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Educational Objectives for the Study of History

A suggested framework

JEANETTE B. COLTHAM, M.A., Ph.D.

in collaboration with

JOHN FINES, M.A. Ph.D.

HISTORY DEPARTMENT

ST. LUKE'S COLLEGE

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Educational Objectives for the Study of History

A suggested framework

JEANETTE B. COLTHAM, M.A., Ph.D.

*Senior Lecturer in Education
Department of Education
University of Manchester*

in collaboration with

JOHN FINES, M.A., Ph.D.

*Senior Lecturer in History
Bishop Otter College, Chichester*

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Educational Objectives for the Study of History

TEACHERS of history in many parts of the country are now trying to formulate objectives for the study of their subject. This framework is put forward as a possible aid to them in a task which all admit to be a difficult one. Here, we try to spell out the constituent parts which need attention in the learning of the discipline, and to bring out the relationships between those parts. Perhaps the word 'framework' suggests some rigidity, but this is certainly not intended. The process of learning is a dynamic one and there is continual interplay between learners, teachers and materials. Examination of something as fluid as the learning process is always difficult, and the provision of a framework is an attempt to give some structure to the exercise. But it needs to be remembered that, even when one part of the framework is being stressed, it is always related to the other parts.

So here, a four-part structure is described. These four parts appear to be the most useful and most appropriate for examining the learning of history. But we would emphasise that the connections between parts are as important as the individual components themselves. By using a diagram and by including references from one section to another, we have tried to show how the various parts are connected.

We are attaching a very particular meaning to the term 'educational objective'. It is simplest to demonstrate this meaning by first saying what it is not. We are not referring to very general aims—e.g. to understand the ideas of others; to express one's own ideas effectively. Nor are we referring to aims concerned with the teacher's behaviour—e.g. to encourage a concern for the past. The first kind expresses praiseworthy but very general goals; the second example describes how the teachers, and not how the learners, are to act; the teacher, in the example, will do the encouraging. An 'educational objective', then, describes firstly, what a **learner** can do as a result of having learned; and secondly, it describes what an observer (usually the teacher but it could be any interested person) can see the learner doing so that he can judge whether or not the objective has been successfully reached. And thirdly, the objective, in describing what the learner will

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have achieved, also indicates what educational experience he requires if he is to achieve the objective. For example, one educational objective could be: Uses his own experience to explain the described behaviour of a character. This is something, let us say, which a history teacher would like pupils to do. He can, by listening to an oral account or by reading a written account, know whether or not pupils are using this kind of explanation when dealing with some historical character whom they are studying. Moreover, the teacher has already stated, when framing the objective, that he is going to instruct or suggest to the pupils that they should draw on their own experience when the task is to explain the character's behaviour. Thus, this one objective includes a stated goal, a description of the learner's behaviour when he has reached that goal, and a description of the learning activity which he must undertake in order to attain the goal. Obviously, the framing of educational objectives is not an easy task and, usually, much refinement of language and argument about clarity is required before satisfactory objectives are produced.

The overall pattern used here is this. First the whole framework is set out and a general description of its content given. The connections between the four main parts are then demonstrated. Next, each part is explained separately and, for each, examples of relevant educational objectives are provided. In no case are these examples meant to be more than examples; no attempt is made to be exhaustive. Each set of objectives is intended to be representative of its category, and it is hoped that study of the examples will both inspire and guide teachers in the framing of other objectives appropriate to their own pupils and to their own school situation.

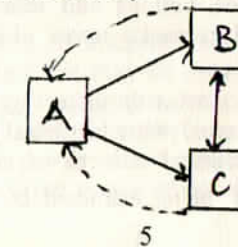
To start with, then, here are the headings and sub-headings for the whole framework:

A.	ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE STUDY OF HISTORY	(Pages 6-9)
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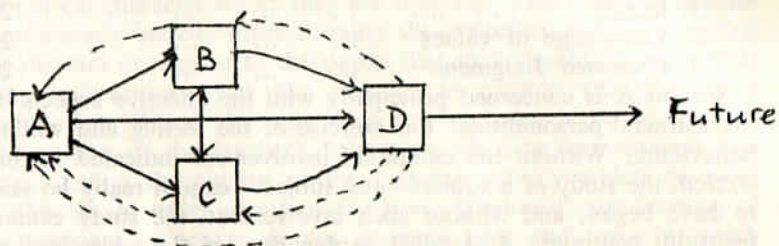
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1.	Insight	25
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Section A is concerned principally with the affective aspects of the learners' personalities; the exercise of the feeling and willing behaviours. Without the emotional involvement indicated in this section, the study of a subject—any subject—cannot really be said to have begun; and without such involvement, the study cannot fruitfully continue. A detailed explanation of the objectives of this and the other three sections in relation to history will be given later. Feeling and willing cannot be exercised in a vacuum, and section B gives an analysis of the particular form of knowledge, history, towards which these affective behaviours are to be directed. In section C are set out the skills and abilities relevant to the kind of knowledge described in section B. Sections B and C are thus primarily concerned with cognitive behaviours. In the last section, D, there is a return to the affective area when outcomes of the study and practice of history are described in terms of their contribution to the personal development of the learner, both cognitive and affective. The connections between succeeding sections can be seen.

The sections are interconnected, however, not only each to its neighbour in a forward direction. The motivational behaviours (A) can be expected to act upon the acquisition of skills and abilities (C) as well as upon the content of historical study (B); A is connected with C as much as with B. But further, the nature of the knowledge encountered and an increasing mastery of the skills and abilities required to handle it should, through the satisfactions enjoyed, sustain and possibly increase the motivational behaviours; there is a circulatory in the connections which can be illustrated thus:



Similarly, sections B and C are both connected with section D which, again through satisfactions enjoyed, can be expected to reinforce, and so maintain, the motivational behaviours. The whole framework needs to be seen as showing direct connections between parts and circular connections overall, with the outcomes (D) also projecting into the future when the learners are beyond the direct influence of a planned instructional situation.



In order to explain the application of this structure to the study of history, each section will now be examined in turn; the nature of the various behaviours, together with examples of evidence of their existence, will be described.

Section A ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE STUDY OF HISTORY

The three behaviours in this section are all conative (or willing) behaviours. The individual acts of his own volition; indeed, no one can force another to be attentive, responsive or imaginative in the sense intended here.

1. *Attending* The kind of positive action looked for is best described in objectives such as 'Shows interest in . . .', 'Notices . . .', 'Makes observations on . . .', 'Is curious about . . .'. Since the material of historical study (section B) consists of the human race and its activities, relationships, products, etc., it is interest in, and observations of and about these phenomena that indicate achievement of this objective. Manifestations of the learners' 'attending' might appear in comments on features of their environment and daily lives. Examples of specific objectives might be:

Shows an interest in people, from the points of view of their characteristics, actions and relationships

Distinguishes and remarks upon objects of an historical nature

Shows interest in stories (younger age), books (older ages) and pictures (all ages) with historical content

Comments on historical content of contemporary features

The attitude is one of 'being attracted by' any of the range of

materials which can be called historical, and is one which is certainly susceptible to encouragement and nourishment by teacher action.

2. *Responding* The range of possible objectives here is large and of varied nature; the nature may well differ with the age of the learners. Activity which stems from some encounter with historical materials and which is entirely the result of the initiative of the learners, indicates a willingness to follow up, reinforce, repeat or extend, or even to check upon first apprehension of, an observation or experience. Such behaviour is well described in terms of 'eager', 'enthusiastic' or 'with the imagination fired'. The following are examples of indications of 'responding':

Communicates observation or experience to others orally (to parent, teacher, other children)

Initiates dramatisation or model-making or pictorial representation

Collects materials (objects, newspaper cuttings, pictures, book references, etc.) relevant to initial observation or experience

Requests repetition of initial experience or similar ones (e.g. 'Tell us another story like that', 'Can we go there again?')

Asks questions relevant to observation or experience

The important point about such behaviours is that they are voluntary and not adult-directed; at the same time, through the kind of adult response to the learners' 'responding', they are susceptible to greater or less continuance and intensity.

3. *Imagining* Since the material of history consists principally of human beings' activities in the past, study of this area of knowledge demands conative effort on the part of the learner to enter into, as it were, 'the shoes' or 'the skins' of people met only through such evidence as a description or a portrait. The term 'historical imagination' is sometimes used in framing objectives; more refined definition of what is required from the learner can help to make objectives, and thence classroom practice, more precise.

While 'imagination' at its simplest requires the formation of an image in the mind—and this may be pictorial or verbal—historical imagination requires not only this but usually something more; the words 'sympathy' and 'empathy' are useful here. Sympathy can be defined as 'the power of entering into another's feelings or mind', and empathy as 'the power of entering into another person-

ality' and 'imaginatively experiencing his experience'. If a study of humans and their many activities is to demand something more than external acquaintance, sympathetic and empathetic behaviours are necessary. Such behaviours are, perhaps, only a little more than a particular form of 'responding'; but they are very specific to the study of history, in which, for example, a person's action can be understood only by seeing some problem, predicament or decision from *his* point of view, or a biography is achieved only by breathing life into an assembly of many small pieces of evidence.

The kind of imagining intended here might be recognised in the following objectives:

Describes an historical incident with signs of personal involvement

Constructs a story about a period in which characters are portrayed in the round

Peoples an historic building with characters who are true in action and thought to the particular period

Represents in dramatic form feelings and actions according to human experience and historical evidence

Identifies with a character under study so as to be able to declare the view-point of this character on problems (etc.) contemporary to him/her

It is clear that the behaviours here examined are dependent on encounters with the material of history (section B) in increasing amount, and on some forms of ability in handling this material (section C); also, the successful exercise of imagining is likely not only to motivate but also to facilitate further such exercise. The interconnections and overall circularity of this part of the framework are demonstrated. Moreover, this kind of behaviour, while under the affective control of the learner, is susceptible to nurture by the teacher. In that exercise in this activity is central to the study of history, it presents a potential contribution to individual personal development through vicarious experience of humanity (section D).

The three behaviours in section A have in common, not only their affective nature—the conative effort, the willingness to act in these ways—but also the necessity that they appear at all ages and stages for effective learning of history to take place. In other words, the three headings do not describe a development sequence; if the sequence were developmental, then only 'attending' would be expected of the youngest learners, with 'responding' and 'imagining' being developed as age increased. But all three behaviours are

equally required for a proper study of historical material at all ages. It can be said that the behaviours themselves form a kind of sequence—that responding follows attending, although the two *could* occur so closely as to be almost simultaneous; that imagining cannot occur except as an outcome of attending and responding. It can also be said that repeated practice of the behaviours—and especially the third—is likely to make volition easier and to lead to more deliberate performance; in other words, when practice is satisfying, greater commitment to such behaviours is probable as age increases, and this point will be taken up again in section D.

Another aspect of the three behaviours is their range of intensity; this is certainly not connected simply with chronological age but is dependent rather on the nature of the stimulus and on the learners' previous experience. Study of one rather than another particular character, incident or artefact may give rise to greater activity in these areas with a given group of pupils, because, for this group, some common experience makes responding or imagining easy. Certainly, the intensity of emotional activity is not a direct function of age since a high level of attentive, responsive and imaginative behaviour can be looked for as much in a sixth former as in a primary school child; individual differences in personality and experience are, of course, contributory factors. Undoubtedly, the nature of the stimulus—the actual historical material under study—can help to promote a high level of conative effort, and teachers' experience suggests that the age of the pupils is a relevant consideration when selecting material. But teachers' experience also suggests that most material can arouse the required behaviours at a satisfactory level of intensity at any age according to the specific aspect examined and the depth to which study is taken. For example, the topic of slavery and its abolition can attain involvement at several ages. While younger children might well be able to enter imaginatively into the situations of being a slave and being a slave-owner, a longer experience of human nature and its motivational forces might be required before learners could enter into the attitudes and interests—and an understanding of actions consequent on these—of those fighting for the retention or for the abolition of slavery. The main point is that the promotion and maintenance of the affective behaviours under consideration are objectives for every age and every stage in the learning of history.

Section B THE NATURE OF THE DISCIPLINE

Every branch of knowledge (or discipline) has developed and is defined by the nature of the information with which it deals,

the particular procedures used to collect and to organise that information, and the kind of products resulting from the organising procedures. The demarcation lines between one discipline and another are not, of course, as clear cut as this statement might suggest; nevertheless, it is possible to separate out the information, procedures and products which essentially constitute a given discipline.

1. *Information* In the case of history, the relevant information consists of evidence about humanity—its nature, actions and activities. This evidence is available in many forms, and some—e.g. maps, geological information—are shared with other disciplines. Strictly speaking, the information relevant to history consists only of material in this primary source form. However, no learner (and no historian) could proceed far without use of secondary source material, which can be defined as products (B3) of the application of the collecting and organising procedures (B2) to primary source material. A great deal of secondary source material is accepted as established fact, public knowledge or received opinion and is taken on trust. No one doubts, for example, that the battle of Waterloo took place in June, 1815; it is such common knowledge that the expression 'to meet one's Waterloo' can communicate an idea without reference to details of the battle. But any account of the event is secondary source material which has, in the past, been pieced together from a variety of types of evidence.* As happens in the pursuit of any discipline, present practice stands on the shoulders of previous practice and makes use of the available products.

It is not easy to frame educational objectives in relation to the information of history, especially in relation to secondary source material, since it is not possible, and is probably undesirable, to stipulate that certain facts are the essential ones pertinent to the discipline. Here, selection has been made to give no more than *examples* of the kind of information which appears to be of some importance when history is considered as one element in a general education.

(a) Primary sources:

Recalls types of material which may be examined as evidence

*It is, of course as is all secondary source material, always open to re-examination and checking against previously-known and newly-found evidence, but this task is normally undertaken by practising historians rather than by learners.

e.g. artefacts	pictures
portraits	documents—printed and written
monuments	buildings
photographs	maps
myth	legend
folklore	literature
music	statistics
reminiscence	etc.

Distinguishes between different kinds of closely allied source material: e.g.

myth—legend—record
folklore—reminiscence

Recalls which specific techniques are appropriate to different kinds of source material: e.g. palaeographic, diplomatic, translation (from one language into another), statistical and economic analysis, archaeological

(b) Secondary sources:

Recalls in context the required names and terms (N.B. All illustrations are intended as *examples* and not as essential pieces of information)

e.g. names of constituent elements of the whole range of human behaviour (curiosity, hatred, fear, affection, jealousy, ambition, thought, belief)

names of particular places, peoples or groups of people associated with specific events (no attempt is made to select any from the host of such names)

names of events of varying kinds (Domesday Survey, Arctic expedition, Crimean war, Roman invasion of Gaul)

names of things used and invented by man (objects classified as weapons, tools, domestic objects, art products, machinery, textiles)

names of techniques developed by man (inventions for subsistence—farming, fishing; for communication—writing, book production, telegraphy; for manufacture—in making, in processing)

categories of specific types of human activity and experience (cultures—Minoan, Roman, Victorian, western, etc.; political groups; socio-economic groups; institutions and kinds of authority structure)

theories and ideas (balance of power, supply and demand, zeitgeist, Renaissance, spheres of influence, nationalism)

Can give examples of:

point of origin of a change affecting the human condition (first railway journey, smashing the atom, radio-telegraphy and the arrest of Crippen, flight of the Wright brothers)

organised trends (Baconian science, female emancipation, Roman imperialism, Lutheranism)

underlying trends identified only some time after the events which constitute them (spread of literacy, industrial pollution, feudalism, fall of the Roman empire)

2. *Organising Procedures* In this section, the agreed ways of handling the information of history, so as to arrive at a product are set out without the addition of detailed objectives, which appear to be more appropriately placed in section C—*Skills and Abilities* in the practice of history. The main argument for this arrangement is that only as he masters the relevant skills will the learner come to know what historical method is (learning by doing). It could also be argued that only if he is aware beforehand of the nature of the skill which he is aiming to master—if he has received at least a description of the activity—can he be expected to undertake it purposefully and be able to repeat the procedure on different material. Certainly, at some stage—either before, during or after the process of practising each of the various skills—the pupil should be able to demonstrate a knowledge of what the necessary procedures are, by verbalisation or some other means, if he is to be said to have learned them. Therefore, only one overall objective is given for this section and that should be interpreted in the light of the points made above.

Knows that the following are the main procedures to be applied to primary and secondary source material:

- (a) Exploratory examination of a single piece of evidence or single product
- (b) Collection and examination of all evidence from primary and/or secondary sources relevant to an interest, and from other disciplines if appropriate
- (c) Establishment of nature and actual framing of questions (or selection of one from among possible questions) to be asked of the evidence

(d) Evaluation of source material in terms of:

- | | |
|---|---|
| (i) authenticity | (viii) agreement with evidence's contemporary culture, political thought, etc. |
| (ii) relevance | |
| (iii) coherence | (ix) agreement with personal experience and knowledge of human nature and behaviour |
| (iv) credibility | |
| (v) reliability | |
| (vi) completeness | |
| (vii) consistency within itself and with other material | |

(e) Recognition of any gaps in evidence, and pursuit of appropriate action by e.g. further search, extrapolation forwards or backwards from collected evidence, interpolation from own fund of knowledge and experience, acceptance of inevitability of gap for the moment

(f) Analysis of source material, primary and secondary, so as to:

- (i) detect existence of points of view
- (ii) detect bias
- (iii) separate fact from value judgment
- (iv) recognise unstated assumptions
- (v) separate out elements in complex material
- (vi) identify connections between parts of complex material and the nature of connections: temporal (concurrent, sequential, etc.), behavioural (motivation, etc.), causal

(g) Synthesis:

- (i) of new element with previously organised body of knowledge
- (ii) of evidential material with items from own fund of knowledge and experience
- (iii) of materials culled from more than one source, using some organising principle—e.g. temporal relationships, cause-effect relationships

3. *Products* Whilst the products of the practising historian are most frequently met in written form, those of the learner can take many forms; the examples given below against each of the distinguishable types of product are intended to demonstrate the variety of possibilities, rather than to be exhaustive. The types of product are distinguished by the broad questions which each attempts to answer. Since a product is the result of applying skills (section C) in the matter set out in the previous sub-section (B2),

again no detailed objectives are given; the following is the obvious overall objective:

Can independently create all the main types of product

Type of product	Broad questions	Examples of products
(a) Reproduction and Description	What is (or was) it (or he or she) like? What happened?	model, dramatic presentation, picture, diagram, chart, map, precis (of primary or secondary material), portrait of person or group (oral or written), portrait of a period or aspect of a period, narrative of event or sequence of events
(b) Comparison	What is (or was) the difference? What is the change?	two or more models, pictures, dramatic presentations, etc., oral or written account of change, comparative portrait or narrative
(c) Explanation & Interpretation	How do you account for what happened or for a difference? Why did things happen thus and in no other way?	oral discussion or explanation, debate, written account, biography

Neither the three sub-divisions of this section nor the elements within the sub-divisions are intended to show developmental sequences. Although at a given time, learners might be giving attention only to, say, mastering some skill relevant to an organising procedure and, at another time, only to creating a product, such concentration on one kind of activity would not be determined by chronological age. All three aspects constituting the discipline will be ongoing together since they are so completely interdependent. There are, however, some slight qualifications to be made about each sub-division in relation to the age of the learners.

✓ *Sources:* For the younger learners, it might be helpful to select primary source material which relates as far as possible to the school or home locality; such material is particularly likely

to intensify responding behaviour (A2) when the rewards of the discipline are hardly known, and the use of the environment as a source of exploration is a practice generally recognised as especially appropriate to the education of young children. For secondary source material, there is an obvious need to select at least in part in relation to chronological age throughout school life. The level of writing and the easiness or difficulty of the concepts introduced are clearly related to the cognitive abilities—and hence partially to the chronological age—of the learners. While secondary source material can be one of the means whereby more advanced concepts are acquired, if the distance between present understandings and those used in the text be too great, muddled ideas and distaste for historical material may well be the consequences.

Organising procedures: While there is a logical order in the procedures as set out, there is no in-built psychological development related to chronological age. For example, a young learner can achieve synthesis of materials from more than one source—(g)(iii)—using, say, museum exhibits and pictures to produce a model, without subjecting the materials to any evaluative procedures but having taken them on trust—perhaps, with trust in the museum personnel and his teacher! His organising principle would be contemporaneity—i.e. all parts of his model were in existence at the same point in time, even if not always found in the same place. At a point close in time, he might also be attempting to master an evaluative procedure on other material. In other words, the younger the learner, the fewer the procedures that he can be expected to use in conjunction; the teacher or other authority (e.g. the secondary source) exercise some procedures for the child in order that one may be isolated and practised. An analogy with a learner of piano playing may be useful: he can practise playing one part of a piece using one hand only, with an experienced player to make a duet, before he plays both bass and treble as a solo performer using two hands.

Products: In the order given, the broad questions do indicate a progression in the use of an increasing number of techniques of increasing complexity. But the youngest learners can attempt to create an explanatory product—(3(c))—as long as the medium is oral and not written language, and the nature of possible explanation is within their experience. In other words, the form and actual content of the product may be related to chronological (or mental) age while the activity itself is not.

Overall, the only important objective is that learners shall proceed to independent operation in all the sections described here, and that, in so far as the descriptions are accepted as constituting the study of history, learners shall acquire knowledge of them all so that their products are truly their personal versions of history.

Section C SKILLS AND ABILITIES

In this section are set out the main cognitive behaviours, in terms of skills and abilities, which are necessary for the effective study of history. Each is expressed in terms of its relation to the form of information with which the discipline deals, with reference to the procedures and products where pertinent. In framing objectives for each category of behaviour, there is a difficulty in deciding at what level to pitch them; the achievement of some can be expected to need short or fairly short learning time (e.g. the preliminary steps in mastering reference skills), though once learned, they may be much used. Others (e.g. those concerned with making value judgments) may be long-term objectives, requiring periodic practice throughout the years of schooling so that cumulative practice results in some proficiency, yet that proficiency may be susceptible to improvement throughout life. Some most necessary but small achievements may sound quite trivial when spelled out as objectives; others may sound no more than pious hopes because they are of a long-term nature. However, no attempt is being made to provide an exhaustive list; it is hoped that the most important and the most essential objectives have been included. Each objective is framed so as to show the behaviour of the learner when mastery has been achieved, and thus to give an indication of a fairly precise purpose for the teacher. At the end of each category, references are given to other sections in this document to which it particularly relates.

1. *Vocabulary acquisition* Since history is a discipline of a highly verbal nature, a grasp of its terminology is obviously an important objective, contributing to achievement in all aspects of its study (section B 1, 2, 3). Concepts represented by the terminology vary, of course, in their difficulty, which is related to their degree of concreteness and abstractness, and to their closeness to or distance from the learner's experience. Not only are the cognitive skills of organising (and reorganising) percepts into simple concepts, and simple concepts into classes needed, but memorisation (3 below) is required too. It is not possible to set out here the range of relevant concepts in order of difficulty; rather, the examples of objectives indicate some areas of recognised difficulty in vocabulary acquisition in history.

Distinguishes between general and specifically historical meanings of commonly used words (church, trade, land, revolution, culture, etc.)

Gives examples to demonstrate understanding of specific terminology (franchise, feudalism, etc.)

Uses specific terminology correctly in context, oral or written

Use correctly basic time indicators (year, decade, century, etc.)

Refers to groups of elements in temporal terms correctly (period names, mediaeval, etc.)

Uses terminology appropriate to a period (Roman/tribune, French revolution/sans culottes, etc.)

Describes a procedure for handling material using correct terminology (consistency, bias, etc.)

See: B1(a), (b); B2(d), (f); B3

2. *Reference Skills* These are required for obtaining, checking and retrieving specific facts and pieces of information, particularly but not entirely, from secondary sources. The majority are closely related to, and logically follow on from, the basic reading skills; however, their use on the material of history necessitates their inclusion among objectives for its study.

Uses the alphabetic system to locate items speedily

Uses index with agility and imagination (thinks of alternatives when item not found under key-word)

Uses with speed and accuracy contents headings as guides to required material

Uses with speed and accuracy main types of reference books (encyclopaedia, Concise D.N.B., street directories, etc.)

Scans a section of book or article to locate information needed

Selects appropriate work of reference for present purpose

Can operate film-strip projector to find required frame

Can work tape-recorder

Can use grid references

See: B2(b), (e)

3. *Memorisation* The retention of some of the information encountered cannot but be expected, but it would be unwise to try to specify which, amongst the large quantity, are items which ought to become part of the learner's mental stock-in-trade; in only one objective are precise items of information mentioned and then only as examples of a possibly desirable behaviour. The

selection here presents the same difficulty as that for terminology (1 above), of which some items—whether related to information or to procedures—one would hope and expect would be retained.

Produces with confidence and accuracy names and terminology specific to topic being studied

Recalls names and terminology met in recently studied topics

Recalls dates attached to some events

Recalls events attached to some dates

Recalls examples of specific types of event (sea battle, invention, exploration, etc.)

Recalls procedures for $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{collecting} \\ \text{examining} \\ \text{handling} \end{array} \right\}$ evidence

Comprehends use of some terms and names used as analogies in common parlance ('Dunkirk situation', 'Star Chamber behaviour', 'meet one's Waterloo')

Remembers location of specific item of information previously found

See: B1(b) Knows, (c) Can name, B2

4. *Comprehension* The behaviour referred to here is that required in the first stages of an encounter with any new material. It is the result of examination at the surface or literal level—attention to the immediately observed features without any depth of cognitive treatment—resulting in an understanding of the general nature of the material and, as the last example of objectives indicates, such deciphering marks the beginning of an enquiry.

Describes or portrays salient feature(s) of a piece of evidence

Gives the gist of material read

Uses own experience to explain described behaviour of a character

Formulates what is interesting, puzzling, etc. about a piece of evidence or secondary source material

Formulates question(s) to be asked about and of evidence

See: B2(a), (b), (c); B1(b) Recognises

5. *Translation* The material of history is available in a variety of forms and the ability to turn information received in one form into some other form has two aspects: (i) Translation can aid deeper comprehension than was described in the previous category since closer and more detailed examination is necessary if the translation is to be valid; this is a cognitive behaviour acting as a means of extending comprehension before other procedures are

undertaken. (ii) If the material evokes responding (A2) and imagining (A3), then translation can lead directly to the creation of a product. The actual translation is still a cognitive behaviour but is here infused with a personal element. Examples of objectives for both aspects are given.

Describes accurately in words features of a picture or object or map

Can present verbal material in dramatic form
in mathematical form (table
or graph from report)

as model

as diagram

as map

Can turn information received in factual form into narrative

Can make a précis of verbal material

Uses year numbers and period names as alternatives

See: A2, A3, B2(c), B3(a)

6. *Analysis* As the heading of the category indicates, the cognitive behaviour intended here is that of separating a whole into its elements or component parts; this enables the learner to attain a still deeper level of comprehension than those described in the two previous sections. It is a means both to apprehension of the particularity of the material and to critical appraisal of it. The learner has to build up a repertoire of possibilities which guide analytical behaviour—the possible nature(s) of component parts—and it is knowledge of these, as well as the cognitive behaviour of 'pulling apart', which is indicated in the examples of objectives given.

Can name separate parts of an object orally

Shows by drawing, description, etc. what component parts are

Can design form for translating material (preparation of statistics for tabular presentation)

Identifies inconsistencies within one piece (between two or more pieces) of evidence or of secondary source material

Identifies $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{bias} \\ \text{point of view} \\ \text{value judgment} \end{array} \right\}$ in a piece of evidence or secondary source material

Can state criterion (criteria) being used in analysis

States similarities and differences between two pieces of evidence or secondary source material

Identifies nature of connecting links between elements

Recognises lack of connection (a gap) in evidence or argument

See: B2(d), (e), (f)

7. *Extrapolation* In this cognitive behaviour, what is already apprehended is used as a taking-off point for some idea which is rooted but not present in the evidence being examined. 'Since I know this, then it might be that . . .' is the kind of thinking involved, and it represents a more positive and adventurous mental behaviour than that of comprehension (4 above), and with some imagining (A3) added. Extrapolation in dealing with historical material must, however, be distinguished from fantasy. In the latter, the imaginative leap is made without attention to possibility or probability; it may consist of a form of egocentricity which can best be described as wishful thinking. With the achievement of comprehension, questions can be posed; with the use of extrapolation, attempts are being made to put forward answers.

Makes tenable inferences after examination of a piece of evidence

Puts forward tenable proposition to fill gap in evidence

Can frame a reasonable hypothesis

See: A3, B2(e)

8. *Synthesis* The 'putting together' signified by the heading to this category is a skill which may be needed at all or several stages of study, from the formulation of plans for an enquiry up to the creation of a product. It can appear in a physical form—assembly of separate creations into a model or 'scissors and paste' procedure—which requires decision-making (cognitive and conative behaviours) about arrangement, or may occur only as an unseen mental behaviour. It is important to recognise that the skill is something more than the ability to juxtapose elements; there must be some form of organisation for which decisions have to be made. The examples of objectives include the various aspects of the synthesising skill.

Uses connecting links between elements

Uses an organising principle (temporal, behavioural, casual) to hold material together

Can combine time indicators with sequence of events

Constructs an accurate and vivid picture of conditions of life at a particular point in time

Can assimilate new (to learner) element into organised body of knowledge

Uses entirety of relevant material of all types

Discards what is irrelevant to immediate purpose

Can formulate plans by bringing together what is known and what is not, but might be, known

Creates a product with 'no cracks showing'

Brings own fund of knowledge and experience to bear on material derived from primary and/or secondary sources

See: A3, B1 Recognises, B2(g), B3

9. *Judgment and Evaluation* The practice of any judging or evaluating behaviour implies the use of some frame of reference; a conscious comparison has to be made between features of the material and a criterion or criteria. These last will differ according to the stage of an enquiry at which they are used. In examining or analysing a piece of evidence or secondary source material, judgments have to be made in terms of, for example, its authenticity or bias (B2(d) and (f)); in selecting material prior to creating a product, in terms of relevance; in a product which is attempting explanation and interpretation (B3(c)), in terms of personal or publicly held value systems or in terms of the values of the period under consideration. Some examples of possible objectives for all aspects are given.

Uses appropriate criteria in evaluating a piece of evidence or secondary source material

Argues a conclusion

Makes clear connection between criteria and judgment

Substantiates judgment by referring to criteria used

Evaluates several possible interpretations of material

Rejects a possible conclusion with reasons given

Interprets material in accordance with values of the period under study

Differentiates between values of present day and those of an earlier period

Uses caution and admits doubt in interpreting material

See: A3, B2(d), (g); B3(b), (c)

10. *Communication Skills* As the examples given in section B3 indicate, the products of study of history can take a variety of forms. Each different form requires the mastery of its specific skills if, as is surely the object of the enterprise, the product is to be available and to communicate to all who may be interested. The different skills are not, of course, peculiar to the products of historical study and may equally be part of the learning and practice of, for example, art or mathematics or English. Indeed,

the list of objectives in this category could be enormous, and selection has been made to illustrate some simple and some more complex skills, and something of the variety which may be required.

Uses appropriate proportion in making elements of a model

Provides legible and accurate labels

Sets out a diagram so as to make immediate impact
organises a pictorial illustration so as to give emphasis to important features

Shapes a narrative so as to carry reader along

Uses body and speech so as to convey essence of character being portrayed

Uses a varied and appropriate vocabulary in dramatic, oral or written product

Handles words so that meaning is clear on a first hearing or reading

Organises a piece of prose so that reader follows train of thought without difficulty

Presents an argument in logical order

Selects appropriate form or forms for presentation of the results of an enquiry

See: B3(a), (b), (c)

The first three and the last categories of this section—*Vocabulary, Reference Skills, Memorisation and Communication Skills*—describe behaviours obviously necessary at any age and at any stage of the study of history. Categories 4 to 9 trace through the procedures as they are likely to occur in the following through of a whole enquiry apart, perhaps, from 5. *Translation*. But some of the examples of objectives may have indicated that a separate skill can be used at different levels and thence at different ages; in other words, the categories do not follow each other in a developmental sequence. Some cognitive skills certainly are more difficult and more complex than others—to translate, for example, requires simpler cognitive behaviour than to evaluate; but none appears to be precluded from a learning programme simply on the grounds of the age of the learner, provided that—and it is an important proviso—the material on which the skill is practised is, in the first place, comprehensible to the learner. It is therefore, in this instance, the selection of the particular material which is important and not the nature of the skill itself; the learner's experience is a relevant factor—his experience, say, of the range of human behaviour or of the exercise of authority or the possibilities of casual connection. Again, within a category, there are different levels of difficulty;

the detection of bias (6. *Analysis*) may not be very easy for younger learners, but some aspects of analysis—e.g. identification of component parts—are certainly within the competence of the youngest learner given material comprehensible to him.

If it is considered that the mastery of all the skills here described is necessary to the proper study of history, and that the point made in the last paragraph is valid, then practice in all these skills will be required at all stages. What then follows is that, although each individual skill may not be entirely without overlap with other skills, each needs isolating for practice. Where the individual skill would, in the hands of an experienced practitioner, be preceded by the use of another skill (or several), these are already done for the learner. For example, if practice were to be given in *Analysis*, the material for analysis would be collected by an experienced practitioner using *Reference Skills*; but, for the learner, it would be provided without action on his part. When, after practice, the learner demonstrates achievement in the individual skill, he might then be required to practise the use of two consecutive skills. In each skill viewed separately, the expected progress as age increases is very likely in improved expertise, but chiefly in its use in combination with other skills and in its application to increasingly complex material. Thus, among older learners, a skill might again require practice in isolation just because the material to which it was to be applied was more difficult than any previously tackled.

One final aspect in considering progress in the mastery of skill is the achievement of a degree of independent action. At the initial learning stage, some instruction is usually needed; the learner might be told, for example, what form to use when introduced to *Translation*. At a later stage, he would be expected to decide for himself which was an appropriate form and, later still, he would undertake translation quite independently as a step in carrying out an analysis. The degree of independence shown is undoubtedly related to conative behaviours and, as was suggested earlier, interplay between cognitive and conative behaviours is essential to progress in the study of history.

Section D EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES OF STUDY

In this section, the educational outcomes of the study of history are indicated. By 'outcome' is meant the contribution which the study of this particular discipline can be expected to make to the total general education of the learners. One of the overall aims of a general education is here assumed to be the personal development of the pupils, this aim embracing a large number of more specific objectives. To include the term 'personal development' among

objectives and to connect it with 'general education', implies that general education can lead to changes in a person and that these changes can be attributed to the learning experiences provided by, among other social agencies, the school. Thus, any one discipline studied in school might provide learning experiences from which the outcomes might be the same as, or similar to, those expected from one or more other disciplines; also, the same outcomes might be expected to derive from experiences obtained outside school. However, it should be possible to identify with some precision the kind of contribution which each component of a general education can make. For history, this contribution is seen as deriving from the interaction of the several aspects of study set out so far, rather than from any one aspect for which specific objectives have already been suggested. In each sub-section below, references will be given to other parts of the framework to indicate this interaction.

At the beginning of this document, the particular meaning of 'educational objectives' was given: learner behaviour which can be identified by an observer, whether teacher or other interested person. In the case of educational outcomes, some qualifications have to be made. If the aim of assisting personal development is being attained, the changes should be observable, not only at times devoted to the study of history, but on other occasions both in and out of school and, it could be expected, after school life has been completed. In the case of teachers in primary and middle schools, where any one teacher has longer contact with the same pupils than the specialist teachers normally do in secondary schools, such observation is to some extent possible. But, for both primary and secondary school teachers, assessment as to whether or not outcomes are being attained in situations other than in school, and in the years after leaving school, is not possible in any direct sense; they may know something of the degree of their success by report and by chance meetings with their former pupils. It must be recognised, therefore, that the objectives of this section are, to some extent, setting out what may be hoped for and not only what may be observed; and the observer may well be someone who had no connection with setting up the objectives in the first place. Nevertheless, personal development is open to observation throughout the school years and by any teacher, and the objectives can be taken as being applicable to the school situation as much as to situations outside it.

Some reference needs to be made to the meaning of 'personal development'. As mention of section D in earlier sections has indicated, the affective aspects of personality are of importance

here—the emotions and the conative (willing) behaviours. In section A, the conative behaviours of 'attending' and 'responding' were included. Development from these can be described as movement towards greater commitment, and indicates a combination of affective and cognitive behaviours. As personality develops, the individual becomes, firstly, more aware of what he is responding to (a cognitive behaviour) and then, if he accepts such behaviours as desirable for him personally (a value judgment), he consciously practises them, willing himself to adopt them (conative behaviour). Thus, he moves to an increasing commitment to certain behaviours; those set out in the following sub-sections are ones which, although not derived exclusively from the one study, it appears possible that the study of history can encourage.

1. *Insight* The behaviour referred to here is that of willingness to see into and understand, when confronted with any situation in which human beings are concerned. It can be seen to result from interaction between imagining (A3) and its practice on a variety of examples of human behaviour in which motivation, action and the consequences of actions appear, such examples occurring in a large amount of historical material (B1(b)). In the examples studied, the people were distant from the individual principally in time. The important development would be that an individual could identify, both willingly and speedily, the essential human element of any situation however distant from his present situation it might be—for example, in space, belief, culture. If the objectives given in A3, *Imagining*, have been repeatedly attained, then imagining might develop into insight. Overall, the intended behaviour might be described as one of sympathetic understanding for humanity and the human condition; history is, after all, classified as one of the humanities.

Comments sympathetically on recounted behaviours not normally acceptable in own culture

Entertains ideas offered by people of different belief, culture, opinion, generation, etc. from own

Examines such ideas with detachment

Acknowledges change as a normal and continuing part of the human situation

2. *Knowledge about Values* In at least some of the material encountered by the learner (B1(b)), he meets a variety of values—for examples, those connected with the actions of individuals, groups and cultures. He is also introduced to the concomitants and consequences of the holding of certain values. One result to be expected from such study would be an understanding of the degree

to which an individual has choice in the values which he adopts. If the objectives set out under *Responding* (A2) and *Judgment and Evaluation* (C9) are being attained, then development can be expected to move from responding (conative behaviour) to awareness that values can be a matter of conscious choice (affective and cognitive behaviours) and that the holding of a given value has certain concomitants (cognitive behaviour). It is not suggested that objectives in this sub-section should indicate specific values to which an individual should become committed, but rather that objectives should be concerned with the learner's ability to realise, firstly, that value acceptance enters into human actions and decisions; secondly, that an individual has opportunity for choice and that such opportunity can be limited in a variety of ways; and thirdly, that accepting and acting on certain values is likely to have certain consequences. The outcome intended is an understanding of the part played by values and value judgments in human affairs.

Distinguishes between fact and value judgment

Identifies values on which given human actions are based
Identifies sets of values that are an integral part of beliefs, philosophies, cultures, etc.

Recognises that the holding of a particular value can determine action and lead to particular results

Identifies the extent of choice available to an individual in a given situation

Recognises the range of factors (e.g. past experience, present situation) which help to determine and reinforce an individual's choice of values

3. *Reasoned Judgment* In sections B and C (especially B2 (b), (c), (d), (e), (f) and C 6, 7, 8, 9) are set out the procedures, skills and abilities necessary to the proper examination of evidence in the study of history. If the objectives of section A2—*Responding*—are being attained in relation to the objectives given for the appropriate sub-sections of B and C, then learners are practising behaviours related to the handling of evidence. Should responding (conative behaviour) develop into awareness of what evidence and its treatment mean (cognitive behaviour), then it can be expected that a further development to acceptance of and commitment to the proper handling of evidential material would take place (conative and cognitive behaviours). While practice will have been carried out on historical material, a commitment to the required behaviours might be expected to extend their use to any situation in which evidence figured. Satisfaction (affective behaviour) through

the recognition by the individual (cognitive behaviour) of the usefulness of such behaviour, and the feeling of control of situations which it gives him, may be expected to reinforce his use of reasoning and judgement (affective and cognitive behaviours). The intended outcome can be described as the adoption of reasoned judgment in all situations where its use is appropriate.

Recognises the complexity of contemporary situations

Identifies bias in reported material (e.g. newspapers, T.V. programmes)

Identifies gaps which exist in reported evidence

Uses reasoning rather than emotive language in discussion

Makes measured judgments of contemporary situations

Takes action, in everyday situations, in relation to and not against available evidence

While the sub-sections of section D describe three distinct aspects of behaviour, they have in common a conative element. This element can be connected both with the learning experience and the study of history and with the personal development of the learner. For the former, the satisfactions gained as insight, value discrimination and reasoned judgment are developed by study, and act as feed-back to stimulate further learning in these areas. In other words, the pleasure in achieving understanding and the feelings of power which mastery of knowledge and the use of reason can give, reinforce the willingness to respond (A2). For the latter, the development from responding, on to an awareness of making a response, and then to a positive acceptance and willingness to adopt the described behaviours, contributes to personal development. Since these behaviours are susceptible to improvement throughout life, the contribution can be seen as only commencing during the years of schooling. To some extent, each sub-section describes a developmental sequence, related in each case to a particular aspect of the study of history. Awareness and acceptance cannot be expected in the earliest stages of learning since the study must have covered some ground before the feed-back to personal development can occur; and the general pattern of personal development indicates that some maturity in actual chronological (and mental) age is required before awareness of one's own behaviours is possible. If some attainment of some of the objectives of this section is seen to occur during the learners' school years, then the study of history can be said to be making a contribution to their general education.

Finally, it must be acknowledged that, in putting forward the three particular behaviours of this section, value judgment has been

used. There could be other educational outcomes of the study of history which other people might consider equal to or more valuable than the three given here. However, these three are derived from an analysis of both the content (B) and the method (C) of the particular discipline; that is to say, they can be shown to be possible outcomes. They are put forward, as is the whole document, as a basis of discussion among teachers who are concerned to establish the relative value and the place of their discipline in the school curriculum.

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