which the desired learning outcomes or competencies have been attained (Rogers, 1996). When preparing teaching and learning materials the author is influenced, consciously or instinctively by some theoretical framework. Three broad frameworks can help us to appreciate the effort of various writers of civics school materials in delivering their content as well as to assess their relative impact on the learning process.

The first of the theoretical frameworks is **behaviourism.** The behaviourist theory suggests that learning takes place through certain laws. The three cardinal laws are the law of effect, the law of exercise, or through stimulus response and reinforcement. Behaviourist theory was derived from scientific research done by educational psychologists such as J.S.Bruner (1966); B.F.Skinner, (1968, 1971); and L. Thorndike, (http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/history/thorndike.html,), who emphasized the need for reinforcement of learning through rewards and punishment, through exercise, and through conditioning. In essence it is a theory that is concerned with external and

observable aspects of learning such as disciplined behaviour and producing the 'correct answer'. Under behaviourism there is little concern about what was going on in the learner's mind which led to the 'wrong answer'.

An author of school materials who is influenced by this conceptual framework is likely to design teaching and learning materials that simply provide knowledge with the expectation that the learner will regurgitate the materials and respond to questions by giving 'correct' answers. One could describe this as **the conditioning approach**.

The second set of theories is cognitive and constructivist models of learning. According to J.S.Atherton (2011) and J.E.Gruse (1992), the founders of cognitive theory are Jean Piaget and Albert Bandura. The founding fathers focused on the learner's internal thinking processes. For example, according to Piaget, the learner's readiness to learn depends on the developmental stage, i.e., the chronological and mental age. Yet other constructivist theoreticians argued that each individual constructs their knowledge in a unique way, building on their previous personal experience. The implication here is that our knowledge is not fixed, but fluid and expanding depending on various influencing factors.

An author of school materials who is influenced by this framework is likely to design materials that provide much freedom to the students to learn in their own ways and at their own pace. There will be less learning by rote and more learning of concepts and acquisition of skills through individual and group activities. One could describe this as **the cognitive and constructivist approach.**

The social constructivist theory was developed by L. Vygotsky (1986). Unlike Piaget who believed that a teacher has to wait until the child is ready to learn, Vygotsky believed that appropriate teaching could speed up development. He introduced the concept of 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD). This denotes the child's potential to make sense of the world independent of the instructor. ZPD implied that the instructor's role and society's or school's role should be to provide appropriate support in order to extend the child's understandings (scaffolding).

An author of school materials who is influenced by the social constructivist theoretical framework is likely to design materials that employ participatory learning approaches where a learner interacts with other learners through discussion, reflection, and practical activities. Teaching is seen as a social activity, and the teacher is sensitive to the cultural and social context of the learners. We could describe this as the **participatory learning approach.**

In light of the above conceptual analysis, you are required to examine the design structures and gauge the assumptions behind the design of the various CE materials targeting schools and colleges of education. This will help you to see what gaps there are and determine what can be done to address the gaps so that CE materials are prepared in a more professional way for the benefit of both the instructors and learners.

Activity 5.1

With particular reference to civic education texts targeting teachers or students, critically comment on the design structure and underlying educational philosophy of each school text. Your response should not exceed five typed pages.

Resource 5.2

Relevance and Quality of the Civic Education Materials: A critical review

A literature survey of school texts suggests that only two books/manuals have been written as teacher's guides. Other publications are useful as supplementary materials. However, several books have targeted the student population from form 1 to 4. These books attempt to address the requirements of the Civics Syllabus prepared by the Tanzania Institute of Education and approved by the Ministry of Education and Culture in 1997 and revised in 2005. There are also books that are freely written trying to address the needs of the general public.

The following section presents an assessment of the quality of the materials with regard to relevance, coverage of the civics syllabus, quality of the design structure with reference to interactivity as well as accuracy and validity of the content.

The Syllabus issued by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training

The syllabus covers eight major topics, namely our nation, human rights and responsible citizenship, government for Tanzania, democracy, economic and social development, public legal education, our culture, and international cooperation. The broad objectives of Civics form the basis for the selection of content (knowledge and understandings, skills, attitudes and values) and methods of teaching the subject. However, the syllabus does not provide adequate guidance to the teacher or writers of materials about how to operationalize the broad objectives into learning outcomes for each topic. For example, in the Form 1 syllabus, the topic on '**Our nation'** is not adequately analyzed and does not hang together with the subtopic covering the composition of the activities of the Tanzanian society. The latter topic could form part of '**Economic and social development'** (Form 3 syllabus). The topic on '**Sovereignty of Tanzania'** lacks a historical background. Issues of identity are not addressed at all.

Civics Manual for Secondary School Teachers and College Tutors contains 40 lesson modules derived from the themes and topics in the Civics Syllabus for secondary schools, Form 1-4, issued by the Ministry of Education and Culture in 1997. Each module is built around a topic, and contains a broad statement of objectives, learning outcomes, suggested activities and the order in which they will be carried out, resource materials, evaluation and lesson notes. The manual represents a very good guide to teachers of civics who, for quite some time, have been facing difficulties in getting professional support in a range of areas such as statement of goals and selection of learning outcomes, choice of strategies and resources necessary to facilitate the achievement of the specific objectives, as well as choice of activities that stimulate the learners' critical faculties.

However, the statement of learning outcomes needs improvement. Most of the specific objectives target the lower cognitive levels at the expense of higher intellectual levels, affective and psychomotor domains. The main words used include: define, mention, explain, list, identify, outline, cite examples, describe, discuss, name, and differentiate. The assessment of learning is influenced by those objectives. None of the objectives require students to apply a principle or concept, to analyze perspectives, evaluate

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evidence, and make choices. The latter are considered being superior in developing intellectual capacities of the students (Ramsden, 1992).

Teaching Civics in Secondary Schools by S.F.N. Kiwia & D. Wandi is a collection of papers presented and discussed at a Social Sciences Workshop held at the Institute of Continuing Education (ICE), Sokoine University, Morogoro, in December 1997. The manual was initiated by the then Faculty of Education (now University of Dar es Salaam School of Education) in order to address the shortage of relevant materials for civics in secondary schools and teacher education colleges after the adoption of the multi party political system in Tanzania.

The manual covers nine topics as follows: some concepts of teaching and its historical view, human rights, our culture, democracy and responsible citizenship, the government of Tanzania, constitution, elections and parliamentary affairs, public legal education, science and technology, and international cooperation.

This book was meant to guide teachers of civics in handling new topics or those that did not have materials available. The approach was first to provide workshop participants with content material on the topics and then to use the material as a basis for preparing lesson plans and lesson notes for secondary school students. After each chapter there are discussion questions and references. For each presentation, summaries of group activities are included. The content on human rights is appropriate for teachers.

However, the manual suffers from the following shortcomings. First, the topic on **'human rights'** is unnecessarily long; if it were to be adapted to form1 students, it would require toning it down and making it shorter. Secondly, the lesson plans do not demonstrate student engagement of the concepts and issues raised in the article – the reproduction syndrome prevails: students are expected to repeat the chapter in various ways e.g. define, list down, state, explain, etc. Thirdly, the lesson plans on the Form 4 topic **'Our Culture'** prepared by groups do not show a distinction between the general and specific objectives. Coming from trainer of trainers' workshop, such objectives may mislead other teachers who will be using the manual but did not have the opportunity to attend the workshop. Also, the lesson development suggests teacher-centered

approach. Students need to be provided with issues to reflect on and discuss. Case studies, and stories can be useful cues.

Fourthly, the chapter on democracy and responsible citizenship contains a factual error on pages 80-82. On the conditions of democracy the authors mention a homogenous society as one of the conditions. They write: '… a homogenous society is one with fundamental unifying influences such as common language, race, religion and nationality. If these fundamental unifying influences are not present in society democracy may be at risk. 'Clearly, such thinking itself can be a risk to democracy. For, is diversity not essential to democracy? Is this not advocating fundamentalism of some kind by forcing people to think and behave in the same manner, and believe in the same religion? Is democracy a condition or a process? The authors seem to look at democracy in absolute terms rather than a process towards a more humane society – an ideal to work for (REDET, n.d.).

Fifth, the chapter on **'Government of Tanzania'** also contains a factual error about the composition of the National Assembly. On page 102 the authors incorrectly write: 'The different groups of people who form complete membership of the National Assembly include Regional commissioners who are a crucial link between the government and the people in the regions.' This was true during the one party system, but it is no longer true under the multiparty system.

Civics: A Tanzania Reader is a publication by REDET (2001b) targeting civics teachers in secondary schools. It is a resource book covering such topics as Separation of powers and checks and balances in modern government; electoral systems in democracies; political parties and party systems; instruments of national security; Role of instruments of law enforcement; and, the mass media in Tanzania. The morals that can be learned from the book include: Separation of powers is important for good governance; in Tanzania there is need to redress the imbalance between the executive and other arms of government; and electoral systems such as proportional representation, first past the post, mixed representation, and independent candidature have advantages and disadvantages.

The monograph entitled **The Foundations of Democracy** (REDET, n.d.) covers forms of democracy; some of the foundations of democracy; implementation of representative democracy; people's participation; responsive and accountable government; democracy and the economic condition; democracy and the party system; political reforms and democracy in Tanzania. It is written in simple, straightforward language.

The topics covered in **Katiba na Haki za Raia Tanzania** include: rights and responsibilities under the constitution; the meaning and importance of equality of man, and constitution and rule of law. This resource book targets 'uraia' teachers in primary schools. The purpose is to inform the teacher about the rights and responsibilities under the constitution, the importance of human equality, the rule of law so that s/he is aware of them and ready to demand them.

Civics for Secondary Schools Book Three: With Practice Questions by Muttamwega B. Mgaywa (1996) covers 10 chapters on economic development, modes of production, the colonial and post colonial economies in Tanzania, environmental issues, as well as human migration and refugees. This book is based on the Civics guide prepared by TIE in 1993. As such it is far removed from the current civics syllabus. As such it is overtaken by events.

The structure and organization of the material in this book gives little room for interactivity and critical reflection on the material by the reader/learner. The questions at the end of each chapter mostly test reproduction of the material rather than ability to relate the theories to present day concerns and issues. There are no case studies, experiences, or moral dilemmas to reflect on, such as corruption, gender, AIDS etc.

In none of the chapters is the rationale provided, which denies the learner of the opportunity to verify the information on their own, or augment the summarized information provided in the chapters. For all the above reasons, the book seems to be guided by a teacher-centered methodology which is undemocratic. On a positive note, however, the book provides illustrations by way of drawings (Karl Marx), and photographs (J.K.Nyerere, tobacco processing, desertification, charcoal burning, waste dumps).

Themes in Civics for Secondary Schools Book 2: With Practice Questions by B. Masatu (1999) is 82 pages thick with a Preface and a Table of Contents. It consists of 9 chapters on Local Government, Central Government, Judiciary, Prevention and abuse of powers in public service, democracy, national constitution, democratic elections, Tanzanian Parliament, Union matters and National Defense. This book is based on the 1997 Civics Syllabus prepared by the Tanzania Institute of Education and produced by the Ministry of Education and Culture. As pointed out in the preface` the book does address the topics in the Form 2 syllabus.

The use of illustrations such as organograms and charts adds to the attractiveness of the book. The visual aids are used to explain the organizational structure of urban councils, district councils, the division of powers in the United Republic of Tanzania, government sources of revenue, and how the law is made in Tanzania.

The shortcomings observed in Mgaywa's book (1996) apply here as well. In addition, there are editorial shortcomings related to style and grammar. The transition from one chapter to another chapter is not smooth. On this point, the book is not reader friendly. There are also grammatical errors, incomplete sentences, missing articles, prepositions, spelling mistakes, inconsistency in the use of capital letters such as president, council, mayor, cabinet, lack of or inappropriate use of punctuation marks. Also, there are factual errors like a 'ruining mate' (page 20, bottom), President/Vice President combination, and the statement that all laws of the land are found in the constitution (page 43), (A correct statement would be that all laws of the land are derived from the constitution). In addition, the author's exclusive use of the pronoun 'he' indicates bias in favor of men holding positions in the civil service and in government (pages 23-24).

Themes in Civics for Secondary Schools Book 3: With Practice Questions by B. Masatu (2000) is 111 pages long. The topics include: development, unemployment, health, environmental education, environmental degradation, industrialization and urbanization population, public service, the rule of law, colonial economy in Tanzania, and public legal education. At the end of each chapter, some exercises are given. The exercises are supposed to help students to understand the content. This book is based on the 1997 civics syllabus and covers most topics in the Form 3 syllabus.

Generally speaking the whole book does not hang together. There is no theme that runs through the chapters, and no unifying concepts whatsoever. The author suddenly plunges into the first topic; there is no general introduction explaining what this book is about, and why it is important to get knowledge about the topics such as development, unemployment, health, environmental education etc. There is no smooth transition between the chapters, and no contextualization of the material. There are spelling mistakes, grammar errors, and some missing information. For example on page 65 top you read: 'In chapter … we saw how agriculture, deforestation and mining affect the environment'. The chapter number is omitted. No attempt is made in this book to use figures, statistics or drawings to illustrate issues like unemployment in Tanzania.

Themes in Civics for Secondary Schools Book 4: With Practice Questions by B. Masatu (2000) is 129 pages thick. It covers the following topics: Culture, national culture, differences in culture, the organization of African Unity, international cooperation, foreign policy and the United nations and its organs. The book is based on the 1997 Civics syllabus and covers most of the topics in the Form 4 syllabus.

The colours of the National Flag on the cover page are misleading. The pink colour should be replaced by blue colour. The style is not reader friendly; there is no general introduction to synthesize and provide a rationale for the book. The author plunges straight into the topics, although within each chapter there is an introduction. The relationship between topic, subtopic and sections is not observed; - there is no systematic use of italics, bold and capitals. There are no references or illustrations except one. Very few typographical errors were noticed. On the whole, this book is better than the previous books by the author.

There is a very useful definition of culture in the first chapter on page 1, where culture is defined as all that has been created by man. The first chapter is smooth, logical and sequential. Nevertheless, national culture is not clearly defined. What is it that makes culture national (page 17)? Where the author describes national culture as a symbol of national identity one is tempted to equate it with national institutions such as the National Sports Council, Department of Museums, Antiquity, and mass media. The

author does not present the idea of national culture as an issue, and the notion of a national culture as an ideology of the dominant culture used to safeguard class interest. There is no open discussion about value conflicts between various cultures, how those conflicts can be resolved so that followers of all cultures can live in harmony, and how the topic on culture can be linked to the development of a democratic political culture. The chapter on Africa's regional and economic groupings should be updated to include the African Union. The inclusion of tolerance as a virtue and reflective questions at the end of each chapter does contribute to the development of an inquiring mind among the learners.

Civics for Secondary Schools. For Form One by Zablon M. Manzi (2000) is 113 pages long. It is divided into nine chapters covering the following topics: Our nation; colonial invasion, the struggle for freedom, independence landmarks, activities of the Tanzania people, labor in national development, human rights, rights and responsibilities of special groups, and responsible citizenship in Tanzania. This book covers all the topics suggested in the Form One Civics Syllabus. As such its relevance cannot be doubted.

Generally speaking, the book is well written in a style that is very appropriate to Form One students of Tanzania. It contains illustrations, drawings, photographs, maps, tables, and a glossary. At the end of every chapter, there are reflective questions. The use of illustrations and graphics makes the book interesting to look at and to read. The language used makes the material easy to understand. There is internal coherence in the content within each chapter.

The book lacks a preface or introduction to contextualize it within the Tanzanian civics curriculum. Each chapter stands on its own, and there is no attempt to link them together. Moreover, the title for Chapter 4: 'Independence Landmarks' is a misnomer. What the author actually means is 'national symbols'!

ETHNIC AND NATIONAL IDENTITY

Introduction

You will have noticed that every beginning and close of each new day the state radio (TBC) broadcasts the 'National Anthem'. We also refer to the late Mwalimu Julius Kambarage Nyerere as the 'Father of the Nation'. Recently, the President of the United Republic of Tanzania launched the issuing of 'national identity' cards to some citizens in Dar es Salaam. In the same vein, the civics syllabus for secondary schools has 'Our Nation' as one of the topics. Have you stopped think about the meaning of the possessive term 'our nation' and why it is important to understand it? In this module you will have an opportunity to reflect systematically on that emotive term which expresses feelings of nationalism and national identity – an important element in defining one's identity beyond considerations of gender, ethnicity, religion, or class.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this topic you will have

i.   searched for the definitions of related words such as 'state', 'empire', 'nation' and 'nationalism' so as to better understand the meaning of the emotive expression 'our nation';

ii. explained the roots of national consciousness or 'nationalism' historically;

iii. analyzed the relationship between national identity and other forms of identity based on gender, ethnicity, religion, or class;

Section 1: Key definitions

What is nationalism? Is *nation* the same as *country*? Is "state" the same as "nation"? Is nation the same as 'empire'? What is national identity? How does it differ from ethnic or

other forms of identity? Getting answers to these questions is important for several reasons:

i. to get you to think about these concepts systematically and comprehensively

ii. to explore the various meanings of the terms we use

iii. to better understand the political, historical, and social context of the meanings;

iv. to become familiar with the idea that various meanings can co-exist, each one making a contribution to an analysis.

Also, the several meanings of a term are useful for different kinds of scholarly and political goals. Through interaction with the materials in this module you will come to understand how various historical processes have shaped people's consciousness about who they are.

Activity

Read the following references and write your own notes on the following terms: nation, state, empire, national identity.

References

(i) Eriksen (2002). *Ethnicity and Nationalism: Anthropological Perspectives* (2nd ed.). London: Pluto Press.

(ii) J.K. Nyerere,s (1965).*Freedom and Unity*, OUP. (pp…..)

(iii) Joane, Nagel, (2003). Sex and nationalism: sexually imagined communities

(iv) Joane Nagel, 2003. *Race, Ethnicity, and Sexuality: Intimate Intersections, Forbidden Frontiers*. New York: Oxford.

Section 2: Historical antecedents: nation, state, and empire

In East Africa, as in other parts of Africa, the colonial powers, deployed a divide and conquer strategy and deliberately created colonies that divided up the territories belonging to pre-existing social/cultural groups. Thus, the Maasai in what became German East Africa were separated from their brothers found in Kenya which was colonized by the British through the Anglo German Agreement of 1889. Similarly, the Makonde of Tanganyika were separated from their kith and kin who happened to be in Portuguese Mozambique. At the same time, various social groups lost their ethnic autonomy but later found themselves united as one force against the domination and

exploitation by a colonial power. It is through the struggle for freedom and dignity that the colonized peoples developed national consciousness. Thus, in the context of countries formerly under colonial rule, the idea of a nation or **nationalism** is a product of history.

However, strictly speaking, a **nation** is a cultural entity. A nation sees itself as one people, one culture, and one language. On this note, you may need to contrast it with an **empire**, which by definition is a multicultural entity, because an empire is made up of diverse conquered peoples. Always, empire-builders are interested in building a strong **state**, not a strong nation. In fact, empires have worked against colonized peoples being able to foster nationalist sentiment. This is why so many newly independent countries have found it extremely difficult to unify the populations within their borders (e.g., a very bloody civil war in Nigeria in 1967-68: Biafrans wanted to secede; Ruanda 1994).

Outside Africa the populations that were "tribes," "aboriginals", etc. in the colony, are now considered "ethnic minorities". These minorities are sometimes called the "Fourth World"—small scale ethnic minorities enclaved within a Third-World ("the South", developing nations) state. Modern Third-world states have tried to assimilate, or at least control these 4th-world populations; e.g., the Chinese state is very concerned about members of its "nationalities" in countries bordering China—fears of separatism.

In the 21st century, various other factors have forced many people to flee their homeland in search for wage employment or running away from violence and persecution. As a result many countries now contain recent migrants whose citizen profile differs significantly from that of the early 20th century.

Moreover, with the breakup of the Soviet Union and its satellite countries (E. Europe), new countries emerged, with new assertions of national identity. Previously, many socialist states had seen ethnic loyalties as regressive. During that time, ethnic, religious

activities were repressed or discouraged; e.g., Yugoslavia; the Soviet Union itself; China; Ethiopia; Tanzania.

Nevertheless, under globalization spaces are increasingly being opened up in which to assert **trans-nationalism**; e.g., the formation of the African Union, and of the East African Federation. In Western Europe the formation of the European Union resulted in less power for the nation-state.

Section 3: Relationship between national identity and other forms of identity

The relationship between ethnicity and nationality is complicated. Nationalism holds that political boundaries should be coterminous with cultural boundaries. The term "Nation" as linked to a state is a new idea. The modern sense of the word is no older than the 18th century. "Nations" themselves are also new.

Activity

Discuss "nation," "state," "country," "nation-state" and provide examples of actual nation-states—states that contain only one nation, one "people".

How can we define "nation"?

Eric Hobsbawm, says we can't characterize nation-states by providing an *a priori* (established beforehand), objective set of distinctions that allows us to distinguish a nation from other entities ; each nation is the product of particular, localized, or regional historical conjunctures; it's not like classifying birds or lizards, where you can work out *a priori* criteria; the criteria themselves are fuzzy, shifting and ambiguous (language, ethnicity).

Defining a nation by its members' consciousness of belonging to it is tautological (a circular argument), and provides only an *a posteriori* (afterwards) guide to what a nation is. But, Hobsbawm says that an initial working assumption might be: Any sufficiently large body of people whose members regard themselves as members of a "nation".

Eighteenth century ideas about "the people"

Many of the modern meanings of "nation" simply didn't hold (e.g., ethnicity, common language, religion, territory, common historical memories shared by those seeking to establish themselves as a separate state). Always present: the element of citizenship and mass participation and *desire* to be a national state.

In the 19th century, the principle of nationality, whose primary meaning was political, developed: that a "people" should constitute a state (under some conditions). The state had to be viable (culturally, economically, size). After World War I, the "principle of nationality" appeared in peace treaties and produced a Europe of 26 states (27 if we add Irish Free State). None of these were then, nor are now, nation-states (i.e., a single "people"). A recent study of regionalist movements in W. Europe alone counts 42 of them.

Notion of self-determination

The notion of each "people" needing to be independent and sovereign was evolving during the late 19th and early 20th century. Liberal philosophy aided this evolution of the "principle of nationalism". Changes in economic system also supported the shift.

Characteristics of nationalism

Nationalism is primarily a principle that holds that the political and national unit should be congruent. "Nation" is not primary nor an unchanging social entity….is historically grounded, the "nation-state" meaning emerged fairly recently. Although nationalist sentiment may contend that "a people" (a nation) have lived a long time in the same place, nations are not natural, God-given, etc. Nationalism sometimes takes preexisting cultures and turns them into nations. Nationalism emerges only at a point of intersection of politics, technology and social transformation.

So, nations are dual phenomena

But any analysis must include John Stuart Mills's notion of desire: the role of ordinary people's assumptions, hopes, needs, longings and interests in the process. By no means do nationalist activists always accurately represent these feelings.

Nationalism and ethnicity

Note that "isms" refer to sets of beliefs, theories, and ideologies. There are two main—often interrelated—meanings for ideology.

 a. First, a pejorative meaning: a given ideology is in fact an illusion, a set of false ideas

 b. Second meaning: the set of ideas that arise from a definite social class or group

According to Gellner, nationalism is a political principle which holds that the political and the national unit should be congruent. So, nationalism is an ideology about culture and power.

On the other hand Benedict Anderson's argument about nationalism posits an **imagined community.**

 a.*Imagined* because members of nations will never know the vast majority of their fellow members; *community* because the ideology holds that members share a culture.

 b. The same goes for large ethnic groups: much of this characterization fits Eriksen's and Maybury-Lewis's discussions of ethnic groups: imagined ethnic community

 c. What's special to the nationalist "imagined community" is that it is seen to be embedded in the state.

 d. The national state is imagined by its members as both inherently limited and sovereign.

 e. The ideology holds that members' loyalty and attachment should be directed towards the state and the legislative system; rather than predominantly towards members of their kin group, religion or village.

Obviously nationalist ideology serves the interests of the state, which needs popular support.

What would the benefits to citizens be?

1. The nation-state offers security and is seen to offer stability

    a. Scholars suggest that at a time of fragmentation of life-worlds, including moral worlds, and the geographical mobility increasingly required by "free labor"

    b. The offer of such stability and security may be very appealing

2. Nationalism creates a sentiment of wholeness and continuity with the past

3. Transcends the alienation or rupture between individual and society produced by modernity

Nationalism, like any "ism," needs believers

1. Nationalism works to change the abstract, anonymous nature of national identity.

2. What are the processes that result in "true believers"? Anderson says that nationalism derives its force from the way it combines political legitimation and emotional power.

3. The goal is to create beliefs accompanied by passion, strong sentiment.

4. The force and persistence of national identity depends in part on arousing such sentiment

   Example: people willing to die for their nation.

5. Symbols and rituals that have the power of creating loyalty and a feeling of belongingness.

6. How to maintain and reinforce nationalist sentiments, loyalties?

7. These symbols and rituals have instrumentalist functions as well as expressive/affect ones.

    Example: Inauguration of the President of the United Republic of Tanzania: Chief justice swears in the incoming President, whose left-hand is on the Bible.

8. Also: the goal of constructing the nation as moral e.g., singing the National Anthem, invoking God's blessings.

9. Symbols, metaphors appropriated from people's everyday experience. The symbols may suggest violence. E.g., Heroes of the Uganda war; Military parades on Independence Day – suggesting that the state has a monopoly on legitimate violence; so, Citizens can feel secure.

10. Sometimes symbolism evoke filial relationship with the founding father(s); e.g., Father of the Nation.

Activity

Consider the use of monuments and national ceremonies in promoting national identity in Tanzania.

Ethnic Identity

Ethnic identity has become more important, more salient, and more significant to the holders of the identity themselves. In this 21st century people are claiming their identity in ways they didn't before. One explanation that's been offered is that there's more anxiety, and fear of cultural standardization, McDonaldization of the world.

Perspectives on ethnic identity

People who study ethnicity use self-ascription to define the phenomenon. The self-ascription approach pays attention to groups that consider themselves as culturally distinctive...employ metaphoric or fictive kinship...there are myths of common origin, they encourage endogamy (marriage within the group); Non-scholarly, everyday meanings of "ethnic" = It refers to a *relationship;* usually refers to a perspective from the majority applied to others; connoting inferiority.

First perspective: analyze the position of an individual

According to Nagel ethnic identity lies at the intersection of individual ethnic self-definition (who I am) and collective ethnic attribution (who they say I am); a dialectic between internal identification and external ascription;

Second perspective involves analyzing the group as a whole—from its point of view and from an external point of view

Ethnic identity in this perspective lies at the intersection of ethnic group self-definition (who we say we are) and non-group ethnic attribution (who they say we are).

A third perspective

This analyzes the state itself and investigates its formulations of ethnic policies, its rationales for them, the history, etc.

Social class

Karl Marx defined social class according to the class's relationship to production: (i) the *capitalists* or *bourgeoisie* own the means of production(ii) the *petit-bourgeoisie* own the means of production but don't employ others (e.g., artisans); (iii) the *proletariat* or working class, who sell their labor (iv) the *lumpen-proletariat*, unemployed or underemployed;

Max Weber used several criteria: Income, education, political influence.

DISCUSS: examples?

Conclusion

In general there are 2 kinds of relationship between social class and ethnicity. An ethnic group may or may not be internally ranked— contain more than one social class. There may be a high correlation between ethnicity and class in a given society: this often happens .

An important lesson in this course is that one identity component (class, gender, nationality, sexual orientation) is always linked to the others—never stands in isolation in the real world. These identity components always co-occur in individuals' identity. Some pairs are seen by members of a given culture to always or usually co-occur.