

Implementing a History Competency-Based Curriculum: Teaching and Learning Activities for a Zambian School History Classroom

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Abstract

In 2013, there was a curriculum review and development process in Zambia. The Zambian education system adopted a competency-based curriculum. The purpose of the curriculum was to provide learners with skills, knowledge, and values that can enable them to compete at a global level. A competency-based curriculum is a complete paradigm shift from a content-based curriculum that merely focuses on the acquisition of knowledge. Thus, there is a need for teachers to interpret the competency-based curriculum correctly so that they could implement it effectively. In a competency-based curriculum, a teacher needs to design activities that can help learners to cultivate the desired competences in their field of study. These activities could be individual learner activities and participative activities. Teaching and learning activities that can be used in the teaching and learning of History include research, group work, discussions, question and answer method, role-plays, drama, field trips, debate, and teacher exposition. In conclusion, a brief analysis of the implications of teaching using the competency-based curriculum has been done.

Keywords: competency-based curriculum, content-based curriculum, competencies, history, teaching.

1.0 Introduction

Curriculum implementation includes the provision of organized assistance to teachers in order to ensure that the newly developed

curriculum and the most powerful teaching strategies are actually delivered at the classroom level (Bediako, 2019). Garba (2004) viewed curriculum implementation as the process of putting the curriculum into work for the achievement of the goals for which the curriculum is designed. Despite major reforms in the education sector in Africa, the implementation of the outcomes/competency-based curriculum for history has not been done effectively in the classroom of many countries in Africa. For instance in South Africa, although the History subject curriculum reform that was adopted was thoughtful and visionary, Felisa, Tibbitts & Weldon (2017) have argued that teacher support was inadequate to prepare teachers for these new pedagogical methods and responsibilities to contribute towards the transitional justice project. Even though Malawi, took a deliberate measure to have History included as a core subject in the New Malawi Secondary School Curriculum, History teachers in school lacked learning resources to be the main obstacle teachers face while implementing Innovative Teaching Methods (Mwale, 2018).

While the teaching of History in Africa is said to incorporate learner-centred methods of teaching, other scholars have revealed that it still remains largely teacher-centred. For instance, Tawanda (2018) noted that literature on Zimbabwe shows that teachers had hardly changed the way they taught despite numerous curriculum reform initiatives aimed at changing their teaching practices. Similarly, Moyo (2014:16) recognized that history pedagogy in Zimbabwe was characterized by “rote learning and memorization of facts, and uncritical reading of text by teachers and students.” The lecture method, however widely used in Nigerian secondary school system does not result in a noticeable change in attitude held, while retention of information disseminated is also poor (Afolabi,2018). In Tanzania, teachers perceived history as an important subject in secondary school education. They acknowledged the use of both teacher-centred and learner-centred teaching methods in teaching history, with more use of teacher-centred methods (Namamba & Rao, 2017).

Sibanda & Blignaut, (2020) have noted that are different interpretations of what the aims and purposes of a history curriculum should be. The duo further argues that in order to keep up with the constantly contested priorities of a history curriculum, these different conceptions are illustrative of what Davies and Hughes (2009) describe as an ‘ideological fracture’ within public education policy. Sibanda & Blignaut, (2020) have argued by stating that it is imperative to discuss the different approaches to school history, in order to determine whether teachers are aware of these approaches in their praxis (Sibanda & Blignaut, 2020). Therefore, it can be argued that it is important that teachers of history are aware and knowledgeable of the curriculum they are implementing. Popkewitz (2001:153) accurately acknowledges the History curriculum is a “disciplining technology that directs how an individual is to act, feel, talk, and see the world and self.”

According to Nordgren (2017:6), curriculum goals of any school subject are both disciplinary and political “acquisition of knowledge and the serving of societal, cultural and individual expectations”. Equally, Bertram (2019) argued that both curriculum designers and implementers contend with disciplinary and political forces that seek to influence the development and implementation of the curriculum particularly the History curriculum. In turn, the focus of the curriculum determines and influences the selection of topics and how concepts are related and structured (Bertram, 2016). Arguably, approaches to the History curriculum also determine and influence how teachers implement or use the history classroom (Sibanda & Blignaut, 2020). In that regard, it is very important that teachers of history are equipped with the skills to implement the curriculum effectively.

In Zambia, Namangolwa’s (2013) work revealed that teachers of History in Zambia did not frequently use learner-centred methods during the teaching and learning process of History. Correspondingly, Kabombwe (2019) argued that the implementation of the competency-based curriculum by teachers of History in Zambia was hampered by a number of challenges such as lack of knowledge of the competency-based curriculum, learner’s

competences, competency-based teaching, and learning approaches, teaching and learning materials, and assessment methods.

In the same vein, Luambano (2014) has contested that the concept of the competency-based curriculum (CBC) and constructivist approaches are in reality the same thing but in another language of explanation. The constructivist approach insists that learners should be given chances to work, play with others, learn through observation, talk, and work in groups (Stanley, 2007). Competency-Based Approaches (CBA) require activities for learners to be involved in the process of learning. The activities and the involvement which a teacher needs to take into consideration should fall in line with the characteristics of Learner-Centred Approaches (LCA) (Luambano, 2014). Thus, it can be argued that a competency-based curriculum is activity-based.

The European Union (2016) stated that learning activities are defined as any activity organized with the intention to improve a learner's knowledge, skills and competences. They are guided teaching tasks or assignments for learners. Mahaye (2000:210) reiterated that it is imperative that teachers always ensure that classroom teaching-learning activities are brought into alignment with learning outcomes. Mahaye (2000:210) defined a "teaching strategy" as "a broad plan of action for teaching- learning activities with a view to achieving one or more specific outcomes". A "teaching method" he described as "a particular technique a teacher uses to help learners gain the knowledge they will need to achieve the desired outcome".

Since Zambia is now implementing a competency/ outcomes-based curriculum acquisition of competences by learners is the core focus of a competency-based curriculum. The aim of the Zambian History syllabus for senior secondary school is to allow learners to apply historical knowledge, skills and values to enable them to understand historical events, evaluate sources of historical information to determine their authenticity, empowering learners with skills to write reasoned essays on historical topics, to enable learners to evaluate the social, political, economic and cultural

challenges in society with a view to offering possible solutions (CDC, 2013:3). The syllabus is in line with the Outcomes - Based Education (OBE) principles that seek to link education to real-life experiences that give learners skills to assess, criticize, analyse, and practically apply the knowledge that helps them gain life skills (CDC, 2013: 4). Competency-based education and Outcomes-based education mean one and the same thing (CDC, 2013). Therefore, a teacher is suggested to be at the centre and take a huge responsibility for designing teaching and learning activities that can enable learners to acquire competencies that are relevant in the field of History.

Mazabow (2003) argued that to construct learning experiences that lead to the mastery of outcomes, teachers have to make informed decisions about the type of activity that should be initiated to achieve the required outcome. Hence, Mazabow's (2003) argument is valid because a teaching activity is cardinal in cultivating a competence. Furthermore, a "competency-based curriculum requires teachers to have clarity of focus, reflective designing, setting high expectations for all learners" (MoGE, 2013: 4). Thus, Mulenga & Lubasi, (2019) contended that time a teacher allocates and uses for teaching and learning activities is important because the amount of time that learners actually spend on learning-related activities is critical for improving learning outcomes.

2.0 Purpose of the Study

Teaching History using competency-based approaches of teaching and learning can help learners acquire competencies such as historical skills, historical terminology and concepts. However, despite teachers having continuous professional development meetings (CPD) most teachers of History were not conversant with competency-based approaches of teaching and learning History (Kabombwe, 2019). Lack of knowledge of competency-based approaches of teaching and learning by teachers of History might hinder the successful implementing of the competency-based curriculum. In this paper, the authors proposed examples of teaching activities that teachers of History can use to teach Southern African History in Secondary Schools.

3.0 Literature Review

This section reveals different literature on the phenomenon under study. The literature revealed is divided into sub-headings. The literature is divided into three sections. It focuses on the models of history curriculum around the world, curriculum reforms in Africa for history teaching and empirical studies on the implementation of the competency-based curriculum in the classroom in Zambia.

3.1. Models of School History Curriculum

History educators have come up with curriculum models that propose the way history should be taught in schools around the world. According to Steinmuller (1993), a model is information on something (content, meaning) created by someone (sender) for somebody (receiver) for some purpose (usage context). There are two kinds of models that can be applied in developing and implementing a curriculum, namely the top-down or administrative model, and the grassroots model. The top-down model focuses on curriculum development initiatives coming from education officials and the administrators or the holders of the education policy. Then by using the command line, curriculum development goes to the bottom. While in the grass-root model the approach to curriculum development begins with teacher's concerns about the curriculum in a desire to improve it. There are at least four curriculum development models that have been recognized and often used; the Tyler model, Taba model, Oliva model, and Beaucham model. The model names are based on the names of curriculum developers.

Just as they are models of curriculum development there also are several models of curriculum implementation. These models include the 'Overcoming Resistance to Change', Leadership-Obstacle Course' model (LOCM) and The Rand Change Agent (RCA). The 'Overcoming Resistance to Change' (ORC) model rests on the assumption that the success or otherwise of curriculum implementation primarily depends on the impact the developer make on the users of the curriculum such as teachers, students and

the society in general. The other curriculum implementation is the 'Leadership-Obstacle Course' model. This model treats teachers' resistance to change as problematic and proposes that we should collect data to determine the extent and nature of the resistance in implementing the curriculum. There is a 'linkage' model that recognizes that there are innovators in research and development centres such as universities. The other model is the Rand Change Agent (RCA) model suggests that organizational dynamics seem to be the chief barriers to change (Bediako, 2019).

There several models for the school history curriculum which different countries are implementing around the world. One of the models is called the collected memory approach. It focuses on citizenship and nation-building. It is aimed to develop a sense of national identity, and this being regarded as an important means of providing social cohesion in society (Hawkey, 2015). The purpose of this history curriculum is constructed around key moments in a nation's history, selections which tend to include those of patriotic celebration. It includes the history of the victors and established canonical body of knowledge, which reflects the 'knowledge of the powerful' (Young, 2008). Applied in classrooms in England, this model prevailed until the post-colonial challenges of the 1960s and 1970s which served to disrupt this stable and static account. In Africa, Rwanda is a typical example of a country where school history serves political and socialization purposes (Bertram 2019). The aim of the Rwandan school history is to inculcate in students "universal values of peace, respect for personal rights, gender equality, justice, solidarity and develop a patriotic spirit and sense of civic pride" (Bertram 2019:136). This implies that teacher's understanding of the school history curriculum model that a country is using cardinal. The other model is referenced as the disciplinary approach. It focuses on the progressive development of the concepts and processes of disciplinary history. The disciplinary focus of the curriculum promotes historical literacy or historical thinking (Levesque 2008; Seixas & Morton 2013). Central to this model is an understanding that historical thinking, far from encompassing every day, common

sense thinking, is rather a much more ‘unnatural’ (Wineburg, 2001, 2007), and counter-intuitive, way of thinking. It focuses on the development of intellectual, cognitive skills (Counsell, 2011). This purpose prioritizes the concepts and processes involved in doing history, including evidence, inquiry, interpretation, causation, change, and continuity, namely, the disciplinary underpinnings of the subject. The purpose of history education in this case offers a reconceptualization of the subject; rather than being a canonical body of knowledge, history as a form of knowledge is prioritized.

Sibanda & Blignaut (2020) noted that School history curriculums in some parts of the USA, Canada, the Netherlands, Australia, and England are using the disciplinary approach (Bertram, 2019). Consequently, a teacher of history should be knowledgeable of the disciplinary issues are key in history. Learning history at school is concerned with both substantive and procedural knowledge. Substantive knowledge is knowing what happened, when and why (Bertram, 2019), or “what historical knowledge is about” (Moyo and Modiba, 2013) This is what Levesque (2008:9) calls “content” of history. Procedural knowledge focuses on the concepts and vocabulary that provide the “structural basis of the discipline” (Levesque 2008: 20). According to Chapman (2017:15), procedural knowledge relates to “broad concepts and modes of thinking that are necessary in order to build, organize, apply and express historical knowledge and historical thinking”. Hence, it is important that teachers of history understand the concept of substantive and procedural knowledge in history.

Canadian and Australian History curriculums despite their disciplinary focus also use history for national cohesion and identity (Clark 2008, 2009; & Parkes 2007). According to Sibanda & Blignaut (2020), it is not only in the western world where school history has a disciplinary focus. After analyzing Grade 7–9 and Grade 10–12 South African curriculum documents, Bertram (2019:132) asserts that the school History curriculum in South Africa “takes a disciplinary approach to school history”.

The other model is centred on changing the social context within which the curriculum is located (Hawkey, 2015). A curriculum that acknowledges increasing diversity in society and invites the blurring of boundaries between home and school offers great potential to collide with and disrupt all traditional histories (Hawkey, 2015). In England, the 2007 iteration of the history National Curriculum moved in this direction (QCA, 2007). Students were invited to ‘investigate aspects of personal, family or local history and how they relate to a wider context’ while the place of ‘cultural, ethnic, & religious’ diversity within history was also set as a curricular requirement. While this requirement opens up the possibility of a more dynamic curriculum, open to change in response to the changing constituency of society, paradoxically, the identification of ‘cultural, ethnic and religious’ diversity runs the danger of reification of stereotypical responses according to cultural, ethnic or religious group (Hawkey, 2015). However, the school History curriculum may not adequately tell the story of all the people and in most instances promotes the history of one particular group in society over another (Sheldon 2012).

Hawkey (2015) argued that the other model is an outcome curriculum based on outcomes or competences (White, 2003, 2008). The argument for this approach towards the outcome-based curriculum model is that it centres around the need to develop the competencies needed for thriving in a fast-changing world, enabling students to become ‘responsible adults, active citizens, inquisitive lifelong learners and competent skilled employees’ (RSA, 2014). One criticism of this model is that it regards the acquisition and creation of new knowledge as unproblematic, providing the students to have the relevant skills in place. In the context of history, it shows little understanding of how a learner’s acquisition of new information, and ability to convert this into genuine historical knowledge, depends on the ‘learner’s capacity to make sense of it within an existing interpretive framework’ (Harris and Burn, 2011: 257). Thus, when implementing this kind of curriculum model it is very important that teachers of History know the competencies that learners of history

should acquire after secondary school or primary school.

3.2. Curriculum Reform for the History Curriculum in Africa

Bentrovato (2017) argued that most African countries have made prominent changes recently introduced in the teaching and learning of history in secondary schools. Several countries, such as Nigeria, Namibia and Lesotho in revise curricula and textbooks every 5 years. While some countries, such as Cape Verde, Gabon, Kenya, Zambia and Malawi revise curricula and textbooks every 10 years others. Countries such as Ethiopia, Tanzania and Mauritius, revise curricula and textbooks regularly, at intervals ranging from 5 to 10 years many others, such as Côte d'Ivoire, DR Congo and Mozambique, revise curricula and textbooks on an irregular basis (Bentrovato, 2017). It could be argued that the subject of history is still relevant in the school curriculum.

Some of the examples of curriculum reform in Southern Africa include Malawi, Zimbabwe, South Africa and Zambia as earlier mentioned. Malawi adopted an Outcomes-Based Education, in 2007 based on South Africa's C2005 in a bid to pursue the global agenda. The adoption of an Outcomes-Based Education in Malawi could be attributed to the dominant role that South Africa plays in the SADC region. The SADC Protocol on education and training adopted in 1997 promoted an integrated qualifications framework, a key feature of the SA education and curriculum landscape. By 2004 a number of SADC countries including Malawi formulated a curriculum with a strong vocational and training. Consistent with Chisholm's (2005) argument that policies can circulate between levels, moving down from the international to the national and back to the regional, being reshaped in each stage and process to suit local circumstances, the South African C2005 has been reshaped when it was borrowed by Malawi in order to suit the local conditions in Malawi (Naidoo, and Chirwa, 2014). It could be argued that governments in the Sub Sahara region are making an effort to reform their curricula.

South Africa has gone through a wave of curriculum reforms since 1994 culminating in the current third reform known as Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) in 2011 (Bertram 2019).

According to Bertram (2019), School History in South Africa seeks to engage students in “historical inquiry based on skills and develop an understanding of historical concepts, including historical sources, evidence, and a range of interpretations of events” (Bertram 2019: 132). Bertram further observes that at Grades 7–9, school history focuses on unique concepts, and Grades 10–12 has a strong focus on universal concepts. At Grades 10–12, the intent is to demonstrate the “interconnectedness of local and world events” (Department of Basic Education 2011a: 10).

Zimbabwe has not been an exception too. Moyo (2014) argues that some History curriculums introduced after independence stifled critical thinking and creativity in the way history was taught. History teaching failed to develop historical literacy and historical thinking, which is learning historical skills, reconciling different perspectives and making their own judgments about the past (Taylor and Young 2003; Seixas and Morton 2013). Zimbabwe like South Africa since 1980 has experienced waves of curriculum reforms. Sibanda (2019: 13) noted that there was a steep focus on knowledge regurgitation and dissolution of an African identity it ignored “critical thinking”. This history was suddenly replaced by Syllabus 2167 which perceived history as a body of knowledge and sought to build patriotism and Zimbabwean national consciousness in the face of what the state perceived was domestic and international threats to its existence (Moyo 2014; Ndlovu-Gatsheni 2013; Tendi 2010). A new curriculum focusing on outcomes was introduced in 2015 to run up to 2022 (Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education, Zimbabwe). The aims of the new history syllabus among many other aims are to “develop an interest in the study of history; develop appropriate skills and tools of analyzing historical transformations of society; develop a sense of patriotism through appreciation of history. Certainly, the school History curriculum encourages teachers to get back to the facts in their teaching and promote an uncritical view of history teaching (Sibanda & Blijnaut, 2020).

The stakeholder survey by (Bentrovato, 2017) recorded that there

has been an introduction of a number of prominent changes in the most recent rounds of curriculum revision in most countries across Africa. These revisions have been in line with global principles and trends in history education. These adjustments have increased emphasis on African, national, and local history and a concomitant reduction in content related to Western or European history (for example, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cape Verde, Ghana, Namibia) a shift from political history to “people’s history” (e.g Ethiopia) mainstreaming of “emerging issues” or “thematiques d’actualité”, for instance through the integration into history teaching of civic education and environmental questions (for example, Burkina Faso) and of questions related to a “culture of peace” and “living together” (for example, Kenya, Mali, Nigeria) a move from a chronological to a more thematic approach (for example, Burundi, Lesotho, Nigeria)

Expansion of the use of case studies (for example, Namibia) shift to more active, student-centred and participatory pedagogy (for example, Ethiopia, Tanzania) introduction of an “Entrée par les situations” (or “situations-problèmes”) [problem-solving based learning] a more active and situated approach to learning (Côte d’Ivoire, Mali) curriculum revised towards a competency-based curriculum (Chad, Côte d’Ivoire, DR Congo, Mali) and introduction of new evaluation and assessment formats matching changes in educational approaches (for example, Côte d’Ivoire) Whereas in some countries, curricular revisions have led to history being afforded enhanced status as a separate and independent subject (for example, Zanzibar), in other countries such revisions have conversely seen history transitioning from being a separate subject to being integrated into a wider subject area (Madagascar) (Bentrovato,2017).

3.3 Empirical Studies on classroom activities to promote effective curriculum implementation in Zambia.

There seems to be a few studies that have been done on classroom activities that could promote effective implementation of the competency-based curriculum in history teaching and other subjects that are taught in the Zambian school curriculum. Most

studies focused on how the competency-based curriculum could be implemented and the challenges of implementing the competency-based curriculum in Zambia.

Though not in the subject area of History but in Civic Education in Zambia, Kaumba, Kabombwe & Mwanza, (2020) have argued that in an outcomes-based curriculum, developing learner's competences should be core business for the teacher in an outcomes-based curriculum. The scholars argue that though subject specialization is one of the best practices for effective classroom delivery at every level of education there would be a need for teachers to be knowledgeable of the key principles of an outcomes-based curriculum. This implies that knowledge of their subject would enable them to come up with teaching and learning activities in the classroom that relevant to help learners to cultivate the desired competencies for future use in society.

A study by Takuya et al (2019) is related to this study in that it focused on learner's levels of numeracy competencies and strategies that learners could use to develop numeracy competences mathematics in the classroom. The scholars recommend that the learner's meta-cognitive activity would be stimulated if Zambian teachers would more often request explanations and discussion of the student's " calculation strategies. Thus, it could be argued that the teachers' choice of learning activity and effort is key in the successful implementation of a curriculum.

Work done by Chavula and Nkhata (2019) revealed that teachers used learner-centered approaches of teaching in mathematics in Zambia these included demonstration, discussion, problem-solving, question and answer, inquiry and teacher exposition methods. However, their performance in class was affected due to a lack of resources. The study also identified other strategies that could improve learner performance through learner participation in the classroom. It could be noted that the effective implementation of a curriculum is not possible without teaching and learning resources in the classroom.

The teaching and learning environment is one of the key aspects

in a competency- based curriculum. Kasonde, Haambokoma, Milingo, (2013) have noted that providing a conducive environment in the classroom is important. The scholars focused providing a conducive environment utilizing behaviorist principles of education. However, it should be noted that the behaviorist principles not in line with principles of a competency-based curriculum. They have argued that creating a favorable environment for teaching and learning is important. Behaviorist theory encourages teachers to control the learning environment through the right use of reinforcement techniques. Furthermore, they argue that to ensure effective teaching, teachers need to decide exactly what it is they want to teach. This helps the teacher to master the subject matter and to know what responses to look for from the learners. Thus, teachers should make an effort to provide an environment that would help learners cultivate competencies in the classroom.

While Information and Communication Technology (ICTS) skills are important in a competency-based curriculum and classroom studies on the use of ICTs in the classroom reveal that the usage of ICTs is still very low in Zambia. The use of ICTs in learning activities by pupils, the integration of different ICTs by teachers into the various teaching activities was subdued by a number of factors inhibiting full integration of ICTs in the teaching, learning and administrative processes. There were insufficient facilities and equipment such as computer laboratories and computers, internet connectivity, printers, backup generators, overhead projectors and photocopiers (Mtanga, Imasiku, Mulauzi, & Wamundila, 2012: Walubita & Mulauzi, 2016: Akakandelwa, & M'kulama, 2018: Mwiinga, & M'kulama, 2016 & Masumba, 2019). The usage of mobile technologies among student educators to teach mathematics was still low (Mwanza & Nkhata, 2018).

A competency-based curriculum thrives on practical work. Studies on teacher's engagement in practical work in Zambia indicated that for instance, Teachers of integrated science experienced challenges such as overcrowding in classes, language barrier, inadequate professional development, and insufficient instructional time to

cover the syllabus content, and poor administrative support (Miyoba and Banja, 2018). However, Zulu and Mulenga, 2019 that poor results in O-level physics were due to the way the programme was designed. The major hindrance to Learners’ poor comprehension of the subject was teacher pedagogical content knowledge. The case is similar in Vocational Education and Training Institutions (TVET) institutions in Zambia. The institutions were plagued with a number of challenges ranging from lack of appropriate and modern workshop equipment, lack of reading material and ineffective industrial attachment (Chileshe & Mulenga, 2020).

4. 0 Proposed Teaching and Learning Activities for Teaching History in Competency-Based Curriculum

Teachers use a wide-ranging of different teaching and learning activities. The choice of what activity may be effective in the classroom is however determined by the nature of the learning objectives set for the learners (Machila, Sompa, Muleya & Pitsoe, 2018). One of the activities used in the teaching and learning of history in individualized instruction. Gronlund (1974:1-2) defined individualized instruction as “adapting instructional procedures to fit each student’s individual needs so as to maximize his learning and development”. Hence, one of the ways that a teacher of History can teach History using a competency-based approach is using an individualized learning activity. The completion of assignments, usually in the form of essays and written reports, are still important elements in individualized learning activities. Mathews, Moodley, Rheeder & Wilkinson (1992) suggested that such learning activity should be planned to involve learners in, among others, research on a particular topic that is of special interest to them, and through such training in research skills, “they should come to realize the value of the library as a source of information and so break their dependence on the textbook” (Mathews, Moodley, Rheeder & Wilkinson, 1992:61). A study by Mulauzi & Munsanje (2013) in Zambia on the activities that school librarians and teachers undertake to create and promote a reading culture among learners in secondary schools indicated that

the reading culture is still poor in schools. They recommended that a reading environment should be provided for all learners in schools for them to develop a good reading culture.

In this regard, a teacher could give learners a task on the geographical setting of Southern Africa in this instance, a learner is expected to describe the physical and climatic features of Southern Africa as a specific outcome. A teacher can ask learners as individuals to draw a map showing the physical and climatic features of South Africa from a wall map or textbooks. However, these teaching and learning aids should be available otherwise the exercise would be futile. In order for learners to analyze of the influence of physical and climatic features on the distribution of people, a teacher can give learners a task to go and research in the library individually on the reasons behind the distribution of the peoples of South Africa and present in class to their fellow learners. Hence, it can be noted that an individualized learning activity is significant, as it helps learners to cultivate the skills of working independently. It can also help learners realize the importance of completing tasks and have the right attitude towards work in the future.

The other competency-based approach a teacher of History can use is participative learning activities. In this form of activities, learners as a class or in groups of varying sizes play a central role in teaching-learning activities (Mazabow, 2003). There are several effective participative learning activities that might be included in an OBE teaching-learning programme.

Class discussion is another vital activity used in the enhancement of the teaching and learning process in history. According to Larson (1997), class discussion is a structured conversation among participants who present, examine, compare and understand similar and diverse ideas about issues. Class discussion encourages student involvement, higher participation and is effective for developing learners' cognitive skills, such as evaluation and synthesis and it is easy to organize, needing fewer resources (Kagan, 1995). The foundation of co-operatively achieved success is, to a large measure based on "talk". Dunne and Bennette (1990: 8) asserted that "talk

is central to social development and cognitive growth and the two are closely intertwined”. In the discussion, learners “test out ideas ... have to structure their knowledge and find words that will be understood ... (and) make their own opinions known as well as justifying them”.

A teacher could use the discussion method to help learners to describe the causes of the Great Trek such as the introduction of English as official language and law, circuit courts, land tenure, attitude towards Africans. The teacher can divide the class into five groups and give them a topic to research on the causes of the Great Trek. The learners should be given time to go and research and discuss their topic and later present in class.

Dean (1996) maintained that learners start to make learning their own when they have put it in their own words. Mahaye (2000) advised that teachers clearly state the outcomes of the discussion to prevent it from degenerating into mere idle talk and arguments. He stated the requirements for effective discussion as follows: the topic should be meaningful and relevant to the learners, all learners should be given the opportunity to participate fully, teachers should only guide and direct and each learner should have the right to express his/her personal view. Hence, it can be noted that a discussion in the classroom would enable learners to acquire competencies such as respect and tolerance for one another as they give each other turns to discuss the key issues on the topic they have been given by the teacher.

History teachers use group work also known as a cooperative learning activity. For instance, the teacher can use group work to help learners explain the relationships between the Bantu and Saan and Khoi-Khoi to explain the conflict between the Khoi-Saan and the Bantu over resources such as land, water, pasture and livestock. This exercise can enable learners to assess the relationship between the Bantu and the Saan and Khoi-Khoi. This can be done by giving learners various sources on the Bantu, Saan and Khoi-Khoi to research on, discuss and present what could have caused the conflicts over land, water and livestock. The number of learners in each group

should be manageable.

Group work gives pupils the opportunity to work together and thereby developing essential social skills (Kagan, 1995). Schoeman (2003) listed three main types of group work which are used regularly in the classroom. The first one is a joint activity in groups with individuals and products (the Delta technique). In this activity, ideas and knowledge are shared by the members of the group but the end product consists of individual projects or presentations. The second one is individual activity combined into one joint group end product (the Puzzle technique). In this activity, individual work is initially done by each member of the group. On completion of individual projects, the work is then combined to form one joint product. The third is the joint activity with one end product (the Snowball technique). This activity consists of the joint activity of group members working on one end product (Schoeman, 2003:18). Maloch (1999) also echoed that group work helps learners to receive social support and encouragement, to take risks, develop new approaches to resolving differences and establish a shared identity with group members. The teacher takes the role of a facilitator, either as a participant in the group or as an outsider almost in a consultant's role (Brandes & Ginnis, 1996). Therefore, it is clear that group work can be an effective method to motivate learners, encourage active learning, and develop key critical-thinking, communication, and decision-making skills, which are key elements of the competency-based education.

The other used method for effective teaching and learning in history is question and answer. The teacher can use the question and answer method to describe the movements of Bantu speaking people into Southern Africa such as the Nguni speaking groups in the eastern wing and the Ambo and Herero group in the western wing. This can be done using a map showing the movements of the Bantu-speaking people into South Africa by a teacher. Morgan and Saxton (1991: 22) argued that effective questioning has the "power to generate vivid ideas, spur the imagination and incite both teacher and student into a shared, creative learning experience". They maintained that

in order to be an effective teaching-learning activity, questions should be perceived by learners as “a dialogue in which everyone’s thoughts, feeling and actions, are important elements for collective and individual understanding”. Thus, it should be noted that the question and answer method is important, as it helps to develop reasoning among learners, a competence that is required in everyday life. This is in line with the context of the European Qualification Framework, which stated that “competence means the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development” (Nikolov, et al., 2014:5).

The project method also aids in ensuring effective teaching in history education. A teacher could give learners a task to collect pictures and materials in groups depicting the Apartheid Era in South Africa and explain to the class at the end of the term as a project. The picture should show the conflicts over ownership of resources, social services and provision of labour in the South African Apartheid society. In the case of history, a teacher can ask pupils to choose a topic then do an investigation or research using different sources. Katz and Chard (1990) explained that the project-based method is a technique where learners can be given a topic to do some studies on. It is a dynamic approach to teaching in which learners explore real life-world problems and challenges simultaneously developing skills while working in small collaborative groups. It inspires students to obtain a deeper knowledge of the topic they are studying. The topic can be selected by the learners depending on the subject or the needed issue. This method is learner-centered as learners would use their own initiative to collect and analyze data and demonstrate their writing skills in the learning process through the project they would carry out. Project work can be done individually and can also be done in groups. The main objective of doing projects in History is to foster better learning and encourage active learner participation (Simasiku, 2013). Thus, it is clear that the project method was likely to enable learners of History to acquire research skills that are relevant to the global industrial market.

Problem-solving and discovery learning are learner-centred approaches that are used in the teaching and learning of History as well. In discovery learning, learners are actively seeking new knowledge and learners are engaged in hands-on activities that are real problems needing solutions. A teacher could give learners a task in a group to do research and explain how the effects of the Mineral Revolution that occurred in South Africa could have been avoided in the 21st Century in Southern Africa. Learners are expected to come up with solutions to the classroom on the day of presentations.

Learners have a purpose for finding answers and learning more (Musca and Howard, 1997). According to Bonwell (1998), the focus of discovery learning is learning how to analyze and interpret information so as to understand what is being learnt, rather than just giving the correct answer from rote memorization. Clearly, the problem-solving method is of value in a competency-based curriculum, as it may help learners to develop all-rounded and make a meaningful contribution to society.

Another constructivist approach teachers of History may use in the teaching and learning of history is the debate method. Kagan (1995) stated that debate involves a situation whereby the teacher gives a motion to two groups and one of them opposes the motion while the other group proposes the motion. Afterward, the class discussion/ learning discussion can follow. Darby (2007) further stated that debate is a powerful pedagogical strategy that forces learners to become immersed in research to support their arguments. It is one of the many different ways to teach a lesson to the class (Simasiku, 2014). Since the ancient Greeks, the debate method has long been a favourite method of teaching because of its benefits.

A teacher could give learners a motion of debate on the causes of the Mfecane. The teacher can divide the class into two and give them the motion on 'The Mfecane was caused by external factors or in Nguniland'. The learners are to meet and discuss and come up with points if they are proposing or opposing. Darby (2007) asserted that debate dependently maintains learners' attention for longer times

than lecturing. By engaging the learners directly, they become part of the discussion and they hold the information or lesson they are taught much better. The debate also provides a platform for learners to express themselves and can boost learners' confidence and public speaking skills. Thus, it is clear that teachers of History have several activities of teaching and learning might help learners acquires the intended competencies of the 2013 revised curriculum.

Role-play is another effective method that a history teacher can use in their class. The teacher can give learners an activity such as a role-play to depict the socio-economic and political organization of the Saan and Khoi-Khoi so that they can an appreciation of the way of life of the indigenous Africans of South Africa. In the role-play the learners would have can a role play to show the social, economic and political organization of the Saan and Khoi-Khoi people. Role-playing refers to the changing of one's behaviour to assume a role, either unconsciously to feel a social role, or consciously to act an adopted role. Maloch (1999) stated that when learners engage in role-play, it helps them to develop their way of thinking and feelings of empathy.

Role-plays help learners to cope with real-life situations that support their social and emotional growth. Rately and Sattelmair (2009) further indicated that role plays are a vital activity for learners, as stimulate their imagination and enhance their social development. Role-play encourages friendship through cooperation, listening and turn-taking. It can improve learners' language skills and help them to understand different points of view, go into the future or the past and travel anywhere in the world and beyond. Therefore, it can be noted that the learner-centered method of teaching and learning using role-play is important as it can help learners acquire values and attitudes which are relevant in society.

Another important constructivist approach in the teaching and learning of History is a field trip. Maloch (1999) stated that the purpose of the field trip is usually observation for education, non-expert research or to provide learners with experiences outside the everyday activities. The aim is to observe the subject in its natural state

and if possible even to collect samples. Field trips are an interactive method of teaching because they give learners opportunities to widen their practical and cultural experience by varying their learning environments. Field trips could also be used as a chance for a collection of data for later analysis, to generate artwork and stimulate discussions both on-site and back in class (Maloch, 1999). The school can organize a trip to visit sites that were inhabited by an early man so that learners can see the environment and activities of early man. Since the Saan people were the earliest in Southern Africa the teacher can take learners to sites such as Kalambo Falls to see sites where early man settled.

The drama method can be used to enhance effective teaching/learning in history. For example, learners can be given a task to dramatize the course of the Great Trek. The class can be divided into 3 groups representing the three leaders who took part in the Great Trek Retief, Potgieter and Trigardt. Learners should be given the material to read before the day of presenting the play and they should assign roles to each other so that the routes are clear and the settlements are mapped out clearly in the play. Drama as a learner-centered method has a limitation in the sense that only a few learners can participate at a time thereby making it not an inclusive method for all learners. Drama requires impersonation, personification and involvement (Maloch, 1999).

Drama aims to re-create the human experience. The pupil-actor is personally affected by the experience and this motivates him or her to know and understand more. All points of view are articulated so that situations are clear. Drama-based history lessons aim to enable the learner to speak or act as their character would have done. Almost any topic, story, or event can become the basis of a drama experience for learners (Maloch, 1999). For that reason, the drama method is relevant as it may help learners to be critical and make a positive contribution to society.

Teacher exposition can also be used as one of the methods of effective teaching/learning in history. The teacher can use teacher exposition to describe the various liberation movements in South

Africa after the formation of the Union of South Africa to help the learner understand what led to the formation of The African National Congress (ANC) and the Pan-Africa Congress (PAC). The History syllabus for the 2013 revised curriculum in Zambia highlighted teacher exposition as one of the methods of teaching History using outcome-based approaches (CDC, 2013). Expository teaching, presents a rich body of highly related facts, concepts, and principles which the learners can learn and transfer. While teacher exposition is a teacher-centered method, it can be used in competency-based teaching approaches to provide knowledge for learners so that they can develop skills. In expository teaching, the teacher gives both the principles, problems and solutions. Hence, it is clear that acquiring knowledge is important in order for learners to acquire skills. However, it is not advisable to use teacher exposition throughout the lesson, the teacher should try and integrate with other methods of teaching so that learners can cultivate the relevant competences.

5.0 Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be argued that teaching and learning activities play a major role in the implementation of the competency-based curriculum. Furthermore, teachers and learners have unique responsibilities that they should take up for a competency-based curriculum to be successfully implemented. Nordstrum, (2015) contends that it is commonplace to assume that teachers, and the actions they take in the classroom, have fundamental impacts on student learning. A competency-based curriculum if well implemented can help learners to acquire competencies that could be relevant for learners to use in the global community. However, teaching History using a competency-based curriculum requires teachers who are properly in- serviced in competency-based teaching and learning approaches, adequate time on the timetable, availability of teaching and learning resources and financial resources. Therefore, there would be a need for more time to be allocated on the time in order for History to be taught effectively using a competency-based curriculum.

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