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THE PLACE OF CLASSICAL CIVILIZATION  
IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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by

ANNE CAROLINE MORTON

Rhodes University, Grahamstown.

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Dedicated to Ian -  
and to our children who have  
helped us to grow old gracefully -  
Eiona and Hamish

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INTRODUCTION

'Truly the gods have not from the beginning  
revealed all things to mortals, but by long seeking  
mortals make progress in discovery.'

Xenophanes of Colophon, 18.

The Greek and Latin languages have, for centuries, been the vehicle of ideas: the means by which the transmission of the legacy of Greece and Rome has been passed on to succeeding generations of men. To later centuries, the Greek world was seen as the cradle of Western Civilization; knowledge of the world in which they lived, was pursued for its own sake. Experts in the visual arts, the Greeks expressed their thoughts in marble, pottery, ivory and precious metals. Masters in the literary arts, the Greeks portrayed not only their wide-ranging intellectuality, but also consummate skill in transmitting their laughter, sorrow, morality and brilliance through a variety of literary genres. The Greeks bequeathed the science of medicine, astronomy, mathematics, physics; the intellectual pursuit of philosophy; the importance of education and schools; the strivings toward physical and artistic perfection.

The Romans have given the world a different legacy: the art of government and the formulation of laws; building and engineering techniques; the responsibility of conquest and the structure of the civil service, organisation of war and the logistics of men and weapons in defence; and the importance of individualism in politics, religion and aesthetics.

There has been a growing Twentieth Century interest in the Greek and Roman world, beyond just the Classical languages. Greater understanding of the societies of Greece and Rome and an increased knowledge of the

achievements of the Greeks and Romans, has resulted from modern research. The findings of archaeologists; anthropologists; historians; art historians; specialists in sculpture, painting and architecture, and town planning; and classicists, made available to the general public in English (as well as other European languages), has heightened an awareness of the range of interests which a study of the classical world has to offer. Classical Studies, as a subject, has not been seriously presented in many schools until fairly recently. Britain initiated the introduction of Classical Studies to the school curriculum in 1974, and interest has continued to grow steadily in other countries like America, New Zealand, Australia and Canada.

This thesis was started on the assumption that this entirely new subject could be introduced into the curriculum for standard six and seven pupils at South African schools, for reasons which will be given later. As work continued on the thesis, the 1985 syllabus for Latin lent it further impetus. Some of the implications of the new Latin syllabus will be considered in the conclusion.

The thesis is presented in two parts. Part I examines Latin in the past, and moves on to Latin in the twentieth century, before considering both Latin and/or Classical Civilization in the twentieth century curriculum. Part II critically examines Classical Studies as presented in Britain, Ontario, New Zealand and Australia. A sample syllabus is then offered, with comments on methodology, resources and evaluation techniques. The thesis concludes with comments on the problems of implementation and on the 1985 Latin syllabus.

PART I

CHAPTER 1

Language has long been a vehicle for the transmission of ideas. This is true of all languages, and particularly of Greek and Latin.

The rôle of Greek and Latin has changed over the centuries. In Roman times, Greek was part of the school curriculum for boys, and fluency in Greek was one of the marks of an educated Roman. When the West Roman Empire fell, Greek disappeared as a spoken language for nearly a thousand years. Latin, too, suffered. It was preserved by the church, but was diluted by the ordinary people, eventually to be incorporated into the Romance languages of French, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese. With the revival of learning under Charlemagne and Alcuin of York, Latin became the medium of instruction not only in the Palace schools, but in the Catholic Church as well.

Education during the 9th and 10th centuries was the preserve of the wealthy members of society, and of scholarship. It rested on a thorough knowledge of the writings of the Latin authors. Latin was a universal language used in every church in England and on the Continent. Monasteries controlled the preservation and reproduction of manuscripts, founded schools and provided the teaching staff in Cathedral Schools (which were the forerunners of universities). Latin was also the language of diplomacy and of State. The appointment of Bishops and Clergy to State ministries and clerical posts paved the way to church control over the State. Latin now became the lingua franca of the educated man, but it also became a means of political and social control which separated the Peasantry from the Nobility and the Nobility from the Clergy.



When the Cathedral schools taught Latin to their pupils, it served the purposes of the church. Latin was taught so that the catechism could be learned, and in order that the congregation could make its responses to the liturgy. But Latin was no longer a spoken language for the majority of people. From the 11th Century onwards, it had to be learned as a foreign language.

With Latin no longer a spoken language, craftsmen, merchants and artisans in the towns spoke in the vernacular. The lesser Clergy learned only sufficient Latin to conduct services, and then it was often no more than the liturgy learned by rote. By the 13th Century, monastic and conventual rules were no longer written in Latin. Even some of the sons of the nobility, appointed to high office in the church, were ignorant of Latin - the church could do little about this situation because the appointments were often political.

The struggles for political control in the 14th Century marked the waning of church dominance in the affairs of State. Although education was still in the hands of the church, the dominance of Latin was, in many countries, challenged by the inclusion of other disciplines in the educational curriculum. Law, notarial studies and accounting techniques were included in grammar school and university curricula in Italy; and Italian literature in the vernacular became a very successful threat to Classical Latin literature as reading matter.

Nevertheless, education, before the 16th Century in the rest of Europe, was unthinkable in any language other than Latin. Latin was the school curriculum. But the re-discovery of Greek texts after the fall of Constantinople offered new interpretations of what the educated man should know. The Renaissance led to a free and unfettered study of all that

appealed to the intellect of man. This 'Revival of Learning' saw a return to the writings of Classical authors, both Latin and Greek, and inaugurated a free study of their works, the assimilation of Roman and Greek reason and the introduction of philological studies of the two Classical languages. The 'New Learning' involved the re-discovery of Greek, but a more important aspect was the study of the languages and the writings they generated, for the values and knowledge that could be gained from them; and for the elegance of their styles which had to be appreciated and had to be imitated closely by men of culture.

This emphasis was very different from the rôle Latin played in the mediaeval world, when it was used as a means of communication across vernacular barriers. The new view of what the Classics had to offer was not easy to implement, because highly cultured teachers in large numbers were required to teach it. In practice, few schools were able to reach those high levels of scholarship, or if they did, to maintain it over a succession of teachers for any significant period of time. Those advocates of the study of the litterae humaniores, the Humanists, are best represented by Vittorino da Feltre, the most famous of the early Humanist schoolmasters. His ideal was the patriotic and well-equipped citizen rather than the self-contained scholar, following the dicta of Quintilian, Plutarch and Cicero (Beck, 1965, p 55).

Classics formed the foundation of the curriculum in the Humanist schools. In addition to their value in stimulating literary taste and culture, they provided a disciplinary training based on the oratical style and language of Cicero. Scholars "did not question that one of the Latin greats should furnish the style of contemporary language" (Beck, 1965, p 57). As all the instruction at high school level was in Latin, con-

formity in the Latin used in schools was very important. Erasmus protested in vain against the excessive imitation of the Ciceronian Humanists:

"Times have changed. Our instincts, needs, ideas are not those of Cicero. Let us indeed take example from him. He was a borrower, an imitator, if you will; but he copied in order to assimilate, to bring what he found into the service of his own age".

Dialogus Ciceronianus (1527-28) 25:53.

To Erasmus, Humanism was only the means to the propagation of truth; to the Ciceronian Humanists, it was an end in itself. Humanist studies often degenerated into "increasing attention to grammar and style - to form, rather than content" (Beck, 1965, p 58), a practice schools continued to follow for the next two or three centuries. The Latin Gymnasien, founded by Sturm (1507-1589) in Strassbourg, became the model which the grammar schools of Protestant Europe strove to copy: in this school, practically the whole of the time was given over to acquiring a mastery of the Latin language (Bowen Vol II, 1975, p 396). There is, however, another aspect of Renaissance education, the education of the Leader. This was not met by a gymnasien or grammar school education. The Rutterakadamien in Germany was a 16th Century example of an attempt to broaden the curriculum to meet the practical needs of the pupils. Subjects like military strategy, horsemanship, navigation and social mores and etiquette were included in the curriculum alongside Latin and Greek literature.

St Paul's School, founded by Dean Colet in England (1512), provided for a distinctively Humanist education. The Statutes of St Paul's Grammar School embrace Colet's Humanist views:

"I would they were taught always in good literature both Greek and Latin and good authors such as have the verrey Roman eloquence joined with wisdom with clean and chaste Latin, either in verse or prose".

In Catholic countries, the church retained entire control of education, and Loyola's Society of Jesus, established many schools which were extremely successful. The curriculum in these schools too, was purely Humanistic.

While Latin remained the medium of learning, and as long as new scientific knowledge was still expanding slowly, the schools remained in harmony with the culture of the day. To Vives, the 16th Century Humanist and tutor of Henry VIII's daughter, the Classical writers were a constant reference and guide: Strabo (C 63 BC?) was the authority on Geography, Aristotle (384-322 BC), on animals. Theophrastus (C 287 BC) was consulted on plants, while Dioscorides (C 60 AD) was the authority on herbs. Oppianus was the reference for treatise on fish, and Pliny the Elder (23-79AD) provided whatever knowledge was required on gems and metals.

The Reformation, and the consequent translation of the Bible into vernacular languages, created a different climate for education. Where before Latin was learnt as the only language in which to study holy writ, and therefore assured church control of religion and education, access to the Bible was now to be made available to all people who could read in the vernacular. The increasing use of the printing press made it possible for greater numbers of books to be reproduced for general consumption. During the 17th Century, the difference between the needs of life and the education provided by the Grammar and other Classical schools became gradually wider, as the vernacular languages were accepted as the medium of instruction.

Realists in education, like Comenius (1592-1671), maintained that things, not words, must provide the base upon which education is built, and that the child must be brought into contact with the concrete before proceeding to the abstract. This was another major attack on Latin dominance of the school curriculum. John Milton (1644) held that the duty of the teacher was to provide an education for living, by preparing the child for life. Education was for the "all-round leader in society"; pupils should "pursue studies in terms of their applicability to the world". As well as formal Latin and Greek grammar, pupils should also study "Geography ... Geometry, Mathematics (Arithmetic), and Astronomy". Only after completing studies in Trigonometry, Fortifications, Architecture, Engineering or Navigation, Natural Philosophy and Anatomy, should pupils move on to Logic and Rhetoric (Beck, 1965, p 67). There is a decided echo of the curriculum used in the Ritterakadamien.

These additions to the curriculum never displaced the Classical languages, but they did diminish their importance as the sole determinant of the curriculum, as instruction for these new subjects was given in the vernacular. Latin's utilitarian value had declined to the extent that it was retained as an official language only by the Catholic Church. Latin yielded to French as the language of diplomacy; its use as the vehicle of scientific discussion steadily diminished; the rising vernacular literatures replaced its long-held popularity. By the end of the 17th Century, it was no longer the medium of instruction in the universities.

The new justification for Latin's inclusion on the school curriculum was the Aristotlean theory of 'formal discipline': that is, that the mind is made up of various 'facilities', like reason, memory and determination - each of which needs to be activated through special training. "The theory

of formal discipline maintained that the power developed in any faculty by the study of a school subject can be used equally well in any other subject or to meet any other experience of life" (Duggan, 1916, p 183). The subject best suited to the development of these mental facilities, was, it was argued, Latin. There were other reasons motivating the entrenchment of the Classics: developments in techniques of teaching the Classical languages had been tested over the centuries and there was concern that new subjects could not possibly replace Latin and Greek without comparable teaching techniques. Furthermore, the great minds of the past had been shaped by the established discipline of Latin and Greek. In so developing the theory of formal discipline, educationists failed to recognise the need for other subjects on the school curriculum.

The formal discipline theory wielded enormous influence on educational practice. Up to the end of the 19th Century, it was the accepted educational approach in both elementary and higher education. Even though the stress placed on education was that it should be used to initiate social change, and that this should be reflected in the curriculum, at least a half to two-thirds of the curriculum was devoted to Greek and Latin grammar and literature (Campbell, 1968, p 308).

Britain's emergence as the leading industrial nation in the world did not bring home to educationists the different demands of a changed society. If they were wealthy enough, industrial and business magnates sent their sons to Public Schools where the boys would experience not only a Classical education, but also establish important social links with the upper crust of British society. The aesthetic and artistic qualities of Classical Culture were replaced by the political and philosophical aspects to be found in Classical literature. Greek and Hellenistic studies

were gradually dropped in favour of Latin and Roman History - all very much in keeping with Britain and Europe's Imperial ambitions. Greek democracy was shunned in preference for the ideals of leadership expressed by Plato; and works which emphasised patriotism and duty in the service of the State were encouraged - particularly in the Public Schools (Campbell, 1968, p 311). The experience of previous centuries, that the study of Classical authors and the disciplines provided by a detailed study of Latin grammar and syntax produced great minds, convinced the upper classes that "a thorough grounding in the Classics was the best training for a country's administrators, statesmen and military leaders" (Campbell, 1968, p 312).

Latin had justified its retention on the school curriculum for many centuries, but faced enormous challenges in the 20th Century. It is only in recent years that Classicists have examined the content of Latin syllabuses, and then only because of the increasing decline in the numbers of pupils taking Latin. The impact of two world wars; the principle of compulsory education for all children at least until the age of fifteen; the erosion of 'aristocratic' privilege; and the advent of universal suffrage, should have alerted Classicists to the changing focus of educational commitment, and the importance of teaching method renewal and innovation for the successful transmission of subject matter.

There had been a very long history of attempts to make instruction in Latin more palatable or more efficient, particularly from the 16th Century onwards.

One of the first books to be printed after the invention of the printing press in 1450 was Donatus' Ars Grammatica. Written in the 4th Century AD, it was used throughout the Middle Ages. Other treatise on education were

reprinted late into the 17th Century - books which had their origin as early as the 5th Century AD: Martianus Capella's *Compendium of the trivium and quadrivium* (5th Century AD) was printed eight times between 1499 and 1599; Cassiodorus' *Compendium of learning* (6th Century) was reprinted as late as 1622. Isadore of Seville' encyclopaedia, Origins and Etymologies (7th Century), saw seven printings between 1472 and 1577. The dependence on Latin grammar texts from the Middle Ages extended into the Renaissance era. Alexander de Villa Dei's grammar book, Doctrinale, was written in 1200, but was still in print in 1520. These books were not designed to make Latin easy to assimilate. They were attempts to set down the structure of Latin, to extract the grammar, for adult scholars. They were, inappropriately, fed to school pupils.

The revival of interest in the Classical writers, which resulted in Ciceronian Humanism and the subsequent need to establish conformity in Latin, made it imperative for teachers to devise teaching methods to revise existing approaches to Latin. In Colet's Grammatica Rudimenta (1509), he describes how teachers can approach the teaching of Latin, to encourage eloquence and imitation:

"For in the begynning men spake not Latyn bycause suche rules were made, but contrary wyse, bycause men spake suche Latyn, upon that folowed the rules were made ... Wherefore well-beloved maysters and techers of grammar, after the partes of speche by suffyciently knowen in your scholes, rede and expounde playnly unto your scholers good authours. For redying of good bokes, dylygent informacion of taught maysters, studyous advertence and taking hede of lerners, heryng eloquent men speke and finally imytacion with tonge and penne more avayleth shortly to get the true eloquent speche, than all the tradycions, rules and preceptes of the maysters".

Earlier grammar teaching had involved rote and rules, a stress on grammar almost to the exclusion of any reading of Latin literature. If it is re-



membered that all teaching was conducted in Latin then Sir Thomas Elyot's injunctions for greater understanding of the pupils' struggles to gain a mastery of the language were not misplaced:

"Grammar being but an introduction to the understanding of autors, if it be made to long or exquisite to the lerner, hit in a maner mortifieth his corage; And by that time he cometh to the most swete and pleasant redings of old autours, the sparkes of fervent desire of lernying is extincte with the burdone of grammar: lyke as a little fyre is sone quenched with a great heape of small stikkes; so that it can never come to the principall logges where it should longe bourne in a greate pleasaunt fire".

The Boke named the Governour, 1531.

These pleas fell on deaf ears. Even with the introduction of new subjects in the school curriculum, the narrowness of method employed for the teaching of Latin remained entrenched in schools. Realists, like Milton (1644), were scathing in their attacks on the futility of the Latin methods of the day, especially with the emphasis of education focusing on "things, not words":

"Languages must be taught as 'instruments conveying to us all things usefull to be known'. But old methods have made 'learning so unpleasing and so unsuccessful; first we do amisse to spend seven or eight yeers meerly in scraping together so much miserable Latin and Greek as might be learnt otherwise easily and delightfully in one year ... forcing the empty wits of children to compare Theams, verses and orations, which are the acts of ripest judgement and the final work of a head filled, by long reading and observing, with elegant maxims and copious invention".

Tractate on Education, 1644.

Comenius (1632) echoes Milton's criticisms in his efforts to see reform in schools:

"... unnecessary things ... as weary out men's brains to little benefit, of which sort are most of the rules of grammar, which overburden children's minds and consume their years".

Reform of Schools: 1632.

Had any real attention been focused on the needs for new approaches to the teaching of Latin, or at least some adaptation to the changing social conditions under which men lived, Latin would not still be tainted by the anachronistic justifications formulated for it through the formal discipline theory of the 18th Century - the status quo until the Robbins Report on Higher Education in Britain was published in 1963. The Joint Association of Classical Teachers (JACT) recognised the danger of outdated teaching methods and the need for a re-assessment of the contribution Latin could make in a changing society: "The first wave of educational democracy, the 1944 Education Act, left teachers of the Classics more or less untouched. Not through masterly inactivity will they survive the second and the third waves - the expansion of the universities and the Common School" (Campbell, 1968, p 325).

A re-appraisal of what school subjects had to offer to all children resulted in a number of curriculum projects and new approaches to teaching, amongst them, history, geography, science, mathematics and classics. Justifications had to be found for the inclusion of subjects like the classics - Latin and Greek - on the school curriculum. Even Whitehead (1962) had to admit: "The situation is dominated by the fact that in the future ninety per cent of pupils who will leave school at the age of eighteen will never again read a classical book in the original. In the case of pupils leaving at an earlier age, the estimate of ninety per cent may be changed to one of ninety-nine percent" (p 95).

In South Africa, twenty years after the Robbins Report, the formal discipline theory justification for the teaching of Latin is still in vogue. "The study of Latin will benefit the pupil by its disciplinary value. It calls for careful scrutiny of the written word, for disciplined thinking

and careful formulation of thought. Furthermore, it strengthens the character by the perseverance it demands and cultivates the habit of sustained intellectual application" (C.E.D., 1973, p 3 - my underlining).

By definition, Latin has become a subject open to very few pupils, and it is questionable whether this justification for Latin's inclusion in the school curriculum would withstand careful scrutiny - especially in the context of the modern South African pupil's social and educative needs.

In this chapter, the rôle of Latin in the school curriculum and the development of teaching methods for Latin from the Mediaeval period onwards, have briefly been reviewed. It has become clear from the final part of this chapter that three issues will need to be explored. The first is the place of Latin in the 20th Century curriculum. The second, related to this, is the purpose of Latin as a language as opposed to Latin as a vehicle for ideas and values - with the one possibility being that the latter rôle of Latin is presented through the translation of Classical literature. The third issue is the changing method of teaching Latin. Each of these issues will be examined in some depth in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 2.

C M Bowra, as early as 1945, was aware of the decline in both Latin and Greek in Britain in schools and universities. In his Presidential Address delivered to the Classical Association at Oxford, he commented that "this sudden diminution is a new thing" (p 3). He gave as possible reasons for the drop in numbers: the effects of the Second World War which may have influenced the selection of Science and modern subjects in preference to the Classics; the speculation that perhaps Latin and Greek were luxuries post-war Britain could well do without; and finally, the shortage of teachers of the Classical languages.

The decline in Latin that has manifested itself in the last forty years is not confined to Britain alone. An H S R C (Human Sciences Research Council) investigation into the position of Latin as a school subject in the Republic of South Africa, tabulates figures for England (and Wales), France, Germany, America and Canada. In each country there is little doubt that Latin has lost its supremacy in the school curriculum. The figures for the Republic of South Africa are equally bleak, and it was concern for the incipient demise of Latin at schools which prompted the Classics Association of South Africa to ask the H S R C to appoint an Advisory Committee to investigate the situation. To date, two of the reports have been published: 'n Verantwoording van die plek van Latyn in die Skoolkurrikulum (Pieter J Maree: Verslag O-168, 1983, H S R C) and Die posisie van Latyn as vak aan sekondêre skole in die RSA (B P Weideman: Verslag O-66, 1984, H S R C). Four more reports will follow, once they are ready for publication: Die personeelposisie met betrekking tot Latyn as vak aan sekondêre skole in die RSA; Ekstrinsieke

faktore wat die posisie van Latyn as vak aan die Sekondêre Skole in die RSA beïnvloed; Intrinsieke faktore wat die posisie van Latyn as vak aan die Sekondêre Skole in die RSA beïnvloed; and lastly, Die posisie van Latyn as skoolvak in die RSA - Samevatting en aanbevelings.

Weideman's report is interesting because it tabulates figures for the period 1967 - 1980, which show clearly the declining numbers of pupils electing to take Latin at schools. He lists the reasons given for this decline in the overseas countries studied. He offers a rationale for the selection of England, France, Germany, America and Canada for a comparative situational study with South Africa. The South African situation, with regard to Latin as a Secondary School subject, is complex. Because there are two compulsory official languages in White schools, Latin has to compete with French, German and Black languages for selection in the choice of options in the Secondary School. In Black schools the problem is greater, as either one of the two official languages - English or Afrikaans - is compulsory, along with the mother language of the pupil. The quality of choice for a Black pupil is constrained by the economic advantages of electing either English or Afrikaans as a third language, in preference to Latin, French or German. Indian schools offer no Latin at all, because pupils have to comply with the regulations of taking both official languages, and the third language choice is an Indian language.

Weideman justifies his choice of the countries which he investigated.

England is chosen for comparison because Latin, as a subject choice for O-levels, has to compete with French and German, both modern languages with far greater practical use than Latin. England, too, is the fountainhead of much of the educational practice in South Africa.

This country introduced innovative approaches to the problem of finding new methods for the teaching of Latin. The Cambridge Latin Course and the Ecce Romani packages (Scotland) have had some success in reawakening interest in Latin in Britain.

France has, as its comparative feature, centralised school control as in South Africa, as well as the problem of choice regarding a second language - Latin, English or German. There is also a demand for other continental languages, such as Italian and Spanish. These factors make the choice of a third language more likely to fall on modern, communicable languages, rather than on an ancient tongue.

Germany was selected for comparative purposes because Latin is still relatively strong at school level, although a decline in the numbers of pupils taking Latin is already in evidence. There is the hope that some lessons may be learned from the partially successful maintenance of Latin in the schools, which could be of importance and of use in shoring up the situation in South Africa.

America was selected for comparison because of its multi-cultural and multi-national population. A project undertaken in the ghettos of large cities to teach Latin to children of varied cultural and national backgrounds, as an aid toward English literacy, has met with considerable success. Possibly some solutions can be found which could be utilized in South Africa, in view of its similar multi-cultural and multi-national population.

Canada is the final country selected for comparative study, on the basis of the bi-lingual policy of the country, where French and English are the two official languages. There is a broad generalisation in Weideman's

report, which suggests that bi-lingualism is the rule for the whole of Canada, whereas this is true of the Province of Quebec only. Nevertheless, all pupils study the second official language in Secondary schools. The problem created by two official languages, when a choice of third languages is offered, is still, therefore, relevant to the South African situation.

The reasons for the decline of Latin as a school subject in these countries are then suggested in the Report.

#### England.

Latin is no longer a compulsory requirement for University entrance.

The advent of the Comprehensive School has preferred other, more useful, subjects which compete with Latin.

Failure by many teachers of the Classics to update teaching methods and syllabuses through adapting their aims to changing social conditions, has allowed interest in the Classical languages to dissipate. Latin as a subject for the social elite is no longer tenable (Weideman, p 11).

#### France.

The French Ministry of Education has not supplied any reasons for the decline in numbers of pupils opting for Latin at Baccalaureate level, that is, at the final school-leaving examination. It is surmised that Latin has to face strong competition from other subjects like Mathematics and Biology, when it comes to optional subject choices (Weideman, p 14).

#### Germany.

Although Latin seems to be in a healthy position in German schools, the

numbers of pupils taking Latin have dropped sufficiently for classicists to devise more dynamic forms of teaching. The removal of Latin as a compulsory subject for senior classes in the gymnasia (the academic Secondary schools) in 1972 weakened the protected position Latin enjoyed. The subject has thus to compete with more interesting and modern subjects (Weideman, p 16).

### America.

The American response to the crisis in Latin indicates real concern.

A D Kahn, of Brook University, sees the crisis as a symptom of the general crisis in education, where the traditional social values have been abandoned without firm values being found to replace them. E M Kovach identifies three factors as directly responsible for the diminution in the numbers of Latin pupils in America:

1. Pupils who at Primary level may have chosen Latin as a subject, are lured away to the more attractive programmes in modern languages.
2. The National Defence Education Act (1958) which offers strong support for programmes which offer modern languages, as well as extra-curricular opportunities for teachers of modern languages, but does not offer the same support to Latin programmes, or to the teachers of Latin.
3. Latin has been replaced by the vernacular in the liturgy of the Roman Catholic Church.

A Phinney and A V Cleary believe that the fault lies in the teachers of Latin themselves, for the following reasons:

1. The narrow training and approach of some Latin teachers who are not prepared to use modern grammatical approaches or to use better judgement in the selection of texts for reading.
2. The opposition of Latin teachers to abandon the status quo. (Weideman, p 24).



Canada.

Three reasons put forward for the decline in Latin numbers is that the curriculum content is irrelevant for today's society: the introduction of the "Credit System" (whereby points are acquired for admission to universities), and the fact that Latin is no longer a requirement for university entrance are contributing factors. Special mention is also made of the introduction of courses in Classical Civilization and the multiplicity of available subject options, both of which have added to the decline (Weideman, p 21).

Wide-ranging as the Ad hoc Committee investigation into the position of Latin in other countries may have been, one country was not included in the research, namely Australia. Using the criteria for selection of the five overseas countries approached in the H S R C report, it appears that South Africa and Australia have several relevant common features. Besides the historical parallels as former British colonies, both countries have an indigenous population: in Australia, the Aborigines; in South Africa, the Blacks. Both countries experienced a gold rush, which saw a tremendous influx of people of different nationalities and interests. Population movements within the two countries resulted in a dispersal of cultural values.

The influence wielded by the various church groups - Anglican, Presbyterian and Roman Catholic - provided the impetus and control in teaching and education. The educational format imported from Great Britain was to be the foundation of the school systems in both countries, essentially Classical in design. Closely tied to the fortunes of the Mother country, South Africa and Australia fought in two World Wars; the aftermath of these wars and the movements towards educational reform in Britain

rippled out to touch the distant shores of the two countries. The once-British flavour was diluted to produce educational systems unique to each of the countries.

Although Australia does not have the difficulties of having to contend with two Official languages, it does have the problem of an indigenous language, as well as the variety of languages spoken by immigrants arriving after the second-world war. The official language of the country is English. French is the most popular second language, followed by German: both are traditional elective subjects. Asian languages have been introduced, but are most successful with the population groups who speak them. Like South Africa, Australia has a centralized educational system (at least within each State). (Shinkfield, in Ignas and Corsini, p 45). In the Junior Secondary School, a core curriculum is used for the first three years, during which four subject areas are focussed upon: English, Science, Mathematics and Social Science. In the senior years, non-academic subjects are dropped, and academic subjects concentrate on these four subject areas as well as foreign languages. (Shinkfield, p 70).

In summary, Australia and South Africa have the following educational features in common:

1. Centralized, closed systems of education;
2. the evolution of educational systems which have traces of the British inheritance remaining, mainly in the private schools;
3. A core curriculum in part with Latin and other foreign languages competing with other subjects as electives;
4. indigenous populations, as well as a multi-national and multi-cultural society.

In view of these similarities, correspondence was initiated with Mrs Emily Frenkel of Ascham School, New South Wales, Australia, in order to discover how Latin as a Secondary School subject was faring. The position of Latin in New South Wales follows the trend already remarked upon in the five countries investigated in Weideman's report: "Latin has declined sharply since the 1960's, but in recent years it has held its own (minor) position without significant further decline" (Frenkel, letter 9.7.1984). Figures provided by Mrs Frenkel indicate the slightness of Latin numbers in relation to the total candidate population. In the table the figures for French are also included, so that the position Latin holds is made even clearer. The statistics are for final year candidates in New South Wales only.

Table 1

Year	Total Number of Candidates*	Latin Candidates	Latin pupils as %age of total school population	French candidates	French pupils as %age of total school population
1979	34,499	188	0,54	2489	7,20
1980	32,105	154	0,47	2515	7,80
1981	31,492	186	0,59	2360	7,49
1982	31,151	192	0,61	2556	8,20

\*The decline between 1979 and 1982 is due to the end of the post-war baby boom.

Frenkel suggests the following reasons for the decline in the numbers of pupils choosing Latin:

1. French and German are the most popular second language choices.
2. The promulgation of Vatican II has affected Latin in Catholic Schools, nearly all of which

have dropped Latin, except for the Jesuit (boys) and Loretta (girls) Catholic schools. About a quarter to a third of the population of New South Wales is Catholic.

3. Latin is usually taught as part of a General Languages Department option. Only a few independent schools have a Classics Department.
4. Most Latin teachers have training or experience in teaching German and/or French - which can lead to conflicting interests for the teacher and decisions in individual schools as to whether an extra French teacher, rather than a Latin teacher, would best serve the needs of the school.

One response to the decline in Latin as a Secondary School subject has been to look to Britain for some of the new methods of teaching Latin introduced there. The most popular course used at present in New South Wales is the Cambridge Latin Course; but also common is Ecce Romani.

A few schools still teach through traditional methods, with some apparent success. Classical Studies was introduced in 1974. It is aimed at the twelve to thirteen year old age group; it includes the rudiments of Greek and Latin within the course, and as such, it is a good lead-in to the Classical languages. Classical Greek, as a Secondary School subject, has experienced a revival in the last few years, especially since it has been recognised as a language in its own right, which should not be taught, modelled or compared with Latin, but rather "by methods derived from the nature of the language itself" (Frenkel).

The decline in the numbers of Latin Students is, as has been shown, not an isolated occurrence, and the concern in many countries about this decline has resulted in some tentative solutions. The most important realisation has been the need to find new methods of teaching Latin.

In England, the Cambridge Classics Project has produced the Cambridge Latin Course, and the Cambridge Greek Course. The Cambridge Latin Course is essentially a reading course with very little emphasis on formal grammar. There are five units, progressively more complex in content. Each unit is made up of ten to twelve booklets, as well as a "words and phrases" vocabulary booklet. The Latin sentences are introduced at their simplest level in unit one, with copious illustrations to augment the text. The sentences are slowly built up into simple connected prose passages, which relate the adventures of a set of characters in the unit. Unit I, for example, deals with the family of Caecilius, which lives in Pompeii. Pompeii was chosen because of the extensive evidence of Roman social life which was preserved intact after the destruction of the city during the eruption of Mount Vesuvius in 79 AD. At the end of each booklet, a good deal of information is given on various aspects of Roman life as portrayed in Pompeii - the layout of houses, baths, theatres; the position of slaves; an historical account of the eruption of Vesuvius. Written exercises are included, in which pupils are given examples of a singular and plural noun, the nominative and the accusative case; and 1st and 3rd person singular and plural of verbs. There is, however, little stress on grammatical function or syntax in isolation. Only the verb or noun change has to be inserted in a sentence: the complete sentence does not have to be translated either from Latin into English, or English into Latin. Simple comprehension exercises are drawn up to establish the pupil's grasp of a Latin passage he has read. Later units include Caecilius in Rome (Unit II); Cogidubnus in Britain (Unit III); and selected texts from Roman writers (Units IV and V). Constant repetition of syntactical constructions are used in the early units, with new con-

structions added as the Latin text increases in complexity. The emphasis is on reading and understanding Latin and not on grammar and syntax. The excellent background study provided with the first three units amplifies and enlivens the Latin reading provided in the texts.

A similar reading course has evolved in Scotland. A series of booklets, called Ecce Romani, have passages for reading and comprehension dealing with a variety of topics of immediate interest to the younger pupil, and leading on to more difficult Latin texts. The important point about both the Cambridge Latin Project and Ecce Romani is the move away from grammar-based methods of teaching Latin, and greater emphasis on reading and understanding the written word.

In America, teachers of Latin have taken steps towards halting the decline in Latin by introducing the Latin FLES (Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools) programme for pupils in the equivalent of South African Standards three and four. The Latin FLES programme was introduced in inner-city schools in Washington DC for those children whose English reading ability was too poor to allow them to qualify for programmes in FLES French and Spanish. A similar programme was adapted for the particular needs of the fifty-one schools in which FLES Latin was offered, and it has met with great success.

Another approach to the difficulty of acquiring an easy facility of reading Latin and hence little opportunity of using reading to acquire a broad picture of the ideas and values of the Classical writers, has been the introduction of Classical Studies. The pupils meet the world of the Greeks and the Romans through the study of various aspects of social life, and the reading of Classical texts in translation. The inclusion of Classical Studies (or Classical Civilization) as a component

of the Classics, has provided the opportunity for pupils, other than Latin pupils, to discover more about the Classical world in a language medium they understand.

The full report of the H S R C on the Latin teachers' answers to, or suggestions for, the decline of Latin as a Secondary School subject in South African schools has not yet been published. Some of the problems have, however, been mentioned. For example, the compulsory requirement of both official languages for White pupils, which places Latin as a third language in competition with French, German and Black languages. There are also the constraints placed upon pupils in selecting the remaining options for matriculation purposes. Latin has to compete with more useful and more attractive subjects like Mathematics, Economics and Physical Science - subjects which accord more with the demands generated in the economic sphere. Latin is no longer a pre-requisite for admittance to most professions. Most universities offer an introductory Latin course for aspiring Law students, the only profession which demands the subject because of the Roman-Dutch origins of South African Civil Law. It is, therefore, not essential that pupils choosing legal training have to have studied Latin at school.

That there has been, and that there is, a continuing decline in the numbers of pupils who opt for Latin at Standard six and Standard seven level, and to an even greater extent at the Senior Secondary level, is evident in the statistical tables published in Weideman's report for the Human Sciences Research Council (see p 109 and Tables 3.61, 3.62 and 3.63). Between 1974 and 1980, the total number of Standard ten pupils (in the 799 schools which replied to the H S R C Questionnaire) dropped from 2,246 to 772, a decline of 66%. If this is the case, these findings

are very likely to be a reliable indicator of the decline in Latin numbers country-wide. The picture is at its most depressing when one considers the extent of the decline in Latin across all the standards in the 799 Secondary schools involved in the H S R C investigation.

The schools in the survey had an enrolment of 332,403 pupils, of whom 8779 pupils took Latin as a subject. The percentage distribution of pupils over five standards and the percentage of pupils in each standard who offer Latin is shown in Table 2. The percentage distribution of pupils choosing Latin in each standard in English-medium, Afrikaans-medium and Dual-medium schools is also shown.

Table 2. (adapted from Weideman, pp 137-140)

Std	A	B	C	D	E	
6	23,2	47,3	78,2	15,0	6,8	A = % distribution of pupil over five standards
7	23,3	25,5	80,0	No figures		B = % distribution in each standard taking Latin
8	20,9	9,8	76,3	No figures		C = % of pupils taking Latin who are in English medium schools
9	18,9	8,5	76,0	21,5	1,5	
10	14,5	8,9	75,8	21,9	2,3	D = % of pupils taking Latin who are in Afrikaans-medium schools
Total	100,8	100	n =	332,403		E = % of pupils taking Latin who are in Dual-Medium schools

A striking feature of the Table is the paucity of pupils taking Latin in Afrikaans- and Dual-medium schools. One reason for this is suggested by Weideman: German is more popular as a third language in Afrikaans-medium schools (p 17). This is understandable, as Afrikaans is itself a Germanic language and its grammatical structures and its vocabulary



bear some resemblance to German. Another reason may well be text books. A wide range of Latin grammars, vocabularies and dictionaries is not easily available in Afrikaans. Once the remaining reports are published, the reasons will be made clear, so that perhaps the position of Latin can be strengthened in Secondary schools, whatever the medium of instruction.

Another possible cause for the Latin decline is the complexity of its grammar and what would seem to be a very heavy emphasis upon grammar teaching in isolation. This, of course, is not only found in South African teaching methods. Nevertheless, some attention needs to be given to this claim. It should also be noted that comparatively little attention has been given in South African schools to the revised approaches towards the teaching of Latin characterised by the Cambridge Project. It is probably safe to say that Latin-teaching in South Africa is still extremely conventional.

Whatever approach is used, there can be no escape from the necessity of recognising and understanding the grammatical base in Latin. The crucial point underpinning the study of Latin is that it is an inflected language, and that, therefore, it has a relatively complicated structure. The grammar component in teaching seeks to organise the information (so as to obviate the confusion that is inevitable if pupils are not clear about the inflections within the grammatical concepts), and the different grammatical concepts themselves.

A question not yet answered, but one which must be asked, is whether recognition and understanding can be divorced from reproduction of the language. It has already been noted that the Cambridge Project underplays the pupils' generation of Latin - that is the translation from the

pupils' mother tongue into Latin. It can be argued that understanding of a language precedes generation of language. If the method of approach in teaching Latin involved a comprehension of the language, rather than the generation of language, what effect would this have on grammar and memorisation? This is a question infrequently asked by Latinists. No-one ever needs to write Latin any more. Why do pupils have to do it at school? Latin teachers will reply that the exercise is necessary to reinforce the grammar but this claim has, to the best of the writer's knowledge, not been put to any test.

Whether one uses a grammar-based course (dealing with the conjugations and declensions one by one), or a reading course (e.g. Cambridge Latin Course or Ecce Romani) the grammar has to be the core (See Appendix 1). Learning Latin is not merely the acquisition of vocabulary and typical sentence patterns, as in Afrikaans, for example. A pupil must know the link between rex and regibus, and the difference: this involves not only vocabulary but grammar as well. Since word order in Latin plays a very minor rôle in communicating basic meanings, a pupil cannot rely on word order patterns to communicate meaning in Latin. Simply put: confusion about the inflections means that the pupil cannot read Latin with any real understanding even if he acquires the principal parts of nouns and verbs in vocabulary study.

'Real' Latin authors cannot be read until after the Standard eight year. In Standard nine, when pupils have most of the grammatical tools, their main problem is the new vocabulary, and in poetry, the 'bewildering' order of words (for example, Catullus). In reality, then, a pupil does not acquire the grammatic basis merely to write Latin: he needs it to read Latin.

Despite all the claims about a sound grammatical knowledge being essential for a full understanding of Latin literature and culture, it is necessary to ask exactly what a pupil has achieved by the end of his Secondary school study of Latin. He may know the translation of some 1050 lines of prose from various authors, and 550 lines of poetry. He may be able to scan poetry, have a working knowledge of grammar and some background information about Roman society. He is unlikely to have read the complete work of any one author (is it possible to read selected chapters from Dickens, Austen, Galsworthy, Hardy and Elliott in order to gain insight into English literature?), nor is he likely to have touched on more than one or two of the literary genres. He will have a limited understanding of the society and the people who produced the Latin literary works, and even less knowledge of the implications and impact of geographic, economic, strategic and social factors in Rome's strivings for Empire. Even though five years will have been spent in coming to grips with the language and in building up a vocabulary, a pupil will not be able to read the Aeneid (for example) in the original, without spending a considerable amount of time in trying to translate the written word. Nor will the causes and reasons for Augustus' rise to power as portrayed in the Aeneid have any force at all without a thorough understanding of the Augustan Age, and the Graeco-Roman inheritance which preceded it. There is little opportunity for the 'transmission of culture' through Latin at schools. Latin is a demanding discipline, with few tangible rewards. It is not surprising that the numbers of pupils choosing Latin at school diminish every year.

The impetus for the H S R C's investigation into the decline of Latin at Secondary schools in South Africa came from the Classics Association of South Africa (C.A.S.A.) (P J Maree: Preface by J B Haasbroek). The

essential motivation for the investigation appears to have been the continuing drop in the numbers of pupils taking Latin at schools, and consequently, at universities. But it is significant that Dr Murgatroyd, Professor of Classics at the University of Natal (Pietermaritzburg), should have called on the Association in 1982 to institute such an investigation, in response to an earlier article by Professor B de Wet (1981) in which he posed the question: "Is there a place for Classical Civilization at school?"

Murgatroyd sees the introduction of Classical Civilization at Secondary schools as a "direct and very dangerous rival to Latin" (p 25). He argues that Classical Civilization should not be the panacea for improving the state of Latin, but that new approaches to the teaching of Latin must be found. Murgatroyd raises the issues of teacher training for the teaching of Classical Civilization, and the lack of suitable translations in both official languages, for use in such a course. He sees little academic merit in Classical Civilization; and he disagrees that Classical Civilization can offer "a valid way of gaining a proper insight into the ancient world". If Classical Civilization is to be introduced into schools at all, it should be at the Primary level, in the hope that the interest gained in the ancient world would encourage primary school children to choose Latin as an option in Standard six. He argues too, that Classical literature in translation cannot offer "any worthwhile level of appreciation and criticism", from Classical Civilization students, other than "rather facile and superficial generalizations" (p 24).

Murgatroyd's arguments about Classical literature in translation are not new. R W Livingstone (1917) stated that "the idea that Latin and Greek

can be equally well read in translations is the favourite opinion with those who do not know the languages at all, but few, if any, experts will share it" (p 214). It is comforting to know that those "uneducated" proponents had at least familiarised themselves with Classical literature, even if it was in translation. Livingstone, however, does not argue the issue: he ignores it. T J Haarhof (1931) also assumes that the Classics cannot be read in translation: "Ons besef natuurlik van die staanspoor af dat 'n volle letterkundige waardering deur middel van vertalings ontmoontlik is" (p 37).

Murgatroyd (1982) advances five criticisms of Classical literature in translation (p 24).

1. The literature translated becomes as much the work of the translator as it does of the author.
2. Translations are sometimes inaccurate, misleading and outdated.
3. The pupil working with a translation has to depend on the perceptiveness, critical abilities, and the command of language of the translator.
4. It is impossible to reproduce the sound, rhythm, language connotations, mood, structure and arrangement of words of the original.
5. The pupil cannot get the flavour of the original, and any level of literary appreciation and criticism is very difficult.

The first three points are saying much the same thing in three different ways. But a simple question can be directed in response to claims 4 and 5: Can a pupil taking Latin at matriculation level do either of these two things? Can he respond to "the sound, rhythm, language connotations, mood, structure and arrangement of words" of the original? Has he

attained any level of literary appreciation and criticism? The answer must be in the negative.

Murgatroyd's criticisms are valid, only if the Classics in translation or translated literature used in Classical Civilization have the same aims, objectives and purpose attached to them as would be applied to Classical literature in the original. Advanced Literary Criticism, as Murgatroyd's view of it would seem to be, is an intellectual pursuit more usefully confined to universities. To use it as an argument against the introduction of Classical Civilization in Secondary schools could be interpreted as irrelevant. Latinists who subscribe to the intended aim specified in the Latin syllabus,\* would do well to reflect on the meaningless argument of cultural heritage being transmitted through the teaching of Latin. The more open-minded would have to admit

"that for every hour normally spent on the study of Greek and Roman architecture, music, law, sculpture and philosophy, they must spend a hundred on ... the 'dull preliminaries' of grammar, composition, vocabulary and so forth. Pure gerund-grinding occupies far more time in the syllabus than any discussion on the beauties of the Parthenon or Aristotle's view of the democracy."

(Campbell, p 315)

It can be argued that reading Classical Literature without a knowledge of the social, political, economic, religious, historical and cultural background of the period in which the literary works are placed, deprives

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\* The 1973 Latin syllabus for the Cape Education Department states:

"During the course the pupils should be made aware of the value of Latin as an educational and cultural asset. Intelligent teaching will bring home to the pupils its living character as a link with the ancient world - a vehicle of the classical tradition and a continuous and abiding influence on the learning, laws and culture of Western Civilization, and also for many centuries the language of the Christian Church".

the literature of much of its richness. The background to the world in which the Greeks and Romans lived, provides a tapestry of life as well as an understanding of Classical Man's response to the difficulties and challenges he had to overcome. The evidence for details of social life, on which impinge the political, religious, moral and cultural aspects, is found not only in Classical literature, but in other primary sources like: extant sculpture and art works; coins, vases, weapons, grave stones, architectural remains and archaeological evidence. The breadth of interest which these areas provide for a study of Greek and Roman Civilization can cater for pupils of varying intellectual ability. Classical Civilization is also a means through which the written word takes on wider dimensions in the understanding of the peoples who wrote them so long ago.

The attack mounted by Murgatroyd denies the essence of the plea made by de Wet (1981), who wrote: "I am not decrying the value of Latin at school - it still has an important place. However, circumstances have changed which call for a new approach to the teaching of Classics and we ought to broaden our Horizons" (p 7). De Wet does not suggest that Latin be abandoned in favour of Classical Civilization, but rather he points out that "at school (we) limit this wealth (... of Latin literature and Classical Thought) to the elitist few who have the inclination to master a language-orientated course ..." (p 3).

It is interesting that the pupils taking Latin should be considered "the elitist few". Flann Campbell (1968) has his own insights to offer on the "elitist tradition" that Latin has held in education. He shows that arguments used for the retention of Latin in the school curriculum "have varied ... depending partly on the personal and social pre-

delictions of the teacher and partly on the circumstances of the era" (p 310). Perhaps teachers of Latin in South African schools and universities should re-examine the idea that Latin is a subject for the privileged few. It is disconcerting to receive letters from classicists who suggest that Latin teachers should aim for the 'gifted' child ... "At the moment, that is the popular bandwagon, so the Classics cannot afford not to get on to it" (J Claassen, University of Stellenbosch, 13.4, 1984). If Latin is to be a subject specialization for a minority of pupils, de Wet is correct in drawing attention to the new approaches to Classics in England and America, where 'The Classics' comprise not only Greek and Latin, but Classical Civilization and Classics-in-Translation as well. His claim is re-inforced by W H Adlans (1972), who wrote:

"there is a great deal that we can do for pupils who do not know the languages and we should do all we can - while indicating to those who have the ability to learn the languages the advantages of doing so".

(pp 8-9)

The Classical world has a remarkable ability to survive, not only through its literature, but through the civilizations that produced them.

In a later chapter, some discussion will be offered on the proposed Latin syllabus for 1985. There has been a change in outlook regarding the distribution of marks for the matriculation examination in Latin, where a larger percentage of marks is allocated for "Classical Culture". This is a welcome innovation to what has been a predominantly grammar-based syllabus for a very long time. However, it carries its own problems in its structure and in the content of the 'Classical Culture' syllabus.



CHAPTER 3.

This chapter on the twentieth century curriculum falls into two parts: a general discussion on curriculum; and an exploration of the specific framework of the curriculum into which any new subject has to fit in South African schools.

There is considerable conflict about the philosophy and the implementation of theories of the curriculum. It is, however, not possible to consider these in detail in this thesis. One possibility is to view the arguments in the light of Eggleston's (1977) analysis about theories of curriculum lying along a 'continuum.' Eggleston suggests that theories of knowledge and, therefore, approaches to curriculum structure, fall somewhere between two extremes. These he calls the 'Reflexive perspective,' where knowledge is based on a particular society - or is society-bound; and the 'Received perspective,' where knowledge is independent of any particular society - or is society-free.

One of the difficulties of the reflexive view for the curriculum planner, and even more so for the curriculum implementer, is that it can be too heavily society-based, with no sense of priorities other than those selected by the society itself. In South Africa, this is exacerbated further because there are several societies which fall between three worlds: the world of the past and its classical inheritance; the world of British imperialism; and the world of devolution and nationalism. These three worlds reflect multiple views of society, and thus the problem for the curriculum planner as to what view of society he must hold. Consequently, it is almost impossible to argue a pre-eminent place for any subject in the curriculum, because of South Africa's heterogenous society and societal needs, and the constant change within each society.

If the rôle of the curriculum is to reflect the society into which a child is born, one question needs to be asked: Do the values inherent in Classical Civilization have any place in the culture of that society? If so, there is a justification for some inclusion of Classical Civilization in the curriculum, on the reflexive view. But this statement will be suspect if our reflexive view of Black societies in South Africa is based too heavily upon the particular values of their societies. If we take only the existing culture of a society as the basis for curriculum planning, then education cannot work towards development, or towards concepts of change. Such a curriculum would simply work for perpetuation - and not for progress.

The other end of Eggleston's 'continuum' view of how to assess theories of knowledge is the 'Received perspective,' where knowledge is society-free. In other words, knowledge, and its organisation, is not dependent upon a specific society's view of knowledge or the amount of knowledge to which that society has access. It has existence beyond a particular society's view of knowledge. The danger with the received perspective is that it could be argued that all knowledge must be taught because it exists, and that all knowledge has some justification for inclusion in the curriculum. However, if we simply have a theory of knowledge which allows for the justifiable inclusion of any subject as a component of the curriculum, it is inevitable that we fall into the trap of creating a 'string of beads' curriculum. It is difficult, in practical terms, to justify another 'bead' on the 'string' - in other words, to justify the addition of Classical Civilization itself to the existing South African curriculum.

To avoid this danger, we can follow the arguments of other theorists, in

an attempt to find the essential minimum for a curriculum which is based upon the way in which knowledge is organised. To put it another way, we need to find a means whereby the child is exposed to different forms of knowledge, which reflect organised, existing knowledge-structures, regardless of the society in which the child lives. Only then is it possible to build a curriculum on the way in which knowledge is organised, rather than on all knowledge as such. Two well-known examples of this approach to knowledge, are found in the theories of Hirst, in England, and Phenix, in America.

Hirst argues that there are seven forms of knowledge; that the way we use knowledge differs from one type, or category, of knowledge to another. There are also different tests for truth, for different kinds of knowledge. Briefly, the forms of knowledge to be included in a curriculum consist of: mathematics and formal logic; physical sciences; aesthetics; human sciences; moral understanding; religion; and philosophy (Lawton, 1973, pp 79-80.) Hirst claims that, if a child is not exposed to all seven forms of knowledge at some stage of his school career, he becomes a reduced human being, who will be unable to contribute to his society. For, if a child avoids contact with even one of these forms of knowledge, he becomes less of a citizen because these seven forms of knowledge are the basis for human action and thought.

Phenix posited his theory of knowledge in the form of 'Realms of Meaning.' He sees general education as the process whereby essential 'meanings' are engendered in the child. There are six fundamental patterns of meaning which emerge from the analysis of the possible and distinctive modes of human understanding, according to the two attributes of quality and equality. The 'Realms of Meaning' are: Symbolics (derived from communi-

cation and contained in the disciplines of language, logic, mathematics, and symbols in expressive arts); Empirics (derived from experimentally verified systems, found in the disciplines of physical, life and social sciences); Aesthetics (as in literature, music, visual and movement arts disciplines); Synnoetics (derived from inter-personal relationships and found in parts of literature, philosophy, history, psychology and theology); Ethics and Morality (from obligations to codes, responsibly selected - as in the disciplines of philosophy and theology; and Synoptics (derived from awareness of self and the world, in the disciplines of philosophy, religion and history). (Whitfield, 1971 pp 18-19.)

These 'Realms of Meaning' are useful, because Phenix avoids the ambiguity of designating these 'realms' by using subject discipline names. This enables him to show that the subject disciplines can occur in more than one 'realm' because they serve more than one purpose, and because they make use, in their organisation, of one or more of these 'realm/s.' (See Table 3 below.) Furthermore, if a comparison is made between Hirst's 'Forms of Knowledge,' and Phenix's 'Realms of Meaning,' it can be seen that there are parallels in the subject disciplines.

Table 3.

HIRST: Forms of Knowledge	Subject Disciplines	PHENIX: Realms of Meaning
Mathematics/Logic	Language, Logic, Mathematics	Symbolics
Physical Sciences	Physical, Life and Social Sciences	Empirics
Aesthetics	Literature, Music, Art, Fine Art	Aesthetics
Human Sciences	Literature, Philosophy, History, Psychology, Theology	Synnoetics
Morals (Philosophy)	Philosophy, Theology (parts of)	Ethics and Morality
Religion (Philosophy)	Philosophy, Religion, History	Synoptics

If there is merit in the conceptual approach advocated by Hirst or Phenix, we need to see whether Classical Civilization would fit into both of these schemes. In the Hirstian approach, Classical Civilization would slot into the Aesthetic, Human Sciences, Moral, Religion and Philosophy 'Forms of Knowledge.' In Phenix's scheme, Classical Civilization would accommodate the Aesthetic, Synnoetic, Ethics and Morality and Synoptic 'Realms of Meaning.' In both the theorists' view of knowledge, Classical Civilization could be an alternative to some of the other ways in which History, Social Studies, Literature and Art can be presented to the pupil.

If, through the curriculum, children are learning how knowledge is organised, then it is not necessary for them to have all knowledge in the curriculum. Classical Civilization offers two components in the curriculum: Literature and Social Life, contributing to a number of ways of thinking. However, Classical Civilization is not unique in this cross-contribution: other subjects, too, fall into more than one of the 'Realms' or 'Forms of Knowledge.' If the definition of curriculum is taken to be a range or spread of experiences planned for the pupil, then we need subjects which give the pupil as many means as possible, to explore the ways of thinking posited by Hirst and Phenix.

It is, however, difficult to argue, that Classical Civilization should be a compulsory subject in the curriculum, because there are other subjects which justify inclusion that are weighted against it. For example, Classical Civilization cannot necessarily take the place of the particular components of the History and Social Studies 'form of knowledge,' because it would not be appropriate for pupils to take Classical Civilization at Standard six and Standard seven level, and know nothing about the Twentieth

Century world.

Classical Civilization could, therefore, be looked at as an optional subject. It can be argued that, if we accept the concept of a reasonably small common-core curriculum - where all pupils take the same core subjects and then add some others from the surrounding area of options - there is a strong case for Classical Civilization as an encourageable option. If this argument is accepted - that a study of Classical Civilization can be placed in one of the options available at the lower end of the Secondary school - it is necessary to examine briefly the South African educational structure to see if such a subject can be accommodated in this way.

It is not easy to place the whole South African curriculum into either the Received or Reflexive view, because the making of the curriculum is affected by external pressures - for example, financial and economic factors. This, however, does not prevent an examination of the South African curriculum from one, or more, theoretical perspectives.

In Table 4, the existing Junior Secondary curriculum is presented, showing mandatory subjects (examinable and non-examinable) and options (examinable), and the extent to which the South African curriculum meets the theoretical perspectives of Hirst's or Phenix's theory of knowledge. In the Standard six and Standard seven year, there is a large common-core curriculum, consisting of six, compulsory, examination subjects (English, Afrikaans, Mathematics, General Science, History and Geography), as well as four, non-examinable subjects (Physical Education, Religious Education, School Music and Technical subjects). Two examinable, optional subjects are also offered. The theory behind this, is to introduce the pupil to a range of semi-specialist packages before the choice of options is made

Table 4.

SUBJECTS	HIRST	PHENIX
(a) <u>Common Core:</u>		
<u>(Examinable)</u>		
English	Mathematics/logic, Aesthetics	Symbolics and Aesthetics
Afrikaans	Mathematics/logic; and some Aesthetics	Symbolics and Aesthetics
Mathematics	Mathematics/logic	Symbolics
General Science	Physical Science	Empirics
History	Human Science, Philosophy	Synnoetics and Synoptics
Geography	Partly Human and partly Empirical Science	Synnoetics; Synoptics; and Empirics;
<u>(Non-examinable)</u>		
Physical Education		
Religious Education	Religion; Philosophy	Synoptics
School Music	Aesthetics	Aesthetics
Technical subjects		
(b) <u>Options:</u>		
<u>(Examinable)</u>		
Third language	Mathematics/logic; some Aesthetics	Symbolics and Aesthetics
Accountancy		
Home Economics		
Needlework		
Woodwork		
Metal work		
Technical drawing		
Typing		
Music (Instrument, Voice)	Aesthetics	Aesthetics
Ballet	Aesthetics	Aesthetics
Art	Aesthetics	Aesthetics
Agricultural subjects		

NOTE: In Hirst's and Phenix's theories, the applied or vocational subjects are not included. They all depend upon a number of basic "tests for truth" (in Hirst's terminology) already listed in the upper (or common core) part of the table.

for the Senior Secondary phase. The list of options includes Languages (Latin, French, German and a Black language); Accounting; Performing Arts (Music, Ballet, Fine Art); Agricultural subjects; Home Economics; and Technical subjects (such as Technical Drawing), and Commercial subjects.

Those pupils with language skills are (in theory) well-catered for, as are those who already show skills in the performing arts. If, however, a pupil is not, at this stage, interested in applied or vocational subjects, and is not linguistically or artistically able, his choice is very limited - basically to Accounting. Therefore, there is a justification to look for more opportunities in the Social Science areas, which do not feature in Table 4 at all. (For precisely the same reason, a case can also be made for a further option list in the Empirical Science grouping - for example, Geology.)

The purpose of optional subjects at the Junior Secondary phase, is to help a pupil to select one of eight fields of study available in the Senior Secondary phase: General; Humanities; Science; Commerce; Agriculture; Technical; Home Economics, and The Performing Arts. To be able to claim that a pupil is following a field of study, two of his six matriculation subjects must fall within that field. For example, the Science field of study must include Physical Science and Biology; and the commercial field of study, either Accounting and Economics, or Accounting and Typing. Each examining authority lays down 'packages' of subjects which fit the field of study requirements. Some of these (but not all) also satisfy the requirements for Matriculation Exemption, which enables a pupil to enter a university for degree study. Furthermore, in normal circumstances, all pupils must do English and Afrikaans. Therefore, four subjects remain to be selected. This means that the specialist field of study must emerge from only four subjects.



This structure was created through the recommendations of the Differentiated Education Report of 1972 (HSRC, 1971). The Report suggested that the final three years of secondary education should be built upon a pupil's strengths, in two respects: through choice of subjects, and through the grade of presentation - either at the Higher Grade or the Standard Grade. Prior to 1972, the old matriculation offered no clusters of subjects, and they were all taken at the same level. The crucial argument against the older system, was that by the age of fifteen or sixteen, the profile of a pupil's attainment was not even: a pupil could do extremely well at, say, English, Mathematics and Geography, and produce mediocre results in Afrikaans, Art and Biology. By providing for subjects at both the Higher and the Standard Grade, the understanding and the satisfaction provided for the pupil would be greater. No longer would the pupil be swamped by a subject which was set at too difficult a level for the pupil to understand. The Report also argued that the choice of field of study, and the choice of level of subject, should be delayed so that subject choice was not made in ignorance, or made without a reasonably clear indication of the direction in which a particular pupil's abilities lay. (1)

These were the two key features of, and arguments for differentiated education. But there was another administrative and conceptual problem which was skillfully, and unwisely, ignored - namely, subject grouping for matriculation. Other than a brief comment at the end, the compilers of the Report ignored the philosophical and conceptual problems underlying the Joint Matriculation Board (JMB) groupings, which aimed at a generalist

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1. This was found to be the case in England with the Eleven Plus examination, which compartmentalized children before they left elementary school.

Secondary education. In contrast, and in opposition to this philosophy, Differentiated Education argued for the beginning of specialist education in the last three years of Secondary schooling, with the move towards specialist education introduced in the Standard six and Standard seven years through the choice of options. The implementers of Differentiated Education did not recognise that their conceptual and philosophical arguments were being hamstrung by the JMB regulations which supported a generalist Secondary education right up to the age of seventeen or eighteen years, or for five full years of Secondary schooling.

Another conceptual approach, characteristic of all countries in the twentieth century, was the extent to which a subject should be done in depth, and the related problem of the length of time for a subject to be studied if it was to be done in depth. We must turn, for a brief history of this problem, to Europe and England. When it was suggested that there should be a move from 'equality of education' towards the concept of 'equality of educational opportunity,' psychologists argued that the choice of subject should not come too early. The traditional subject specialists - headed by Latinists - rejected this argument, and questioned how a pupil was to learn enough Latin even in five years of Secondary schooling. (Nine years of training in Latin had been characteristic of many education systems in Europe in the first quarter of the twentieth century.) They argued that if the introduction of Latin was to be further delayed, to the middle of the Secondary school, pupils would never reach an appropriate standard, nor would there be any depth to the subject. The Latinists and traditional subject approach supporters, were most against the introduction of a common core curriculum in the early part of Secondary school and the subsequent subject specialisations in the remaining years. Strong opposition was particularly evident from Latinists in France and Germany. This oppo-

sition was powerful enough to postpone the introduction of common core curricula for some years, and it is not surprising that Germany still has a relatively strong following in Latin - as was seen in the account of the HSRC Report into the position of Latin in South African Schools, given in chapter 2.

However, the same question of depth and standard has been put forward in South Africa, not so much by the Humanities and Sciences, but by the Commerce, Agricultural Science, Technical subjects, Home Economics and the Performing Arts specialists. They insist that no real standard can be attained if the subjects are begun only in the Standard eight year. We have here, then, the futility of options offered at the Junior Secondary level. If a pupil wishes to follow an Agricultural field of study for matriculation, he must, perforce, do two options in Standard six and seven in the Agricultural sphere. In effect, this means that a pupil has to make the selection of an option in Standard five. The same situation applies for Commerce, Home Economics, Technical subjects and the Performing Arts. If, at the end of Standard seven, subjects have not been chosen for matriculation, a pupil is excluded from five fields of study because of the difficulty of transferring into another field of study and related subject options, which have not been done in Standard six and seven.

So it is that the broad Differentiation Education ideal has been distorted in three ways:

- (a) the choice of a field of study is not as open as it appears to be, because it does not build, as completely as it should, on a pupil's strengths;
- (b) it does not meet the idea of genuine semi-specialization, because it

has to accommodate the broad, general, education requirements of the Joint Matriculation Board. There is disparity in the views of education between Differentiated Education and the JMB: the former aims at specialization, the latter, at broad, general education.

- (c) The rôle of the universities, especially in those prestigious Faculties where there is number restriction, can distort the curriculum. A pupil, partly encouraged by his parents, and sometimes by the school, will sometimes take as many subjects as possible at the Higher Grade in order to maximise his chances of selection in numerically-restricted Faculties, especially in medicine, dentistry and engineering. This is done even though only three subjects on the Higher Grade are required for Matriculation Exemption.

Differentiated Education has yet another limitation at the Standard six and Standard seven level, with regard to options. Because decisions are made at the end of Standard five in Commerce, Agricultural Science, Home Economics, Technical subjects and Performing Art subject options, the number of pupils opting for those Senior Secondary fields of study is still comparatively small. Although the de Lange Commission did not accommodate the conflicts between the theory of Differentiated Education with that of the JMB views on General Secondary Education, the concern about South African education being too academic is really a reflection of the failure of Differentiated Education in the latter part of Secondary schooling - because the option choice is made too early. In the first three fields of study (General, Humanities and Science), it can also be seen why Differentiated Education has failed: it is because of the narrow concept of Secondary education which is so abstractly and academically orientated. If the decision, at Standard five level, is given without commitment to either Commerce, or Home Economics, or Technical subjects,

or Agricultural Science, or the Performing Arts, only options in the three remaining fields of study are open - where there are no restrictions on options at Standard six and Standard seven level.

Consequently, for the pupil who does not make his subject option choice in Standard five, all that is left of what seems to be a very wide list of options, is a choice between a language or Accounting. The remaining options are so closely linked to the Standard eight options, that the field of study a pupil can eventually follow, is extremely narrow. As the majority of students will not choose to do four languages (English and Afrikaans are compulsory), it is little wonder that there is such a demand for Accountancy as a school subject at the Junior Secondary level.

We have now the justification for the inclusion of Classical Civilization in the Junior Secondary curriculum. It can be added to the option area for those pupils who expect to move into the General, Humanities or Science fields of study, to be available with language and Accountancy; and also for those pupils who have chosen one Commerce, or Technical, or Agricultural or Performing Arts or Home Economics option - i.e. another option is made available other than a language or Accountancy. Furthermore, Classical Civilization could be considered as another component for the Senior Secondary phase: its existence in the Standard six and Standard seven years could lead to Classical Civilization becoming a Standard ten option.

P A R T II

CHAPTER 4.

This chapter is devoted to an exploration of some of the existing syllabuses for Classical Studies elsewhere in the world. In each of the English language countries approached in the H S R C investigation into the position of Latin at Secondary schools, Latin and Greek are only two of the components of a now widened approach to the study of the Classics. Classical Civilization and Classical Literature in Translation are the other two components in the Classical Studies curriculum. The change of balance from a language-based approach to the Classics, to a broader study of Greek and Roman Culture has allowed Classics to play a more dynamic rôle in the general education of pupils with a wide range of abilities. It is also recognition of the fact that the importance Latin (and Greek) once enjoyed in the school curriculum is no longer justifiable, when education is compulsory for all and not only for a minority of children (Teaching Classical Studies: Schools Council, p 7). Latin language, at the time of writing, is the only element of Classics taught in South African schools. Classical Greek is no longer included in the school curriculum and only scant attention is paid to the culture of Greece and Rome as a background study for Latin. This part of the investigation is, therefore, limited to the H S R C's investigation but is particularly concerned with studies of Literature in Translation and Classical Civilization.

Syllabuses for Scotland, England, Ontario (Canada), New Zealand and Australia are discussed. Correspondence with Ian Morrison (Glasgow University); David Wilson (Monkwearmouth School, UK); Professor Lambert (University of Ontario); Professor Lacey (University of Otago,

(Auckland); and Mrs Emily Frenkel (Ascham School, New South Wales), was generated partly through addresses supplied by Didaskalos, the Journal of Classical Teachers (Britain), and partly through personal friends. Requests were made for information about syllabuses; examination papers; Teachers' Guides for Classical Studies; comments on the decline of Latin; and reactions of teachers and Latinists to the introduction of Classical Studies.

From Scotland only a syllabus was forthcoming; Wilson sent some Foundation Courses of his own devising, as well as the syllabus for the 16+ Classical Studies course. Professor Lambert contributed four booklets from the Ontario Ministry of Education, on Classical Civilization and Literature in Translation, which included suggestions for courses. Professor Lacey (New Zealand) provided syllabuses, examination papers and Teachers' Guides, whilst Mrs Frenkel complied with all the requests, except for Latin teachers' reactions to Classical Studies, and study guides.

In presenting the syllabuses for each of the countries concerned, the information includes, wherever possible, the age-level for which the syllabus is intended; the ability level of the pupils; a statement of aims and objectives; the syllabus content, and the rôle of support material. A general comment on the implications of the syllabus content is also appended.

#### A Scottish Example.

Classical Studies in Scotland is examined at the Ordinary Grade (the equivalent of about Standard nine in South African schools) by the Scottish Examination Board. The syllabus is short and broad - the requirements for this examination covering a study (in translation) of



four different Classical authors; three themes or topics from the Greek world; and three topics or themes from the Roman world. There are six main aims, extracted from the 'Statement of Aims' for Classical Studies (Scottish Examination Board Handbook, pp 64-65):

1. to develop an "understanding and critical appreciation of the culture of the Greeks and Romans";
2. to "contribute to ... general education ... through the ... intellectual skills (of) analysis, synthesis and correlation" of data;
3. to encourage wider reading through the use of a variety of source materials;
4. to enhance self-knowledge and heighten pupils' experience of man's past achievements;
5. to read literature in translation;
6. to understand and correlate "modern values and institutions" with "those of ... Greek and Roman civilization".

Although no specific objectives are given, the writer had made an attempt to extract these from the aims and the content details of the syllabus.

For Literature in Translation, the objectives would seem to be

1. to show knowledge of the "structure and overall effects of the ... literature being studied";
2. to show understanding of the "argument, narrative or theme of the works";
3. to evaluate the "tone, imagery and characterization" in the literary works, bearing in mind that the literature is in translation.

The objectives for aspects of Greek and Roman civilization, could be listed as

1. to show knowledge and comprehension of the social, political or religious concepts integral to the

particular aspects being studied";

2. to assess "the attitudes, values and beliefs of the Greeks and Romans";
3. to develop the ability to understand "historical source material ... its relevance and value as an historical source, its bias and its omissions".

For the 1984 examination, pupils were required to study two Greek and two Roman authors: Homer, Iliad Books 22, 23 and 24; Sophocles, Antigone, Vergil, Aeneid, Books 7 and 12; and Seneca, Phaedra. The Greek themes selected for the same year were:

1. The buildings of the Athenian Acropolis, including the Theatre of Dionysius.
2. Sparta and its way of life.
3. The first Persian War, with reference to Herodotus, Book 5, chapters 97-126 (end) and Book 6.

Roman studies were directed towards

1. Public and domestic buildings at Pompeii and Herculaneum: design, decoration and use.
2. Birth, marriage and death in the Roman family.
3. The conquest of Britain, with reference to Tacitus' Agricola.

The syllabus varies the topics for each year: for example, the 1985 syllabus replaces the Antigone with Oedipus Tyrannus; the study of the Acropolis is replaced by Athenian vase painting; and the conquest of Britain gives way to "The Political Career of Julius Caesar" (S E B Handbook, p 65-66). Only one theme, however, is changed in each section each year, in order to provide continuity for the teacher, and a gradual build-up of resource materials. Although no particular texts are prescribed, quotations used in examinations are drawn from the Penguin

### Classics Series.

The Scottish Examination Board offers a general syllabus for Classical Studies, made up of Classical Literature in Translation; Aspects of Classical Art, Architecture and Archaeology; Aspects of Greek and Roman Social life; and Studies in Greek and Roman History. There is a certain degree of flexibility, which provides for variety and change. There appears to be a considerable latitude for the teacher to use methods and approaches appropriate to the needs of the pupils who opt for the Classical Studies course. One paper is set for the examination. Five questions have to be answered: two questions on the Classical Authors, and three questions on Aspects of Greek and Roman Civilization. The teacher can choose to concentrate either on Greece or Rome, picking up the fifth topic or theme from the civilization not concentrated upon. As the syllabus tends to prescribe its content for specific historical periods (the Greeks in the 5th Century BC, and the Romans in the 1st Century BC and 1st Century AD), interrelation and overlap in the content should be possible.

There is, however, a problem of chronology which the pupil and the teacher could find difficult. The subject matter of the Iliad records the pre-history of Greece (c. 1100 BC). It was written down in the context of the 7th Century BC, and became a major part of the education of the 5th Century child. The confusion that could result from seeing the Iliad as a portrayal of Greek society in the 5th Century BC, is self-evident. A good point, on the other hand, is the direct link with extant historical sources for both the Persian War (Herodotus) and the conquest of Britain (Tacitus). It is regrettable that Classical Studies is offered only at S4 level (i.e. Ordinary Grade or Standard nine).

Only Latin and Greek are offered at S5 and S6 (Higher Grade and Certificate of sixth year studies, or Standard 10 and post-matriculation in South Africa). This may indicate a lack of recognition of the status of Classical Studies as an intellectual discipline.

#### ENGLAND.

Classical Studies in England is available to a wide age-range of pupils from the age of 9 to the age of 18. Three examples for Classical Studies are offered: a Foundation Course Syllabus, the Joing 16+ Syllabus, and an A-level Syllabus.

#### Example One.

The first of three syllabuses discussed below, is intended for the first year of Secondary school, for pupils in the 11-13 age bracket. The designer of this Foundation course is David Wilson, a member of the London Association of Classical Teachers (LACT) Foundation Course Bureau. The course is topic-centred, but a story-based approach is used in presenting the course to pupils. As only the syllabus content was received, it is not possible to make definitive comments on its aims and objectives.

Three broad areas are covered in Wilson's Foundation Course:

1. The Rise to Power of the Olympians;
2. The Trojan War Story;
3. Greece after the Trojan War, culminating in 5th Century BC Athens.

A fully expanded explanation of each area is given by the syllabus compiler: ((c) D Wilson: LACT Foundation Bureau).

1. The Rise to Power of the Olympians.

- (a) The murder of Uranus.
- (b) The birth of the Furies.
- (c) The haunting of Cronos.
- (d) The birth of Zeus.
- (e) The overthrow of the Titans and the rise of the Olympians.
- (f) Mount Olympus.

2. The Trojan War Story.

- (a) The Golden Apple Story and the Judgement of Paris.
- (b) The marriage of Helen.
- (c) The stealing of Helen.
- (d) The gathering of the Greeks.
- (e) The quarrel of Achilles with Agamemnon.
- (f) The death of Patroclus.
- (g) The death of Hector.
- (h) The Wooden Horse.

(Wilson suggests that, to conclude the Trojan War theme, some time could be spent on what happened to some of the Heroes after the war, e.g.

- (a) Menelaus and Helen return to Sparta;
- (b) The home-coming of Agamemnon;
- (c) The return of Odysseus; and
- (d) Aeneas' escape and eventual arrival in Italy: the important link with Rome).

3. Introduction to 5th Century BC Athens.

- (a) Growth of the city-state.
- (b) Greek temples, in particular, the Parthenon.
- (c) The birth of democracy.
- (d) Life in Athens compared with Life in Sparta.
- (e) The Persian Wars.
- (f) An introduction to Drama and the reading of suitable excerpts of Greek plays
- (g) Home life, education, marriage.

Wilson stresses that this Foundation Course is based on the civilization of the Greeks, and that Roman Civilization is deliberately excluded. Pupils who may be doing the Cambridge Latin Course concurrently with the Classical Studies Foundation Course, will meet Roman civilization as a background study for Latin. Using a mythology-based approach to Classical Studies in the foundation year is invaluable for later work, particularly as the myths provide a great deal of inspiration for the sculpture, vase painting and mosaics produced in antiquity, as well as the background information for the topical allusions with which much of Classical literature abounds. A pupil who wishes to continue with Classical Studies after the foundation year, will possibly opt for the two year examination course (the Certificate of Secondary Education, Mode 3).

No mention is made of specific texts or references in Wilson's Foundation Course syllabus. This does not mean that resource material is not available. As one of the many courses devised by individual teachers for the specific needs of pupils in schools, the support given by LACT and the Schools' Council Curriculum Project has ensured that detailed lists of resources are available for teachers. Many helpful articles are published in Didaskalos, the Journal of Classical Teachers. The Schools Council/Nuffield Foundation Cambridge School Classics Project (established in 1966) provides teaching materials in the form of a Teachers' Handbook, and five folders, each of which contain sample work-cards and test cards, carefully graded so as to cater for a wide range of ability (Teaching Classical Studies: Schools Council Curriculum, p 32).

Wilson's Foundation Course syllabus is a good example of the importance of narrative as a teaching method. Most pupils enjoy listening to stories, especially if the stories are told, rather than read from a

text. The syllabus content lends itself to a variety of forms of expression (through drama, craft skills and imaginative writing), as well as opportunities for individual and group work. By introducing pupils to the mythology of Greece, the pupils are provided with a framework of ideas upon which later courses will be built. The concept of continuity and change is well illustrated in the syllabus presented below, for the 14-16+ age group.

Example Two.

The syllabus for Classical Studies prepares pupils for the Certificate of Secondary Education and the General Certificate of Education. Examining Boards whose requirements are met by the Classical Studies syllabus for the joint 16+ examination are the Associated Lancashire Schools Examining Board (ALSEB); the North West Regional Examinations Board (NWREB); the Joint Matriculation Board (JMB); and the Yorkshire and Humberside Regional Examinations Board (YHREB). There are three certificate titles available to pupils: Latin; Classical Studies; and Latin with Classical Studies. A pupil may obtain certificates for Latin, and for Classical Studies; however, a pupil who enters for the Latin with Classical Studies Certificate examination may not write either the Latin, or the Classical Studies certificate examination.

The Classical Subjects Syllabus for 1984 (issued by the Joint 16+ Examinations Board) lists as its aims, (p 1):

- (a) to undertake a selective study, through the medium of English, of aspects of the Classical World;

- (b) to encourage an intellectual curiosity about the Greeks and Romans and their way of life;
- (c) to provide through primary source material and through Classical literature in translation a range of experiences - linguistic, aesthetic, historical, religious, ethical and emotional;
- (d) to encourage an understanding and critical appreciation of the culture, society and technical achievements of the Greeks and/or the Romans.

In the stated objectives (pp 1-2), pupils are expected

- (a) to show knowledge of the structure and overall effect of the material being studied;
- (b) to display understanding of the argument, narrative or theme of this material;
- (c) to respond to and evaluate tone, imagery and characterisation subject to the limitations imposed by translations;
- (d) to draw comparisons between life and society in Classical antiquity and in their own times;
- (e) to make value judgements based on the vicarious exploration of emotions in myth, story and drama;
- (f) to understand what is meant by evidence, to test what is presented and to detect bias in it;
- (g) to select what is relevant from the material presented and to assimilate it, structure it and communicate it;
- (h) to be able to express themselves imaginatively using themes and ideas from the Classics.



The examination for Classical Studies is divided into two papers: one on Greek and Latin Literature in Translation, and one on Greek and Roman Civilization. In the 1984 syllabus for Greek and Latin Literature in Translation, pupils were required to answer four questions on four topics. The syllabus provides eight topics from which to choose:

1. Homer: Iliad, Books 1, 6, 16, 22 and 24 (Penguin).
2. Homer: Odyssey, Books 5, 6, 9, 10, 21-23 (Penguin).
3. Sophocles: King Oedipus and Antigone (Penguin; or McLeish, Four Greek Plays).
4. Euripides: The Bacchae (Penguin); or Curry, Cambridge University Press Translation).
5. Aristophanes: Acharnians and Peace (McLeish, Four Greek Plays).
6. Plautus: The Swaggering Soldier and Pot of Gold.
7. Virgil: Aeneid, Books 1, 2 and 4 (Penguin).
8. Juvenal: Satires 1, 3 and 10 (Penguin).

In addition to these readings, teachers are expected to give the pupils the background knowledge required for an understanding of the text. In the examination, pupils may answer only one question on Homer - either on the Iliad, or on the Odyssey.

The syllabus for Greek and Roman Civilization in the same year was made up of eighteen topics. Pupils were required to answer four questions on four topics. The topics listed were (pp 6-13):

THE HOMERIC AGE:

1. The Society and values depicted in Homer.

Bibliography:

M Finley, The World of Odysseus (Penguin).  
Homer, Iliad and Odyssey, passim.  
Martin Thorpe, Homer (MacMillan).

2. Schlieman's discoveries at Troy and Sir Arthur Evans' discoveries at Cnossos.

Bibliography:

H Baumann, Lion Gate and Labyrinth (Oxford).

Bibliography (cont):

- J Bolton, Ancient Crete and Mycenae (Longman)  
 L Cottrell, Bull of Minos (Pan).  
 L Cottrell, The Lion Gate (Pan).  
 E McLellan, Minoan Crete (Longman).  
 M Sargent, Mycenae (Longman).  
 M Thorpe, Homer (MacMillan).

ATHENS: 5TH CENTURY BC.

## 3. Themistocles, Thermopylae and Salamis.

Bibliography:

- Herodotus, Histories, Books VII and VIII (Penguin).  
 Herodotus, The Persian War, ed W Shepherd (Cambridge).  
 Plutarch, Life of Themistocles (Penguin).  
 M Renault, The Lion in the Gateway (Longman).  
 B Wilson and D Miller, Stones from Herodotus (Oxford).

## 4. The Athenian Constitution.

Bibliography:

- R Barrow, Athenian Democracy (MacMillan).

## 5. Pericles.

Bibliography:

- R Barrow, Athenian Democracy (MacMillan).  
 A Burn, Pericles and Athens.  
 Plutarch, The Life of Pericles in Rise and fall of Athens (Penguin).  
 Thucydides, Peloponnesian War Book 1 and 2 (Penguin).  
 R Warner, Athens at War (Bodley Head).  
 Woodford, The Parthenon (Cambridge University Press).

## 6. Social Life.

Bibliography:

- M I Finley, The Ancient Greeks (Penguin).  
 R Flaceliere and M Grant, Daily Life in Greece in time of Pericles.  
 H D F Kitto, The Greeks (Penguin).  
 R Nichols and S Nichols, Greek Everyday Life (Longman).  
 M and C H B Quennell, Everyday Things in Classical Greece  
 (Barsford).  
 P Stewart, Growing up in Ancient Greece (Batsford).  
 G Tucher, Life in Ancient Athens (MacMillan).

## 7. Drama Festivals.

Bibliography:

- H C Baldry, The Greek Tragic Theatre (Chatto and Windus).  
 J A Harrison, Greek Tragedy and the Greek Theatre (Bell and Hyman).  
 K McLeish, The Greek Theatre (Longman).  
 M Renault, The Mask of Apollo (Longman) for atmosphere.  
 D Taylor, Acting and the Stage (Allen and Unwin).

## 8. Art and Architecture.

Bibliography:

- Agnes Allen, The Story of Sculpture (Faber).  
 K McLeish, Greek Art and Architecture (Longman).  
 T W Mulryne, The Acropolis (Bell and Hyman Ltd).  
 J Sharwood Smith, Temples, Priests and Worship (Allen and Unwin).  
 S Woodford, Greece and Rome.  
 S Woodford, The Parthenon (Cambridge University Press).

## 9. Socrates.

Bibliography:

- M Parker, Socrates and Athens (MacMillan).  
 M Parker, Socrates: the wisest and most just (Cambridge Transl).  
 Plato, Last Days of Socrates (Penguin).

ROME:

## 10. Early Legend and History to 390 BC.

Bibliography:

- Livy, The Early Histories of Rome (Penguin).  
 Livy, Stories of Rome ed. R Nichols (CVP Translation).  
 Ogilvie, Stones from Livy (OVP).

## 11. Hannibal against Rome.

Bibliography:

- A Bath, Hannibal's Campaigns (Patrick Stevens Ltd).  
 P Connolly, Hannibal and the enemies of Rome (Macdonald).  
 L Cottrell, Enemy of Rome (Pan).  
 Livy, War with Hannibal (Penguin).

12. Pompey, Cicero, Caesar and Antony,  
72-42 BC.

Bibliography:

Caesar Conquest of Gaul: Caesar: Civil War (Penguin).  
 Scullard, From Gracchi to Nero (Methuen).  
 Taylor D, Cicero and Rome (MacMillan).  
 Plutarch, Lives of Pompey and Caesar, in R Warner,  
Fall of the Roman Republic (Penguin).

13. Augustus.

Bibliography:

Jones P V, Augustus (Chatto and Windus).  
 Lewis and Reinhold, Roman Civilization Source Book II  
 Scullard H H, From Gracchi to Nero (Methuen).  
 Suetonius, The Twelve Caesars (Penguin).  
 Tacitus, Annals (Penguin).

14. Claudius and Nero.

Bibliography:

Scullard H H, From Gracchi to Nero (Methuen).  
 Suetonius, The Twelve Caesars (Penguin).  
 Tacitus, Annals (Penguin).  
 For atmosphere: R Graves, I, Claudius (Penguin).  
Claudius, the God (Penguin).

15. Social Life in Rome, 1st Century AD.

Bibliography:

Barrow R, Greek and Roman Education (MacMillan).  
 Cairns T, Romans and their Empire (Cambridge University Press).  
 Harrison J A, Roman Education (Bell and Hyman).  
 Massey, Society in Imperial Rome (Cambridge University Press  
 Translation).  
 Mulryne, Roman Forum (Bell and Hyman).  
 Pliny, Letters of Younger Pliny (Penguin).  
 Taylor D, Roman Society (MacMillan).  
Aspects of Roman Life (Longman).  
Everyday Life in Ancient Rome (Batsford).  
The Roman World (Bell and Hyman).

16. Roman Engineering.

Bibliography:

Grant M, Cities of Vesuvius, ch 4 (Weidenfeld and Nicholson).  
 Grant M, Roman Forum (Hamlyn : Spring Books).  
 H and P Leacroft, Buildings and Ancient Rome (Brockhampton).

Bibliography (cont):

- Macaulay D, City (Collins).  
 Woodforde J, Bricks to build a house (Routledge and Kegan Paul).  
 Wyman P, Ostia (Ginn History Patch).

## 17. Roman Britain.

Bibliography:

- Andrews I, Boudicca's Revolt (Cambridge University Press).  
 Cottrell L, The Great Invasion (Pan).  
 Tacitus, Agricola and Germania (Penguin).  
 Tingay G F, From Caesar to the Saxons (Longmans).  
 Wilkes R, The Roman Army (Cambridge University Press).

As a collected Source Book, The Romans discover Britain (Cambridge University Press).

## 18. Life in Roman Britain.

Bibliography:

- M and P Quennel, Everyday Life in Roman Britain (Batsford).  
 Tingay G F, From Caesar to the Saxons (Longmans).  
 C.S.C.P., The Romans discover Britain (Cambridge University Press).  
 Lactor 4, Some inscriptions from Roman Britain (from Mrs J M Mingay, 8 Park Lane, Sheffield, S10 2DU).

The books for the background reading and reference listed after each topic are not regarded as prescribed text books (syllabus guide, p 6). A general bibliography of Teachers' Books is given at the end of the Greek and Roman Civilization syllabus. Further resources for audio and visual methods of teaching are listed in Chapter 5 and Bibliography I and II of Teaching Classical Studies, Schools Council Curriculum Bulletin 6.

The Classical Studies syllabus is intended for two years of study, with at least three periods a week allocated to it in the school timetable. (Teaching Classical Studies, p 43). The extensive choice of topics on Greek and Roman Civilization has both advantages and disadvantages.

The variety of topics offers freedom of choice for both the teacher and the pupil but this in itself can be a disadvantage. Careful choice of topics could lead to an emphasis on either Greek or Roman civilization, and consequently to a bias in favour of one civilization above the other. The advantages of studying Topics 17 and 18, on Roman Britain, are exciting because of the opportunities they afford for field work. Yet the chronological complexities created if Topics 1 (Homeric Greece, c 1100 BC), and 6 (Greek Social Life, 5th Century BC) are chosen with the topics on Roman Britain, may not provide the pupil with any meaningful experience or understanding of either Greek or Roman civilization.

Ideally, the eight topics offered in the section Greek and Latin Literature in Translation, should have some bearing on the topics listed for Greek and Roman Civilization. Homer, Iliad and Odyssey, links up with Topic 1 in the Civilizations course; Sophocles, Euripides and Aristophanes link up indirectly with Topics 4 and 7; Juvenal can be used for Topic 15; Virgil's Aeneid ties in with Topic 13; and Plautus contributes indirectly to part of Topic 15. It may have helped to include either Suetonius or Plutarch in the literature course, for a biographical study of Augustus, Claudius or Nero, and Pompey and Cicero respectively. This could provide a greater link between the Literature in Translation and the Civilizations topics.

An aspect of the Joint 16+ examinations syllabus which has not yet been mentioned, is the course work option. Pupils may offer coursework only for the Classical Studies certificate title. The course work must cover two different topics, and such pupils will be required to answer two questions from two different topics in both the Greek and Latin

Literature in Translation paper, and the Greek and Roman Civilization paper. Coursework is assessed internally over two years, but must be completed before the final examination is written. Coursework for all pupils must be retained and be available for inspection by the Examining Boards. Specimen materials, which include specification and record cards, examples of approaches to the two topics, and information about the system of moderation for coursework assessment, are available from the Yorkshire and Humberside Regional Examination Board.

The course work option provides an opportunity for pupils of varying ability and interests to explore, at greater depth, topics which appeal to them. In assessing coursework, emphasis is placed upon factual content; the pupils' ability to evaluate materials used; and creative empathy, all of equal importance in the assessment. Inevitably, there are problems with internal assessment, either as a result of staff changes, or subjective marking. The latter problem could be overcome by asking a colleague from another school to act as an external examiner. This is in fact often done in C.S.E. Modes 2 and 3.

#### Example Three.

The last example of the syllabuses for Classical Studies in England, is the last approved syllabus (1974) for A-levels (equivalent to the post matriculation year still offered at Private schools in South Africa). Produced by the Joint Association of Classical Teachers (JACT), Classical Studies Committee, it is examined by the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board (Teaching Classical Studies, p 47). It is topic-based in its approach, and pupils may choose to concentrate on

either Greek or Roman civilization, or they may spread their interests over both civilizations. Two papers are written, in which pupils are required to answer four questions on four topics. Pupils may choose to submit a dissertation as part of one of the papers. If this is done, only two of the four questions for that paper need to be answered.

The syllabus for Classical Civilization at A-level is reproduced from Akroterion, Vol XXXVI, pp 8-9 (De Wet's article, Appendix A). The syllabus has as its aims:

- (a) to encourage the detailed study of subjects which are intrinsically important and interesting, whether as works of art or as contributions to the history of civilization;
- (b) to enable (pupils) who have not studied Greek or Latin to reach a close understanding of some of the ways of thought and feeling of the ancients;
- (c) to draw attention to the links between classical antiquity and later Western civilization.

No objectives are offered. In the syllabus which follows, the prescribed texts are given in brackets.

PAPER 1.

- A : The Homeric Epics (Iliad and Odyssey).
- B : Aristophanes and Athens (Aristophanes, Frogs, Clouds, Wasps, Ecclesiazusae; Euripides, Ion, Hippolytus; Plato, Apology).
- C : Life and Politics in the Literature of the Late Republic (59-44 BC) (Selections from Cicero's speeches and letters; Caesar, Civil War I; Catullus).
- D : Augustan Literature and Society (Virgil, Georgics and Aeneid; Horace, Odes I and III, Livy I, Ovid, Ars Armorica and



Metamorphoses I, IV, VI, XIV).

PAPER II.

- A: Greek Tragedy (Aeschylus, Oresteia; Sophocles, Antigone, Oedipus Tyrannus, Oedipus Coloneus; Euripides, Medea, Hippolytus).
- B: Plato and Politics (Plato, Republic and Georgias).
- C: Satire (Horace, Satires, a selection; Petronius, The Feast of Trimalchio; Juvenal, Satires, a selection; Pope, The Epistle to Dr Arbuthnot; Johnson, London and the Vanity of Human Wishes).
- D: Art and Architecture in Greek Society (G M Richter, A Handbook of Greek Art; questions will be asked on three main topics: Greek Architecture to 400 BC, Painted Pottery Sculpture).
- E: Ancient Historians (Herodotus I and VII; Thucydides I-III; Livy I and II; Tacitus, Annals XIII and XIV; Suetonius, Life of Nero).
- F: Classical Antiquity and the Italian Renaissance: subject area for dissertation, 3000-4000 words in length. Candidates are advised to choose a closely defined topic within this general area. The topic and title of a dissertation must be approved in advance by the Examining Board.

The A-level course provides for a study of Greek and Roman Civilization against an historical background, with reference to the influence of classical antiquity on later Western civilization (Teaching Classical Studies, p 47). Extensive use of the school library would be necessary, but it is likely that pupils would have to move beyond the school to local libraries, where a greater variety of reference works could be consulted. There can be no question of the intellectual stimulation and demands inherent in such an A-level course, for both the teacher and the pupil. It is particularly at this level that a knowledge of the semantics of Greek and Latin is necessary for the teacher. Words like demokratia and colonia cannot be loosely translated into democracy and colony,

without the pupil being aware of the meaning of those terms within the context of the times in which they were used. The teacher of a Vith form Classical Studies class, would, of necessity, have to be a Classical specialist.

The progression from the Foundation Course, through to the Certificate of Secondary Education and the A-level courses, provides a continuum for Classical Studies, in preparation for further study at university and college.

#### ONTARIO, CANADA.

In Ontario (Canada) Classical Studies incorporates Greek, Latin and Classical Civilizations. Courses offered by the Ministry of Education are graded according to year levels, namely: Intermediate (Grades 7/8 or Standard 5 and 6 at South African Schools), Senior (Grades 9, 10, 11 and 12, or Standards 7-10) and Honour Graduation Diploma level (Grade 13 or "post-matriculation" as in Private schools in South Africa).

The Ontario approach to Classical Studies is founded upon the principle of humanising the Classics. The aims, drawn from the Classical Studies guideline (Ministry of Education, Ontario: 75-76/5135, pp 6-7) are ample evidence of this principle:

- (a) "to develop humanistic qualities";
- (b) "to ensure 'cultural transmission'";
- (c) "to appreciate references to the classical world... in modern literature and thought";
- (d) "to appreciate the achievements of the peoples of Ancient Greece and Rome";

- (e) "to appreciate the development of Greek and Roman 'concepts of such personal qualities as courage and loyalty'";
- (f) "to develop 'an awareness of ancient ethical, political and artistic values'";
- (g) "to appreciate the artistic heritage of the classical world";
- (h) "to develop 'a broader understanding of (ancient) technology'";
- (i) "to develop the 'skills ... of inquiry and research, of interpreting data, drawing conclusions, of problem solving, and of detecting bias and distinguishing fact from opinion'";
- (j) "to 'foster development of ... skills (like) creative writing, model building, and designing artistic or literary interpretations of classical literature'".

Course units offered by the Ministry of Education include:

Archaeology; Language and Literacy in the Ancient World; Buildings in Ancient Athens and Rome; the Rôle of women in Classical Society; and the Ancient Olympic Games. These course units are intended for the Intermediate and Senior years (Standards 5 to 10) but they are sample units, and not prescribed. A comprehensive bibliography and resources list is included with each sample unit.

At Honour Graduation level (post-matriculation), Classical Civilization is approached through four themes:

1. Justice and Fair Government.
2. The Good and Education.
3. Love.
4. Drama as a Human Need.

The focus of the Honour Graduation course is on specific questions in human affairs; it is not a history of philosophy, but a survey of

ancient viewpoints on certain universal themes. Besides ancient authors, two Renaissance authors are included (Montaigne, Essays; Francis Bacon, Essays) to provide a bridge to the consideration of those problems in the context of the pupils' own environment.

Another aspect of Classical Studies is a separate course on Classical Literature in Translation (Ministry of Education, Ontario: 1979-9051). Intended for the Senior Division (Standards 7-10 in South African schools), it follows the idea of the Honours level by having four very broad themes:

1. Great Storytelling: The Epic and Novel in the Greek and Roman World.
  - (a) The Odyssey.
  - (b) The Aeneid.
  - (c) Apuleius, The Golden Ass.
  
2. Speaking from the Heart: A Study of Greek and Roman Personal Poetry.
  - (a) Greek Personal Poetry.
  - (b) Roman Personal Poetry.
  
3. Human Fate: A Study of Greek and Roman Tragedy.
  - (a) Greek Tragedy.
  - (b) Roman Tragedy: Seneca, Phaedra.
  - (c) The influence of Greek and Roman Tragedy on Western Drama.
  
4. Greek and Roman Laughter: A study of Greek and Roman Comedy.
  - (a) Aristophanes, The Clouds.
  - (b) Roman Comedy: Plautus and Terence.

As the Classical Literature in Translation course can be "covered in an average school year" (Ministry of Education, Ontario: 1979-9051, p 4), it would probably be best suited to the Standard 10 year. A comprehensive bibliography is given for each section of the course, as well as details about audio-visual resources.

The Ministry of Education stresses that whatever suggestions are offered in the Classical Studies Guidelines, are "for possible use or adaptation by teachers. They do not, in any way, constitute a definitive or prescribed course of studies" (1979-9051, p 2). (This 'guide lines approach' to curriculum planning is also used in the Ontario approaches to History). There is nothing 'second-best' about Classical Studies as presented by the Ontario Ministry of Education. A determined effort to show how the ancient world can be relevant to the modern pupil, whether through literature, achievement or empathetic comparison, is the dynamic feature of the syllabuses. The promotion of skills development, so closely attuned to the new approaches to the teaching of History, ensures that gains made by pupils can be spread across the board for other subject disciplines. There is ample opportunity for co-operation with other departments in the school, and the possibility of team teaching as well. The Physical Education teacher can be approached for assistance in mounting a course on the ancient Olympic Games; The Art teacher for assistance in building models or throwing pots; the Music teacher for help with the importance of music - military and social - in Roman society. The raison d'être behind Ontario's approach is very different from that of Scotland and England. A possible reason for this difference is that the introduction of Classical Studies was the product, not of rescuing the Classics (and Greek and Latin in particular) from oblivion, but the intrinsic value of the subject itself.

NEW ZEALAND.

In New Zealand, Classical Studies as a subject option is available to pupils in the last two years of Secondary education. Pupils are prepared for one of three examinations: the University Entrance Examination; the University Bursaries examination; and the Entrance Scholarship examinations. The latter two examinations follow the same syllabus, but entrance scholarship candidates are required to show greater depth of understanding and evidence of wider reading, beyond the confines of the syllabus.

Ten topics are offered in the syllabus for each of the three examinations - five each on Greece and Rome. In each of the five topics, two topics are historical (one political, one social); two are literary topics; and there is one art topic. Wherever possible, the topics in each of the two groups are chosen from the same historical period. Candidates for whichever examination, may choose any five topics from the ten available.

The aims for Classical Studies are set out by the Universities Entrance Board:

- (a) To provide pupils with a knowledge and appreciation of selected areas of Greek and Roman civilization.
- (b) To encourage students to make comparisons between Classical Civilization and contemporary New Zealand.
- (c) To provide experience of a variety of different types of subject matter, evidence and argument.
- (d) To provide a course which will interest and stimulate pupils of differing abilities and academic backgrounds.
- (e) To allow teachers reasonable freedom to choose aspects of Classical Civilization appropriate to their own and their pupils' interests

- (f) To provide a progression in the subject from the sixth to the seventh form while still allowing for pupils who may wish to begin the subject in the seventh form.

The syllabus content and the texts for each examination type are prescribed.

I. University Entrance Examination:

A. GREEK.

1. Athenian Democracy in the Age of Pericles.

Class texts : Barrow R, Athenian Democracy (MacMillan).  
Athenian Democracy (Study Materials).

2. Athenian Social Life in the age of Pericles.

Class texts : Kitto H D F, The Greeks (Penguin).  
Athenian Social Life (Study Materials).

3. Homer.

Class texts : Homer, The Odyssey (Penguin).

4. Tragedy.

Class texts : Sophocles, The Theban Plays (Penguin).

5. Architecture and Sculpture of 5th Century Athens.

Class texts : Richter G M A, A Handbook of Greek Art (Phaidon).

B. ROMAN.

6. Roman Politics in the age of Caesar and Cicero.

Class texts : Taylor D, Cicero and Rome (MacMillan).  
Roman Politics (Study Materials).

7. Roman Social Life in the age of Caesar and Cicero.

Class texts : Cowell F R, Everyday Life in Ancient Rome (Batsford).  
Roman Social Life (Study Materials).

8. Roman Comedy.

Class text : Plautus, The Rope and other Plays (Penguin).

9. Cicero's Oratory.

Class text : Cicero, Selected Works (Penguin).

10. Pompeii and Herculaneum.

Class text : Grant, Cities of Vesuvius.

II. University Bursaries Examination.A. GREEK.1. Alexander.

Class texts : Hamilton J R, Alexander the Great (Pittsburgh University Press).

2. Greek Science.

Class text : Lloyd G E R, Greek Science after Aristotle (Norton).  
Greek Science (Study Materials).

3. Attic Old Comedy.

Class text : Aristophanes, The Frogs and other Plays (Penguin).

4. Socrates.

Class text : Plato, The last days of Socrates (Penguin).

5. Greek Vase Painting.

Class text : Richter G M A, A Handbook of Greek Art (Phaidon).

B. ROMAN.6. Augustus.

Class texts : Scullard H H, From the Gracchi to Nero Augustus  
(Study Materials).

7. Religion in the Early Roman Empire (including early history of Christianity).

Class texts : Ogilvie R M, The Romans and their Gods (Chatto and Windus).  
Roman Religion (Study Materials).

8. Virgil.

Class text : Virgil, Aeneid (Penguin).

9. Satire.

Class text : Juvenal, Satires (Penguin).



### III. Entrance Scholarships Examination.

The syllabus is the same as that prescribed for University Bursaries. Any four topics should be studied, but candidates are expected to study the selected topics in greater depth and breadth. Four essays are required

The introduction of Classical Studies into the curriculum of New Zealand schools was instituted because acquaintance with Classical Civilization had been available only to those pupils who had already, or were taking, Latin. For reasons unspecified, Latin is not a practicable option for the great majority of sixth and seventh formers. As Greek has never been taught in more than a handful of New Zealand schools, the experience of Latin pupils was confined to classical Rome. Classical Studies is seen as a multi-disciplinary subject, which includes a number of different disciplines, e.g. history, literature and art (which are normally separated in the curriculum). Part of the purpose of the subject is that pupils may gain experience of the connections that can exist between different intellectual disciplines.

Extracts from the prescribed texts in the syllabus are used in the Universities Entrance Board examinations. They are not the only sources available for the various themes; teachers and pupils alike are encouraged to draw from as wide a range of sources as possible. The "Study Material" for particular topics, is for the pupils' use, and there are Teachers' Guides for all the topics. The initiative and responsibility for producing the study materials and Teachers' Guides came from the Department of Classics, University of Otago, Dunedin.

A detailed report is published on the Classical Studies examination results annually, in which an analysis is made of the questions answered by pupils. Comment is made on the strengths and weaknesses of answers, and in the handling of topics. The universities are intimately involved in providing an acceptable standard for Classical Studies. The problem of resources and uniform translations of texts has been resolved by the universities. Although no mention is made of other teaching resources, it is likely that extensive use is made of slides, films and film tapes, as well as other pictorial sources.

#### AUSTRALIA.

An Australian approach to a Classical Studies syllabus has been designed by Mrs Emily Frenkel. Introduced in New South Wales in 1974, Classical Studies is aimed at the 12+ age group, for the last year at Primary school (equivalent to Standard five in South African schools). The course is mythology-based, and a primary aim of the course appears to be that Classical Studies should provide a base upon which the Classical languages can be built.

The Classical Studies syllabus is topic-centred. Three periods a week are timetabled for the subject; and one topic per week should be completed. Marks are awarded each week for assignments, which are set weekly. The grammar units are introduced gradually, Greek with the mythology of Greece, and Latin with Roman mythology.

#### Topics:

1. Introduction to Classical Greece.
2. Gods and Goddesses.
3. Prometheus and Pandora.

4. Demeter.
5. Perseus.
6. Labours of Hercules.

GREEK ALPHABET INTRODUCED

7. Alcestis.

TRANSLITERATION OF SOME GREEK WORDS

8. Jason.
9. Revision.
10. Trojan War. Introduction to Archaeology.

PROPER NAMES WRITTEN IN GREEK SCRIPT

11. Iphigenia.

SIMPLE GREEK SENTENCES. MASCULINE/  
FEMININE DEFINITE ARTICLE

12. Homer's Iliad.

SIMPLE GREEK SENTENCES. ADJECTIVES

13. End of Troy.
14. Odyssey.
15. Odyssey.
16. Odyssey.

EXTENDED GREEK SENTENCES BASED ON  
ODYSSEY CHARACTERS

17. Odyssey.

GREEK LANGUAGE TEST

18. Drama in Classical Greece.
19. Greek Drama.
20. Olympic Games.
21. Greek Art: Sculpture.
22. Greek Art: Architecture.
23. The Acropolis.
24. Greek Art: Poetry.
25. Introduction to the Romans.  
Roman Gods.
26. Aeneid: Fall of Troy and the Escape.
27. Aeneid: Dido.
28. Aeneid: The Underworld.
29. Aeneid: Books 7-12.
30. Aeneid: The Final Duel.
31. Aeneid: Review.
32. Aeneid: Moral

LATIN EXERCISES HAVE BEEN  
INTRODUCED PARALLEL TO THE AENEID

33. Revision: Topics 1-17.
34. Revision: Topics 18-32.
35. Examination: 1 hour, 40 factual completion answers and two paragraphs.
36. Return of Examination.

Although no extended aims or objectives for this syllabus are available, the content has advantages which could be utilised in South African schools at Standard five level. It could be used as a stimulus to promote Greek and Latin as a choice before pupils move into Standard six; it would provide a reasonable foundation for the topical allusions pupils find in English literature; it allows for the teaching of mixed ability and multi-cultural classes. A great deal would depend on the teacher's approach, and method of handling each topic. Care would have to be taken in formulating aims and objectives for each topic, before a method of teaching is envisaged.

Without some indication as to whether the topics are based on the narrative approach or on a work book 'patch' approach, the content of the syllabus does not appear to offer sufficient intellectual challenge whatever the ability of the pupils. This apparent fault is exacerbated by the lack of bibliography, or at least some indication of the books which might be referred to for teaching purposes. Poorly taught, the course could well be a threat to Latin and Greek, because pupils may not want to continue with a Classical language later.

The syllabus examples from Scotland, England, Ontario, New Zealand and Australia provide a fairly comprehensive sample of the types of aims envisaged for Classical Studies. Common to most of the syllabuses are the aims of developing an understanding and critical appreciation of Greek and Roman culture; enhancing self knowledge and heightening pupils' experience of man's past achievements; understanding and correlation of modern values and institutions with (the Classical past) Greek and Roman civilization (see Table 5).

In Tables 6 and 7 a summary of the content, for all the approaches described in this chapter, is provided. Table 6 is concerned with Greece, and Table 7 with Rome. It can be seen that four themes from Greece are very popular: Greek Architecture; The Homeric Age; Greek Tragedy and Greek Art. Each of these appears in five or more of the seven syllabuses

Table 5.

Syllabus Aims	Scot- land	Engl. Joint 16+	A-Level	On- tario	NZ	NSW
1. An understanding and critical appreciation of Greek and Roman culture	x	x	x	x	x	
2. Development of intellectual skills of analysis, synthesis, and correlation of data	x			x		
3. Encourage wider reading and use of variety of source materials	x			x		
4. Heighten self-knowledge, and experience of man's past achievements	x	x	x	x		
5. Read literature in translation	x	x				
6. Understand and relate modern values and institution with classical past	x		x	xx	x	
7. Undertake a selective study of aspects of classical world		x		x	x	
8. Develop humanistic qualities				x		
9. Ensure cultural transmission				x		
10. Development of creative skills				x		
11. A course which interests and stimulates pupils of differing ability and academic background						x
12. Allow teachers and pupils freedom to choose study areas						x
13. Progression from one class to next, and for late starters						x
14. Foundation for classical language						x

Table 6.

Syllabus Content - Classical Civilization.	Scot- land	England 11 - 13	England 16+	England A-level	Ont- ario	NZ	NSW
<u>Greek Themes:</u>	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
1. Buildings of Acropolis, Parthenon et al.	x	x	x		x		x
2. Sparta	x	x					
3. Persian War	x	x	x				
4. The Rise to Power of the Olympians (Homeric Age)		x	x	x	x	x	x
5. The Trojan War		x	x				x
6. Drama: Greek Tragedy		x	x	x	x	x	x
7. Social Life		x	x		x	x	
8. Athenian Constitution Age of Pericles; Democracy		x	x			x	
9. Peloponnesian War			x				
10. Art and Architecture and Sculpture			x	x	x	x	x
11. Socrates and Plato			x	x		x	
12. Alexander						x	
13. Greek Science						x	
14. Attic Old Comedy					x	x	
15. Greek Vase Painting						x	x
16. Olympic Games					x		x
17. Archaeology			x		x		
18. Language and Literacy					x		
19. Ancient Historians				x	x		

Table 7.

Syllabus Content - Classical Civilization	Scot- land	England 11 - 13	England 16+	England A-level	Ont- ario	NZ	NSW
<u>Roman Themes:</u>	x		x	x	x	x	x
1. Pompeii and Hercu- laneum	X					x	
2. Roman Social Life	x		x		x	x	
3. Conquest of Britain	x		x				
4. Early legend and History			x				
5. Hannibal			x				
6. Pompey, Cicero, Caesar and Antony			x	x		x	
7. Augustus			x	x		x	
8. Claudius and Nero			x				
9. Roman Engineering			x				
10. Life in Roman Britain			x				
11. Ancient Historians				x			
12. Language and Literacy					x		
13. Architecture					x		
14. The Aeneid					x	x	x
15. Roman Tragedy					x		
16. Archaeology					x		
17. Comedy					x	x	
18. Religion						x	

examined. The Persian Wars and the Philosophers each appear in three of the syllabuses. Allowing for the wide age-ranges for which the syllabuses were designed, this is noteworthy. It strongly follows, however, that considerable differences in texts and methodologies have to be made because of these age differences.

It is clear from Table 7 that common themes are not as noticeable in Roman studies. Only one topic (Social Life) occurs four times, but the transition period from Republic to Empire is found three times; as does Augustus and the Aeneid. Roman comedy appears twice. Aspects of Roman Britain appear on three occasions (twice in the form of the conquest and once as a social history study). As could be expected, these themes are included in British syllabuses where local history and published resources could help the teacher and the pupils

In Table 8 the syllabus content for Classical Literature in Translation is shown for Britain and Ontario only. In Scotland and England, Literature in Translation is an integral part of the Classical Studies course in the Secondary school phase, whilst in Ontario, Classical Literature in Translation is a separate course altogether, intended for the Honours Graduation year. The Iliad and Odyssey has a high frequency, as does Sophocles' Antigone in the Greek Literature. The most frequent Roman works are the Aeneid and Juvenal's Satires. But as setworks obviously vary from year to year, perhaps it is better to assess the table by author. Aristophanes, Sophocles, Euripides and Plato become very frequent for Greek Literature in Translation, whilst Plautus and Seneca become more frequent in Roman Literature in Translation.



Table 8.

Syllabus content : Classics in Translation		Scotland	England 16+	England A-level	Ontario
<u>GREEK.</u>					
Homer	: <u>Iliad</u> <u>Odyssey</u>	x	x x	x x	x
Sophocles	: <u>Antigone</u> <u>Oedipus Rex</u> <u>Oedipus Tyrannus</u> <u>Oedipus Coloneus</u>	x	x x	x x x	x
Euripides	: <u>Hippolytus</u> <u>Medea</u> <u>Ion</u> <u>Bacchae</u>		x	x x x	x
Aeschylus	: <u>Oresteia</u>			x	
Aristophanes	: <u>Acharnians</u> <u>Peace</u> <u>Wasps</u> <u>Clouds</u> <u>Frogs</u> <u>Ecclesiasuzae</u>		x x	x x x x	x
Plato	: <u>Apology</u> <u>Republic</u> <u>Georgias</u>		x	x x	x
<u>ROMAN.</u>					
Vergil	: <u>Aeneid</u> <u>Georgics</u>	x	x	x x	x x
Seneca	: <u>Phaedra</u>	x			x
Plautus	: <u>Prisoners of War</u> <u>The Swaggering Soldier</u> <u>Pot of Gold</u>		x x		x
Apuleius	: <u>The Golden Ass</u>				x
Juvenal	: <u>Satires</u>				

It would seem that from an examination of the approaches in seven different syllabuses from five different countries, there is considerable agreement about aims and objectives for Classical Civilization and Classics in Translation courses. It can also be seen that these can be made meaningful for pupils as young as 12 to as old as 18. In these circumstances, it is now possible to present a tentative syllabus, together with some comments on resources, methodologies and assessment for the South African situation. This will be done in the following chapters in this thesis.

CHAPTER 5.

The task of drawing up a syllabus for a subject is always a daunting exercise. The specification of aims and formulation of objectives, decisions about approaches to the content matter, the problem of what to omit and what to include, the availability of resources, the importance of assessment and evaluation, are all fundamental to the syllabus design that eventually emerges.

An earlier attempt at syllabus design, intended for pupils of above average ability, was discarded because it negated the rationale for introducing Classical Civilization as a Junior Secondary option. Classical Civilization is envisaged as a subject which pupils of any ability would enjoy: It should not be the preserve of the most able pupils. If this were to be the case, Classical Civilization would be doomed from the start, because the number of pupils who would opt for it (if Latin numbers are an indicator) would not make it a viable subject to include on the curriculum. Another reason for abandoning the earlier draft syllabus, which was topic-centred in approach, was that the topic-centred content demands were too exacting even for very bright Standard six and Standard seven pupils. It was suited more to the cognitive development of Standard nine and ten pupils. Sixteen topics were included in the syllabus content - a range so wide that excessive overlap occurred between topics, so that rather than offering freedom of choice, teacher and pupil were likely to sink in a quagmire of indecision and confusion.

A further factor for abandoning the syllabus was the breadth of

chronology in the original content: Greece from the 12th Century BC to the 4th Century BC; Rome from the 7th Century BC to the 4th Century AD. The time span was wholly unmanageable. Clearly, a topic-centred approach was not the answer per se: there had to be a narrowing down into a reasonable time span so that pupils at the concrete-operational level would be able to do what was prescribed in the syllabus. The final determinant which made reconstruction of the whole syllabus design imperative, was the original inclusion of both Classical Civilization and Literature in Translation as components of the syllabus. At the Junior Secondary level, there is no need for an emphasis on Literature in Translation as a central focus. Use, however, must be made of Greek and Roman Literature in Translation: the literature is a very important source of primary material which must be utilised to augment other areas of study in the Classical world.

Nevertheless, the original exercise has not been a entirely valueless one. It has influenced the design of the syllabus presented in this chapter to a marked degree. Greece and Rome are approached thematically; and within each of these two themes, there are five sub-themes subdivided into a number of smaller topics. There is clarification over what content should be done for each of the two years: Greece in Standard six, and Rome in Standard seven. The chronological period has been shortened to the 5th Century BC for Greece, and the 1st Century BC to the 1st Century AD for Rome. The works of Classical authors are excluded as topics for study: the syllabus is orientated more towards social history than it is towards literature. In the present form of the syllabus, Classical Literature in Translation forms a vital source for primary evidence in teaching the syllabus content.

The justification for the syllabus design which appears in this chapter has many strands, drawn not only from the initial attempt at design: Athens in the 5th Century BC is studied in the Standard six year because there has to be continuity with the material to be studied in Standard seven. A study of Rome in the 1st Century BC to the 1st Century AD would be unwise without some understanding of Rome's inheritance from Greece. The emphasis is on Greek and Roman society because it is well documented in visual primary sources, such as sculpture and vase paintings; architecture, mosaics and wall paintings, as well as in selected works from Classical authors which provide documentary evidence of the past. Personal experience gained in the Classical Civilization major offered at Rhodes University has influenced the planning: This university course gives considerable emphasis to the achievements of antiquity, and it found the 5th Century BC for Greece and the two centuries of Roman history to be particularly rich in evidence for these achievements. Lastly, the influence of the Schools Council History 13-16 Project has had a profound impact in ordering the thought and approach to the task of designing the syllabus for Classical Civilization: through the specification of syllabus aims and objectives, the importance of providing a resources guide; and examples of methodology and assessment (Shemilt, 1980).

The format for presentation of the Classical Civilization syllabus follows conventional, prescriptive lines, with an introduction, syllabus aims and objectives, content and bibliography. A bibliography is offered at the end of each topic as a guide for the teacher. A resources list is provided in Appendix No 2, which gives details of books that are suitable for pupils. Comments are made after the presentation of the syllabus

content about the problems of providing textual accounts suitable for pupils. In the next chapter, suggestions are made on methodology, resources and assessment.

The areas of study for Classical Civilization tend to follow well-trodden paths. There is likely to be overlap with existing courses in Classical Studies, not only in content, but in syllabus aims and objectives as well. Because it is not possible to evaluate the syllabus content in the conventional sense, it has been necessary to build on the experience of others who have implemented the subject before. This justifies the repetition of similar aims and objectives as tabulated for Classical Civilization courses in other countries (See Chapter 4). It must be stressed that the aims and objectives for the individual sections of the proposed syllabus, should be an integral part of the teacher's understanding of the individual and collective needs of his pupils.

#### CLASSICAL CIVILIZATION FOR STANDARD SIX AND STANDARD SEVEN

##### INTRODUCTION

The term 'Classical Civilization' is understood to mean those aspects of social, cultural, religious, historical, political and economic life experienced by peoples in antiquity who inhabited the Mediterranean littoral. The syllabus content concentrates on the Greeks and Romans, without a study of the Greek and Latin languages, but it must be remembered that the contributions made by other peoples in the Mediterranean regions are as much part of the growth of Greece, as Greece is part of the growth of Rome.

SYLLABUS AIMS:

1. To undertake a selective study of aspects of the Classical World.
2. To encourage an intellectual curiosity about the Greeks and Romans and their way of life.
3. To provide, through primary source materials and through translated Classical literature, a wide spectrum of experiences: linguistic, aesthetic, historical, religious, ethical and emotional.
4. To encourage an understanding and critical appreciation of the society, culture and technological achievements of the Greeks and Romans.

SYLLABUS OBJECTIVES:

It is hoped that pupils will be able

- (a) to draw comparisons between life and society in Classical antiquity and in their own time;
- (b) to understand what is meant by evidence; to test what is presented; and to detect bias in it;
- (c) to select what is relevant from the material presented, and to assimilate it, structure it and communicate it;
- (d) to make value judgements based on empathetic exploration of emotions in myth, story and drama;
- (e) to express themselves imaginatively using themes and ideas from the Classical world;
- (f) to work singly and in groups, so as to heighten their self-appreciation, and appreciation of the contributions of others.

SYLLABUS CONTENT:

The syllabus content outlines the course for the Standard six and Standard seven years. Two broad themes are used for the study of Greek and Roman Civilization, to keep the topics groups in the same historical period. The Greek theme, "Athens in the Fifth Century BC",

is allocated to the Standard six year, whilst the Roman theme "Imperial Rome in the First Century BC and AD", is reserved for the Standard seven year. There are five topics for both the Greek and the Roman themes. Any four topics are to be chosen from the theme for each year.

It is suggested that three lessons per week be allocated on the timetable for Classical Civilization. Approximately eight weeks, or one topic per term, can be utilized for the completion of each topic. It is likely that some overlap in topics will occur, especially as the ramifications and interplay in any society cannot be neatly compartmentalized. Consequently, the teacher may find that more time is available for some topics than for others.

The topics for the Greek and Roman themes are presented under similar headings. These headings give the teacher some indication of the approach envisaged in teaching Classical Civilization: that of focussing on the people of the past.

#### STANDARD SIX SYLLABUS.

##### A. GREECE: ATHENS IN THE FIFTH CENTURY BC.

##### 1. The Greeks at Home and Work.

- 1.1. The Home : (a) birth, betrothal, marriage
  - (b) women and children
  - (c) death and funeral customs
  - (d) houses, furniture and clothes
  - (e) food and drink
- 1.2. Work : (a) labour, free and slave
  - (b) markets and shops
  - (c) farming
  - (d) trade



Bibliography:

- C M Bowra : Classical Greece (Time-Life Books: Great Ages of Man).
- A Burford : Craftsmen in Greek and Roman Society (Thames and Hudson).
- R Carrington : Ancient Greece (Chatto and Windus).
- K McLeish : Greek exploration and seafaring (Longman).
- E K Milliken : The Greek People (George Harrap and Co.).
- E Sheppard : Ancient Athens (Longman).
- J C Stobart : The Glory that was Greece (Sidgwick and Jackson).
- L Weisgard : The Athenians (Coward-McCann and Geoghegan).

2. The Greeks at leisure.

## 2.1. Drama Festivals:

## (a) The City Dionysia

- (i) preparations
- (ii) functions of the choregoi
- (iii) selection of judges
- (iv) preliminary rituals and processions
- (v) the contest; the judging and the final review

## (b) Theatre buildings

- (i) theatron
- (ii) orchestra
- (iii) skene and paradoi, their design and purpose
- (iv) seating arrangements
- (v) nature and behaviour of audience

## 2.2. Performance of Tragedy and Comedy:

- (i) actors, their costumes, masks and properties
- (ii) chorus - appearance and functions

- (iii) ekkyklema, mechane and other special effects

### 2.3. The Ancient Olympic Games:

- (i) preparation for the games
- (ii) the events
- (iii) the prizes

#### Bibliography:

- H C Baldry : The Greek Tragic Theatre (Chatto and Windus).
- J D Bentley : The Ancient Olympic Games (Halton Educational).
- E N Gardiner : Athletics of the Ancient World.
- J A Harrison : Greek Tragedy and the Greek Theatre (Bell and Hyman).
- H & R Leacroft : The Buildings of Ancient Greece (Addison Wesley).
- D Taylor : Acting and the Stage.

### 3. The Greeks at War.

- 3.1. Themistocles (a) Xerxes' invasion
- (i) Themistocles' response to the Persian threat; the advantages and disadvantages of his original strategy
  - (ii) Greek expedition to Tempe
- (b) The Battles of Thermopylae and Artemisium
- (i) the evacuation and fall of Athens
- (c) The Battle of Salamis
- (i) retreat of Xerxes
  - (ii) character and career of Themistocles

## 3.2. The Infantry and Navy

- (a) aims and armour
- (b) ships and naval tactics

Bibliography:

- Herodotus : Histories, Books VII and VIII (Penguin).
- K McLeish : Greek exploration and seafaring (Longmans).
- Plutarch : Life of Themistocles (Penguin).
- A M Snodgrass : Arms and Armour of the Greeks (Thames and Hudson).
- B Taylor : Arms and Armour (Brockhampton Press).
- B Wilson and D Miller : Stories from Herodotus (Oxford).

4. The Greeks as Master Craftsmen:

## 4.1. Architecture : Temple and Sanctuary

- (i) purpose and design
- (ii) building skills, materials and workmanship
- (iii) Doric and Ionic orders
- (iv) illustrations taken from the Acropolis, Olympia and Bassae

## 4.2. Sculpture (a) : Temple Structure

- (i) the Parthenon
- (ii) the Temple of Athene Nike (Athens)
- (iii) the Temple of Zeus (Olympia)
- (iv) the Temple of Apollo (Bassae)

## (b) : The Kouros

- (i) development traced through free-standing sculpture
- (ii) the work of Myron, Polykleitos and Pheidias

- 4.3. Attic Pottery (i) use, shapes and techniques of pottery  
 (ii) materials, colour and decoration  
 (iii) development of perspective and figure representation  
 (iv) black-figure and red-figure vase painting  
 (v) a study of some subjects depicted on Greek vases

Bibliography:

- G Becatti : The Art of Ancient Greece and Rome (Prentice-Hall).  
 J Boardman : Athenian Black-Figure Vases (Thames and Hudson).  
 J Boardman : Athenian Red-Figure Vases (Thames and Hudson).  
 S Glubok : The Art of Ancient Greece (Atheneum).  
 H & R Leacroft : The buildings of Ancient Greece (Addison Wesley).  
 K McLeish : Greek Art and Architecture (Longman).  
 D Robertson : A Handbook of Greek and Roman Architecture (Cambridge University Press).  
 S Woodford : The Parthenon (Cambridge University Press).

5. The Greeks as Intellectuals.

- 5.1. Socrates: The Philosopher  
 5.2. Herodotus and Thucydides: The Historians  
 5.3. Thales, Hippocrates and Aristotle: The Scientists  
 5.4. Pericles: The Politician  
 5.5. Sophocles and Euripides: The Tragic Dramatists  
 5.6. Aristophanes: The Comic Dramatist

Bibliography:

- W Agard : The Greek Mind (Reinhold).  
 B Farrington : Greek Science (Penguin).

Bibliography (cont).

- A de Selincourt : The World of Herodotus (Phaidion).  
 G Lloyd : Early Greek Science: Thales to Aristotle (Chatto and Windus).  
 M Parker : Socrates and Athens (MacMillan).  
 Plutarch : The Life of Pericles (Penguin).  
 Thucydides : Peloponnesian War, Books 1 & 2 (Penguin).  
 R Warner : Athens at War (Bodley Head).

STANDARD SEVEN SYLLABUS.B. ROME: IMPERIAL ROME IN THE FIRST CENTURY AD.6. The Romans at Home and at work.

## 6.1. The Home and Family : (a) Family

- (i) birth, betrothal, marriage death
- (ii) women and children
- (iii) clothing and appearance
- (iv) food and drink
- (v) education

## (b) The Home

- (i) houses and flats

## 6.2. Work

- (i) Forum, shops, roads, farming and shopping
- (ii) medicine, crafts
- (iii) municipal management

Bibliography:

- A Burford : Craftsmen in Greek and Roman Society (Thames and Hudson).
- J Carcopino : Daily Life in Ancient Rome (Penguin).
- R Carrington : Ancient Rome (Chatto and Windus).
- F R Cowell : Everyday Life in Ancient Rome (Batsford).
- J A Harrison : Roman Education (Bell and Hyman).
- P Hodge : The Roman House (Longman).
- B Taylor : Ancient Romans (Brockhampton).
- G Tingay and J Babcock : These were the Romans (Halton Educational).
- K D White : Roman Farming (Thames and Hudson).

7. The Romans at Leisure.

- 7.1. At Leisure
- (i) Baths
  - (ii) Country villas and resorts - e.g. Baiae
  - (iii) formal dinners
- 7.2. Entertainment
- (i) Theatres
  - (ii) The circus Maximus and Colosseum
  - (iii) The Roman taste for blood sports

Bibliography:

- C A Burland : Ancient Rome (Halton Educational)
- T Cairns : Romans and their Empire (Cambridge University Press).
- G Foster : Augustus Caesar's World (Scribner).
- Pliny : Letters of Younger Pliny (Penguin).
- D Taylor : Roman Society (MacMillan).
- B Workman : They saw it happen in Classical Times (Oxford).

8. The Romans at war.

- 8.1. Conquest : (a) Roman Britain
- (i) Claudius' invasion
  - (ii) Caratacus and Boudicca's revolt
  - (iii) The governorship of Agricola
- (b) The destruction of Jerusalem and Masada
- (i) the conquest of Jerusalem
  - (ii) the flight to Masada
  - (iii) Silva and the siege of Masada
- 8.2. The War Machine : (a) The Structure of the Army
- (i) military ranks: legionary, decurion, centurion, legate
  - (ii) formations and military tactics
- (b) Arms and armour and defence
- (i) military dress, weapons and equipment
  - (ii) heavy weaponry (including siege-engines)
  - (iii) legionary forts and camps

Bibliography:

- I Andrews : Boudicca's Revolt (Cambridge University Press).
- L Cottrell : The Great Invasion (Pan).
- D Dudley : The world of Tacitus (Little, Brown and Company).
- M Grant : The Armies of the Caesars (Scribner).
- Josephus : The History of the Jews (Penguin).
- J C Stobart : The grandeur that was Rome (Sidgwick and Jackson).
- Tacitus : Agricola and Germania (Penguin).

Bibliography (cont)

- B Taylor : Arms and Armour (Brockhampton Press).  
 G R Watson : The Roman Soldier (Thames and Hudson).  
 R Wilkes : The Roman Army (Cambridge University Press).

9. The Romans as Master Builders.

- 9.1. Roman Engineering (i) materials  
 (ii) techniques and tools  
 (iii) developments of the Arch and Vault  
 (iv) design and construction
- 9.2. Town Planning (a) Roman Britain  
 (i) road construction  
 (ii) towns
- (b) Pompeii  
 (i) forum and basilica; baths, theatres  
 (ii) streets  
 (iii) interior decoration

Bibliography:

- M Grant : Cities of Vesuvius (Weidenfeld and Nicholson).  
 M Hassall : The Romans (Hart-Davis Educational).  
 P Hodge : Roman Towns (Longman).  
 W Jashemski : Letters from Pompeii (Ginn).  
 H & R Leacroft : The buildings of Ancient Rome (Brockhampton).  
 P Mackendrick : The Mute Stones Speak (New American Library).  
 G Picard : Roman Painting (Elek Books).



Bibliography (cont)

- Pliny : Letters of the Younger Pliny (Penguin).
- M & P Quennel : Everyday life in Roman Britain (Batsford).
- D S Robertson : A Handbook of Greek and Roman Architecture (Cambridge University Press).
- J Woodforde : Bricks to build a house (Routledge & Kegan Paul).

10. The Roman Search for Religion.

## 10.1. Home and State Religion

## (a) The gods of Rome

- (i) the Roman Pantheon
- (ii) State religion

## (b) The gods of Home

- (i) the Lares and Renates
- (ii) the individual genius

## 10.2. Religions of the Empire

- (i) Isis worship
- (ii) the cult of Mithras
- (iii) Christianity

Bibliography:

- J Carcopino : Daily life in Ancient Rome (Penguin).
- F R Cowell : Everyday Life in Ancient Rome (Batsford).
- F Cumont : The oriental religions in Roman paganism (Dover).
- M Grant : The World of Rome (Sphere Books).
- F Heicheleim and C Yeo : A History of the Roman People (Prentice Hall).

Bibliography (cont)

- R M Ogilvie : The Romans and their Gods (Chatto and Windus).
- U E Paoli : Rome, its people, life and customs (Longman).
- E Tripp : Crowell's Handbook of Classical Mythology (Crowell).
- G Watson : The Roman Soldier (Thames and Hudson).

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Comparison with the content of Classical Studies from other countries will reveal certain influences in selecting the themes and topics included in this syllabus. The division of the Greek and Roman topics for two specified years is borrowed from the New Zealand syllabus, which also influenced the decision to limit the number of topics from the original eight to five. Most of the syllabuses offer Greece in the 5th Century BC, either concentrating on the Age of Pericles, or Athens as a polis and leader of an "empire". The choices of topics for Rome has followed a very wide period of Rome's history, from Republican Rome to late Imperial Rome. There was a temptation to settle on a very narrow area of Rome's history, namely, The Augustan Age, because it was a period of great cultural growth; but it could give a distorted picture of Roman life. This was discarded in preference for a two century spread of Rome's development, from late Republican Rome to Imperial Rome up to the end of the 1st Century AD. The emphasis placed on Roman Britain in the Scottish and English syllabuses accommodates the needs of British pupils who are able to visit archaeological sites, and experience the impact of Rome's occupation of Britain. The

inclusion of a tiny section on Roman Britain as part of the section on 'The Romans as Master Builders', was prompted by the need to provide contrast and similarity in the Roman approach to town planning - at home (Pompeii) and abroad (Britain), and also because of the wide range of resources available for the topic in English.

All of the syllabuses were influential in paying particular attention to the dangers of anachronisms. By limiting the time span for the Greek and Roman themes, certain classical writers could not be used as sources of evidence for the particular historical period isolated. Thus, although the Romans enjoyed comic drama as much as the Greeks, using the plays of Terence and Plautus (2nd Century BC) as evidence of Roman social life in the 1st Century BC-AD, is not a valid exercise.

The practice of supplying a bibliography at the conclusion of each topic is used in both the English 16+ syllabus for Classical Studies, and the Universities Examination Board syllabuses in New Zealand. The rejection of Classical Literature in Translation as an integral part of the syllabus for Classical Civilization was influenced by the Ontario approach to Classical Studies where Classical Civilizations and Classical Literature in Translation are recognized as single subjects in their own right. The title of the subject, Classical Civilization, is taken directly from the course as it is offered at Rhodes University, although the definition of the term does not include a study of Crete and Ancient Egypt. This limitation of the field of study of Mediterranean peoples to the Greeks and Romans is in keeping with the syllabuses from other countries.

The particular themes decided upon for the study of Greek and Roman civilization owe much to the availability of resources for their

inclusion, and because they lend themselves to a variety of methods which can be usefully employed in the classroom (this is dealt with more fully in a later chapter). It must, however, be added that personal preference was a deciding factor.

There is, however, one serious obstacle to be overcome in this proposed syllabus. The obstacle is not so much the syllabus itself, but rather the problem of language mediums used in Secondary schools. Although an extensive range of books is available, as shown in a limited way in both the topic bibliographies and the resources list, all of these books are in English. This raises the issue of providing textual accounts for Classical Civilization, at a suitable level for Standard six and Standard seven pupils; it is an issue exacerbated by the need to supply the textual material, not only in English, but in Afrikaans as well.

Providing pupils with suitable texts was a major problem of the Schools Council History 13-16 Project. In the end, the Project Team was forced to write its own textbooks - they provided the pupils, through the pictures and their insertions of documentary evidence, with much of the primary evidence for the History 13-16 course.

A similar project would have to be undertaken in South Africa. Study materials for each of the topics, which would include not only selected translations from Classical authors, but photographic reproductions of a range of art works, architecture and archaeology, would need to be written for the pupils. Teachers' Guides would be imperative to assist the teacher in their use. Such a project team would have to call on the talents and co-operation of the Departments of Classics at South African universities, as well as Latin and Classical Civilization specialists in schools.

Although study materials are now published for the 13-16 year age group for the schools Council Classics Project: Classical Studies, and teachers and pupils guides are obtainable for New Zealand schools, the topics covered do not match all of the topics in the proposed syllabus for South African schools. And, even if some could be used for English medium schools, the textual materials would have to be translated from the Greek and Latin writers into Afrikaans, which would demand participation from universities.

Serious though this obstacle is to the introduction of Classical Civilization at Junior Secondary schools, it is not impossible to overcome. As it is probably too much to expect a project team to undertake the task of compulsory textual materials without financial assistance, money would have to be found from various institutions and organisations to fund the Project. The implication of a statement of this nature suggests premature acceptance of Classical Civilization as a Secondary school subject. It is, however, a fundamental consideration that has to be mentioned when any new subject is introduced into an existing curriculum in South African schools.

CHAPTER 6.

Crucial to the introduction of a new subject to the school curriculum is some guideline for the teacher regarding methodology, resources and assessment. This chapter focuses on different methods which can be employed in teaching Classical Civilization: the availability of resources; and the problem of assessment and examinations.

The Classical Civilization syllabus proposed earlier, is based on two approaches: the thematic approach and the topic-centred approach. In transmitting the content of the Classical Civilization syllabus, the method employed by the teacher is not prescribed. However, many teachers may experience uncertainty as to the type of procedure that could be followed in teaching pupils of mixed ability, and when roughly one term is allocated for each topic.

Of all the methods one can use in the teaching of mixed ability classes, group work must rank high on the list. In initiating group work, Kaye and Rogers (1968, p 62), suggest that pupils be asked to choose a topic upon which individual work is based. A simple outline of procedure is given to the class in order to follow a line of enquiry. As the pupils work, it becomes clear to some pupils that there is an overlap in choice of topic, and some pupils combine to complete the investigation topic chosen.

Once the class has moved from individual work to voluntary teaming up for group work, the principle of co-operation and the pooling of resources leads to the discovery of mutual benefits and an appreciation of the contributions of others. If Classical Civilization is tackled thematically,

there is scope for involvement with other departments in the school. The thought behind this is not inter-disciplinary studies per se, but rather inter-disciplinary co-operation, and a rejection of subject-divisions in the pupils' minds (Kaye and Rogers, 1968, p 65). The confidence that group work can create for the individual pupil adds enormously to the pupil's enjoyment and his own motivation and growth. Every pupil has the ability to contribute to the success of a study of the past. It is not enough for a 'slow learner' to be relegated tasks of diminished worth: even if a pupil's reading age is well below his actual age, this does not exclude him from the skills of comprehension, observation, translation, analysis or inference. Nor need the pupil with less 'intellectual' ability be precluded from developing these skills (John Hull, n.d. p 19).

Group work requires precise aims and objectives from the teacher, where the objectives are tailored to the needs of each individual pupil. The demands made of the teacher are many: his rôle moves from the centre of activities to the periphery; he must be available when the pupils need him - the demands made by a pupil of greater academic ability must be satisfactorily met, as must those of a pupil of lesser academic ability. The teacher almost needs a Protean approach to management, adapting his vocabulary, approach and response depending on the pupil, the problem and the question. For all the heavy responsibility group work places on the teacher, it is a teaching method as acceptable as any of the traditional methods, and more importantly, the aims of group work go far beyond the limits of the lesson into the realms of social education (Kaye and Rogers, 1968, p 75). As a method, it puts people back into the Ancient World.

John Hull (n.d.) presents the case for the graded worksheet approach to mixed ability learning. In contrast to the single worksheet, suitable for a wide ability range, the graded worksheet has coped with the problems inherent in the single worksheet exercise - namely, the problems of completion. Because the single worksheet questions progress from the simple to the complex, the slower pupil is always at risk because of the feeling of incompetency such a technique engenders. The single worksheet also does not take into account the vital question of motivation: how does one solve the problem of the pupil who finds the initial questions so unchallenging, that they are omitted altogether? What happens to the 'average' pupil, when there appears to be a greater concentration of questions for the less able pupil and the more able pupil? (Hull n.d., p 33).

Hull's approach is to use three grades of worksheets, each roughly drawn up to cater for the needs of the 'three ability divisions'. Pupils proceed at their own speed, and according to their own needs. He is careful to point out that the content of each graded worksheet is the same: the differences lie in language, the amount of memorization required, and the complexity of tasks to be done (Hull n.d. p 34). Skills are reinforced, and progression from one skill to another is stimulated. Because each grade of worksheet is closely aligned with the needs of the individual pupil, the danger of loss of self-appreciation, and feelings of inferiority, are greatly diminished. The pupils are also able to compare their worksheets to establish for themselves that the work covered is the same. The problem of completion time is evened out, so that all pupils finish at roughly the same time (Hull, p 35).

Birt (1976) warns of the problems of concentrating too much on the less



able child to the detriment of the rest of the group (p 318). His strongest advocacy is for the use of source materials, which can be used very beneficially for mixed ability classes especially if the material is pictorial. This removes the stumbling block of literacy problems, and if questions are carefully graded, even the less able pupil is able to answer with complete accuracy. Use of pictorial evidence lends itself to both individual and group work, class discussion and controversial debate (Birt, 1976, p 320). Birt stresses the importance of "structured development" when using open-ended questioning and activities. There must be a purpose behind the questions pupils are required to answer, and the models they are required to make, which will stimulate more than a limited response from the pupils (Birt, p 322).

Accepting that the composition of any class will consist of pupils of varying abilities, with different needs, and in various stages of conceptual thinking, a few suggestions for teaching Classical Civilization are offered.

Projects have become very popular in Humanities subjects, and can be used to good effect in Classical Civilization. An immediate and relevant example, in view of the recent Los Angeles Olympic Games, would be a project on the Ancient Olympic Games. Evidence from Greek vases (the Panathenaic Vases show scenes referring to events in the games at Athens) provides not only illustrations of the events, but the importance of the coach for training techniques. Other primary source materials, such as friezes and free-standing sculpture, and literary references in Herodotus, can be used, augmented by secondary sources, for evidence of the Olympic Games. Comparison with the events of the modern olympics, the ritual and the prizes of both, provide areas of research and

presentation which can be of absorbing interest to pupils. Perhaps a practical re-enactment of the Olympics (vastly scaled down!) could be arranged on the sports field at the school to round off the project to everyone's satisfaction.

Written assignments of various sorts provide a wealth of innovatory methods of teaching. Besides the conventional essay and paragraph, pupils could produce a travel guide (for example) round the Acropolis, using pictures, photographs and postcards to illustrate the guidebook. A newspaper is always a stimulating means for producing information which the whole class can enjoy, with reports on the war front, reviews of plays, a report on some speech made by a 'political figure', a sports page, advertisements, judgements from the law courts, letters of complaint, cartoons and jokes. A diary of events, empathetically reconstructed, is another valuable means of expression; and a sailor's logbook recording a trading mission, would make interesting reading.

In the practical sphere, there are a number of interesting areas to explore. Jewellery and models are not difficult to make, and need not use expensive materials in their construction. Models such as houses, hypocausts, catapults, battering rams, ballistae, forts, chariots, swords, armour (breastplate, greaves, shield, helmet), and aqueduct, can be made from cereal boxes, corrugated cardboard, balsa wood, cartridge paper and tinfoil. A useful little book: The Roman World (P Titley, 1978. Let's Make History Series) has designs, and instructions for scaled models, such as those described above, written clearly and simply enough for everyone to understand. The simplicity of Greek and Roman dress makes it possible for pupils to reproduce the type of clothing worn by people in the Classical World. A very enjoyable exercise is possible in the reproduction

of dishes eaten by the Romans. Menus and recipes preserved by Apicius can be tried and tested by the whole class. 'Re-living' a typical Roman day could again be a class project: with the school swimming bath as a meeting place, "guests" would be attended to by "slaves" and masseurs, before moving on to the school hall for a 'Roman banquet'. As the guests recline in Roman dress sampling the food and watching the entertainment provided by musicians, acrobats, dancers and jugglers - all of which would be provided by the class - the 1st Century AD could be brought very close to the 20th Century AD.

There is a rich supply of dramatic material from the Classical World. Scenes from Aristophanes, produced by the class, with correct attention to detail in the setting (open air) and staging, and through the use of masks (made by the pupils) and stage machinery, would provide a memorable evening for the pupils, if not the audience. Choral work, a dramatic device mostly neglected in modern plays, provides an excellent opportunity for unity of voice and movement. The co-operation and contribution of each pupil is vital for a successful performance. The delivery of speeches is a demanding, but satisfying expression of the talents some pupils may possess. Speeches can be taken from the Classical authors - e.g. Themistocles' speeches in Herodotus; Cicero's speeches - or an imaginary speech composed which captures the currents of oratory met in speeches the pupils may have read. Discussions and debate on thorny issues, like slavery, women in Greek society, exposure of babies, can lead to heated argument between protagonists and antagonists. The teacher must remain the "neutral chairman", to use Stenhouse's phrase, if pupils are to derive the maximum benefit from such an exercise.

Visits to museums are often rewarding outings for pupils. In many museums,

one section will have displays on the Ancient World - perhaps in a coin collection, sculpture, vases, tiles, jewellery, armour or weapons. Some universities have museums within their Departments of Classics, as at Rhodes University and the University of Cape Town. The organisation of the visit needs careful planning to make the experience really worthwhile. Inevitably, pupils will meet other evidence of the Ancient World, not necessarily belonging to the Greek or Roman world, such as a scarab, or an Egyptian sarcophagus, or a cylinder seal. Invariably, too, the pupils will see artefacts from a period either preceding or succeeding the historical period of Classical Civilization being studied at school. Encouragement of healthy curiosity is always a good thing: there is no better way for a pupil to widen his knowledge than through the motivation to find out for himself. If all the questions asked at the museum cannot be answered satisfactorily, provide access to books and cross references so that the pupil can discover more about the artefacts he has seen.

This raises the very necessary consideration of resource materials for Classical Civilization. The range of resources which teachers can use to supplement the teaching of Classical Civilization includes books and print-based materials; maps; audio-visual, visual- and audio-aids; museums and historic sites; models, games and simulations; people and things (Strongman, 1973). Practical and methodological criteria need to be applied in the selection of resources. Practical criteria include relevance; accuracy and suitability for the intended age level, compatibility with other resources; cost; durability and availability. Because resources selected must cater for, satisfy, and stimulate all pupils of whatever category represented in a class, the cardinal criterion in the selection of resources must be the method the teacher intends using in order to achieve the aims and formulated objectives for a lesson.

The variety of books available on the Greek and Roman world can be rather bewildering. The upsurge of interest, in recent years, on the heritage of Greece and Rome, has resulted in a proliferation of beautifully illustrated books on the Art and Architecture of the Classical World. Publications of good translations of the Classical authors in Penguin Paperbacks are readily available at bookshops. With careful evaluation, the teacher should be able to select a sufficiently wide-ranging collection of books for use in the classroom.

A resources list of books of considerable use for Classical Civilization is presented in the Appendix 2. There are thirteen categories of books, ranging from Classical Handbooks to Education and Teaching. A short explanatory note is given on each book, as well as the customary publication details. Reference books intended for the teacher or the pupil have the abbreviation 'P' or 'T' in brackets after the notes. Many books do not have this annotation, because they are general books on the subject. The selection of the books was influenced by the courses attended for the Classical Civilization major at Rhodes University, and most of the books were acquired during the course of study.

A category not included in the resources list is the historical novel. While the works of Mary Renault (The Mask of Apollo, 1966; The Last of the Wine, 1959) may be somewhat long and too adult for a Standard six pupil, the works of Rosemary Sutcliffe (The Flowers of Adonis, 1969; Eagle of the Ninth, 1966; The Silver Branch, 1957) are ideally suited to the Junior Secondary level. They cannot, however, be regarded as infallible, yet the books offer insight into the past as well as colour to a period in history which might otherwise be seen in a very dull monochrome. It is vitally important for pupils to read as widely as possible,

and the potential of the historical novel is often overlooked as a means of providing enjoyment and simultaneously meeting the aim of stimulation for leisure interests.

Books and other print-based materials have always been an accepted and accessible feature of the teacher's trade; the same is now true of audio-visual aids, except that the range of audio-visual aids has increased rapidly over the last few years, catering for the wider needs of pupils. R Ben Jones (1973, pp 239-240) warns, however, that the proliferation of audio-visual materials available means that the teacher should not only know how to use the aids in lessons, but that he must also realise their limitations. It is one thing for pupils to see a reconstruction of the past on film, for example; but there must also be the realisation that what they are seeing and hearing may be one person's interpretation of the past: the pupils are not seeing what actually happened.

The warning is timeous. Pupils remember details which strike them most vividly when they watch films, either on television or by projection. The distortions and inaccuracies imbibed by pupils sometimes take months to eradicate. It takes skillful preparation before, during and after a cinematographic presentation for pupils to derive the maximum benefit from the production they are seeing. With this in mind, and because teachers often are not aware of the quality of audio-visual resources available in South Africa, free of charge, an annotated list of audio-visual materials is included in Appendix 2. The names of the distributors, the duration, reference number, and distributor of the film is given as well as a general comment on the educational level of the film. Addresses of the distributors are given at the end of the list of available films.

A comment has already been made about the use of slides and tape-slides as a method of teaching Classical Civilization. A number of universities (and possibly some schools) make use of the Cambridge Latin Project. Slides form part of the teaching kit; and with modern photographic techniques, it should not be too difficult to reproduce these slides for use in teaching Classical Civilization. The Department of Classics at Rhodes University, is at present compiling a series of slides to complement the Cambridge Latin Course and Cambridge Greek Course, under the supervision of Mr Warren Snowball. A similar project could be undertaken for the reproduction of a series of slides for Classical Civilization. Commercially produced slides are also available; but teachers may find it useful to make their own slides from some of the pictorial art books, using a Kodak Ektagraphic EK Visualmaker. Often one well-chosen slide can be the focus of an entire lesson, stimulating a variety and depth of questions from a class of all abilities.

Perhaps the most common visual aid used by teachers are pictures. Whether pictorial aids fall into the category of photographs, postcards, paintings, cartoons, posters or wall charts, they can be put to various uses and are an excellent means of fostering the skills of observation, analysis, extrapolation and assessment (Unwin, 1981, p 5). Useful approaches to exercises, questioning styles and activities suitable for younger children are given in Lally and West (1981). Teachers often despair of finding large enough pictures which can be seen by all the pupils. Transparencies for use on overhead projectors can provide the answer to that problem, especially if the picture on the transparency is reproduced on a worksheet to be completed as part of a lesson. For educative and decorative use, teachers can obtain travel posters on Greece and Rome from an

obliging travel agency, or the Greek and Italian Consulate. Posters can be dry-mounted to make them more durable.

Many resources are, in fact, created by the pupils themselves, as an integral part of their enquiry into the past. Models, wall charts, maps, friezes, masks, medallions, jewellery, and drawings, are some of the contributions pupils can make, along with their own projects on a variety of topics. The types of resources available underpin the responsibility every teacher of Classical Civilization would have to accept: a legacy of dullness cannot be passed on to his pupils. In a country constrained by the notion that the textbook is the sole means of teaching and learning, variety of resources and teaching methods must be the watchword of the teacher of Classical Civilization. The range of resources available affords the opportunity to select resources which will meet and supplement the needs of pupils; encourage the acquisition of skills and concepts; and give the freedom to move beyond the limitations of a textbook into a pupil-centred relationship.

As Classical Civilization would fall into the bracket of the two options for Standard six and Standard seven, the end of year examination needs to be extremely carefully constructed. It should not, however, be the sole determinant of whether a pupil passes or fails the subject, even although it is necessary to assess whether the pupil has acquired the basic minimal information about the Classical World in an objective test. What can be done is continual assessment for all written work and projects during the year, awarding marks on an assessment card for each pupil. Assignment books and sheets are a useful means of keeping a continuous assessment of the pupil's grasp of the subject matter. Based on duplicated information from a variety of sources, the pupil is required to answer



questions on selected passages, and then to present his answers in a readable form - sometimes with illustrations. A similar method is the use of worksheets (see pages 116 and 117). Worksheets prepared by the teacher have the advantage of allowing for the differing abilities of pupils in the class. An example of a worksheet may illustrate a Greek woman, with a paragraph on the ritual of dress and adornment. Graded questions are set to ensure that pupils understand the different types of garments worn, the use of make-up, and the variety of hairstyles and jewellery used to make women appear more attractive. The colouring in of the picture in itself, is a means of assessment, in the choice of colours used through accuracy in observation. Sometimes assessment is difficult when a group project is undertaken: how can the teacher know whether the bulk of the work in a group project has been handled by the most able or the keenest pupil, or whether there has been a fair distribution of work between all the pupils, to make up a group effort? This is not an easy problem to solve, although there may be some yardstick for assessment in how the groups are initially established.

If pupils are placed in groups by the teacher, so as to ensure an even spread of talents within each group, a dominant pupil may well control the work contributions of each pupil. A possible remedy would be to have each pupil within the group as the group leader, on a rotation basis. This could create difficulties of lack of co-operation within the group, and a minimising of the contributions of the less able pupil. It is a situation which both the group and the teacher will have to sort out. It may be preferable for the pupils to form groups of their own, without teacher direction: the advantage then is that pupils themselves recognise where the talents of each member lie, and there is likely to be greater cohesion through the respect each pupil has for



WORKSHEET 1: THE GREEKS AT HOME AND WORK.b) Women and Children.

1. Names of Greek women and girls tended to end with either an -a or an -e; for example, Penelope, Nausica, Medea, Ismene. Give the lady in the illustration a name, and write it under the illustration.
2. How was a chiton (tunic) made?
3. What materials were used for clothing?
4. What types of fastenings are illustrated on the chiton in this picture?
5. Your Greek lady has no footwear on her feet. Did Greek women always walk barefeet?
6. If they didn't, what types of footwear were used?
7. What kind of garment is your lady wearing over her chiton? If you can remember the Greek term for it, write it down as well.
8. What evidence can you find in the picture which tells you that Greek women were fond of jewellery and decoration?
9. Why was the Peplos (a tunic fastened with long pins at the shoulders) banned?
10. Colour in the garments worn by your Greek lady, reflecting the colour choices of a fashionable Greek lady.

his own ability and for the abilities of other pupils in the group. Pupil appointed groups may well provide the teacher with a clearer idea of the contributions made by individual members of a group in a group project.

But how does the teacher assess a pupil who is unable to produce a standard of written work commensurate with the written tasks set and yet has the creative talent to produce excellent models and drawings, or has the facility to act or organise successfully? Such achievement cannot go unrecognized, nor is it easily or objectively measurable. When a pupil is unable to produce a convincing score in an objective test, can the teacher say that the pupil has not acquired the basic minimum of information about the civilizations of Greece and Rome? The answer may be in providing a different presentation for testing: an oral test, or the use of a tape recorder and earphones, where the pupil listens to questions from a tape, and then replies on another tape. Possibly, questions could be posed with two answering techniques, for example: "We know that little children in Rome played with toys. Either write a paragraph on the types of toys with which Roman children played, or draw a picture of Roman children at play with examples of their toys".

Setting a test for end of year examinations could reduce Classical Civilization to a 'swot' subject, where 'spotting' for examinations occurs because of the depth of the subject. The setting of an examination paper which stimulates pupils and also caters for all abilities within the class is a challenging undertaking. What the teacher is really testing becomes the focus of the paper: if it is factual recall, in effect it tests nothing other than a good memory. If, however, the teacher is testing the pupil's ability to comprehend, analyse and communicate, then a paper can be set which provides all the information

a pupil needs. How the pupil answers the paper and uses the information provided, will be a test not only of intellectual skills, but also of the pupil's understanding of the civilizations of the Greeks and/or Romans he has been investigating during the year.

Techniques which can be used for examining Classical Civilization include: multiple choice questions; assertion-reason testing; questions testing comprehension, analysis and evaluation; open-ended paragraphs; and identification questions. Where possible, questions should be structured so as to ensure that what is required by the questions is made as clear as possible for the pupils answering them. In setting structured questions, it should be remembered that "the greater the structure, the greater the demands placed upon the setter; the lighter the structure, the greater the demands placed on the marker". (Shemilt and Scott, 1983, p 185).

Some examples of the types of techniques which could be employed for evaluation are offered below. The examples include a structured question; an identification question; an assertion-reason question; and comprehension, extrapolation and inference questions. An illustration of a structured question for the Standard seven pupils, on the unit "The Romans at Leisure", is provided:

° The Romans at Leisure.

Read the 5 extracts which appear below, and then answer the questions which follow:

- A. "I am scribbling the lines of which you are reading a copy, on my tablets after taking my place at dinner at two-thirty of the afternoon. If you wish to know where, my host is Volumnius Eutrapelus. Your friend

Atticus and Verrius are on either side of me".

Cicero, To His Friends 9.26  
(tr. Shackleton Bailey)

- B. "Once Cicero and Pompey came up to Lucullus as he was at leisure in the Forum ... Cicero greeted him and asked him how he felt about granting a favour. "Certainly", said Lucullus, "please ask whatever you want". "Well", said Cicero, "we would like to dine with you today just as if you were on your own". Lucullus was taken aback and urged them to change the day, but they would not let him, and they stopped him from telling his servants about the invitation to prevent him ordering more than what would have been required for himself".

Plutarch, Lucullus 41.4-6.

- C. "On the 19th, Caesar stayed with Philippus until one o'clock admitting nobody ... Then he took a walk on the shore. Towards two he went to his bath ... After anointing, he took his place at dinner ... and ... both ate and drank with uninhibited enjoyment. His entourage moreover were lavishly entertained in three other dining-rooms. The humbler freedmen and slaves had all they wanted - the smarter ones I entertained in style".

Cicero, Letters to Atticus 13.52  
(tr. Shackleton Bailey)

- D. "The private rooms are those into which nobody has the right to enter uninvited, such as bedrooms, dining rooms, bathrooms and all others used for like purposes. The common rooms are those which any of the people have the right to enter, even without an invitation ..."

Vitruvius, Architecture 6.5.1-2  
(tr. Lewis and Reinhold)

- E. The Goblets Virro  
Drinks from are regular tankards, amber-encrusted,  
Studded with beryl. But you get no golden vessels -  
Or if you do, a waiter is stationed by you  
To count the jewels, check your sharp fingernails.

Juvenal, Satire V.

Now answer these questions:

- (a) What evidence is there in statement A and C about the numbers of guests at a dinner?
- (b) Describe or draw the layout of furniture in a typical Roman dining room, indicating how the host positioned his guests in order of importance.
- (c) Statement D states that nobody had the right to enter dining rooms uninvited. How can you explain Cicero and Pompey's request to Lucullus in statement B?
- (d) In what way do the statements in C and E reveal similar treatment of guests?

A structured question of this type tests the skills of inference (a); recall (b); empathy (c); and comprehension and evaluation (d). The questions are graded, starting with a simpler question, and ending with a more complex question.

Another technique which could be used is identification. In the question that follows, Standard six pupils are required to identify what the people are doing from the scenes portrayed on four Greek vases. Thereafter, the pupils are required to write a short paragraph on any two of the social activities illustrated.

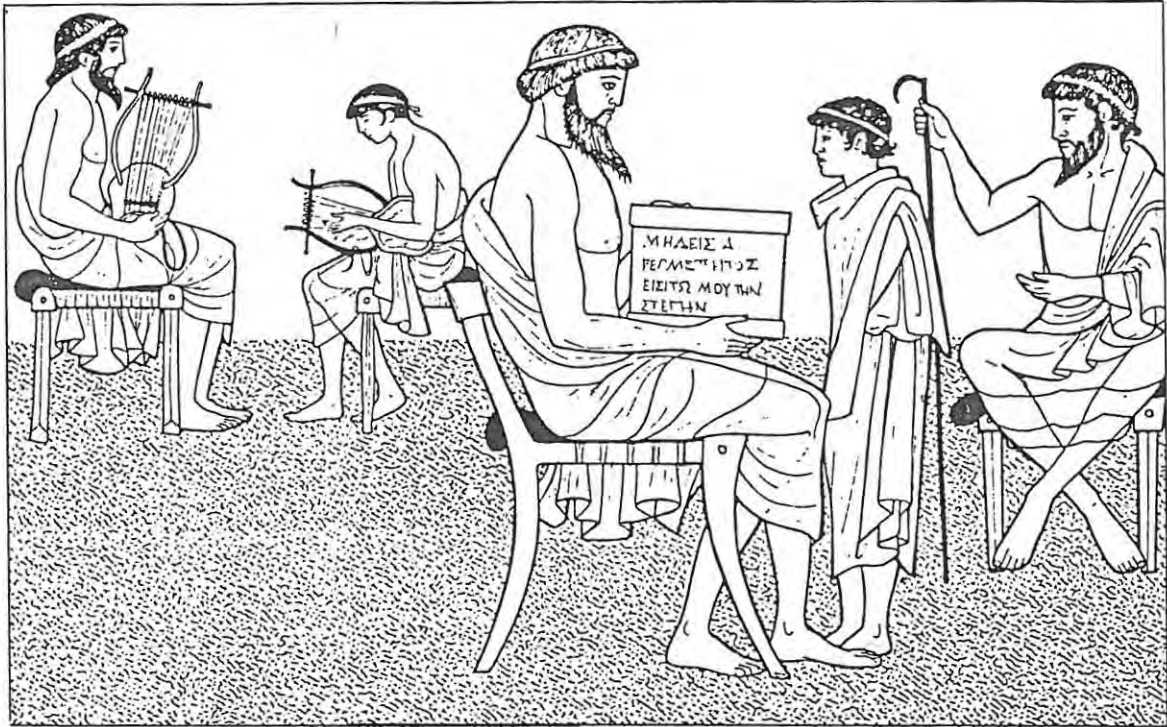
° The Greeks at Home and at Leisure.

A.

Red figure vase painting  
after Gerhard.  
Auserlesene Griechische  
Vasenbilder.

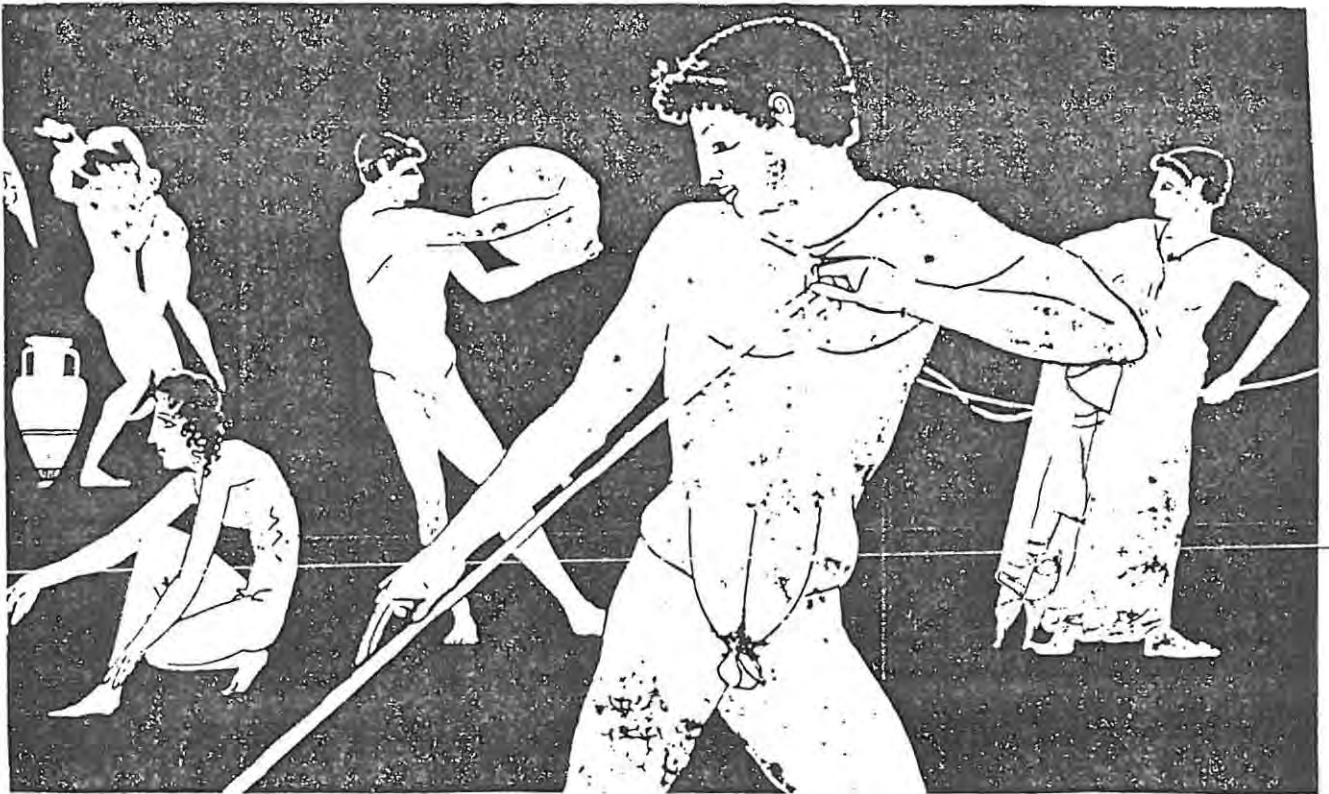


B.



(Line drawing from a cup by Douris.  
 London. British Museum E54  
 from Vulci).

C.



Details of Greek vase paintings of Athletes.





Belly Amphora by Berlin Painter, 1686  
Berlin, Staatliche Museen.

In a question of this nature, the skills of identification, observation and communication are fostered.

A third technique not often employed in examinations is Assertion-Reason testing. There are five combinations of testing: the assertion and the reason are both correct with the reason explaining the assertion; both the assertion and the reason are correct statements, but the reason does not explain the assertion; the assertion is correct, but the reason is incorrect; the assertion is incorrect but the reason is correct; and lastly, the assertion and the reason are both wrong. This example could be used for Standard six.

° The Greeks at Home.

<u>(Assertion)</u>	<u>(Reason)</u>
a) Greek girls married young	The Goddess of marriage was Hera
b) Women spun wool	Women had to weave cloth
c) Male children were not exposed	Many men were needed for the army
d) Clay pots were used for storing oil	Pots were made by women
e) Widowed women became head of household	They were not allowed to remarry

The pupil is required to say which of the choices offered is correct. The answer required here is (b). A variation on this type of testing, which could be used to good effect in the classroom, would be to ask the pupils to explain why the remaining choices are incorrect. This is a very exacting form of testing because it involves not only knowledge of the topic, but also the pupil's ability to use logic.

Passages can be set with comprehension questions that involve not only information contained in the passage, but questions which draw on the pupil's acquired background knowledge of a topic as well. The example below illustrates a possible task set for Standard seven on the topic "The Roman Search for Religion".

° The Roman Search for Religion.

JULIUS CAESAR AND EMPEROR WORSHIP

"He was fifty-five years old when he died, and his immediate deification, formally decreed by the loyalists in the Senate, convinced the city as a whole; if only because, on the first day of the Games given by his successor Augustus in honour of this apotheosis, a comet appeared about an hour before sunset

and shone for seven days running. This was held to be Caesar's soul, elevated to Heaven; hence the star, now placed above the forehead of his divine image".

Suetonius: Julius Caesar 88  
(tr. R Graves)

- a) Find one word in the passage that means "elevated to Heaven".
- b) How, where and at whose hands did Julius Caesar die? From the answer you have given, what can you infer from the first three lines of the passage?
- c) Caesar's successor, Augustus, was known by another name before his accession. What was this name?
- d) What importance did the 'image of an ancestor' have in the family household?
- e) What convinced the people that Julius Caesar should be worshipped as a God: the decree of the Senate, or the appearance of the comet? Explain your choice.

The questions set test the skills of comprehension (a,b); inference (b); memory recall (b,c); and evaluation (e). Simultaneously, background knowledge is drawn upon in questions (b), (c) and (d).

The range of questioning techniques which could be employed by the teacher for pupils of mixed ability, can remove Classical Civilization beyond the confines of testing factual recall, to give a truer indication of the pupils' grasp of the Greek and Roman world - as illustrated in the examples above. Variety in both the method of teaching and in testing techniques saves pupils from being crushed by the Skylla of boredom and the Charybdis of despair.

A final comment must be made about evaluation. As the syllabus would have to be introduced to schools for a trial period, after the necessary resources have been acquired by schools; and as an evaluation of the course would have to wait upon feasibility studies after the trial period is completed, little can be said about an evaluation of the syllabus proposals put forward. However, evaluation is vital once a new subject is introduced, and the suggestions made are a guide as to how evaluation can be made.

When the school year comes to a close, most teachers evaluate the work that has been done during the year, to see which areas of the syllabus were difficult for the pupil and/or the teacher in terms of understanding or approach; and which topics were well received. The successes and failures of the year are examined to see what can be done through new methods or improved use of resources, or what areas of the syllabus proved popular and so are likely to succeed the following year. Evaluation of pupils, syllabus content, method of teaching, resources and the individual teacher should, ideally, be done continually at a daily level, as well as at the end of each topic. It is too late to make changes at the end of the year when the pupils are no longer available to benefit from them.

Constant re-evaluation leads to refinement of techniques; an early isolation of problem areas in the content of a syllabus and the sharing of successful ideas with other teachers of Classical Civilization. It could be helpful too, to give the class a questionnaire to complete. After processing, the teacher may find that topics he thought were satisfactorily handled were not thought to be so by the pupils. Often ideas for new topics, or at least an indication of where pupils'

interests lie, are forthcoming; sometimes too, a method of teaching may present itself which could be more successfully used in a particular topic. There is always room for improvement and never room for complacency: this dictum applies as much to Classical Civilization, as it does to any other subject on the school curriculum.

CONCLUSION

The preceding chapters have indicated what has been done in various countries in the subject field of Classical Studies, and an example of a syllabus, teaching methods, resources and assessment techniques for Classical Civilization as an optional subject at the Junior Secondary level of education has been given. In this concluding chapter, a number of crucial problems need to be discussed very briefly. These are the problems of implementation; language medium; teacher training; and in-service training for teachers.

When this thesis was begun, the writer was not aware of the imminent publication of the new Latin syllabus for Secondary schools, to be implemented from 1985. The changes which have occurred lean towards a far greater emphasis on what is termed "Classical Culture", than ever before: 40% of the marks in standard six and 30% in standard seven are allocated to background study. In the Senior Secondary phase, 25% of the final mark is set aside in the examination for Classical Culture.

Consequently, the problems listed are crucial not only to this thesis, but for all teachers of Latin, as a result of the introduction of the Classical Culture element in the 1985 syllabus. The major problem is language, particularly because resources - though plentiful in English - are not easily available in Afrikaans. Yet the problem could be solved relatively simply if the lynch-pin for success can be found in the universities. The majority of universities, both English and Afrikaans, have Departments of Classics where Latin and Greek are taught. Some universities offer Classical Civilization major courses, for example, the University of the Witwatersrand, Natal and Rhodes, whilst others

Table 9.

University	Latin	Greek	Anc. Hist	Greek & Roman literature & thought	Full Clas. Civ.	Lit & Clas. Civ.	Principles of Greek culture
Bophuthatswana	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Botswana	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
College of Swaziland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Durban-Westville	M	M	-	-	M	-	-
Fort Hare	-	-	-	-	I	-	-
Lesotho	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Natal	M	M	-	-	M	-	-
O.F.S.	M	M	-	-	-	M	-
Potchefstroom	M	M	-	-	I	-	-
Pretoria	M	M	-	-	-	-	-
R.A.U.	M	M	-	-	-	-	-
Rhodes	M	M	-	-	M	-	-
Stellenbosch	M	M	-	-	-	-	-
Transkei	-	-	-	-	I	-	-
U.C.T.	M	M	-	-	M	-	-
University of the North	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
U.P.E.	M	M	-	-	-	-	-
U.N.I.S.A.	M	M	I	-	-	-	I
Vista	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Western Cape	M	M	-	-	-	-	-
Windhoek Academy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Witwatersrand	M	M	-	-	M	-	-
Zululand	M	M	-	-	M	-	-

Key: M = Major  
I = 1 year only

offer courses either in Ancient History or Classical Culture (See Table 9). In examining the table, it can be seen that language medium is an important link between the universities offering Classical Civilization courses and those which do not. In all the Afrikaans universities, other than the University of Potchefstroom, no such courses are offered. The universities in the neighbouring States and the Black universities make no provision for any form of Classical Civilization, with the exception of the University of Fort Hare, Transkei and Zululand.

One implication to be drawn from this information, is that the resources for teaching Classical Civilization in Afrikaans are not readily available, nor in the Black languages of the neighbouring States or South Africa. If Classical Civilization is introduced as an optional subject, as suggested in this thesis, this is not a serious problem in the short-term. But the long-term implication is important for Classical Civilization in the universities themselves. If the classicists in these universities could be utilized to provide translations for the classics, where translations are needed in the study of Classical Civilization, the problem of language can be largely resolved.

Clearly, teachers' guides and study materials for pupils are essential for the successful implementation of Classical Civilization courses. Just as clearly, financial support will be essential for such guides to be published. A project team would need to be assembled, drawn from the universities and practicing teachers, to collect materials relevant to the topics and suitable for the pupils. This, too, would require financial resources.

It does not take a great deal of insight to recognize just how important university involvement can be in the implementation of Classical Civilization at schools. The academic qualification of teachers lies in the hands of the



Departments of Classics. Over recent years, a number of graduates have taken Classical Civilization as an Arts major, which is not recognized by the Provincial Education Departments as a teaching subject. Should such recognition come, Classical Civilization would provide a healthy boost to the university Classics departments. Latin teachers would need to up-grade their qualifications through in-service courses to cope with the Greek elements in Classical Civilization. This, too, could actively involve Classics departments in the universities.

All that has been said regarding Classical Civilization as a school subject is equally applicable to the Classical Culture course in the 1985 Latin syllabus, and it is to this, briefly, that we must now turn.

Reproduced below is an extract from the new syllabus for Latin for the Junior Secondary phase, in which Classical Culture has now been included. (C.E.D. 1985, pp 15-16.)

3. CLASSICAL CULTURE

3.1. ALLOCATION OF MARKS

Std 6: 40%  
Std 7: 30%

3.2. As indicated in the Aims, Classical Culture will receive attention in Stds 6 and 7 as well as in the senior classes. This study of Classical Culture must proceed from (a) explanations of the normal vocabulary (e.g. provincia), and (b) specific assignments on various topics.

3.3. It is furthermore recommended that schools plan their own course of Classical Culture in Standards 6 and 7, subject to the following recommendations:

3.3.1. Standard 6: The Greek and Roman myths and legends, and/or aspects of the daily life of

the Romans.

- 3.3.2. Standard 7: Archaeological remains of Greek and Roman civilisation, e.g. the Parthenon, the theatre of Epidaurus, the Colosseum, the Pantheon and the ruins of Pompeii, and how these buildings functioned within the context of their civilisations in which they were conceived, by means of slides, films and other visual material, as well as further reference to the linguistic heritage of Latin.
- 3.3.3. In all these instances, the decisions as to the topics to be covered and the depth in which they are to be studied are left to the discretion of the teacher, bearing in mind that the work done should justify the allocation of marks to this section. The teacher is also expected to acquaint the pupils gradually, from their Standard 6 year, with the more important Latin authors and their works.
- 3.3.4. The evaluation of Classical Culture must be cumulative in Standards 6 and 7. That is, it must be based on the work done during the year, including the final examination, and not determined entirely by a single mark obtained in the final examination.'

The Classical Culture content for Standard six shows little or no direction. No details are given as to which Greek and Roman myths, or how many, should be handled in the Standard six year. This freedom of choice for the teacher imposes limitations for those teachers who may not be able to sustain such a study for the entire year. Provision appears to be made for a study of aspects of Roman social life, in the event of a too rapid completion of Greek and Roman mythology - but again, no specification as to what aspects of Roman social life need to be studied. This, again, leaves the teacher in an invidious position. The danger exists that the teacher could revert to Latin teaching only and ignore the Classical Culture weighting.

A further point is the emphasis placed on Roman civilization. It is true

that Roman civilization studies are pertinent to the study of Latin, but much of Roman achievement was borrowed from the Greeks. Classical Culture embraces both Greek and Roman civilizations: if the term Classical Culture is going to have any meaning at all, the stress on the Greeks and Romans should be equal. The Standard seven content can be divided into Greek and Roman buildings and their function in society. It should be noted that only the "archaeological remains" of these buildings are stressed. There is no link between the work done in the Standard six year and the Standard seven year, unless this is to be found in "further reference to the linguistic heritage of Latin." There are some suggestions offered for resources - namely, slides, films and other visual materials, but no information as to how the teacher is to acquire these resources.

Studying archaeological remains in isolation, and how "buildings functioned within the context of their civilizations" reveals a lack of forethought about the type of buildings the pupils are supposed to study. The Parthenon is an example of a temple building in Greece - only one of many temple remains still extant. No comment is made about temple design, purpose, architectural sculpture, materials, or the surrounding buildings on the Acropolis. The Theatre of Epidaurus is also Greek, and much of what has been said about the Parthenon is applicable again - except that the wealth of Greek literature from the Tragic and Comic Dramatists is ignored.

The Colosseum is synonymous with Roman games - naval battles, and gladiatorial shows; the Pantheon is directly related to Roman religion. As for Pompeii, the variety of buildings excavated and documented over the decades provides a vast study on its own, in town planning, building styles and techniques, interior decoration, evidence (primary) of Roman

social life, art and sculpture.

Because "the evaluation of Classical Culture must be cumulative in Standard six and seven," it is likely that the topic-centred approach could degenerate into project assignments each term. While projects in themselves are excellent approaches to the study of Classical Culture, they are open to abuse if the pupils do not work on the projects during Latin lessons. They provide a perfect answer for those teachers who may not want to teach Classical Culture, and would rather concentrate on the acquisition of Latin grammar.

No suggestions are offered for evaluation of Classical Culture. How is this to be done? How reliable is the teacher's discretion? The Cape Education Department has emphasised that the marks awarded for Classical Culture cannot be "determined by a single mark obtained in the final examination"; and it is possible that the Department, too, is concerned about the implementation of the Classical Culture element in the Latin syllabus.

It would have been preferable for clear guidelines to have been laid down regarding the Classical Culture content, with at least some indication of how the content could be taught, and what resources are available for both the teacher and the pupil. There is no mention of support schemes for in-service training, no consideration that graduates fresh from the universities may never have touched on Classical Culture or Classical Civilization in their Latin courses. The two disciplines are separate courses for degree study. The non-acceptance of Classical Civilization as a teaching subject by the Departments of Education is strong motivation for a student majoring in Latin to choose another teaching major in preference, because two teaching subjects offer more bargaining

power in gaining teaching posts.

A brief examination of the Classical Culture content for the Senior Secondary years shows not only a similar lack of planning but also a lack of interest in the value a study of Classical Culture has to offer. (C.E.D. pp 15-16.)

5. CLASSICAL CULTURE

5.1. ALLOCATION OF MARKS

Std 8: 100 marks (35%) -  
 Stds 9 and 10: 100 marks (25%)

5.2. The work of the two final standards will be prescribed by the Department as a single course, the extent and components of which must be clearly defined for Stds 9 and 10.

- (a) related to the prescribed reading; and
- (b) not necessarily related to the prescribed reading but of a general cultural nature (historical, literary, sociological, mythological, etc.)

5.3. Where the Classical Culture is to be evaluated by means of tests or examinations, a reasonable choice of questions should be set on each of the components of the Classical Culture course. Of those relating to the prescribed literature, at least one question must be a question on the content of a prescribed work.

5.4. As indicated in the Aims, Classical Culture will receive attention in Stds 6 and 7 as well as in the senior classes. This study of Classical Culture must proceed from (a) explanations of the normal vocabulary (e.g. provincial), and (b) specific assignments on various topics.

5.5. It is furthermore recommended that -  
 schools plan their own course of Classical Culture in Standard 8, subject to the following recommendations: -

- 5.5.1. Standard 8: Specific highlights and important periods from the history of classical antiquity. It is more specifically recommended that an introduction be undertaken to Roman history, covering topics such as the following:

The Patricians and the Plebs; the Gracchi; Roman meets Greek; the Punic Wars and their consequences; Marius and Sulla; the end of the Republic; Caesar and Cicero; Anthony and Cleopatra; Augustus; Claudius; Nero; Pompeii; the Age of Hadrian; the origin and influence of the Vulgate, etc.

- 5.5.2. In all these instances, the decisions as to the topics to be covered and the depth in which they are to be studied are left to the discretion of the teacher. The teacher is also expected to acquaint the pupils gradually with the more important Latin authors and their works.'

The greatest problem with the Standard eight content is the time span to be covered: from the 2nd century BC to the 4th century AD; a total of six centuries in one year. If the suggestion made in the syllabus that an introduction covering this extended period be undertaken in topic form, not only does the same danger exist as in the Standard seven section, but we have a repetition of the background study prescribed in the 1973 syllabus for Latin, intended for consumption between Standard six and Standard ten.

The standards nine and ten Classical Culture section will be prescribed as a single course by the Department of Education; what this will involve is not stated. We have here an hiatus - what point is there to the introduction of Classical Culture into the Latin syllabus unless it has a significant bearing on the course for standards nine and ten? What will eventually be examined? There is a suggestion that various components will be offered which will be examined, except that "The Department will decide whether Classical Culture should be examined

internally or externally. Until further notice, Classical Culture will be examined internally in the Cape Province." (C.E.D. 1985, p 17.)

While the inclusion of a Classical Culture component in the Latin syllabus for the Junior and Secondary school is a welcome innovation, it has all the signs of being an act of appeasement, a last ditch effort to rescue Latin from its incipient demise as a school subject.

Classical Civilization or Classical Culture is a very different subject from Latin. It deserves this recognition, if not a full acceptance of its right to be studied as a wholly separate subject. It calls for clear aims and objectives, a variety of approaches and teaching methods, the development of skills so important to the educative growth of pupils. It offers a comprehensive field of disciplines for study, ranging from myth to art, and demands teachers who are properly qualified to teach it. It depends on co-operation between classicists so that the best that is available in the various fields can be made available for pupils. It requires a deep-seated interest in the subject from its teachers and the promise of transmission through teachers to pupils. It is a living past, not contained in fusty books and the rigours of linguistic studies in Latin.

David Wilson's phrase, "there is more than one way to scale Parnassus," offers some solace with regard to Classical Culture's introduction to the syllabus, but the time must come when Classical Civilization will be recognized in this country as a valuable and educative subject for all pupils of whatever ability. This thesis has tried to show the way towards this realisation. The information it contains can be of help in the present circumstances for Classical Culture, but it is hoped that it may be a blue print for the future of the Classics in South Africa.

APPENDIX 1LATIN SYLLABUS (STD 6 - 10) COMPILED FROM  
THE CAPE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT AND THE JMBA. GRAMMAR.

Std	Accidence	Syntax
6	<p>1. <u>Nouns</u>: Declension of regular nouns of the first and 2nd declensions and also irregular nouns such as dea, filia, vulgus, humus.</p> <p>The nominative, genitive, gender and meanings of nouns are learned as they occur.</p> <p>2. <u>Verbs</u>: 1st and 2nd conjugations, all tenses of the indicative mood, active voice;</p> <p>imperative mood, active voice; special imperatives - ave, salve, vale, age.</p> <p>The verb "esse" indicative mood only.</p> <p>Principle parts of verbs are learned as they occur.</p> <p>3. <u>Adjectives</u>: 1st and 2nd declension, including the possessive adjectives: meus, tuus, noster, vester.</p> <p>4. <u>Adverbs</u>: The most common ones as they occur in reading - e.g. non, cras, heri, hodie, cotidie.</p> <p>5. <u>Conjunctions</u>: Most common ones as they occur in reading - e.g. et, -que, atque, quod, ubi, si, dum, cum, postquam, antequam.</p>	<p>1. <u>Case Usage</u>:</p> <p>(i) Nominative: subject complement, apposition.</p> <p>(ii) Vocative.</p> <p>(iii) Accusative: direct object, motion towards, duration of time, extent of space, with prepositions as they occur in reading.</p> <p>(iv) Genitive: possessive.</p> <p>(v) Dative: indirect object.</p> <p>(vi) Ablative: instrument, time when, with prepositions as they occur in reading.</p> <p>2. <u>Sentences</u>:</p> <p>Direct statements, direct questions, and direct commands (with the imperative).</p>



Std	Accidence	Syntax
	<p>6. <u>Prepositions</u>: in, ad, ex, de, ante, post, trans, sub and others as they occur in reading.</p> <p>7. <u>Numerals</u>: Cardinals 1-10 (no declension), ordinals 1-10 (with declension).</p> <p>8. <u>Pronouns</u>: Common pronouns with declension: ego, nos, tu, vos, is, ea, id (nominative and accusative only).</p>	
7	<p>1. <u>Nouns</u>: 3rd, 4th and 5th declensions, all cases. Common irregular forms in 3rd and 4th declensions, such as accusatives in -im, ablatives in -i, domus, i-stems.</p> <p>2. <u>Verbs</u>: 3rds and 4th conjugations; indicative (active and passive) of the four conjugators; imperative and present infinitive; the verbs sum, ea, facio, capio. The subjunctive and participles as they occur in reading.</p> <p>3. <u>Adjectives</u> of the 3rd declension; degrees of comparison, irregular comparison.</p> <p>4. <u>Adverbs</u>: Formation; degrees of comparison of most common adverbs.</p> <p>5. <u>Pronouns and pronomial adjectives</u>: declension of quis (interrogative), hic, ille, iste, ipse, idem, qui (relative), se, suus.</p>	<p>1. <u>Case Usage</u>:</p> <p>(i) <u>Accusative</u>: double accusative with doceo, celo, rogo, with prepositions as they occur.</p> <p>(ii) <u>Genitive</u>: partitive genitive, genitive of description.</p> <p>(iii) <u>Dative</u>: dative of possessor, after certain verbs as they occur, e.g. noceo, credo, pareo, placeo, displiceo, pareo, impero, persuadeo.</p> <p>(iv) <u>Ablative</u>: manner, comparison, description, cause, place where, time within which, measure of difference, agent.</p> <p>(v) <u>Locative</u>.</p> <p>2. <u>Sentences</u>:</p> <p>(i) <u>Direct questions</u>: -ne, nonne, num, with interrogative pronouns and adverbs.</p>

Std	Accidence	Syntax
	6. <u>Prepositions</u> , as they occur in reading.	(ii) Direct commands: imperative, <i>noli</i> and the infinitive.
	7. <u>Numerals</u> : Cardinals 1 to 100 declension of <i>unus, duo, tres</i> ; ordinals 1 to 20; <i>mille</i> and <i>milia</i> .	(iii) Use of the relative pronoun. (iv) Infinitive as subject and object.
	8. <u>Conjunctions</u> : As they occur in reading.	
8	<p>1. <u>Nouns</u>: The five declensions and the commoner irregular nouns, e.g. nouns that change their meaning in the plural; nouns used only in the plural: <i>pluralia tantum</i>: <i>vis, deus, bos, nemo</i>.</p> <p>2. <u>Verbs</u>:</p> <p>(a) Conjugation of regular verbs.</p> <p>(b) Deponent and semi-deponent verbs.</p> <p>(c) Irregular verbs not done in Std 7, e.g. <i>fio, fero, volo, nolo, malo</i>.</p> <p>(d) Dejective verbs; e.g. <i>coepi, odi, memini, novi, aio, inquam, fari</i>.</p> <p>(e) Compound verbs; functions of prefixes in compounding.</p> <p>(f) Inceptive, frequentative verbs, as they occur.</p> <p>(g) Gerunds and gerundives.</p> <p>(h) Principle parts of verbs commonly encountered in reading.</p> <p>3. <u>Adjectives</u>: Irregular adjectives, e.g. <i>totus, solus</i>. Substantival use of adjectives.</p>	<p>1. <u>Case Usage</u>:</p> <p><u>Accusative</u>: with <i>natus</i> and <i>abhinc</i>; cognate; adverbial; exclamation; respect; with prepositions.</p> <p><u>Genitive</u>: Subjective and objective (<u>N.B.</u> <i>nostri</i> and <i>vestri</i>) and partitive (<u>N.B.</u> <i>nostrum, vestrum</i>); characteristic; charge or crime; value; after certain verbs and adjectives; e.g. <i>obliviscor, peritus</i>, etc.</p> <p><u>Dative</u>: Advantage; disadvantage; predicative; purpose; agent; possessor; after certain verbs and adjectives.</p> <p><u>Ablative</u>: Cause; separation, accompaniment; quality; respect; measure of difference; price; origin; ablative absolute; after certain verbs and adjectives such as <i>utor, fruor, fungor, potior, dignus, indignus</i>.</p> <p><u>Locative</u>: Expressions not dealt with in Std 7.</p> <p>2. <u>Tense usages</u>:</p> <p>Historic present; historic infinitive.</p>

Std	Accidence	Syntax
	<p>tives; comparison of adjectives; irregular comparison; meanings of comparative and superlative; quam with the superlative.</p>	<p>3. <u>Sentences:</u></p>
	<p>4. <u>Pronouns, pronomial adjectives and adverbs:</u></p>	<p><u>Simple sentences:</u></p>
	<p>aluis, alter, uter, uterque, neuter, allus, nullus.</p>	<p>Concord with composite subject; negative command with second person; optative, deliberative and jussive subjunctives;</p>
	<p>Correlatives: tot ... quot; tantus ... quantus; toties ... quoties; talis... qualis; tam ... quam; tum ... cum.</p>	<p>Idiomatic use of alius, alter and their derivatives.</p>
	<p>Adverbs such as hic, ibi, illic, ubi, huc, eo, illuc, quo, hinc, inde, illinc, unde, ibidem, eodem, alibi, alias.</p>	<p>Impersonal passive of intransitive verbs (pugnatum est, mitu persuasum est).</p>
	<p>Indefinite pronouns and adverbs: quidam, aliqui(s), quisque, quisquam, aliquando.</p>	<p>Prolative infinitive; infinitive as subject, object.</p>
	<p>5. <u>Numerals:</u> 1 - 100; use of mille and milia; declension of ordinals 1st - 20th Roman figures 1 - 200.</p>	<p>Impersonal verbs: miseret, taedet, licet, accidit, paenilet, pudet, oportet, pluit, tonat.</p>
		<p>Participles, ablative absolute gerund and gerundive: purpose with ad, causa (gratia); dependent on noun/adj. (e.g. occasio, cupidus); gerundive expressing obligation; gerundive with curo.</p>
		<p>Supine in -um to express purpose.</p>
		<p>Use of prepositions and commoner prepositional phrases.</p>
		<p><u>Complex sentences:</u></p>
		<p>(The importance of the sequence of tenses must be stressed throughout).</p>
		<p>Relative clauses.</p>
		<p>Final clauses, including qui final.</p>
		<p>Consecutive clauses with ut and ut + negative.</p>
		<p>Indirect statement.</p>

Std	Accidence	Syntax
		<p>Indirect command.</p> <p>Indirect question.</p> <p>Concessive clauses with quamquam, etsi.</p> <p>Causal clauses: quod, quia and quoniam + indicative; cum + subjunctive.</p> <p>Temporal clauses with dum ("while"); ubi, postquam, simulac, priusquam; cum.</p> <p>Use of neque and neve.</p>
9 & 10	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="389 958 906 1402">1. <u>Nouns</u>: The five declensions, including commoner irregular nouns (vir, deus, vulgus, vas (vessle), sitis, Neopolis, vis, Iuppiter, toos, iter, senex, domus, locus, opus, caro, nemo, Aeneas, etc) but no exceptions of less importance (sus, femur, supellek, dapes, etc).  Formation of the locative.  The Roman system of personal names.</li> <li data-bbox="389 1451 906 1547">2. <u>Adjectives</u>: Normal declensions, including common irregular and the months.</li> <li data-bbox="389 1597 906 1883">3. <u>Comparison of adjectives and adverbs</u>; including common irregulars. Three meanings of the comparative (longer, too long, fairly long), two of the superlative (longest, very long); quam with the superlative.</li> <li data-bbox="389 1933 906 2040">4. <u>Numerals</u>: Cardinals 1-1000; the use of mille and milia;  Declensions of unus, duo,</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="954 958 1497 1413">1. <u>Case Usage</u>:  <u>Nominative</u>: Subject, complement.  <u>Accusative</u>: Direct object, objective complement; double accusative (with retention of the second accusative in passive); motion towards; duration of time (including abhinc, XXV annos natus); extent of space; cognate; adverbial; exclamation; respect  <u>Genitive</u>: Possessive; subjective and objective (N.B. nostri, vestri); partitive (N.B. nostrum, vestrum; but nos, omnes, media urbs, etc) description/quality; characteristic; charge or crime; punishment; value; after certain verbs and adjectives, e.g. obliviscor; plenus.  <u>Dative</u>: Indirect object; advantage/disadvantage (reference); predicative; purpose; agent (with gerundive expressing obligation); possessor; after certain verbs and adjectives; e.g. pareo, praeficio; similis.</li> </ol>

Std	Accidence	Syntax
	<p>tres.</p> <p>Ordinals: 1st - 100th.</p> <p>Distributives: 1 - 10 (bina castra).</p> <p>Adverbs: once - 10 times.</p> <p>(N.B. the higher and rarer distributives and adverbs need not to be taught formally, especially as above 30 they follow regular patterns).</p> <p>Roman figures to 2000 (e.g. DCC, MCMLXV).</p>	<p><u>Ablative</u>: Instrument; agent with a(b); manner; cause; separation; comparison (use of quam); accompaniment; quality (of genitive); respect; measure of difference (N.B. quo ... eo; quanto ... tanto); price; place where (N.B. preposition usually omitted with locus, totus and in poetry); place whence; point of time; time within which; origin; after certain verbs and adjectives, e.g. utor; opus est; dignus, etc; ablative absolute, e.g. caesare duce/invito, etc.</p>
	<p>5. <u>Pronouns, etc</u>:</p> <p>a) Personal and reflexive pronouns.</p> <p>b) Possessive adjectives.</p> <p>c) Demonstratives etc: is, hic, ille, isle, ipse, idem.</p> <p>d) Relative pronoun (dative and ablative plural, quibus only).</p> <p>e) Quis, qui (interrogative and indefinite).</p> <p>f) Alter, uter, uteraque, neuter, alius (with alias, alio)</p> <p>g) Correlative demonstrative and relative/interrogative pronouns/adjectives and adverbs: talis, qualis; tantus, quantus; tot, quot; toties, quoties; tam, quam; tum, quando/cum; hic/ibi (illic), ubi; huc/eo (illuc), quo; hinc/inde (illinc), unde.</p> <p>h) Compounds: quidam, aliqui(s), aliquot, aliquantus, aliquo, aliquando, alicubi, nescio qui(s), quisquis, quicumque (quocumque, etc), quisque (optimus quisque), quisquam and illus.</p>	<p><u>Locative</u>: e.g. Romae, Athenis; domi meae; domi militiaeque; humi; ruri; (anxius) animi.</p> <p><u>Apposition</u>: N.B. in urbe Roma.</p> <p>2. <u>Tense usages</u>, including historic present/infinitive; future or future perfect in subordinate clause (veniam si potero); present infinitive with past tenses of debeo, oportet, possem, licet.</p>
		<p>3. <u>Sentences</u>:</p> <p><u>The Simple Sentence</u>:</p> <p>Concord with composite subject. Direct command. Positive (imperative, jussive subjunctive); negative (noli, ne).</p> <p>Fac, cura, cave in commands.</p> <p>Direct question, including</p>

Std	Accidence	Syntax
	(i) <i>ibidem, eodem, indidem, alibi, aliunde</i>	deliberative.
	6. <u>Verbs:</u>	Optative subjunctive ( <i>utinam</i> ).
	(a) The four conjugations, active, passive, deponent, semi-deponent, including 3rd conjugation in <i>-io(r)</i> . Omit "long" forms of imperative, but include common "alternative" forms, e.g. <i>audii, audivere, amabere, amarunt</i> .	Deliberative subjunctive.
	(b) <i>Sum</i> (with <i>fore, forem</i> , but not other unusual forms): <i>possum, fero, eo, nequeo, volo, nolo, malo, facio/fio</i> .	Potential subjunctive.
	(c) Defective verbs: <i>odi, coepi, memini; inquam, aio, fari</i> ; special imperatives - <i>ave, salve, vale, age</i> .	Idiomatic use of <i>alius, alter</i> , and their derivatives.
	(d) Formation and meanings of inceptive, frequentative and desiderative verbs.	Impersonal passive of intransitive verbs ( <i>mihi persuasum est; pugnatur, perventum est, etc.</i> ).
	(e) Principal parts of verbs encountered in reading.	Impersonal verbs: <i>miseret, taedet, paenitet, pudet, oportet, decet, iuvat</i> (poet.), <i>licet, accidit, contingit, interest, refert, piget, dedecet, libet, convenit, evenit; pluit, tonat</i> .
	(f) Compound verbs; special attention to most compounds of <i>sum, capio, facio, lacio, -spicio</i> , and other common verbs; functions of the prefixes <i>di(s)-, re(d)-, se-</i>	Prolative infinitive (N.B. <i>dicor, videor</i> ), infinitive as subject.
		Participles.
		Gerund (ive): purpose with <i>ad, causa (gratia)</i> ; dependent on noun or adjective ( <i>signum, cupidis</i> ); obligation; with <i>curo</i> and <i>suscipio</i> .
		Supines in <i>-um</i> and <i>-u</i> .
		Use of prepositions including commoner phrases such as the following:
		<i>ad ducentos; apud Caesarem</i> (in Caesar's works); <i>inter se amant; per me licet, praeter opinionem; a tergo; de nostris multi, de nobis actum est; ex aere signum; e re publica, prae nobis beatus est; prae gaudio</i>

Std	Accidence	Syntax
		<p>loqui nequeo; pro certo habeo; in vicem; in dies; in armis; in Caesare (in Caesar's case); sub lucem; sub vesperum.</p> <p>Use of neque and neve for "and" + negative.</p> <p><u>The Complex Sentence.</u></p> <p>Sequence of tenses.</p> <p>Relative clauses; omission of antecedent; use of id quod in apposition to a clause; idem ... qui/ac; final (quo with comparative); consecutive/generic (non is sum qui; dignus qui; sunt qui; fortior est quam qui); causal; concessive; use of relative adverbs (unde, quo, etc), in these constructions.</p> <p>Final clauses.</p> <p>Quominus and quin, only after verbs of hindering/preventing and doubting/denying.</p> <p>Indirect statements, including fore + ut + subjunctive.</p> <p>Indirect commands.</p> <p>Indirect questions, including deliberative: hand sco an ...</p> <p>Verbs of fearing.</p> <p>Causal clauses: + indicative/subjunctive, quod, quia, quoniam; cum.</p> <p>Temporal clauses (with indicative and subjunctive): cum; antequam; priusquam; postquam, posteaquam; division of post/prius ... quam; dum, donec, quoad (all uses); similac, cum primum, ubi, ex quo.</p> <p>Concessive clauses: quamquam; quamvis; cum (... tamen); etsi, etiamsi.</p>

Std	Accidence	Syntax
		<p>Comparative clauses: in outline only, owing to the multiplicity of conjunctions and complications such as the use of <i>velut</i> without a verb at all.</p> <p>Proviso clauses (<i>dum, modo, dummodo</i>).</p> <p>Conditional sentences: omit the use of the indicative in unreal and ideal conditions. Include <i>sive ... sive, sin. Subjunctive</i> of subordinate clause in indirect speech and in virtual indirect speech. Include conditional clauses, as being in fact simpler than in direct form, but omit use of <i>-urus fuerim</i>.</p> <p>Oratio obliqua: general principles only.</p>

B. TRANSLATION, READING AND BACKGROUND STUDIES.

Std	Translation and Reading	Background Study
6	<p>1. <u>Translation:</u>            Easy sentences (simple, compound, and complex) from and into Latin.            Simple Latin passages of an elementary nature, suited to the state reached by the pupils, stated as early as possible.</p> <p>2. <u>Reading:</u>            Easy Latin sentences and passages to promote comprehension.</p>	<p>Various aspects of background study as indicated in the introduction, but not examinable.</p>



Std	Translation and Reading	Background Study
7	<p>1. <u>Translation:</u> Easy sentences (simple, compound and complex from and into Latin). Simple Latin passages.</p> <p>2. <u>Reading:</u> Latin sentences and passages to promote comprehension.</p>	<p>Various aspects of background study and word study as indicated in the introduction, but not examinable.</p>
8	<p>1. Translation of straightforward simple and complex sentences (with subordinate and co-ordinate conjunctions).</p> <p>2. Reading of suitable Latin passages with a view to</p> <p>(a) Careful translation; (b) Comprehension.</p>	<p>Pupils should be encouraged to do additional reading on the mythology and history, life and social background of classical times (cf Introduction).</p>
9 & 10	<p>1. <u>Unprepared translation:</u> It is suggested that 750 lines are read from various writers, including Caesar.</p> <p>2. <u>Prescribed Reading : Prose.</u> Approximately 300 lines to be prescribed from one or more authors, excluding Caesar.</p> <p>3. <u>Poetry:</u> Approximately 550 lines to be prescribed from one or more poets.</p> <p>Principles of dactylic hexameter and pentameter verse must be known for Scansion.</p>	<p>Two clearly defined topics will be prescribed each year for systematic study</p> <p>(i) one related to the prescribed reading; and</p> <p>(ii) one dealing with historical, literary, sociological, cultural, and mythological background not necessarily connected with the prescribed reading.</p>

## APPENDIX 2

Resources List (Key: P = pupil; T = Teacher)

### 1. CLASSICAL HANDBOOKS

- ° Harvey, P., ed. The Oxford Companion to Classical Literature. Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1937.

Accounts of authors and their works are presented in this useful reference book. It is especially valuable for the historical, social, political and religious backgrounds of the literature. (P, T).

- ° Radice, B., ed. Who's who in the Ancient world. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1973.

This biographical dictionary not only gives the historical or mythological data on each figure but succinctly notes his influence on Western art, Literature and music. (P. T).

### 2. ATLASES

- ° McEvedy, Colin. The Penguin Atlas of Ancient History. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1967.

The geographical unit comprises Europe, the Mediterranean area, and the Near East. The historical sweep is from 50,000 BC to AD 362. A series of maps traces the movements of peoples, the evolution of culture, the rise and fall of states, and the development of literacy. Maps and commentary are on facing pages. (T).

- ° Thomson, J.O. Everyman's Classical Atlas. London: J M Dent, 1961.

This Atlas contains a great deal of useful information on ancient geography. The maps are good, but small. (P).

### 3. TRANSLATIONS OF LATIN AND GREEK AUTHORS

- ° Caesar. The War Commentaries of Caesar. Translated by Rex Warner. New York: New American Library, 1960 (Paperback). -

This edition contains both the Gallic War and the Civil War, with the translation cast in the first person. (P).

- Cicero. Letters of Cicero. Edited by L.P. Wilkinson, London: Hutchinson University Library, 1966.

The letters of Cicero are a primary source of information about both Cicero the man and the age in which he lived. (P).

- Homer. The Odyssey of Homer. Edited by R.D. Warmald. The Heritage of Literature Series. London: Longman, 1958.

This collection of extracts from several translations of Homer in prose reads like a very good story.

- Homer. The Odyssey. Translated by Samuel Butler. New York: Washington Square Press, 1969. (Paperback).

- Homer. The Iliad. Translated by Samuel Butler. New York: Washington Square Press, 1969. (Paperback).

In addition to Butler's prose translations, the preceding two books include considerable background information and analysis of the two epics. (P).

- Ovid. Metamorphoses. Translated by Rolfe Humphries. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Press, 1955. (Paperback).

Useful as a primary source book in classical mythology. A verse translation. (P).

- Plautus. Three Comedies. Translated by Erich Segal. Harper Colophon Books. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

Pupils will enjoy these readable and actable translations of The Braggart Solider, The Brothers Manaechmus, and The Haunted House. (P).

- Plautus. Three Plays by Plautus. Translated by Paul Roche. New York: New American Library, 1968.

The three plays are The Braggart Soldier, Amphitryon, and The Prisoners. Roche's verse translations read well and swiftly. (P).

- Plutarch. Eight Great Lives. Edited by C.A. Robinson, four Classical Literature in Rinehart Editions. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1960.

This pleasantly readable translation of eight of the famous biographies, ranging from Pericles and Demosthenes to Caesar and Antony. (P).

- Vergil. The Aeneid of Vergil. Translated by Allen Mendelbaum, New York: Bantam Books, 1972. (Paperback).

A verse translation which reads well.

° Penguin Classics Series

This popular paperback series includes a large number of Latin and Greek Classics in translation. The following books are listed without further annotation except where some comment is needed to indicate the content of particular volumes. They are all issued by Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

- Aesop. Fables of Aesop. Translated by S.A. Handford, 1954.
  - Caesar. The Conquest of Gaul. Translated by S.A. Handford, 1951.
  - Homer. The Odyssey. Translated by E.V. Rieu, 1946.
  - Homer. The Iliad. Translated by E.V. Rieu, 1966.
- Both of Rieu's translations are in prose.
- Livy. The Early History of Rome. Translated by Aubrey de Sélincourt, 1960.
- This volume contains the first five books of Livy's history.
- Ovid. The Metamorphoses of Ovid. Translated by Mary M. Innes, 1955.
  - Plutarch. Makers of Rome. Translated by Ian Scott-Kilvert, 1965.
- This collection includes the lives of Fabius Maximus, Cato the Elder, the Gracchi, Brutus and Antony.
- Plutarch. Fall of the Roman Republic. Translated by Rex Warner, 1972.
- This selection from Plutarch's lives includes those of Marius, Sulla, Crassus, Pompey, Caesar and Cicero.
- Suetonius. The Twelve Caesars. Translated by Robert Graves, 1957.
  - Vergil. The Aeneid. Translated by W.F. Jackson Knight, 1956.
  - Xenophon. The Persian Expedition. Translated by Rex Warner, 1946.

4. ANTHOLOGIES AND COLLECTIONS

- ° Auden, W.H. ed. The Portable Greek Reader. The Viking Portable Library. New York: Viking Press, 1948.

This is a standard anthology of excellent translations which provides an abundance of materials for classics courses of several sorts, particularly where the teacher encourages pupils to explore questions of Greek values. (P.T).

- ° Cullum, Albert. Greek Tears and Roman Laughter. New York: Citation Press, 1970.

Cullum has drastically shortened and simplified sixteen of the best-known Greek and Roman plays to bring them within reading and acting range of junior secondary pupils. Each of the plays is also available in a separate inexpensive booklet.

- ° Davenport, Basil., ed. The Portable Roman Reader. The Viking Portable Library, New York: The Viking Press, 1951.

This selection of translations of Latin authors up to the Sixth Century AD provides considerable material for a study of Roman Civilization.

- ° Finley, M.I., ed. The Greek Historians. The Viking Portable Library, New York: The Viking Press, 1959.

This selection of translations of Greek historians would be useful both for background knowledge of Greece and for a deeper understanding of the purposes and methods of historiography. (P.T).

- ° McLeish, Kenneth, ed. Four Greek Plays. The Heritage of Literature Series. London: Longman, 1964.

The four plays are Sophocles' Oedipus the King and Antigone and Aristophanes' The Acharnians and Peace. All have been cut and to some extent rewritten, and are suitable for reading by junior secondary pupils.

- ° McLeish, Kenneth, ed. The Frogs and other Greek Plays. The Heritage of Literature Series. London: Longman, 1970.

These adaptations and modern translations of The Frogs, The Birds, Prometheus Bound, and Medea will be useful both for reading and staging.

## 5. LITERARY CRITICISM AND LITERARY HISTORIES

- ° Bieber, Margaret. The History of the Greek and Roman Theatre. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1961.

Teachers presenting a course on classical drama will find this book a rich source of information and interpretation. (T).

- ° Thorpe, Martin. Homer. Inside the Ancient World Series. London: MacMillan Education, 1973. (Paperback).

This book fills a real need because of Thorpe's examination of the background of the Homeric epics, the heroic ideals they express, and Homer's epic style.

- Williams, R. Deryck. Aeneas and the Roman Hero. Inside the Ancient World Series. London: MacMillan Education, 1973. (Paperback).

An overview and appreciation of the Aeneid. The character and actions of Aeneas are examined in relation to the national aspirations of Romans in the Augustan period.

## 6. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

- Balsdon, J.P.V.D. Julius Caesar and Rome. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1967. (Paperback).

This volume presents a relatively brief account of Caesar's career and achievements.

- Barr, Stringfellow. The Will of Zeus. Philadelphia: J.B. Lipincott Co., 1961.

This history of Hellas emphasizes culture, individual figures, and the Greek mind.

- Boren, Henry C. The Roman Republic. Princeton, N.J.: D. van Nostrand Co., 1965. (Paperback).

The first half of this pocketbook presents a sketch of Roman history up to the Battle of Actium; the second half consists of readings in translation from primary sources, giving an historical survey and throwing light on the civilization of Republican Rome.

- Cottrell, Leonard. Enemy of Rome. London: Evans Brothers, 1965. (Paperback).

This book presents an interesting account of Hannibal's accomplishments as viewed by the author who personally travelled in the footsteps of the famous general from Carthage to Rome. It is enhanced by excellent photographs and illustrations.

- De Beer, Sir Gavin. Hannibal's March. London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1967.

This definitive study will appeal to all who enjoy a bold tale of adventure and fearless heroism.

- Green, Roger Lancelyn. Ancient Greece. 2nd. ed. The Young Historian Books, London: Rupert-Hart-Davis Educational Publications, 1969.

This book deals with nine important Greek cities - Mycenae, Sparta, Athens, Epidaurus, Olympia, Delphi, Eleusis, Delos and Corinth. It describes the historical sites and explains briefly the part that each played in the history of Greece.

- ° Heichelheim, Fritz M., and Yeo, Cedric A. A History of the Roman People. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1962.

The book begins with prehistory in Italy and concludes with the death of Constantine and a brief epilogue on Byzantium. It would be a useful reference text on the socio-economic, political and military background of Rome and on Roman religion, literature, law and wit. (P. T).

- ° McEvedy, Colin, and McEvedy, Sarah. From the Beginning to Alexander the Great. The Atlas World History, 1. London: Rupert Hart-Davis Educational Publications, 1970.

This survey includes interesting related discussions on such matters as coins and hieroglyphics. The illustrations are effective.

- ° Walbank, F.W. The Awful Revolution. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1969.

The author sets out, in perceptive detail, the unhappy decline of the Roman Empire, taking time to indicate how the decline affected the populace at large.

- ° Whittle, Tyler. The Birth of Greece. History in Pictures, Book 1. London: Heinemann, 1971.

- ° Whittle, Tyler. The World of Classical Greece. History in Pictures, Book 2. London: Heinemann, 1971.

- ° Whittle, Tyler. Royal and Republican Rome. History in Pictures, Book 3. London: Heinemann, 1972.

Numerous black and white illustrations dominate the preceding three books which are designed for pupils aged 10-13 years. The text is slight and would need amplification.

- ° Wilkins, Frances. Ancient Crete. The Young Historian Books. London: Weidenfeld and Nicholson, 1966.

In this account of Evans' discoveries on Crete, chapters are devoted to Evans himself, a description of the Palace at Knossos, the wall paintings, bull-leaping, and the Cretan mother-goddess. It is a very useful book for individual or group research. There are forty black and white illustrations.

7. STUDIES IN CLASSICAL CIVILIZATION

- ° Arnott, Peter. Introduction to the Roman World. London: Sphere Books, 1972.

Although the approach is chronological, the emphasis of this book is upon Roman Society in its various stages of growth and upon its cultural expression. The style is clear and lively.

- ° Barrow, Robin. Athenian Democracy: The Triumph and the Folly. Inside the Ancient World Series, London: MacMillan Education, 1973. (Paperback).

The book's subtitle suggests the balanced view that Barrow presents. Liberal quotations from original sources, especially from Aristophanes, add authenticity to this account of Athenian democracy. A book pupils should read with enjoyment.

- ° Bentley, J.D. The Ancient Olympic Games. Round the World Series. Amsterdam, Bucks: Hulston Educational Publications, 1970.

This short story describes how a fourteen-year-old boy's visit to the Olympics inspired him to become a champion discus thrower. The narrative includes considerable detail about the organization and ethical practices at Olympia.

- ° Burley, Anthony. Imperial Rome. London: Latterworth Press, 1970.

This very readable tour of Imperial Rome in 330 AD gives quite detailed descriptions of all parts of the city at that time. There are many reconstructions in black and white and colour.

- ° Bolton, James. Ancient Crete and Mycenae. Then and There Series. London: Longman, 1968. (Paperback).

This book presents a thorough and concise discussion of the topic. Excavations at Knossos and Mycenae are outlined; the discoveries are discussed in relation to the social and/or historical insights they provide. This book would be an especially valuable reference for an archaeology unit.

- ° Bowra, C.M., and the Editors of Time-Life Books. Classical Greece. Great Ages of Man. New York: Time-Life Books, 1965.

This volume combines an authoritative and very readable text with superb, often dramatic illustrations.

- ° Burford, Alison. Craftsmen in Greek and Roman Society. Aspects of Greek and Roman Life. London: Thames and Hudson, 1972.

This is an interesting survey of the social and economic position of the craftsmen in classical society.

- ° Burland, C.A. Ancient Rome. London: Halton Educational Publications, 1958.

Useful for introductory courses in Classical Civilization, this handy



little book touches on a myriad specific facets of life and culture in the Imperial city. Although the book contains a few small errors of fact, it is still enormously useful and owes much of its value to its ingenious index and clarity of style.

- ° Cambridge School Classics Project Foundation Course. Folders I and II. London: Cambridge University Press, 1972.  
These are the first two folders of a series of five designed for students aged eleven to thirteen. The titles are Troy and the Early Greeks and Gods of Mount Olympus. The Kits include drawings, photographs, information sheets, and work cards. Duplicator masters are available for the work cards. The Kits are also useful as a teacher's guide.
- ° Carcopino, Jérôme. Daily Life in Ancient Rome. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1956. (Paperback).  
Carcopino's well-known study of Roman life in the first century AD should be available to all students of Roman Civilization.
- ° Carrington, Richard. Ancient Greece. Dawn of History Series, Book 5. London: Chatto and Windus, 1970.  
An illustrated presentation of the most important facets of Greek life, this book should prove of special interest to young students involved in classical civilization courses.
- ° Carrington, Richard. Ancient Rome. Dawn of History Series, Book 6. London: Chatto and Windus, 1970.  
This is a well illustrated survey of some of the most outstanding aspects of Roman life. Easily readable.
- ° Church, A.J. Roman Life in the Days of Cicero. New York: Biblio and Tannen, 1966.  
These sketches, based on Cicero's letters and speeches, are readable and provide a useful background.
- ° Cottrell, Leonard. Life Under the Pharoahs. London: Evan Brothers, 1962.  
This "imaginative reconstruction" of the daily life of the Ancient Egyptians will appeal especially to the young reader.
- ° Cowell, F.R. Everyday Life in Ancient Rome. London: B.T. Batsford, 1961.  
This excellent account of the various aspects of Roman Life deals with such topics as growing up in Rome, family life, slavery, earning a living, use of leisure hours, and religion.
- ° Easton, Stewart C. The Heritage of the Ancient World. 2nd Ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

A wealth of information on both Greece and Rome will be found in this well-balanced reference book. (P.T).

- ° Foster, G. Augustus Caesar's World. New York: Scribner, 1947.  
This attractive and well-illustrated book provides a picture of life and times in the reign of Augustus.
- ° Hadas, Moses, and the Editors of Time-Life Books. Imperial Rome. Great Ages of Man Series. New York: Time-Life Books, 1965.  
A useful general account of the period is presented together with some fine illustrations, especially of Roman painting.
- ° Hodge, Peter. The Roman House. Aspects of Roman Life Series. London: Longman, 1971. (Paperback).  
This attractive booklet will easily hold the interest of pupils. Many good illustrations used.
- ° Hodge, Peter. Roman Towns. Aspects of Roman Life Series. London: Longman, 1972. (Paperback).  
This book features an attractive format with an abundance of pictures, brief explanatory notes, and suggestions for questions and further activities.
- ° Johnson, Dorothy M. Greece : Wonderland of the Past and Present. New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1964.  
A clear account is presented of the geography, legends, history, politics, religion, and education of classical and modern Greece. The book also outlines the origins of our heritage in many fields. There are a number of good illustrations
- ° Kitto, H.D.F. The Greeks. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1957. (Paperback).  
This very readable book provides valuable information about Greek character and culture.
- ° Lamprey, L. Children of Ancient Gaul. New York: Biblo and Tannen, 1960.
- ° Lamprey, L. Children of Ancient Rome. New York: Biblo and Tannen, 1960.  
These two books provide, in a fictionalized form, much valuable information about ancient Roman and provincial life.
- ° McLeish, Kenneth. Greek Exploration and Seafaring. Aspects of Greek Life Series. London: Longman, 1972. (Paperback).  
Pupils will enjoy this cleverly designed booklet with its many pictures and readable text.

- ° Miller, Shane. The Romans. Life Long Ago Series. New York: Coward, McCann and Geoghegan, 1963.

A journey through the Mediterranean World at the height of the Roman Empire.
- ° Milliken, E.K. The Greek People. London: George G Harrap and Co., 1970.

The text deals with the most important social and political aspects of the life of the Greek people. It also provides review tests and valuable suggestions for projects relevant to a study of the Greek world.
- ° Milliken, E.K. The Roman People. London: George G. Harrap and Co., 1970.

This book examines many aspects of Roman life (social, political, religious and military) and provides a brief survey of Roman history from its beginnings to 410 AD. It includes numerous charts and illustrations of considerable usefulness in a classical civilization course.
- ° Mireaux, Emile. Daily Life in the Time of Homer. Translated from the French by Iris Sells. London: George Allen and Unwin, 1959.

A vivid presentation of details of life in the seventh and eighth centuries BC that will make Homer more interesting to the junior secondary pupil.
- ° Roman Britain. Holmes McDougall Changing World History Series, Unit 7. Edinburgh: Holmes McDougall, 1970.

This very brief account of life in the northern areas of Roman Britain includes many black and white illustrations.
- ° Sargent, Michael. Mycenae. Aspects of Greek Life Series. London: Longman, 1972. (Paperback).

This is one of a series of attractive booklets designed for use in foundation courses in Greek and Roman Civilization. On almost every page there are photographs of artefacts, reconstructions, and interesting ruins. There are also suggestions for discussions and interesting follow up activities.
- ° Scullard, H.H. The Etruscan Cities and Rome. Aspects of Greek and Roman Life Series. London: Thames and Hudson, 1967.

While Chapter 9 ("Etruscan Rome") and Chapter 10 ("Rome and the Etruscans") may prove most useful for classroom purposes, some pupils interested in probing more deeply will find the earlier chapters to be just as helpful and fascinating. (P.T).
- ° Sheppard, E.J. Ancient Athens. Then and There Series. London: Longman, 1967.

This paperback concisely discusses Greek festivals, home life, education, occupations, and politics. Modestly illustrated in black and white.

- ° Snodgrass, A.M. Arms and Armour of the Greeks. Aspects of Greek and Roman Life Series. London: Thames and Hudson, 1967.  
The historical treatment covers the Mycenaean to Hellenistic ages; it is a book which will serve the interests of the pupil.
  
- ° Starr, Chester G. The Ancient Greeks. New York: Oxford University Press, 1971.  
This is an excellent, scholarly treatment of Greek civilization, Providing Time Charts, valuable translations of works of the major Greek writers, further reading suggestions, and a glossary. The text features colour plates and maps and provides accurate information on recent archaeological discoveries. (P.T).
  
- ° Stobart, J.C. The Glory That Was Greece. Edited and revised by R.J. Hopper, 4th ed. London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1964.  
This is also available in paperback form. Copiously illustrated, this book will be of interest to any student of Greece.
  
- ° Stobart, J.C. The Grandeur That Was Rome. Edited and revised by W.S. Maguinness, and H.H. Scullard. 4th ed. London: Sidgwick and Jackson, 1961.  
This book is both a commentary on the history of Rome and an assessment of Rome's achievement and contribution to Western Civilization. The full-page black and white photographs by Nash are outstanding. (P.T).
  
- ° Taylor, Boswell, ed. Ancient Egyptians. Picture Reference 14. Leicester: Brockhampton Press, 1970.  
This reference book presents many detailed illustrations related to all aspects of Egyptian life. Excellent brief notes describe the pictures. (P.T).
  
- ° Taylor, Boswell, ed. Arms and Armour. Picture Reference 21. Leicester: Brockhampton Press, 1973.  
This book offers authentic and accurate background material relating to weapons designed in the Bronze Age, and modified throughout the years to modern times. The many excellent illustrations should make it invaluable to teacher and pupil alike. (T.P).
  
- ° Tingay, G.I.F. and Babcock, J. These were the Romans. Amsterdam, Bucks: Hulton Educational Publications, 1972.  
This well-composed, clearly written and well illustrated book will be of interest to students of Latin and of Classical Civilization.

- Watson, G.R. The Roman Soldier. Aspects of Greek and Roman Life Series. London: Thames and Hudson, 1969.

This useful reference book brings together much interesting background information on a very important topic.

- Weisgard, Leonard. The Athenians. Life Long Ago Series. New York: Coward-McCann and Geoghegan, 1963.

In this "re-creation through pictures and text of life in the classical period", we follow Timotheus through a day's round of activities among the people of the first democracy. A detailed work, which should satisfy the needs of even the younger pupil.

- White, J.E. Manchip. Ancient Egypt. New York: Dover Publications, 1970.

This book is meant to serve as an introduction to Egyptology. Each chapter is devoted to a different aspect of Egyptian life (e.g. the priest, the pharaoh, the architect, the commoner).

- White, K.D. Roman Farming. Aspects of Greek and Roman Life Series. London: Thames and Hudson, 1970.

An invaluable reference book for specific and often fascinating information about many aspects of Roman farming. (T).

- Workman, B.K. They Saw it Happen in Classical Times. Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1964.

This valuable and fascinating anthology of eye-witness accounts draws on many original sources. This book is available in paperback. (P.T).

## 8. ART, ARCHAEOLOGY AND ARCHITECTURE

- Bass, George F. Archaeology under Water. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1970. (Paperback).

This is a thorough and very readable account of the techniques of underwater archaeology.

- Baumann, Hans. Lion Gate and Labyrinth. Translated by Stella Humphries. New York: Pantheon Books, 1967.

Baumann presents an interesting account of the work of Schliemann and Evans. There are more than thirty colour plates.

- Becatti, Giovanni. The Art of Ancient Greece and Rome. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1968.

Ample illustrations and sparing but useful commentary make this a valuable reference book. (P.T).

- ° Brion, Marcel. Pompeii and Herculaneum. London: Sphere Books, 1973.  
Brion's well-known account of ancient excavations. The illustrations include sixteen colour prints.
- ° Brown, Frank E. Roman Architecture. New York: George Braziller, 1967.  
This rather brief outline of Roman Architecture is well illustrated with photographs of ruins, reconstructions, and plans.
- ° Carter, Howard. The Tomb of Tutankhamen. London: Sphere Books, 1972.  
Carter's account includes detailed descriptions of the objects found as well as black and white photographs taken during the excavations. There are seventeen beautiful colour photographs of selected artefacts.
- ° Cottrell, Leonard. The Lion Gate. London: Pan Books, 1967 (Paperback).  
Cottrell investigates the Mycenaean world through the findings of archaeology and the clues of myth and legend.
- ° De Paor. Archaeology. Harmondsworth. Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1967. (Paperback).  
This brief, well-illustrated introduction to archaeology includes a useful chapter on its methods.
- ° Garnett, Henry. Treasures of Yesterday. Garden City, N.Y.: Natural History Press, 1964.  
This book provides an especially appealing overview of important archaeological accomplishments in Pompeii, Troy, Knossos, Egypt and other areas. Chapters on ancient writing, and on archaeological techniques make this a valuable basic reference. There are numerous colourful illustrations. (P.T).
- ° Glubok, Shirley. The Art of Ancient Greece. New York: Atheneum, 1967.  
The purpose of this book is to introduce young people, aged ten to thirteenth, to Greek art of the Golden Age. The pages are large, the illustrations boldly defined, and the text, simple and suitable for the younger reader.
- ° Hassall, Mark. The Romans. The Young Archaeologist Books Series. London: Rupert Hart-Davis Educational Publications, 1971.  
This book tells how the Science of Archaeology began, how archaeologists started to study the remains of Rome's Empire, and how the work of modern archaeologists continues to add to our knowledge of Rome and its people.
- ° Jones, John Ellis. The Greeks. The Young Archaeologist Books Series. London: Rupert Hart-Davis Educational Publications, 1971.  
This book combines up-to-date scholarship with a style suited to a youthful audience. Of special interest is the on-site description of the excavation of a Greek house near Vari in Attica.

- ° Kahane, P.P. The Dolphin History of Painting. Vol. I - Ancient and Classical Art. London: Thames and Hudson, 1969.

This pocket-size volume contains 172 plates in full colour. Each plate is followed by a detailed commentary. The introduction includes brief essays on Egyptian, Greek, Etruscan, and Roman painting. (P.T).
- ° Leacroft, Helen and Leacroft, Richard. The Buildings of Ancient Egypt. Leicester: Brockhampton Press, 1963.

This book presents a very brief description of some of the tombs, pyramids and temples of Ancient Egypt. It includes many black and white drawings and a few in colour.
- ° Leacroft, Helen and Leacroft, Richard. The Buildings of Ancient Greece. Reading. Mass.: Addison Wesley, 1966.

A colourful series of reconstructions illustrates Greek architecture from Mycenaean to Hellenistic times. Each painting is accompanied by a simple explanation of the function and architectural features of the type of building. Especially well done are the entries on temples and theatres.
- ° Leacroft, Helen and Leacroft, Richard. The Buildings of Ancient Rome. Leicester: Brockhampton Press, 1969.

This slim volume features reconstructions in colour and monochrome of typical and well-known Roman buildings including temples, baths, basilicas, theatres, houses, villas, and shops.
- ° Mellersh, H.E.L. Minoan Crete. Life in Ancient Lands Series. New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1967.

This book is an excellent source book for a unit on the archaeology of Minoan Crete. There are many illustrations, several in colour.
- ° Picard, G. Roman Painting. London: Elek Books, 1968.

This well-illustrated volume discusses Roman painting, as well as relief sculpture and mosaic. Numerous large illustrations are documented in detail. Although the sculptures are illustrated by black-and-white photographs, the paintings and mosaics are shown in colour plates.
- ° Robertson, D.S. A Handbook of Greek and Roman Architecture. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1964.

Available in both hardcover and paperback editions, this reference book is essential for the teacher of Classical Civilization. (T).
- ° Wechsler, H.J. Gods and Goddesses in Art and Legend. New York: Washington Square Press, 1961. (Paperback).

This paperback shows how the various classical deities were represented in subsequent ages.

9. MYTHOLOGY AND RELIGION

- ° Albion-Meek, Peggy, The Great Adventurer. MacMillan of Canada, 1957  
 This narrative of the adventures of Odysseus draws upon episodes from the Iliad and the Odyssey.
- ° Asimov, Isaac. Words from Myths. Toronto: New American Library of Canada, 1969. (Paperback).  
 This overview of classical mythology focusses upon the influence of myths on the English language.
- ° Bradford, Ernle. Ulysses Found. London: Sphere Books, 1967.  
 Students of the Odyssey will enjoy Bradford's generally successful attempt to relate Homer's account of Ulysses' wanderings to Mediterranean geography.
- ° Creighton, David. Deeds of Gods and Heroes. Toronto: MacMillan of Canada, 1967.  
 This book is most useful for course units including adventure stories, cross-cultural comparisons, or universal themes. It contains suggestions for further reading as well as helpful questions and projects.
- ° Cruse, Amy. The Book of Myths. Toronto: Clarke, Irwin & Co., 1972  
 This is a good text book for a general study of mythology.
- ° D'Aulaire, I. and D'Aulaire, Edgar P. Book of Greek Myths. Garden City N.Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1962.  
 The book of mythology, which contains a number of illustrations to accompany the text, is highly recommended for children.
- ° Graves, Robert. Greek Gods and Heroes. New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1965. (Paperback).  
 These brief accounts of the major Greek myths are written with a light touch that should appeal to young readers.
- ° Graves, Robert. The Siege and Fall of Troy. New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1965. (Paperback).  
 Young readers will enjoy Graves' brief, swiftly moving account of the Trojan War. It includes the return and murder of Agamemnon and the wanderings of Odysseus.
- ° Green, Roger Lancelyn. Tales of the Greek Heroes. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1970. (Paperback).
- ° Green, Roger Lancelyn. The Tale of Troy. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1958. (Paperback).  
 These two books form an excellent introduction to classical mythology for the Junior Secondary division



- Halford, R.W. The Greek Myths. Toronto: Longman Canada, 1964.  
This book not only offers students a collection of the better-known Greek myths, but makes them aware of the influence of the Greeks on Western civilization. At the end of the book there are general questions for study and review as well as additional notes on characters mentioned throughout the text.
  
- Merson, A.J., ed. A Book of Classical Stories. Junior Modern English Series. London: George G Harrap and Co., 1965.  
This collection includes different versions of classical myths and legends as well as stories from the Greek and Roman Historians.
  
- Murphy, Martin. Stories from Ovid. London: Oxford University Press, 1971.  
This English-language account of twenty-five stories from the Metamorphoses would appeal to a wide range of students.
  
- Pinsent, John. Greek Mythology. London: Paul Hamlyn, 1969.  
The illustrations, many of them in colour, dominate this attractive introduction to Greek mythology.
  
- Sharwood-Smith, John. The Bride from the Sea. Inside the Ancient World Series, London: MacMillan Education, 1973. (Paperback).  
This introduction to the study of Greek mythology was written specifically for secondary school students. It examines the Greek myths as legends, folk-tales, and "pure myths" and discusses various theories of the origin and function of myths.
  
- Swayze, Beulah, ed. Magic of Myth and Legend. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson, 1959.  
An anthology of stories from Greek myth and legend. It includes suggestions for questions and projects.
  
- Tripp, Edward. Crowell's Handbook of Classical Mythology. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1970.  
A very useful reference work. (P.T).

## 10. PHILOSOPHY

- Agard, Walter R. The Great Mind. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1957. (Paperback).  
Part I of this paperback discusses Greek attitudes on such topics as man, nature, God, heroic virtues, individual values, man and society, foreign relations. Part II contains contemporary prose translations of extracts from Greek authors, grouped according to topic. (P.T).

- ° Mackendrick, Paul. The Roman Mind at Work. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1958. (Paperback).

This paperback is very helpful for a study of the character and personality of the Romans. Each topic is illustrated by prose translations from the Roman authors.

- ° Parker, Meg. Socrates and Athens. Inside the Ancient World Series. London: MacMillan Education, 1973. (Paperback).

Socrates is seen against the background of Athenian life and customs. Many quotations from original sources are used to illustrate the man and his ideas.

## 11. SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

- ° Farrington, Benjamin. Greek Science. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1969. (Paperback).

A first class reference book for many units of a classical civilization course, it is historical in form and should appeal to pupils interested in mathematics and science. Farrington has sought to explore the connections of Greek Science with the everyday life and economy of Greek society.

- ° Galen. On the Usefulness of the Parts of the Body. Edited by Margaret T May. 2 Vols. New York: Cornell University Press, 1968.

The most important works of this Greek physician of the second century AD., whose knowledge and theory dominated medicine until the beginning of the modern period. (P.T).

- ° Scarborough, John. Roman Medicine. Aspects of Greek and Roman Life Series. London: Thames and Hudson, 1969.

This book provides an excellent account of many aspects of ancient medicine, including instruments, dentistry and military hospitals. It will be especially useful for individual or group research.

## 12. LANGUAGE AND WORD STUDY

- ° Burriss, Eli E. and Casson, Lionel. Latin and Greek in Current Use. 2nd ed. Prentice-Hall Classics Series. Englewood Cliffs, N.J. Prentice-Hall, 1949.

This book is useful both as a reference book on word origins and as a source of material for a unit on the continuing debt of English to Latin and Greek. (P.T).

- ° Taylor, B.C. The Greeks Had a Word for It. Classical Civilization Series. Toronto: Guidance Centre, Faculty of Education, University of Toronto, 1973.

This handy booklet discusses the debt of the English language to Greek, traces the development of the Greek alphabet, and presents ten brief units dealing with the derivation of English words from Greek.

- Taylor, B.C. Latin is Alive and Well. Classical Civilization Series. Toronto: Guidance Centre, Faculty of Education, University of Toronto, 1973.

This is a companion booklet to the one above. In addition to describing the ways in which Latin has entered the English language it offers practical exercises in word derivation.

### 13. EDUCATION AND TEACHING

- Castle, E.B. Ancient Education and Today. London: Penguin Books, 1961. (Paperback).

A useful comparison between ancient and modern practices in education is presented in this readable book. (T).

- Forbes, Clarence A. ed. The Teaching of Classical Subjects in English. Oxford, Ohio: American Classical League, 1973. (Paperback).

This softcover collection of seven articles has the following headings: Greek Literature in Translation, Latin Literature in Translation, Classical Drama, Ancient Philosophy, Greek History, Roman History, Classical Archaeology. (T).

- Jaeger, Werner. Paedeia : The Ideals of Greek Culture. Vol. I - Archaic Greece; The Mind of Athens. Translated by Gilbert Highet. New York: Oxford University Press, 1965. (Paperback).

This brilliant work relates Greek education and character to cultural developments during the Archaic and Classical periods. (T).



- ° Alexander the Great and the Hellenistic World: D.N.E.  
 13 Mins                                      8-10                                      HI-63B  
 Relates the career and conquests of Alexander, the extension of Greek influence, and the economic and cultural characteristics of the Hellenistic period.
- ° Ancient Egypt: D.N.E.  
 10½ Mins                                      4-AE                                      HI-9  
 A visit to Ancient Egypt shows the great Sphinx, the Temple at Karnak and many examples of famous sculpture. The development of agriculture, community living, arts and sciences, and polytheistic religion are also discussed.
- ° Ancient Greece: D.N.E.  
 10 Mins                                      6-AE                                      HI-582  
 By means of models and sequences of the actual buildings the film recreates life in ancient Greece and shows the Parthenon, the village of Sparta and the Acropolis.
- ° Ancient Mesopotamia: D.N.E.  
 10 Mins                                      6-AE                                      HI-585  
 Shows the contribution of the Sumerians, Semites, Babylonians and Assyrians, who inhabited Babylon, Ur and Ninevah. They developed a code of laws, a system of writing and military science.
- ° Ancient Persia: D.N.E.  
 10 Mins                                      6-10                                      HI-34  
 An overview of the Persian Empire from 550 BC to its downfall in 331 BC, showing the growth of the Empire, system of government, religion and culture, and the contribution of Persian civilization to world culture.
- ° Ancient Phoenicia and her Contribution: D.N.E.  
 13½ Mins                                      6-10                                      HI-843  
 Major contributions of the ancient Phoenicians to western civilization - navigation, trading, colonization, invention of the alphabet are discussed.
- ° Ancient Rome: D.N.E.  
 9½ Mins                                      6-AE                                      HI-584  
 The achievements of Rome in government, architecture and engineering are depicted by means of models, and authentic buildings and scripts. Sequences show the Appian Way, the Sacra Via, the Forum and the palaces of the Palatine Hill.

- ° Ancient World Inheritance: D.N.E.  
 9½ Mins.                                  6-AE                                  HI-183  
 A visualization of our legacy from the ancients - glimpses of the ancient civilization which gave us our money, alphabet and even the beginnings of modern industry. A museum visit.
  
- ° Archaeologists at Work: D.N.E.  
 14 Mins.    G-AE    SO-42B  
 Two archaeologists are shown excavating a site. Their findings are carefully evaluated in the laboratory. The rings and Carbon 14 enable them to date their findings.
  
- ° Archimedes Principle: D.N.E.  
 6 Mins.    6-8    PS-448  
 By means of dramatisation the problem that led to Archimedes' famous experiment in bouyancy, is depicted.
  
- ° A Roman Episode: D.N.E.  
 11 Mins.    6-AE    HI-256  
 The first part of the film shows excavations outside St. Alban's, Hertfordshire, while the second part shows an episode in the history of Roman Britain - the decree by Diocletian in Ad 303 that all Roman citizens must acknowledge the ancient gods of Rome. The scene in Verulamium shows the people, houses and objects seen earlier in the film.
  
- ° Claudius : Boy of Ancient Rome: D.N.E.  
 16 Mins.    4-8    HI-106B  
 The story of friendship between two boys, one free and one a slave, is used as a vehicle for an introduction to many aspects of Roman life and customs.
  
- ° Crete and Mycenae: Museum without Walls Series: 1970. C.P.L.S.  
 54 Mins.    Sound Colour                                  A939.18  
 After a brief visit to the ruins of Mycenae, the film concentrates on the Minoan civilization of Crete, and the discoveries of Sir Arthur Evans.
  
- ° Democracy of Ancient Greece : The Age of Excellence: D.N.E.  
 14½ Mins.    8-AE    HI-96B  
 The focus is upon Greek geography and its contribution to the personality of the individual states. Reasons are given for the prosperity and democratizing of Athens, and examples of how Greek art expresses this growth.

- ° Earthquakes and Volcanoes: D.N.E.  
 12½ Mins.                                      8-AE                                      PS-512B  
 The formation of earthquakes and volcanoes. Valuable for an understanding of the seismic and volcanic activity in ancient Halia and Greece.
  
- ° Egypt : Land of Antiquity: D.N.E.  
 16 Mins.                                      6-AE                                      HI-302B  
 Temples, obelisks, tombs, statues, columns, pyramids, the Sphinx and hieroglyphics reflect and record the history and culture of Ancient Egypt.
  
- ° Egyptologists: distributed by Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corporation, 1965. C.P.L.S.  
 38 Mins.                                      Sound Colour                                      A913.32  
 This fascinating account of the work done by archaeologists in Egypt before the flooding created by the Aswan Dam. Useful for a unit in archaeology.
  
- ° Four Views of Caesar: D.N.E.  
 22 Mins.                                      9-AE                                      LA-51B  
 Four playlets presenting four profiles of Caesar - as he was seen by himself, by Plutarch, by Shakespeare, and by Shaw.
  
- ° Greek Sculpture: D.N.E.  
 22 Mins.                                      8-AE                                      FA-545B  
 In this film the history of Greek sculpture is traced by showing the sculpture of different periods and nations in Greece.
  
- ° Greek Sculpture: B.I.S.  
 27 Mins.                                      Colour                                      British Council                                      1959  
 A survey of Greek sculpture from 3,000 BC to 300 BC, showing in many cases unique material in museums in Greece and in the British Museum.
  
- ° Life in Ancient Egypt: D.N.E.  
 30 Mins.                                      6-AE                                      HI-707C  
 This film deals mainly with the period known as the New Kingdom (1580-1090 BC), with reference to the art, architecture and everyday objects of this period, the daily life of the people unfolds.
  
- ° Life in Ancient Greece: D.N.E.  
 11 Mins.                                      4-AE                                      HI-658-  
 The Rôle of the Citizen. Depicts the economic and political life in a Greek city-state in 440 BC, emphasizing both the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship.

- ° Life in Ancient Rome: D.N.E.  
13 Mins.                                8-10                                HI-116B  
This splendid film, set in the period of Trajan, examines the characteristics and achievements of Rome and its influence on Western civilization.
  
- ° Lost Wax: D.N.E.  
8½ Mins.                                6-AE                                FA-580  
This film illustrates the lost wax process of casting metal images - an ancient art still practiced in India. This process is followed step-by-step in both of the two basic techniques: the solid and the hollow.
  
- ° Masks: D.N.E.  
12 Mins.                                4-AE                                FA-464  
A presentation of one of the greatest collections of masks, illustrating a facet of culture and art for the performance of rituals, perpetuation of myths, and dramatization of legends of all people, both primitive and modern.
  
- ° Mythology of Greece and Rome: D.N.E.  
16 Mins.                                5-10                                LA-221B  
Abridged adaptations, based on both Greek and Roman sources, of the myths of Ceres and Proserpine; Apollo and Daphne; Pegasus and Bellerophon are illustrated.
  
- ° Oedipus Rex - The Age of Sophocles: D.N.E.  
29½ Mins.                                8-AE                                LA-171C
  
- ° Oedipus Rex : The Character of Oedipus: D.N.E.  
28½ Mins.                                8-AE                                LA-172C
  
- ° Oedipus Rex : Man and God: D.N.E.  
29 Mins.                                8-AE                                LA-173C
  
- ° Oedipus Rex : The Recovery of Oedipus: D.N.E.  
29 Mins.                                8-AE                                LA-174C  
The central themes of the Oedipus play are discussed in the four films listed above and are illustrated by scenes acted by members of the Stratford Shakespearean Festival Company. These films are really suited only to the more mature pupil, but the "Age of Sophocles" is useful for younger viewers.







Addresses;

- ° C.P.L.S. : Enquire at local Library
- ° Department of National Education  
The Chief  
Division Audio-Visual Education  
Private Bag X239  
PRETORIA. 0001
- ° British Information Services  
Film Library  
Information Section  
British Consulate General  
P O Box 2236  
JOHANNESBURG. 2000

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Department of Educational Policy Studies,  
Department of Classical Studies, University of  
Western Ontario, Canada.



Morrison I M

Private letter. 7.3.1984.  
University of Glasgow, Scotland.

Wilson D J

Private letter. 6.4.1984.  
Monkwearmouth School, Sunderland.