PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL LIBRARIES

IN

NAIROBI AND THE

SATISFACTION OF THE CURRICULUM

NEEDS AMONG HISTORY TEACHERS

BY

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I declare that this dissertation is my own original work, unless specified to the contrary in the text. It has not previously been submitted for evaluation at another university/department, and it is not being submitted concurrently for any other degree.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to investigate the level of awareness of history teachers in public secondary schools in Nairobi, Kenya, of the benefits of library use for the curriculum. The availability of school libraries in public secondary schools in Nairobi provided a context for this investigation into teacher library use.

In order to establish if libraries are used effectively, or used at all, for curriculum purposes, literature on this was searched and little came from Nairobi or even Kenya. This lack of information in this area formed a justification for investigation because libraries exist in many public schools in Nairobi and they have the potential to have a positive influence.

A survey of literature internationally illustrates the degree of the serious attention both history as a discipline, and library and the curriculum receive. History is given attention because of its role in both maintaining and revolutionising order in a country. In the case of resource-based learning, many countries have shifted to a child-centred approach. This requires much more use of libraries than traditional teaching methods.

The evaluation of teacher and librarian views was undertaken by means of a survey. In the survey questionnaires were used. The population was that provided by the Director of Education in Nairobi and a corresponding list of schools where teachers and librarians were employed is given.

The findings of the survey established the level of awareness of history teachers to resource-based education that took account of library-curriculum partnership. The study established the need for greater attention towards school libraries in the allocation of budgets, building

resources that are needed, and management. Staff development of both teachers and librarians was suggested in order to promote resource-based education. To achieve this, a written policy on the management of school libraries is suggested.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CASE	Contents, Attitudes, Skills and Evidence
CBET	Competency Based Education and Training
IFLA	International Federation of Library Associations
INSET	In-service Education and Training
KIE	Kenya Institute of Education
KNEC	Kenya National Examinations Council
KNLS	Kenya National Library Services
OBE	Outcomes Based Education
READ	Read, Educate and Develop
TAC	Teacher Advisory Centres
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization

BACKGROUND AND SETTING OF THE STUDY

1.1   Introduction

To study the relationship and interactions between school curricula and teachers, on the one hand, and school libraries and librarians, on the other, in secondary schools in Nairobi, Kenya, requires placing these issues in the broader school education schema within which they fall. To facilitate a viable recognition of the role of school libraries in subject instruction, this chapter presents a review and assessment of the prevailing situation in Kenya in general and Nairobi in particular. It also provides an introduction to the study and explains the relevant aspects of both the general history and current state of education in Kenya and Nairobi. History as a school subject is explored in the framework of the Kenyan school curriculum, and the role of the libraries in general and school libraries, specifically, in teaching the subject. To fulfil this exploration, library services relevant to schools, especially school and public libraries in Nairobi, are examined. It is through this exploration that this chapter lends support to the justification and viability of the investigation by providing a statement to the research problem, objectives and the research questions, the definition of concepts, and scope and limitations of the study.

1.2   Education in Kenya

Kenyan education, which was most similar to European education than indigenous African education, was started at Rabai near Mombasa in 1844, by Christian missionaries Johann Krapf and Johann Rebman of the Church Missionary Society. They established a school whose chief mission was to convert learners to Christianity. Since conversion of learners to

Christianity was the chief aim, the curriculum was heavily biased towards bible study. Students were tutored in Christian evangelism in order to prepare them for their mission in society. Elementary skills in reading and writing were passed on to the converts through Swahili as the lingua franca, a language for which Krapf had authored a dictionary (Ochieng, 1990: 85, 86).

In 1885, the year of the Conference which partitioned Africa into spheres of influence to be ruled by European nations, Kenya was recognized by the Berlin Conference as a British sphere of influence (Ogot and Ochieng, 1995: 221). The Imperial British East African Company administered Kenya from then until 1895, when the British government terminated its rule. The years after 1895 brought the building of the Uganda Railway from Mombasa to Kisumu on Lake Victoria. In 1899 Nairobi was built as the largest inland railway depot in Kenya and, after the completion of the railway, immigrant labourers from India settled as railway workers and traders. European settlement expanded due to the advantages offered by the railway.

The convergence of various population groups in Nairobi brought about he implementation of laws on segregation of facilities and amenities for Europeans, Indians and Africans. Education facilities were subjected to this policy even though schools were very few (Frost, 1978: 201).

The European schools, mostly primary schools, in the years prior to 1935 were established to cater for a white population of over 15 000 (Olden, 1987: 43). The Prince of Wales and the Kenya High Schools were two secondary schools set up for boys and girls, respectively. To serve the richer colonists, a private school for boys called Kenton College was established. It

operated along the lines of public schools in England and private schools in South Africa. At the time of the Second World War limited opportunities for school places in Europe, and indeed among European settlers in some neighbouring African countries, meant more demand for places at the Kenyan schools. Despite the crowded conditions at the Prince of Wales school during the War, confidence in both the availability of education opportunities and quality of instruction created interest among European parents from as far afield as Tanganyika and Rhodesia (Frost, 1978: 191). Further demand for school places to accommodate European children therefore led to the establishment, in 1949, of a second government school for boys.

Children of parents of Indian descent in Nairobi gained admission to the Duke of Gloucester and Duchess of Gloucester schools for boys and girls, respectively. African children received schooling from two secondary schools, namely the African Boys' School Pumwani, later renamed the African Government School Pumwani and African Girls' School Pumwani.

The philosophy of education during colonialism was unsympathetic to non-white people's needs (Rosenberg, 1984: 53). The position of whites or Europeans was that of administrators of all aspects of other races' needs, including education. As a result, education was designed in a way that safeguarded, at all costs, intellectual pursuits of Europeans. The colonists acted to avoid what one might call "intellectual deterioration" of, especially, European children. The education philosophy placed emphasis on quality and thus one can argue that this is why schools, especially those of Europeans, benefitted from the government library services which were funded initially by the Carnegie Corporation of New York and later by the colonists. In 1940 eleven government schools in Kenya received assistance from this service. As early as 1934 the Nairobi Library, which was mostly accessible only to

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whites, could boast of a collection "any library would be proud to have" (Olden, 1987: 47). This service by the Nairobi Library was an added advantage to already favoured European schools. As exemplified by Rosenberg (1984:52), school budgetary allocations per child in European schools in 1926 were £36 Sterling, compared to £7/4/- for an Indian and £6/7/- for an African child. These indicators are evidence of the unequal distribution of resources along racial lines that occurred in schools in colonial Kenya.

The philosophy of education and provision for African schools was more along the lines of basic reading and writing skills for biblical appreciation and industrial or vocational skills. African education was designed to place the African at the position of an enlightened servant to the European. Thus education was provided in order to enable the African to be versatile in rural environments, as suggested by the Phelps-Stokes Commission of 1924. This did not deviate from the earlier Fraser Commission of 1918, but simply formalized the process by giving support to the Industrial Training Depot, an institution designed for technical training for Africans and located at Jeanes School, Kabete, near Nairobi (Ochieng, 1990: 150; Rosenberg, 1984: 54). Rosenberg (1984: 55) suggests that the education philosophy held that Africans were biologically inferior in intellect and that education was to serve as a means of keeping modern influences away from them.

After Kenya's independence in 1963, however, the philosophy of education changed to "education for all", in order to combat poverty, ignorance and disease. Education after independence was considered as a means of restoring the African personality and cultural heritage. Education was also aimed at helping Kenyans to participate effectively in national and international affairs.

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As far as the quality of education was concerned, the European schools in the years of colonialism set a trend in the quality of education for their pupils. The availability of library resources was a privilege aided by the schools' use of the Nairobi Library Service. This was run by Barton-Eckett, a qualified librarian who, prior to his arrival in Kenya in 1931, was head of the Durham Public Library in England (Olden, 1987: 46). The advantage and benefit of being served by an experienced and learned librarian cannot be under-estimated. Barton-Eckett regarded the library as providing an education service rather than a library providing a best seller list (Olden, 1987: 48). The library had a stock of 9 724 volumes in 1934. There was a 1929 edition of *Encyclopedia Britannica* (Olden, 1987: 47). England had produced in 1928 a ***Memorandum on school libraries in state-aided secondary schools in England***, which stated that a school library was "no less an indispensable part of every secondary school than a laboratory" (Incorporated Association of Assistant School Masters in Secondary Schools, 1937: 4). Frost (1978: 197), in his assessment of education of the white population, stated that the quality of public school education in Kenya and that of public schools in England was comparable in quality. By 1937 schools in England made use of resource-based education. The Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools (1937: 28), in their contribution to this form of learning, encouraged librarians and subject masters to liaise in order to acquire suitable books for the libraries. As European schools in Kenya followed the example set by schools in England, the possibility of resource-based learning in Nairobi was highly likely.

The African schools were deprived of the finance necessary to build libraries or improve their plight in general. Rosenberg (1984: 55) has suggested that the government was unlikely to support libraries for Africans. When initiatives were undertaken by Africans, as happened in 1929 when the Local Native Councils in South Nyeri, Kiambu, and Fort Hall in Central

Kenya raised £20 000 to finance primary and secondary education, the government frustrated efforts to get the money to the schools (Rosenberg, 1984: 56). This served as an indication of the government's effort to undermine, and its apathy towards improving, education for Africans. Similar initiatives to raise funds in Nyanza by Local Native Councils faced government opposition. The government's objection was to Local Native Councils undertaking financial assistance to schools.

African schools in Kenya were under-funded and there were too few schools to serve the vast population. There were 184 primary schools in Kenya, with 128 823 pupils compared to 27 primary schools for 1 683 pupils for Europeans, in 1938. There were three secondary schools for 184 pupils for Africans and six secondary schools for 326 pupils of European descent (Rosenberg, 1984: 53).

In 1949 the Beecher Report on education in Kenya was published. It recommended an increase in schooling for Africans with four years of primary education, four years intermediate, and four years secondary (Ochieng, 1990: 151). The report further recommended the abolition of "the repeat class" system, which provided for students who had failed or not performed well in a particular class or standard to repeat the class. The abolition of "the repeat class" meant that a students could not spend more than one year in the same class or standard, and because higher classes were fewer in number and could accommodate only a limited number of pupils, there was much more competition for places for higher classes than before. This meant that end-of-year examinations became the critical measures for selection to move into higher classes. Cramming for examinations among students set in as a study culture. Furthermore, although advancement opportunities were

widened in later years by building more schools, the resource-based teaching and learning culture was stifled, even if libraries were to be accessible in subsequent years.

At Independence the country inherited schools which were unequal in facilities and quality of instruction (Eshiwani, 1990: 1). This was very evident in Nairobi, the capital city. The aim of getting equal education to achieve equal opportunity for all was undertaken through the First Development Plan (1964-70). One of the main goals of the plan was to expand schools both in number and capacity. Its strength lay in quantitative rather than qualitative measures. In other words, the First Development Plan emphasized an increase in the numbers of schools and their intake in Kenya, rather than an increase in the learning materials resources that went into these schools. The Second Development Plan (1970-74) addressed qualitative aspects of skills transfer for the labour market. In the Third Development Plan (1974-78), attention was directed to the transfer of high-level skills for the labour market, curriculum methods of teaching and forms of selection for schools. The number and type of teacher trainees and cost efficiency and resources use in education were taken into account.

Indeed, conscious efforts over the years to attain quality education for the majority of the people began in a way similar to other initiatives in other developing countries. In the 1960's the task of educators was to get both trained and untrained teachers into classrooms. In the 1990's attention to education quality and relevance has been the concern of both governments and students (UNESCO, 1998: 49). The huge expansion, a trend of the 1960's, devalued attempts at resource-based teaching, because little effort was made to accommodate resource-based teaching and learning. Libraries, which play a significant role in providing necessary resources for resource-based education, were neglected. Classrooms took

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precendence over libraries. However, historically advantaged schools continued to rely on libraries, a tradition that, as has been shown, had started well before the Second World War.

1.3   Library Services in Nairobi

Early initiatives in library service to inhabitants of Nairobi began in 1928, following a mission by Ferguson and Pitt of the Carnegie Foundation of New York (Olden, 1987: 43). The library collection, which was housed at MacMillan Memorial Library, was later incorporated into the Nairobi Municipal Library after Kenya's independence. In 1967 the Kenya National Library Services (KNLS) were established, with their head office in Nairobi. The mission of the KNLS was to provide a national library service and supply materials to those areas which did not have public and school library services.

In 1996 Nairobi had a population of 2 079 000 (United Nations Development Programme, UNDP, 1996: 177). This was 27% of Kenya's urban population.

Libraries accessible to the city's inhabitants, including schools, in the 1990's were: the American Cultural Centre which, although primarily a reference library providing information services about the United States of America, holds a collection which help teachers who teach topics relevant to the history and culture of America, which was part of the secondary school History curriculum (see Appendix A for the summary of the curriculum); the British Council Library, which is another contact library intended to promote and provide information about the United Kingdom, is accessible to members of the public and which provides material that is useful for topics on British history in the curriculum (see Appendix A); the Library of Congress office, which is a collection development centre for the Library of Congress on materials from East, Central and Southern Africa (before the

establishment of the South Africa, Library of Congress Office) and which holds a collection which can be utilized as a reference collection by teachers and librarians. In addition to the above libraries, the Desai Memorial Library's strength lies in the history of the Indian people in Kenya. It can be of immense use both as a reference library and as a lending centre for teachers and their students who want to teach and study the history of railway employees and early trade unions.

The Kenya National Library Services hold the largest collection of all public libraries, namely 600 000 volumes and serves as a public library. It provides a lending service to schools (Umbima, 1980: 70). This library has been of benefit to schools in Kenya but its role as far as library and curriculum initiatives are concerned has not been documented. However, it holds promise in the area of service to secondary school teachers and students because of its big collection. Finally, the University of Nairobi Library could be accessible to outside users in that there is a strong possibility, based on the experience of the researcher[1], that secondary school teachers could have access to the library, by arrangement with the University librarian.

The use of a library and its resources to meet curricula needs of teachers can be most effective where teachers co-operate with librarians in the selection of library materials. It is also important that the use of school libraries in meeting curriculum needs be monitored and evaluated, based on the set teaching and learning objectives. This has placed emphasis and relevance on teaching objectives, teacher pedagogy and performance of school leaving examinations (UNESCO, 1998: 52, 53). In Kenya, Odini (1998: 104) has discussed, at length, teacher advisory centres and their potential relevance in teaching and learning. These

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[1] The present researcher was a secondary school teacher in Kenya.

centres are expected to provide teacher support in the form of reference material required in teaching. However, Odini has pointed out their shortcomings, a major one being that of lack of funding. Full support needs to be rendered to libraries if they are to be effective . Only then can the realization of quality education sought by the MacKay Report of 1981, which initiated the 8-4-4 system of education, and the Presidential Working party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond of 1988 (Odini, 1998: 99) be achieved. The 8-4-4 education system suggested eight years for primary education, four years for secondary and four years for university education. The Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training aimed at skills based education. Information skills as suggested in the present study empower users to access other skills.

1.4   Teaching of History

History is the study of past activities of mankind. The teaching of history, amongst other things, enables learners to comprehend the past in order to appreciate the present. In this regard the teaching of history has been subject to various interpretations that do not all agree with each other. For instance, there have been different interpretations of the nature of history and the purpose of teaching it (Aldrich and Dean, 1991: 93). One of the issues that has arisen in the teaching of history has been the teaching of facts as opposed to skills-based learning. The perception by historians that history is a body of language for learning (Mathews *et al.*, 1992: 1) has been subject to criticism based on the views given by Aldrich and Dean who regard history as a collection of historical evidence and the formation of reasoned judgements based upon such evidence. A viewpoint which has gained recognition is one which has regarded history as a method of analysis of the past by the use of specific skills and concepts (Mathews *et al.*, 1992: 1).

Traditionally, the teaching of history has had two approaches. England, a country that has had close ties with teaching in Kenya, has promoted the teaching of history using a detailed body of facts obtained by the teacher (Reeves, 1980: 53). Another has been the selection of facts tied around events with link to each cluster of events. In this method specific events are identified and the dates of the events are given chronologically. At the end we get a body of facts in summary form with date links. This approach has been called the outline method and has found popularity with teachers who have been faced with broad topics and pressure of time in which to cover the syllabus (Cooper, 1992: 43).

Kenya has had to cope with the two methods. In Nairobi a study by Oduma (1994: 21) suggested that the most common practice was the "outline method", which was advocated by the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) *Teacher Guidelines for History*. The introduction to the guidelines proposed that the teaching of history be in the form of presenting history as a series of related events common to mankind's development through the ages (Kenya Institute of Education, 1988). This recommendation is not specific as far as content is concerned and details are left to teachers' discretion. The guidelines further indicate that history be presented as conflicts, compromises, and society development through synthesis that has been brought about by the contact of different cultures. In addition, this is illustrated by comparing European power-struggles in the 19th Century with those in colonial Kenya. Working class struggles in Europe and trade union activities in Kenya are examples of such comparative study. The requirement of the history syllabus, nineteen topics in all (see Appendix A), encourages the application of the outline method of teaching. However, the teaching objectives presented in the curriculum encourage teachers to engage in objectivity in his/her teaching. The task of outline teaching is made difficult by the examination requirements of the Kenya National Examinations Council (see Appendix B), where the

presentation of detailed analysis by examinees is preferred. This therefore encourages or requires a detailed fact approach in history instruction among teachers of history. It essentially means that teachers cannot depend on one history textbook alone, but that they must consult multiple sources.

The encouragement of the use of multiple sources to achieve objectivity and synthesis is suggested by the Kenya Institute of Education (1988) . This inadvertently has encouraged a focus on the need for a collection of relevant sources for teaching. The Kenya Examinations Council's suggestion for a need to have well-prepared examinees in history has further brought about the need for adequate sources to meet this end. School libraries have played a role in addressing teaching needs. Otike (1987(a): 419) said that the teaching role by libraries has been in practice in high-cost government schools that were historically advantaged and were schools for Europeans before 1963. He further recommends that high-cost private schools, namely Strathmore College and the International School of Kenya, engage in resource-based learning in order to meet curriculum needs of subjects offered in the school. The need to encourage this role of the library where it exists and an outreach to schools is needed in order to further resource-based learning and quality education in general.

1.5   Statement of the Problem

While in Kenya, in general, and Nairobi public schools, specifically, there are school libraries, one is not very clear from the literature of the level of awareness amongst history teachers of the role of libraries as information resources for meeting their curriculum needs and enhancing their teaching. It has not been established whether or not teachers are fully aware of the role libraries can play in the development and implementation of the school

curriculum. While libraries exist in many of the public schools in Nairobi and they have the potential to make a positive influence in providing multiple resources for the teaching of history, they would be of little use if they were not effectively used by teachers. There is no evidence in past studies that a critical evaluation or analysis has been done on the use and non-use of libraries by history teachers to meet curriculum needs.

Consequently it is not clear to what extent these school libraries meet the needs of history teachers.

1.6   Aim of the Study

The aim of this study therefore is to examine the role of school libraries in meeting curriculum needs of teachers in public schools in Nairobi, Kenya.

1.7   Objectives of this study are to:

a)   Assess teacher awareness of the role of libraries and information resources in history teaching;

b)   Assess teachers' use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks;

c)   Determine the use and non-use of libraries by history teachers for history curriculum needs;

d)   Examine the extent to which libraries assist history teachers to meet curriculum needs;

e)   Suggest means to enhance the use of libraries by history teachers.

1.8   Research Questions

The following were the research questions used to explore and deal with the research objectives:

a)   What is the extent of awareness among history teachers of the role information resources and library use play in enhancing history teaching?

b)   Are history teachers aware of the positive role of the use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks?

c)   To what extent do teachers of history make use of libraries for history curriculum needs?

d)   To what extent do library staff assist history teachers in meeting curriculum needs?

1.9   Definition of Key Concepts

The following key concepts are defined in the following manner for the purpose of the present study:

Curriculum needs	:	Information relevant to the structure and teaching of school subjects such as history.
History	:	The study of the past activities of mankind, taught as history, history and government, and social studies.
Library and information resources	:	Information resources that include books, audio-visual material and magazines useful in meeting information needs
Library use	:	Any time a teacher and/or student visits, consults, and utilizes the library resources and staff.
School librarian	:	Teacher or full-time librarian responsible for the management and running of a school library.

School library   :   Any single room or rooms designated for storage and use of information resources or used in conjunction with other resources within a school.

1.10   Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study was limited to teachers in public secondary schools in Nairobi. The schools included in the study were those which belong to Nairobi Province Directorate of Education. Only schools belonging to the public sector and operating a school library accessible to teachers were included in the study. The assumption was that with a school library facility, teachers in such public schools have the potential to use these libraries to deal with their curriculum needs. The study was limited to teachers because of the access teachers have by virtue of their training and their answerability to one employer, therefore facing similar guidelines in their involvement in the curriculum. Unlike students, who normally face a specific problem relating to a particular class for one year, teachers' involvement in instruction on a recurrent basis, and their exposure to recurring problems, provided most teachers with consistent curriculum information needs which could be studied.

1.11   Summary

The introduction has presented a brief background to education in Kenya in order to lay the foundation for the study. It has highlighted the potential role of school libraries in meeting curriculum needs and the promotion of education. The chapter has presented, in a wider context, the library services accessible to teachers in Nairobi and their potential relevance to the teaching of history. The role of libraries in addressing curriculum needs is tackled in brief before the delineation of the statement of the problem, objectives of the study and the research questions which direct the study are addressed. The chapter emphasized that, in

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spite of their potential in aiding the teaching of history, the extent to which school libraries are used to meet the curriculum needs of history teachers in public schools in Nairobi is not clear.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

The literature presented in this chapter, and deemed relevant to the study, represents works of scholars from Africa, the Americas, Asia, Australia, and Europe. Care has been taken to present literature from Kenya, which is the centre of the study. This presentation is offered even though the availability of published literature on school librarianship and particularly library services and curriculum initiatives in Kenya is scanty. Studies in various countries explore trends in teaching methods that are textbook reliant, those which require library assistance, and measures taken by both teachers and librarians to facilitate co-operation geared towards integrating classroom requirements and library services. The operating environment in secondary schools and the empathetic role of teaching staff, both as staff and as individuals, facilitate smooth delivery of information. The literature also presents the introvert and extrovert nature of teachers and librarians in schools. This, as well as the *modus operandi* of school principals in accommodating innovation and other support strategies deemed necessary towards the fulfilment of teaching, are dealt with. Literature in this chapter is therefore patterned to meet these concerns which are important building blocks in library-curriculum partnerships.

2.2 Education and the Role of History

Mankind's quest for knowledge has led to the pursuit of education with its different foci, insofar as it relates to his activities. The place of history as a subject in education has been a sphere where mankind has explored his identity as well as his past activities (Heater, 1969:2).

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History as a discipline has attempted to review and explain changes that have shaped the modern world. In the explanation of these changes there have been differences of opinion and there has been a freedom for individual assessment (Heater, 1969: 3). In the teaching of history justification for inclusion of material in school syllabi has arisen, as has the authenticity of evidence. Heater (1969: 4) has argued that the issue of bias of sources has also emerged because of the different shades of opinion amongst historians as to what constitutes bias. The importance of history lies in its ability to present the past, attempt to understand it and bring about conditions that enable learners to be active citizens. For various governments, the study and teaching of history is synonymous with politicization of the population and development of good citizenry because people learn about the past to understand their present. History teaching can therefore be used to consolidate or disintegrate (revolutionize) a country.

2.3   Teaching of History in Selected Countries of the World

In some countries history holds a special place. In Argentina, for example, history holds a prestigious position and is openly debated by people. History books are in the best-seller lists, and historians are invited to speak on television and radio and give expert opinions by writing in newspapers on various issues (Pozzi, 1994: 1106). History teaching has benefited from this high elevation because much has been expected from students, teachers and, to some extent, governments. This is particularly the case because in some countries each of the political parties has historians and history is taught to trade unionists as part of political culturalisation. As a result, government policies during the era of the military juntas in Argentina, for example, encouraged the teaching of American history at the expense of Latin American and other history. This was subject to suspicion by many people in Argentina who

sympathised with left-wing political organisations. The extreme right wing alone supported the state of affairs where American history held a prominent position (Pozzi, 1994: 1110).

The effect of political philosophy of a government on how history is taught in a country is real, although this can never be attributed in equal measure to all countries. In a case bearing relevance to Argentina, South Africa also reflected the political philosophy of the time in the teaching of history. During the era of apartheid, education and indeed the nature of history were fashioned on the dictates of Afrikaner nationalism (Iain, 1993: 5). Racism was inherent in the Afrikaner version of history, which was promoted by the government. The syllabus used in South African schools was a "top down" authoritarian method from teacher to pupil. In white schools, such as those in Natal (now KwaZulu-Natal), teachers of history were expected to hold up the moral motives of apartheid (Chernis, 1990: 23). The Nationalist government's influence on the history syllabus led to the emergence of the concept of peoples' education which better represented the views held by the majority of the people in South Africa. This venture into "new" history was undertaken in the 1980's. This came about because there was a need to give alternative views on history. Workshops conducted by the University of Witwatersrand in the 1980's, for example, aimed at equipping teachers with alternative viewpoints to those presented in the school syllabus (Philip, 1994: 980).

In China the school history syllabus has generally been authoritarian because the communist government encourages this form of outlook. The history syllabus has in the recent past aimed at the promotion of the philosophy of Marxism. The uniformity required in Marxism, especially in education, has encouraged this form of syllabus. The Cultural Revolution in China (1966-1976) discouraged attempts to provide an alternative (Fouts and Chan, 1995: 523, 529). In recent times, however, and with the liberalization of the Chinese political

system, one cannot be far wrong to speculate that the teaching of history must be slowly changing.

In Britain, the government policy, as is common in democratic states, has been subjected to changes because of international trends in presenting the past. Britain has emerged as a European power, and is no longer a colonial power. Therefore history has had to reflect this change and give Britain a new role in the modern world (Line, 1990: 104). New nations have emerged on the map of the world and British history has had to reflect this because of the need to portray a positive image, unlike that which was once current in British colonial history. This approach has had empathy with non-Europeans and attempts to eliminate racial undertones have been undertaken. As a result, the image of the minority populations in Britain, represented in the history promoted in Britain, has undergone change.

In the United States of America social studies did not receive much attention in the late 1950's and in the early 1960's because their contribution to the space programme was considered minimal (Thomas, 1969 : 279). Despite this, reforms in the science curriculum found their way into history and social studies. This was in methodology, vocabulary and spirit, because in the USA in the late 1950's and 1960's the space programme and the rivalry between the USA and the USSR seemed to be all that mattered as far as innovation in education was concerned. The later years experienced racial tension in the era of the civil rights movements and dissatisfaction, among a section of the population, with the Vietnam War. The Civil Rights Movement, for example, influenced the emergence of dissatisfaction in the teaching methods in use because of the use of racial stereotypes. This led to the development of particular views on nationalism and the need for new teaching methods in social studies (Thomas, 1969:279, 280). Teachers were trained in the new methods under the

National Education Defence Act. Social studies was recognised as a subject designed to prepare learners for the future in a changing world (Thomas, 1969 : 281). Emphasis was given to behavioural objectives and teachers concerned themselves with emotional domains, especially in the light of American race policies and the Vietnam War. Attention was given to skills of enquiry or inductive learning. This took into account skills in the interpretation of historical situations and the arrival of conclusions based on data provided. Students participated in this skills approach and explored the different opinions presented in the interpretations. This was evident during the Vietnam War and the era of the Civil Rights Movement, because the two brought a need for the exploration of interpretations on pertinent points on events which took place.

The skills approach was practised in Britain as well. Britain's review of history from colonial to post-colonial perspectives gained importance, especially with regard to written texts. The changing role of education in Britain to accommodate perspectives representative of minority races and cultures brought about this need. A child or pupil centred approach in the teaching of history, a practice still in use in Britain, accommodates variety in the story, incorporates close observation, and makes use of role play which is founded on historical reality in order to promote curiosity (Hughes, 1994: 2). The method requires a learner "to make judgements about the respective strengths of differing interpretations of historical events and developments" (Van der Leeuw-Roord, 1994: 8). These interpretations require skills to fully appreciate the interpretation process. They also require the availability of a variety of information resources providing information about a specific topic from different perspectives. This differs from attempts at reaching interpretation by the utilisation of limited resources such as maps, plans, photographs and contemporary sources. In the late 1960's this way of interpretation by means of few resources was often practised (Gibson, 1969: 21). The

teaching of history in the 1990's explores issues such as history sources and their availability. The use of critical thinking is applied in schools because bias in history sources is part and parcel of instruction. The antithesis of bias is also discussed (De Marco, 1995: 4). It is most likely that the need to explore bias in history sources has encouraged a wider use of books and other sources of information. Historical accounts are often difficult to accept, therefore critical analysis and the use of multiple sources provides a needed means to achieve the results desired. This method of history teaching has gained acceptance in Scandinavia and the Netherlands.

Teaching of history in Kenya has many characteristics found in other countries. The aim is the development of the virtues of morality and patriotism. To achieve this, students are introduced to the selection and interpretation of data and are instructed in analytical skills, logic and creativity in decision-making (Chumba 1986:12). In addition, the scope of history in Kenya is wide and the countries under study are diverse (Kiigi 1983:2). Kiigi argues, however, that Kenya fails in promoting history through continuing education of teachers as well as inspection of history teachers . The views of the two scholars are still applicable in Kenya (1983:3).

The relevance of in-service training for teachers to advance the teaching of history is suggested by Wangombe (in Kiigi, 1983: 7), an author of history literature. Ayot (in Kiigi, 1983: 7), a writer of history books recommends the introduction of new teaching methods in history to create interest in the subject. Similarly (in Kiigi, 1983: 7) holds that a shift in the status designated to history through a positive image could transform perceptions of teachers, students, parents and society.Views on the need for change through the introduction of new teaching methods are held by teachers. Kiigi (1983: 14) has further argued that the inadequacy

of traditional examination methods in the evaluation of teaching objectives in history at "O"

level does pose a challenge as far as relevance in teaching methods in Kenya are concerned.

2.4   Textbook Focus in Teaching

The national curriculum in England lays emphasis on complete syllabus coverage. Textbooks

do not achieve all they are required to achieve because textbook writers gather facts in a

selective manner and therefore fail to meet all information needs relevant to the syllabus

(Crawford, 1996: 402). In areas where textbooks are the basis of pedagogy, they are used as

tools of interpretation, as is the case in Rajasthan, India (Raina, 1992: 25) and South Africa

(Wyley 1997:20), where they offer a very narrow choice in interpretation.   Information gaps

exist in textbooks because of the selection of facts by textbook writers and thus "deny"

students access to other facts and interpretations that are omitted although they are part of

history (Winter 1996:374). However, the child-centred method of teaching, as perceived and

applied in England, with its reliance on a variety of sources, makes textbook interpretation of

less importance as far as providing viewpoints is concerned. The attraction in the use of

textbooks has been because of the ease of their use since information on a given topical issue

is usually packaged in one source. Textbooks are popular because teachers have less work in

information gathering (Crawford, 1996: 408).This is probably much more acute in countries

with less textbook and information resource variety. Katjavivi (1997: 6) has argued that book

choice in developing countries is restricted because adaptation of books in the market is

common and the marketing of new books commonly takes place with no feasibility studies

undertaken . This does not bring innovation because new ideas are ignored in favour of

familiar ones. This results in a limited choice, and restriction to established facts and

opinions, for learners. Teachers who choose to rely on textbook interpretation in teaching are

subjected to this limitation.

2.5 Textbook Focus in Teaching History

Historical topics are usually identified and themes selected before teaching is undertaken in many instructional situations. The delivery of content is either in teaching by outlines, that is the cluster of events selected to match dates and providing links or through detailed study of content, the latter a method of choice by many history teachers (Fisher, Hardman and Vickers, 1996: 26). Alternatively, Reeves (1980: 53) has argued that teaching by the use of outlines is ideal for less-detailed presentation of history facts, where vast numbers of facts are presented in brief over a shorter time than is possible in the other teaching methods. However, this lack of detail is not appropriate for eager learners and teachers who are far more discriminating where detail is concerned. Eager pupils learn from teachers geared in relevant skills of information selection and dissemination, and are adept at information gathering. This is because textbooks often offer selected facts which in history may be biased to meet specific political philosophies and agendas of a given ruling clique. The need for access and co-operation between librarians and teachers is relevant. This could prove far more enriching than the remedy of questions and answers preferred in the teaching of history, which is often textbook reliant. Textbook focused instruction has, to a large extent, been in use in South Africa. Sishi (1995: 15), in his study of the teaching of history in South Africa, discusses the inadequate nature of this method because of the information gaps prevalent in textbooks, which invariably lead to inadequate preparation for students enrolled for the South African Matriculation Board Examination , the school-leaving examination.

In Kenya, the focus on textbooks in history has failed to adequately address curriculum objectives . Books recommended by the Ministry of Education and published by the Kenya Institute of Education to cover the curriculum do not fully address teaching needs, as the

opinions of teachers in Nairobi indicate. The findings from Oduma's study (1994: 23), and presented below, support this assertion.

Table 1

Teachers' evaluation of the Kenya Institute of Education textbooks

QUESTION	RESPONSE	
	Yes	No
Do K.I.E. textbooks help you meet your objectives?	36%	64%
Is the language adapted to the age of the student?	100%	-
Is the context properly arranged?	100%	-
Is the information given accurate?	60%	40%
Do they have a table of content?	100%	-
Do they have an index?	-	100%
Do they have a glossary?	-	100%
Are illustrations such as maps, tables used to supplement print matter?	44%	56%
Are learning activities indicated?	24%	76%
Are the activities indicated practical?	-	100%
Do they have well organised summaries and review?	-	100%
Are bibliographies given at the end of the textbook?	-	100%
Are they up to date?	-	100%
Is the writing clear?	100%	-
Is the binding strong?	68%	32%
Are the topics well sequenced?	32%	68%
Is the price fair?	60%	40%

2.6   Examination in Education in Selected Countries

Examinations in many countries are used as summative means of student assessment. In China the influence of Confucianism, with its great emphasis on examinations, has had an effect in modern Chinese education, which also holds examinations as important (Fouts and

Chan, 1995: 525, 526). Examinations demand a uniformity in the curriculum, as is evident in schools in China. This is achieved by the use of textbooks, student exercise and work books, and detailed teachers' guides (Fouts and Chan, 1995: 529).

In South Africa, black schools have in the past relied heavily on the use of examinations and the teaching method has been designed to accomplish this. As a result, project work in schools has not been undertaken because of lack of support of library material (Iain, 1993: 7). The alternative has been the examination of facts and broad outlines which have been the cluster of events on selected dates. Schools serving predominantly white pupils have had to focus on examinations as well. In the schools such as public (government the then Natal) schools in KwaZulu-Natal, for example, history has been presented as a body of facts to be learned and there has been a heavy emphasis on the use of textbooks (Chernis, 1990: Abstract).

Kenya has emphasized examinations because its syllabi have been designed with this as the chief evaluation and assessment mechanism. The examination for school leavers is organised by the Kenyan National Examinations Council. Teachers participate in examination pre- and post-evaluations and these provide additional impetus to teachers for their students to perform satisfactorily, because teachers get working knowledge of what to expect in examination papers. Teachers critique the examination rubric/marking scheme through which scripts are evaluated. Discussion on examinations is encouraged as a means of examination monitoring. This encourages teachers to gather ideas and eventually transfer their skills to their classrooms. In effect, one can argue that teachers are more inclined to prepare their students for examination than to learn the content of the history syllabi[2].

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[2] The researcher was an examiner with the Kenya National Examinations Council.

2.7   Assessment and Library Use

Academic assessment, which usually forms part of instruction in the USA, involves the use of

the library if the content in the library relates to the curriculum. A suggestion that a librarian

can provide the subject teacher with test items and request the teacher to include the items in a

classroom test has been made by Smith (1995: 52). It has been recommended that analyses of

student performance be undertaken jointly by teachers and librarians. This could contribute to

teachers' evaluation of teaching effectiveness and instructional activities. In turn, the librarian

can concentrate on the effectiveness of library materials in meeting the instructional needs of

teachers. This could provide a basis for the refinement of instruction and library use for

teaching and learning purposes. Through assessment, a review of the expected performance of

students, and handicaps experienced and why they were experienced, could be addressed.

Common characteristics of poor performers could be reviewed and addressed. An

examination of the effectiveness of materials could be undertaken. Assessment of the extent to

which instructional objectives have been met, the form of presentation, the level of clarity and

the identification of any distractions present which negatively contribute to learning could be

identified (Smith, 1995: 53).

Librarians need to offer suggestions to teachers for supplementary material useful for teaching

or variation in the teachers' methods in getting materials. In Australia tasks are identified and

defined, and materials identified for teachers' use. It is noteworthy that what is learned is

usually clearly defined and learners' progress is based upon demonstrated achievement. This

shows that there should be checklists of different tasks and information (Wall, 1995: 14).

In South Africa, a study by Wyley (1997: 20) in Durban concluded that there is a relationship

between library resources (amount and quality) and extent of use of resources. This is a key

fact in the establishment and /or assessment of effectiveness and impact of books. This suggests that instruction methods alone should not be the only basis of library evaluation in library-curriculum evaluation.

2.8   School Libraries and Teaching

The introduction of curriculum teaching which incorporates the use of the school library has often faced difficulty because of reliance on traditional teaching methods (Smith, 1995: 1). Smith argues that there is usually a need for persuasion to achieve co-operation from a school's staff and to convince the teachers to accept the merits of the programme. This is very likely, especially if the collections held in schools allow the carrying out of this role (Line, 1990: 104). It is noteworthy that some school libraries do not have adequate collections suitable for teaching purposes, as indications in Australia (Reddy, 1993: 26) and Namibia (Tötemeyer and Stander, 1990: 29) show. Tötemeyer and Stander (1990: 40) have recommended a collection ratio of 60% non-fiction and 40% fiction to address curriculum needs in Namibian schools. Vermeulen (1994: 152) and Stander (1993:80) have placed emphasis on qualitative measures as well, and not only quantitative measures, because the information contained in books is of most importance. Teachers need to be introduced to the importance of the use of variety in information resources, the merits of meeting individual needs, and the ability of a librarian and the library to address classroom needs. The use of the library by teachers and learners in the USA has been shown to direct learners away from textbook-focused instruction, whilst not abandoning textbooks altogether (Smith, 1995: 2).

A curriculum-based library programme begins with prescribed goals and objectives of the teaching programme, and resources and activities are tailored to fit the programme in order to meet learners' needs (Smith, 1995: 2). The engagement of both teacher and librarian in the

transfer of curriculum material and its content is handled in a way directed to students' needs. Observations indicate that the purpose of a programme incorporating the library is for the enhancement of classroom teaching in schools. As a result, classroom events are addressed as well as instructional objectives. The way this has been handled has not been just to include various resources into instruction but also to include resources as a learning tool (Smith, 1995: 3). The classroom determines what is to be of use, as opposed to resources determining what should be of use. In this way teachers accomplish their instructional objectives with librarians as partners. The library is subject to what goes on in the classroom and this requires dialogue between the librarian and the teacher. The expertise of the teacher is supplemented by the information expertise of the librarian and information resources of the library. In the USA, the concern for improved performance in schools has brought attention to better instruction (Smith, 1995: 4). This is especially the case because studies in American schools have indicated that learning "deficits", are not totally driven by student "deficits", but by both students' and teachers' "deficits" (Pugach and Johnson, 1995: 102).

There are indications that there may be difficulties in enlisting curriculum support of teachers and librarians because teachers resist change which brings additional demands on them, especially if the demands require extra time and affects class-free time (Smith, 1995: 7). Battams (1990: 79), in her study of teachers in schools in Sheffield, England. also raised this time factor. In addition, a curriculum-based programme is more demanding to plan and operate because a librarian should know the demands of the class, the instructional programme and ability to collaborate. As indicated, most American teachers have been slow at innovation as far as library teaching partnerships are concerned. Where practised, they operate either in the form of fixed schedules, where a class is invited to the library for some exercise, or flexible schedules, where students use the library at times convenient to them (Smith, 1995:

10). Teachers have been involved in this process of curriculum consultation also referred to as support and partnerships. A study by Tallman and Van Deusen (1994:29) explored the effects of a number of variables and how each related to curriculum consultation. They also looked at how each of the conditions related to the teaching of information skills in association with classroom curriculum units. The variables were teacher planning time; the full- or part-time status of the librarian; and the requirement that the librarian hold state certification as a librarian.

In the methodology of the study, elementary school librarians were picked from a random sample of 1 500 names of elementary school librarians. The number of librarians who indicated willingness to participate was 502 and, of these, 397 returned questionnaires, for a return rate of 79 %. Participants listed names in a chart of classroom instructional units in which they had participated either as curriculum consultants or as teachers. Five consultation tasks which acted as variables were investigated. They were: Gather material for a classroom unit (Gather); Collaborate with the teacher in the design of the objectives of a classroom unit (Identify); Collaborate with the teacher in the design of teaching/learning activities (Plan); Teach the unit collaboratively with the teacher (Teach); and Collaborate with the teacher in evaluating the unit (Evaluate).

In assessing activities related to the teaching role, the emphasis was on teaching information skills in the context of curriculum presented in the classroom. The assessment of students work was seen as crucial because the librarian was involved in the teaching activity (Tallman and Van Deusen, 1994: 29). The findings of the study were that when classes were assigned to the librarian, teachers were released from curriculum planning, which could indicate that classroom content was most likely absent from the librarian's instruction because of the low

input from subject teachers (Tallman and Van Deusen, 1994: 29), a critical consideration on time, as indicated by Smith and Battams cited above. The Tallman and Van Deusen study further noted that full-time librarians reported more gathering of materials for instruction, identifying objectives for classroom instruction, and planning instructional activities than did part-time librarians. It is likely that part-time librarians were not always available at the opportune time when teachers needed them (Tallman and Van Deusen, 1994: 29). On certification of librarians, in comparing the consultation activity of certificated and non-certificated respondents, Tallman and Van Deusen (1994: 31) found that the certificated library media specialists were significantly more active than the non-certificated in all five consultation tasks. The methodology of the study on certificated and non-certificated librarians did not, however, explore competence of librarians based on their experience, a factor which needed to have been addressed in the methodology of the study in order to tackle the issue of competence. Professional ability that is work related cannot be categorised in simple terms, such as certification as a prerequisite to superior service and *vice versa.*

There is a need for librarians to understand the nature of a school and its students. The research above did not give attention to the nature of the students, whereas a study by Bell and Totten (1992: 80) indicated that academically superior students encouraged an increase in use of the library by their teachers. As far as teacher planning and student evaluation was concerned, the study by Bell and Totten took no account of schools of closer academic competence. Teacher partnerships were subject to scrutiny by a school population of close cognitive ability. School environments also bring out methods of instruction preferred by students and library initiatives should reflect teaching methodology as well as the curriculum delivered to students so that a subject teacher is encouraged to converse with the librarian.

Dr. William Alexander, of Florida University's Department of Education, in the 1960's indicated that practices in teaching were subject-dominated and conformist. In addition, he argued that they limited peer interaction and therefore the need for flexibility was suggested (Smith, 1995: 14). Teachers need to accept the need for change in teaching and find comfort in different teaching strategies and materials which may be introduced. It has been indicated by Montgomery (1991: 185) that teaching methods vary, as reflected in the study conducted in Maryland, USA, in 1989, in which ninety-two female elementary media specialists in a large suburban school system participated. The methodology identified ten field-dependent librarians. These were librarians who had dependence on resources within their environments. They were matched with ten field-dependent teachers. Likewise, ten field-independent teachers teamed with field-independent librarians. A pair of field-dependent teachers and librarians worked together, as did pairs of field-independent teachers and librarians. Each pair was given a self-evaluation checklist for the classification of teacher uses of the library and media centre staff and services (Montgomery 1991:185). This measured perception of involvement in instruction, time spent providing instruction (number of units planned co-operatively), and the level of commitment to library media skills instruction. The study concluded that the cognitive style of the library media specialist makes a difference in the response to questions about working together with the teachers when teaching library media skills (Montgomery 1991:187).

As noted above, two teaching methods were applied, where one method required from the teacher an introvert-like approach based on the teachers' personalities and made use of internal skills, whereas in the other method the teachers relied on the use of support services available elsewhere, especially those in the school, including the library. Indeed, teachers' beliefs and practices govern the way they teach (Oberg, 1990: 55) and invariably methods can have both

positive and negative effects on libraries. Some teachers use the syllabus as a guide and complement it with examination question papers of past years (Nyirenda, 1985: 35), a strategy common in sub-Saharan Africa. Some methods are governed by class environment, which is a highly dynamic and interactive environment where unexpected cues could affect teachers' judgements and decisions based on teachers theories and beliefs (Fang, 1996: 56). Teachers have introduced flexible scheduling to accommodate classes in time blocks in order to allocate additional time for the library. Instruction fashioned in this manner has been shown to be easy on team teaching, because discussion can take place over a longer time rather than the traditional time slots of class time. In Chicago, USA, 40 to 50 minutes per session in teaching time has proved inadequate for exploring issues that are generated in class (Cruse, 1994: 1068). With added time, not only are subject matters discussed but also skills are better transferred from teachers and librarians to students (Smith, 1995: 20). Block scheduling has proved useful to teachers and librarians because it has enabled them to plan and evaluate on instruction due to the longer time allocated for teaching blocks.

Secondary schools in Nairobi that were historically advantaged and of service to white pupils have, to some extent, an awareness of the added value of libraries to instruction through resource-based teaching. However, the extent of such awareness is not very clear. Some private school libraries which are in schools run by religious bodies and foreign embassies *do* have the capability to achieve this role. Strathmore College and the International School of Kenya are two schools of this kind (Otike 1987(a):419). Gakobo (1973:17) suggests that teachers utilise the library through undertaking "bulk loans from the library for specific teaching purposes in the class". He further suggests that a duty of teachers should be to promote libraries to the learners, "not only as a natural resource for current work but also as a means of preparation for and follow up to topics". For these needs teachers are advised to use

libraries. In summary, very few schools in Nairobi have a history of library use for the purposes of resource-based learning. Nairobi school (formerly the Prince of Wales School), which started its library in 1935 and re-organised it in 1946, had 1 800 volumes in 1948, 4 500 in 1954 and 11 000 in 1972. The collection in 1972 had encyclopaedias, language dictionaries, atlases and yearbooks, an indication that a form of subject-centred, resource-based learning was in place. The number of volumes in Lenana (formerly the Duke of York School) was 3 000 in 1958, a high figure for the times. The replication of the English public school model to Lenana , Nairobi School and the Kenya High School makes it likely that resource-based learning in these schools was practised.

Despite the suggestion that education systems in most of sub-Sahara Africa do not promote resource-based learning (Tawete 1991:127), teachers could work towards libraries playing a pro-active role in resource-based learning. In Kenya, Kiigi (1983:14) has noted teachers' dissatisfaction in the syllabus because of its failure to satisfy teaching purposes in history. Quality of education in general needs scrutiny by means of assessments undertaken by teachers. In Australia, quality in instruction has been subject to the level of expertise for each teacher and quality is regarded as an evolving term, where quality in the past is not quality in the present or in the future (Wall 1995: 14). Measures towards quality in Australia, Britain, South Africa, New Zealand and the United States of America have shifted towards Competency Based Education and Training (CBET) . This form of education is also referred to as Outcomes Based Education or Performance Based Education (Mohamed 1996: 3). Competency Based Education in South Africa aims at the integration of knowledge and abilities with the aim of giving recognition to competency by awarding qualifications. Through this a progression pathway of qualifications to establish levels of competency could be established. In brief, competency aims to:

embrace the ability to apply skills, to perform a task, theoretical understanding

of a task, and the ability to transfer knowledge , skills and understanding to

another context. (Mohamed, 1996: 5)

In South Africa, Competency Based Education is designed to redress the inequalities brought

of the past, about by apartheid. It is designed to provide flexibility in the curriculum and the

assessment of learners. This can enable the full integration of accrediting or taking account of

skills acquired in learning "wherever and at whatever stage it occurs in a person's life". The

National Qualifications Framework in South Africa could facilitate this accrediting

(Mohammed 1996:14). Competence may be in the narrower form of key competency in a

curriculum or general competence which may involve a wider range of tasks. In all the

competencies the importance of resource-based learning is critical if the curricula is designed

on the basis of "nature of subject disciplines, the needs of the individual and skills for

reconstructing society" (Mohamed 1996:28). Hugo (1996:89) suggests that classroom libraries

could play a role in providing quality education for South African schools. She suggests that

the class library can provide an enabling environment in teacher preparation of lessons and in

this way demonstrate to the students the need for an alternative to textbook-centred learning.

By the selection and dissemination of information from a range of books, skills of appraisal of

material and critical thinking could be developed (Hugo 1996:89).

2.9   School Libraries and Teaching of History

Teaching history through CASE, an acronym for content, attitudes(foster empathy), skills

development, and evidence(fostering an awareness), could be an approach having relevance

for librarians and teachers. For content to provide answers to questions on When? Who? How?

Why? What? a variety of sources are needed. To acquire translation skills, imagination,

interpretation, extrapolation, application analysis, synthesis and evaluation, some

requirements for history, both in Kenya and abroad, a teacher must first cover and develop a

range of skills (Kemp1990:10). The task for both teachers and students could be facilitated by

the library. In the teaching of history, school libraries could be relevant in enabling the

presentation of the general milieu of historical periods under study. The exploration of social,

economic and political arenas, with their niche in the facts presented in the syllabus, could be

of relevance to the broader presentation of history. For instance, library books could offer

background reading to relevant areas presented in the syllabus. In California, USA, Kalb

offers this presentation by stating the following:

> Teachers of history and teachers of language arts must collaborate to select
>
> representative works, poetry, novels, plays, essays, documents, inaugural
>
> addresses, myths, legends, tall tales, biographies, and religious literature to help
>
> to shed light on the life and times of the people. Such literature helps to reveal
>
> the way people saw themselves, their ideas and values, their fears and dreams,
>
> and the way they interpreted their own times (Kalb, 1988: 29).

The librarian's duty is to provide expertise in the selection, evaluation and use of materials and

to help teachers develop instructional activities (Kalb 1988:29). Kalb introduces the Young Fu

book by Elizabeth Lewis on China's Upper Yangtze region in the early 1920's, and explores

the social changes experienced by Young Fu, who was a coppersmith in the era of the

Nationalist government. This book, which was a recipient of the Newbury Award in 1933, is

recommended for students undertaking studies on China (Kalb 1988:30). The book could be

relevant to history students in Kenya, since China under the Nationalist government is part of

the syllabus in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (see Appendix A).

Links between school libraries and history teachers could be improved if topics under study were topics which required use of library resources. In historical biographical studies, personalities could be the focus of study by the generation of questions which would require the use of general encyclopaedias, atlases and other books, as is practised in the USA (Daly 1992:146). Generation of questions by teachers and librarians for students to answer is an effective method. In this way, a web could be generated by the co-operative effort of students in class. Diagram 1 below illustrates the web.

Diagram 1

CLASS GENERATED WEB

PUBLIC LIFE

PRIVATE LIFE

Famous friends/ coworkers

Political leanings

Schooling/ education

Inspired by?

Occupation

Enemies

Religion, race

Held office?

Place/country

What contemporaries thought

STAR

Married? Children? Family?

Causes supported and how supported

Hobbies

Nickname

How world influenced person

Accomplishments

Disabilities

Death date: when; how

when, where, done,

Personality

recognized?

How became famous?

How changed the world?

Military background?

Source : Daly (1992: 148)

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2.10 Co-operation Between Teachers and Librarians

It has proved prudent for librarians to liaise with subject teachers in order to obtain lesson plans. Lesson plans provide insight into teaching methods and content arrangement and preferences (Smith, 1995: 34). The librarian could observe what is on display on class notice-boards. Test results, especially scores obtained, could act as guides in determining areas which need attention, as well as the activities which could provide remedial measures. Involvement of the subject teacher, to determine whether existing media collections could address the needs of instruction adequately, could prove important. Librarians may listen to tape recordings of the teacher's instruction to students and this could provide a basis for information gathering on the curriculum (Smith, 1995: 34).

Good co-operation between librarians and teachers depends on personality characteristics of the librarians and teachers. Haycock (1990: 24) stated in her Canadian studies that the creation of attitudes is based upon personality factors, a view given credence by Reddy (1993: 26) in Australia. Bell and Totten (1992: 80), in studies in the USA, suggest that a librarian's personality is attributable to teacher reliance on libraries. Griffith and Lamb (1987: 27) suggest that attitude formation has an effect on impressions created by teachers on the librarian's competency.

The librarian should therefore be cautious of the methods used to gain teachers' co-operation. In order to gain the high esteem of teachers, the librarian should be in a position to familiarise himself/herself with the collection as far as the availability of information in the collection is concerned. The librarian should also be aware as to how the materials correlate to the teaching programmes and determine if teachers use the material. An enabling environment for the use of material can be through the analysis of the collection and assessment of the strength and weakness of each item in light of the curriculum (Smith, 1995: 36). This is in the lines of

qualitative measure in collection strength as suggested by Doll (1997: 95) in the USA and

Wyley (1997: 20) in South Africa which involve book reviews and critique. The suggestion

that a correlation study be undertaken with instructional objectives to enlist the support of

subject teachers and students has been put forward by Smith (1995: 36). Experience has

shown that a well-planned collection review project has resulted not only in an interesting

exercise but has been more like a game with a learning experience for students (Smith, 1995:

36).

Help has been enlisted from teachers by handing them forms with instructions for identifying

instructional objectives covered in the items borrowed from the library. Through this process

of co-operative effort, the analysis of the collection has been achieved. When the practice of

correlating the collection and the school subjects has been met, the task left has been that of

keeping in line with new developments, either in new books added to the library or teaching

objectives which have been reviewed, added or rejected (Smith, 1995: 37). Failure to comply

in these measures have proved unwise in the USA as experience in a school district indicate.

The school district reorganised the teaching of American history but the new material for the

library fell short of meeting the needs of learners in the revised syllabus. This resulted in a

mismatch of resources and syllabus needs (Hartzell, 1997: 24).

Makopi (1998:64) suggests that instructors in South African colleges of education fail to

understand the role of libraries in lecture preparation. They fail to prepare students for teaching

either in the current state in South Africa or in the system under implementation, namely

Outcome Based Education (OBE), which relies much more on resource-based learning. In

South Africa there seems to be a lack of correlation on what is required for classroom teaching

and what is available in libraries (Makopi, 1998: 66). The integration of the library into the

curriculum faces the handicap of lack of support by teachers. The nature of project work in the

colleges in the Eastern Cape (Transkei and Ciskei), Northern Province (Venda), North-West Province (Bophutatswana), which is not compulsory, puts library use for curriculum needs at a disadvantage. Majaja (1994:25) holds the view that textbooks are the chief form of instruction in teachers training colleges in South Africa.

Keeping informed of new developments by librarians has been shown to involve keeping track of teacher lesson plans, in order to identify material used by teachers in the classroom. For teachers who decide not to use lesson plans the librarian has been subjected to a process of keeping current awareness of a teacher's progress from unit to unit throughout the year (Smith, 1995: 37). Current awareness by librarians could bring about measures such as locating materials in outside collections, bringing information to teachers, keeping teachers aware by selected information dissemination, and the development of material not available from commercial outlets (Smith, 1995: 37). The role of the librarian in curriculum initiatives could be promoted by the provision of supplementary resources since the librarian has the skills to locate resources needed by teachers.

Teachers, in general, lack skills in information gathering in comparison to librarians. A study undertaken by Bell and Totten (1992: 81) enquired into teacher information gathering tasks as they related to the school library and subject instruction. The findings of the study were that the students who were academically competent encouraged teachers to use the library with more intensity than less academically competent students. In the study a teacher's library skills did not attest to teacher ability to undertake superior library use. However, students queries prompted teachers to seek the co-operation of librarians. Bell and Totten (1992: 81) indicate that a librarian's personality could influence the state of co-operation between teachers and librarians. In the variables to the study by Bell and Totten, the characteristics of library media specialists, the characteristics of the school setting and the characteristics of the

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classroom teachers themselves were identified as critical to co-operation in subject instruction between librarians and teachers. In the study by Bell and Totten (1992: 80), the variable identified could also have included the variable of teachers who found the library of little or no relevance to classroom instruction in the light of the role of textbooks. This was also indicated by Burks (1997: 149).

The awareness among librarians of teacher perceptions has helped to sharpen abilities of librarians in regard to knowledge of subject content for school subjects. However, Smith (1995: 39) has argued that planning has been used for curriculum-based programmes often in an intermittent way rather than a continuous yearly basis. Planning is usually for special activities. Therefore librarians act as passive undertakers rather than pro-active planners with designed programmes aimed at meeting specific goals. Furthermore, librarians face the frustration of failing to have a programme which can show evidence of library effectiveness in subject instruction (Smith, 1995: 39). Suggestions on teacher library partnerships have been given. One suggestion is the creation of a model which makes use of a systematic process. In a systematic process one segment is essential to better meet the needs of other segments. As a result a segment has to be addressed fully in order to move to the next (Smith, 1995: 40). Smith also made some observations on the relationship between teachers and librarians. A summary of these observations is the awareness of needs of school libraries presented in literature, in reference and in curriculum related areas. Focus is on planning with intent to improve student performance by initiation of production services, where a library produces materials to meet special needs, through the production of instructional resources . The planning needs to take account of teaching units, textbooks, and the co-ordination of activities by librarians and teachers. Furthermore, Smith mentions the frustration of librarians and teachers by the numerous services available to service teachers, specifically services that lack specific focus. These are services by out-of-school providers. The important issue raised by

Smith on services show a need for setting priorities. The diagram below illustrates this (Smith, 1995: 42).

Diagram 2

Three programmes with different priorities
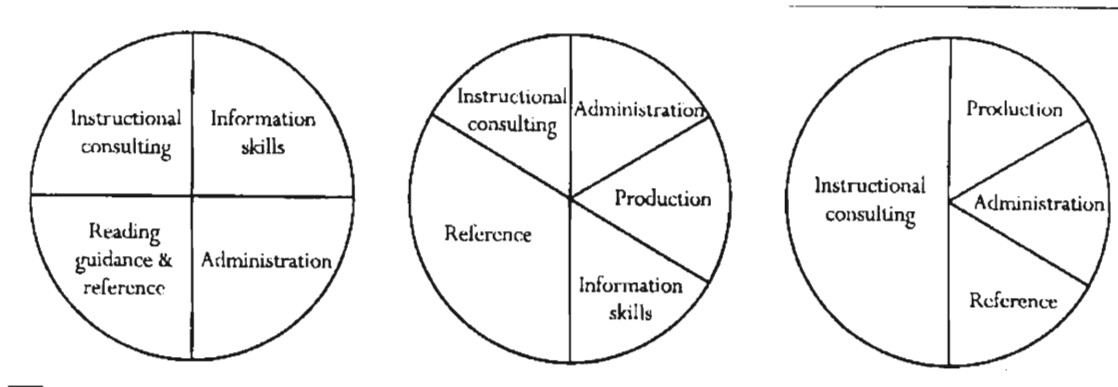
Source : Smith (1995:42).

The disadvantages of collaborative management are that in traditional hierarchies authority is clearly defined so that this innovation creates an imbalance. As a result the decision-making process could be slowed down. There could also be reluctance by employees to accept responsibility for their actions and there could arise frustration among employees due to their different levels in the hierarchy. There could be a build-up of stress because of the new way of operation and also because of the accountability expected by the library through the established authority structures (Salt 1994:26).

From this researcher's personal experience and observation even prior to the collection of data for this research Kenya school librarians face the task of discrimination insofar as academic ability is concerned. This is because the majority, if not all, do not have university degrees, like the teachers do. They have college certificates and polytechnic diplomas in library and

information sciences. For this reason, teachers have low regard for school librarians and show little interest in initiating co-operation on points of interest.

2.11   Publicity of School Libraries

Community involvement in library programmes by committees, inclusive of teachers, administrators, librarians, parents, public librarians and students has been advocated for schools in the USA. The committee participation in information sharing, to market the library for curriculum needs and participation material acquisition has been recommended (Smith, 1995: 43). Suggestions put forth to achieve these aims are the holding of meetings by the committee. These would be arranged in advance to set priorities to be reached.

Some scholars have argued that there has been difficulty in relating library use and student performance in education. Hartzell has stated that this is because USA school principals in the USA have found it difficult to measure the output of librarians and their support roles in the school (1997: 25). It has been easier to identify a successful teacher rather than a successful librarian because it has been difficult to notice the contributions of librarians. In South Africa, a measure of direct relationship between libraries and teacher student performance has been lacking. However, Radebe (1994:45) has indicated that teacher librarians lack the awareness that they are information workers and therefore fail to realise the common goals they hold in common with the education fraternity on furthering excellence in education. Moreover, school librarian culture in general has not been open to the promotion of libraries internationally, other than through the use of merit and competence (Hartzell, 1997: 26). An inviting library environment has been essential in order to market competence by the library and the physical facilities such as light, good ventilation and seating arrangements have reflected poorly on libraries. This has been the practice in Britain (Stott, 1996: 207) and in Botswana of use of libraries for activities not compatible with librarianship. Nametsegang

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(1997: 38), in her study of secondary school libraries in Botswana, has indicated that physical facilities which include book shelves discourage teachers in their promotion of libraries to their students. There has been a general lack of innovation in library promotion. This has resulted in school librarians shying away from requesting the help of well-wishers, a peculiar situation in England (Saez, 1996: 8). The use of libraries for other activities, such as storerooms (Tötemeyer and Stander, 1990: 21) in Namibia, and classrooms (Kakoma, 1991: 3) in Zambia, as well as counselling rooms and punishment or detention centres in England (Valentine and Nelson, 1988: 58), has led to poor perception and publicity for libraries.

As far as the publicity of libraries in Kenya is concerned, poor resources for libraries offers a poor impression to visitors. Gaita (1995:129) and Ng'ang'a (1995:120) indicate that many school libraries in Kenya lack adequate resources. This does not augur well for the curriculum needs of teachers as far as library co-operation is concerned. Aesthetics in some school libraries are in a sorry state because of bad organisation of libraries in seating arrangements, ventilation, light, and poor general management.

2.12   Training of Librarians and Teachers in Curriculum Co-operation

Planning of curriculum-based library activities in American schools has been undertaken by curriculum review through a grade-by-grade system or subject-by-subject approach (Smith, 1995: 46). A teacher awareness of the benefits of libraries is most likely obtained from training, just as the training of a librarian should facilitate the use of curriculum guides, textbooks, lesson plans and tests and include their revision and update as part of the courses undertaken in schools. Indications are that curriculum guides, textbooks, lesson plans and tests are regularly revised. For textbooks the revisions are less frequent as far as substantial changes are concerned for American schools. Library training on changes in lesson plans,which usually take place by the updating of content, incorporation of new information,

or the adoption of new strategy,are necessary because the smooth operation of instructional programmes which made use of the library operate better where the librarian is well-informed (Smith, 1995: 47). The librarian, to be well-informed, has to plan time on library activities with teachers, allocate time for scheduling activities with subject teachers to fulfil instructional strategies and has to:

- *Recommend media for specific purposes;*

- *Evaluate the effectiveness of various formats;*

- *Reinforce students' skill acquisition;*

- *Identify examples in literature related to classroom exercises or content;*

- *Provide professional information to assist teachers in improving teaching skills;*

- *Provide course-related information to help teachers keep up-to-date;*

- *Provide in-service programmes in equipment utilization;*

- *Relate textbook content to information in reference books and outside information sources;*

- *Recommend supplementary materials for use in classroom activities;*

- *Obtain online information about human resources;*

- *Alter or produce materials when needed;*

- *Offer staff development programmes to promote better utilization of materials;*

- *Inform teachers about copyright provisions and decisions;*

- *Suggest ways and resources that will guide students to materials that extend or enrich classroom learning;*

- *Infuse information skills into course work so that students have the skills they need to effectively acquire and use information;*

- *Provide instructional resources cited in textbooks;*

- *Maintain and circulate equipment for available materials;*

- *Correlate library books with classroom topics to encourage outside reading;*

- *Secure needed media not available in the school collection.*

<div align="right">(Smith, 1995: 49)</div>

In most of the states in the USA, school librarians, on receiving certificates, are expected to have competence in instruction design, as given above. This forms part of library-curriculum co-operation. The understanding also covers learning theory, needs assessment techniques, task analysis, learning taxonomies, instructional theories, various presentation modes and media attributes (Smith, 1995: 50). Included in this order are elements of good planning, which are:

- *What is the purpose of this instruction?*

- *What does the topic relate to what the students already know?*

- *What should be done to interest students in the content?*

- *How will the content be delivered?*

- *What will the students do?*

- *Is the activity appropriate to the age of the learner?*

- *Should the learners be grouped? If so, how?*

- *Are the materials appropriate to the age of the learners?*

- *Will all learners use the same materials?*

- *What materials will be used to vary instruction?*

- *How will students be evaluated?*

- *What level of performance will be accepted?*

- *How will students be remediated?*

<div align="right">(Smith, 1995: 51)</div>

The market situation in regard to the demands of library users could provide a means of establishing the courses to be offered to teachers. Pholosi (1994:22), in his study and his contribution to teacher training and library use in South Africa, has recommended this approach in the establishment of needs. He has suggested the inclusion of computer courses in the syllabi of librarians in teacher training colleges. This could be a choice if it could be established that teachers were drawn to libraries based on it.

Kruger (1987: 110), on observations of school librarian training in South Africa, states that teachable academic subjects relevant to schools should form part of librarian training in order to encourage the interest of teachers in school libraries. In his opinion, such a measure would promote the status of librarians in schools. This is because librarians would be brought closer to the curriculum. Both teacher and librarian training in Africa largely ignores curricula co-operation (Kakoma, 1991: 8).

Should teachers receive relevant training, it would make it easier for librarians in library work by, for instance, putting forward requests for information which is specific and relevant to a context. Given this form of request, encounters between teachers and librarians could prove relevant in the production of information requested. Some encounters in schools in the USA lack "specificity on the part of teachers and they result in unproductive encounters" (Dubber, 1989: 114).

IFLA recommends the following competency by school librarians (Hanesdottir, 1995: 29):

a)   *The ability to analyse information seeking behaviour and interests of students and teachers and relate those needs and interests to appropriate information sources.*

b)   *The ability to coordinate the integration of a continuum of information handling skills within the school curriculum.*

c)	*The ability to assist students and teachers in the use of a variety of learning resources both material and equipment, e.g. through systematic instruction in information skills.*

d)	*The ability to plan and design in cooperation with teachers and students, information based activities and assignments that are supportive of the school education programme, including information technology and the sources that are available through electronic channels.*

Teacher training in Kenya could include a focus on teacher advisory centres which also serve as learning resource centres and provide classroom support to teachers. Odini (1998:103) indicates that the centres aim at enabling teachers to provide pupils with the skills for independent learning. He has further observed, however, that teacher advisory centres lack essential support in the manner of adequate resource materials for teachers, good premises, and good training for tutors (1998:104). This places them in a precarious position to cater for curriculum support for the teachers who rely on them. The curriculum-centred approach is not even met by school library training institutions which persist in the traditional courses such as cataloguing and classification, as Ocholla indicates (1996: 115). Ocholla is of the opinion that a course designed to instruct in information resources for teaching and learning is required in Kenya. Recommendations have been made in Australia in favour of curriculum training centres. There are curriculum development centres in colleges in Australia (Simeone, 1995:14). These provide resources and materials to aid in the curriculum. The centres need to be supported through the development of programmes aimed at lending support to assist teachers in curriculum development and training in information access through the use of databases. The library collection should be of a high quality, so the teachers can learn skills of qualitative library material selection. Teacher training could incorporate a practical hands-on approach in this area.

2.13 Use and Non-use of Libraries

Libraries are held by some users as centres where light reading, especially fiction, takes place. This opinion is held by scholars in England (Streatfield and Markless, 1995: 545). This is not, however, universally accepted as the norm as far as school libraries in England are concerned (Waite, 1989: 140). The neglect of wider reading and concentration on fiction has had an influence on library use and this has had an adverse effect on the non-fiction collection. In England there has been use of traditional teaching methods which have held resource-based learning in disfavour (Streatfield and Markless, 1995: 545). These methods have contributed towards a culture of non-use of libraries to fully meet curriculum needs.

Library use and non-use in some cases has been attributed to a person's reading history, because it has been argued that there is a likelihood that people from homes where reading is encouraged are prone to have reading interests that differ from those of people from less privileged backgrounds (Machet and Ölen, 1997: 81). Fairer-Wessels (1990: 361) holds the same opinion of Machet and Ölen in their discussion of South Africa.

There is a strong possibility, which is supported by Tötemeyer (1994: 413), that poor reading habits lead to poor language skills and the neglect of libraries. This could indicate the diminished importance of visits to libraries for reference on curriculum concerns. Le Roux, (1992: 500), writing on South Africa in general, points out that non-use of libraries brings about a diminished capacity for information awareness. Information awareness is critical for teacher confidence, both in the general classroom situation and specific to subjects offered in schools. A librarian needs information awareness to meet the challenges that he/she usually faces. The non-use of libraries does promote ignorance of a library's collection. In a study undertaken at the Tanzania Institute of Education, Teputepu (1995: 29) found that 70% of the teachers at the Institute were aware of new books in the library by chance. The implication of

this could be that some of the teachers were possibly ignorant of the full potential of library, or its importance in curriculum co-operation. This could also be possible for teachers elsewhere in the world.

A reason attributed to non-library use and relevant to the non-reading culture is the low income experienced by teachers in some countries. This not only effects the collection size in libraries but also provides a low image of books and libraries in general (Alemie, 1997: 14). In these countries, teachers often moonlight to get additional income (Munene, 1995: 114) and may operate small-scale businesses. The teachers' use of official duty hours to run private businesses at the expense of lesson preparation and library reference will be detrimental insofar as time for class preparations and teaching is at a premium, and cannot be used for other purposes. Finally, the reading and non-reading culture faces competition from television in Nigeria (Goke-Pariola, 1993: 135) and in South Africa (Ölen and Kruger, 1995: 150). This offers teachers less time for perusal of library material in their off-class hours which could prove needful in the evaluation of student work and the checking of sources in order to provide authenticity of facts.

Events in Kenya from 1973 indicate positive developments in the reading culture (Gakobo, 1973: 14). The culture of reading in secondary schools in Nairobi has changed because reading is no longer regarded as an end in itself. There is concentration on class text at the expense of a variety of reading sources. Trends are in favour of introducing ambitious reading habits that explore a wide range of books. Gakobo (1973:14) discusses the early developments with students as the beneficiaries of this trend but teachers may have been drawn to it as well.

2.14   Role of School Principals in Libraries

The importance of school libraries is not valued by all in the same way and in some cases school principals underrate libraries. Radebe (1997: 220) has argued that in South Africa, generally, school principals are not well-informed of the role libraries can play in schools. However, she also points out that there are some pro-active principals who, in association with some inspectors of schools in their personal capacities, improve school libraries. The lack of consistency in government policy invalidates efforts at the development of school libraries (Radebe, 1997: 218). This lack of policy has not been vocalised by school principals. Similarly, in a study on the attitudes of school principals in secondary schools in Botswana, Nametsegang (1997: 49, 50) found that two-thirds of the principals studied had negative attitudes towards school libraries. In spite of this, however, they were of the opinion that there was a relationship between school libraries and student performance but, at the same time, confirmed that libraries were used for functions far removed from librarianship.

In the same study, Nametsengang found that school principals did not allocate much money to library budgets, a situation not peculiar to schools in Botswana. In South African schools, and especially Indian schools, the use of library books and the benefits derived in education face the challenge of attracting large investment in human and physical resources because it is not seen as beneficial to allocate amounts of money to libraries (Kistan, 1992: 207). It is in situations like this that the role of principals are crucial and community appeal and library marketing become critical. In Botswana, some school principals have neglected libraries to the extent of failing to provide security for the collections. In addition, principals are secretive in revealing budget allocations for libraries and their communication with librarians is through teachers rather than directly. Indeed, many lack knowledge of what libraries hold (Nametsegang: 1997: 51, 52, 53). This lack of support cannot promote curriculum-library co-operation and could result in libraries playing the role of "expensive adornments" (Streatfield

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and Markless, 1995: 544). This view has contributed to the devaluation of libraries and made them less important in their role in the school. Moreover, Hartzell (1997: 25) indicates that if libraries are regarded as "expendable" it is very likely that they will undergo budgetary cuts. A library with a static or diminishing collection may not play its appropriate role in curriculum co-operation. Much depends on the importance school principals place on libraries. School libraries are usually operated by one person who needs support because of his/her lack of strength in numbers in the competition for needs of the school (Hartzell, 1997: 26). An ignorant principal may destroy the librarian's fragile position and retard the co-operation necessary between teachers and librarians in information sharing.

Kenya has much in common with what is found in other parts of Africa. Principals are instruments of library policy, in schools due to lack of government policy as indicated by scholars like Kinyanjui (1997: 118), Gaita (1995: 128), Mwathi (1982:82) and Nganga (1996: 120). Pro-active principals are leaders in the enhancement of superior libraries. They enlist the co-operation of teachers, parents, friends, publishers and book-sellers (Otike, 1987(a): 419). Principals also participate in library acquisition (Otike,1987(b):183). Otherwise, the lack of enthusiastic school heads has led to the stifling of libraries, a situation the present researcher has been subjected during teaching experience in Kenya. Otike discusses school libraries and the role of principals. He observes that libraries under different school principlals differ in size and fail to conform to a uniform manner in all areas.

2.15   Library Acquisitions

For acquisitions of library materials to be relevant for school libraries, selection of material should be the immediate task. The needs of the curriculum should be addressed and also teacher information requirements for professional advancement. The library should cater for

recreational concerns of both students and teachers. In its selection the recommended age of materials for users should be taken into account (Da Silva and Turriff, 1993: 86).

The identification of the areas of most need in libraries should be undertaken to address identified gaps in the collection. Presentation in manner of writing, illustrations and type size, font and binding should be taken into consideration.

Selection can also be in the form of classroom libraries which can be geared to curriculum use by both teachers and students. In secondary schools in South Africa, Read Educate and Develop (READ) equips schools. It is a non-profit organisation which undertakes a service to selected areas in South Africa (Radebe, 1998: 44, 46)

In Kenya acquisitions are by purchases and donations. There are many books which are imported from overseas publishers and prices are an important consideration because the exchange rates are high for conversions from local currency to US dollars and other currencies in use in international trade in Europe and North America.

Donations in Kenyan school libraries are often from publishers, booksellers, public libraries, individual persons and international donors (Otike, 1987(b): 184). Much of this material is of little relevance to users and some dononations are based on goodwill and a measure of self-interest derived from publicity for the donors.

2.16 Summary

Historical studies in the world and the philosophies which impinge on their transmission to capture audiences, mainly in classrooms, are introduced briefly in the chapter. Their transmission is often subject to a method or methods either in a country of a set of countries.

In exploring these phenomena variables in literature which include textbook use, evaluation methods, joint use of library resources for teaching and reference by both students and teachers, and the state of co-operation are discussed. Also covered are publicity and training, especially for librarians and teachers as far as curricular implementation are concerned. The chapter closes by giving due attention to use and non-use of school libraries, school principals' roles in the running of libraries and acquisition practices of librarians.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology and procedures used in the present study. The survey method was found suitable for the purposes of the study to collect the data necessary for answering the research questions and dealing with the research objectives. This is because the survey method provides an opportunity for a researcher to collect a large quantity of data over a wide area in a short period of time. It is not too expensive and time-consuming, if well planned. The data collection techniques used in this survey method was the self-administered questionnaire, which could be easily distributed and all targeted respondents could complete quite easily. In addition to the self-administered questionnaire, relevant information was collected from documentary evidence and during visits to some of the public schools in Nairobi.

While in Kenya, in general, and Nairobi public schools, in particular, there are school libraries, it is not clear from existing literature as to the level of awareness amongst history teachers on the role of libraries as information resources for meeting their curriculum needs and enhance their teaching. While libraries exist in many of the public schools in Nairobi and they have the potential to have a positive influence on providing multiple resources for the teaching of history, they would be of little use if they are not effectively used by teachers. There is little evidence from past studies that a critical evaluation or analysis has been done on the use and non-use of libraries by history teachers to meet curriculum needs. The general aim

of this study, therefore, was to examine the extent to which school libraries meet curriculum needs of teachers in public schools in Nairobi, Kenya.

3.2   Research Design

The present study made use of the survey research method to meet the issues raised in the research questions. The suitability of the survey is its strength in "the collection of information on a wide range of cases, each being investigated only on the particular aspect under consideration" (Bless and Higson-Smith 1995: 43). The range of cases in the study of schools in Nairobi were forty-four and the specific aspects were the particulars raised in the research questions. The research was descriptive in nature and exploratory in purpose. The nature of this survey took cognisance of the fact that:

> The survey, on the other hand, does not emphasize the diverse aspects of a
> single case but rather the frequency or number of answers to the same question
> by different people. The different cases here lose their individuality, become
> anonymous. Each case or questionnaire answered by a respondent is split up
> and re-ordered according to different questions. The emphasis shifts from
> answers to all questions given by one individual (case study) to the answers to
> only one or a few questions given by all respondents (survey) (Bless and
> Higson-Smith 1995: 44).

This exploratory study attempted to establish possible relationships and opinions within the limitations provided for under this method of research. The literature searched provided indicators of the different variables related to the problem under study.

3.3 Population

To obtain a population profile, a register of teachers and librarians was searched. The population in the study consisted of teachers and librarians in the schools with libraries. The number of public schools identified in Nairobi was forty-four. Of these, thirty-three schools had libraries and school librarians. In the thirty-three schools and school libraries there were one hundred and one history teachers. Sampling, taking into account to this population, narrowed the population of librarians to sixteen and history teachers to forty-four.

3.4 Sampling

A sample of the schools in the study was obtained after consultation with the Office of the Director of Education in Nairobi. The officer in-charge of secondary schools availed a list of all the public secondary schools in Nairobi Province. Forty-four schools in all the constituencies that form Nairobi are included in the appendix (see Appendix E).

On-the-spot visits were done in order to establish schools with libraries. Of the forty-four schools, thirty-three met the criteria. The sampling procedure applied at this stage was the stratified sampling method. This was used because the schools were in locations of contrasting social and economic amenities. These were related to the past histories of the schools as far back as the colonial period. Resources in the schools were unequal (Otike 1987:418). The nature of the population profile in the schools was taken into account. The demand for secondary school education led to grouping of schools in categories of national and provincial. The former were the preserve of academically stronger pupils in terms of examination performance in primary school matriculation. The inclusion of this reality was due to the propensity of academically superior pupils having challenging information demands and subjecting teachers to high information demands (Bell and Totten 1992:80). Each administrative division representing a distinct local area, with related social and economic

conditions, was catered for in the sample. A half of schools in each locality which made up a constituency were gathered. They were chosen randomly. Care was made to accommodate the national schools. Three national schools were part of the total 16 sixteen schools (see Appendix E).

Out of the 33 schools, 16 were chosen and thought sufficient and representative for the purpose of research. In the 16 schools whole history teacher populations were used and for librarians whole librarian populations. The total number of respondents targeted from the 16 schools were 48 teachers and 16 librarians. It is important to note that some schools had more than one history teacher. This was not viewed as detrimental to the study because the study aimed at a general assessment of school libraries and curriculums rather than specific schools.

3.5   Research Instrument

Questionnaires designed for history teachers and school librarians were self-administered questionnaires. They were selected because the time frame between the delivery and the collection was sufficient both in reference to other studies and also based on the opinions of teachers and librarians. Questionnaires provided convenience both for ease of use by teachers and librarians who had achieved a good level of competence in language skills by virtue of their training. The use of the interview was considered as a potential data collection method., but it was discarded because it was going to be cumbersome and require time to schedule interviews. It was also felt that interviews would have compromised the privacy of respondents. Furthermore, the time that would have been taken to interview teachers and librarians in schools would have prolonged the whole research process and inflated research expenses.

The choice of teachers, rather than students, as participants was in order to receive a stronger input, because teachers were involved in teaching the syllabus year after year and it was assumed that they were informed on the strengths and weaknesses of the syllabus, both in its parts and as a whole. Teachers as experts participated in all the areas of history from choice of books, lesson preparation, internal evaluation of students work, external evaluation in the Kenya examination board and critique of the examinations involving the Kenya National Examinations Council.

The questionnaire attempted to address the research questions through open and closed questions. The use of closed questions to collect data from questionnaires was ideal for questions open to diffusion of categories and also for questions on limited categories such as qualifications obtained by respondents. Open-ended questions were administered for the purpose of establishing points of interest which could have been improperly delineated in categories if closed questions were used.

3.6   Items in the Questionnaires

Questionnaires A (Teachers) and B (Librarians) (see Appendix C) relied on a diversity of questions aimed at reaching the research questions. The items had biographical questions aimed at establishing the status of respondents. The questions of this nature in questionnaire A were item 20 on the schools where teachers worked, item 22 on education qualifications of the teachers, and item 23 on the colleges and universities attended. In questionnaire B, question 11 on the status of librarians in the school as far as attachments to curriculum related duties in schools was a question of such a nature. Other biographical and status questions were question 16 on education qualifications of librarians; question 17 on years of service in school librarianship; question 18 on schools were they were employed; question 19 based on in-

service training; question 20 on teaching time of teacher librarians; and question 21 on duties and tasks employed by librarians other than librarianship.

There were four research questions and each had questions in the questionnaire suitable for dealing with each one. The following reflect this:

3.6.1 What is the extent of awareness among history teachers of the role resources and library use play in enhancing history teaching?

Questionnaire A had the following questions linked to the above question : questions 1 and 2 on the forms (classes) taught by teachers and time per periods per week. This was designed to explore the teacher-student contact with its in-built ability for the generation of ideas suitable for either resource use or an awareness.

Question 7 was directed at teachers' library visits specific to the history curriculum. Questions 8, 9 and 10 likewise addressed teachers and the history curriculum directly and, like question 7, raised the role resources have in teaching through history questions removed from the history syllabus. Question 11 went a step further and requested in-put from respondents on search skills employed to arrive at answers to questions 8, 9 and 10. Question 13 was on user borrowing behaviour of library material. Question 17 asked about the status of the teachers as far as board examination participation was concerned. Question 18 was also on examinations training of examiners. The questions were designed to probe into the resourcefulness of teachers in the role of resources in the teaching of history. Literature indicated that teachers involved in examination moderation acquired subject knowledge from examining. Likewise, question 19, on experience of the subject panelist, that is teachers who engaged in syllabus review and textbook choice for schools, formed a forum

conducive to information awareness. The ability of libraries to meet information needs in the teaching of history was addressed by question 26.

Questionnaire B enquired from librarians on teacher behaviour, particularly on library visits. This was intended to clarify teachers' statements on library visits and establish the possibility of library awareness among them. The nature of library materials for the purposes of teaching history was explored in question 5 as a means of placing the library in history resources.

3.6.2 Are history teachers aware of the positive role in the use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks ?

This research question was addressed in question 5 of questionnaire A on teacher participation in book selection and question 6 on purchase of selected books. Attempts to explore diversity of selection and the accommodation of non-textbook material was the aim. Further reading behaviour of teachers and library use were indicators of sophistication in use rather than a narrow reliance on textbooks. As for students, the ability of library books to address the needs of class projects and the confidence of teachers to offer projects formed the focus of enquiry to question 15. Furthermore, the question was concerned with the satisfaction of teachers with the quality work received from students' projects. This question was devised to serve as a window to the observation of the satisfaction (or lack of) in the sources used, especially the textbook. On textbooks, question 16 was directed at adequacies and inadequacies of books in use. Granted the nature of teaching and the role of memory, question 21 required the identification of topics relevant to the syllabus and part of teachers' prior learning in colleges and universities. This could influence teacher perception on information awareness. In question 25, teacher participation in library instruction was

explored with the aim of determining the openness of teachers to information resources. Finally, question 28 was on a bibliography of textbooks used by history teachers in history. Recommendations on improvement in history instruction was addressed by question 29. This question was an open question and suggestions were on all matters raised in the questionnaire, including teachers' awareness of the positive role of resources and textbooks.

3.6.3 How much use do teachers of history make of libraries for history curriculum needs?

This research question was directed at questions 3 and 4 in questionnaire A. The enquiry was on libraries which teachers of history and government accessed. In addition, preference of libraries by teachers was part of the enquiry. Question 12 was directed at the number of times, or the frequency, of library visits by teachers to school libraries.

3.6.4 To what extent do library staff assist history teachers in meeting curriculum needs?

Questionnaire B was designed to gather information in this area. Questions 1, 2 and 3 were on the collections in school libraries. The questions took into account the ready availability of history material, both on the open shelves and in the reference area. Teacher participation in library activities relevant to the research question was tackled by question 6, which took account of assistance rendered by history teachers in the weeding of books. This, together with question 7, on discarded books and their utility in a re-ordered syllabus, was to establish if co-operation was present between librarians and teachers. In question 8 librarians were specifically asked to give their reasons why they required the participation of history teachers in the process of book weeding.

Question 9 was on operating time for the libraries. This was deemed critical as far as library access to teachers was concerned. Reasons from libraries on the willing nature, or lack of it, by teachers in utilization of libraries was the purpose of question 10. Questions 12 and 13 were on library finance and the ability of a library to operate independently of other school expenses. This could indirectly illuminate the attention paid to libraries. It was particularly important to reach an answer to question 14 on how teachers were subject to consultation by librarians in the purchase of library material. In regard to borrowing from outside providers out of schools, question 15 established the significance of this kind of assistance. This was deemed important in both the efforts librarians could have in initiating out of school borrowing and the teachers in making use of it, where available. The final question (22) in questionnaire B was to cover areas of further co-operation by librarians and history teachers in order to meet curriculum needs. In this case it was narrowed down to examination demands.

The questionnaires were distributed to teachers and librarians in Nairobi public schools. The schools are governed by a single education authority and are subject to a single examination body, the Kenya National Examinations Council. This body offers a uniform examination in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Examination. For research purposes, schools under a single history curriculum, a single examination, and a single employer offer uniformity needed in addressing the teacher's information needs in fulfilling the requirements of the curriculum. In addition, the job description of teachers has been standardized by the Kenyan Ministry of Education to meet a single curriculum.

Librarians in secondary schools are also under the auspices of a single authority as far as terms of school fee structures and powers awarded to school board of governors who

stipulate the terms and services of librarians are concerned. The fees provided for budget allocations for libraries and categories in place for public schools were either national (serving a population derived from across the nation) or provincial (for students from Nairobi Province).

3.7 Planning Stage to the Field Study

The major data collection exercise for the study was initially scheduled for July 1996. Nairobi was chosen as the suitable location, and for the purpose of a pilot study, Mombasa was selected. This is because Mombasa has several characteristics in common with Nairobi, namely factors and lifestyles unique to urban areas of Kenya. The two cities hold close semblance in economic conditions, schools history , the teaching population and the urban culture of Kenyan cities.

Authority to undertake research was subject to the approval of the Ministry of Applied Science and Technology. A written request (see Appendix D) for a permit to conduct research, as is required by the Kenyan government, was submitted and permission given on 15th July 1996, with the stipulated end date of 30th August 1996.

The initial pilot study was not conducted as planned, due to failure to obtain research authorization from the office of the Director of Education for Coast Province. Further requests were directed to the Director of Education and the Education Attache at the Kenya High Commission based in South Africa (see Appendix D). Authority to conduct research was finally granted on 5th October 1996 (See Appendix D). The school calendar in Kenya for 1996 closed in November and thus it was too late for the researcher to travel to Kenya and expect to find the teachers and librarians who were to be targeted for the study. Although the new academic year began in January 1997, the researcher felt that it would be impossible to get the

assistance of the teachers and librarians if data collection were to begin at that time as both teachers and librarians would be busy preparing for the new school year. Therefore, the date for the study was reset for 1 March 1997 in order to take account of the Form 1 class (first year secondary school class), which usually reported to school by that date. The effort to accommodate teachers of the Form 1 class was in order to have a "real" school atmosphere, complete with all the demands of a school, and representative of the operating environment all the year round.

On the advice of school principals, the authority of the Director of Education for Nairobi was sought and authority was granted. The Director's letter (See Appendix D) was used by the researcher as an introduction to the school principals in Nairobi at the time of delivering the questionnaires.

3.8   Pilot Study

The pilot study was done in the first week of March 1997. Although initially the researcher had intended to use Mombasa schools, this became difficult due to pressure of time and therefore a random choice of the Nairobi constituencies of the 33 schools with libraries was done. Three schools from each of the constituencies were selected for the purpose of the pilot study. The schools are Jamuhuri High School in Starehe Constituency, Saint Theresa's Boys School in Kamukunji and Dagoretti High School in Dagoretti Constituency.

The schools provided a teacher population of 10 and three librarians for the pilot study. These schools, with their history teachers and librarians, were not included in the actual study in order to avoid possible bias. The questionnaires used in the pilot study received a response of 90% (9) of the teachers and 100% (3) of the librarians. The pilot study produced insights into

areas of the data collection instrument and technique which required remedial measures. The necessary changes were made to the questionnaires

3.9   **Data Collection Process**

Distribution of questionnaires for teachers and librarians was undertaken by the researcher and, in total, 44 teachers and 16 librarians participated. It should be noted that although 48 teachers from 16 schools were targeted, only 44 teachers were found in place at the time of distributing the questionnaires. However, all 16 schools had at least one teacher complete the questionnaire.

Through appointment with the schools, both by telephone and personally, school principals undertook to present history teachers to the researcher at the agreed times. The protocol in schools made this task possible through the heads of the humanities departments. On occasion, subject heads of history handled the task. For convenience the questionnaires were put into envelopes for safekeeping by the department and the subject head and this acted as a further reassurance of confidentiality on the part of the researcher after discussion with them. Likewise, librarians were requested to put the questionnaires in envelopes and seal them ready for the researcher's collection. Precautions were taken by writing down all the names of the teachers and librarians and re-checking the telephone numbers of the schools. A two-week period was set and additional time was added after the expiry of two weeks for collection of questionnaires. For some of the teachers telephonic reminders had to be made well past 17th March 1997, the first date agreed upon for the collection and return of questionnaires. The final collection date was 26th March 1997. On this date the count was 80% (40) of the questionnaires from teachers and 100% (16) from librarians.

3.10 Data Analysis

All closed questions were arranged, the choices counted per question and eventually totalled. For questions which had several qualitative answers , content analysis was done in order to determine areas of similarity and variety. Based on the areas, identified categories were made to accommodate the answers and later counted and totals provided. Presentation of results was done using either pie charts or bar graphs, introduced by means of computer applications of Microsoft Quattro Pro and Microsoft Corel WordPerfect. The general data analysis and representation was in form of descriptive statistics.

3.11 Summary

The methodology of the research was given in the chapter beginning with the justification for the choice of the research method and taking into account the variety of research methods in library and information science. The data collection instrument adopted for the purpose was the questionnaire, which was also subjected to scrutiny because other instruments of data collection are available for application. The instrument was put to test through a pilot study in order to discover possible shortcomings and improvements.

Discussion of the location of the study and how the planning arrangements were done, such as authorization for research, were briefly explained. Sampling procedures and the choice of stratified sampling in place of any other sampling choice were explained. Data collection protocol was explained as part of a final brief on the analysis of the data received.

Chapter 4

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1   Introduction

This chapter presents data obtained from selected public secondary schools in Nairobi. Analysis of data was undertaken and interpreted with cognisance of the literature presented in Chapter 2. The first section of the chapter presents demographic data of the librarians and teachers. Questions about the demographic representation of the population were necessary in order to establish the working environment and status of school librarians and teachers. This was considered essential in order to establish the conditions and areas of similarity and variance among schools. Research questions addressed in the chapter are accompanied by data gathered from respondents, as well as discussion based on the literature provided in Chapter 2. Where necessary, links have been established in order to analyse the validity of the phenomena identified.

Kenya's public schools, in general, and those in Nairobi, specifically, have school libraries. However, it is not very clear from existing and past literature as to the level of awareness amongst history teachers of the role of libraries as information resources. The level of awareness among teachers of the role that libraries can play in the development and implementation of the school curriculum has not been established clearly. While libraries exist in many of the public schools in Nairobi and they have the potential to make a positive influence in providing multiple resources for the teaching of history, they would be of little use if teachers did not use them effectively. There is little evidence in past studies that a critical evaluation or analysis has been done on the use and non-use of libraries by history teachers to meet curriculum needs.

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The specific objectives of this study were to :

a)   assess teacher awareness of the role of libraries and information resources in history teaching;

b)   assess teachers' use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks;

c)   determine the use and non-use of libraries by history teachers for history curriculum needs;

d)   examine the extent to which libraries assist history teachers to meet curriculum needs;

e)   suggest means to enhance the use of libraries by history teachers.

To achieve these objectives the following research questions were posed:

a)   What is the extent of awareness among history teachers of the role information resources and library use play in enhancing history teaching?

b)   Are history teachers aware of the positive role of the use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks?

c)   How much use do teachers of history make of libraries to meet the history curriculum needs?

d)   To what extent do library staff assist history teachers in meeting curriculum needs?

4.2   Demographic Data

The study involved sixteen schools out of the forty-four public secondary schools in Nairobi. The schools included in the study had a population of forty-eight teachers, of whom forty participated in the study by answering the questionnaire and returning it. The sixteen librarians from the sixteen schools all answered the questionnaire. Four of the librarians were teacher librarians. In other words, they worked as teachers (in terms of class teaching and curriculum development) and carried

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out library duties. The remaining twelve were full-time librarians. In reporting on this group of respondents this chapter looks at them simply as librarians.

Librarians were asked about their participation in school curriculum activities in order to assess how far library work is incorporated into the teaching and learning. One of the study objectives was to investigate co-operation in the curriculum by teachers and librarians. The need to determine any formal co-operation, such as participation in curriculum committees, was seen as important to the study. This is because, as Smith (1995:51) argues, librarians should be involved in curriculum development so that the materials collected in the library are relevant to the curriculum and the curriculum reflects the role libraries play in teaching and learning. Thirteen or 82% of the sixteen librarians indicated that they do not participate in curriculum activities, while only three (18%) participated. It is clear, therefore, that at this level librarians are likely not to make much impact on the curriculum of their schools. However, in order to assess the situation further, questions about the relevance of library materials to teaching history were asked of both librarians and teachers themselves. Data concerning these issues are presented in the latter part of this chapter.

Another demographic question which was asked of librarians was what their qualifications were. It has been argued that the level of qualification of librarians and their knowledge of the curriculum affect the nature and role that the library service plays in a school. To this end, the USA, for example, library and curriculum co-operation form part of the training of school librarians (Smith, 1995:50). In Nairobi public schools, it was found that five (32%) librarians had polytechnic certificates and two (12%) had diploma certificates in librarianship. The remainder nine, or 56%, had no library training at all. This does not auger well for the linkage between librarians'

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participation in curriculum work and library services. Most often, teachers are unlikely to co-operate or "trust" and incorporate persons with no formal qualification into curriculum development work, because they (teachers) feel that such persons have little understanding of their own work, let alone that of curriculum development.

A librarian's training, qualifications and experience, are all-important, in that they are likely to make him/her confident in his/her work and thus pro-active in school activities, including curriculum work. Librarians were therefore asked about their experience. Four, or 24%, indicated that they had two or fewer years' experience, while three (18%) indicated that they had three to six years, and six (36%) had eight to seventeen years experience. The other two did not answer this question. Over a third of the librarians had work experience of eight years and more, which could place them in a good position in matters of knowledge of the role of library services in schools and thus capable of influencing the curriculum. However, it is surprising that, in spite of this experience, only three librarians formally participate in curriculum activities. In Australia for example, Wall (1995:14) noted that librarians have been able to offer suggestions concerning materials to teachers, to supplement their teaching and also to bring variation to the way teachers access materials. This, in effect, reflects a librarian's awareness of the role of library services in teaching and learning.

Where librarians lack formal training, it has been argued that in-service training (INSET) could further develop their knowledge and skills. Therefore, an assessment of the existence of any form of INSET and benefits among librarians in Nairobi was done. In Nairobi only four (25%) of librarians were beneficiaries of INSET.

The status of librarians and library services in a school are important in that they affect the influence that such services make on teachers and students. Literature has indicated that school principals, for example, in many cases do not effectively support libraries. Botswana, (Nametsegang, 1997) and, to a less extent the USA, (Hartzell 1997: 25,26) can be given as examples. The librarians' environment appears to be similar in Kenya, where librarians are assigned additional duties outside that of librarianship and curriculum-related work. In seven (44%) cases the respondents stated that they had been assigned additional duties in schools other than library work. This, one can argue, took up their valuable time. This is coupled with instances where principals and schools generally convert libraries for other purposes, unrelated to librarianship and the curriculum, as is evident in Namibia, where they have been turned into storerooms (Tötemeyer and Stander, 1990:21) and classrooms in Zambia (Kakoma, 1991:3), or detention centres in England (Valentine and Nelson, 1988:58). In effect, the role of librarians have been diminished through the creation of an environment incompatible with curriculum-based co-operation.

In the following sections, data and discussions related to each research question are presented.

4.3 Research Question A: What is the extent of awareness among history teachers of the role resources and library use play in enhancing history teaching?

The aim of the research question was to establish teachers' awareness of the role of libraries and information resources in history teaching. In order for any potential library user to use a library they must be aware of its benefits. Therefore this question was investigated to see if, in fact, the teachers are likely to use the library and if, in fact, they are aware of its potential. A number of questions in

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the questionnaire were directed to address this research question. As indicated above, respondents to these questions were forty teachers.

It was felt essential that in order to address the question of teachers' awareness of the role of resources in teaching history, one needs to understand the nature of the interactive environment in which they operate in the classroom and cope with challenges inherent in knowledge delivery. This may be affected by the number of classes, numbers of students and seniority of the classes taught by the teachers. In this survey it was found that 21 (52%) of the teachers taught forms one to four (or grades nine to twelve). The majority of the teachers were involved in teaching all the grades (forms one to four). In order for teachers involved in teaching all the classes, from form one to four, to be effective, their awareness and use of varied resources is necessary. This is because history, as a subject, displays conflicting opinions and bias of sources (Heather, 1969:3). Use of a variety of sources of information also promotes curiosity amongst learners, who inevitably probe into issues about topics presented in class on their own outside the classroom. Teachers need skills and varied resources to interpret content in both child-centred methods of instruction (van der Leeuw-Roord, 1994:8). These are methods that require participation of learners in an active rather than a passive environment. On the other hand, textbook-centred teaching displays deficits in students' ability to develop different opinions (Raina, 1992: 24).

Pugach and Johnson (1995:102) noted that in history teaching and learning there are instances where teachers do not have enough information to deal with student queries. At the same time there are instances of "information deficit" on the part of students to deal with teachers' questions. To bridge the gap requires a variety of resources which each side (teachers and students) may use to overcome

their "deficits", and to be able to communicate and facilitate knowledge transfer. An awareness and consequent use of these resources is very important.

The number of lessons taught by a teacher in a week can give an indication of the number of students he/she teaches and the variety of information required. The more classes and numbers of students taught the more pressure a teacher is under, requiring information to resolve student queries. It was found that 19 (48%) of the teachers teach twelve lessons and more per week. The rest taught fewer than twelve lessons per week. A study by Bell and Totten (1992: 80) in the USA indicated that academically superior students encouraged the increased use of the library by their teachers. The trend in the teaching of history has taken the direction of the application of critical thinking and the acceptance of the bias of history sources as a part of the philosophy of history teaching and learning. This has encouraged and requires a wider use of books and other information sources as tools to facilitate critical analysis. This approach has gained acceptance in Scandinavia and the Netherlands (De Marco, 1997:6). It was evident to the present researcher that aspects of this method, namely critical analysis in the study and teaching of history, are present in Kenyan schools. Teachers in training are introduced to information selection, the interpretation of data, instruction in analytical skills, logic, creativity and decision-making (Chumba, 1986:12). However, as is often the practice in some parts of the developing world, teachers resort to traditional methods of instruction, which emphasises use of examination question papers as the basis for instruction when there is not enough time and information resources (Nyirenda, 1985:35). This appeared a likely scenario in Nairobi schools. This is because a number of teachers are under pressure, with too many classes to teach and collections in some cases are seen to be inadequate.

There was a need to establish the level of school library utilisation for curriculum purposes because literature suggested an opposition to the incorporation of school libraries into the curriculum from adherents of traditional teaching methods (Smith, 1995:1). Smith argues that some teachers seemed to be unaware of the benefits derived from resource-based teaching. Teacher personality facets could contribute to an introverted approach to teaching. The present study revealed that 25 (62%) of the forty teachers who responded use the school libraries in their school for curriculum purposes. Fourteen (35%) did not make any efforts at library utilisation. One respondent did not answer the question. Activities engaged in by 25 teachers who used school libraries were (Percentage of teachers in parenthesis):

- for reference to meet history curriculum questions, 12 (48%);

- all of the above uses, 5 (20%)

- use the library as a study area, 4 (16%);

- other undisclosed uses, 2 (8%);

- browse through books, 1 (4%);

- read newspapers and magazines, 1 (4%).

With reference to the allocation of class projects which incorporated library activities and class-library interface, 11 (28%) out of forty teachers indicated that they do not allocate students with class projects which required the use of the library. Twenty-eight (70%) of the teachers indicated that they gave projects which required library use. One (3%) did not indicate any preference as far as engaging in projects was concerned. This issue is discussed further in section 4.4 below.

It can be noted that, although there are a number of teachers who do not use the library for curriculum purposes, one can assume that there is a general awareness of the importance of the library. This is because the majority of teachers do use school libraries and also require their students to do library-based school projects. Unfortunately, as will be noted later, in spite of this apparent awareness and usage of libraries, teachers did not score well in a case where usage of library resources was tested.

4.4 Research Question B. Are history teachers aware of the positive role of the use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks?

One of the problems observed by the present researcher, as a former history teacher in Kenya, is the tendency among many teachers to use only prescribed textbooks in their teaching. Textbooks provide limited interpretations, as was seen in England (Crawford 1996: 402), in India (Raina 1992:25) and in South Africa (Wyley 1997: 20). Winter (1996: 374) holds that facts selected by textbook writers "denied" students access to other facts and interpretations which formed part of history teaching in England. It has been observed that the philosophy of history teaching and student learning has been changing in favour of a critical and unbiased approach, and child-centred learning, both of which require the use of multiple information resources. As argued earlier, libraries, and particularly school libraries, because of their expected curriculum orientation, are likely to provide these resources. This, of course, assumes that the collections are good and relevant, and that the teachers are aware of the positive role libraries can play in the provision of materials for the study and teaching of history.

One of the factors that determines potential library users' awareness of the support the library can offer, is the awareness of the collection. If teachers are involved in the selection of materials that the library acquires and keeps, they are more likely to be aware of such materials' availability and therefore their usefulness as supplementary resources to history textbooks for history teaching and study. If teachers know the collection because they have been involved in the selection of some of the materials they are also likely to exploit the materials more.

The forty teachers were asked whether or not they participate in the selection of library materials, either by making recommendations for purchase to the librarian or the librarian asking them to make purchase recommendations. Seven (18%) indicated that they did not in any way participate in selecting library materials, while 33 (82%) did. Figure 4.1 gives a representation of this distribution.

Figure 4.0

Book selection by history teachers in the school
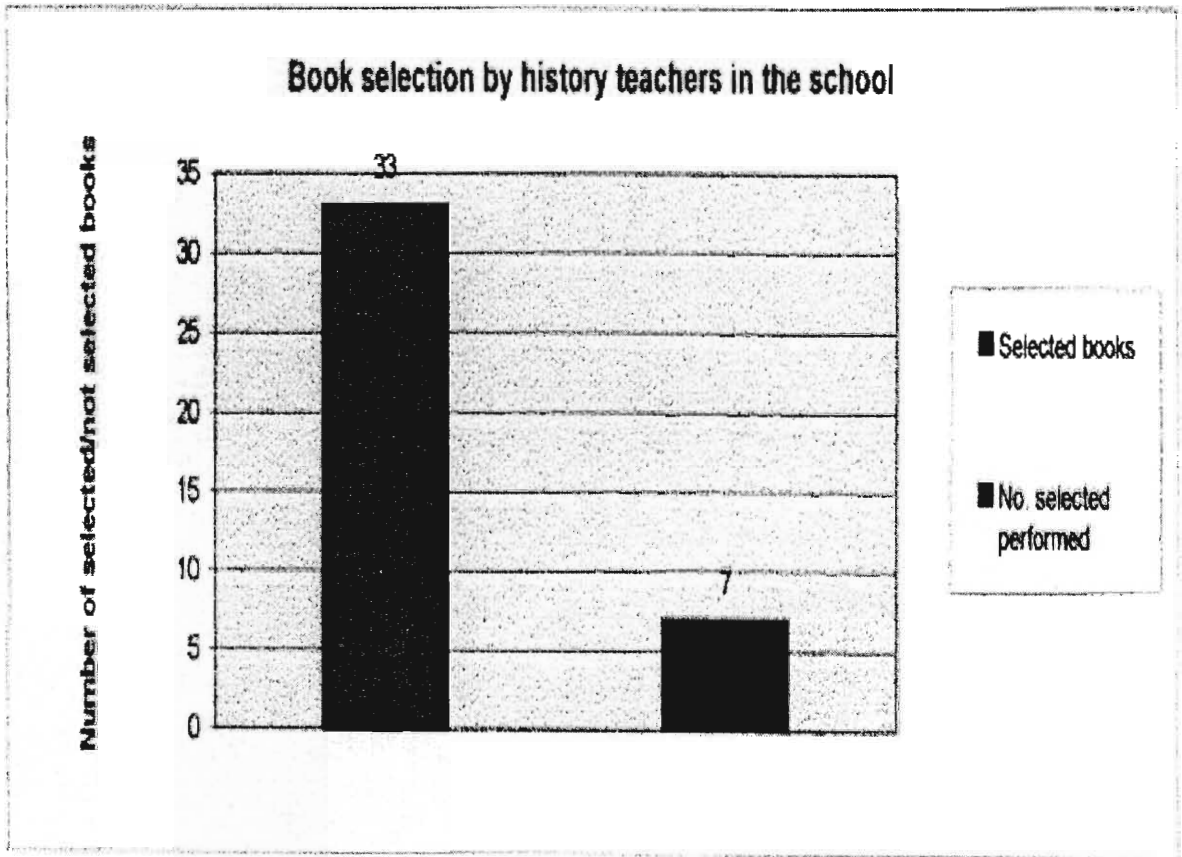
Of the respondents (33) who indicated that they had been involved in the selection of materials, a reasonably large number, eighteen (55%), indicated that they had been involved in selection of materials at least once a year, six (18%) indicated that they participated at least twice in the past four years preceding the data collection, while nine (27%) were unsure of the frequency of their participation in the selection of materials in the past four years.

Teachers were also asked whether or not the materials selected were actually purchased. This question was asked to ascertain whether or not the materials considered by the teachers as important were, in fact, bought by the libraries. This would give some indication of the relevance of the materials bought. Thirty-one (94%) indicated that the materials they selected were actually bought, while two (6%) indicated that they had not been bought. Table 4.2 below gives a graphic representation of this distribution.

Figure 4.2

N = 33
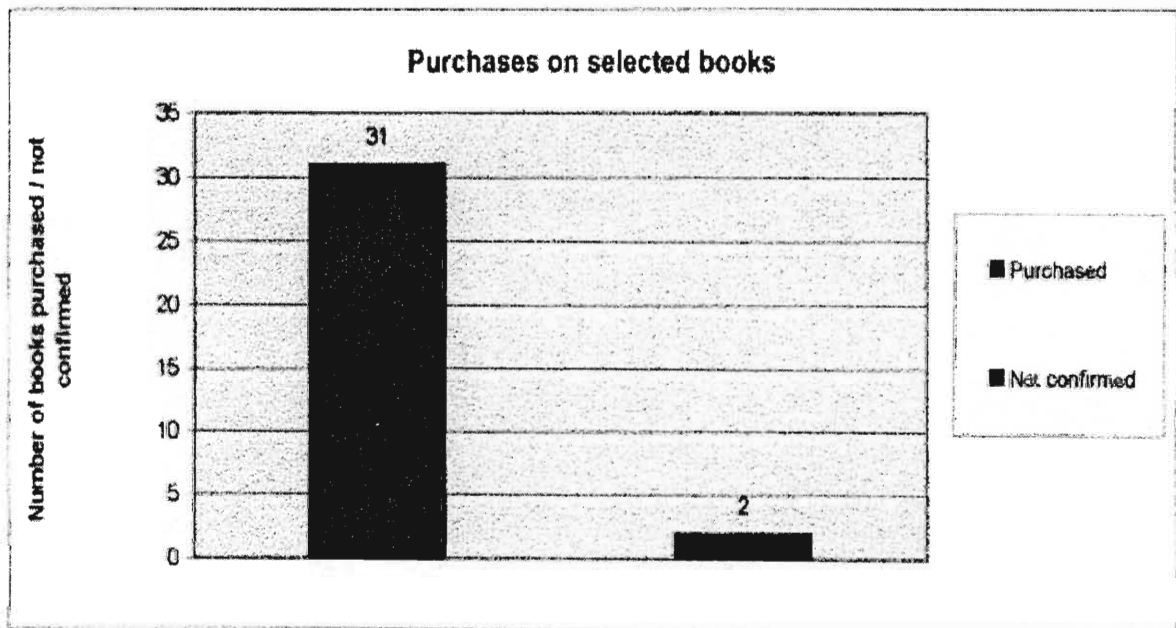
It must be noted, however, that although a high percentage of teacher-selected materials were said to have been bought, there was no clear indication of the quantities of library materials actually bought. It is therefore necessary, in order to assess the relevance and adequacy of the selections and purchases, to compare the actual purchases, the available collections and actual use by teachers or opinions of teachers of the overall usefulness to the school. Data on some of these matters were collected and reported below. However, a more critical analysis of collection adequacy and relevance was beyond the scope of this study.

One of the indicators of library usage for the study and teaching of history is the extent to which teachers allocated class projects which incorporate library activities. As observed earlier in section 4.3, 11 (28%) out of forty teachers indicated that they do not allocate students with class projects which require the use of the library. Twenty-eight (70%) of the teachers indicated that they gave projects which required library use. One (3%) did not indicate any preference as far as engaging in projects was concerned. Figure 4.3 below reflects the distribution of library-based class projects, as allocated by teachers.

Teachers were further asked to give reasons for incorporating or not incorporating the library into class projects. Reasons given by (the 12) teachers who did not incorporate library activities in student projects are as follows:

• libraries were not equipped for project work, 5 (42%);

• materials in the libraries were not detailed enough, 4 (33%);

- there were no relevant reference books in the school library, 2 (17%);

- students when unsupervised were negligent in their work, 1 (8%).

Reasons given by the 28 teachers who indicated that they incorporate library activities in class projects were as follows:

- students benefited from acquiring historical knowledge, 1 (4%);

- the library was satisfactory but students use of textbooks was needed as well, 1 (4%);

- students when supervised undertook project work, 1 (4%);

- library project work performed by students was satisfactory, 1 (4%);

- newspaper use provided current historical awareness, 1 (4%).

It must be noted that although a large number of teachers (28) indicated that they incorporate library use in history projects, only two in each of the cases above gave specific reasons why they considered it important. This may suggest that, in spite of their indicating that the library is important, teachers are not very sure of the benefits of incorporating library activities in history projects.

Figure 4.3

Class project and library utilization
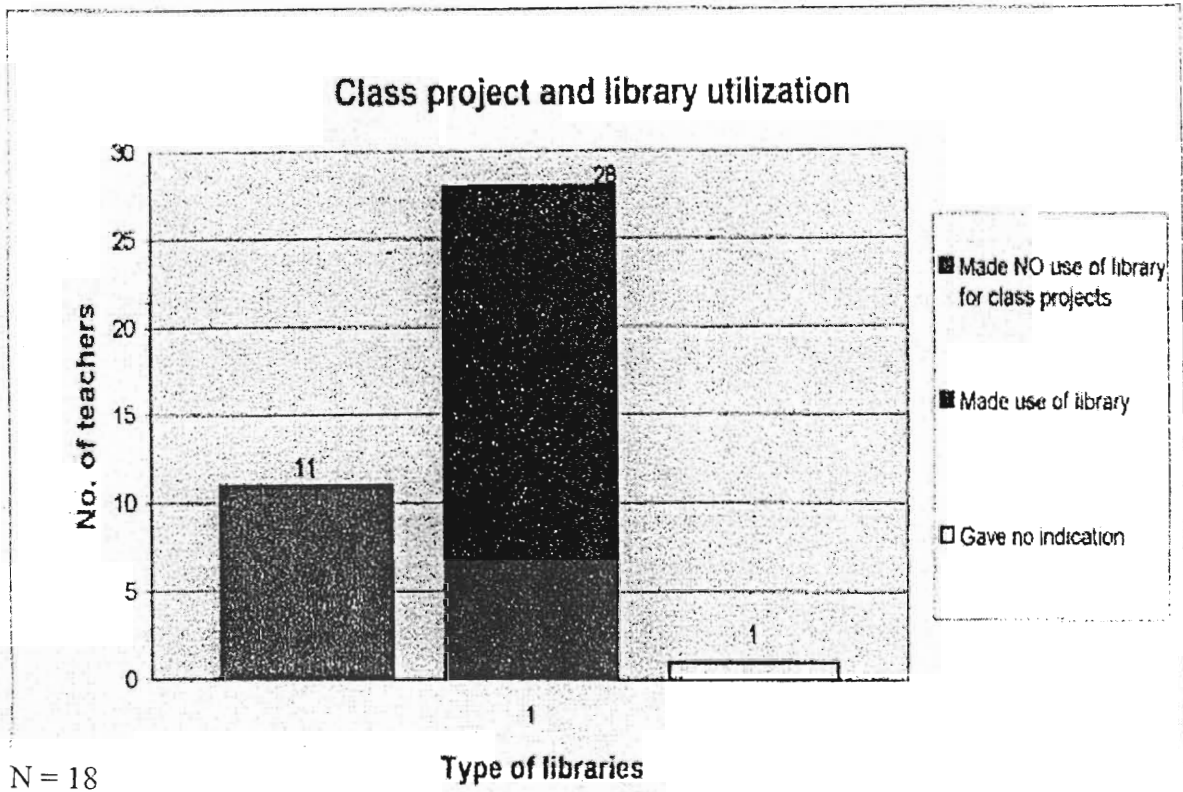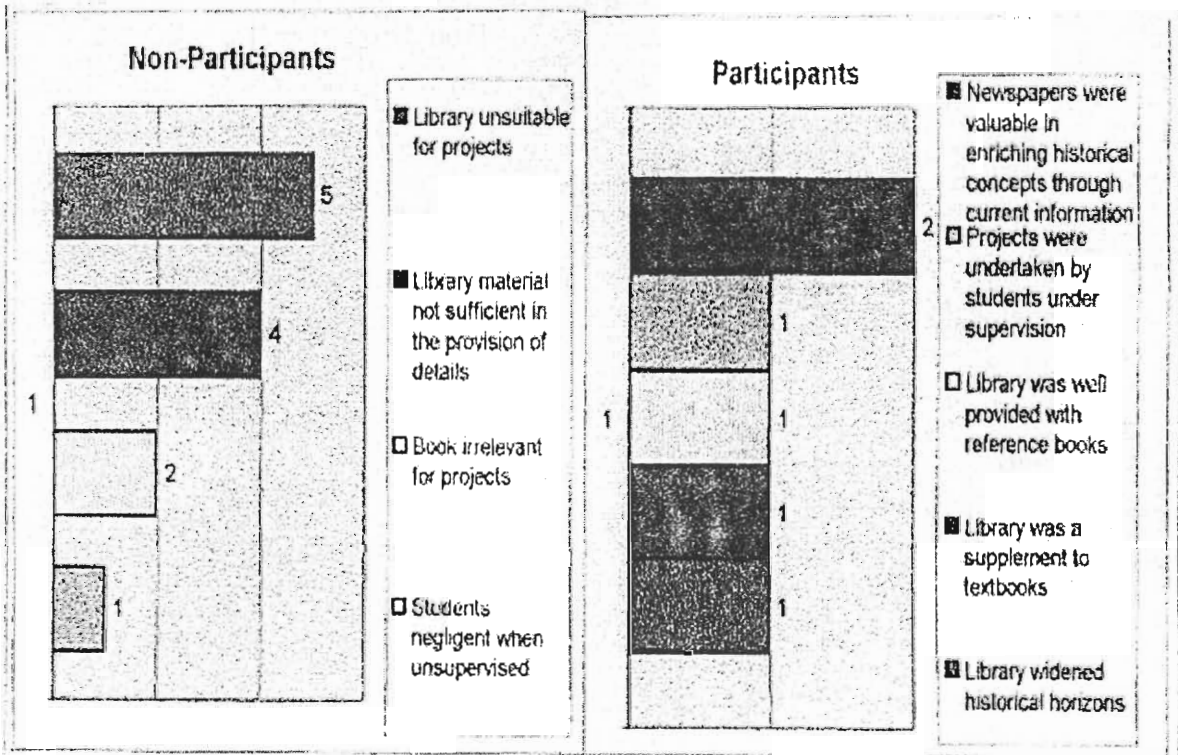
The study also investigated the extent to which library education formed a component part of teacher-training in university and teacher training colleges. This was deemed relevant in order to establish teachers' prior awareness of the role of extra history textbook resources in history teaching. Twenty-four, or 60%, of the teachers, indicated that their teacher training did not include library education, while eleven, or 28%, stated they were taught some library education skills during their teacher training programmes. Five teachers did not respond to this question. This is an indication, yet again, that there was a likelihood of a higher degree of awareness of library usage among the teachers, but does not indicate the form of library training incorporated in the teacher-training programmes.

Teachers were also asked whether, in addition to history, they taught other subjects which have a library education or instruction component. This was done in order to establish the work environment or exposure that would increase the degree of awareness of the role of varied information resources, other than history textbooks in the study and teaching of history. Eighty-five percent of teachers (34) did not teach any library-oriented subjects or part thereof. Thirteen percent (5) teachers taught a subject that incorporated library instruction or usage, while one did not answer the question. Of the five who indicated that they taught such subject(s), four indicated English as the subject in which they also teach some library skills, while the fifth person did not give the name of the subject. It is curious to note that, in spite of the fact that some teachers had earlier indicated that they require their students to do history projects which incorporate some library activities, none of the teachers actually teach library skills as part of history teaching.

In addition, teachers were specifically asked if library skills should be included as part of the history syllabus. Thirty-five responded to the question and 29 (73%) said library skills should be included

and 6 (15%) were not in favour. This was done in order to solicit suggestions and opinions on the order of priority of the role resource-based learning plays as opposed to single text-geared teaching and learning. Respondents were asked to give suggestions of library skills required. It should be noted that respondents could either make more than one suggestion or none at all. The following were the suggestions given as to why library skills should be included.

(the number of suggestions are given in parenthesis):

- Facilitates information acquisition skills (15)

- Facilitates critical analysis, which is of use in history (8)

- Facilitates independent research (4)

- Facilitates exposure to a wide variety of material (4)

- Facilitates effective teaching (2)

In spite of these suggestions, it was clear to the present researcher that none of these suggestions have actually been implemented by the teachers. This suggests that there is lack of deep commitment to these suggestions.

Other teachers, with total numbers in parentheses, gave the following reasons why library skills should not and/or cannot be incorporated in history teaching:

- Not practical because (the 8.4.4) syllabus provides little time for such inclusion (3)

- Should be taught, but as a separate subject (2)

- It is accommodated in the English syllabus, a subject compulsory for all students (2)

- Not essential for accommodation in history because some areas in the history syllabus are in need of information which could be obtained in other subjects (1)

While from the data given by teachers one would conclude that they have some awareness of the positive role school and other libraries can play in history teaching and learning, one cannot categorically conclude that they are indeed aware of the various benefits. Awareness simply means that the teachers are conscious of the existence of libraries. It does not necessarily mean that they know what it can do. This is evidenced by the fact that while the majority of teachers were aware of what the library can do, not many gave suggestions why library skills should be included in the syllabus. Furthermore, only very few teachers were able to give reasons why they incorporated library activities in class projects.

4.5 Research Question C. How much use do teachers of history make of libraries to meet the history curriculum needs?

Simply being aware of what role the library can play in enhancing history teaching and learning does not necessary mean that, in fact, it is used. In the USA, for example, Smith (1995: 1) argues that curriculum teaching which includes school library usage has often faced opposition to traditional teaching methods. In spite of this, however, it has been argued that school libraries are expected to support the education and leisure information needs of both teachers and students in schools. One of the areas of concern in this study was to assess the extent to which teachers use the library to meet their curriculum needs. By doing so it is possible to establish the extent to which the school library services are relevant in the schools. This researcher's personal experience as a teacher of history in Mombasa showed that teachers and students benefited tremendously from the use of libraries in their teaching and learning of history. The Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) has also emphasised and encouraged the use of resource-based learning and teaching of history. (Kenya Institute of Education, 1988: Introduction). Most of these supplementary reading materials are located in

libraries. Furthermore, the need for a wealth of information in the interpretation of facts on history topics in the syllabus has been through critical analysis, as stipulated by the KIE Guidelines, and also indicated by Kiigi and Wangombe (Kiigi, 1983: 7).

In Nairobi there are a number of libraries other than school libraries, at the disposal of teachers. Teachers were therefore asked to indicate whether or not they used these other libraries. This question was asked in order to establish their use and non-use of the multiple resources available to them, in the teaching of history in Nairobi. Figure 4.4 illustrate the use and types of libraries used by teachers in Nairobi. Eight (20%) indicated that they did not use any libraries, while one teacher did not respond to this question. Of the remaining thirty-one teachers, 28 (70%) stated that they used school libraries only, while one (2%) used the school libraries and history departmental collections in his/her school. Another one teacher (2%) used the school library and the Library of Congress in Nairobi. The other one teacher (2%) used the school library and the Kenya National Library of Services (KNLS) public library and the British Council Library; and the last one (2%) teacher used the school library, the British Council Library, a private school library, and the University of Nairobi Library. It is clear that some teachers used more than one library for their needs.

The literature of the use of libraries for teaching suggests that teachers need persuasion in order for them to utilize libraries in the curriculum (Smith 1995: 1). This observation is critical when taken in association with the lack of appropriate resources. In many countries, including Kenya, libraries lack appropriate resources, as observed by Line (1990: 104) and Reddy (1993:26) and Tötemeyer and Stander (1990:40). The use of school libraries for curriculum purposes presupposes an awareness of library search skills amongst teachers and scheduled time for library searches. An observation by Battams (1990:79) and Smith (1995:7) points to limited time by teachers or "lack of time" for such tasks.

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Fig 4.4   N = 40

No libraries	8
School libraries	28
School and history dept. library	1
School library and Library of Congress	1
School library & KNLS public library, British Council Library, school library in private school & University of Nairobi library	1
No response	1

Type of libraries used by teachers for teaching needs

Legend:
- No libraries
- School libraries
- School and history dept. library
- School library and Library of Congress
- School library & KNLS public library, British Council Library, school library in private school & University of Nairobi library
- No response

Y-axis: No. of teachers
X-axis: Type of libraries

4.4
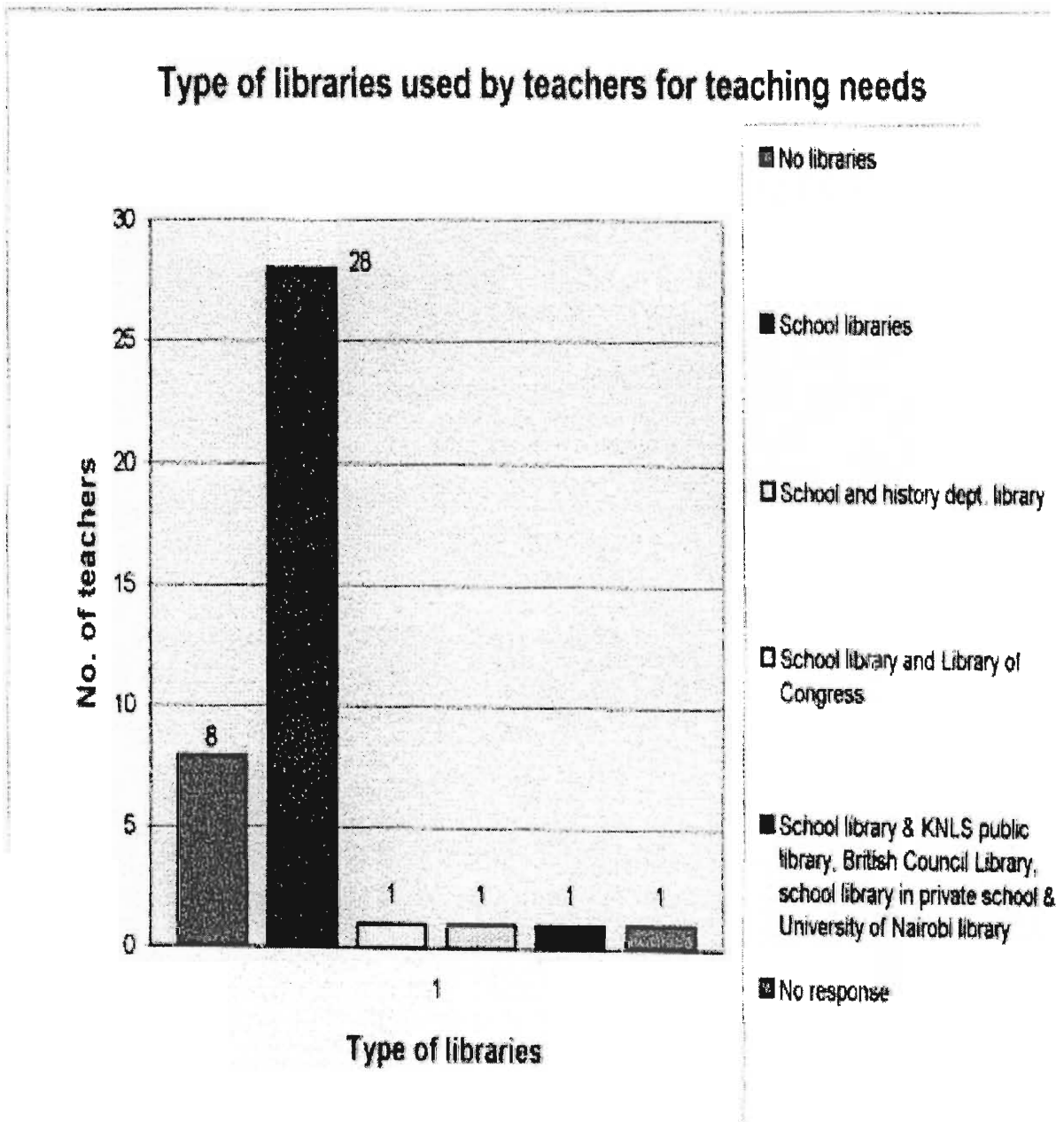
Teachers were asked about the frequency of their use of libraries in order to establish whether libraries played a significant role as reference sources. In addition to this, there was a need to establish whether indeed libraries were of much use to schools. It was found that generally the use of libraries by teachers was seldom over three days per week in regard to frequency of visits for reference purposes. This is one area of concern to the present researcher, and should be to educationists, because literature on this issue, for example Pugach and Johnson (1995:102), indicate that there are deficits in learning and teaching in an interactive environment involving teachers and students where there is less use of multi-sources. Furthermore, bias in history materials requires teachers who are pro-active in decision-making in order to provide direction in line with the curriculum. Another concern is that in the uniform syllabus in secondary schools, as is the case in Nairobi schools, there is the likelihood that teachers depend on examination-centred instruction. Nyirenda (1985:35) showed that in Tanzania there was a heavy dependence on teaching based on examination papers of past years. Instead of teachers emphasising critical thinking and independent learning, their teaching is simply based on possible examination questions. The experience of the present writer indicates that this is prevalent in some cases in Kenya. This philosophy may, in fact, affect the level of library use by students and teachers because once the examination questions have been answered to the level of competence, as viewed by the teachers and/or students, the need for library usage may be considered "unnecessary".

Teachers were also asked about their levels of satisfaction with the library in meeting their information needs. The present researcher assumed that teachers understood what teaching information needs meant to them. Some teachers do not use the library at all and were not in a position to comment. Figure 4.5 below reflects levels of satisfaction by teachers in the use of

Figure 4.5   N = 40

Library role in addressing teaching needs
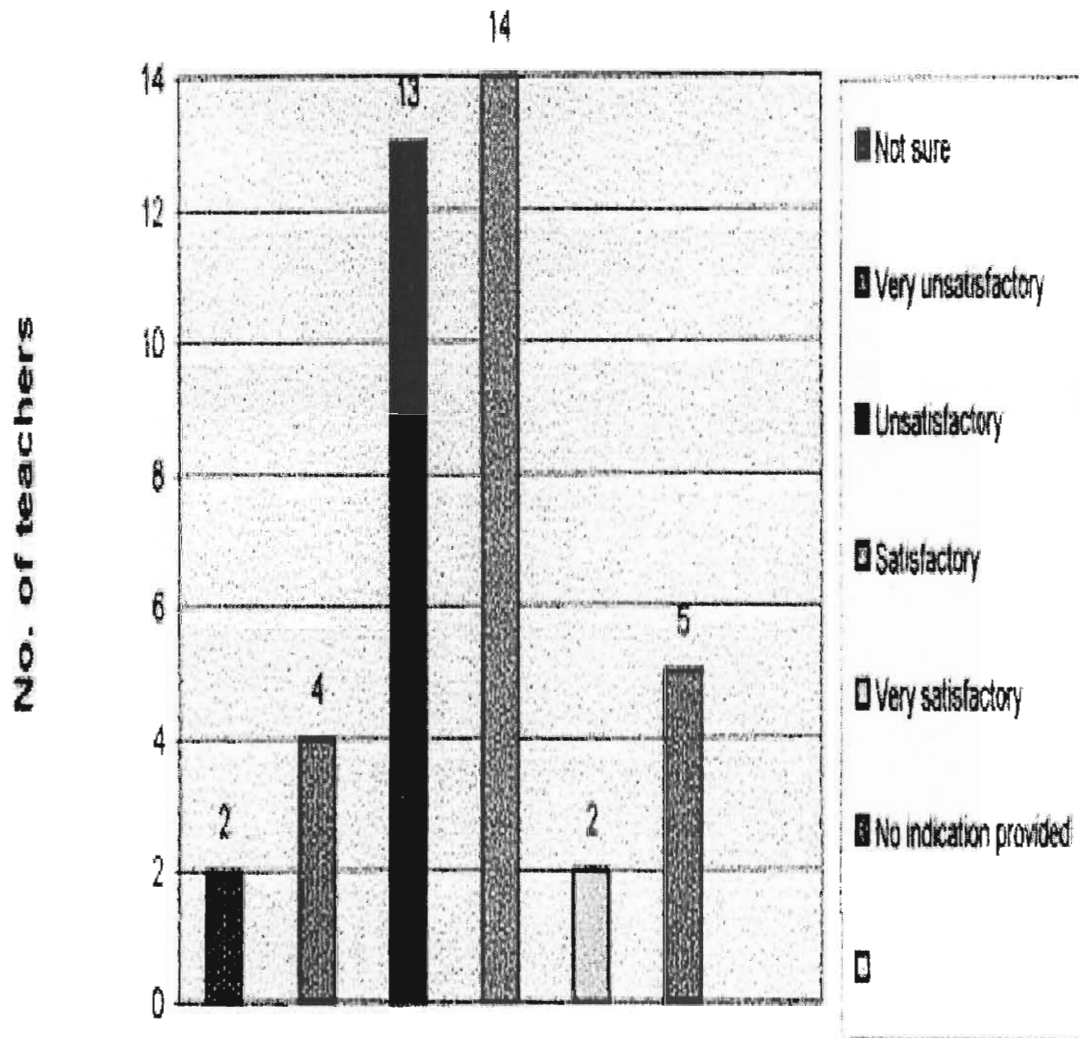
The wide range of topics within the Kenyan history syllabus requires a variety of information resources in order to deal with them effectively. The use of a single text may not provide all the information required by teachers and students. To test the teachers awareness and use of a variety of sources in dealing with historical topics, teachers were asked a series of specific factual historical questions which had appeared in the Kenya National Examination Council examination. They were requested to indicate the process and sources they would have used to answer the questions.

To assess the teachers' usage of multi-sources and their information searching skills, teachers were asked historical questions which required the use of multi-sources available in the school libraries. For example, the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and *Colliers Encyclopaedia*, which were available in all the schools, provided part of the answer to these historical factual questions. It was found that in answer to the factual curriculum question related to the Chamimuka-Mutota cult, 25% or ten respondents out of the forty teachers, did provide the correct answer, while 75% or thirty teachers failed to give the appropriate answer. In regard to the question on the Zaibatsu of Japan, 98% of the respondents failed to give the appropriate answer. Only one (2%) teacher gave the right answer. On the question of the Maya civilization of Central America, 22% of the respondents gave the correct answer, whereas 78% did not give the correct answer. Teachers were asked to give some detail of the procedure which they followed to find the answers to these questions. It was most important to know the process and sources used to arrive at an answer rather than a specific answer. Only twenty, or 50%, of respondents provided this information. Of the twenty, twelve indicated that they used text books only and five used teachers' notes. The other three used teachers' collections which they used in their everyday teaching. It is evident that, in spite of the fact that teachers indicated that

libraries were important in providing information, they themselves depended heavily on textbooks for finding information.

Fouts and Chan (1998:529) have argued that textbooks, as used in China, present syllabus information in a uniform manner. In Kenya this uniformity is detrimental to the information strength of the books themselves because, as is the case elsewhere in Africa, textbooks lack new and sometimes original information and have little innovation (Katjavivi, 1997:6). This is especially crucial in Kenya, because the wide syllabus requires variety of information far from the sketchy manner the few textbooks provide (Kiigi 1982:2; Chumba 1986:12).

In summary, it can be stated that although teachers appear to be aware of the library, they appear not to use it effectively. The answers to the questions related to the extent of use of the library for curriculum purposes were very contradictory. Although the majority (28) indicated to have used school libraries, only sixteen appeared to have been satisfied with it and a substantial percentage was not even sure whether or not the library helped them. In addition, teachers' quest for information in order to answer factual historical questions was poor, suggesting that they have few library information searching skills themselves. It is difficult to give conclusive findings about the extent of library utilization by teachers based simply on the data collected and presented here. However, it must be pointed out that library usage depends on a number of factors. Some of these include the assistance and co-operation which library staff provide to teachers, the collection of the library, the budget for the purchase of library resources and opening hours of the library, to mention but a few. All these and other factors are treated in section 4.6 below.

4.6 Research Question D. To what extent do library staff assist history teachers in meeting curriculum needs?

In order for a library to be effective in meeting teachers' needs, there must be adequate resources. One of the key resources is that of library staff. As observed above, sixteen schools out of the forty-four public secondary schools in Nairobi were included in the study. All sixteen schools had library staff. Four of the librarians were teacher librarians, in that they were teachers as well as librarians. In other words, they worked both as teachers (in terms of class teaching and curriculum development), as well as carrying out library duties. The remainder (12) were full-time librarians. In reporting about this group of respondents this chapter simply refers to them as librarians. Librarians were asked a number questions relating to their work with teachers, their opinions about teachers' use of the library and the adequacy of library resources for meeting teacher needs.

Library operating times are an important indicator of the potential of library usage. The times the library is opened must be convenient for class work, curriculum-related work and independent reading by both teachers and students. Library staff were asked to indicate the operating hours of their libraries. Nine (57%) of the responding schools reported that their libraries are opened throughout the school day, that is from 08:00 to any time before 17:00. Two (13%) indicated that their libraries were kept open during official class time, which is generally between 08:00 and 12:30 and 14:00 and 16:00. This means that the libraries are closed over the lunch period of 12:30 to 14:00 and after school. Four school libraries open at varying times, mostly during school break, lunch time and after school. This is probably due to the fact that student teachers are used as library assistants to staff the library . One librarian did not give an answer to this question.

The assistance and services that librarians provide to teachers in the use of the library will further enhance or negate library usage by teachers for curriculum purposes. The assumption that librarians have an awareness of materials and their use in teaching programmes is crucial, according to Smith (1995:36). As was reported earlier, some teachers are involved in book selection whilst others are not. The argument advanced earlier was that if teachers are involved in the selection of materials they are more likely to know what is available in the library for use in the curriculum. Similarly, if they are involved in the selection of materials it is important that they are also involved in the de-selection or weeding out of materials which may be considered irrelevant.

Librarians were asked whether or not teachers rendered assistance in the weeding process of library materials. Seven (44%) of the librarians indicated that teachers assisted in the weeding process, while four (25%) did not get help. The remainder (five or 31%) did not respond to this question. The reason given by three (21%) of the 7 (43%) respondents, who indicated that they receive assistance from teachers, was that teachers gave valuable advice in relation to syllabi changes and collection relevance. One of the reasons given for not seeking teachers' assistance in weeding of materials was that teachers were not interested. However, it should be pointed out that participating in the weeding process alone is not the best method of knowing about the strength of the library collection. Experience in the USA has shown that librarians listened to tape recorded instructions to students and this provided the basis for information gathering on the curriculum (Smith 1995: 34).

The literature shows that assessment of library materials is a crucial practice on the part of librarians and teachers, if they are to understand the relevance of library materials to specific points in the school syllabus. Doll (1997: 95) has shown the value of quantitative and qualitative analysis of library collections. In Nairobi, collection analysis was limited because librarians failed to adequately identify whether or not the collections in their libraries were relevant to the two history papers which

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form part of the history examination syllabus. As observed in relation to research question C above, librarians receive limited co-operation from teachers. This further confirms the likelihood of librarians' inability to address collection suitability, both quantitatively and qualitatively. In the USA, for example, librarians keep track of teachers lesson plans and together progress from unit to unit throughout the year. This provides them with a current awareness of what the teachers need and a means off evaluating material needs. This practice does not take place in Nairobi schools.

Librarians were asked about their impressions of teachers' willingness and/or unwillingness to use the library for curriculum purposes. This question was asked as a reinforcement to the earlier query about teachers' response of the use and non-use of the library. Ten (63%) of the responding librarians indicated that teachers displayed a will to use the library. Of the remaining six librarians, four (25%) indicated that teachers were not willing to use the library, while two (12%) did not answer. This appears to concur with the teachers' responses themselves with respect to use and non-use of the library, to which 28 out of 40 stated that they used the library, although only sixteen appeared to be satisfied with the library. Iin spite of the fact that the majority of the forty teachers indicated that they used the library, they did not appear to have good information searching and use skills, as was evidenced by their poor showing in answering the historical questions found in the KNEC examination paper and the process through which they searched for information. They searched mainly through textbooks and their own (teachers') notes.

It must be pointed out that librarian's perceptions could also be influenced by personality factors and how inviting teachers were to librarians. These personality factors were observed by Haycock (1990: 24). As noted earlier, an important factor in getting teachers to use the library is the amount of persuasion they get either from the school administration and/or the librarians

Librarians were asked to give reasons why teachers appeared willing to use libraries. The following are reasons given by librarians:

- provided reference services, 8 (80%);

- provided a convenient way of ordering of new books, as well as the evaluation of books recommended to students, 2 (13%);

- provided reading facilities for newspapers and other quiet reading, 1 (6%);

- are regarded as suitable venues for teacher reference which was directed to pupils, one (6%);

- provided easy access to books, 1 (6%)

Four librarians (25%) who indicated a lack of willingness by teachers to use the library felt that this was due to curriculum-related reasons. One of the three indicated that teachers lacked the time to commit to library usage, the other one made reference to library congestion as the reason for the lack of willingness to use the library.

Librarians were asked to make suggestions as to how history teaching can be improved in schools. The following were their suggestions, with the numbers in brackets representing the number of respondents:

- Improve library resources in meeting history curriculum requirements (9);

- Familiarize history teachers with the library collection (4);

- Consult history teachers in book purchases (2);

- Participation by teachers and librarians in library activities (2);

- Assess the relevance of the history books in the library (1);

- Budget allocation towards library material (1);

- Give guidance to students in the use of existing library books by recommending their use (1);

- Have a full-time librarian instead of a teacher-librarian (1);

- Keep abreast of history publications through a current awareness programme (1);

- Monitor the use of history books in the school (1);

- Open the library for longer hours for users (1);

- Weed books by inviting teachers to help with the task (1);

A number of these suggestions, seem to suggest that librarians recognise the need for teachers to familiarize themselves with multi-sources in history teaching. Since, according to the perceptions of librarians, teachers appeared to value reference services provided by the libraries, they unfortunately did not have adequate resources.

One of the key indicators of library services to staff and students is the availability of information resources. This is essential, especially with the shift towards resource-based learning (Smith, 1995:2). This is supported by scholars like Reddy (1993:26) in her reference to Australia, Tötemeyer and Stander (1990:29) on Namibian schools and libraries and Vermuelen (1994:152), with reference to South Africa. Although this study was not intended to examine the adequacy of library resources *per se*, the present researcher considered it necessary to have some idea of the resource situation in these school libraries. Data that may enhance history teaching were thus collected about the books, magazines and other key sources in the library. Table 1, below, shows the distribution of the collections in the various libraries in Nairobi

Table 2:   **Collections of library material in Nairobi secondary school libraries**

Schools	Total books	Magazines	History titles	History copies	Maps	Radio	Atlas	Photo/ Portrait
Highway	10000	500	130	310	2			
Lenana	19292	50	---	1801	2			
Aquinas	7000	4000	10	15	4			
O. L. Fatima	10000	---	95	1100				
Nairobi School	15000	3000	2000	5000				
Moi G. Nairobi	5500	2500	550	1450	1			
St. Georges	3500	1113	131	200				
Precious Blood	15000	200	378	736				
Ngara Girls	2480	130	160	190			5	
State H. Girls	2989	197	29	50	8			20
Aga Khan	4433	2000	400	250	10			
Ofafa Jericho	7844	5	18	60	2			
Eastleigh	---	56	10	35				
Muslim Girls	2819	---	238	256	86	1		
Moi Forces Academy	12290	500	91	424	2			
Mutuini	11624	---	30	650	10			
Total	129771	14251	4290	12572	127	1	5	20

An important indicator of the strengths and weaknesses of the library resources is that of finances and the budgeting process. Librarians were asked whether or not they operated budgets for their libraries. Eight (50%) of the libraries indicated that they had library budgets and the remaining eight (50%) did not have library-specific budgets. They were asked to indicate the specific officers who had the overall responsibility for decision-making on budgets. Out of the eight who stated that they had library budgets, seven indicated the officers in charge of budget and one did not answer the question. A variety of persons in schools have the responsibility for budget decisions. At one school, the school principal and head of English are responsible for the budget. In two schools, the principal and school bursar are responsible for the library budget. In another school, the librarian and bursar have overall responsibility, while in two schools the principal alone is in charge of the library budget. In one other school, the librarian and heads of department are responsible for the budget.

The eight librarians who had library specific budgets were asked whethe or not their budgets were considered independent from other school extra-curricula activities. Five (63%) indicated that they operated with independence, and three (37%) gave no indication. Four out of the five libraries gave some indication of the lump sums of their budgets. Unfortunately, they did not indicate the percentages of these amounts in relation to the overall school budgets. What was peculiar, however, was the fact that the amounts varied significantly from school to school. The range of the sums was between Kshs 30 000 and Kshs 300 000 (approximately R2 308 and R23 077).

Based on the researcher's own experience, the purchases of library resources in some libraries in Kenya appeared to be the responsibility of other persons and not necessarily the librarians. This is in spite of the fact that the librarians are, or should be, responsible for the selection of materials. Librarians were asked whether or not they were consulted on the purchase of library material. Nine (57%) out of the sixteen librarians indicated that they were not often consulted, while seven (43%) indicated that consultation often occurred. One librarian indicated that consultation occurred up to and including 25 % of the time, while three stated that consultation was done between 26% and 50% of the time. In one case the librarian stated that consultation was done 75% percent of the time, while two respondents did not indicate the extent or frequency of consultation. It is clear that this process, like the budgeting process and sums of budgets in different schools, was quite varied.

It is obvious that no one school library can provide all the resources required by its staff and students. Libraries therefore often enter into co-operation with others, formally or informally. In regard to library co-operation with specific attention to receiving assistance, 13 (82%) libraries indicated that they received no assistance from other organisations and only three (18%) did. The assistance came in the form of international donors, as indicated by one respondent, or from the Kenya National Library Service (KNLS), in the form of book loan arrangements, as indicated by another one library. This is in spite of the fact that one of the key roles of the KNLS is to provide assistance to school libraries.

The state of librarians' awareness of the importance of co-operation between teachers and themselves for curriculum purposes seems to be limited in Nairobi public schools. This is

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because of apparent lack of correlation between the library materials and the items on the syllabus. In order to gauge the relevance of library material in the curriculum, assessment of material is necessary. This, according to Smith (1995: 36), is achieved by knowledge of the materials by librarians. This requires quantitative and qualitative analysis of material, as argued by Doll (1997:95). There is need for such qualitative and quantitative analysis of library materials and their relevance to the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education history papers. Perhaps the limited participation of librarians in the selection and purchases of materials, as well as limited co-operation from teachers, could provide a reason for this situation. In Kenya librarians are not involved in lesson teaching plans and current awareness of teachers' progress from unit to unit across the year. This is different to the practice in the USA (Smith, 1995:37).

4.7   Summary

Based on the data presented it is clear the awareness and usage of libraries in schools in Nairobi is varied. Specifically, the present study found that, although there are a number of teachers who do not use the library for history curriculum purposes, one can assume that there is a general awareness of the importance of the library. This is because the majority of teachers indicated that they were aware of the importance of the library and in many cases required their students to do library-based school projects. However, in spite of the fact that many teachers claimed to use libraries, this was not reflected in teachers' library use skills. They could not identify and use materials available in the libraries which are relevant to the curriculum.

Furthermore, based on the data collected, it appears that history teachers are aware of the positive role the use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks offer. However, it was

evident that teachers were not very sure of the benefits which can be derived from the use of library resources for history teaching and learning. Teachers themselves indicated that library skills training should be included in the curriculum, yet they lacked the skills required to answer or deal with curriculum-based questions. It is interesting to note that, in spite of what they stated (the need for library skills), they had not initiated library use for their students. This appeared to contradict the claims made by some that they required their students to do library-based history projects. It can be summed up and argued that awareness on the part of teachers simply means that they are conscious of the existence of libraries and their role for providing materials for curriculum support, but do not necessarily know what the library can do for them and their students. Only a handful of teachers made suggestions as to what kinds of library skills should be incorporated into the curriculum.

Although the majority of teachers claimed to use the library, they do not appear to use it effectively. Only a minority appeared to have been satisfied with the service they received, whereas a substantial number were not sure whether or not the library helped them. Furthermore, failure by the majority of teachers to give answers to questions on the curriculum suggests that they have poor library skills. Moreover, most of the teachers undertook to answer curriculum questions by use of textbooks and/or teachers' notes.

Another major finding of this study is that there seems to be some co-operation between librarians and teachers, but this appears limited to an awareness that the two need to co-operate with one another. However, such co-operation cannot be effective if librarians are not involved in curriculum development, as is currently the case in most of the Nairobi schools. Furthermore, the

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possibility of apparent weaknesses in the collections seem to suggest that there is very little relationship between the collections and the needs of the curriculum. Librarians themselves indicated that they did not know their collections well enough. This does not augur well for curriculum support.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of findings and issues identified in this study. It also makes final conclusions of the findings in relation to the literature and the Kenyan situation. The chapter further presents the recommendations based upon the discussion of the findings and the literature.

5.2 Restatement of the Research Problem and Objectives

In Kenya, in general, and Nairobi public schools, in particular, there are school libraries. It is not very clear from current and past literature as to the level of awareness among history teachers on libraries' role as sources of information resources and services for meeting curriculum needs and enhancing their teaching. It has not been established whether or not teachers are fully aware of what role libraries can play in the development and implementation of the school curriculum. While libraries exist in many of the public schools in Nairobi, and they have the potential to make positive influence in providing multiple resources for the teaching of history, they would be of little use if they are not used by teachers and their students. There is little evidence in past studies that a critical evaluation or analysis has been done on the use and non-use of libraries by history teachers to meet curriculum needs. It is not very clear from existing literature as to what extent school libraries meet the needs of history teachers. The general aim of this study was therefore to

examine the role of school libraries in meeting curriculum needs of teachers in public schools in Nairobi, Kenya.

The specific objectives of this study were:

a)   Assess teacher awareness of the role of libraries and information resources in history teaching;

b)   Assess teachers' use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks in history teaching;

c)   Establish the use and non-use of libraries by history teachers for history curriculum needs.

d)   Examine the extent to which libraries assist history teachers to meet curriculum needs;

e)   Suggest means to enhance the use of libraries by history teachers.

The following were the research questions used to explore and deal with the research objectives:

a)   What is the extent of awareness among history teachers of the role information resources and library use play in enhancing history teaching?

b)   Are history teachers aware of the positive role of the use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks?

c)   How much use do teachers of history make of libraries for history curriculum needs?

d)   To what extent do library staff assist history teachers in meeting curriculum needs?

5.3   Summary to Chapters Two and Three

Chapter two identified the literature on the research topic. The literature identified was from Africa, Asia, the Americas, Australia and Europe, as it related to the research topic. For easy management of the literature, it was deemed necessary to present the literature under different subheadings and sections. These were education and the role of history; the teaching of history in selected countries of the world; textbook focus in teaching; textbook focus in teaching history; examination in education in selected countries; assessment and library use; school libraries and teaching; school libraries and teaching of history; co-operation between teachers and librarians; publicity of school libraries; training of librarians and teachers in curriculum co-operation; use and non-use of libraries; role of school principals in libraries; and library acquisitions.

Chapter three described and presented the justification for the choice of the methodology of the study. This study chose the survey method as applied to research in the social sciences, because of the number of schools involved which were scattered over a large geographical area of the city of Nairobi, Kenya.

5.4   Summary of Findings

Research Question A: What is the extent of awareness among history teachers of the role resources and library use play in enhancing history teaching?

There was some evidence of awareness among the teachers of the role of resources and library use in the enhancement of history teaching. The form of awareness was simply that there was consciousness among the teachers. The majority of teachers could not state what

benefits could be achieved through the use of libraries. The teachers who indicated a high level of library awareness, by the nature of their use, were five-eighths of the total number of teachers. However, only a minority of these teachers indicated the activities of library use. The benefits were:

- Browse at books

- Read newspapers and magazines

- For reference to meet history curriculum questions

- Use the library as a study area

- Other undisclosed uses

Some teachers indicated that they encouraged their students to do library-based school projects. This may suggest that they are aware that libraries are an important resource for learning and teaching history. However, their awareness seems to have been very low because they had no interest in the library. The teachers could not identify materials available in libraries relevant to the curriculum. The awareness that the library was useful for students and subsequently the sending of students to use the library did not seem to be a reliable measure of teachers' awareness of the importance of libraries. This is because the teachers themselves did not effectively and efficiently use the library, as seen in research question B.

Research Question B: Are history teachers aware of the positive role of the use of information resources other than prescribed textbooks?

One of the indicators of knowledge of the school library collection is teacher involvement in book selection. If teachers select materials and the books are bought it is most likely that they would refer their students to appropriate materials. Teachers were asked about their participation in the selection of materials. At least three-quarters of the teachers participated in book selection. Half of the teachers had their books purchased after selection. However, very few teachers, less than a fifth, gave correct answers to curriculum-based questions. Teachers library search skills were poor. Resources in libraries such as *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and *Colliers* had answers to the curriculum questions. Given the poor library search and use skills it is likely that their selection choices were not informed choices as far as the needs of the library were concerned. Approximately 70% of teachers used the library. These teachers could have indicated that they used the library especially for curriculum purposes because they were expected to. Unfortunately, their use was poorly reflected in their search skills as observed earlier. It seems that teachers were not sure what materials were in the library and what materials were bought, even though they claim to have participated in the purchase of material. This is because of their failure to use them to address curriculum questions. If the material were bought they should have referred to the material. Only one teacher out of forty answered the question on Zaibatsu, which was asked to test their ability to use multi-sources for finding information.

The study found that teachers in the survey had attended colleges of education, with at least half having attended universities. There is a likelihood that they had discovered the value of multiple-resources in their education. However, this knowledge was not put to use by the teachers.

Based on the findings of the study, it appears that history teachers are minimally aware of the positive role of information resources, other than prescribed textbooks. However, it was evident that teachers were not very sure of the benefits which can be derived from the use of library resources for history teaching and learning. Teachers themselves indicated that library skills training should be included in the curriculum, yet they lacked the skills required to answer or deal with curriculum-based questions. The level of awareness of teachers of the role of the library in providing curriculum support was low.

Research Question C: How much use do teachers of history make of libraries to meet the history curriculum needs?

Indications from teachers with regard to this research question were that two-thirds of the teachers surveyed claimed to be active library users for the history curriculum. However, the inadequate answers given for the curriculum-based questions suggest that the teachers had not acquired required or adequate library skills. It seems that the teachers were conditioned to traditional teaching methods. It also seems that an enabling environment for good library use is lacking. Smith (1995:36) suggests that material should be analysed and collections assessed. Tallman and Van Deusen (1994:29) have suggested that even in conditions of co-operation between librarians and teachers, there is usually low input from subject teachers.

From this study it appears that most teachers failed to correctly answer curriculum-related questions put to them because they depended either on personal knowledge or a single text. A question on the role of Zaibatsu in Japan is an example. This may reflect teachers' inability to "discard" textbook-based teaching philosophy because information in textbooks is

packaged for easy use (Crawford 1996:402). Crawford (1996:408) suggests that teachers prefer textbooks because this demands less work at information gathering. Furthermore, in the study, about half of the respondents who gave an indication as to how they met answers to the curriculum questions indicated that they had used a textbook, own-collection or teachers' notes.

It is probable that teachers gave the impression of keen library use because it was expected of them by the system. This is the case, considering the expectation from the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) to promote resource-based teaching and learning. The teachers themselves stated that the history syllabus was wide, and therefore there were difficulties in its accommodation, given the time allocated. The finding to this research question was that although a majority of teachers claimed to use the library they do not appear to use it effectively. Only a minority appear to have been satisfied with the service they received and a substantial number were not sure whether or not the library helped them.

Many librarians do not hold university qualifications, as do their counterpart teachers in secondary schools. Indeed, some librarians hold no library qualification at all. Consequently, secondary school teachers more than likely regard librarians as inferior. For a better working relationship, librarians need training to place them on par with the teachers. Ocholla (1996: 155) has emphasized the importance of a course deliberately designed to instruct librarians in information resources for teaching and learning in Kenya. This could take into account the curriculum in schools.

In order for this to be successful, a policy on school libraries giving clear indications on its role and staffing requirements should be introduced in Kenya. There is currently no written policy and this has been to the detriment of library services because of erratic budgets and decisions which are important as far as the operation of libraries is concerned. Library resources, if well directed, with set budgets representing percentage of school income, could improve libraries. If this was undertaken in co-operation with the help of other established libraries in a manner similar to the one once operated by the Department of Education and Training in South Africa, with over 160,000 books (Le Roux, 1993: 4), it could offer needed services.

Research Question D: To what extent do library staff assist history teachers in meeting curriculum needs?

In order to achieve co-operation between teachers and librarians, mutual professional respect is essential. Librarians and teachers need to regard each other as colleagues. The investigation established that different status is given to teachers and librarians based on their qualifications. Many teacher librarians do not hold the same or similar "high" qualifications as teachers. Teachers therefore regard librarians as holding a lower rank than themselves and may not give them the professional respect they deserve. Consequently, there is no dialogue on professional matters. Librarians are kept out of discussions related to curriculum development in schools. Furthermore, book review, which is supposed to be done by librarians in co-operation with teachers, is not a common activity. In some schools librarians' professional standing mainly as academic colleagues was undermined by their being

allocated duties such as clerical work or catering meals in schools in addition to their library work.

Most of the librarians (about two-thirds) gave the indication that teachers were willing users of libraries. However, they were of the opinion that teachers needed to familiarize themselves with the collections. It is very likely that teachers and librarians did little consulting. This is in spite of the fact that teachers claimed they assisted in book selection. Reasons given of teachers poor search skills and their belief on holding a higher status in the school infringed on mutual co-operation. At the same time, the librarians indicated that the materials in the library were inappropriate for the curriculum and inadequate as well by their suggestion on the need for an improvement in library resources to meet curriculum requirements.

Teachers appeared to depend more on private collections to meet curriculum needs. Teachers who attempted the curriculum questions in the questionnaire gave the private collections as teacher collections. It must be noted that librarians were not consulted on some of the materials purchased in the school, including materials brought into the library. Experience in school libraries in Namibia has shown that school libraries fail to address curriculum needs (Totemeyer and Stander 1990:29). It seems, based on the teaching experience of the present researcher, that teachers in Nairobi schools opt for private collections when libraries fail to address their information needs. When conditioned to this form of information gathering, innovations prove difficult to introduce. Indeed, Smith (1995:7) has suggested that teachers resist change which brings additional demands on them. Demands which require extra time do not meet the approval of teachers, as Smith and Battams (1990:79) have suggested.

Budgets, where they were in place, allocated to the libraries, showed great disparity. There seems to be no formal library budgets that make up a percentage of school expenditure. Many schools do not seem to benefit from the Kenya National Library Services (KNLS) whose aim is to assist schools. Only three libraries out of sixteen received any help from KNLS. This, and the apparent weaknesses of librarians to know the collections in the library well enough, does not augur well for curriculum support.

5.5   Recommendation to the Findings of the Research Questions

Education of teachers in teacher training institutions needs to be revised in order to accommodate the library and the curriculum. For this integration to work, teacher training should introduce ways that require constant reminders of the role of libraries in the curriculum. Indications presented in this study point to a lack of serious concern of library skills among teachers. There must be ways of conditioning library use through practice among teachers in training institutions, by the Ministry of Education. This form of awareness should not end at teacher training institutions but librarians and principals at schools should reinforce library use awareness. Library use skills should form part of the curriculum in the institutions. Smith (1995:49) has suggested that librarian training should involve the ability to relate textbook content to information in reference books and outside information sources. This skill should be incorporated in teacher training. Teachers could be required to mount displays on a topical issue by the use of information found in sources other than textbooks. However, for this to take place, the merit of a wide syllabus to resource-based learning needs to be given serious consideration. Kiigi (1983: 7) gives the importance of resource-based education and indicates that the manner it is carried out in Kenya is inadequate because of a broad syllabus.

The integration of multi-sources in the teaching of history in Kenya should take into account the measures South Africa has undertaken in Outcomes Based Education (OBE) and resource use. Opposition to resource-based learning has been given in the literature, with Crawford (1996: 408) stating that textbook-focussed teaching is preferred because materials are packaged in a single source. In order for the library service to meet curriculum needs steps should be undertaken to involve the Kenya National Library Services (KNLS) in curriculum material production and support. Investigation by Totemeyer and Stander (1990: 40) has recommended a collection ratio of 60% non-fiction and 40% fiction. This would take into account qualitative aspects of materials. Government policy should stipulate that school libraries have adequate resources for all subjects. Trained staff should be in libraries to encourage teachers to use the libraries and not restrict themselves to private collections. Private collections are rarely adequate in the teaching of humanities, and especially of history, which requires multi-resources.

Furthermore, with a good collection in the library, teachers could be persuaded to use the library through fixed schedules, or could be time-tabled for library-oriented teaching. For this to be possible, subject teachers should undergo training in library search and reference skills. This can be through in-service training. A high degree of preparation would be needed, including the involvement of school principals.

Co-operation between teachers and librarians is critical for scholarship. Many librarians failed to offer teachers co-operation in the curriculum. Mukuvi (1990:51) indicated the low regard and status teachers give librarians. This has probably contributed to the low professional confidence teachers hold of librarians. There is a need to upgrade the qualifications and skills

of librarians. A quarter of the librarians had participated in in-service training. In many instances, librarians do not have qualifications, or they hold lower qualifications than those of the teaching staff. It is difficult for them to leave work. Joint effort by the ministry of education, the Kenya National Library Services (KNLS), the Kenya Polytechnic, and Moi University can initiate a programme. This programme should confer a qualification on its graduates. Written policy would also address library operating times and remuneration of librarians, as well as job descriptions.

5.6   Recommendations and Further Research

The actual impact of multi-sources in teaching and learning on examination results should be determined. This can establish if library use is critical to good examination performance. Knowledge of this would provide insight, especially into the promotion of resource-based learning as well as Outcomes Based Education.

The role of library education in post-secondary institutions could be investigated. This could establish the relevance of courses, because many teachers displayed poor library search skills. This would go a long way to establishing the credibility of the suggestion by teachers for the promotion of library education into the syllabus.

Whether a good library which is well resourced can change teachers' perceptions and interests, needs investigation. This can be seen in line with teachers; beliefs and practices (Oberg, 1990: 55), which govern behaviour.

Collection evaluation of school libraries and relevance of material needs to be undertaken. This is because material cannot be regarded as obsolete because of dated publication dates.

Book reviews by competent reviewers could establish the relevance of material. Collections held by school libraries, although old, could still be relevant.

Library use needs to be investigated in line with the information deficits that arise out of a classroom's interactive environment. The amount of information generated in the interactive environment in history classes could be identified possibly by recording by tape recorder class sessions. This curriculum-based approach could establish the level of information and the relevance given to this information.

Finally, given that only three of the sample of sixteen librarians were teacher librarians (teachers of English, as well as, being librarians), there is a need to investigate, in future research, whether teacher librarians are more effective in the incorporation of library activities into the curriculum than those librarians who do not hold a teaching qualification.

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APPENDIX A

KENYA CERTIFICATE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

HISTORY SYLLABUS

KENYA NATIONAL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL

KENYA CERTIFICATE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

REGULATIONS
AND
SYLLABUSES

1996-1997

311 HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT

GENERAL OBJECTIVES FOR HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT

By the end of the course the learner should be able to:

1. appreciate the importance of History and Government;
2. demonstrate an understanding of how people and events of the past have influenced the way in which people live and behave;
3. understand the social economic and political development of certain parts of the world and relate these to the history of Kenya;
4. derive through the study of history an interest in further learning;
5. develop the capacity for critical analysis of historical data;
6. appreciate the need for and importance of mutual social responsibility;
7. develop a sense of patriotism and national pride through participation in various development activities in the country.

1.0 INTRODUCTION TO HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT

1.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a) explain the meaning of History;
(b) explain the meaning of Government;
(c) identify the sources of information on History and Government;
(d) explain the importance of studying History and Government.

1.2 Content
- 1.21 The meaning of History.
- 1.22 The meaning of Government.
- 1.23 Sources of Information on History and Government.
- 1.24 Importance of Studying History and Government.

2.0 EARLY MAN

2.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a) describe the origin of man;
(b) explain the evolution of man through various stages;
(c) explain the culture of early man.

2.2 Content
- 2.21 Origin of man.
- 2.22 Evolution of man.
- 2.23 Way of life of early man.
    - (a) old stone age;
    - (b) middle stone age;
    - (c) new stone age.

3.0 DEVELOPMENT OF EARLY AGRICULTURE, INDUSTRY AND URBANISATION
3.1 Specific Objectives
   At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
   (a) explain why and how man came to keep animals and start growing crops;
   (b) describe early agriculture in Mesopotamia, Egypt and India;
   (c) explain how and why man became a tool maker;
   (d) identify the first metals used in tool making and explain their uses in Egypt, Mesopotamia, Kingdom of Benin and Central Africa;
   (e) explain how early iron working contributed to the development of food production in Africa;
   (f) state early sources of energy and explain their uses;
   (g) explain the impact of agrarian and industrial developments on urbanisation;
   (h) identify patterns of early urbanisation in Africa and Greece.
3.2 Content
   3.21 The beginning of crop growing and domestication of animals.
   3.22 Early Agriculture in:
       (a) Mesopotamia;
       (b) Egypt;
       (c) India.
   3.23 Early man and the development of tool making.
   3.24 Early uses of metals in:
       (a) Egypt: Bronze, Gold, Copper;
       (b) Mesopotamia: Bronze;
       (c) Kingdom of Benin: Copper, Bronze;
       (d) Central Africa: Copper, Gold.
   3.25 The Iron Age in Africa:
       (a) the development of iron making;
       (b) the consequences of iron making.
   3.26 Early sources of energy: wood, wind, water.
   3.27 Impact of agrarian and industrial developments on urbanisation.
   3.28 Early urbanisation in:
       (a) Africa;
       (b) Greece.

4.0 THE DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION UPTO THE MID-EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

4.1 Specific Objectives
   At the end of the topic, the learner should be able to:
   (a) define the meaning of transport and communication;
   (b) identify the early forms of transport and communication.

4.2 Content
   4.21 Definitions of Transport and Communication.
   4.22 Forms of transport:
       (a) human transport;
       (b) animal transport;
       (c) water transport such as boats, rafts, canoes and sailing ships;
       (d) land transport;
           (i) the invention of the wheel,

(ii) the use of the wheel in Mesopotamia and China,
(iii) its adoption in Africa and Europe,
(iv) types of roads - Roman, Macadam.
4.23 Forms of communication.
Early forms of communication:
(a) fire signalling;
(b) drum beats;
(c) messengers;
(d) horn blowing;
(e) written messages - scrolls, stone tablets.

5.0 EMERGENCE OF KENYAN SOCIETIES AND THEIR INDIGENOUS INSTITUTIONS UPTO THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

5.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a) explain the origin and spread of Kenyan peoples;
(b) compare the different ways of life of the Kenyan peoples;
(c) discuss the interaction among the Kenyan peoples;
(d) describe the main political, economic and social developments in Kenyan societies before the colonial period.

5.2 Content
5.21 The migration and settlement of the:
(a) Bantu;
(b) Nilotes;
(c) Cushites.
5.22 Political, social and economic organisation of the:
(a) Bantu;
(b) Nilotes;
(c) Cushites.

6.0 GOVERNMENT OF KENYA
6.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learners should be able to:
(a) explain the administrative structure of the Government of Kenya;
(b) spell out the rights and obligations of a citizen of Kenya;
(c) explain the meaning and importance of national integration;
(d) describe factors promoting and limiting national unity;
(e) explain the origins, structure and policies of national political parties.
(f) state the composition and functions of the three branches of the Government of Kenya;
(g) describe the structure and functions of local government in Kenya.
(h) state the functions of the armed forces, police and prison departments;
(i) discuss how the government raises and spends revenue.

6.2 Content
    6.21 Functions and duties of the P.C., D.C., D.O., Chief,
         Assistant Chief and Village Elders.
    6.22 The Bill of Rights.
         - The rights of the individual.
    6.23 National integration.
    6.24 Factors promoting national unity.
    6.25 National political parties:
         (a) origins;
         (b) constitution;
         (c) policies;
         (d) role in the government and nation building.
    6.26 The three branches of the Government:
         (a) The Legislature;
             (i)   composition,
            (ii)   functions,
           (iii)   the process of law making,
            (iv)   the parliamentary supremacy.
         (b) The Executive;
             (i)   the election, powers and functions of the
                   president,
            (ii)   the functions of the Cabinet,
           (iii)   the Civil Service (definition, functions and
                   responsibilities).
         (c) The Judiciary;
             (i)   the system of courts,
            (ii)   the independence of the judiciary,
           (iii)   the Rule of Law.
    6.27 Local Government:
         (a) functions;
         (b) powers and responsibilities;
         (c) relationship with the Central government.
    6.28 The functions of the armed forces, police and prison
         departments.
    6.29 Government revenue and expenditure:
         (a) national budget;
         (b) sources of government revenue;
         (c) government expenditure.

7.0 KENYA AND THE WORLD UPTO THE NINETEENTH CENTURY
7.1 Specific Objectives
    At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
    (a) identify early visitors to the Kenya Coast up to the
        end of the 15th century.
    (b) discuss the interaction between the Kenya Coast and
        the outside world and its impact;
    (c) explain the origins and the developments of the
        coastal settlements;
    (d) explain the factors that led to the spread of Islam in
        Kenya;
    (e) analyse the emergence of the Swahili culture;
    (f) explain the Portuguese intrusion on the Kenya coast
        and its impact;
    (g) describe the establishment and effects of Oman rule;
    (h) explain the factors that led to the spread of
        Christianity in Kenya in the 19th century.
    (i) explain the effects of missionary activities.

7.2 Content
  - 7.21 Early visitors to the coast.
  - 7.22 Development of trade between the Kenya Coast and the outside world upto 1500
  - 7.23 The foundation and the growth of city states at the coast.
  - 7.24 The spread of Islam and its impact in Kenya.
  - 7.25 The emergence of the Swahili culture.
  - 7.26 The coming of the Portuguese:
             (i)   reasons for their interest;
             (ii)   their conquest and rule;
            (iii)   the impact of Portuguese rule;
             (iv)   the decline of Portuguese power.
  - 7.27 Establishment and effects of Oman rule:
             (i) · the development of plantation agriculture;
             (ii)   the development, organisation and consequences of long distance and international trade.
  - 7.28 The spread of Christianity:
             (i)   reasons for the coming of Christian missionaries;
             (ii)   their activities;
            (iii)   effects of missionary activities.

8.0 AGRARIAN AND INDUSTRIAL CHANGES FROM THE MID-EIGHTEENTH CENTURY TO THE PRESENT DAY

8.1 Specific Objectives
    At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
    (a) discuss the impact of the agrarian revolution in Europe and North America;
    (b) analyse the food situation in Africa and other Third World countries;
    (c) describe the modern sources of energy and their uses;
    (d) explain the development and spread of the industrial revolution in different parts of the world;
    (e) discuss the effects of the industrial revolution.
    (f) describe scientific inventions and their impact.

8.2 Content
  - 8.21 The Agrarian revolution in Western Europe and North America.
  - 8.22 The food situation in Africa and other Third World countries.
  - 8.23 The industrial revolution in Europe:
             (a) uses of various sources of energy;
                   (i)   coal,
                   (ii)   oil,
                  (iii)   steam,
                   (iv)   electricity.
             (b) uses of Iron and Steel;
             (c) the textile industry in Britain;
             (d) urbanisation since the industrial revolution with special reference to Europe;
             (e) effects of industrial revolution in Europe.
  - 8.24 The scientific revolution:
             (a) scientific revolution;
             (b) impact of scientific inventions on:
                   (i)   Agriculture,
                   (ii)   Industry,
                  (iii)   Medicine.

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8.25 The Emergence of the world's industrial powers:
  (a) U.S.A.;
  (b) U.S.S.R.;
  (c) Germany;
  (d) Japan;
  (e) China.
8.26 Industrialization in the Third World:
  (a) Brazil;
  (b) India;
  (c) Egypt;

9.0 DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION FROM THE MID 18TH CENTURY TO THE PRESENT DAY

9.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a) explain various means of transport and communication and their development upto the present time;
(b) analyse the impact of modern means of transport and communications.

9.2 Content
9.21 Development of modern modes of transport:
  (a) Water Transport;
  (b) Railway;
  (c) Motor Vehicle;
  (d) Aeroplane.
9.22 Development of modern means of communication.
  (a) Newspapers and magazines;
  (b) Telecommunications;
    (i)   Cinema,
    (ii)   Radio,
    (iii) Television,
    (iv)   Telephone,
    (v)   Telegram.

10.0 TRADE

10.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a) trace the beginning and development of trade;
(b) describe different methods of trade;
(c) identify different types of trade;
(d) identify and analyse international trade agreements.

10.2 Content
10.21   The origin and development of trade.
10.22   Methods of trade:
  (i)   barter;
  (ii) currency.
10.23   Types of trade:
  (i)   local;
  (ii)   regional - Trans-Saharan;
  (iii) international - Trans Atlantic Indian Ocean.
10.24   International Trade Agreements with special references to GATT and UNCTAD.

11.0 RELIGIONS

11.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a) trace the origins of religious beliefs;
(b) describe the indigenous forms of religions;
(c) trace the origins, development and spread of major religions of the world.

11.2 Content
11.21   The origins of belief systems.
11.22   Indigenous forms of religion:
    (a) ancient Egypt;
    (b) the Yoruba;
    (c) the Maya.
11.23   Major world religions:
    (a) Hinduism;
       (i) origin,
      (ii) development,
     (iii) spread.
    (b) Christianity;
       (i) origin,
      (ii) spread of Christianity in Southern Europe,
     (iii) the Reformation and the split of the church,
     (iv) the establishment of mission churches in the 19th century in Africa,
      (v) the Independent Church Movement in Africa.
    (c) Islam;
       (i) origins,
      (ii) development,
     (iii) spread of Islam to Africa and its consequences.

12.0 EUROPEAN INVASION OF AFRICA AND THE PROCESS OF COLONISATION

12.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a) discuss the political, social and economic organisation of selected African societies in the 19th century.
(b) analyse the factors that led to European expansion overseas, with special reference to Africa;
(c) explain the methods used by Europeans to acquire colonies in Africa;
(d) analyse African response to European invasion and colonisation.

12.2 Content
12.21   African societies in the 19th century:
     (i) Buganda;
    (ii) the Shona and Ndebele;
   (iii) the Ashanti;
   (iv) Ethiopia.
12.22   Factors leading to European expansion in Africa,
12.23   The process of partition.

12.24   The African response to European colonisation
          with special reference to:
          (a)   Resistance;
                (i)   Ndebele,
                (ii) Menelik of Ethiopia,
                (iii) the Maji Maji,
                (iv) Samori Toure.
          (b)   Collaboration;
                (i)   the Lozi,
                (ii) the Baganda,
                (iii) the Saros (Creoles).

13.0 ESTABLISHMENT OF COLONIAL RULE IN KENYA

13.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a)   explain the main reasons for European invasion of
      Kenya;
(b)   describe the process of British occupation of Kenya;
(c)   explain African response to the British invasion;
(d)   analyse the system of colonial administration.

13.2 Content
13.21   Background to the scramble and partition of East
          Africa.
13.22   The British occupation.
13.23   The African response to the British invasion and
          occupation.
13.24   Colonial administration:
          (i)   Central Government;
          (ii) Local Government.

14.0 ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT DURING THE COLONIAL PERIOD IN KENYA

14.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a)   explain the main economic developments in the colonial
      period;
(b)   explain the social changes that took place during the
      colonial period.

14.2 Content
14.21   Transport and Communication:
          (a)   Railways;
          (b)   Airlines;
          (c)   Roads;
          (d)   Telecommunication;
          (e)   Postal services;
          (f)   Water transport.
14.22   Colonial land policies and their consequences.
14.23   Developments in Agriculture.
14.24   Mining and industry.
14.25   Money and Banking.
14.26   Urbanisation and its consequences.
14.27   Growth of social services:
          (i)   health;
          (ii) social welfare;
          (iii) education.

.5.0 POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS AND THE STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE IN KENYA - 1919 TO 1963

15.1 Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
(a) explain the origins, and activities of early political and social movements,
(b) Trace the origins and development of political organization after 1945
(c) trace the origins and the developments of independent churches and schools
(d) explain the development of trade union movement.
(e) explain the various nationalist movements and their impact.
(f) describe the constitutional and political changes leading to independence;
(g) analyse the roles played by leading Kenyan personalities in the 20th century.

15.2 Content
- 15.21   Early political organisations in Kenya:
  - (i)   East African Association;
  - (ii)   Young Kikuyu Association;
  - (iii)   Young Kavirondo Association;
  - (iv)   Kavirondo Tax Payers and Welfare Association;
  - (v)   Kikuyu Members Association;
  - (vi)   Ukamba Members Association;
  - (vii)   Taita Hills Association;
  - (viii)   Coast African Association.
- 15.22   The emergence of independent churches and schools.
- 15.23   The Trade Union Movement:
  - (i)   African Workers' Federation;
  - (ii)   Kenya Federation of Labour.
- 15.24   Political organisations after 1945:
  - (i)   Kenya African Union;
  - (ii)   District Associations;
  - (iii)   Kenya African National Union;
  - (iv)   Kenya African Democratic Union.
- 15.25   Constitutional changes leading to independence.
- 15.26   The independence constitution.
- 15.27   Biographies of Kenyan leaders:
  - (i)   Jomo Kenyatta;
  - (ii)   Tom Mboya;
  - (iii)   Ronald Ngala.

16.0 AFRICA IN THE 20TH CENTURY

16. Specific Objectives
At the end of this topic the learner should be able to:
(a) explain the different policies and methods, used by European powers to administer their colonies;
(b) trace the origins and developments of nationalism in Africa;
(c) explain political, economic and social developments and challenges since independence in Africa.

16.2 Content
- 16.21   Colonial administrative policies
             (a)   indirect rule in Nigeria;
             (b)   direct rule in Zimbabwe;
             (c)   assimilation in French West Africa with
                   special reference to Senegal.
- 16.22   Nationalism in:
             (a)   Algeria;
             (b)   Ghana;
             (c)   South Africa.
- 16.23   Political, economic and social developments and
             challenges since independence in:
             (a)   Tanzania;
             (b)   Zaire;
             (c)   Egypt.

17.0 POLITICAL SYSTEMS AND GOVERNMENTS

17.1 Specific Objectives
     At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
     (a)   Explain the growth and operations of parliamentary
           governments in Britain and France;
     (b)   discuss the operations of the Federal government in
           the USA;
     (c)   explain the working of one party rule in the USSR;
     (d)   identify and compare different types of constitutions.

17.2 Content
- 17.21   Growth of parliamentary governments with special
             reference to:
             (a)   Britain;
             (b)   France.
- 17.22   Federal governments with special reference to the
             U.S.A.
- 17.23   One party state with special reference to the
             U.S.S.R.
- 17.24   Types of constitutions:
             (a)   written;
             (b)   unwritten.

18.0 INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

18.1 Specific Objectives
     At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
     (a)   analyse the causes, course and effects of the first
           and second world wars;
     (b)   explain the origins and development of Pan-Africanism;
     (c)   analyse reasons for the formation, structure,
           functions and performance of major regional and
           international organisations;
     (d)   explain the causes and effects of the cold war;
     (e)   discuss the role of the non-aligned movement.

18.2 Content
- 18.21   The first and second world wars.
- 18.22   Regional and international organizations
             (a)   Pan-Africanism (origins, development and
                   performance);
             (b)   O.A.U. (formation, charter and functions);

(c)   East African Community;
                    (d)   Economic community of West African States;
                    (e)   P.T.A.
                    (f)   League of Nations;
                    (g)   U.N.O.;
                    (h)   the Commonwealth;
                    (i)   Non-aligned Movement.
    — 18.23   Causes and effects of the Cold War.

19.0 DEVELOPMENTS IN KENYA SINCE INDEPENDENCE

19.1 Specific Objectives
    At the end of this topic, the learner should be able to:
    (a)   explain the origin and development of national
           philosophies;
    (b)   discuss contributions of sessional paper No. 10 of
           1965 to development planning;
    (c)   explain and analyse political developments and
           constitutional amendments since independence;
    (d)   discuss Kenya's strategies for economic developments;
    (e)   explain and analyse the cultural developments in Kenya
           since independence.

19.2 Content
    — 19.21   Political changes and developments.
                    (a)   National philosophies
                            (i)   Harambee
                           (ii)   Nyayoism
                          (iii)   African socialism (Sessional Paper No.
                                   10 of 1965).
                    (b)   Constitutional changes since independence
    - 19.22   Economic developments.
                    (a)   District Focus for Rural Development.
                    (b)   The co-operative movement.
                    (c)   Land policies.
                    (d)   Role of statutory bodies in economic
                           development.
    — 19.23   Social and cultural changes.
                    (a)   Education.
                    (b)   Health.
                    (c)   Sports.
                    (d)   Cultural activities.

APPENDIX B

KENYA NATIONAL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL (KNEC)

REPORTS AND MARKING SCHEME

THE KENYA NATIONAL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL

1989 K C S E

EXAMINATION

REPORT

THE 1989 K.C.S.E REPORT

INTRODUCTION

The 1989 K.C.S.E. examination was the first examination in the secondary cycle of the 8:4:4 system of education. 131,805 candidates in 2140 examination centres sat for this examination.

This K.C.S.E. report is the first one of its kind marking the transition from K.C.E. to K.C.S.E. The intention of the Kenya National Examinations Council is to have the report published on a yearly basis.

The aim of this Examination report is to encourage and promote good teaching in the classroom. It highlights problem areas and gives advice to teachers on how various topics could be approached or taught better

The report focuses mainly on areas of the syllabus which pupils found difficult. Questions that candidates found difficult have been identified and discussed so as to assist teachers in improving their teaching.

Good performance was noted in Kiswahili, History and Government, Christian Religious Education, Islamic Religious Education, Hindu Religious Education, Agriculture, Technical subjects, German and Arabic. Considerable effort is however required towards the improvement of Physical Sciences, Biological Sciences, Maths, Drawing and Design, Economics, English, Biology, Commerce and Music.

One area that needs immediate attention is the provision adequate facilities especially in those schools that did experimental sciences for the first time with the advent of the 8:4:4 education system.

It is hoped that the comments and advice given in this
report are going to be translated into action by
teachers in the field and make teaching easier and more
meaningful. The report is meant to provide teachers with
guidance so that they may re-orientate their teaching
strategies accordingly in order to achieve the objectives
of the 8:4:4 secondary school curriculum.

We hope that all schools will find this document useful
and we will highly appreciate any useful comments
from teachers that can be incorporated into the next
issue of this report to make it much more useful.

Finally, I would like to commend the efforts of:
Mr. P.M. Kitui, Mr. I. Gicheru, Mr. C.J.P. Indongole,
Mr. M. Mbithi, Mr. J. Khakame, Mr. P. Wasanga, Mr. W. Mbilu,
Mrs. J. Wachira, Mr. F. Kyalo, Mrs. R. Nthamburi,
Miss R. Kaburia, Mrs. S. Ayoo, Mrs. M. Nzioki, Mr. E. Sumuni
Mr. B. Okoth, Mr. A. Nyanjom, Mrs. A. Obbayi, Mr. G. Mwanzia
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Mrs. L. Guantai, Mr. A. Khan, the officers in the computer
section and the secretaries who contributed to the
preparation of this report.

A. Yussufu
COUNCIL SECRETARY

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT

INTRODUCTION

The history and government examination had two papers namely;-

Paper I - history and government of Kenya
Paper II - selected themes in world history.

The table below shows performance in the two papers.

Table 1

	Number of Candidates	Mean	SD	Mode	Range of Marks
PAPER 1	130,788	42.66	13.59	44	03% - 89%
PAPER II	130,797	38.24	12.99	44	03% - 89%

The following conclusions can be drawn from the above analysis

(i)   On the whole, performance in History and Government was satisfactory.

(ii)   Paper I, with a mean of 42.66 was better performed than paper 2, with a mean of 38.24.

(iii)   The scores in Paper I show almost a normal distribution with the mean and the mode almost coinciding (i.e. mean 42.66, mode 44).

(iv)   In Paper 1, many candidates were able to obtain a mark of 44/100, which was above the mean score of 42.66, whereas in Paper 2, many candidates scored a mark of 36/100, which was below the mean of 38.24.

(v)   Whereas some candidates scored very high marks, 89/100, the weak ones, scored very low marks, 03/100.

(vi)   The range of marks scored by candidates in both papers was the same. The marks ranged between 03/100 and 89/100 in both papers.

2.   INDIVIDUAL QUESTIONS ANALYSIS

This section of the report will address itself to the questions with which candidates had difficulties, in both papers. In Paper 1 question 22,24 &26 are answered and questions 24, 25 and 26 in Paper 2. The main purpose of this section is to attempt to establish possible reasons for the poor

performance by candidates, in the above questions. Suggestions will be made, where possible, to teachers to help them improve their approach in the teaching/learning process. This, it is hoped, will go a long way in improving the performance of future candidates in the subject.

History and Government Paper I (III/I)

Question 22

(a) State five factors which contributed to the migration of the Maasai into Kenya by 1800.

(5 marks)

(b) Describe the political organisation of the Maasai in the precolonial period. (10 marks)

Question 22 (a) was well answered by candidates and they scored good marks. On the other hand, question 22(b) gave many candidates a lot of problems. Instead of giving a description of the political organization of the Maasai in the pre-colonial period, some candidates described irrelevant aspects of the History of the Maasai such as;

(i)   the causes of the Maasai civil wars of the 19th Century.

(ii)   economic activities of the Maasai in the 19th Century.

(iii)   life history of Laibon Lenana.

The responses of the candidates showed that this aspect of Maasai History was either given very superficial coverage or was not covered at all by teachers.

Perhaps it is important to advise teachers that they should discuss all important aspects (social-economic and political) of the history of all communities in Kenya before the coming of the Europeans, as stated in the syllabus.

Question 24

(a) State five grievances which Africans in Kenya had against the colonial government between 1920 and 1939. (5 marks)

(b) Explain the role played by Thomas Joseph Mboya in the struggle for Kenya's independence between 1952 and 1963. (10 marks)

Question 24 (a) was reasonably well done. Most candidates stated the grievances of the Africans as demanded by the question. However, some candidates disregarded the time limit (1920 - 1939) and gave irrelevant points. Question 24(b) was not properly interpreted by some candidates. Many candidates took it to mean a description of Tom Mboya's life history without clearly identifying the role he played in the struggle for independence. As a result, they scored very low marks in this question.

Question 26

(a) What role does the Kenya Constitution play in the governing of the country? (5 marks)

(b) Describe the constitutional amendments which took place in Kenya between 1964 and 1982. (10 marks)

Question 26 (a) gave many candidates a lot of difficulties. Many candidates had no idea about the Kenya constitution, let alone its role. As a result they described irrelevant points such as;

(i) functions of parliament in Kenya

(ii)   the process of law making in Kenya

(iii)   events leading to independence in Kenya.

Such irrelevant discussions led to loss of marks by candidates.
Question 26(b) was equally disastrous. Candidates knew very
little about the amendments which took place between 1964 and
1982. Some candidates described the changes which took place
after 1982. Thus most of the answers given were irrelevant.

History and Government Paper 2 (III/2)

Question 24

(a) State three ways in which steam power was used in the nineteenth century.   (3 marks)

(b) Explain the results of the development of air transport.   (12 marks)

Question 24 (a) was well answered by most of the candidates.
However, question 24(b) gave some candidates a lot of problems.

Candidates described at length, irrelevant points such as;

(i)   the invention of planes

(ii)   advantages of the invention of planes.

Such irrelevancies led to poor performance in the question.

Question 25

Discuss the way in which the Roman Empire was governed. (15 marks)

Question 25 was misunderstood by many candidates. Instead of discussing the way in which the Roman Empire was governed, they described the myths about the founding of the Roman Empire. Candidates showed complete ignorance of the demand of the question. In fact, it appeared that many candidates had not been taught this topic. The majority of them, thus relied on guesswork. The scores in this question were very low.

Question 26

(a) State three factors which contributed to the spread of Christianity to Southern Europe by the end of the fourth century. (3 marks)

(b) Explain why the Christian Church split in the sixteenth century. (12 marks)

Question 26 (a) was reasonably well attempted by candidates. However, some weak candidates presented irrelevant answers and described factors which facilitated the spread of Christianity in Kenya.

Question 26 (b) was on the other hand, misinterpreted by many candidates Many of them ignored the date, 16th Century and discussed the general factors which have led to the split of the church in Kenya. Most of them, thus managed very low scores in this question.

Guidance to Teachers

(i)   Performance by candidates revealed that certain areas of the syllabus were either inadequately covered or not covered at all. This put the candidates in a very difficult situation as they had to rely on guess work and general knowledge to answer questions from the areas they did not cover. Perhaps, at this point, it is important to remind the teachers that all areas of the syllabus are crucial and should be adequately covered, especially under the present system where question choices have been reduced considerably.

(ii)   The above analysis shows that candidates read questions hastily and responded to them without making proper interpretations thus giving irrelevant answers. Teachers should endeavour to help the candidates understand the importance of reading questions carefully, interpreting them correctly before attempting to respond to them. This can best be realized by teachers through exposing candidates to rigorous training on essay writing.

(iii)   Candidates ignored key parts of questions; such as dates/years and the parts which have been printed in bold. It is important that teachers bring the attention of candidates to these points. This is because failure to observe such requirements of questions led to presentation of irrelevant answers by candidates, resulting in very low scores.

The Kenya National Examination Council.

Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education.

History and government Paper 2

Marking Scheme

1989

<u>SECTION A</u>

(1) D

(2) B

(3) C

(4) A

(5) C

(6) D

(7) D

(8) C

(9) D

(10) B

(11) A

(12) B

(13) A

(14) B

(15) D

(16) A

(17) A

(18) C

(19) B

(20) D

Any 20 points a mark each (20 mins)

(a)   List two items which were exchanged for slaves on the West African coast during the

Trans-Atlantic trade.

- Cotton cloth

– Ornaments e.g beads

– Guns and gunpowder

– Alcoholic beverages e.g. rum, spirits, whisky

– Foodstuffs (sugar, sweets)

– Metal and iron bars, copper wire, glassware/mirrors, utensils, soap, tobacco, brass.

Any two points, 1 mark each   (2 marks)

(b)   State three ways in which slaves were obtained in West Africa. Slaves which fed the

Trans-Atlantic trade were: obtained in several ways. These included;

(i)   Raids organised by individual traders/chiefs

(ii)   Warfare/the sales of captive of war

(iii)   Abuse of power by leaders who sold their subjects

(iv)   Slaves were obtained by exchanging them with other goods

(v)   Slaves were obtained through kidnapping and

(vi)   Panyarring i.e becoming a slave to pay a debt.

Any 3 points, 1 mark each   (3 marks)

(c) Describe how the Trans-Atlantic trade was organised.

    (i)   The Trans-Atlantic slave trade was operated along three triangular routes, i.e Europe to West Africa, West Africa to the New World, the New World to Europe.

    (ii)   The trade involved European traders, African middlemen and plantation owners. Nationality name also get mark i.e. Portuguese, Dutch, British, and French. (All three also mark).

    (iii)   The trade involved the use of both barter and money.

    (iv)   The slaves were transported by boats, canoes and ships.

    (v)   The slaves were bought and sold in different market centres in West Africa.

    (vi)   There were established places where slaves were kept while awaiting shipment or collection to their destinations. For example forts, castles and barracoons.

    (vii)   After the slaves were captured in the interior they were forced to march long distances to the coast.

    (vii)   After the Trans-Atlantic journey the slaves were sold by auction in America.

Any 5 points 1 mark each (5 marks)

(d) Explain the effects of Tran-Atlantic slave trade on West African communities.

    (i)   West Africa lost millions of people through slave trade; it has been established that about 20 million people were transported to the New World.

    (ii)   Loss of labour:-West Africa lost the most productive members of the society. This disrupted agricultural productivity.

    (iii)   Industrial decline:- progress in the local industries declined as a result of the slave trade.

(iv) Intensification of warfare:- slave trading activities led to warfare which in turn created insecurity in the region.

(v) Growth of slave merchants:- a class of slave merchants grew in West Africa. Some became political leaders.

(vi) Changes in the roles of chiefs:- The chiefs changed their roles instead of being the custodians of the people, they condemned their subjects and sold them to slavery.

(vii) Social changes:- the enslavement of mainly the male members of society resulted in changes in social roles.

(viii) Political changes:- the slave trade made some states grow strong and rise to power.

(ix) Growth of mulatto population:- the slave trade led to the rise of mulatto population along the West African coast. (intermarriage)

(x) Expansion of urban centres:- the trade led to the expansion of urban centres.

(xi) Decline of the Trans-sahara trade:- The Trans-Atlantic slave trade contributed to the decline of the Trans-Saharan trade.

(xii) Africans developed a taste for European manufactured goods.

(xiii) It led to destruction and loss of property

(xiv) Led to de-tribalization and splitting of families/deculturazation.

(xv) The trade led to the decline of some states.

(xvi) There was human suffering and misery.

(xvii) Loss of life.

Any 10 points, 1 mark each (10 marks)

22. (a) State five factors which led to the Agrarian Revolution in Britain .

    (i)   Land consolidation: For instance the introduction of land enclosure which put an end to strip farming. As a result more land was brought under production and more land could be ploughed by one farmer.

    (ii)   Development of new methods of breeding livestock.

    –   More scientific methods of breeding in which animals with suitable characteristics were chosen and interbred. Selective breeding led to the development of new breeds and improved meat production.

    (iii)   Development of new tools for farming.

    –   New farming tools and implements were invented which helped increase agricultural productivity for instance the use of seed-drill, Rotherham plough, the application of steam engines, threshing machines and tractors.

    (iv)   Development of new methods of maintaining soil fertility.

    –   The new crop rotation system allowed for continuous use of land without exhausting soil fertility. By the mid 19th century, factories were sent up to produce chemical fertilizers.

    (vii)   Development of agricultural research.

    –   In the nineteenth century scientist in universities and research institutes carried out research to improve soils and crop yields. New seeds and agricultural journals spread the result of the research to farmers.

(vi)   Impact of the industrial revolution:-

–   The development of modern agriculture with the industrial revolution, industrialization provided for agricultural sector with inputs and markets.

(vii)   Development of scientific methods of preserving agricultural products.

–   The development of canning and refrigeration facilities made it possible for farmers to produce perishable foodstuffs for domestic use and exports.

Any 5 points, 1 mark each (5 marks)

(b)   What were the effects of the Agrarian Revolution in Britain ?

(i)   Growth of population:-

–   Increased agricultural production contributed greatly to rapid population growth in Britain. Availability of more food lowered mortality rates and increased life expectancy.

(ii)   Growth of capitalist farming:-

–   The changes associated with the development of modern farming in Britain such as the introduction of closures to the concentration of land in the hands of a few people who became professional farmers.

(iii)   The development of wage labour in agricultural sector:-

–   As a result of the agrarian revolution, the farmers came to rely increasingly on hired wage labour to work the land and not serf labour as during feudal times. In this way capitalist farming came to characterise modern British agriculture.

(iv) Growth of working class:-

− The creation of landless peasants only left them with one option. In order to survive, and that was to seek wage-employment on the farms or in the towns where new industries were emerging. Thus a class workers began to emerge.

(v) Class-conflict:-

− Numerically two working class was much larger than the capitalist class, but the latter was politically and economically stronger. The polarizations of relations between the workers and the capitalists led to the emergence of class conflict in Britain society.

(vi) Emergence of new forms of agricultural crises:-

− Modern agriculture in Britain lacked in built safety valves to sustain it in the face of industrial crisis. For example from 1873 to the mid 1890's when prices of agricultural produce fell sharply, farmers were unable to pay rents to their landlords or wages to their workers, thousands of workers were evicted, or their farms were left derelict. Britain was forced to import large quantities of food from abroad. Thus further depressing prices for local produce.

(vii) Availability of more and cheaper food.

(viii) The work and research of the Royal Agricultural Society attracted outside interest and intensified scientific research to cater for the increased needs of farmers.

(ix) The use of machines in farming led to decrease in demand for farm labourers.

(x) Both local and international trade increased.

(xi) More industries developed.

(xii) Improvement of transport system.

(xiii) Emergence of specialised skills

(xiv)   Emergence of landless peasants

(xv)   Search for jobs led to rural urban migration

(xvi)   Emigration of British nationals to U.S.A., Canada, New Zealand, Australia and East Africa.

(xvii) The price of land increased considerably.

Any 10 points, 1 mark each (10 marks)

23.   Discuss the factors which led to industrial growth in Japan after the second world war.

(i)   America aid- In September, 1945 the Japanese surrendered to the Americans and America became the occupying power in Japan. Anxious to prevent Japan from falling under the control of communists, the USA poured money and technical know-how into Japan. This enabled Japan to build many industries.

(ii) The existing industrial base-:

Before the second world war broke out, Japan had already   attained a certain level of industrial development. Huge industrial combines, the Zaibatsu were already in existence. Although many of these were damaged during the war, they were not completely destroyed. They were repaired after the war and provided a base for Japan's industrial development in the post war period.

(iii)   Availability of skilled labour/High standard technical education:-

–   Since Japan had already became an industrial country, she had skilled workers. This enabled the country to industrialize very fast.

(iv)   Cheap labour:- After the war, Japanese who had settled in territories which Japan had conquered, returned back home so there was a constant supply of cheap labour. This made the cost of industrial production cheap.

(v)   Hard work:

–   The Japanese have a tradition of working hard. After the second world war, they continued with this tradition. They worked hard to rehabilitate their factories and this contributed to rapid industrial growth.

(vi)   Good industrial relations:-

–   Japan was fortunate in having good industrial relations. She experienced relatively fewer strikes and industrial disputes. This led to uninterrupted production and growth.

(vii) Investment policy:-

–   After the war the Japanese government encouraged industrialists to plough back most of their profits. In addition, the government and the industrialists worked together in making long term industrial plan.

(ix   Japanese goods are cheaper and economical and easily available. Therefore they are in high demand.

(x)   Open minded economic policy has led to easy international trading relations (neutrality).

(xi)   Little land suitable for farming therefore the alternative is industry.

(xii) Transport and communication network is highly developed.

(xiii) Well developed hydro-electric power system.

(xiv) Existence of natural harbours.

(xv)   Japan makes use of existing raw materials like silk, cotton and copper and can

afford to import other raw material like oil, iron ore, scrap metal etc.

(xvi) Foreign investment in Japan and Japan's investment in foreign countries has favoured industrial growth.

(xvii) Political stability:-

– Japan enjoyed a period of political stability. The 1947 constitution which the Americans sponsored ensure the retention of Japan's old political institutions. Hirohito who had been emperor since 1926 was retained in his post. This political stability encouraged entrepreneurs to invest in industries.

Any 8 points, 2 marks maximum (15 marks)

24. State three ways in which steam power was used in the nineteenth century.

(i) Steam power was used to pump water from the mines.

(ii) The power was used for driving ships.

(iii) Steam power was used for driving locomotives.

(iv) It provided energy in factories.

(v) To drive vehicles/steam carriages.

Any 3 points, 1 mark each (3 marks)

(b) Explain the results of the development of air transport.

(i) Promotion of international cooperation:

– People from different countries use plane to travel to various parts of the world, to attend conferences and discuss issues of international nature. For example representatives of various countries travel to New York, to the United Nations

General Assembly.

(ii)   Expansion of Trade:

–   Planes are used to transport goods from one country to another and this has
         contributed to the development of regional trade. The use of air transport has
         promoted business teams within the country and states.

(iii)   Promotion of cultural interaction:-

–   Air transport has facilitated cultural interaction between world communities. For
         example students exchange programmes, cultural groups and circus exchange
         programmes.

(iv)   Loss of life: plane crashes.

–   Tragic air accidents have claimed many lives.

(v)   Environmental pollution:-

–   Air travel has contributed to environmental pollution through discharging gasses
         and fuel into space. It has also caused sonic pollution especially the noisy
         concord.

(vi)   Increased destruction of lives and property. Intensified military warfare.

–   The use of aircraft in modern warfare has revolutionised warfare. It has also
         increased the magnitude and intensity of life and property.

(vii)   Undermining shipping/rail/road transport

–   the development of air transport has affected the shipping. Very few people use
         ship to travel to other far places. Mainly on competition.

(viii)   Provision of employment:-

–   Air transport has generated employment opportunities to many people. For
         instance the pilots, stewards, hostesses and engineers.

(ix) Widespread international terrorism:-

- Development of air transport has led to air terrorism through hijacking of planes.

(x) Speedy transport:

– Speedy air transport has facilitated the movement of people and goods in different parts of the world. For instance air lifting food aid by international relief organizations, perishable goods and flying doctors.

(xi) Planes are used to spray pesticides so as to protect crops against pests. They are also used to break hailstones and to cause rainfall.

(xii) Facilitated space exploration for scientific and military purposes.

(xii) Has made possible aerial surveys, photographs, maps, etc.

(xiv) Has facilitated movement in inaccessible areas where other means of transport cannot reach.

Any 6 points 2 marks (12 marks)

SECTION C

25. Discuss the way in which the Roman empire was governed.

(i) The Roman Empire had a centralized political system. At the head of the administration was the emperor.

(ii) Powers of the emperor

The Emperor exercised absolute powers over the empire. His word was final. Emperors were chosen from those who had excelled in tasks of leadership.

(iii)   Division of the Empire:-

–   The Empire was divided into metropolitan Rome and the provinces. Metropolitan Rome was under the direct rule of the Emperor while the provinces were ruled by provincial Roman governors.

(iv)   The role of the senate.

–   The Emperor was assisted by the senate in Rome and the Senatorial provinces.

–   The senate was mainly composed of members of the aristocracy. Under the senate were various departments, for example the treasury.

(v)   A group of government officials were deployed from the Emperor's domestic servants, was responsible for the daily administration of the central government.

(vi)   The Constitution:-

–   There was a constitution which spelt out the laws through which the Empire was governed. The laws were based on the principles that the people were the foot of power and that free citizens had rights and duties. However, in reality rulers grew more despotic. The slaves and citizens barely had rights.

(vii)   Role of provincial governors:-

–   The main function of provincial governors were general supervision of legal justice, tax collection and military protection. The nature of their power varied depending on how far away they were from Rome and the attitudes of local people of the Empire.

(viii) Local administration of the provinces:

–   Each province was further divided into smaller units under people recruited from provincial people. Indirect rule was   applied at this level.

(ix) Armed forces:-

– For both internal and external defense, the empire kept a large army. The military legions were usually recruited from citizen volunteers, although some non-citizens were recruited and given citizenship on enrolment.

(x) The Roman empire had two distinct classes-the nobility/patricians and commoners/phlebians. The nobility   constituted the ruling class and possessed a lot of wealth.

Any 8 points, 2 marks (Max. 15 marks)

26. (a) State three factors which contributed to the spread of christianity to Southern Europe by the end of the 4th century ?

(i) Missionary work of the Apostles:

– The Apostles especially Paul and Peter visited many parts of Southern Europe and introduced christianity there. They established churches in Southern Europe. For example Antioch and Corinth.

(ii) Missionary work of the early converts in Southern Europe:

– The early converts in Southern Europe spread christianity within the region in such places as Rome. This was because the christian teaching required that converts should spread the message of the gospel. They were determined to fulfil the mission.

(iii)   Persecution of christians:-

–   The christians converts in the Roman Empire were persecuted because their beliefs and practices contradicted the Roman traditional religion. As a result some christians fled to different parts of Southern Europe and spread christianity in the process.

(iv)   Emperor Constantine's support for xtianity:-

–   When Emperor Constantine was converted to Christianity he declared it the official religion of the Roman Empire. As a result the missionaries were able to spread christianity without fear of persecution.

(v)   The appeal of christianity:-

–   Christianity appealed to many people because it was a new religion and its message of hope appealed to the oppressed and lowly. Some people were also attracted to christianity by the courage, faith and lifestyle of the believers.

(vi)   Good roads made it easier to spread christianity.

(vii)   Peace and security in the Roman Empire enabled Apostles and missionaries to move freely.

(viii)   The existence of Latin and Greek which were two popular languages led to the spread of Christianity.

Any 8 points, 1 mark each   (3 marks)

(b)   Explain why Christian Church split in the 15th century?

(i)   Translation of the Bible.

–   By the beginning of the 16th century the bible has been translated into many languages in Europe. the bible thus became freely accessible to many christians in

Southern Europe. their exposure to the teachings of the Bible made them question the teachings of the clergy.

(ii) Ccorruption among the clergy: simony and nepotism.

– Widespread corruption extended into the clergy. For example church leaders bribed their way to higher positions. As a result much malpractice many people disliked in the church.

(iii) Life of the luxury led by the clergy.

– The clergy led a life of luxury which was contrary to their teachings.

(iv) Selling of indulgences.

– According to the christian tradition if someone sinned he was expected to make up for his sins by performing an act of self denial. By the early 16th century the practice had concentrated into asking for forgiveness by paying huge sums of money to the church leaders. This malpractice encouraged the rich into habitual sin because they could easily pay off their sins and those of their family. This practice was condemned by reformists such as Martin Luther.

(v) Development of printing press:-

– The development of the printing press in the early 16th century made it possible for the critics of the Church to circulate their ideas to the people for example Martin Luther published his criticism of the church and made them spread all over Europe. Such writings not only exposed the weakness of the church to the people but also made them lose confidence in the church.

(vi) Conservatism of the clergy

– The clergy were not ready for change.

(vii) Absolute powers of the pope/political and religious powers.

– The reformists exposed the absolute powers of the pope.

(viii) Growth of nationalism in Europe:-

– Part of opposition appear as the result of the growth of natives nationalism. It involved independence in trying clergy in civil courts instead of church courts, independence in matters concerning marriage, divorce and inheritance.

(ix) Excessive wealth of the church

– The church had become far too wealth and this caused theenvy and criticism of the rulers and reformists.

(x) Immoral practices of the clergy who were supposed to be celibate. They kept mistresses and many christians criticised this.

(xi) There was opposition to some church doctrines and ceremonies.

(xii) The renaissance weakened traditional sentiments of reverence by which traditions of the Roman church had been supported.

Any 7 points 1 mark (7 marks)

27. State five methods which TANU used in the struggle for independence.

(i) Political education:

– TANU organised political rallies throughout the country and educated the people about their political rights and why British rule should come to an end.

(ii) Use of trade unions:-

– Most of TANU officials were trade unionists/strikes/go-slow. They thus used trade unions to encourage workers to stage strikes against their white and Asian employers.

(iii) Protests and demonstrations:-

–   TANU mobilized the masses to demonstrate and protest against the colonial administration.

(iv) TANU used the mass media to articulate their grievances and popularize their ideas.

(v) International forums:

–   As a mandated territory of the U.N. Tanganyika enjoyed a   special relations with the organisation. TANU was therefore able to use the U. N. to express their grievances. For example in 1955 and 1956 Nyerere visited the U.N. headquarters in New York and won international support for his demand for independence. The U.N. then put pressure on Britain to grant Tanganyika independence.

(vi) Negotiations:- TANU demanded for constitutional conferences and used the forum to negotiate for Tanganyika's independence.

(vii) Active participation in multi-racial elections of 1958-59.

Any 5 points, 1 mark   (5 marks)

(b) What problems did the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) experience during the struggle for independence?

(i) Government harassment:-

–   The British colonial administrators who did not want to hear the movements demand for independence, harassed the officials by denying them permission to address political rallies and also closed down some of its branches in Tanganyika. As a result of this harassment, some of TANU meetings had to be held in secret.

(ii) Internal divisions:- There were internal divisions in TANU. While Nyerere and other party officials were willing to accept independence under a multi-racial

constitution, some TANU members opposed this and wanted a purely African-led government. For example in January 1958 when TANU held its annual conference at Tabora and decided to take part in elections later that year, under a multi racial constitution, members who opposed this move formed the African National Congress (ANC).

(iii) Religious differences:-

– TANU faced problems from some sections of the Muslim community in Tanganyika who felt that the party was dominated by christians. For example, in september 1959, the All Muslim National Union of Tanganyika demanded that Tanganyika should not become independent until Muslims in that country had attained greater educational opportunities. Britain used its demand to support her view that Tanganyika was not yet ready for independence.

(iv) Opposition from non-Africans:- Europeans and Asians feared for their lives and property under a government led by Africans. Thus they opposed TANU and demanded that Tanganyika achieve her independence under a multi racial government. In order to achieve this goal they formed the United Tanganyika Party (UTP) in 1956. The UTP was sponsored by the colonial administrators.

(v) Opposition from chiefs:-

– Some Africans who had been appointed paramount chiefs by the colonial government opposed TANU. They feared that if Tanganyika was granted independence they would loose their positions. For instance chief Thomas Marealle of the Chagga who had been appointed a paramount chief in 1952, opposed TANU.

(v) Inadequate funds:-TANU did not have enough funds to carry out its activities effectively. e.g. organising political rallies and mass mobilization.

(vii)   Poor communication network:-

–   Tanganyika had poor communication network. She had few all-weather roads and

           a limited number of railway lines. TANU officials therefore found it difficult to

           travel and carry out the activities of the movement effectively.

Any 5 points, 2 marks   (10 marks)

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRES

QUESTIONNAIRE A

This questionnaire is designed for history and government teachers in Nairobi secondary schools. An introductory letter from the Department of Information Studies, University of Natal is available on request. Teachers are kindly requested to fill all relevant parts of the questionnaire. The information you provide will be treated as confidential. The research aims at assessing teacher information needs to meet the history and government Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education Examination.

Please circle the appropriate answer

1.   Which forms do you teach history in your school?

(a) Form 1   (b) Form 2   (c) Form 3   (d) Form 4

2.   How many history periods do you teach per week?

(a) 3   (b) 6   (c) 9   (d) 12   (e) over 12

3.   Which of the following libraries do you use for your history teaching needs?

(a) None   (b) School library   (c) Public (Kenya National Library/Municipal)

(d) International organization library e.g. British Council

(e) Other. Please specify ....

4.   Of the above in question (3) which one do you prefer?

(a)   (b)   (c)   (d)   (e)

5.   Do you select history books for your school?

(a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, how many times per 4 years ....

6.   Are the books you select purchased by the school?

(a) Yes   (b) No   If no, give reasons why

....

....

....

....

7.   Do you use the library for curriculum based questions/queries?

....

....

....

....

Questions 8, 9 and 10 represent types of questions that appear in the Kenya National

Examination Council examination/marking scheme. If you were to answer questions 8, 9

and 10, what process and sources would you use to give satisfactory answers?

8.   In which African rebellion was the Chaminuka-Mutota Cult used as a unifying factor?

....

9.   Give two contributions of the Zaibatsu in the industralisation of Japan after the Second

World War

....

....

10. Give one Maya belief on the beginning of creation?

....

....

11. What procedure did you use to get material to answer questions 8, 9 and 10?

....

....

....

12. How frequent do you visit the library for subject reference purposes per week?

(a) Once   (b) Two times   (c) Three times   (d) Over three times   (e) Never

13. When you borrow library material which of the following do you choose?

(a) History textbooks   (b) Historical biographies   (c) Video cassettes

(d) Audio cassettes   (e) Other, Please specify ....

14. If you are a user of the school library, circle the activities you peform

(a) Browse at books   (b) Read newspapers and magazines

(c) See information from libraries to answer history queries/problems (reference)

(d) Other, Please specify ....

15. Do you give class projects to your students which require the use of the school library?

   (a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, how satisfactory does the library meet the

                            requirements of the projects?

   ....

   ....

   ....

   ....

   ....

16. Are the history and government textbooks you use adequate for KCSE examination

   purposes?

   (a) No   (b) Yes

   Give reasons for your answer

   ....

   ....

   ....

17. Are you a past or current examiner of the Kenya National Examination Council?

   (a) No   (b) Yes

   How many years have you attended the marking exercise?

   ....

18. Are you a trained examiner of the Kenya National Examination Council and has not

   attended the marking exercise?

   (a) No   (b) Yes

19. Are you a member of a history subject panel such as the Kenya Institute of Education Panel?

   (a) Yes   (b) No

20. What is the name of your school?

   ....

21. How many KCSE history topics in the current syllabus were part of your history learning in College/University?

   ....

22. What qualification do you hold?

   (a) Diploma   (b) Approved Teacher Status   (c) Bachelors degree

   (d) Masters degree   (e) Other. Please specify ....

23. What University/College did you attend?

   ....

24. Did you take library instruction as part of your Certificate, Diploma, Degree?

   ....

25. Do you teach a subject that has library instruction as part of the curriculum?

   (a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, Please specify ....

26. Does the library meet your teaching information needs?

(a) Very unsatisfactory   (b) Unsatisfactory   (c) Satisfactory

(d) Very satisfactory   (e) Not sure

27. Should library skills be incorporated into the history syllabus?

(a) Yes   (b) No

Give reasons to support your answer

....

....

....

28. List as many titles as you can on books available in your school on KCSE history

....

....

....

....

....

....

....

....

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....

....

29. What recommendations can you suggest towards meeting the scope of the syllabus by history teachers?

....

....

....

....

....

....

Thank you for your co-operation

QUESTIONNAIRE B

This questionnaire is designed for librarians working in secondary school libraries in Nairobi. An introductory letter from the Department of Information Studies, University of Natal is available on request. Librarians are kindly requested to fill all relevant parts of the questionnaire. The information you provide will be treated as confidential. The research aims at assessing history teachers' information needs.

1.   What is the size of your school library collection?

      (a)   Books   ....

      (b)   Magazines/comics   ....

      (c)   Maps   ....

      (d)   Audio-visual and Audio   ....

      (e)   Other, Specify   ....

2.   How many titles of history books are there?

      ....

3.   How many copies of history books does your library hold?

      ....

4.   How many history teachers use the library per week?

      (a) None   (b) Up to 25%   (c) 25-50%   (d) 50-75%   (e) Over 75%

5. Please rate the collection of your library by marking the correct answers

    (a) Satisfactory for Paper 1 of the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

    (b) Satisfactory for Paper 2 of the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

    (c) Unsatisfactory for Paper 1 of the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

    (d) Unsatisfactory for Paper 2 of the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

    (e) I am not sure

6. Do you weed out your history collection?

    (a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, how often?

    ....

7. Have you discarded books once the syllabus has changed and later the section(s)

    reintroduced?

    (a) Yes   (b) No   If yes, how often?

    ....

8. Do you seek the advice of history teachers in weeding out of books?

    (a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, give reasons

    ....

    ....

    ....

    ....

    ....

    ....

9. Do you remain open at these times?

(a) Tea break   (b) Lunch time   (c) Class time   (d) After school

(e) All these times

10. Do you think teachers are:

(a) Willing   (b) Unwilling   to use the library?

Give reasons

....

....

....

....

11. Do you serve in any curriculum committee such as the timetable committee?

(a) No   (b) Yes

12. Do you have a library budget?

(a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, who is responsible for budgeting library

expenses?

....

13. Is it a separate budget from other school expenses?

(a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, how much is the budget per year?

....

14. Are you consulted in the purchase of history library material?

    (a) No   (b) Yes

    If yes, give the frequency

    (a) Never   (b) Up to 25% of the time   (c) 25-50% of the time

    (d) 50-75% of the time   (e) Over 75% of the time

15. Does your library receive assistance through membership in another library?

    (a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, what assistance?

    ....

    ....

    ....

16. What qualification do you hold?

    (a)   Certificate in librarianship

    (b)   Diploma in librarianship

    (c)   Diploma in education

    (d)   Bachelor degree

    (e)   Other, Please specify ....

17. How many years have you worked as a school librarian?

    ....

18. In which school do you work?

    ....

19. Have you received any work training or attended a workshop organised by any other library?

(a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, which one/ones?

....

....

....

....

20. If you are a teacher-librarian, how many periods per week do you teach?

....

21. If you are a librarian other than a teacher librarian, do you have other school duties?

(a) No   (b) Yes   If yes, what duties and how many hours per week?

....

....

22. What suggestions can you give for better use of the library particularly by history teachers to meet the requirements of the examination?

....

....

....

....

Thank you for your co-operation

APPENDIX D

DOCUMENTS AUTHORIZING THE RESEARCH

REF. .... OP/13/001/26C/38/2 ....15th July....19.96

The Secretary,
National Council for Science and Technology,
P.O. Box 30623,
NAIROBI.

RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

APPLICANT (S)   JAMES MURIITHI KIMOTHO

The above named has been authorized to conduct research on

THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY IN TEACHING OF HISTORY IN NATIONAL AND PROVINCIAL

SCHOOLS IN NAIROBI AND MOMBASA

As indicated on the application form, this research will be conducted in

MOMBASA AND NAIROBI

For a period ending ____ 30TH AUGUST 1996

Under the Standing Research Clearance awarded to Kenyan Universities/Public
Institutions.

I herewith enclose copies of his/her application for record purpose. He/She has
also been notified that we will need a minimum of two copies of his/her research
findings at the expiry of the project.

R.M. WANASAKAAMI
FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY/PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION

CC.

P.C. Nairobi   JAMES M. KIMOTHO,

Hyayo House,   P.O. BOX 49640,

NAIROBI.   NAIROBI.

P.C. Coast Province,

P.O. Box 90424,

MOMBASA.

James Kimotho
Department of Information Studies
University of Natal
Private Bag X01
Scottsville
PIETERMARITZBURG
5 September 1996

Education Attache
Kenya High Commission
302 Brooks Street
Menlo Park
PRETORIA

Dear Sir

RE: AUTHORIZATION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH IN KENYA

I would like to bring to your attention matters arising in regard to undertaking research in Kenya. I am a Kenyan national enrolled in the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg. I am enrolled for a Masters in Information Science in the Department of Information Studies.

In July 1996 I registered with the Office of the President, Provincial Administration and Internal Security to undertake research on the **role of the school library in teaching of history in national and provincial schools in Nairobi and Mombasa.** I was issued with a permit ref **OP/13/001/26C/38/2.**

My attempts to proceed with the research in Mombasa, Coast Province were unsuccessful because the Director of Education, Coast Province did not allow me to visit any school in Mombasa.

I kindly request you to intervene in this matter so that I can successfully re-schedule the research.

Thank you in anticipation

yours sincerely

James Kimotho

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

JOGOO HOUSE
HARAMBEE AVENUE
P.O. Box 30040
NAIROBI

......25th October,........, 19 96

Mr. James Kimotho
C/O Department of Information Studies
University of Natal
Private Bag Xol
SCOTTOVILE
PLETERMARITZBURG
3209
SOUTH AFRICA

RE: SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN NAIROBI AND MOMBASA

Your letter of 1st September 1996 is acknowledged
with thanks.

This Ministry has noted your complaint and wish to
observe that since you were granted a research permit
it is for you to approach the Institutions of interests for
co-operation as you conduct your research.

This Ministry has therefore no active role in the matter.

KIMATHI M'NKANATA
for   PERMANENT SECRETARY

James Muriithi Kimotho
P.O.Box 49640
NAIROBI.

28 th February, 1997

Chief Inspector of Schools
Jogoo House
P.O.Box 30426
NAIROBI.

Dear Sir,

RE: RESEARCH ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT AND THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY.

I kindly request permission to visit the schools listed below in March 1997 to undertake research on the subject under reference above.

I am a second year Masters of Information Science student at the University of Natal in South Africa.

The Office of The President has issued me with Permit number OP/13/001/26C/38 to enable me to do research in the country. I would be most grateful if you formalize the research clearance to enable me to visit schools.

Schools to be visited:-

Nairobi School
Aga Khan High
St. George's Secondary
State House Girls
Parklands Boys
Aquinas High
Ofafa Jericho High
Highway Secondary
Moi Forces Academy
Eastleigh Secondary
Our Lady of Fatima
Lenana High
St. Teresa's Boys

Moi Nairobi Girls
Upper Hill High
Dagoretti High
Nembu Secondary
Mutu -ini Secondary
Precious Blood Riruta
Starehe Boys
Ngara Girls
Muslim Girls
Jamuhuri High.

An official list of all public secondary schools in Nairobi will assist in this research. This list will be handed over to the research supervisor.

Yours faithfully,

James M. Kimotho.

Telephone: Nairobi 24344-9
When replying please quote

Ref. No. INS./.B./.1.9./.2./.1.3.8
and date

CHIEF INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS
INSPECTORATE
. P.O. Box 30426
. NAIROBI

..............7th.March.........., 19.97..

To All Principals
Nairobi Secondary Schools
NAIROBI

RE: VISIT TO SCHOOLS FOR RESEARCH
      MR. JAMES M KIMOTHO

This is to inform you that Mr. James M Kimotho, a second year Masters
of Information Science student at the University of Natal in South
Africa is authorised to visit Nairobi Secondary Schools to carry
out his research.

He is expected to do the following:-

1. Meet History and Government teachers.

2. Meet librarians in the schools.

3. Disperse questionaires for History and Government.

4. Collect questionaires filled by teachers.

This research should be accomplished by 31st March, 1997.

Any assistance given to the researcher will be highly appreciated.

ENOS O OYAYA
for: CHIEF INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS

Copy to: The Provincial Director of Education
           Nyayo House
           NAIROBI

APPENDIX E

LIST OF NAIROBI PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN NAIROBI

BY CONSTITUENCIES

A.   Mathare Constituency

    1.   Kamiti Secondary

    2.   Our Lady of Fatima ▪

    3.   Ruaraka Secondary

    4.   St. Teresa's Girls Secondary

B.   Langata Constituency

    1.   Langata High School

    2.   Moi Nairobi Girls ▪

    3.   Upper Hill Secondary

    4.   Lenana High School ▪

C.   Dagoretti Constituency

    1.   Dagoretti High School

    2.   Precious Blood Riruta ▪

    3.   Nembu Secondary

    4.   Mutuini Secondary ▪

    5.   Ruthimitu Secondary

    6.   Kangemi High School

D.　Starehe Constituency

    1.　Starehe Boys School

    2.　Pumwani Boys School

    3.　Pangani Girls School

    4.　Jamuhuri High School

    5.　Ngara Girls School ▪

    6.　Muslim Girls School ▪

E.　Westlands Consituency

    1.　Aga Khan High School ▪

    2.　Nairobi School ▪

    3.　Arya Parklands School

    4.　Hospital Hill High School

    5.　Parklands Boys High School

    6.　Kenya High School

    7.　State House Girls School ▪

    8.　St. Georges Secondary School ▪

    9.　Nairobi Milimani Secondary School

F.　Embakasi Constituency

    1.　Dandora Secondary School

    2.　Kayole Secondary School

G.   Makadara Constituency

1.   Buruburu Girls School

2.   Huruma Girls School

3.   Ofafa Jericho High School ■

4.   Aquinas High School ■

5.   Uhuru Secondary School

6.   Our Lady of Mercy School

7.   Highway Secondary School ■

8.   Nile Road Secondary School

H.   Kamukunji Consituency

1.   St. Teresa's Boys Secondary School

2.   Maina Wanjigi Secondary School

3.   Moi Forces Academy ■

4.   Eastleigh Secondary School ■

5.   Kamukunji Secondary School

■   Schools where the study was conducted