***3. Debate and Commentary of the 1970s & 1980s***

Coltham, J. (1972)
*Educational Objectives And The Teaching of History*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, II, 7, pp. 278-79

Fines, J. (1981)
*Educational Objectives For History - Ten Years On*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, 40, pp. 8-10

Fines, J. (1981)
*Towards Some Criteria For Establishing The History Curriculum, 8-13*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, 31, pp. 21-22,

Rogers, P.J. and Aston, F. (1977)
*Play, Enactive Representation and Learning*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, 19, pp. 18-21

***4. Theory and Practice: Applied Ideas***

Roberts, M. (1972)
*Educational Objectives for the Study of History,*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, II, 8, pp. 347-50

Alexander, G. et al (1977)
*Kidbrooke History: A Preliminary Report,*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, 19, pp. 23-25

Associated Examining Board (1976)
*A Pilot Scheme in 'A' Level History*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, IV 15, pp. 202-09

Jones, B. (1979)
*Roman Lead Pigs*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, 25, pp. 19-21

Hodgkinson, K and Long, M. (1981)
*The Assassination of John F. Kennedy*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, 29, pp. 3-7

Palmer, M. (1976) *Educational Objectives and Sources Materials: Some Practical Suggestions*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, IV ,16, pp. 326-330

Brown, R. and Daniels, C. (1976)
*Sixth Form History – An Assessment*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, IV, 15, pp. 210-22

Culpin, C.B. (1984)
*Language, Learning and Thinking Skills in History*
Teaching History, The Historical Association, 39, pp 24-28

Coltham, J. (1972)

*Educational Objectives And The Teaching of History*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, II, 7, pp. 278-79

# EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AND THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Jeanette Coltham

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

LAST year, the Historical Association published a pamphlet of a rather different kind from its normal run. It is entitled *Educational Objectives in the Teaching of History: A suggested framework* (Teaching of History Pamphlets, no. 35, 30p, members 20p). It does not look at a particular aspect of history, such as demography or Tudor poetry, so as to offer some ideas and material which may be new to some teachers. Neither does it look at a particular aspect of methodology or at special school conditions. Instead, as the title indicates, it looks at the purposes of teaching history in a very detailed way. It is not therefore the kind of pamphlet which is read through and then, after ideas and references have been noted, filed in a binder along with previous issues. It is intended as a working document.

What is meant by calling it a 'working document'? Firstly, it means that it tries to provide assistance to teachers as they work on planning and assessing their undertakings as teachers. It is meant to become a necessary part of their work. Secondly, it means that it is a document which, as a tool of teachers' preparation for their task, is worked upon. It needs to be read carefully, possibly more than once, and then incorporated into the planning and evaluating processes when, it can be expected, its potential will become clearer – and its short-comings revealed! The pamphlet has been composed by two people hammering out their ideas on the purposes of teaching history, with many others giving criticism and advice throughout the process. The final sentence indicates, not only why its authors hope that teachers will work on it, but also how it is a working document: 'They [possible educational outcomes] 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.'

There are two main ways in which it can be put to work, either by individual teachers or by groups meeting, say, in Teachers' Centres. They can start with the framework and use it as a basis for drawing up a syllabus or a scheme; it can provide a guide in the planning stage. Or they can use it as a check-list and apply it to some already existing syllabus or scheme.

In the first case, it would be used to answer the question: What do we want our pupils to gain from this term's or this year's study? From the suggested objectives, they might select a couple or half a dozen which they judge as suitable for *their* pupils. Having determined their objectives, they would then work out what experiences, activities and materials would enable pupils to attain the selected objectives. They might well find a number of possible alternatives as far as content was concerned; they might also discover that the resources in any one school precluded some of the possibilities and allowed others. The framework would thus have been used as a guide in planning, with the idea of trying to ensure that the teaching of history was leading to some definite kinds of learning by the pupils.

Used as a check-list, the framework would help to answer the questions: Does

this syllabus or scheme serve the attainment of a range of objectives? Are there any important omissions? Here, the document is being used as an evaluating instrument. If a given syllabus is revealed as serving only a narrow range of objectives, it might be thought advisable to re-design it so as to increase the range. On the other hand, it might be judged that the given syllabus was suitable only for pupils in a certain category – for example, the academically advanced or those limited in their reading ability – and would need additions or subtractions for pupils in other categories. The framework would thus be serving as a check for teachers so that they became more aware of what their planned work was likely to achieve.

In future issues of *Teaching History*, articles will appear to illustrate ways in which the framework can be used. It is hoped to have one showing its use in analysing a typical 'O' level syllabus; another describing its use with a group studying a Teaching Unit; and a third example of its use in relation to children's work on documentary material. It is also hoped to give one example of how objectives might be selected for children usually described as 'disadvantaged'.

Earlier, it was mentioned that the whole document was being put forward for teachers to work with and to work upon. It is expected that it can be improved and those who have been involved in its construction are anxious to get the feedback which only teachers can give. If, as the result of your study of the document or of your work with it as an individual or in a group, you have some suggestions for additions, emendations or omissions, would you please send these to: Dr. J. B. Coltham, Department of Education, The University, Manchester M13 9PL.

## CORRESPONDENCE

### Examinations

Dear Sir,

The great majority of history teachers will, I am sure, welcome Mr. Macintosh's article on 'Assessment in "O" level History' and will accept what I take to be his two main points – that examinations should consciously strive to ensure that qualities in addition to the recall of received information are tested and that, in order to test them, a composite form of examination is essential.

As the article makes plain, there will be no easy path towards assessing the higher and more elusive qualities. The trouble with past, and indeed many present, history examinations is the predictability of the questions, and particularly essay questions. If questions can be spotted, then the possibility of being certain that qualities such as comprehension, organization and evaluation are being tested flies out of the window; indeed an external examiner can never be *sure* that he is testing anything beyond recall, however subtly-angled his questions are. This leads to the conclusion that only pupils' own teachers can fully and with certainty test the higher qualities.

There are of course other reasons for involving teachers in the assessment of their candidates. The ways in which an end-of-course examination as the sole means of assessment can be unfair to candidates (examination nerves, candidates slightly off-colour, examiner's choice of syllabus coverage, etc.) are well known and need not be dwelt on. It would not be wise to give too much credit however to all teachers' assessments at the present time because many of them have not – why should they have under the present system? – the expertise either to set high quality tests or to be able to evaluate their pupils' standards in relation to those of other schools. One hopes that Boards will give teachers the opportunity to acquire examinational skills by making teacher assessment a part of examinations. As research and statistical analysis show that these assessments are becoming ever more reliable and meaningful, greater weight can be given to them, although not to the extent of superseding the externally set examination altogether, which I do not feel should disappear in the immediate future, if, indeed, at all.

To help in ensuring the success of the increasing involvement of teachers in the examination process, one thing is needful: the view that examinations are a contest or battle between candidates and teachers on the one hand and the Boards on the other, must give way to the concept that the Boards and the teachers are alike engaged in the difficult business of making accurate assessments of candidates over a complex range of qualities. The reward to the teachers for their involvement will be that they will have ever improving opportunities to assess how successful their teaching has been, not merely in providing a corpus of factual knowledge but in really making their pupils understand, appreciate and evaluate what various aspects of history are all about.

*M. C. Atkinson*
*Secretary, Northern Ireland C.S.E. Board*

Fines, J. (1981)

*Educational Objectives For History - Ten Years On*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, 40, pp. 8-10

# Educational objectives for History – ten years on

## by John Fines, West Sussex Institute of Higher Education

The publication of the *Framework of Educational Objectives for the Learning of History* by the Historical Association in 1971 crowned several years of effort, most of it, I must hastily admit, on the part of Dr Jeanette Coltham.[1] The work was written at a time when dear Benjamin Bloom remained largely unchallenged (although some critiques appeared during its long gestation into publication) and you do not need to be a major source-critic to analyse the extent of his influence on us. Despite our own criticisms of Bloom, we did find him useful; I suppose I ought to be ashamed of myself when I say that there are many situations in which I still do find parts of his work valuable, but there we are.

The *Framework* met with a little hostile reviewing, but on the whole it was taken up with some enthusiasm, by people as diverse as teachers and examiners; a lot of work flowed out from the initial thinking done in the *Framework*, and many kindly comments were slipped into footnotes. So it was with some surprise that I met up with a hostile analysis in chapter two of Dickinson and Lee's valuable book.[2] The strange pleasure of feeling like a fallen idol which this evoked was only marred by a crusty anger at some of the more pedantic points which scarcely deserved the heat with which they were written.

I have an instinctive feeling of rejection whenever I read an author's reply; it seems so pettily defensive, so prone to niggling and whining that I would prefer for myself a Stoic silence. Less grandly, I have also avoided responding to the criticisms because I found many of the points Gard and Lee had to make very telling, and would agree with them at once; much of my reply would have to take the form of a 'recantation', and however Galileian that may be, it still promised some discomforts. Above all I have some doubts as to whether this should be the ground of educational argument today, ten years on; there are perhaps other issues, more worthy of debate.

Yet, on the other hand (and this is why I write) I have the nagging feeling that the *Framework* was the best piece of work with which I have ever been associated and my personal proof is that I continue to use it myself. I do not read it with any great joy, reflecting over past glories or felicitous turns of phrase; I return to it when I am vexed by particular issues in the teaching of History which I cannot otherwise resolve. My experience of the past ten years has been of the usefulness of the *Framework*, and following on my 'recantation' I propose to give a sketch of why I still find it of value. Just possibly (though only time and further argument will tell) a revision would make it even more useful in the next decade.

First of all I wish to deal with a number of very cogent points made by Gard and Lee about the format and what one might call the educational predispositions of the *Framework*. Let me admit straight away that the intrusion of the conative or willing dimension of learning led us into some confusions, for here is a good example of the problem of purity in the writing of objectives. Pure behavioural objectives must be about learner behaviour, not about teacher behaviour, and therefore pedagogy, other than where it is strictly confined to strategies for achieving specific objectives should not enter. On the other hand motivational activity on the part of the teacher does have a concern with objectives; one can only encourage goodwill towards learning by looking for it (and to look you must know what you are looking for) and by encouraging those acts of will that are both signs of a readiness for learning and its earliest foundation. Clearly we did not define conative objectives well, but I persist in the belief that the activity of defining such objectives could be useful.

The division between sections B and C also brought some confusion into the *Framework*. This problem has a similar pedagogical root, in that we were strongly aware that teachers should know that it is helpful (though not in absolute terms necessary) for pupils as well as teachers to know in advance what they are about; indeed this has a motivational aspect to it, for pupils who are clear about the purpose of their learning will often be more willing to undergo the process.

But there is also a second root to this confusion: the definition of the nature of the discipline is a necessary preliminary to the formulation of objectives for the discipline, but should not be mixed in artificially with the objectives themselves. They are a product of the definition, not a part of its process.

Yet a clear boundary between the definition of the discipline and the objectives thus formulated leads to a worse embarrassment, of merely skills objectives. By their very nature behavioural objectives are best at describing skills, and definition and description of the discipline is the best area for elucidation of its attitudes. Our problem in B and C is thus somewhat larger than that described by Gard and Lee.

Turning towards the central educational concerns of the *Framework*, it is made very clear by Gard and Lee that there is not too well hidden predisposition about the teaching of history that is exclusive in some respects. This refers to the promotion of empathetic approaches and to the use of primary sources, as against the use of the hypothetico-deductive mode and the use of secondary sources.

Here, their enthusiastic discussion of language leads them to overstate their case a little. They surely don't believe that those who desire an empathetic approach to learning require children to think like Hitler, nor can I believe that a loose use of the term 'archive' (the loose use being perfectly reasonable in the fifties and sixties, be it said) should lead to a criminal charge.

Yet I believe they have a valuable point when they claim that more thinking about the hypothetico-deductive mode of learning would prove worthwhile, and their excellent use of the term 'supposition' to describe a very necessary historical activity provides a convenient bridge between the empathetic and hypothetico-deductive modes.

Inferential reasoning is clearly something we should encourage in children, just as we should discourage wild guesswork and fantasy.

Despite Tony Boddington's recent valuable article,[3] I believe that the articulation of the empathetic mode of enquiry requires further thought, and it is perhaps in this bridge area between the hypothetico-deductive mode and the empathetic mode that most progress may be made. In the attempt to think 'in period' there is a strong use of inferential reasoning, and if the aim is clearly that of accuracy and faithfulness to sources, there is no true contrast between the two modes. What worries me still is the imposition of formal rules of logic on the historical process, for I am aware that it does not happen like that, being much more a matter of happy side-slips between the edges of the evidence, working, one might say intuitively, but informed by experience. The imagination remains the richest tool for the learner who wishes to gain experience quickly.

Gard and Lee have also valuable points to make about the relation of primary and secondary sources in our teaching, and that ill-defined area between narrative and historical explanation. They rightly opine that the use of the term 'product' in the *Framework* has a coarsening effect upon the

discussion but unfortunately they offer no way out of the trap it closes on us. For historical education is most conveniently defined as a process (and strangely enough objectives are best at defining processes, lacking the value-laden force of a tool to define products); yet we cannot ignore the end of the historical process (nor can we shovel it out of the way in education by putting it under the handily different label of historiography). The place of secondary sources needs very careful examination indeed, and alas, the *Framework* offers few clues.

Finally in my recantation I wish to discuss what I see as the two most significant criticisms of the framing of historical objectives: the reductionist effect, and the learner-centredness of behavioural objectives.

The formulation of educational objectives often leads to mechanistic teaching and a shredding of the seamless robe. To have an objective is a strong compulsion to teach for it, and to teach for it separately and examine it separately. We need not argue the case – if the reader doesn't recognize this as the poorest form of teaching, the one most derogatory to the interests of the subject and the pupil, then alas poor he. A more substantive point, however, is that objectives (other than in necessarily mechanical teaching of preliminary skills) should never be held by teachers as the end or goal of a particular lesson (though they may perfectly well be seen as the goal of the whole teaching). Objectives are more like *objets trouvées*, discovered by a teacher in the course of teaching: quite suddenly in the midst of a patch of teaching a number of clues will come from the pupils that they are in a state to be nudged one step nearer to a particular objective, but experience tells us that this is rarely the one the teacher would have guessed at the start of the lesson. We should listen to the admittedly inarticulate groans of teachers when encouraged to take a mechanically objectives-based approach to teaching – 'teaching', they say 'isn't like that', and they are right.

The questioning process that objectives induce is indeed hard, for to most of the questions posed by the objectives the teacher must register a fail mark, a dispiriting activity in a profession that has many dispiriting aspects already. Yet the teacher who has stopped asking searching questions about his own teaching is already spiritually dead and objectives that lead to good questions may be like all promoters of health, disagreeable but of proven worth.

But to the last point in recantation – of all the criticisms I could level at the *Framework*, without doubt the strongest is the one most difficult to express, and the most potentially damaging one. It is that an attempt to define pupil behaviour in objective terms is inappropriate in curriculum development (however appropriate it may be in examination terms). Unless the mind of Western man is slowly rotting away (which some would hold a tenable proposition) we must assume that learner behaviour will remain a constant unless there is any change in the environment of learning, in its activities, and in the teachers. What we need desparately to have to hand is a manual of teacher behaviour, a manual that will change learner behaviour in such a way as to improve pupils' learning. Giving teachers holy grails (a very flattering picture of the *Framework*, I appreciate) only turns them out on a windy night into a marsh full of Grendal's mothers and Green Knights. All we can say for the activity is that they will know the grail when they have found it.

But that is, after all, something, and I wish now to spend some time saying why I find the *Framework* useful still, and why I am beginning to suspect that a revision might still be worth all that sweat (though I would prefer it to be another's).

In explaining the *Framework* I have always referred to it as both a checklist and a map, for its intentions are to jolt the memory and to orientate the user, not to provide a route, nor to suggest a sequence. From the first Dr Coltham and I clearly rejected any notion of the taxonomy (though Bloomian influences were bound to seep through) quite simply because we could not establish any set of relationships between objectives either at a given moment of learning, or as a guide to sequential learning. Each objective clearly could be achieved at different levels of complexity and of understanding, but we would have been hard put to it to define one objective as 'harder' than another in itself. It was perhaps this discovery that gave me pause first in my slow realization that a simple objectives base, as classically understood, could bear little if any relation to the actual business of teaching.

That aside, the checklist and the map remained useful, in four distinct but related ways:

In the first place, the *Framework*, viewed as an attempt at a total description of the learning requirements of the discipline (however sketchy) partook of a map in that it gave a bird's eye view of the whole territory we are partially exploring at any teaching moment. It provided a view of the wood, whilst most teaching activities seem lost amidst trees. The main value here was that it could give not just a picture of the discipline for the teacher, but also in doing so it began to give some purpose to the separate activities, and to show what it was they were a part of. I fully appreciate that the final section, and indeed all our writings on outcomes, were weak and unconvincing in may ways – perhaps the most easy part of the *Framework* to attack; but for me it was the experience of the *Framework* as a whole that spoke more clearly of the purposes and products of historical learning.

Secondly it partook of the checklist: by making as thorough list as we were able, it made sure that the reader didn't forget items in his teaching, miss them out because he had never thought of them, or omit them because of his particular cast of mind, his individual view of what history was. This rather humble function seems to me an important one, as I know full well that I have enthusiasms for some parts of historical learning (yes, I favour local documents, I know) have weaknesses in others (I really have never been good at using secondary sources as a teacher) and I favour some teaching methods (empathetic approaches) over others (hypothetico-deductive). The *Framework* is a way of checking out what I have been doing and what I intend to do to ensure some sort of balanced learning for the pupils.

Thirdly we return to the map simile: the *Framework* can tell you where you are when you are doing a particular piece of teaching, and how it might relate to the rest of the places that make up the whole. Recently, for example, I have become very concerned with my teaching of reading and writing in relation to history, and have, like all teachers become a mite obsessive about it. Now the *Framework* can, and has pointed me to a range of allied activities, and other learning skills that relate to reading and writing, and can help me not only deal with my obsession, but broaden the basis of my teaching. It tells me there are a lot of other skills, materials and activities that I could use: for example, it allows me to escape for a while from the trap of books to map reading, where a lot of useful skills can be learned before returning to books; it tells me that translation exercises of all kinds can be invaluable, that reference skills may need a polish, and that making all these clear to the pupils will help them too. Thus my programme is improved by knowing where my problem is in relation to the rest of the learning.

The fourth function is distincly related to the third: use of the *Framework* aids in defining issues. Because it was written in definitive terms (and to many people this makes the language repulsive, I know) it can aid a reader refine the nature of a teaching or learning problem, so that he can see it more clearly for what it is, and try to improve the situation by moving the teaching into clearer definition as well. Mostly when we think about teaching we are vaguely troubled: the *Framework* has often reduced the vagueness, and made possible a reduction of the troubles for me.

The one thing, of course, it doesn't do is to make suggestions about the pedagogy of getting out of trouble, and many readers have suggested how much it would be improved were classroom examples added to show ways of working in that objective area. These would only be exemplary, of course, but they could provide valuable clues for the teacher who simply couldn't think of a way forward. Our problem was to collect sufficient variety of examples, for the pedagogy of two people cannot answer the world's problems, and so we left out exemplary material.

Perhaps a revision might examine this area, for I believe very strongly that, however damaging to the notion of classical objectives based learning it might be, a new version of the *Framework* should be about teacher behaviour, and would have to represent a broad front of ideas about teaching, not just the enthusiasms of one or two. Were such a revision to be attempted, some of the difficulties mentioned in my recantation could be ironed out in the process; possibly a new format, with a section describing the discipline, a section outlining motivational features and attitudes, and a final section on the skills areas, might be easier to write; but it would need a team of devoted folk, that's for sure. ■

## References


1 I have naturally consulted with Dr Coltham in preparing the drafts of this paper, and have taken comfort from Denis Shemilt's learne and vivid comments, but it in no way sets o to represent their points of view – the fault are all mine on this occasion.

2 A. K. Dickinson and P. J. Lee (eds.) *History Teaching and Historical Understanding*, Heinemann, 1978.

3 A. J. Boddington 'Empathy and the Teachin of History', *British Journal of Educational Studies*, Vol. 28, No. 1, Feb. 1980, pp. 13–1


# NOTES AND NEWS

*History Workshop*, a journal of socialist historians, has a keen interest in the teaching of history. In issue 10, Autumn 1980, Majid Hayat Siddiqi writes on 'History teaching in India' and describes the pressure placed on historians and history writing in the pre-emergency period and from Hindu revivalist groups during the Janata government 1977–79.

* * *

In November 1980 the BBC provided a splendid feast of Harold Lloyd comedy film. There was the fine quality of the prints and the excellence of the backgrounds. It has been said that if South California were destroyed by earthquake tomorrow, it could be rebuilt in detail from the evidence contained in the Hollywood film. For the social historian of American urban life and early industrial society these films are a goldmine. Persuading our students to look beyond the foreground action, especially in a comedy, is a difficult task requiring a considerable effort on the part of teachers to produce the necessary 'cinemacy' for the observer to detach themselves from the detail and alienate themselves from the story in order to become a detached observer. But it is a process well worthwhile.

* * *

January's award meeting at one of the GCE boards was brightened by the following comments from candidates' papers:

> 'Russia also wanted access to the warm waters of the Mediterranean as her parts were always frozen in winter'.
>
> 'The actions of the Condor legions with their newly developed form of warfare and the vast display of weapons making their debut in the war gave rise to the description of Spain as the European Aldershot'.

And from an overseas candidate:

> 'As for personal rivalry, Gladstone was liberal, religious, peaceful, magnanimous, industrious, considerate and humane or moral and perhaps sober or non-intoxicated general, while Disraeli was immoral, flamboyant, pompous linguistically and gaudy in clothing and warlike or colonialistic imperialistic, too speedy/forward in exacting things and most of all power-hungry and super-imposing and threatening'.

* * *

The influence and impact of socialist historians on recent historiography has been immense. An indication of the range of such scholarship is provided by the more than fifty essays edited by Raphael Samuel in *People's History and Socialist Theory* (*History Workshop series*, Routledge, 1981) £10·95 hardback and £6·95 paper. Standard and depth vary greatly in these essays, originally papers given at a History Workshop held at Ruskin College, Oxford in 1979, but they offer a splendid introduction to the ideas and interests of socialist historians – people's history, local history, labour history, peasants, culture, feminism, Africa, ideologies, oral history, the state, and sexual politics. All those quotes from Marx and Lenin will no doubt make some teachers steam with exasperation or anger. On the other hand there are a good number of teachers and sixth formers who will find in these essays sturdy intellectual structures which might help to clothe ill-thought out or poorly articulated ideological stances.

* * *

S. H. Wood of the Department of History, Aberdeen College of Education, is working on a study of the 'factors contributing to the development of small communities in nineteenth century Aberdeenshire' which he intends to feed in to in-service work on the use of local history in primary and secondary schools in the county.

* * *

The Central Film Library is the world's longest-established library of educational, industrial training and general information films. It is the descendant of the Imperial (now Commonwealth) Institute film library, 1927. The 1980–81 catalogue lists over 1,200 16mm films. Many can be borrowed free of charge. There are seven pages of films of particular interest to the history teacher, catalogue from Bromyard Avenue, Acton, London W3 7JB, Tel. 01-743 5555.

Colin Harrison's *Readability in the Classroo* (CUP, 1980, pp. 189, £8·95 hard, £3·50 paper, ISBN 0 521 22712 7, ISBN 0 521 29621 8) is essentially a practical book providing a guide for the assessment of th readability of school materials. It would provide a useful tool for history teachers concerned with language levels in worksheets and textbooks.

* * *

Number 8 of Teesside Poly's *Enjoying History* contains articles on 'Why World History?' and 'A Look at History Simulations Through Personal Experience' Subscription details from A. Jackson, Teesside Polytechnic, Flatts Lane, Normanby, Middlesbrough, Cleveland.

* * *

Over the last five years the editors of the journal have taught alongside each other and been able to discuss *Teaching History* affairs over coffee and at lunch time. Last Easter that convenient comfort came to an end when Martin Booth took up an appointment as lecturer in education in the University of Cambridge. Much of our editorial work will now have to be conducted by telephone, letter and flying visit. Would contributors please note that all articles for the journal should be sent first to Dr Booth at Cambridge.

* * *

STAIR is the official journal of the History Teachers' Association of Ireland. The third issue, 1980, has an article on 'Forms of Knowledge, Ways of Knowing: "Discovery" Learning and Integration – an Approach Through History' by Peter Rogers and R. L. Adams, a discussion of the origins of the Cold War by Sean Lynch and an analysis of the Irish Provincial Presidencies, 1569–1672 by Liam Irwin, as well as review articles on audio-visual materials for European and Irish history. Subscription details from Elma Collins, 11 Gray Street, Dublin 8.

* * *

*Gas Chronology: the development of the British Gas industry* is a brief pamphlet on the history of the industry. Useful for economic history classes. Up to five copies free, six or more copies 30p each from The Public Relations Department, British Gas, 59 Bryanston Street, London W1A 2AZ.

Fines, J. (1981)

*Towards Some Criteria For Establishing The History Curriculum, 8-13*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, 31, pp. 21-22,

# Towards Some Criteria for Establishing the History Curriculum, 8–13

## by John Fines, West Sussex Institute of Higher Education

The recent onslaught of inspectorial enquiry has produced a considerable rethink about the place of history in the Middle School. Much of the integrated work promoted by educational developments of the 1960s is now being dismantled, and groups of history teachers all over the country are meeting to consider a separate history curriculum once more. I have had so many requests for help from such groups that it seemed worthwhile putting down on paper some considerations worth holding in mind when one is engaged on such a task.

I should begin with a defence of the age-band chosen, for over the country one may change school at every age of schooling, and seemingly no age-band is universally applicable. It seems to me that the age-band 8–13 covers the years of maximum enthusiastic learning at a level where something well above the basics may be considered on a regular basis. Secondly, this is the period of compulsory historical education in most schools – many First Schools ignore the subject, and choice points abound after thirteen. Thirdly, I consider that whatever the date of change of schools, it is good for a group of schools to think about the curriculum, if only to avoid that dreadful moment in a new school when pupils loudly complain 'but we did this in our last school'. Finally, and by no means least, the considerable values of the Schools' Council Project 'Place, Time and Society, 8–13' should not be ignored (though regretably they have been by many schools). The general handbooks are invaluable, many of the material offerings are splendid, and from the point of view of history the unit 'Clues, clues, clues' is so useful we would be foolish to ignore it.

Having established the age group under consideration, I wish to offer a number of ill-worked-out, but, I believe, important areas of consideration which might help us in developing criteria for curriculum evaluation. The elucidation of these considerations will be all my own, and teachers will need to work out for themselves the reasoning, for although it is reasonable that I might offer suggestions for criteria, the underpinning must always be individual, personal and thereby committed.

First of all it seems to me that teachers will need to know what they think history is for in education. This may strike you as an absurdly general consideration, to be swept by with a passing nod; but unless we are sure and clear on this point we will constantly run ito problems – further more at any point where we are undecided about an element of curriculum it is most likely that the question 'what are we doing it for?' will resolve the issue.

For me history in school is a relating of the large-scale to the small-scale, an attempt to correlate the experience of the individual with that of the world at large. This has two aspects: in the first place it involves seeing oneself in relation to the large stage. Thus one might take a moral issue: for example we all know as individuals that we are occasionally bad, but just how bad? Without historical knowledge we have no comparisons to make. The greater and the lesser wickedness that history reveals to us can help us frame ourselves for a moment. Similarly when we are good (and usually not very good), we need a framework to apply to our actions: to have known the actions and ideals of St Francis can help us understand a little of our own attmepts at virtue.

Secondly we need this look from our own small stage to the larger one of history in order to appreciate that although things may be difficult at our level, they are often reasonably easy to resolve; but on the grand stage the difficulties are so much more acute, the problems so much more intractible, and we should understand that it is not possible to arrive at an easy solution to, say, the problems of Northern Ireland, although we may find some answers to the minor difficulties which plague us as individuals.

Now that may be a convincing case for history in school, or not, it doesn't particularly matter to you, the reader, but it matters enormously to me the teacher. Each teacher must make up his mind as to what his teaching is for, so that he may judge whether what he is teaching is right. Your reasoning may be quite different, but it must be done.

The second consideration must be, what is history, for if we claim we are teaching history, we must know what it is, and constantly check what we are doing by that rule. Often I have been accused as a moral educater, a social studies teacher, not a history teacher, and I find constantly I must come back to base to ask what is it that I claim I am teaching? My answer to this question (and remember it is again totally personal and must be worked out by everyone for himself), is that history is an inextricably linked process that grows out of handling evidence into what I must call story. Where one element is lacking then history is not in any sense fully present: where for example, the product is simply an explanation of the evidence, and interpretation, then what is happening is merely detection, which in educational terms is an exercise of logic, not history. Where it is all story then we are so much in the realms of the imagination that I cannot distinguish the literary artist from the historian.

Surely the claims of story in the curriculum need little fighting for? Perhaps the most primal form of learning, perhaps the highest emotional experience for those with verbal rather than musical or shapely and colourful imaginations, perhaps the closest relationship between teacher and child in all the forms of teaching – this wondrous element needs no defence. Yet I see so little of it, that above all things in this paper, I wish to emphasize it most. If a history curriculum lacks story in large degree, then it is simply not worth teaching history.

Evidence and its handling has had more of the stage in recent years, so that teachers will think that if there is a document present then somehow the magic of history will automatically happen. This is clearly not so, partially because the handling of evidence in the classroom is a complex art, but much more because simple exercises of intelligence will in the end become dull and routine. One great failing in this field has been the over-concentration on historical sources that are in the main abstract, requiring reading skills of a high order, and to do with ideas and techniques that are too taxing for many pupils.

Let us remember then that historical evidence can often be concrete, and therefore more easily accessible to younger pupils: the palpable, visible, audible, feelable evidence of experience, of the senses that all can examine, need to play their part. We must ask ourselves when we last handled an object from the past in the classroom, asked what it was for, what it was made of, and how made, and what it can tell us about the people who lived then; when did we last use a portrait and ask who was this man, and how may we know him; listen to an old person recalling how it was, and try to follow her train of thought; try to contact the feelings of people in terms of what they could feel, and what made them feel so?

(A checklist I often use is how often in the year I use artefacts, pictures, buildings, sites, stories, music, documents, maps, literature and statistics.)

Yet we live in a world where reading and writing are important – as important as more concrete ways of approaching others, and any curriculum must be analysed for balance between the two types of evidence. If we are not training children to use the skills they have learned from concrete evidence on more abstract evidences, then we are failing them badly, and reading and writing go inextricably together, linked by document study, for that is the heart of history. We should remember that reading and writing skills are considerably more than the simple encoding and decoding activities with which they begin, and it is at this more sophisticated level that history can help most. Questions such as 'Who wrote this, for whom, in what circumstances, and when, and should that make a diffeence to how we understand it?', are a major part of the training history has to offer to the whole school curriculum, at the same time as advancing its own purposes.

Having established what history is for in schools, what it is, and how that should affect our use of story and the two types of evidence, the next stage is to clarify the kind of learning we might expect. We should be aware that the question 'How do we do history (as historians)?' is related to, but substantially different from the question 'How do we learn history (as children)?'. This is a taxing problem, and for some the answer is easy – history is a mature occupation for mature minds, so don't bother with it. But we don't think that, so must struggle with the problem.

The first proposition I would like to advance is that the learning has to be viewed from the children's rather than the teacher's point of view. So often teachers work on a basis of trying to hand on to children the product of their long and deep studies direct, only watering them down in the hope that this will solve the problems of understanding. My experience is that this doesn't work, and it is much better to start where the child is, and look forward to the learning he is going to do through his eyes, and see it developing at his rate.

The second proposition is that the learning should be active. If there is one thing that educational thought arising from the masterly studies of Jean Piaget has to offer it is the clear proof that true learning (learning which lasts and is usuable, that is), only comes from the child's active involvement in tasks that will lead to that learning. There must be a personal bonding between the child and what is being learned, otherwise it can never make sense to the child in the end.

There has been much misinterpretation in classrooms of this simple but profound dictum. Many teachers seem to operate on a principle of 'keeping them busy' regardless of the pointfulness of the tasks themselves. This led to classrooms full of mindless model makers and mindless project doers in the 1950s and 1960s, and (when the noise grew unbearable) clsssrooms full or worksheets fillers, mostly equally mindless, in the 1970s.

Let us make a sub-proposition here then, that activity itself has no virtue, but it must be activity that is designed to lead to learning, and for this purpose there is no replacement for depth. A curriculum that scurries from one topic to the next can only have simple comprehension tasks for its activity ('Columbus crossed the ocean blue in . . .'). It is only when time and trouble are taken over Columbus that deeper questions may be explored, questions that consider why it was so hard to convince people, why his crew let him go on, whether the lies he told were necessary or reprehensible, whey he was so badly treated in the end?

My final proposition in this section is that if you are going to have deep personal active study, it is all the more essential to ensure variety in the modes of learning and the materials used. A class may enjoy a topic that revolves round the study of portraits, with a lot of talking, but they certainly won't enjoy the third one in a row, nor will the teacher! Of all the suggestions I have to make about curriculum building, this one strikes me as among the most vital.

We turn now to the tricky question of content, a question teachers often ask first, but which for good reasons I have kept so late: quite simply the other considerations are more important, and if they are not held in mind first, then the whole curriculum will fail.

First, then, a controversial but necessary proposition: there is no way that all of history may be taught to anybody, because there is too much of it, and there is no way we may compare pieces of history (qua pieces of history) and mark one as more important to know than another. Of course people have tried to write world histories, historians have tried to select out the vital strands, but they have all failed, are all subject to criticism by others. The attempt is no doubt an interesting one, but the continuous history of defeat urges me at least to take the message that the task is impossible.

So, looking at history itself I find no tools at my disposal to separate out those bits that are most worth learning; on that basis, one bit is simply as good as another. This should not mean that we immediately throw up the task of selection and teach just what we like, or (more reasonably) what we know. I am expert in the reign of Mary, for example, and am enthusiastic about it, but is it fair to my pupils or to history itself that I teach just that?, quite clearly the answer is no.

This rather simple and childish notion of fairness is, for me, a little key to the problem. If, for example, I can ensure that (keeping all the rules of curriculum building already stated) I can give my children a taste of history of all ages and all places, and of history of all types (economic as well as political, religious, as well as social), then I have at least tried to be fair to my subject and to the children. If they have never met with pre-Columbian America, because I left it out in toto, then no one has a chance through schooling to become interested in that subject; conversely a whole sub-continent has lost its chance to impinge upon the minds of British pupils. Similarly I must be fair to ancient and medieval times, as well as to modern (which clearly is neither more relevant nor more easy – anyone who believes that needs a history test himself), and I must be fair to the various types of history.

Of course, even this cannot be done, it is more a mark to aim for than a target to achieve. But the attempt can lead to some interesting results. As an example for discussion, the following will serve:

**age 8–9**

| | |
|---|---|
| term one: | topics from prehistory Babylon, Egypt and Persia |
| term two: | topics from Greece, Israel and Rome |
| term three: | topics from China, India and Byzantium |

**age 9–10**

| | |
|---|---|
| term one: | topics from Islam and Medieval Christendom |
| term two: | topics from Medieval England, Japan and pre-colonial Africa |
| term three: | topics from the Reformation, 16th–17th century European sovereigns and pre-Columbian America |

**age 10–11**

| | |
|---|---|
| term one: | topics from imperialist development |
| term two: | topics from the growth of Industry |
| term three: | topics from the French Revolution |

**age 11–12**

| | |
|---|---|
| term one: | topics from the history of Russia in this century |
| term two: | topics on war and technology in the twentieth century |
| term three: | topics from Hitler's Germany |

**age 12–13**

| | |
|---|---|
| term one: | topics from the history of America and China in this century |
| term two: | topics from the history of emergent Africa |
| term three: | topics from the history of emergent Islam. |

Even as I write this I worry about whether I could force into the last year some study of S.E. Asia, something on the Pacific and something on Latin America, for curriculum building often degenerates into the compulsive game of trying to stuff a barrage balloon into a Gladstone bag.

Rogers, P.J. and Aston, F. (1977)

*Play, Enactive Representation and Learning*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, 19, pp. 18-21

# Play, Enactive Representation and Learning

by P. J. Rogers, The Queen's University, Belfast and Felicity Aston, Northern Ireland Polytechnic

## A small-scale application of Bruner's theories

A great deal of educational theory probably has little effect upon teaching practice, and one of the reasons for this is that theories are not typically carried to the point where their implications for practice become both clear and specific. (Some, of course, have no such implications; but this paper is concerned with *useful* theories). It is a main contention of this paper that two of the necessary features of a useful theory are that it must provide justified prescriptions for content to be taught and it must 'translate' (or, at least, be translatable) into practical programmes of teaching activity which exemplify its principles and, hence, when implemented, test its claims.

The most potentially fertile theory currently available, in the opinion of the present writer, is that of J. S. Bruner. However, much of its potential remains latent partly because of the difficulty just mentioned, but also because the one very sophisticated programme exemplifying the theory which is now available[1] may, by its very elaborateness, tend to deflect attention from the possibility of other useful, if more humble, applications of the theory. It is the purpose of this paper to outline the theory, to describe a piece of teaching based upon it, and to offer experimental evidence in support of the theory's claims.

Bruner's over-riding concern is with structure.[2] Everything meaningful is structured in that it is no mere agglomeration, but a complex network of interlocking conceptual, propositional and procedural components which Bruner summarizes as 'basic ideas'. It is these 'basic ideas' (which make up the 'structures') that should be the main content of the curriculum.

But while conveniently brief, the label 'basic ideas' is somewhat general. The important point is to establish what the key ideas are. When Bruner goes on to argue that 'the curriculum of a subject should be determined by the most fundamental understanding that can be achieved of the underlying principles that give structure to that subject',[3] and that this cannot be done 'without the active participation of the ablest scholars and scientists'[3] he is clearly indicating the primary need for detailed epistemological analysis of whatever subject is in question so that its essential features may be exposed and made the basis of what is to be learned.[4]

Once established, the basic ideas are to be progressively communicated to the pupils by means of the 'spiral' curriculum which turns back on itself at higher levels by which 'any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development'.[5] A key idea can be encountered in examples of greatly varying difficulty, and education is a matter of arranging a graded sequence of representations such that, by moving from the simplest and most concrete representations of a key idea to the more and more complex, comprehensive, and abstract, the pupil may eventually acquire a comprehensive understanding of the idea itself.

The movement towards abstraction and comprehensiveness is matched in the third main component of Bruner's theory – the modes of representation, enactive, ikonic and symbolic. By these he means representation by a pattern of physical movement, by a visual image, or by some set of conventional symbols.

'We can talk of three ways in which somebody 'knows' something: through doing it, through a picture or image of it, and through some such symbolic means as language'.[6]

At first sight Bruner seems to view these modes as age-tied.

'At each stage of development the child has a characteristic way of viewing the world and explaining it to himself. The task of teaching a subject to a child at any particular age is one of representing the structure of that subject in terms of the child's way of viewing things. The task can be thought of as one of translation'.[7]

However his discussion of this issue makes it clear that the modes interlock and interact and in one place he insists that they are interdependent. In an experiment where quadratic functions were to be taught to 8-year olds, not only were enactive, ikonic and finally, symbolic, representations of the principles involved, but the two earlier modes were found to be essential props to the development of example-free abstract understanding.[8] It is this relationship which the present paper attempts to explore, but in extended form. So far from being mere (though necessary) preliminaries to symbolic understanding, enactive and ikonic representation may be ways of making intelligible to pupils content which would be inaccessible to them if presented in symbolic form.

The subject with which the experiment presently to be described was concerned was History, and the first task was to identify the particular conceptual, procedural and propositional features of History so that they might all be *represented* although not, of course, comprehensively *covered* in the teaching model. A full discussion of this complex matter is beyond the scope of a report such as this[9] but, briefly the *essential* historical procedure is reconstruction of the past by the interplay of imagination and the traces of that past which survive.

The real complexities, of course, arise in locating and appropriately handling the traces – historical evidence is of many kinds and is met with at many levels of difficulty; and the same is true of the concepts met with in History. The practical requirement is to provide a scaled-down conceptual and reconstructiv model which, while obviously far from comprehensive, will provide a genuine representation of History. It must also be capable of steady expansion towards comprehensiveness in terms of the spiral curriculum, and, especially for younger children, the ikonic and/or enactive mode of representation must make a significant contribution to it.

## The teaching model

The response to this challenge was as follows. As a part of a study of the Nine Years' War and the Plantation of Ulster, number of small parties of Primary children (aged 9–11) visited a ruined cast of the Plantation period with a view to a limited 'reconstruction' of it. Complete reconstruction would have to place the castle in its context – political, military, economic and so on; and this was not attempted except very partially (and the only in the military sense) as part of the related background work. Attention during the visits was focussed on the ca itself, and even within this limitation th physical appearance and design rather tl more human factors were stressed. (Th 'evidence' available for the former was clearly more concrete and direct than fc the latter which featured only tacitly as example, when the building was found be a rational structure, and, hence, the creation of intelligent men with a clear purpose.)
Reconstruction was thus confined to mentally re-creating the castle as a phy and, especially, military entity, inferrin or perhaps even proving, the original

existence of disappeared features from the fragmentary stone traces which remain and the concept chosen for representation in the work was the related one of 'strategic importance'. Manifestly reconstruction could, at higher levels of the spiral, be carried out for other and less accessible aspects of the castle, and the same is true of the concept of strategic importance.[A] It was anticipated that ringing the changes among the modes of representation so that ikonic and/or enactive representation were heavily used, would ease the learning task. The work was spread over a year, and in that time 83 children were involved. Each party followed one of the two approaches, Control or Experimental, to be described below. The children were randomly selected by their teachers and no attempt was made to produce matching parties. It was expected that any relevant differences would even themselves out over the whole period of the experiment and this was indeed the case. (see below.)

## Control and experimental groups

Of these, thirty-five children in six separate parties (henceforth called the *'Control' group*) proceeded as follows. On arriving at the castle five to ten minutes was allowed for free exploration. The children were then presented with a simplified group plan of the castle and asked to locate (by moving to) particular places marked on the plan by red letters A, B, C, D. (It was quite surprising how easy the children found this). Next, they worked through a questionnaire, answers to which constituted a large part of the information needed for the reconstruction aimed at. (It was surprising how long these young children were willing to persevere at this task.) After the questionnaire had been completed by two-thirds of a party – this was thought to be a better and more flexible way of determining how long was to be allowed than a rigid time limit – the children were taken on a 'guided tour' of the castle, in the course of which their answers to the questionnaire were checked and corrected, and other important items of information added. The 'tour' was carried out in leisurely style, with the children prompted to ask questions and discuss matters raised. The visit then ended with a brisk summary (to which the children contributed) of the information gained.

The remaining forty-eight children in eight separate parties (henceforth collectively called the *'Experimental' group*) proceeded exactly as above except that less time was spent on the questionnaire and much less on the guided tour. Instead, these (Experimental) children were involved in playing four games designed to provide an enactive representation of important parts of the information covered in the questionnaire. Briefly, the games were as follows.

## The games

The *'arcs of fire'* games was intended to show the strategic siting of the various gun holes and to bring out how they together covered the entire approach to the castle and also protected its walls. (Great stress was also laid on these points in the questionnaire and guided tour with Control group children). Three children were placed inside the fire holes looking out. The remainder, together with the experimenter and his assistant, had to try by any means to reach the castle wall containing the fire-holes. The defenders 'shot' attackers by calling out their names as soon as they saw them through the fire holes. Few reached the wall; but those who did were promptly 'shot' from the flanking tower or from the bartizan which had originally jutted out from the top storey in the north-east corner of the castle.

The game was played twice with each party, different children taking the defending role, and finally the arcs of fire were marked out as follows. Three children were inside as before and the remainder, in a straight line, walked across the face of the wall. As soon as each individual came into view from inside the fire hole his name was called and he marked the spot with a stake. He then continued on his way until he disappeared when, as before, his name was called out and a stake placed in position. The whole procedure was repeated for each fire hole, leaving the arc of fire for each hole marked by stakes, now replaced by coloured string. The overlap of the arcs – that is, the saturation coverage then provided for that side of the castle – was thus clearly demonstrated.

The *two-card game* was designed to teach and reinforce the locations and relationships between various important parts of the castle. Here heavy use was made of the contest impulse for motivation. The experimenter's assistant took up a boastful and domineering posture and the children were challenged to pit themselves against her in the following manner. Two sets of cards were produced, one set for the children and one for the assistant. Each card named a place in the castle to which the assistant was to go, but the two sets were different. Thus card one of the children's set might say 'Main Kitchen fireplace' while card one of the assistant's set might say 'Spiral staircase in the North wall'. The assistant would then have to try to reach the Staircase, while pretending to the children (who had not, of course, seen her cards and had to spot the cheat from the direction she took) that she was going to the fireplace. (The fact that the two do not look alike is irrelevant since only the most fragmentary traces of either remain. Their closeness together makes them plausible alternatives.) If caught out, the assistant was to try, by bluff and mendacity, to persuade the children that she was in fact going where they wished; the children had thus to be very sure of their ground. For every time she was wrongfully accused of cheating, or succeeded in reaching her destination the assistant gained a point; for every correct accusation, the children gained one. There were seven stages and the overall loser had to pay forfeits. These involved further recognition of parts and their relationships.

The aim was to see whether the game reinforced and increased the children's knowledge of the lay-out of the castle – upon which heavy (verbal) stress had, of course, been laid during the guided tour with Control children.

A third game was a variant of this. A jail was located in one corner of the castle and a prisoner placed within. The children had to rescue the prisoner, and the assistant had to catch them. The space is so enclosed that without some extra help the children would have had no chance whatever. Accordingly refuges where they were safe from capture were chosen. These were key features of the castle whose locations were crucial for reconstruction. Some were immediately obvious such as the ground floor gun ports but others – such as the remains of fireplaces forty feet up on the wall – had to be mentally noted. The children had to use the pattern of refuges to work their way to the jail, and had to plan their strategy as a team so as to distract and divide the assistant's energies. In this way it was hoped that a blue-print of the castle layout would be built up in the children's heads.

The fourth game, henceforth referred to as the *'breaking through' game*, was designed to bring out the reasons for the choice of site for the castle, and the implications of that choice for design. On two sides the land slopes steeply into a bog and small lake, providing a natural defence for the castle. On the other sides, the approach is flat, and the bawn, of course, lies on this side, its wall providing protection for the castle itself. All this was carefully explained to, and discussed with, the Control group, but with the Experimental group explanation and discussion was greatly shortened and preceded by an enactive representation of the relevant points. Once again the game was staged as a contest. The assistant, striking her usual boastful pose, challenged the children to prevent her breaking through to the wall of the castle, first on the flat and then on the steep, boggy side. Of course, she succeeded in the first, and failed in the second, despite repeated attempts.

## Test

An attempt to measure the relative effectiveness of the two approaches was made as follows. One week after their visit the children were asked to answer the Test printed below.

1 Draw the plan of the castle we visited the other day. Include the enclosure wall around it. Don't use the whole

page – you will need a space along the West edge to write something in.

2 What is that enclosure called? Write the name somewhere on it in big letters.

3 In the space you left along the West edge write underneath one another the names of as many parts of the castle as you can remember.

4 Now mark these parts on your drawing with numbers (1, 2, 3, etc).

5 Fit the numbers on your drawing to the list of names you have made at the side of your page. Make sure you put each number with the right name.

6 Take another sheet of paper. Draw a wall of the castle showing how many rows of windows there were, and their shapes.

7 Why are the shapes different?

8 How was the North wall of the castle defended? (Draw a picture as well as writing something.)

9 How was the *East* wall of the castle defended? (Draw a picture as well as writing something.)

10 How was the *South* side of the castle defended? (Draw a picture as well as writing something.)

11 How was the *West* side of the castle defended? (Draw a picture as well as writing something.)

It should be clear both that the Test is designed to bring about a reconstruction of the castle and that most of the questions are covered by the games played by the Experimental group children. Thus the 'arcs of fire' game and the 'breaking through'[B] game together cover Questions 8, 9, 10 and 11 while the 'two card' and jailbreak games should underlie Questions 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6. Since the Test required the children to draw, it provided a test of how far a clear image of the various features of the castle had been acquired.

## Scoring

This was done by awarding 1 or 2 marks for each part correctly named and located in Questions 3, 4 and 5. (Two marks were only awarded if the location was exact). In addition, marks could be deducted for really poor overall shape. There was no way of knowing how many parts the children might correctly name and locate and a *notional* maximum possible score of 20 was used. For Questions 8–11 one mark was awarded for each correct factor named (fire holes, swamp, bartizan etc), giving a maximum possible of 32. The final total was thus 52, treated as 50 for practical purposes. It should be stressed that, since *every* relevant factor had to be included in case a child named it, the maximum possible scores were well above what any child was in fact likely to achieve. The

These are, accordingly, presented.

| Data Concerning Control and Experimental groups – Test | | |
|---|---|---|
| | Control group | Experimental group |
| N | 35 | 48 |
| Total Possible | 50 | 50 |
| Mean Score | 14·457 | 21·312 |

important point, of course, is the *difference* (if any) between Control and Experimental group scores.

The t-test revealed a highly significant difference between the groups ($P > 0{\cdot}01$).

Five weeks after the first test – that is, six weeks after the visit, the children were re-tested exactly as before. The purpose was to see how far the learning had a lasting effect and to reveal differences (if any) between the groups in this respect. In the re-test the mean scores were 10·727 for Control group and 18·896 for Experimental. The t-test showed that the difference between the groups was again highly significant ($P > 0{\cdot}01$).

Both Test and Re-Test thus showed a highly significant superiority of performance by the Experimental group.

## Discussion and conclusions

1 No attempt was made to control the composition of *parties*, but the expectation that total *groups* (Control and Experimental) would be strictly comparable in terms of all relevant variables (Age, IQ, Sex, etc) proved well-founded. The children were all from the top two classes in primary school; all parties except four were mixed, and, of these, (all boys) two followed the Control approach and two the Experimental. Finally, there was no significant difference in IQ between the groups. The same is true of the time factor. All parties spent roughly the same total time at the castle and such differences as did occur were unimportant since a party having a longer (or shorter) visit was as likely to belong to one group as to the other.

All in all, the only difference between the groups was the presence or absence of the games – that is, the enactive representation. No explanation of the markedly different average scores can be given in terms of significant group differences.

2 *Ceteris paribus*, Experimental children not only remembered more distinct features, (such as the number, size and shape of windows or the location of gun-holes) but showed a superior grasp of relationships. It was interesting to note, for example, not only that no Control group child mentioned the slope and bog among the defences of the South wall, whereas Experimental group children did so, but that many of the latter were not content merely to list the swamp and slope as discrete factors in the defences; they related them to the overall pattern of defence, suggesting that a good 'ikon' of defensive pattern had been established. Here was a direct, though homespun, contest between symbolic and enactive representation and the latter proved much the more effective. (This point also emphasises the related nature of enactive and ikonic representation, since the enactively learned information had to be visually represented in the Test.)

3 The experiment seems to bring out the potential value for learning of children's play. The games were highly popular largely, it is thought, because they were of the same sort as children would play for themselves. In this way the assumed gap between the requirements of learning and the activities to which the younger child would naturally incline is greatly diminished and the latter become a *vehicle* for learning.

The same is true of the use made of contest. One of the commonest features of a teaching situation is the presence of latent conflict (sometimes it becomes overt!). This can (usually) be kept within bounds, but often only at a heavy cost in time and energy. It is suggested that it might be *used* deliberately to promote learning. Three of the four games offer examples of 'conflict' used in this way – in the case of the third a fourth game, very boisterous physical conflict! It is not, of course, asserted that all learning can proceed by games, or by sublimation of conflict, physical or otherwise. It *is* suggested that this can *sometimes* be done, that the possibility is worth examining, and that Bruner's theory, especially enactive representation provides a powerful tool for questioning and probing the assumed dichotomy between work and play.

4 In this connection, the question of adult participation needs to be considered. On four occasions parties played the games by themselves with a child taking the adult part. On these occasions everything depended upon who the substitute 'adult' was. Only when the substitute 'adult' was a respected and physically commanding figure was the work successful. On the two occasions when this was not so the lack of interest and sparkle was very marked, and was reflected in the Test scores. (The average score for these children was 14·0 – almost identical with the Control group score (14·457) and well below that of the Experimental group (21·312). On the other hand when the adult role was played by Secondary school girls (age 13+) P6 children seemed to enjoy the work almost as if an adult was playing.

When an adult did play, sex seemed important. There was a very strong preference for the assistant rather than the experimenter (or, on one occasion, an assistant's fiance) to be the opponent in the games. As, in all, five different young women acted as assistants during the work this preference could not be attributed to an individual's personality. With this age, honorary big sisters are highly favoured!

5 To test the possibility that the mere presence of the assistant had any effect on Experimental group scores there were two occasions when a second adult accompanied Control parties. This had no perceptible effect on their behaviour, and none whatever on the Test performance (their average score was almost exactly the same as that for the whole Control group). It seems that it was the assistant's participation in the games which was important.

The experiment described in this paper is very simple, possibly even banal. There is, of course, nothing new either in educational visits or in the use of games as such as aids to learning. But this choice of a very simple example was deliberate. It sprang from the point made at the beginning of the paper that useful educational theories not only translate into practically usable programmes, but do so in ways which are applicable in conditions which actually occur – the notion that special conditions and elaborate equipment are needed is an error. It was therefore necessary to choose an enquiry in which (as far as content went) teachers might actually engage. But while the work was thus, in outline, intentionally orthodox, the theory powerfully affected how it was set up. The insistence upon 'basic ideas' led irresistibly back to considering the nature for the business in hand.[10] Since History involves the reconstruction of the past by the interplay of imagination and the traces of that past which remain, the task in the present instance is, in principle, a total recreation of the castle in its military, human, economic, political, and all other aspects. Some aspects of this reconstruction are easier than others, for several reasons of which relative availablilty and ambiguity of 'traces' (or 'evidence') is the first. Immediately the form of a *'spiral'* appears, 'reconstruction' being the key idea to be spiralled, with its earliest manifestations confined to the relatively simple physical traces provided by the (fairly complete) ruins of a building, and its higher reaches articulating the more complex aspects.

In this way the planning of what is to be done is placed on a clear and justifiable footing by the theory. But theory also indicated *how* the work might be carried on by its concept of *modes of representation* which suggests different, but perhaps complementary, ways of experience, and, hence, lends precision to the actual range of activities to be engaged in.

Thus theoretical considerations guiding the planning enabled precise plans to be formulated and precise expectations to be tested. This was particularly true in relation to the possible power of enactive representation, and the use of play as its vehicle. It is hard to see how, except in terms of the theory, the task, and the games devised to carry it out, could have been so clearly defined or so closely interlocked – or how the games could, in the planning stage, have been clearly justified even if they had been contemplated. In order to secure results as unambiguous as possible the games actually used were fairly simple. It would, of course, be possible to devise more complex ones.

A final point concerns numbers, for it might seem that the small size of the parties (6–8) invalidates the claim that the experiment used conditions actually present to teachers. Despite appearances, this is not so. In none of the games (or, for that matter in any part of the Control group work) was small numbers *needed*. In the 'arcs of fire' game they were a *handicap* – a full class could have simulated a siege much more realistically.[11] Given a large group, more adults would, of course, be in attendance and the various parts of the work could be staggered and divided without difficulty. Nor need the requirement for extra adults disrupt school routine. The importance of adult (and, it would seem, preferably female) participation in the games (see above) would strongly suggest (since participants would clearly tend to be young) an important role for College of Education students. To be involved in the planning even of such a simple experiment as this with the need both for thorough understanding of theory and grasp of its practical implications, which are then explored in an actual situation with children, from which feedback for evaluation and discussion follows, would seem to offer an experience of considerably greater value than much of the formal 'teaching practice' which students are obliged to undergo and which they often perceive as largely unrelated to their theoretical studies. ■

## References


1 'Man: A Course of Study'.
2 J. S. Bruner (1960) Chapter 2.
3 *Ibid* p. 31.
4 *Ibid* p. 32.
4 This argument is, of course, much more fully articulated from an overtly epistemological standpoint by Hirst. See e.g. Hirst (1965) (1967) (1969).
5 *Ibid*. p. 13; pp. 52–54.
6 J. S. Bruner (1966) p. 6.
7 J. S. Bruner (1960) p. 33.
8 J. S. Bruner and H. J. Kenny (1968) in P. C. Wason and P. N. Johnson-Laird (eds.) (1968) pp. 410–421
9 For a full discussion of the nature of History see P. J. Rogers in K. Dixon (ed.) (1972) pp. 75–134.
10 For a detailed discussion of this fundamental point see P. J. Rogers in K. Dixon (ed.) (1972).
11 In general, this point is presumably obvious. For a more specific instance, consider the way in which attackers were repelled. Small numbers seriously misrepresent seventeenth-century reality because with so few names to call out the defenders' task is greatly over simplified. Hence the quite erroneous idea may be implanted that the lay-out of fire-holes made the castle impregnable. Large numbers, by confusing the defence, and making it virtually impossible to call out all names in time, would represent the rate of fire of seventeenth-century firearms and, hence, the problems of defence, far more accurately.


## Bibliography


P. H. Hirst, Journal of Curriculum Studies May 1969.
J. S. Bruner (1960) *The Process of Education* (Harvard, 1960)
J. S. Bruner, et al. (1966) *Studies in Cognitive Growth* (Wiley, 1966)
J. S. Bruner and H. J. Kenny (1968) in P. C. Wason and P. N. Johnson-Laird (editors) *Thinking and Reasoning* (Penguin, 1968) pp. 410–421.
P. H. Hirst (1965) in R. G. Archembault (editor) *Philosophical Analysis and Education* (Routledge, 1965) pp. 113–138.
P. H. Hirst (1967) in R. S. Peters (editor) *The Concept of Education* (Routledge, 1967) pp. 44–60.
P. J. Rogers (1972) in K. Dixon (editor) *Philosophy of Education and the Curriculum* (Pergamon, 1972) pp. 75–134.


---

**A** To some extent this was done in the project classwork to which the visit was connected. The strategic importance of Lough Erne, especially of Enniskillen, and the siting of forts and castles throughout Ulster was studied.

**B** The 'breaking through' game contributed to recollection of the defences in that it provided an enactive representation of the slope and bog defending the South Wall, features which the Control children met with symbolically (in the explanation and discussion). (See section on 'Results' for the outcome of this.)

Roberts, M. (1972)

*Educational Objectives for the Study of History,*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, II, 8, pp. 347-50

# EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES FOR THE STUDY OF HISTORY

## The relevance of Dr. Coltham's and Dr. Fines' *Framework* to 'O' level courses

Martin Roberts

*Head of History, Brays Grove Comprehensive School, Harlow*

AT Brays Grove School we were fortunate to have a pre-publication draft of the Coltham/Fines pamphlet – hence forward referred to as the *Framework* – so we have been able to use it as a working document for the past eighteen months. We have found it useful at every level of our teaching and particularly for our Fourth and Fifth year 'O' level groups. Here we have used it in two ways – to evaluate our previous course and to establish what we hope will be a more satisfactory alternative.

Our previous course was defined in terms of the 'O' level examination syllabus, a two year course, European History from 1870 to 1955. It is a popular syllabus of one of the largest boards and we had used it because, for this age and ability, it seemed most nearly to meet our aims: firstly to complete a survey of European and British history begun in the first year; secondly to study the chief events of recent European history to enable our pupils to achieve a better understanding of the present; and thirdly from this knowledge and understanding and from our methods of study to encourage in our pupils those qualities of judgement and of tolerance which may make them better people and better citizens. The *Framework* made us ask ourselves: 'What kind of *behaviour* do we expect of our pupils during and after the course which will indicate that we are achieving these aims?' The answer was disconcerting. We were forced to the conclusion that our aims were either so long-term (e.g. the development of qualities like tolerance) that we could not possibly make any realistic estimate of our success in the school situation, or so vaguely expressed (e.g. to understand the present) that our attempts at assessment must be equally vague. We then realized that the most significant forms of learner behaviour we actively encouraged were those which would contribute to a good performance in the culmination of the course, the 'O' level examination. We therefore had to ask ourselves further not only was the content of our G.C.E. syllabus the one we really wanted but whether the educational objectives implicit in the examination paper testing this syllabus did in fact match our own.

Our G.C.E. board did not define the aims of its history syllabuses. The choice of aims, it believes, is the teacher's responsibility. The function of the board is to provide a variety of syllabuses, defined in terms of content alone. However, by the wording of the questions and by the structure of the paper, 'O' level papers encourage certain intellectual behaviours from their candidates rather than others (i.e. impose their own educational objectives) and, since G.C.E. is immensely important as a qualifying examination, these objectives can become the dominant ones.

The typical 'O' level paper contains questions which can be divided into five main categories: (a) *Significance*, e.g. 'Write briefly on the importance of four of the following: the constitution of the Third Republic; State Socialism in Bismarck's Germany; the Annexation of Bosnia, 1908; the Treaty of St. Germain, 1919; the Spartacists; Albania, 1918–1939; D-Day; the Nuremberg Trials; the death of Stalin.' (b) *Critical Assessment*, e.g. 'How far was Bismarck

successful in his internal policies from 1871 to 1890?' (c) *Causal*, e.g. 'Why did Germany fail to win World War I?' (d) *Descriptive*, e.g. 'Outline the main events on the Western Front during World War I.' (e) *Illustrative*, e.g. 'In 1914, Europeans controlled the destinies of almost the entire world. Forty years later they no longer did so'. What facts illustrate this statement?

When one classifies these questions in the terms of the *Framework*, it becomes clear that they test Cognitive Skills (Section C) only. They do not test Attitudes (Section A), nor the Nature of the Discipline (Section B), nor Educational Outcomes (Section D). Of the various Skills, they concentrate on the testing of Memorization (C3), Synthesis (C8) and Judgement/Evaluation (C9). In fact the skills most actively encouraged are Memorization and Synthesis since the candidate is expected to arrive for the examination with all the necessary information in his head with which he must juggle to provide relevant answers. This testing of Cognitive Skills is, however, indiscriminate. Questions vary considerably in conceptual difficulty. For instance the causal question 'Why did Germany fail to win World War I?' is conceptually much harder than the descriptive question 'Outline the main events on the Western Front during World War I'.

Moreover, the structure of 'O' level history examinations – 5 questions to be answered in $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours – reinforces the skill of Memorization and emphasizes one Communication Skill, fluent essay writing, rather than others (see Section C10).

To sum up, our evaluation of our old G.C.E. course, in the light of the *Framework*, made us realize that our previous aims were too ill-defined to be satisfactory educational objectives and that the objective to which we were unconsciously giving priority was one imposed upon us by the nature of the G.C.E. paper which we had chosen.

Before we began drafting a new syllabus, we made two decisions: firstly to define our aims in terms of observable learner behaviour and secondly to ensure that our methods of assessment were designed to test as precisely as possible the achievement of our stated objectives. The more precisely our tests or examinations matched our stated objectives, the less likelihood there would be that our final exams, however important in career terms, would distort our teaching. Both in our definition of genuine educational objectives and in our discussion of appropriate methods of testing these, we made frequent reference to the *Framework*.

Most of our pupils studying history in the fourth and fifth years are studying it formally for the last time. We think, therefore, that their attitudes to the subject are as important as their knowledge or their skills. So Section A (Attitudes) interested us as much as Section C (Cognitive Skills). We wish our pupils to discover that history is a fascinating subject and its study life-enhancing, an essential part of civilized life. The kind of learner behaviour we hope to promote in the future will be for the most part outside the classroom, and of the type that makes a point of watching programmes like 'Chronicle' on TV, of seeing films like 'Nicholas and Alexandra', of borrowing history books from the library and of visiting historical sites when on holiday. Though it is impossible to make more than a guess at our success in achieving such an essentially long-term objective we feel that we must always bear it in mind lest, in our attempts to achieve more short-term and more easily assessable objectives, we make our history boring and fill our pupils with the resolve never to have anything to do with things historical again.

In connection with this overall 'attitude' objective, we wish to encourage the

awareness that history is a heterogeneous subject whose subject-matter is immensely varied and which can be approached at many different levels. Expressed in terms of learner behaviour, we hope that our pupils will study the historical background of their special interests, that they will know how to use the resources of both school and library to discover this background and that they will have had enough experience in school of using history books other than textbooks not to be put off by scholarly language and presentation. The most effective way of testing such an 'attitude' objective is a project of the kind already pioneered by C.S.E. boards. Any doubts which we had about their validity for assessing our 'attitude' objective were dispelled when reading a pupil's conclusion to a recent C.S.E. project: 'I have enjoyed writing this project and I have learnt a lot from it. I wouldn't have gone to the library (I don't normally go to the library), but because I had to, I did. But now I would go and get similar books but perhaps a different period because I enjoyed reading the others. They would be on Social History though, because this is the only sort which interests me'.

Our objectives may be summarized as follows:

| *Objective* | *Classification* | *Learner Behaviour Sought* | *Method of Assessment* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Historical Imagination | Attitude/ Cognitive | Learner describes a situation in the past with realism and empathy. | Coursework |
| Historical Origins of Political/Social Problems | Attitude/ Cognitive | When confronted by a political or social problem, learner immediately considers its historical origins; knows salient facts. | Coursework |
| Concept of Change | Cognitive | Learner can indicate and explain differences between situation in one period with similar situation in another; e.g. woollen industry of 1730 with that of 1830. | Coursework |
| Concept of Causation | Cognitive | When asked a 'why' question, learner can respond with a genuine explanation. | Final Exam |
| Comprehension | Cognitive | When given a historical passage, learner can indicate in writing an understanding of the passage. | Final Exam |
| Analysis | Cognitive | When presented with information whether written or diagrammatic, learner can isolate relevant factors in answer to an analytic question. | Final Exam |

We wish the form of our final assessment to encourage qualities like perseverance and steadiness as much as memory and fluent essay-writing. The final marks therefore will be allocated as follows: project 25%, coursework 25%, final paper divided into skills sections 50%. The University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate has helped us greatly in the development of this syllabus which will be examined for the first time on a Mode III basis in 1973.

At the moment we feel that we are taking an uncertain step in the right direction. We would not begin to suggest that our objectives and associated methods of assessment would suit many other schools. We merely selected from the *Framework* those objectives which fitted our philosophy and seemed

appropriate to the needs of our pupils. When other teachers follow the same process, they may well give priority to quite different objectives. For example, we do very little documentary work at Brays Grove yet the pages of *Teaching History* show clearly that more and more teachers give high priority to this approach. For them Section B of the *Framework* (the Nature of the Discipline), which we have not used, will be most helpful. This is why the *Framework* is important. It provides a comprehensive list of aims, defined in terms of learner behaviour, against which history teachers and examining boards can evaluate (and modify where necessary) their courses and methods of assessment. Once teachers and G.C.E. boards begin to define their examination syllabuses in terms of educational objectives rather than of historical periods, then 'O' level examinations or their equivalent will look quite different.

## PUBLICATIONS OF SPECIAL INTEREST

**History After Four O'Clock** is the title of a new H.A. pamphlet prepared for the Association by Tom Hastie. It provides excellent suggestions for those concerned with school history clubs and gives advice on talks, films, tapes, model-making, murals, family history, outdoor fieldwork and dramatic performances. Price 7½p (post free).

**History Books: a catalogue** has been published by the Cambridge Institute's Board of Studies in History with Marjorie Bocking as editor. It lists books in 4 sections: textbooks, library and information books, books about people and historical novels. The first 3 sections are listed alphabetically by publisher; the novels are given chronologically. Price 65p (post free) from Publications Department, Cambridge Institute of Education, Shaftesbury Road, Cambridge CB2 2BX.

**Film and Society** which will be of interest to history teachers appears 4 times a year and costs 25p for each issue; annual subscription £1.00. Available from Film and Society, ELI Communications Ltd., 4a Albany Terrace, Regents Park, London NW1 4DS.

**School Technology** is the Bulletin of Project Technology of which 4 issues will be published in the academic year 1971/72. The subscription is £1.50 (to teachers £1.00 p.a.): Schools Council Project Technology (STP), College of Education, Freeport, Loughborough, LE11 0BR. The bulletin provides an invaluable forum for the exchange of experience and ideas among both arts and science teachers and the Historical Association is represented on the School Technology Forum.

**Guide to the Records of Parliament** by M. F. Bond deals with printed and manuscript records from 15th century. (H.M.S.O. 1971, £3.25).

**Records of Interest to Social Scientists 1919–1939** (Public Record Office Handbook No. 14) includes records which reflect the increasing involvement of government departments in the problems caused by depression and unemployment in the period (H.M.S.O., 1971, £2.40).

**Liverpool History Resources Committee** (Hon. Sec., M. G. Cook, University Archivist, Senate House, P.O. Box 147, Liverpool, L69 3BX) has published *Suggested Reading on the History of Liverpool for Teachers who are new to Merseyside* and *Liverpool Social History, 1820–1870, An Annotated List of Government Reports and Papers* by I. C. Taylor. The former is the type of publication that could well be copied for other areas; the latter (price 10p) is a detailed list by topic of immense value to teachers and local historians. Details from Michael Cook.

**History of Education Vol. 1 No. 1,** The Journal of the History of Education Society, appeared in January 1972. It includes articles by Asa Briggs (The Study of the History of Education), Norman Morris, R. A. Lowe, D. A. Turner and S. Schama. The editor is Malcolm Seaborne. Annual subscriptions £2.00 (members £1.50): Trevor Hearl, St. Paul's College, Cheltenham.

**Bulletin of the History Section of the A.T.C.D.E.** has been edited and produced by the History Department of Sunderland College of Education. It includes reports on in-service training and a contribution from A. Waplington on the Schools Council Project: History, Geography and Social Science, 8–13.

Alexander, G. et al (1977)

*Kidbrooke History: A Preliminary Report,*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, 19, pp. 23-25

and control; simultaneous translations at a different frequency to the sound track enable the student to hear both the original soundtrack and the English translation.

The greatest source of film/television material is the Open University and illustrations of the sorts of film used to teach politics were shown by Paul Lewis, of the Faculty of Social Sciences, and Michael Philips, a senior producer of the BBC. The role of the lecturer is represented by at least three sorts of presentation:

(i) Graphics and animated diagrams to illustrate a voice off
(ii) A talking head, the political expert, i.e. Wilson
(iii) A talking head, an academic expert, i.e. Professor Schapiro.

Increasingly the OU was turning to the case study to represent, by a specific depth study, the important generalization it sought to inculcate. Examples given ranged from 'People and Organisation', *Selection Boards*,[4] 'Making Sense of Society', *BART*[5] and 'Politics in the Middle East' *Nasser*.[6] What came over clearly was that the camera did not alter the workings of these complex organizations; in fact at the second of the two army selection boards filmed there were over fifteen actual cases of defamation of character recorded that led the BBC into legal trouble. The camera, or in actual fact its owner, became a victim of the reality it sought to record!

The final session 'Getting inside Politics (some subterfuges), introduced by Brian Lapping of Granada Television, revealed some of the most fascinating material and incidentally served to heighten the conference's respect for the integrity and doggedness of that organization. Lapping in a brilliant exposition explained how the three TV films on *The State of the Nation*[7] were made. His immediate problem was that politicians hate to tell the truth and the civil service is an intensely self-protective system. By various subterfuges he got his cameras into the Department of Trade for a period of four months after nine months' pressure. After such a long period the higher civil servants shown at work seemed to be oblivious of the camera and the political pressure that the mandarins exerted in select committee was shown. The work of the Cabinet was illustrated by the device of filming well known political and financial journalists taking the part of members of the Cabinet discussing the Chrysler affair. So much material had been leaked by the participants that the discussion rang with authenticity and made compulsive viewing. It also revealed that within every journalist there seems to be a frustrated actor trying to get out! Finally to represent the floor of the House of Commons where of course the cameras are forbidden, a debate was staged between some of the political figures engaged in the actual debates, including Enoch Powell, Richard Crossman and Anthony Crosland. The subject of this debate was 'The House of Commons is too ignorant to govern' and is of value not only for the talent it captures on the film but because it records one of the most powerful orators in the House at his potent best. Enoch Powell in full spate shows the incredible power of the spoken word to influence and seduce despite the banality of the thought behind it . . . an experience that all students of politics need to study at length!

The final impression this conference left with me was of the high standards of both theory and practice in the use of the visual media in recording present politics at the serious level. The one unanswered question is how far the recording process itself alters the political processes it seeks to record. ■

## Films/Cassettes available

1 *Personalities of the Thirties*
Four film clips on one reel.
(i) Speech by Rt Hon. Stanley Baldwin, UK, 1935, 3 mins.
(ii) Speech by Rt Hon. J. Ramsay Macdonald, UK, 1935, 1½ mins.
(iii) 'My Fight for Prosperity' by Lord Beaverbrook, UK, 1934, 8½ mins.
(iv) Plea for Peace by George Lansbury, UK, 1937, 4 mins.
Higher Education Film Library.
Scottish Central Film Library, 16–17 Woodside Terrace, Glasgow G3 7XN

2 *Chance of a Lifetime, 1950*
Not available for hire as printed on nitrate stock and can only be shown on 35mm. Can be viewed on application to National Film Archive, 81 Dean Street, London.

3 *The Guinea Pig, 1948*
Not available for hire as printed on nitrate stock and can only be shown on 35mm. Can be viewed on application to National Film Archive, 81 Dean Street, London.

4 *People and Organisation*
'Selection Board'. 'Army Board. 3-day testing period'. 'Army Board I and II'. Open University/BBC. DT 325/05 06 07.

5 *Making Sense of Society*
'Bay Area Rapid Transit (BART)' OU/BBC. D101/25–28.

6 *International Politics and Foreign Policy*
'An analysis of foreign policy. Nasser, 1967'. OU/BBC. D332/03. Nos. 4, 5, 6 above, all from Guild of Sound and Vision Ltd, Woodston House, Oundle Road, Peterborough PE2 9PZ

7 *State of the Nation, Parliament*
Granada TV, Manchester.

## KIDBROOKE HISTORY: A PRELIMINARY REPORT

by Gina Alexander, Selina Collier, Janet Denyer, Iorwerth Harries, Fran Redhouse, Ben Taubman, Linda Wanbon

In the summer of 1975 we started to devise a new history syllabus for the lower school at Kidbrooke, which we began to teach to our second year pupils in September 1976. Kidbrooke is a comprehensive of about 2000 girls in the London borough of Greenwich. This preliminary report is to show how we set about writing and resourcing a syllabus which aims to do two things at the same time: to convey the excitement of historical inquiry to our pupils and to establish clear objectives in our teaching and their learning.

We were dissatisfied with much of our previous teaching. Secondary school history seems to have been content-bound. Although many new syllabuses are wide ranging and imaginative in their content, they are still conventional in approach: the need to dispense information is paramount. Content in history *is* important. It is what gives life and reality to our study. But what content? Was our aim to develop a sense of *pietas* for the past? Whose past? Did we want to develop an understanding of our British past, or of those societies in the West Indies or the Indian subcontinent from which many of our pupils' families originate? Constructing a content-based syllabus presented severe difficulties; a different starting point was essential.

Our initial stimulas came from the thinking of others. The symposium edited by R. Ben Jones[1] emphasized the importance of individaul enquiry and the pupils' use of evidence. Fines and Coltham in their *Historical Association* pamphlet[2] have provided an invaluable framework for the learning objectives which can be achieved by pupils in their study of history.

We became convinced that by thinking as historians we could not only be true to our discipline but would be able to fulfil our pupils' educational needs more effectively. History is a study of evidence and the skills required to interpret and evaluate evidence are necessary tools for all pupils. Moreover in the exercise of those skills they will develop a capacity for judgement. Study

## KIDBROOKE HISTORY FOR 2nd and 3rd YEAR PUPILS OF ALL ABILITIES

| *Objectives* Nature and use of evidence | *Skills* | *Topic* |
|---|---|---|
| *Introductory Unit* History – inquiry | | Detective Game: (4) Schools Council Mark Pullen |
| *Unit 1* Nature of primary evidence: Pictorial Artifact | Memory 'translation' vocabulary | *Egypt:* Emphasis on Tutankhamun and Carter's discovery |
| *Unit 2* Nature of Primary evidence: 1. Relationship of documentary & pictorial 2. Documentary: chronicle letters | As above reference + emphasis on language skills necessary for comprehension of specific pieces of evidence | *Medieval Europe* Bayeux tapestry De Joinville's chronicle Paston letters |
| *Unit 3* 1. Nature of Primary evidence: documents and maps 2. Gaps in primary evidence | As above + understanding coherence and completeness of evidence | *European expansion* in 15 C and 16 C Portuguese and India and Africa. Spanish and S. America |
| *Unit 4* Ambiguity and bias in primary evidence | As above + analysis of evidence | 17 C England Civil War |
| *Unit 5* Secondary evidence | As above note taking + synthesis of evidence | France and Louis XIV |
| *Unit 6* Interpretation of evidence Comparison of Primary and Secondary | As above + extrapolation | Americas: 16 C–18 C |
| *Unit 7* Interpretation of evidence Bias in historians | As above + evaluation by comparison | American Revolution |
| *Unit 8* Interpretation of evidence Evidence as a basis for conclusions | As above + essay writing + understanding of historical concepts | 19 C parliamentary democracy and autocracy |

based on content alone could seem both unnecessary and irrelevant, but the exercise of skills and the capacity for judgement are important for the manager, the worker and the citizen as well as for the future historian. No other discipline seems to offer a vehicle in which students can learn both skills and judgment in this way. Having established our premises could we translate them into a practical syllabus for the lower school?

Our primary objective was to analyse what we meant by evidence and to show how evidence is used by the historian. Secondly, we wanted to make the acquisition of skills by our pupils an integral part of our syllabus. Thirdly, it was essential to select topics in which the evidence was appropriate to our primary objective and suitable for our pupils. Evidence, skills and topics had to be placed in logical order; at the same time, they had to fit together in each unit of work.

Our first aim was that pupils should have an understanding of certain kinds of historical evidence. Primary evidence was arbitrarily divided into two categories: pictorial and documentary. The original intention to include a section on artifacts had to be abandoned because of the lack easily available material. Our pupils shou also realize the fundamental importance documentary evidence in the writing of history, and different kinds of documentary evidence will be presented them. In our second unit of work they w consider only chronicles and letters, but, by limiting their exposure to written records at this stage, we hoped to be mo effective in reaching our prime objective As well as establishing the concept of primary evidence we hoped that our pu would also learn that history should not written without evidence.

Having devised two units in which to indicate what kinds of evidence the historian uses, the next units of work w designed to illustrate some of the criteri by which the historian evaluates eviden Historical evidence is frequently inadequate, and the gaps in the evidence distort the way history is written. The evidence itself is biased and that bias als distorts our understanding. It seemed important to include a section in which could point out clearly the difference between primary evidence and secondar writing. Moreover we wanted to show how historians working from different premises may interpret the same eviden in different ways. Indeed, by the end of two year course we hoped that some pupils might even have grasped how historical theories have emerged. At lea they should know the difference betwe evidence and fact, theory and certainty.

Our pupils would develop greater facili in historical comprehension and analysi they began to understand the nature of evidence and its use. It was, however, v difficult to incorporate in a logical sequence the acquisition of the essential basic skills of memory, reference and language. We could not teach one skill time: although for a few weeks we mig want to concentrate on one, none of us was happy trying to isolate artificially skills which were essentially interdependent. Our skills' list is theref cumulative, and the particular emphasi given in each unit of work will depend the particular needs of the pupils and th insight of the teacher of each group. It difficult to abandon the bad old habits induced by content-based history teach Perhaps our decision to teach our topic a chronological sequence was an exam of this. Our rationalization was that tir and change are very difficult concepts. Even though these concepts were not going to be taught explicitly a syllabus which 'hopped around' might impede pupils' historical understanding. We fe more comfortable at the prospect of teaching 'patches' in a chronological sequence.

Our choice of topics was partly determined by our own interests and

partly by the availability of resources. Eight main topics were chosen and another seven were considered which seemed to fit our primary objectives. These could be included in our syllabus if our allocation of teaching time in the lower school were ever to be increased. Another department could well choose a different set of topics while having the same primary objectives. The choice of topics will influence the way in which we handle our objectives but they should not distort them. It was decided to omit 'link' units because these were suggested by the content rather than by the demands of our primary objectives.

When we left the theoretical plane and started to collect the resources for our first two units, we found ourselves thinking about content once again. Three members of the department were thinking out the details of our second unit: documentary evidence and medieval Europe. For half a term they pondered on warfare, religion and society before deciding to scrap those ideas and concentrate on three main sources: the Bayeux tapestry, De Joinville's chronicle and the Paston Letters. These sources were chosen arbitrarily, but they were easily available[3]. In teaching from them we hope to give our pupils an understanding of, even an empathy towards, the men who sailed on crusade with St Louis or wrote of the turmoil of everyday life in fifteenth century Norfolk. They should also develop an appreciation of some of the kinds of documentary evidence available for writing the history of medieval Europe.

In assembling the resources for our first two units our aim was to combine maximum flexibility for the class teacher and cohesion within the department. We have not prepared pupils' materials but have confined ourselves to preparing teachers' files: lists of reference books and textbooks, copies of suitable documents from the main sources and from the supplementary sources as well as suggestions for breaking down each unit into teaching weeks. Devising and resourcing the syllabus has given us a sense of cohesion and direction. In developing our corporate ideas, we are sustaining each other, and learning from each other. An integral part of our new syllabus will be our record cards and the pupils' assessment sheets based on the primary objectives and the skills to be acquired. Individual teachers within the department must have maximum flexibility in teaching skills and handling content, but the completion of the assessment sheets twice a term will force us to keep to our common objectives.

We have asked ourselves some fundamental questions. What is history and how can it be taught in the secondary school? What can our pupils learn by studying with us? The result is an experiment: we think we are on the right lines, but we have reached hypotheses and not firm conclusions. As we work through our syllabus during 1976 to 1978, there will be many changes, indeed as we collect the resources for units three to eight the definition of both objectives and skills must become more precise. We are enthusiastic; we think that by being true to our discipline we have found learning objectives which will help our pupils to develop into more thoughtful and competent human beings.

But our evaluation of this syllabus will be subjective. We have no control group and our own experience has been of teaching content-based history. Comparison of the motivation and achievement of pupils we have taught in the past with those studying our new evidence-based syllabus will be of little significance. (Is a truly objective evaluation of a new syllabus possible at all?) We cannot be objective ourselves, being too involved and too committed to a syllabus which we believe satisfies both our needs as historians and our pupils' educational needs. Therefore we submit this preliminary report to other teachers of history to provoke their criticism and to further discussion. ■

## References


1 ed. R. Ben Jones, *Practical Approaches to the New History*, 1973.

2 J. B. Coltham and J. Fines, *Educational Objectives for the Study of History*, Historical Association, 1971.

3 ed. D. Douglas, *English Historical Documents*, ii *1042–1189* pp. 212–279.
ed. F. T. Marzials, *Memoirs of the Crusades*, 1951.
H. S. Bennett, *The Pastons and their England*, 1975.

4 Schools Council, *What is History?* 2. Detective Work, *The Mystery of Mark Pullen*, 1976.


## A Heritage Education Year Seminar


Christopher Daniels St John's Royal Latin School Buckingham


In connection with Heritage Education Year a one-day seminar, sponsored by the Historic Houses Association, was held at Stowe School, Buckingham, in March 1977. Representatives of various interested parties, including house owners, administrators, and teachers, attended and, after a morning spent looking at the historic building which forms the centre-piece of the landscape, the afternoon session was concerned with the country house and its educational function.

Introducing the seminar, J. J. Eyston of Mapledurham House mentioned the recent anniversary of William Morris, whom he quoted: 'If I were asked to say what is at once the most important production of art and the thing most to be longed for, I should answer, a beautiful house . . . ' Five speakers then gave talks, concluding with a general discussion.

Using the advertising maxim of the 'unique selling proposition' Christopher Jennings, Director of the Thames and Chilterns Tourist Board, emphasised the importance of involving children in whatever unique features each country house has to offer, with the concentration on people rather than architecture. For him, the country house was only the stage for the actors – the people of the past. He also stressed the importance of seeing the house in context with its estate and the local communities, which was echoed by later speakers. Examples from Milton Manor House were used in the talk.

Norman Hudson of the Recreational Land Management Department of Savills discussed the problems of the house owner, particularly the *private* house owner. His emphasis on their lack of time, money and expertise in dealing with school visits was a necessary reminder that the house owner has other concerns than school parties, and that not every owner could afford special facilities, or even a guide/adviser to look after school needs.

The compiler of this report then spoke on what school parties would like to find at country houses, explaining the growing importance of field study in history (e.g. the *History Around Us* element of the Schools Council Project History 13–16 syllabus), the concern of the historian with a building in its context of time and place, and the house as a 'document' to be read. Suggestions on what school parties should need for *this* type of visit were made, e.g. a work room with relevant books and archival material, guides with knowledge of the needs of different age and ability groups, and time for the pupils to write, draw, look and reflect. A mention was also made of the need for more consideration of the affective objectives as well as the cognitive, e.g. children dressing in reproduction costumes. Close involvement of teachers in planning visits well in advance, organizing suitable materials, and regulating numbers, and behaviour, was also stressed, and a brief 'Code of Conduct' outlined. The speaker justified the financial cost to house owners by pointing out that today's pupils will be tomorrow's parents, and that money spent now will be 'repaid' in the future.

After tea, Graham Carter, Education Advisory Officer, Beaulieu, and John Hodgson, Curator of Sudbury Hall and


*(continued on page 27)*

Associated Examining Board (1976)

*A Pilot Scheme in 'A' Level History*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, IV 15, pp. 202-09

# A PILOT SCHEME IN 'A' LEVEL HISTORY

Associated Examining Board

A NUMBER of examining boards are experimenting with new approaches to 'A' level history. We publish below the Associated Examining Board's pilot scheme – the statement of objectives and examination structure sent out to participating centres and the paper on historical method with the documents which accompanied it.

**Objectives and Examination Structures**

As a result of the answers received from an 'A' level history questionnaire, two regional conferences for teachers and Historical Association representatives were arranged at Birmingham and London at which there was lively discussion with general agreement on two points only, the objectives proposed by the Board and a desire for some form of personal study in depth by candidates. It was stressed that candidates who had sat the Board's Pilot Scheme in World History at 'O' level, who had sat the new assessment in 'O' level economic history and who had taken Mode 3 'O' levels in history would not relish the traditional method of 'A' level assessment, but would expect an 'A' level assessment using the varying forms of assessment they had experienced at 'O' level.

This Pilot Scheme is the result. The combination of a personal study in depth with a methodology paper is felt to provide a means of testing as objectively as possible what a candidate has gained from such a study, whilst an oral examination by the Board's moderator is regarded as essential to prevent any misuse of past projects.

This part of the Pilot Scheme is linked to one of the Board's existing papers and the scheme for the moderation of the personal studies is largely based on the procedure developed for General Studies over the last six years.

**Objectives**

1. *To encourage students to enjoy their involvement in and personal experience of historical study.*
2. *To elicit from the student empathetic response to historic material.*
   While they should bear in mind the work of later historians, students should be encouraged to appreciate a situation as seen through the eyes of a contemporary.
3. *To foster an understanding of the significance of particular events within the historical continuum.*
   This will be examined within the context of the options chosen by the candidates and at the depth of scholarship appropriate to students at 'A' level.
4. *To encourage the use, and interpretation of both primary and secondary sources of various types.*
   Emphasis should be placed on the critical use of such materials – their evaluation, validity and relevance to the problems under consideration.
5. *To communicate historical understanding through the use of a variety of skills.*
   The assessment will test ability to comprehend, translate evidence from one medium to another, analyse, extrapolate, synthesize, and make

judgments and evaluations. Adequate notice will be given of the intention to introduce any particular technique in assessment.

It is realized that neither of the first two objectives is strictly examinable.

The Board would like to draw the attention of teachers to the useful Historical Association Pamphlet TH35, *Educational Objectives for the Study of History*.

**Examination Structure**

Paper 1, lasting 3 hours and carrying 50% of the marks: one of the Board's existing outline papers, Options O1 to O5 inclusive.

Paper 2, lasting 2 hours 30 minutes (of which 30 minutes is recommended reading time) and carrying 25% of the marks: a written paper asking questions on the methodology used by candidates in their projects, more general questions on historical methods and questions based on previously unseen historical documents.

Paper 3, a personal study, of not more than 4,000 words, internally assessed and externally moderated, and including an oral element, 25% of the marks.

*Paper 1:*

One of the following existing papers:

Option O1 English History.
Option O2 European History.
Option O3 History of the United States, 1783–1961.
Option O4 History of the British Empire, 1713–1961.
Option O5 Britain and World Affairs, 1870–1961.

*Paper 2:*

This will be taken during the sixth term of the course and candidates may take their personal studies into the examination room. Candidates will be allowed a total of 2 hours 30 minutes, of which 30 minutes is recommended reading time.

The Paper will consist of three sections:

Section I will consist of a compulsory question in methodology to be answered by reference to the candidate's work on his personal study.

Section II will consist of sets of questions relating to each of three documents which will be distributed at the time of the examination. Candidates will be required to choose one of these documents and to answer all the questions relating to it.

Section III will consist of questions on general historical method. Four questions will be set of which candidates will be required to answer one question.

*Paper 3:*

Candidates should make an initial submission by the end of the February of the second term of the course, e.g. by 29th February 1976 for an examination in June 1977. This submission should include details of external examinations to be taken during the period of the course and a plan of campaign. This plan should include the title of the study, the proposed method of investigation to be used by the candidate and an outline of the sources and resources to be consulted.

The Board will appoint for each centre submitting candidates a visiting moderator who will receive these initial submissions, visit the centre and agree titles and methods with the centre. If such agreement is not reached, then the problem shall be submitted to the Board whose decision will be

final. The visiting moderator will make at least one other visit to the centre, when he makes his final moderation of the personal studies, already assessed by the teacher, and sent to the visiting moderator at the end of the fifth term of the course. This visit will be at the beginning of the sixth term of the course. Candidates will have their personal studies returned to them by the visiting moderator for this final moderation and they should have available a brief log of the progress of the study covering their experiences in its completion and containing details of any significant re-drafting of the original proposal and methods, with reasons. During this visit the visiting moderator will conduct the oral examination of each candidate (approximately 20 minutes per candidate); this oral will assist the visiting moderator in making his final assessment of the personal study.

It is expected that teachers will assist candidates in the choice of suitable topics for personal study and discuss with them sources and resources available as well as advising on any necessary significant re-drafting of the original proposal and methods.

Visiting moderators may make additional visits to centres if they consider such visits necessary.

## EXAMINATION PAPER 2: HISTORICAL METHOD

*2 hours and 30 minutes allowed. You are recommended to spend the first 30 minutes reading through the paper.*

Answer Section I, all the questions relating to ONE document in Section II, and ONE question from Section III.

*The sections carry equal marks*

### Section I

1. Comment on the relative value of the different sources which you used in preparing your personal study and describe briefly the use you made of each source.

### Section II

Choose ONE of the documents distributed with this paper and answer ALL the questions on that document.

*The numbers printed in brackets after each question show the number of marks allocated as a maximum for that question. This figure is included only as a guide to the amount of time you may wish to devote to writing the answer.*

**Questions on Document A:** Extract from *Ground in the Mill*, H. Morley, 1854.

A2. If you were writing a general essay on the time and place to which the document refers what information would you be able to include based on what Morley wrote? (7)

A3. What evidence is there in this extract as to how Morley had collected his facts? Comment on his use of his sources. (7)

A4. Where can you detect bias in this extract? (8)
A5. Mention TWO other kinds of evidence which you would wish to consult to verify some of Morley's allegations. (3)

**Questions on Document B:** Extract from English protestant theological writer.

B6. How would you approach the problem of dating this passage? (7)
B7. What does the writer tell you about the ideas and values of the society of his day? (6)
B8. What further investigations would an historian have to make before deciding how much importance to give it in an account of the history of religion in England? (7)
B9. State briefly the problems of comprehension which this passage presents to a late twentieth-century reader. (5)

**Questions on Document C:** Extract from the Diary of General Stilwell.

C10. What aspects of this extract would affect your judgement as to how much importance should be attached to it? (7)
C11. State briefly (with close reference to the passage) TWO conclusions about the then state of international relations which can be safely drawn from it. Similarly state TWO tentative hypotheses which are suggested by what Stilwell has written here but which would need further checking (6+6)
C.12 What further material would you need and find useful in checking this extract's validity and, in particular, the validity of the hypotheses which you have mentioned in your answer to question C11? (6)

## Section III

13. Discuss the value of and problems arising from the use of statistical material for understanding history *either* before *or* after 1900.
14. Taking ONE major controversy between historians, comment on the extent to which that dispute turns on questions of evidence.
15. How would you plan and carry out a scheme for preserving oral evidence of the history of the lifetime of *either* members of your family *or* the 'senior citizens' in your home district?
16. Why are historians often classified into 'schools' and why do the different 'schools' emerge and decline?

**Document A:** *Ground in the Mill*, H. Morley, 1854.
'It is good when it happens' say the children, 'that we die before our time'. Poetry may be right or wrong in making little operatives who are ignorant of cowslips say anything like that. We mean here to speak prose. There are many ways of dying. Perhaps it is not good when a factory girl, who has not the whole spirit of play spun out of her for want of meadows, gambols upon bags of wool, a little too near the exposed machinery that is to work it up, and is immediately seized, and punished by the merciless machine that digs its shaft into her pinafore and hoists her up, tears out her left arm at the shoulder joint, breaks her right arm, and beats her on the head. No, that is not good; but it is not a case in point, the girl lives and may be one of those who think that it would have been good for her if she had died before her time.

She had her chance of dying, and she lost it. Possibly it was better for the boy whom his stern master, the machine, caught as he stood on a stool wickedly looking out of window at the sunlight and the flying clouds. These were no business of his, and he was fully punished when the machine he served caught him by one arm and whirled him round and round till he was thrown down dead. There is no lack of such warnings to idle boys and girls. What right has a gamesome youth to display levity before the supreme engine. 'Watch me do a trick!' cried such a youth to his fellows, and put his arm familiarly within the arm of the great iron-hearted chief. 'I'll show you a trick,' gnashed the pitiless monster. A coil of strap fastened his arm to the shaft, and round he went. His leg was cut off, and fell into the room, his arm was broken in three or four places, his ankle was broken, his head was battered; he was not released alive.

Why do we talk about such horrible things? Because they exist, and their existence should be clearly known. Because there have occurred during the last three years, more than a hundred such deaths, and more than ten thousand (indeed, nearly twelve thousand) such accidents in our factories, and they are all, or nearly all, preventible.

These few thousands of catastrophes are the results of the administrative kindness so abundant in this country. They are all the fruits of mercy. A man was lime-washing the ceiling of an engine-room; he was seized by a horizontal shaft and killed immediately. A boy was brushing the dust from such a ceiling before whitewashing: he had a cloth over his head to keep the dirt from falling on him: by that cloth the engine seized and held him to administer a chastisement with rods of iron. A youth while talking thoughtlessly took hold of a strop that hung over the shaft: his hand was wrenched off at the wrist. A man climbed to the top of his machine to put the strap on the drum: he wore a smock which the shaft caught: both his arms were then torn out of the shoulder-joints, both legs were broken, and his head was severely bruised: in the end, of course, he died. What he suffered was all suffered in mercy. He was rent asunder, not perhaps for his own good; but, as a sacrifice to the commercial prosperity of Great Britain. There are few amongst us – even among the masters who share most largely in that prosperity – who are willing, we will hope and believe, to pay such a price as all this blood for any good or any gain that can accrue to them.

These accidents have arisen in the manner following. By the Factory Act, passed in the seventh year of Her Majesty's reign, it was enacted, among other things, that all parts of the mill-gearing in a factory should be securely fenced. There were no buts and ifs in the Act itself; these were allowed to step in and limit its powers of preventing accidents out of a merciful respect, not for the blood of the operatives, but for the gold of the mill-owners. It was strongly represented that to fence those parts of machinery that were higher than the heads of workmen – more than seven feet above the ground – would be to incur an expense wholly unnecessary. Kind-hearted interpreters of the law, therefore, agreed with mill-owners that seven feet of fencing should be held sufficient. The result of this accommodation – taking only the accounts of the last three years – has been to credit mercy with some pounds and shillings in the books of English manufacturers: we cannot say how many, but we hope they are enough to balance the account against mercy made out on behalf of the English factory workers thus: Mercy debtor to justice, of poor men, women and children, one hundred and six lives, one hundred and forty-two hands or arms, one thousand two hundred and eighty-seven (or,

in bulk, how many bushels of) fingers, for the breaking of one thousand three hundred and forty bones, for five hundred and fifty-nine damaged heads, and for eight thousand two hundred and eighty-two miscellaneous injuries. It remains to be settled how much cash saved to the purses of the manufacturers is a satisfactory and proper off-set to this expenditure of life and limb and this crushing of bone in the persons of their work-people.

**Document B:** Extract from English protestant theological writer.

Every man that is able, must be steadily and ordinarily employed in such work as is serviceable to God, and to the Common Good. . . . Everyone that is a member of a Church or Commonwealth must employ their parts to the utmost for the good of the Church and Commonwealth, public service is God's greatest service. To neglect this, and to say, I will pray and meditate, is as if your servant should refuse your greatest work, and to tie himself to some lesser easy part; and God hath commanded you some way or another to labour for your daily bread, and not to live as drones on the sweat of others only. Innocent Adam was put into the Garden of Eden to dress it, and fallen man must eat his bread in the sweat of his brow (Genesis 3:19). And he that will not work must be forbidden to eat (2 Thes. 3:6, 10 and 12). And indeed, it is necessary for ourselves, for the health of our bodies, which will grow diseased with idleness. And for the health of our souls, which will fail if the body fail. And man in flesh must have work for his body as well as his soul. And he that will do nothing but pray and meditate, it's like will (by sickness or melancholy) be disabled ere long to pray or meditate, unless he have a body extraordinary strong . . .

It gloryeth God, by showing the excellency of faith, when we contemn the riches and honour of the world, and live above the worldling's life, accounting that a despicable thing, which he accounts his happiness, and loseth his soul for . . . When seeming Christians are worldly and ambitious as others, and make as great matter of the gain, and wealth and honour, it showeth that they do but cover the base and sordid spirit of worldlings, with the visor of the Christian name . . .

As labour is thus necessary so understand how needful a state a Calling is, for the right performance of your labours. A Calling is a stated course of labour. This is very needful for these reasons: (1) Out of a Calling a man's labours are but occasional or inconstant, so more time is spent in idleness than labour; (2) A man is best skilled in that which he is used to; (3) And he will be best provided for it with instruments and necessaries; (4) Therefore he doth it better than he could do any other work, and so wrongeth not others, but attaineth more the ends of his labour; (5) And he doth it more easily, when a man unused and unskilled and unfurnished, toileth himself much in doing little; (6) And he will do his work more orderly, when another is in continual confusion, and his business knoweth not its time and place, but one part contradicts another. Therefore come certain Calling or trade of life is best for everyman . . .

The first and principal thing to be intended in the choice of a trade or Calling for yourselves or children in the service of God, and the public good. And, therefore, *ceteris paribus*, that Calling which most conduceth to the public good is to be preferred. The Callings most useful to the public good are the magistrate, the pastor, the teacher of the Church, schoolmaster,

physician, lawyer, etc., husbandmen (ploughmen, graziers and shepherds); and next to them are mariners, clothiers, booksellers, tailors and such others that are employed about things most necessary to mankind. And some Callings are employed about matters of so little use, as tobacco-sellers, lace-sellers, feather-makers, periwig-makers, and many more such, that he that may choose better, should be loth to take up with one of these, though possibly in itself it may be lawful. It is a great satisfaction to an honest mind, to spend his life in doing the greatest good he can, and a prison and a constant calamity, to be tied to spend one's life in doing little good at all to others, though he should grow rich by it . . .

If thou be called to the poorest laborious Calling, do not carnally murmur at it, because it is wearisome to the flesh, nor imagine that God accepteth the less of thy work and thee. But cheerfully follow it, and make it the matter of thy pleasure and joy that thou art still in thy heavenly master's services, though it be the lowest thing. And that he who knoweth what is best for thee, hath chosen this for thy good, and trieth and valueth thy obedience to him the more, by how much the meaner work thou stoopest to at His command. But see that thou do it all in obedience to God, and not merely for thy own necessity. Thus every servant must serve the Lord, in serving their master, and from God expect their chief reward.

In doing good to others we do good to ourselves: because we are living members of Christ's body, and by love and communion feel their joys, as well as pains.

Good works are a comfortable evidence that faith is sincere, and that the heart dissembles not with God.

Good works are much to the honour of religion, and consequently of God, and much tend to men's conviction, conversion and salvation.

**Document C:** Extract from the Diary of General Stilwell.

SOLUTION IN CHINA (probably July 1944). The cure for China's trouble is the elimination of Chiang K'ai-shek. The only thing that keeps the country split is his fear of losing control. He hates the Reds and will not take any chances on giving them a toehold in the government. The result is that each side watches the other and neither gives a damn about the war (against Japan). If this condition persists, China will have civil war immediately after Japan is out. If Russia enters the war before a united front is formed in China, the Reds, being immediately accessible, will naturally gravitate to Russia's influence and control. The condition will directly affect the relations between Russia and China, and therefore indirectly those between Russia and U.S.

If we do not take action, our prestige in China will suffer seriously. China will contribute nothing to our effort against Japan, and the seeds will be planted for chaos in China after the war.

19th September. Mark this day in red on the calendar of life. At long, at very long last, F.D.R. has finally spoken plain words, and plenty of them, with a firecracker in every sentence. 'Get busy or else.' A hot firecracker. I handed this bundle of paprika to the Peanut and then sank back with a sigh.*

* Stilwell refers to a sharply worded demand by F.D.R. that Chiang reform his government; the telegram arrived at Stilwell's headquarters on 19th September, and the American general was ordered to deliver it personally to Chiang. 'The Peanut' is, of course, Chiang – the term that 'Vinegar Joe' Stilwell used throughout his diary.

The harpoon hit the little bugger right in the solar plexus, and went right through him. It was a clean hit, but beyond turning green and losing the power of speech, he did not bat an eye. He just said to me, 'I understand'. And sat in silence, jiggling one foot. We are not a long way from the 'tribal chieftain' bawling out. *Two long years lost*, but at least F.D.R's eyes have been opened and he has thrown a good hefty punch.

. . . It has taken two and a half years for the Big Boys to see the light, but it dawned finally and I played the avenging angel.

I've waited long for vengeance –
At last I've had my chance.
I've looked the Peanut in the eye
And kicked him in the pants.

The old harpoon was ready
With aim and timing true,
I sank it to the handle,
And stung him through and through.

The little bastard shivered,
And lost the power of speech.
His face turned green and quivered
As he struggled not to screech.

For all my weary battles,
For all my hours of woe,
At last I've had my innings
And laid the Peanut low.

I know I've still to suffer,
And run a weary race,
But oh! the blessed pleasure!
I've wrecked the Peanut's face.

'Rejoice with me and be exceedingly glad, for lo! we have prevailed over the Philistine and bowed his head in the dust, and his heart is heavy.'

The dope is that after I left the screaming (Chiang's) began and lasted into the night.

## COURSES AND CONFERENCES FROM MAY 1976

**H.A. Revision School**
27 July–4 August at Sorby Hall, Sheffield University. Details from H.A.

**Local History**
10–16 July at Madingley Hall, Cambridge. Applications to the Director, Board of Extra-Mural Studies, Madingley Hall, Cambridge CB3 8AQ.

Jones, B. (1979)

*Roman Lead Pigs*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, 25, pp. 19-21

# Roman Lead Pigs,

## or how to avoid some perils of the 'New History'.

by R. Ben Jones, Goole Grammar School

It is ten years since people began to talk about the 'New History'. That was a time when depression hung heavily over history conferences: History was in danger,[1] seemingly rejected by children in revolt against rote learning and teacher's notes, and by teachers in search of 'relevance' as a counter to encroachment by new social science subjects and integrated studies. That time has passed, and among the causes of growing confidence, the 'New History'[2] can claim an important place. It sprang from the enthusiasm and idealism of curriculum developers urging a concentration upon the essentials of the subject, an examination of the processes of historical research (albeit at an elementary level), a reaching after the excitement of discovering for oneself in contrast to a dreary ramble through well trodden ways in English History. Its advocates urged that a firmer foundation for historical studies would be found by adopting a skills-based approach made possible by analyzing one's teaching scheme in terms of a taxonomy (or at least a framework)[3] of educational objectives. With this foundation to give direction and coherence, children could embark upon the pursuit and assessment of evidence of whatever sort inside the classroom or in the locality, in the manner of historians. The Schools Council History Project, 13–16, at its inception, was a practical illustration of some elements of the New History.

Early contributors to the Schools Council Project will recall the development of 'detective' exercises based upon evidence arbitrarily drawn from a period that was not being studied, as a means of developing and utilizing the skills relevant to the historian (e.g. the work on Henry VIII and his first divorce, or on the Norman Conquest). Despite the initial hesitancy of most teachers, many have found this a useful technique which, if used sensitively and with care, can be an effective means of catching children's interest and of monitoring their progress in acquiring a range of skills. The 'detective' exercise may be introduced at various levels, to introduce new work, to develop rudimentary skills of comprehension and to reach out to more sophisticated areas.[4]

But there are dangers. 'Detective' exercises, like games and other mechanical exercises, are merely a means to an end: they can become an end in themselves. If used arbitrarily or too frequently, without clear positioning within the developing pattern of one's teaching, they can become self-defeating. It is one thing to deplore, as the basis for a history syllabus, a purposeless canter through certain moments of English history; it is quite another to substitute an arbitrary sequence of purposeful exercises. If a history course became little more than a series of problems in investigation, it would lose its coherence and its existence as an emotional experience. However pleasing it may be to show how skilful some children may become at an early age in the use of sophisticated evaluatory skills. History, for most children, is a story, an unfolding picture, a grasping after a lost world. Here lies its psychological importance and appeal. The professional historian brings to bear a formidable barrage of skills at a high level. It is good that children should be acquainted with some of them and derive direct benefit for their own intellectual and personal development. But not all children will become professional historians, nor is education simply a matter of developing a series of identifiable skills. History is a rounded whole: it is greater than the sum of its parts.

The 'New' History has had a big impact in the classroom and on the approach of teachers to their subject. But, like all approaches to teaching it has its dangers, especially in unskilled or insensitive hands. The too frequent use of arbitrary exercises is bad. The concentration upon rudimentary skills of comprehension and recall may be even worse. Everything depends upon the preparation of the exercise, its place in the developing teaching pattern and the purpose for which it is created.

There are two types of 'detective' exercise. The first is derived simply from material in current use and need be nothing more sophisticated that a series of well directed questions based on particular pieces of evidence currently being considered – questions devised to reveal a range of information to the teacher. Used from time to time, such a test becomes part of the routine of classwork and serves as a simple check upon the growing command of children over different skills. Clearly, it would be poor psychology to make too frequent use of such 'detective' exercises – the more so as they may tend to reflect a regurgitation of recently acquired knowledge rather than the range of skill desired. It would be a cleverly framed exercise that would escape this problem if the material were in current use.

For this reason the second type of 'detective' exercise is valuable – one based upon material with which the children are not familiar and to which they can respond only in terms of their own grasp of the skills involved. Such an exercise is probably best administered towards the end of a term or year, and presented as a very special piece of work. Used extremely rarely its impact is the greater and it reveals a measure of the children that will differ, perhaps, from one used during the ordinary teaching programme. It may re-inforce the impression already gained of the children; it may also throw up quite surprising results, such as revealing how few can handle unfamiliar material who were quite good in tests on familiar work – it may discriminate between those who can regurgitate teacher's notes and those who have the courage to stand on their own feet.

Exercises of this second type, therefore, are particularly useful as a check upon progress, with all that this implies for a teaching programme. They should be used infrequently. An example is the following given, without preparation, to first year mixed ability classes in an Upper School (aged 13). They had done no work on Roman Britain, but had worked on investigating evidence and testing a resulting hypothesis.

**Roman Lead Pigs**

Read the evidence presented below and use it to answer the questions that follow.

(After each question I have added the letter of the several pieces of evidence that may be useful in the answer, together with an indication of the particular skill concerned in the answer. (In developing an exercise, care must be taken to establish the range of skills, and for a generalized exercise of the type illustrated here, to get well beyond the obvious and basic.))

*Questions*

(1) Why does the museum think the lead came from Wirksworth? (E.F.G.J.M. – Comprehension.)

(2) How were the pigs transported from there? (Comprehension.)

(3) What evidence is given that lead was valuable? (A.C.D.E.K. – Analysis.)

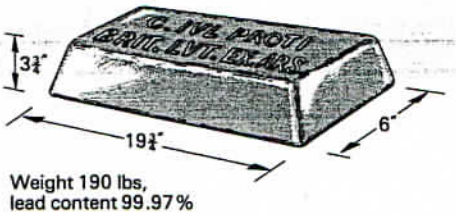
(4) How was the inscription put on the pigs? (B.J.L. – Extrapolation.)

(5) Suggest two reasons why the inscription should be there at all. (Extrapolation.)

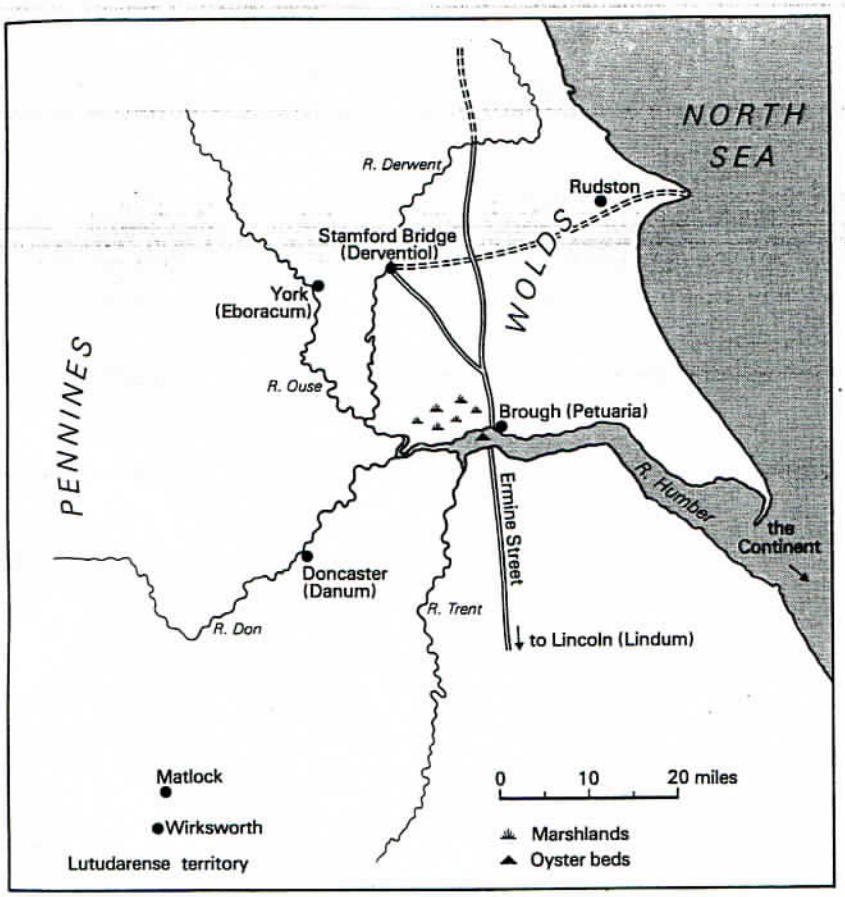
(6) Why should the works be called 'silver-lead'? How could they belong to a 'free man'? (B.D.J. – Comprehension and Extrapolation.)

(7) Making use of all the pieces of evidence, give the most reasoned explanation you can of why the pigs

One of the lead pigs




Weight 190 lbs,
lead content 99.97%




were left by a road between Petuaria and Eboracum. (Judgement and Evaluation.)

(8) What questions would you wish to put to the Curator of the Hull Museum where the pigs are to be seen? (Synthesis and Communication.)

*EVIDENCE*

A. One of the reasons why Caesar invaded Britain was because of the wealth of metal produced in the island; for example, gold, tin, silver, lead.

B. Silver was found in conjunction with lead, and the two were quarried and smelted together. The works were small, and there would have been no extensive mining. Smelting was carried out in a small furnace and the molten ore was ladled into clay moulds.

C. Lead pigs weighed about 190 lbs (112 lbs equals 1 cwt) and needed two men to carry them. They were transported on ox carts with two wheels; only four could be carried on these carts at any one time. If the pigs could go by water it was best – you could transport a greater number more easily.

D. Vast quantities of lead were used by the Romans for different purposes ranging from water-pipes to coffins. Lead works were under the army or government officials and the work was carried out by skilled local men, probably slaves and prisoners.

E. Among the best areas for lead were the hills of the southern Pennines (around Matlock and Wirksworth): the High Peak; and parts of the Pennines to the North. The land of the Lutudarense tribe, around Wirksworth, was particularly well known for good quality lead.

F. The Derbyshire Derwent flows from the High Peak southwards through Matlock, and joins the Trent near Derby. The Trent then flows northwards into the Humber. The rivers are navigable, for small boats, a long way up their course.

G. Brough-on-Humber (Petuaria) was noted for its oysters which were in demand at the garrison in York (Eboracum). It was also an important route centre because the road from Lincoln (Ermine Street) crossed the Humber by ferry at this point – and it was important as a port for both trading and military purposes. The Ouse is navigable above York.

H. At Rudston, a magnificent Roman villa has been excavated: the mosaic floor with its picture of Venus is now in Hull museum. There was ample lead piping for water conduits (channels) and other purposes like roof joints etc.

I. Horses were bred in the lower valleys of the Yorkshire Wolds and on the drier parts of the plain that is now called the Vale of York. The Roman garrison at Eboracum would need a constant supply of good horses for the cavalry and for officers.

J. Four Roman pigs of lead (now in the Hull Museum) were found in sand two feet above a Roman road between Brough and York in 1940. They were cast in the same mould and bore the same inscription: C.IVL.PROTI.BRIT.LVT.EX.ARS. (The Roman V may be our U and the I our J.) It means 'from the silver-lead works (ex argentarus) of Caius Julius Protus in the land of the Lutudarense in Britain'. C. J. Protus was a 'free man' (ex-slave). Other lead pigs, from different works, have been found in Yorkshire moorlands and wastes.

K. Extensive rebuilding was taking place at the garrison of Eboracum at the beginning of the second century A.D. It involved carting quantities of stone and the construction of a permanent and important garrison town. ■

## Reference


1 *History*, vol. LIII no. 179, October, 1968, article by Mary Price.
2 See *Practical Approaches to the New History* ed. R. Ben Jones (Hutchinson Educational, 1973).
3 General taxonomies by Bloom and Ebel, and other have been supplemented by Coltham and Fines, *Educational Objectives for the Study of History: a suggested framework* (Historical Association, 1971).
4 See, for example, *Teaching History* no. 18, June 1977, p. 22.

Hodgkinson, K and Long, M. (1981)

*The Assassination of John F. Kennedy*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, 29, pp. 3-7

# The Assassination of John F. Kennedy –

***a skills-based approach for remedial pupils***

***by Keith Hodgkinson and Michael Long, University of Technology, Loughborough***

## *Introduction*

We sometimes assume that pupils in the lower secondary school are incapable of dealing with complex historical issues which involve detailed evidence and conflicting interpretation. This is especially true of slow learners and remedials whose reading disabilities, short memory and concentration time, lack of confidence and fluency all handicap them in extended tasks. With a topic like the assassination of President Kennedy one might therefore expect a minimal response – confusion, bemusement, alienation and a refusal to commit themselves to a reasoned and reasonable point of view. These problems were tackled head-on in Autumn 1979 by two young teachers in a large London comprehensive school. They used a carefully chosen teaching strategy based on the skills approach to History and aimed especially at the development of inference and judgement, citing the evidence.

## The Pupils and the Lessons

The class were a remedial group of twenty children in their third year, i.e. ages 13–14, in a large London comprehensive school. Their study of history hitherto had been conventional with very minimal use of primary sources. They were multi-ethnic in origin and although none were withdrawn for specialist language help, the handwriting of one pupil in particular was usually unreadable. They were typical remedial children in that they had problems in the organization of work, memory, relationships, emotional stability and confidence. Their reading ages, assessed on a variety of scales, ranged from 8 to 13.

This topic was presented to them through a work booklet with a major stimulus provided by pictures and a record. The photographs, taken in Dallas at the time of Kennedy's death, were the focal point of each lesson and the children were encouraged to involve themselves in the material through questions and discussion. The recording was of the American news broadcast shortly after the assassination.

The sequence of lessons was as follows:

1. Who was JFK? Picture sequence begins. Booklet introduced. Why was he in Dallas on 22 November 1963?
2. The moment of assassination. Photographs and radio broadcast.
3. Lee Harvey Oswald and Jack Ruby.
4. The investigation – Warren Commission Report.
5. Conclusion – conflicting evidence.

All through the work, familiarity with the material and the evidence was stressed before children were asked to fill in the booklet (e.g. who was Kennedy? What was the name of the Report? etc.). This

# The Contributors

***Ian Dawson***
studied history and took his postgraduate course at Leeds. After teaching abroad in Egypt and in a Wakefield Comprehensive school, he became a lecturer at Trinity and All Saints Colleges involved with the Schools Council History 13–16 Project.

***Jack Duckworth***
is principal lecturer in education at Huddersfield Polytechnic. He has taught history in progressive, independent secondary modern and grammar schools. He is a member of the Historical Association's Films sub-committee. During the current academic year he is at the University of Central Florida, studying American history teaching and their use of films.

***Martyn Dyer***
is Head of the Department of History at St Mary's College Strawberry Hill and **Mary Ford** is a Senior Lecturer in the same Department. They are jointly working on a text for the Modern World Studies Series on South Africa, together with ancillary teaching materials, which the Schools Council History 13–16 Project is considering as part of its future developments.

***John Hartley***
is head of the Historical Studies Division of the Northumberland College of Higher Education and will shortly be taking up an appointment at St Mary's College, Newcastle. He lectured in S. California 1974–75 on a world civilisation course.

***Keith Hodgkinson***
studied history at London University and has been head of history in a Nottingham secondary school. He is now lecturer in education at Loughborough university and is responsible for the methodology course in history teaching.

***Bill Inglis***
is a Lecturer in Education at Stirling University. Before taking up that post he taught history in schools and lectured at Jordanhill College of Education. His main interests aside from the teaching and examination of history are the Sociology and Administration of Education.

***John Kentleton***
is a Lecturer in Modern History at the University of Liverpool and from 1975 to 1980 served as Tutor for Admissions. He specialises in the history of the USA and has also taught in the United States, the last time as Visiting Professor in American History at the University of Nevada.

***Michael Long***
studied Politics and History at Lancaster University and trained as a PGCE student at Loughborough University, He is currently teaching history at Kingsbury High School, North London.

***G. F. W. Pleuger***
studied at Eltham College and Keele University, and his first posts were in Newcastle Upon Tyne and Ipswich. Since 1973 he has taught at Bedford School where he maintains a keen interest in methodology.

***Andrew Reekes***
was an open scholar at Exeter College, Oxford and won a blue at athletics. He taught at Berkhamsted school before taking up an appointment at Tonbridge. He is now Senior Historian at Cranleigh School, Surrey.

***John West***
is Chief Inspector to the Borough of Dudley. He is the author of a number of history textbooks and of *Village Records* (1963) and *History Here and Now* (1967). His Master's Degree was concerned with medieval forest law and he is currently engaged in a PhD thesis on children's awareness of the past.

THE ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT

# JOHN F. KENNEDY

on November 22nd 1963

John F. Kennedy became President of the USA in November 1960. At the age of 43 he was the youngest man ever to hold the job.

(1) What job did John Kennedy do?

.....

(2) For how long did he do this job?

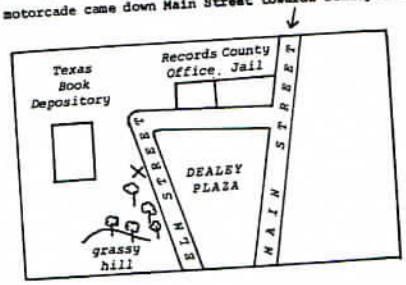
.....

(3) Look at the picture of John Kennedy. Which of the following words best describes this photo of him?

(put a tick in the boxes)

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| rich | ☐ | poor | ☐ | | |
| sad | ☐ | happy | ☐ | | |
| clever | ☐ | fierce | ☐ | | |
| honest | ☐ | thoughtful | ☐ | | |
| stern | ☐ | soft | ☐ | hard | ☐ |
| dishonest | ☐ | concerned | ☐ | unconcerned | ☐ |
| slovenly | ☐ | compassionate | ☐ | | |
| well-dressed | ☐ | corrupt | ☐ | trustworthy | ☐ |

At 12.30 pm, the motorcade came down Main Street towards Dealey Plaza.




It turned right by the County Jail, went past the Records Office, and slowed down to turn left into Elm Street.
On the map above, mark the route from Main Street to Elm Street, position "X".

The building nearest to the President's car is .....

In the next 7½ seconds a number of shots are fired.

THIS IS WHERE THE MYSTERY BEGINS. There are two questions:

(1) How many shots were fired?

(2) Where did the shots come from?

The next picture shows you the moment when the first shot was fired.

(13) In which car is the President travelling? .....

(14) Who are the men on the running-boards of the second car? .....

.....

Where do these men think the shots have come from? .....

.....

(15) Look at the motor cyclists. Where do they think the shots have come from?

.....

(16) In the next picture, what has happened to the President? .....

.....

(17) The next picture shows you the President's car. It was taken from the back, just after the shots were fired. Describe what you think is happening.

.....

.....



Now look at the picture of the cars and motorcyclists, as if from above.

(26) Explain what happened to the first bullet, according to the Warren Report.

.....

.....

Now read what Governor Connally said:-

'It is not conceivable to me that I could have been hit by the first bullet. The Limousine had travelled about 150 feet maybe 200 feet when I heard what I thought was a shot. I turned to look back over my right shoulder, and I saw nothing unusual except just people in the crowd, but I did not catch the President in the corner of my eye. I was interested because once I heard the shot in my own mind I identified it as a rifle shot, and I immediately - the only thought that crossed my mind was that this was an assassination attempt.'
After failing to see the President, the Governor said that he, 'was turning to look back over my left shoulder into the back seat when I felt like somebody had hit me in the back.'

(27) How is the different from what the Warren Report said? .....

.....

.....

This is what Police Officers Martin and Hargis said:-

Police Officer B.J. Martin told report after the assassination that when the bullet entered the Presidents brain his uniform, wind shield and helmet were covered with blood, particles of flesh and other matter probably bits of the Presidents brain.

The evidence of Police Officer Bobby Hargis.
'I was a little back and left of Mrs Kennedy, and after the first shot was fired I was spattered with blood and brain. At first I thought I might have been hit.'



(28) Where did Martin and Hargis think the first bullet came from? .....

.....

(29) What made them think this? .....

.....

.....

Other people say they saw puffs of smoke coming from the grassy knoll (see picture on p.4).

We now have two ideas or theories about the assassination of President Kennedy. You can compare them by filling in these boxes:-

| | Warren Report | Other ideas |
|---|---|---|
| Who was hit by the first bullet? | | |
| How many bullets were there? | | |
| Where did the first bullet come from? | | |
| Who killed President Kennedy? | | |
| Was it one person or more than one? | | |

encouraged the class to give authoritative answers which boosted their confidence as the lessons progressed. After completion of the booklet, three children were chosen at random from the group and had their responses to the work taped during a lunch-break. Through discussion with the teacher they made sound accurate statements and valid judgements when questioned on problems central to the work.

## The Material

The main visual stimulus was a series of ten black and white photographs of the events at Dallas, and one portrait of Kennedy, in *The Torch Has Passed*, (Associated Press, 1964). Two overhead projector transparencies showed Dealey Plaza, Dallas and the lines of fire from the Texas Book Depository, in coloured diagrams. A radio broadcast of the assassination increased the sense of drama and immediacy. This came from 'John F. Kennedy' produced by Diplomat Records, USA (D.10,000).

The booklet, 'The Assassination of John F. Kennedy', consisted of eight typed worksheets with drawings, maps and documentary evidence – the statements of Governor Connally and of Police Officers Martin and Hargis. Pupils were asked to label the map and plan of Dealey Plaza, to fill in one-word or sentence answers to questions, tick boxes (description of Kennedy, choosing alternatives) and finally to complete a block chart of the Warren Commission findings and alternative theories. Altogether some thirty questions were asked, some with sub-questions.

The booklet was designed along the lines suggested by Mary Gauld (1) – short, simple sentences, a 'light' appearance to each page with material well spaced out and blocked off, clear guidance on fill-ins and a slow build-up of factual content and concepts. The application of a skills analysis of historical objectives following Coltham and Fines (2) was helped by discussion with Marilyn Palmer. Her research pointed to a clear policy of 'familiarity first' in all new areas and for all new source material, visual or documentary (3). Thus the first questions tested Comprehension, Translation or Selection, while Inference and Judgement came at the end of the page or section. Her work also indicated that pupils of this age range could not be expected to make inferences and judgements on external criteria – they would have to rely upon information provided, and could rarely go beyond it, i.e. move from the concrete to the formal or abstract level of operations. Finally we decided on a policy of involving pupils quickly and decisively by asking initially for their opinions (inference and judgement) on photographic materials rather than written evidence. This increased, we hoped, the rate of response, confidence and interest. Reading difficulties were therefore by-passed for as long as possible.

Fry's Readability Formula gave a reading age of 13.5 years, slightly higher than the pupils' reading ages, but key passages were easier, and the booklet did contain central words such as assassination, Kennedy, President etc., which although long, presented less difficulty through repetition.

## The Results

The fill-in questions in the booklet were categorised according to their required skills and pupils attained the average or mean percentage success shown below (table 1):

After the necessarily heavy emphasis on familiarity (Comprehension and Translation) most questions concerned Inference and Judgement. This reflected the nature of the topic and meant that there were few right and wrong answers, merely answers which were logically consistent and the evidence, meaningful and rational, usually with the requirement that evidence be cited. The response level (84 per cent and 75 per cent 'correct') was surprisingly high given the pupils' background, school record and literacy difficulties. One pupil with a Reading Accuracy age of 11.7, Comprehension 12.10 and Spelling Age of 8.3, scored 88 per cent on Inference and 100 per cent on Judgement questions. But there were some disappointments – another pupil with reading ages of 9.6, 12.1 and 8.5 had 0 and 8 per cent results, mainly because the markers could not read let alone understand his answers. The number of incomplete answers was insignificant.

The quality and variety of inferences and judgements made is best illustrated by the examples in table 2, below:

**Table 1: Average or Mean Percentage Success**

| *Skill* | *Number of questions* | *Mean Score %* | *Range %* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Comprehension | 12 | 91 | 70–100 |
| Translation | 9 | 82 | 60–100 |
| Selection | 4 | 94 | 90–100 |
| Analysis | 2 | 90 | 80–100 |
| Synthesis | 3 | 81 | 70–100 |
| Recognition | 2 | 100 | 100 |
| Memory | 4 | 69 | 55–100 |
| Inference | 8 | 84 | 60–100 |
| Judgement | 15 | 75 | 60–100 |

**Table 2: Inferences and Judgements**

| *Question* | *Pupil A* | *Pupil B* | *Pupil C* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Why do you think Jack Ruby killed Lee Harvey Oswald? | '. . because he was put up to it by the assassins because he might have grassed' | '. . because he was going to die later so he did something big' | 'Ruby liked the President so when he was assassinated, Ruby took his revenge on Oswald' |
| | *Pupil D* | *Pupil E* | *Pupil F* |
| Did the killing of Lee Harvey Oswald help the investigation into Kennedys murder, or hinder it? | 'it caused them problems because he was very important in the investigation' | 'it didn't help because he was the only one who knew what happened' | 'Yes it did' |
| | *Pupil G* | *Pupil H* | *Pupil I* |
| Can you give a reason why the 3rd shot would be even more difficult than the 2nd? | 'The target was smaller because the car was going faster, and the bodyguards were protecting the President' | 'The trees would be in the way and the car would be very smaller' | 'Because he has to fokors [sic] the gun' |

In order to investigate the relationship between general linguistic ability and the ability to make inferences and judgements, the Kendall Tau Rank Order Correlation was applied and the following correlation coefficients were obtained:

**Table 3**

| | *Inference* | *Judgement* |
|---|---|---|
| Reading Accuracy | −0·1565 | −0·1761 |
| Reading Comprehension | −0·0066 | 0·0132 |
| Spelling Accuracy | 0·0607 | 0·0540 |

This extremely negative relationship between reading age and the higher historical skills was quite surprising. One interpretation is that the booklet was pitched at the right level, i.e. it demanded sufficiently low linguistic skills for most of the remedial pupils to handle without difficulty. There was a more significant positive relationship between comprehension questions and Inference and Judgement, as follows:

**Table 4**

| | *Inference* | *Judgement* |
|---|---|---|
| Comprehension questions | 0·4405 | 0·4910 |

The ability to handle high level historical questions seemed to depend to some extent on accurate comprehension – an obvious conclusion but one which more than ever reinforces the need to establish 'familiarity first'.

However, these results must have a low reliability because of the small sample size and the use of a bunched rank order rather than evenly distributed standardised scores. Confirmation would certainly require larger sampling but this might prove difficult where remedial groups are concerned.

## Written and Oral Responses

More interesting perhaps was the stark contrast between the quality of written and oral responses from the three pupils in taped discussion with the teacher. 'Written expression may improve as oral work improves but the two skills are not related in a direct or easily discernable way.' (E. E. Cowie, 1979) (4). Transcripts of the tape showed longer replies with a more complex sentence structure, much more speculative or probabilistic thinking with inferences made according to external criteria, and more reference to their own background knowledge and application to current events. Thus in answer to the question, 'Who do you think assassinated President Kennedy?' these pupils answered as follows:

| | *Booklet answer* | *Oral answer* |
|---|---|---|
| Pupil 1 | enemies in Dallas | I put enemies in Dallas – he was trying to help coloured people and some people didn't like them so they opposed him. They might have opposed him so much that they killed him. |
| Pupil 2 | foreign enemies | Foreign enemies, 'cos there's people like the Russians and all that but they might not have liked him, and Cubans, – they might not have like him . . . because they're types of ones he's against, countries he's against. Now President Carter's against the Russians, what he's doing to them so he could get knocked off. |
| Pupil 3 | Lee Harvey Oswald and other enemies in Dallas | I think it was Lee Harvey Oswald. You know he was carrying a packet into the building, well, the gun could have come apart and he could have had a rifle in it. I put some other people who didn't know the President. I think some other people done it. . . Probably they didn't want him to be President and they wanted to do something horrible to him. |

Note that pupil 2 first raised the Cuban connection – there had been no mention of it until this point.

Some oral answers were quite novel:

Teacher: Can you give me a reason why the third shot would be even more difficult than the second?

Pupil 1: The sun would be in his eyes, you can tell 'cos of the shadows.

and

Teacher: Christina, why would Ruby do that to him? (Oswald)

Pupil 3: Umm – probably he didn't want him to testify and he wanted . . . (unintelligible) . . . 'cos he's got most of the evidence hasn't he?

Pupil 2: He might have seen Ruby inside, shoot him, when he left he got caught and he could have seen Ruby do it. So if he got to court and said, I know who done it, Jack Ruby and all his men – they'd taked Ruby and make him testify, wouldn't they? And then he'd have got done for it.

Pupil 1: They've got no evidence that Jack Ruby did it.

These examples indicate that pupils could more readily make inferences and judgements, citing evidence, and going beyond the material immediately to hand, when answering orally rather than in a written form.

## Conclusions

The results of this work suggest that the following factors are crucial in the development of high level historical skills in remedial pupils:

1. *Suitability of material*
   (a) appropriate reading age of the material.
   (b) context is within pupils' immediate experience – in this case *Dallas*, from the TV series, and the whole area of assassination, murder, conspiracy etc., in an American TV context. Contrast with other classical historical whodunnits – Richard III or the Gunpowder Plot.
   (c) problematic, open-ended, non-authoritative approach but with a well structured sequence and tightly structured booklet guide.
   (d) layout of booklet – simple, clear, uncluttered pages allowing for easy reading and quick progress in fill-ins. Personal achievement was rapid.
   (e) frequent use of visual clues and evidence, especially early in the sequence. Of the whole evidence, ten items were visual, three were written.
2. The *time of day* for the lesson (a.m. being preferred to p.m.) and the *easing of logistic problems* by using a single booklet rather than textbooks, paper, worksheets etc.
3. The children's *emotional stability*. The one pupil whose responses were most disappointing when written, had the most urgent emotional problems. He was suspended the next day for violence.
4. The use of *small group discussion*, possibly after a whole class exercise and

written response. This especially encouraged speculative thinking and the use of probabilistic language. (5)

We conclude that when such factors are duly considered, the development of advanced historical skills at both the concrete and formal operational levels can be undertaken successfully with remedial children. A major factor appears to be the adoption of strategies which by-pass or lay minimal emphasis upon the main problems associated with remedials – social, emotional and linguistic. ■

## Notes

1 M. Gauld, 'Teaching History to pupils of different ability levels' in G. Jones and L. Ward, *New History, Old Problems*, University College of Swansea, 1978.
2 J. B. Coltham and J. Fines, 'Educational Objectives for the Study of History' HA. *Teaching of History* Series 35, 1971.
3 M. Palmer, 'Using stimulus material' in R. Ben Jones, *Practical Approaches to the New History*, Hutchinson, 1973.
4 E. E. Cowie, 'History for the Slow Learning Child', HA, *Teaching of History* Series 41, 1979, p. 22.
5 See B. Scott, 'Historical Enquiry and the Younger Pupil' in G. Jones and L. Ward, op. cit., especially p. 96.

## Bibliography


1 Jackdaw Special, *The Assassination of President Kennedy*. Jonathan Cape.
2 D. Freed and M. Lane, *Executive Action*. Charisma, 1973.
3 M. Lane, *Rush to Judgement*, Bodley Head, 1966.
4 E. J. Epstein, *Legend – the secret world of Lee Harvey Oswald*. Hutchinson, 1978.
5 W. Manchester, *Death of a President*. Harper and Row, 1967.
6 *The Torch Has Passed*, Associated Press, 1964.


# NOTES AND NEWS

Marianne Cornevin in *Apartheid power and historical falsification* (UNESCO/HMSO, 1980) examines the myths of white South African history imposed on schools, and also some universities, in the Republic. The 'rejection of historical truth' and the use of myth to bolster ideology is a well-worn devise of authoritarian regimes but in the South African case there is still a glimmer of light. A measure of freedom remains within parts of the school system. One example is the African studies course initiated by the Department of Schools of the Roman Catholic Bishops Conference in South Africa. This is an attempt to produce an African history series for black students, in part a corrective to the myths detailed by Mme Cornevin. But even here the specifically South African contents are guardedly treated.

* * *

A good crowd of friends was at the History and Social Science Teachers' Centre in Clapham last July to say 'Goodbye' to Tom Hastie who was retiring as warden. Tom has been a major and fond figure in London over the past few years. Brimful of ideas and enthusiasm, he has been ever ready to defend the subject with a mixture of Scottish humour and humane Marxist argument. Many will wish him well in his retirement.

* * *

The Historical Association 16 – 19 Working Party met again last September. Ron Abbott, from the Schools Council, explained that a suggestion was to be put to the schools Council History Committee (due to meet in November) that a low-cost operation be launched which would be a co-operative venture between the Schools Council, the Historical Association and higher/further education establishments. Most of the work on this project would have to be done by teachers working on an unpaid basis. After the History Committee meeting it was probable that a small steering group would be formed to look at the proposal in greater detail. It would then be necessary to approach the Schools Council's professional committee for funding. This would take a year and it was likely that no more than £10,000 could be obtained. The Historical Association's committee made the following points. Examination Boards, professional historians and university schools of education should be involved in this venture at an early stage. The HA Area Education Advisers might be used to help form independent local groups which could look at new types on 16–19 examinations. The study should not concentrate on A level teaching alone but should include TEC, BEC and non-examination teaching. A letter summarizing these points has been sent to Mrs June Fisher, chairperson of the Schools Council History Committee.

* * *

After twenty-two years at the London Institute, Peggy Bryant retires this Summer. In a sense of course, it will be no retirement, for Peggy is far too actively involved in a range of interests and activities – and we shall continue to enjoy and benefit from the cogency of her argument, her sense of humour and her warmth of character. A profile of Peggy Bryant appeared in the October 1980 issue of *Teaching History*.

* * *

The Georg-Eckert-Instituts was set up in Brunswick after the Second World War with the task of eliminating error and prejudice from school history and geography textbooks. A number of conferences have been held with the Historical Association. Since 1979, the Institute has been publishing a bi-annual journal *Internationale Schulbuchforschung* (International School Textbook Scrutiny). The most recent issue has articles on 'History and Politics Teaching in the DDR: the 'German Question' and School Textbooks' and 'The Problem of the Historical Representation of the USA and the USSR in American and Soviet Textbooks: the Preliminary Findings of an American Soviet School Textbook Enquiry'. Copies can be obtained from The Director, Georg-Eckert-Instituts, Rebenring 53, 3300 Braunschweig, West Germany.

* * *

*Clio*, the review of The History and Social Sciences Teachers' Centre, 377 Clapham Road, London SW9 appeared this Summer in new format – yellow cover, A4 size. The main articles are centred round a theme – Examinations – but there's plenty of other meat in the journal. For example, there are book reviews, a resources section and comment on the Ironbridge Gorge Museum and the National Museum of Labour History. Further information from Richard Whitburn, Inspector for History and Social Sciences at the Centre.

* * *

The Northamptonshire Development Education project was established in 1978 with a two year grant from the Overseas Development Administration to provide materials for use in schools with the 13–18 age group. The two main aims were to devise materials which would enable pupils to reach their own definitions of 'Development' and, secondly, to produce material based on 'Development issues' which could be relevant to existing single subject and interdisciplinary course. One such study has been developed by the History Department, Chichele School, Rushden, Northants. The pack consists of extracts from documents putting the British and African view of events in Sierra Leone during the period 1896–1898. The topic is the Hut Tax War which exemplifies the conflict between British imperial policy and the existing social structure in the country.

* * *

Two members of the history department of Dundee College of Education have been working on a study to devise and test curriculum materials suitable for fifteen to sixteen year olds of very limited academic ability. Initial work has been on the topic Britain at war 1914 to, 1919. Further details from: Miss Mary Cuthbert, Dundee College of Education, Gardyne Road, Broughty Ferry, Dundee DD5 1NY.

Palmer, M. (1976)

*Educational Objectives and Sources Materials: Some Practical Suggestions*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, IV ,16, pp. 326-330

# EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AND SOURCE MATERIALS: SOME PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS

Marilyn Palmer
*Loughborough College of Education*

THE increasing availability in recent years of commercially produced packs of source materials is both a joy and an embarrassment to teachers of history. It is a joy because either national or local source materials can now be found for most of the periods and topics that figure largely in school history syllabuses.[1] Yet it is also an embarrassment because, having obtained materials whose content fits their syllabuses, many teachers find them difficult to use in the classroom. I would like to suggest two possible remedies for this problem, the first of which would require action to be taken by the creators and publishers of source packs and the second by the teachers themselves in utilizing a framework of educational objectives in devising workschemes for use with source packs.

Looking at the production of source materials first, the root of the problem lies in the failure to specify, or perhaps even to consider, the types of records included in the packs. A Staffordshire archivist, Mr. E. H. Sargeant, drew a clear distinction between archives and documents in an article in *Educational Review*. The former he defined as groups of records formed naturally in the course of business or other activities and characterized by continuity of custody. Documents, on the other hand, are unique and irreplaceable, but are 'strays' or may have been artificially collected by some antiquary and thus divorced from their natural archive groups.[2] In this sense, Magna Carta is a document and a collection of records from a particular manor court archives. This professional distinction is useful to the teacher in that it defines the limitations of each type of material. A document is frequently more exciting in itself than a single record from an archive collection, but it cannot be used to show the relationship between events or the nature of cause and effect as an archive collection can. Many source packs consist of documents which can be used for imaginative or creative work or to illustrate a theme of history; examples are the Yorkshire Resources Bank's *Yorkshire Waterways*, Nottinghamshire Record Office's *A Century of Education 1870–1970* and Manchester Public Libraries *Peterloo 1819*. True archive packs are collections of related material – facsimile, printed or pictorial – which enable their user to understand something of the relationship of one piece of evidence to another in the recreation of an historical event. Some archive packs are unstructured in that they contain quantities of materials selected for their historical value rather than their use in a preconceived workscheme. These usually contain supplementary material of an historical nature, but little guidance for the teacher in the classroom. The packs issued by County Record Offices and Public Libraries are frequently of this type: examples are the Northamptonshire Record Office's *A Woman's Work – Housekeeping in Northamptonshire 1600–1900* and the University of Nottingham Manuscripts Department's, *Public Health and Housing in Victorian Nottingham*, both of which could, with careful thought, be very useful in the classroom. Structured packs usually emanate from teachers groups working in County Record Offices: documents are chosen with workschemes in mind and the packs do contain specific guidance for the teacher. Examples are the second Manchester Manuscript, *The Princes of Loom Street*, and the Liverpool Unit, *Speke Hall; A Tudor House*. I would term the first type 'document packs', the second 'archive packs' and the third 'archive teaching units'. While not rating one type more highly for classroom use than the others, such specific nomenclature would inform teachers how much preparatory

work would be needed for any particular pack and the type of educational objectives it can be expected to fulfil in the classroom.

This brings us to the second method of improving the classroom use of source materials, the use of a framework of educational objectives in conjunction with a source pack. The reality of source materials and the personal and historical detail they often contain is attractive to most children. Once their interest is aroused in this way, the materials can be used to develop a far wider range of objectives than is possible with a textbook or printed handout. The reason why children so often dislike working from *Jackdaws* or other source packs is that they are forced to use them as repositories of fact and they fail to see why they should waste time thumbing through several separate sheets when the requisite information could be much more easily obtained from textbooks. The objectives of workschemes on archive packs and archive teaching units in particular need to be aimed at developing critical understanding of the nature of evidence, which has an educational value far beyond the study of school history. It is how the information in a written passage, list of statistics, picture or cartoon has been obtained and presented and what use the child can in turn make of that information that is as important as the information itself. Children do seem to have some idea of the nature of primary evidence. I have given 175 children aged 9–16 two accounts of the Battle of Agincourt, one written by a man-at-arms in 1415 and the other by H. A. L. Fisher. When asked which they would keep to inform future generations about the Battle of Agincourt, three-quarters of them chose the original account and well over half that number made their choice because they appreciated the value of a contemporary source. A 10 year old wrote, 'H. A. L. Fisher did not see the battle himself but Jehan de Wavrin did', while a 14 year old was more sophisticated: 'Jehan de Wavrin's account was the obvious choice as it was written by an eye-witness.' This inbuilt 'love of a relic', as Mary Sheldon Barnes described it as long ago as 1899,[3] forms the basis from which critical understanding can be slowly developed.

The construction of a framework of educational objectives is, as we have seen, dependent on the type of materials in the pack being used as well as on the age and ability level of the class. The Historical Association pamphlet by Jeannette Coltham and John Fines, *Educational Objectives for the Study of History – a Suggested Framework*[4] is based on Bloom and Krathwohl's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*[5] and tries to show how history can be used to develop a wide range of objectives. It does not seem to have been used as widely as it could be: perhaps the suggestion made at a Short Course on Educational Objectives in Curriculum Planning and Design[6] that the *Framework* would be more readily understood and used if each objective was accompanied by a curricular example as an illustration could be adopted when the pamphlet is reprinted. I have been concerned not so much with the attitudes or affective objectives attainable by the use of source materials as with the development of cognitive abilities, since the teacher has more opportunity for testing whether these have been achieved and revising his curriculum accordingly.

Observation of children of different ages and abilities working on my own document pack, *Law and Order in Leicestershire*, and archive teaching unit, *Leicestershire Farming*, would lead me to suggest the following objectives as being suitable for development by the source method. The first four are concerned with the understanding and assessment of the material on which the pupil is working and do not require him to go beyond it, except perhaps to use his imagination.

*Comprehension:* the ability to understand the content of a new unit of material. I have found it vital when preparing worksheets for use with sources to set detailed comprehension questions on each passage at the outset to encourage children to

read and understand the materials before being asked to make use of the information thus acquired.

*Translation:* the ability to turn information from one form to another for the purposes of understanding. This can involve both written comment on pictorial material and a variety of methods of presentation of written data, including graphs, histograms and drawing. It is often neglected with older children but is a valuable means of dealing with historical materials.

*Analysis:* the ability to recognize similarities and differences between two or more pieces of evidence. (This is just one aspect of analysis.) Children seem to find the former considerably easier than the latter and need carefully worded questions if they are to detect differences between two pieces of evidence.

*Synthesis:* the ability to select material from a variety of sources relevant to a given theme. It is easy for the exercise of this ability to become just another exercise in précis work but this can be avoided if the task involves the presentation of the synthesized material in a form different from that in which it was originally given. For example, Children using the *Law and Order in Leicestershire* pack were asked to select a particular criminal in a list of sentences and then to reconstruct the crime and the criminal's life in prison after his sentence from the rest of the documents. This is a good training in selection.

The second group of objectives can involve, where children are able, the application of external criteria to the material in hand.

*Recognition:* the ability to recognize fact in a situation different from that in which it was learnt. For instance, children studying the changes in franchise in the nineteenth century could be given a poll book dated after the 1832 or 1867 Reform Bills and expected to recognize the new categories of voter recorded in it. The detail given in source materials can often additionally serve as an aid to memory.

*Inference-making:* the ability to make inferences based on the material being studied either in relation to other information contained in that material or by reference to wider knowledge or ideas. For instance, children were asked to suggest why certain qualifications were specified on a Leicestershire Constabulary Recruiting Poster for 1876. These included the ability to read and write, and the children had previously worked from the daily logbook kept by a village constable. Their inference could either be made in relation to this other document or to their general knowledge of nineteenth-century police conditions, depending on their historical experience. Inference is an ability which can be practised on, and therefore should be encouraged at, many different levels.

*Judgement:* the ability to make a judgement and to cite the evidence on which it is based. Like inference-making, this can utilize either internal evidence or external criteria; the important point is to encourage children to consider the material they are studying as evidence to be questioned rather than automatically accepted.

I have found that, given suitable material and carefully worded questions aimed at giving practice in specific objectives, children will work at the level of which they are capable and not give up the question in despair as being too difficult because they do not in fact see the further implications of the question. Children who are capable because of earlier mental maturity or greater social experience will be given a chance to bring their wider knowledge to bear and therefore the method is ideally suitable for mixed ability classes. The choice of materials is the key factor, since these dictate the objectives which can be achieved. An original document cannot be rewritten, like other types of material, to achieve a specific objective and the document must be chosen not only for its historical value but also for the

objectives it can be used to fulfil. The ideal method is probably to draw up a list of general objectives (the main categories in the example given at the end of this article), then select the materials to be used either from the pack or directly from a Record Office and finally to select which specific objectives can be achieved using the chosen materials. After all, the content of those materials is important in following a history syllabus and some desired objectives may have to be omitted from a particular unit of work if there are no materials suitable for their development. They can always be taken up again in the next unit of work.

Having chosen the documents or archives and drawn up a list of specific objectives, the next step is to devise work schemes for the materials. Most history teachers prefer to set questions or other forms of work directly on the documents or archives rather than follow the framework of objectives category by category. To ensure that one objective is not over-emphasized at the expense of another, it is useful to draw up a table with the main categories of objectives along the top axis and the materials in sequence down the side axis. The appropriate squares can then be marked as the work schemes proceed and it is easy to see which objectives are being neglected. This method ensures that the materials are used in a variety of ways and avoids the usual overemphasis on the comprehension category.

The teacher in the classroom can often gauge satisfactorily the progress being made in the achievement of his objectives, particularly the affective ones. I have found, however, that many teachers underestimate the potential cognitive skills of their pupils and that it is perhaps wise to set some sort of test at the end of a scheme of work to see how well the cognitive objectives have been achieved. This can be done by reserving one or two of the more general documents or archives from the pack and some of the questions covering as wide a range of the objectives as possible. The test will show how the pupils perform relative to one another and so could form part of an examination, but if item analysis is carried out, i.e. the total performance on each question scrutinized, it will become clear which objectives have been fulfilled least satisfactorily. The teacher can then draw upon his experience with the materials to discover why: possibly pupils were not given enough practice in that objective, or there were no materials suitable for the purpose. He can then revise either his choice of materials or his workschemes or perhaps his list of objectives before the pack is used again. If certain objectives the teacher thinks important have been omitted because there are no suitable materials in any particular pack, he needs to think of a way of developing them in another scheme of work altogether; the use of source packs is, after all, an occasional method of work rather than the panacea for all the ills of history teaching.

Undoubtedly the method described above is time-consuming but once drawn up and revised after classroom trials the pack and workschemes can be used time and again. Many teachers would prefer more guidance to be given in the packs themselves and since, as I have suggested, the nature of the materials rather than that of the class dictates the choice of objectives this should be possible. I have been experimenting with a highly structured pack where the materials are divided into 'patches' or groups of documents each with its own worksheet. Although teachers have selected among the patches according to the age and ability level of their classes, they have all used the worksheets on the grounds that the detailed knowledge of the document on which they are based is something they cannot achieve themselves in the time available. Many compilers of source packs, particularly archivists, do not – rightly – feel competent to devise actual workschemes for use in schools. In this case, I feel they should, as well as stating the kind of records used in the pack, also indicate why each document or archive has been chosen. The knowledge of the intention of the compiler in selecting a particular

record will help the teacher, particularly the non-history specialist, to grasp its significance more readily and to devise suitable work to be done using it. In this way the historical knowledge of the archivist and the professional expertise of the teacher can both contribute to maximizing the efficacy of source materials in developing a wide range of educational objectives transferable beyond the study of school history.

## EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AND THE 'LEICESTERSHIRE FARMING ARCHIVE TEACHING UNIT

### Cognitive Objectives

1. KNOWS SPECIFIC FACTS
   (*a*) Knows main characteristics of Leicestershire farming.
   (*b*) Identifies the significance of Robert Bakewell's work.
   (*c*) Describes the process of enclosure.
   (*d*) Identifies the effect of enclosure upon the Leicestershire landscape.
   (*e*) Identifies the effect of enclosure upon the people involved.

2. KNOWS TERMINOLOGY
   (*a*) Can give the meaning of technical terms, e.g. glebe.
   (*b*) Identifies technical terms in their context.

3. KNOWS OF AND CAN HANDLE VARIOUS TYPES OF HISTORICAL MATERIAL
   (*a*) Learns to refer to a variety of materials to clarify problems.
   (*b*) Knows the major sources for the history of Leicestershire farming and where they can be found.
   (*c*) Transcribes the simpler forms of old printing and handwriting with reasonable ease.
   (*d*) Appreciates the value of contemporary witness.
   (*e*) Identifies bias, reliability, assumptions, etc. in a piece of evidence.

4. UNDERSTANDS THE MATERIAL ON THE BASIS OF INTERNAL EVIDENCE
   (*a*) Translates material from one form to another for the purpose of understanding or communication, e.g. describes photograph, tabulates information, etc.
   (*b*) Summarizes the content of a piece of evidence.
   (*c*) Selects the relevant piece of evidence to solve a particular problem.
   (*d*) Compares and contrasts two or more pieces of evidence.
   (*e*) Selects material from a variety of sources relevant to a particular theme.

5. APPLIES EXTERNAL CRITERIA TO THE MATERIAL
   (*a*) Recognizes a fact in a context different from that in which it was learnt.
   (*b*) Draws inferences from material in relation to a wider general or historical context.
   (*c*) Synthesizes evidential material with items from own fund of knowledge and experience in imaginative form, e.g. piece of creative writing.
   (*d*) Makes a judgement on the basis of the evidence, citing the evidence for that judgement.
   (*e*) Compares evidential material with the modern landscape and farming methods.

6. RECOGNIZES THE LOCAL APPLICATION OF THE MATERIAL STUDIED
   (*a*) Relates evidential material to local geographical and historical conditions.
   (*b*) Realizes that national event like enclosure may vary even from village to village in one county.

1. See the articles by R. Wood, 'Archive Units for Teaching' in *Teaching History*, Vol. II, Nos. 6, 7 and 9.
2. E. H. Sargeant, 'The County Records Office: what it is and what it has' in *Educational Review*. November 1952, p. 22 *et seq.*
3. M. Sheldon Barnes, *Studies in Historical Method*. D. C. Heath, Boston, 1899.
4. J. Coltham and J. Fines, *Educational Objectives for the Study of History – a Suggested Framework*. Historical Association, T.H. 35, 1971.
5. Bloom, Krathwohl *et al.*, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, Vol. 1 and 2. Longmans 1956 and 1964.
6. An H.A. Short Course on Educational Objectives in Curriculum Planning and Design at Tring in January 1973.

Brown, R. and Daniels, C. (1976)

*Sixth Form History – An Assessment*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, IV, 15, pp. 210-22

# SIXTH FORM HISTORY – AN ASSESSMENT

Richard Brown

*Houghton Regis Upper School,*
*Bedfordshire*

and

Christopher Daniels

*School of Education,*
*Exeter University*

IN a paper published in November 1974 we attempted to describe and analyse a course on 'History and Historians'[1] which was held at King Edward VI School, Bury St. Edmunds. This paper takes the form of an essentially theoretical discussion of the reaction to that course from both the pupil and teaching point of view.

Conversations with sixth form groups of varying abilities, and the need to look seriously at the Schools Council reports on the sixth form,[2] have led us to certain conclusions about history at 'A' level and about the desirability of

(*a*) reappraising the study of history between 16 and 19 years to see what educational, historical and philosophical questions it raises;
(*b*) seeing whether the existing methods of assessment are adequate;
(*c*) considering the relationship of history to the 'new sixth form'.[3]

It must be stated *forcibly* that we, and many of our pupils, believe that the present 'A' level structure is geared towards the potential university entrant and, as such, that the syllabus reflects what universities wish to see to some extent. This raises the important question of whether universities should have the right to dominate the structure and content of 'A' level history – if they do have this right – *and* how representative their opinions on the various examination boards are.

What does the present 'A' level structure in history offer the potential sixth former? What does it contain, and how is this assessed?

Generally the subject is approached in three ways:

1. The study of set-periods, one British and one European. This is assessed by three-hour papers for each set-period, in which time the candidate has to write four essays, at least for the Cambridge Syndicate Board. Other examining boards do use multiple-choice questions to assess 'factual' knowledge.
2. The study of a shorter 'special' period; for example, the Cambridge Board offers twelve of these including topics from Greek to modern Russian history. This period is also assessed using essays.
3. The possibility of a project of not more than 5,000 words which 'in no case will result in the subject grade being reduced'.[4]

By applying the objectives in history teaching set out by Coltham and Fines in 1971[5] the following information can be obtained.

| *Coltham–Fines Objectives* | *How Assessed?* |
|---|---|
| A. ATTITUDES | |
| 1. Attending<br>2. Responding<br>3. Imagining | These are generally assessed in course work and essays, which are not part of the final examination grade in any direct sense. They should also be assessed in the individual projects. |
| B. NATURE OF THE DISCIPLINE | |
| 1. Nature of Information<br>2. Organizing Procedures<br>3. Products | Source work and secondary material are used fairly widely but some boards make little attempt to assess this. An examination tests analysis and synthesis to some extent, but it relies *totally* on the written word. |
| C. SKILLS AND ABILITIES | |
| 1. Vocabulary Acquisition | Not assessed directly. |
| 2. Reference Skills | The ability to find and utilize material is used widely during the course but it is not taken into account in the final assessment, except in projects. |
| 3. Memorization | Final paper. |
| 4. Comprehension | Final paper. |
| 5. Translation | This is sometimes assessed in the final paper – analysis and extrapolation of information from statistics and cartoons etc. |
| 6. Analysis | Final paper and project. |
| 7. Extrapolation | Not assessed in the examination at all. Is it necessary to ask whether the 'since I know this, then it might be that . . .' concept is unhistorical? |
| 8. Synthesis<br>9. Judgement and Evaluation | Project and essay work necessitates a 'synthetic' approach, the selection of the the 'right' facts, judgement and literary fluency. |
| 10. Communication skills | Oral fluency is not assessed. |
| D. EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES OF STUDY | |
| 1. Insight<br>2. Knowledge of Values<br>3. Reasoned Judgement | Though all teachers hope that their subjects give these, there has been no real examination of the long-term consequences of studying history. Can these objectives be assessed in school? |

| *Coltham–Fines Objectives* | *How Assessed?* |
|---|---|
| A. ATTITUDES | |
| 1. Attending<br>2. Responding<br>3. Imagining | These are generally assessed in course work and essays, which are not part of the final examination grade in any direct sense. They should also be assessed in the individual projects. |
| B. NATURE OF THE DISCIPLINE | |
| 1. Nature of Information<br>2. Organizing Procedures<br>3. Products | Source work and secondary material are used fairly widely but some boards make little attempt to assess this. An examination tests analysis and synthesis to some extent, but it relies *totally* on the written word. |
| C. SKILLS AND ABILITIES | |
| 1. Vocabulary Acquisition | Not assessed directly. |
| 2. Reference Skills | The ability to find and utilize material is used widely during the course but it is not taken into account in the final assessment, except in projects. |
| 3. Memorization | Final paper. |
| 4. Comprehension | Final paper. |
| 5. Translation | This is sometimes assessed in the final paper – analysis and extrapolation of information from statistics and cartoons etc. |
| 6. Analysis | Final paper and project. |
| 7. Extrapolation | Not assessed in the examination at all. Is it necessary to ask whether the 'since I know this, then it might be that . . .' concept is unhistorical? |
| 8. Synthesis<br>9. Judgement and Evaluation | Project and essay work necessitates a 'synthetic' approach, the selection of the the 'right' facts, judgement and literary fluency. |
| 10. Communication skills | Oral fluency is not assessed. |
| D. EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES OF STUDY | |
| 1. Insight<br>2. Knowledge of Values<br>3. Reasoned Judgement | Though all teachers hope that their subjects give these, there has been no real examination of the long-term consequences of studying history. Can these objectives be assessed in school? |

We feel that the following conclusions can be drawn from the above analysis:

1. That the existing system of assessment does not utilize all aspects of the objectives outlined by Coltham and Fines. This raises important questions, as very often the method of teaching is dictated by the assessment at the end of the course.
2. Within Coltham and Fines' taxonomy, certain objectives tend either to be achieved only indirectly or not at all. This is particularly so in (B) where no real assessment of documentary or source material is introduced except as a direct/indirect part of project marking, *or* as part of the final examination.
3. The lack of any real explanation of the raison d'être for 'A' level history – what are its philosophical and educational justifications?

Two important questions are raised as a result of this analysis and the tentative conclusions reached from it. Firstly, is 'A' level history more than just a slightly more sophisticated version of 'O' level, *and*, secondly, does it offer the non-university student anything of any real and educational value? Generally speaking, 'A' level history as it stands does not contain much that could not exist at 'O' level, though obviously at a higher standard. Given this, the changing character of the sixth form, and the low educational value of 'A' level history, it is necessary to re-evaluate 'A' level in history totally.

What do we aim at in a sixth form course in history? How do we achieve these desirable aims within our projected syllabus?

The aims which we seek to achieve are:

1. an understanding of the character of history as a discipline and what skills are necessary in its study;
2. an empathetic and imaginative relationship with history;
3. an extension of logical argument, analysis and synthesis – it must *not* just be based upon the traditional method of a body of knowledge to be learnt; it must demonstrate the diversity of historical experience;
4. to make aware to the student the relationship between history and other disciplines.

These general 'historical' aims *must* be combined with certain clearly necessary educational aims:

1. The need for the course to be complete in itself, and not just to provide a stage between 'O' level and university.
2. To provide an examination qualification which reflects the student's ability.

Given the present structure of most 'A' level syllabuses and the methods of assessment open to the teacher, we feel that the need to consider a Mode 3 type of 'A' level course is necessary largely because of the general unwillingness of the examining boards to adopt radically new approaches to history at this level. It is also essential to relate the general aims outlined above to the Coltham and Fines taxonomy.

We feel that it is possible to achieve these aims by dividing an 'A' level history course into four units:

A. The need to examine the nature of history, and ideas about the nature of history – What is history? What are its characteristics as a form of knowledge? What problems are created by 'facts', 'causation', 'effects'? Is history determined? What is the relationship between history and other disciplines? This could be achieved by taking and analysing sections of E. H. Carr's *What is History?* and contrasting it with other

and contradictory writers. In addition, students need to examine historiography philosophically – how historians' attitudes to history have changed and, by looking at *two* historical problems – one medieval, one modern – historiographically. This would show how historians have changed their opinions and why, and forms a good starting-point for examining the problems of historical research and writing.[6]

B. The study of a particular subject in a 'developmental sense'. This would provide the student with the opportunity of looking at a subject in a long perspective, and should be approached through documents. It should lead to students asking why does change occur in the given subject. What were the external forces which affected it? What does the evidence tell us about people's attitude to it? Subjects which may be considered as suitable for 'developmental' study include agriculture, a particular industry, an institution, the development of a society or social group, or a specific problem like poverty. The opportunity for local evidence being used here is obvious.[7]

C. The necessity of examining a specific period in some depth. This should not be approached in the present 'A' level manner. It should be closely geared to documentary material and evidence of as wide a manner as possible, and should not just look at political developments but also socio-economic, religious, military and cultural problems.[8]

D. A project on a specific historical subject of not less than 5,000 words. This would be closely monitored by the teacher and should provide the student with a chance to 'practice' the theory which he has already been taught. Again, the opportunity to utilize local resources is fully available.[9]

We feel that a course based upon these lines has many advantages over the present sixth form course. In particular, it is a complete course in itself providing

(*a*) an essential prerequisite to a continuing study of history at university; and yet

(*b*) a course which would provide the non-university student, or a graduate in another discipline with the essential if simple elements of a study of history;

(*c*) for use in an 'N' and 'F' structure. Units A and either B or C could be used as the basis for an 'N' course. All four units would comprise the 'F' course.

This syllabus construction necessitates a complete change in the present system of assessment, so that the objectives which Coltham and Fines have outlined can be assessed. We believe that the present system of assessment completely fails to do this, and advocate the following system:

1. Continuous assessment throughout the two-year course, in the form of work produced, termly tests and oral ability.
2. Examinations at the end of the first and second years – the first set and marked by the teacher, the second set and marked by the teacher and approved by the examination board. The second-year examination should contain the following elements:
   (i) A multiple-choice section to assess factual knowledge.
   (ii) A section to test understanding of, and ability to use critically, source material.
   (iii) Essays to assess abilities to analyse, select and synthesize material.
3. The project which *must* show evidence of use of primary material.

4. An oral examination to assess ability to discuss historical problems, which could be prepared in advance where thought necessary. This would give the less literary candidate a better chance to do well.

The criticisms of the present sixth form course are to some degree answered by the alternative syllabus and assessment which we have proposed. Two problems are now considered which are likely to be more apparent with this suggested syllabus: resources, and the less well taught students.

Lack of ample library facilities would be a severe handicap with the syllabus outlined above, as a wide variety of books will be needed, and the type of assessment will require their full use by sixth formers for all units. For many schools we appreciate that this will mean initial hardship because of book shortages which could not be augmented by good local libraries. In West Suffolk, the county library was willing to loan specialized books on particular topics to us for longish periods of time, e.g. for Cambridge Board special subject papers. This might perhaps be possible in other areas. Additionally, local schools in the same L.E.A. might share their resources while they are building up their own stocks. For this reason it is essential that the unit options offered by the Examining Boards under this new syllabus do not change too frequently – better still if schools submit their own schemes to be validated by the Board.

We also recognize that there may well be a shortage of accessible printed material for several of the courses suggested. What might be necessary are books like the Open University Readers, which contain extracts from primary sources, secondary works, scholarly articles, etc. relating to a particular period or theme. For example, a Reader on the period 1660–1720 might concentrate on several themes, The Monarchy, Religion and Politics, Foreign Affairs (including foreign texts[10]), and Social Life in the eyes of contemporaries, which are not fully covered in similar series like the *Documents of Modern History* (Arnold).[11] Sixth form history teaching can use quite a few Open University methods, e.g. some of the O.U. course units may be useful in teaching specific topics, providing a structured approach.[12] The use of film – O.U. television programmes, documentary and feature films – would also be valuable, and this is another example of how schools could share resources.

The issue of *local* resources may also present initial problems for the teacher new to a locality and therefore unfamiliar with the material available in the local record repositories. The projects organized by the former West Suffolk Teachers' Historical Society on 'Suffolk Agriculture' and 'The Poor Law in Suffolk' which aimed to collate information on suitable sources (published, as well as documents in the West Suffolk Record Office and elsewhere) for use by teachers in the area might be encouraged elsewhere.

The other main area where problems may arise is more contentious. At the moment Examining Boards do bear in mind that their courses and examinations have to cater for those 'A' level historians who are not taught as well as others,[13] or whose history library facilities are inadequate. How is the former problem to be remedied? Discussion between 'A' level teachers of history is slight at the moment, and initiatives must be taken to allow for enlarged opportunities for interchange of ideas, locally and nationally. Sixth form teachers of history should be encouraged to attend these meetings to discuss changes in aims, methodology and assessment; the co-operation of the Examining Boards, Institutes of Education and local teachers' centres is essential. There does seem to be great reluctance to consider, let alone

implement, change.[14] Could it be true that many history graduates in teaching are even more unwilling to consider changes in aims and methodology than their university departments?

This is the way in which we would like history to progress in the sixth form, and we believe that it would go a long way to remedy criticism of history at this level by students, as being an extension of 'O' level, and would also prevent universities complaining of the unpreparedness of students for university study. Each of the proposals we make now needs further clarification and research.

## APPENDICES

The function of the appendices below is an attempt to take the discussion from the theoretical to the actual. In addition, we believe that it is essential to have examples to illustrate the ideas raised above. Obviously, too detailed a syllabus is impossible in the space of a short paper so we have appended four examples only:

1. The course for unit A, highlighting the philosophical–methodological section, and the modern unit on historiography.
2. A 'developmental' study of the growth of pre-industrial society to the early nineteenth century, as an example for unit B.
3. A detailed course on 'England 1689–1716' for unit C.
4. Some ideas on how the project should be approached.

At this point we should say that we consider that each of the four units should have equal weighting in the assessment scheme, i.e. 25% each, and that, as far as is practicable, each of the assessment methods outlined above should apply to each paper.

### 1. History: Its Character and Methodology

*(a) Topics*

PHILOSOPHICAL

What is history?
What is the unique character of history as a discipline?
What problems are created for the historian by:
- evidence
- selection – subjectivity
- causation – objectivity
- effects and consequences
- chronology?

Is history determined?

METHODOLOGICAL

What methods of approach are open to the historian?
How does the historian actually approach his subject?
Where does he find his information and how does he present it?
What is the relationship between history and other disciplines like the social sciences, philosophy and literature?

HISTORIOGRAPHY

How have different historians viewed history as a discipline?
How have historians' attitude to the past and their approach to it changed?
Historians of major importance – why is this so? Look at Herodotus,

Thucydides, medieval historians, Polydore Vergil, Shakespeare's approach to history, Gibbon, Macaulay, Marx, Namier, Toynbee.

*(b) Range of Material*

This field has a considerable amount of printed material which is suitable for sixth form use, either under the present structure or under these proposals.[15] The course-reading and lectures/discussion will be fully structured, and we hope to produce a Reader on this subject later. The difference of opinion over what history is, which exists within most schools, should be utilized as much as possible. This should help to convey the idea that history is a dynamic and controversial subject, and also provides opportunity for inter-school conferences.

*(c) A Modern Unit on Historiography – the Origins of the Second World War*

The Origins of the Second World War is still a controversial topic and would be valuable as one of the two courses illustrating the work of the historian. In our experience the central participant in this debate, A. J. P. Taylor, is a strong favourite with sixth formers as a thought-provoking, lively and readable contemporary historian, who also comes out well on tape and film.

Taylor's *The Origins of the Second World War* would act as the central focus, the aim being critical study of its contribution to the debate, supplemented by general texts, edited collections[16] and specialist works. Good use could also be made of commercially produced tapes of discussions between historians, and newsreels and films.[17] O.U. units 18–21 of the 'War and Society' course could be used, allowing the sixth formers to do a good deal of work on this subject without close supervision. The variety of evidence available to the historian of the twentieth century would make a good contrast to the medieval subject chosen in this unit. The difficulties of the historian working on an issue still in the minds of people alive today, and the great – if not excessive – vigour of the debate over Taylor's book would have an impact on the thinking sixth form historian, whilst also offering a critical study of the use of visual evidence.

*(d) Assessment*

| | *% of Unit Total* |
|---|---|
| 1. *First-year Examination* | |
| Documentary passages with questions necessitating personal analysis of topics covered in the first year. | 10 |
| A further 10% will be given for the specific historiographical section in unit A. | 10 |
| 2. *Course-work* | |
| Continual assessment of a wide variety of exercises on philosophy, methodology, and historiography, either in written or oral form. | 30 |
| 3. *Final Examination* | |
| A final examination in three sections: | |
| (i) Philosophical section, a single essay based on a single piece of an historian's writing on history. No choice. This | |

should assess comprehension, analysis and synthesis. 10

(ii) Questions which require use of work researched in the two-year course, e.g. 'With reference to a specific piece of work, show the problems which you, as an historian, faced, the results you achieved, and the value you attach to this work.' One question. 10

(iii) Essays to show knowledge of either the philosophical or historiographical problems. One essay. And one essay on each of the specific historiographical subjects studied. 30

## 2. Unit B: Social Developments, 500–1800

The general aim of this unit is to provide a documentary analysis of how and why society developed in the pre-industrial period, between about A.D. 500 and the outbreak of the various revolutions, economic and political, which characterized nineteenth-century developments and which were directly responsible for the creation of the present-day class society.

We have chosen these parameters of study for two main reasons:

(*a*) The period 500–1800 forms a convenient social unit, what Marx controversially called 'the feudal age'.

(*b*) It allows the student to examine certain key historical concepts in a 'developmental' study.

(*a*) *Topics*

AN OVERVIEW

Social and economic overview 500–1800.
What were the broad characteristics of pre-industrial society?
What were the main elements which affected pre-industrial society – population, famine, disease, warfare?
What fluctuations occurred in the economy 500–1800, and what effects did they have?

AN ELITIST SOCIETY

How were the upper levels of society organized?
How and why did they change?
Can one apply the term 'feudalism' to the social ethics behind this social group and its organization?
What have historians' attitudes to 'feudalism' been?

THE 'SUBMERGED NINE TENTHS'

How can the lower orders be defined?
How did their organization change in the 500–1800 period?
Ideas of 'freedom' and 'un-freedom'.
What was the attitude of the *élite* to the lower orders?

THE NON-PRODUCERS

The town – growth and character.
The Church.

OTHER SOCIAL UNITS
The family.
Kinship.
Popular attitudes and mentalities 'Class consciousness'.

SOCIAL DISSIDENCE
How did change occur, and why?
The Peasants' Revolt 1381.
The Ciompi 1378.
The 'revolution' of the 1640s.
The impact of the Industrial Revolution.

HOW PEOPLE LIVED
Standard of living.
Differences in culture.
What motivated people?

*(b) Assessment*

| | % of Unit Total |
|---|---|
| 1. *First-year Examination*<br>Short documentary passages, with questions, on topics covered in the first year. | 20 |
| 2. *Course-work*<br>Continual assessment of a wide variety of exercises on course material, and essays. | 30 |
| 3. *Final Examination*<br>A three-hour paper in three sections: | |
| (i) Documentary passages with questions to test understanding and significance. Two out of four to be answered. | 15 |
| (ii) Questions requiring fuller use of, and reference to, stated documents. One out of three to be answered. | 10 |
| (iii) Essays to show ability to analyse, select and synthesize material, with credit for use of documentary sources. Two out of eight to be answered. | 25 |

## 3. Unit C: England, 1689–1716

It is not suggested that all the topics listed below should be studied in detail, but a fair cross-section of the six 'fields' of study should be attempted, perhaps going into detail on *some* of the sub-divisions of each 'field'. Certainly, Politics, Foreign Affairs and Religion are very large areas of study, which could only be dealt with in full at the expense of the other 'fields', and this we would consider undesirable.

*(a) Topics*

POLITICS
Structure and working of government.
Political events, 1689–1716 [a large and central area of study].

Parliament:
elections
the parties – locally and nationally
the 'Managers'
the role of the monarch
political case-studies, e.g. Godolphin, Harley, the Junto.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS AND DIPLOMACY
[Another large area which links with 'Political events' and the 'Armed Forces'.]

THE ARMED FORCES
The part played by the Army and Navy in the wars of the period; the links with politics.

RELIGION
The Church of England.
Roman Catholicism.
Dissent.
Religion and politics.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC
Population.
Structure of society.
Country and town.
London.
Agriculture and industry.
Trade.
'Financial Revolution'.

THE ARTS AND LITERATURE
Art.
Music.
Architecture and garden design.
Literature.
'Grub Street'.

*(b) Range of Documents*
There is a wide range of printed material on this period which could be used.[18] In addition, local sources may yield interesting evidence on local politics, or the role of county families.[19] Taking 'documents' in its widest sense,[20] fieldwork on buildings of the period is exceptionally valuable – one of the authors took a sixth form group in 1974 on a nine-day visit to some of the important buildings of the 'English Baroque' style, including Blenheim Palace, Dyrham Park, Hampton Court, St. Paul's Cathedral, several Wren City churches, Greenwich Hospital and Rousham Park garden. Obviously, finance is an important consideration for this type of fieldwork, but day visits can also be rewarding – day visits to Burghley or Audley End were quite feasible from Bury St. Edmunds. The use of written documentary material in the classroom can be varied by debate or discussion, e.g. the use of an edited version of the Sacheverell trial proceedings,[21] with the students debating pro and con, or discussion of a source like Swift's *Conduct of the Allies*.

*(c) Assessment*

| | % of Unit Total |
|---|---|
| 1. *First-year Examination*<br>Short documentary passages with questions, possibly some multiple-choice, on topics covered in the first year. | 20 |
| 2. *Course-work*<br>Continual assessment of a wide variety of exercises on source material, and essays. | 30 |
| 3. *Final Examination*<br>A three-hour paper in three sections: | |
| (i) Documentary passages, e.g. Gregory King's statistical analysis of population, 1696, or extracts from the Treaty of Grand Alliance, 1701 [in French] with questions to test understanding and significance. Two out of four to be answered. | 15 |
| (ii) Questions requiring fuller use of, and reference to, stated documents, e.g. 'Summarize the Account of Whigs and Tories under Anne (from his *Historical Dissertation upon Whig and Tory*) by Paul de Rapin-Thoyras. Assess its value in the light of other documents you have studied.'[22] | 10 |
| (iii) Essays to show ability to analyse, select and synthesize material, with credit for use of documentary sources. Two out of six to be answered. [At least one of these six titles should be on an Arts/Literature or Socio-Economic topic.] | 25 |

## 4. Unit D: The Project

The final section of the syllabus takes the form of a project of not less than 5,000 words. The following are merely a few comments about the idea of the project at this level, and would need further clarification if this course were adopted.

We place great emphasis upon the project as an integral part of an 'A' level course in history, as a way in which the student can use his studies 'in depth'. We believe that this will allow him to develop his own personalized understanding of history within a structured framework. This necessitates close co-operation between the teacher and the student concerning the subject chosen, and the manner in which it is approached.

*(a) Aims*

(i) To develop an understanding of the importance of change and continuity in historical studies.

(ii) To provide an opportunity for the student to use fully primary and secondary sources.
(iii) To encourage the use and evaluation of different types of evidence.
(iv) To elicit empathetic responses from the student and, we hope, some real historical understanding.
(v) To provide opportunities for the student to communicate his ideas and researches orally and in a written form.

*(b) Assessment*

| | *Marks/25* |
|---|---|
| PLAN OF CAMPAIGN which is aimed at: | |
| (*a*) making the student fully aware of the processes he is using to make his study 'in depth' – the choice of subject, how to approach it, which sources? why? how should the student argue his work? etc.; | |
| (*b*) allowing an assessment to be made of the ways in which the student has approached his work and how his understanding of the work developed. | 6 |
| FINAL ASSESSMENT OF PROJECT which may be divided into: | |
| 1. Presentation | 2 |
| 2. Use of material | |
| —which material used and why? | 2 |
| —relevance of material to title | 2 |
| —balance of material, and originality | 2 |
| 3. Content | |
| —depth and fullness of content | 3 |
| —analysis and synthesis | 3 |
| 4. Oral | |
| —a discussion between the teacher and student on the project to assess oral understanding of the work done | 5 |

1. In *Teaching History*, November 1974, pp. 368–9.
2. See (*a*) Schools Council, *16–19: Growth and Response. 1. Curricular Bases*, Working Paper 45, 1972. (*b*) Schools Council, *16–19: Growth and Response. 2. Examination Structure*, Working Paper 46, 1973.
3. On the new sixth form in particular, see R. Watkins, ed., *The New Sixth Form*, 1974; P. H. Taylor, W. A. Reid and B. J. Holley, *The English Sixth Form*, 1974.
4. Subject Syllabus H.G. 1976, Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, 1974.
5. J. B. Coltham and J. Fines, *Educational Objectives for the Study of History*, Historical Association pamphlet TH35, 1971.
6. For a detailed syllabus, see Appendix 1.
7. See Appendix 2.
8. See Appendix 3.
9. See Appendix 4.
10. Cf. the brief report of a university teachers of history conference, April 1974, in *History*, Vol. 59, No. 197, October 1974, p. 405.
11. The authors are planning a series to be published on these lines.
12. See Appendix 1.
13. How else does one explain the following: 'Advanced Level [History] . . . It is assumed in connection with all Advanced Level papers that the candidate will have undertaken some background reading and that he will not be content to confine himself to the study of one or two of the standard text-books'? Subject Syllabus H.G., 1976, Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, 1974.
14. E.g. Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate Report 8/7/2 (History 1976), 'Proposals that the Syndicate's History papers should contain questions based on an understanding of contemporary materials proved to be popular with schools, with a substantial majority of teachers feeling that such questions should be part of each Special Subject paper. *Most teachers, however, did not wish these questions to be compulsory.*' 1974, p. 3 [our emphasis].
15. For example, E. H. Carr, *What is History?*, 1961; G. R. Elton, *The Practice of History*, 1967; P. Gardiner, ed., *The Philosophy of History*, 1974; G. Kitson Clark, *The Critical Historian* [London, 1967]; A. Marwick, *The Nature of History*, 1970; J. H. Plumb, ed., *Crisis in the Humanities*, 1964; J. H. Plumb, *The Death of the Past*, 1969; F. Stern, ed., *The Varieties of History*, 2nd edn., 1970; D. Thomson, *The Aims of History*, 1969; W. H. Walsh, *An Introduction to Philosophy of History*, 1951; as well as the Open University Arts Foundation course units A100 5–8, 1970–1.
16. I.e. E. M. Robertson, ed., *The Origins*

*of the Second World War*, 1971; W. R. Louis, ed., *The Origins of the Second World War: A. J. P. Taylor and His Critics*, 1972.

17. For example, *The Munich Crisis*, British Universities Historical Studies in Film, 1969; *The Triumph of the Will* [this may be seen in full at the Imperial War Museum, London].

18. For example, A. Browning, ed., *English Historical Documents, VIII, 1660–1714*, 1953; W. C. Costin and J. S. Watson, *The Law and Working of the Constitution, I, 1660–1783*, 1961; G. S. Holmes and W. A. Speck, ed., *The Divided Society: Party Conflict in England, 1694–1716*, 1967; G. M. Trevelyan, ed., *Select Documents for Queen Anne's Reign . . . 1702–1707*, 1929; E. N. Williams, ed., *The Eighteenth Century Constitution*, 1960; as well as printed versions of Evelyn's Diary, Fiennes' Journeys and Defoe's Travels. The complete list is a long one.

19. The West Suffolk Record Office is very useful on Bury St. Edmunds – a corporation borough in this period – and the influence of local families like the Cullums, Davers, Fitzroys and Herveys. The present home of the last-named family, Ickworth House, has a fine library with many books of this period, which the National Trust kindly allowed our sixth form to use.

20. Cf. A. West, *Village Records*, 1962, p. 60.

21. For this edited version of the trial, and for helpful comments on this unit, we are grateful to Professor G. S. Holmes of Lancaster University.

22. Browning, op. cit., pp. 259–69.

Culpin, C.B. (1984)

*Language, Learning and Thinking Skills in History*

Teaching History, The Historical Association, 39, pp 24-28

# Language, Learning and Thinking Skills in History

**C.B. Culpin, Hadleigh School, Suffolk**

**Report of a one-term research project**

## Introduction

There is a real problem facing history teachers who wish to develop their teaching to include such familiar apsects of 'New History' as empathy and evidence interpretation skills. The theoretical reasons for doing such things are well established; a wide range of examination boards now include some reference to these skills in their assessment objectives, and even (sometimes!) in the papers themselves; school departmental syllabuses also now commonly include such phrases as 'to learn to use historical imagination' and 'to analyse historical evidence of several kinds'. But how do you set about teaching pupils to think in ways which may be quite new to them?

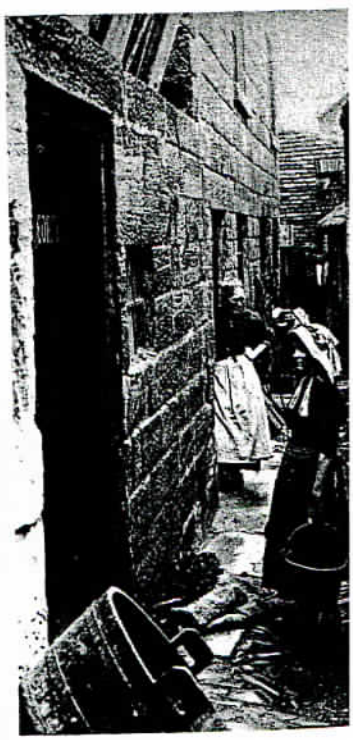
There seems little help available to teachers facing this problem: initial training has only recently taken into account the changes in the nature of the history teacher's task. There are very few courses at local or national level concerned with classroom practice in these areas. However, what really exists is the actual practice of teachers, often working in isolation, often unsure of the value of what they are doing, only able to evaluate the success of their ideas against their own experience. This article, and the one which follows is an attempt to make known some of the best of the practice to a wider audience.

In the autumn term of 1982 I was seconded from my local authority, Suffolk County Council, to Homerton College, Cambridge, in order to investigate current practice in history teaching. This article deals with some preliminary findings and with empathy. The following one deals with evidence and intepretation skills.

I knew that I would have to pay close attention to the language used in teaching and learning in the lessons I watched. It is through language that new understandings are reached and new patterns of thinking are formed. The end-product of the empathetic work may be non-verbal – a picture, or a mime. However, it is through exploring language that the pupils will explore the characters and situation. I wanted to look in particular at how teachers provided opportunities to do this.

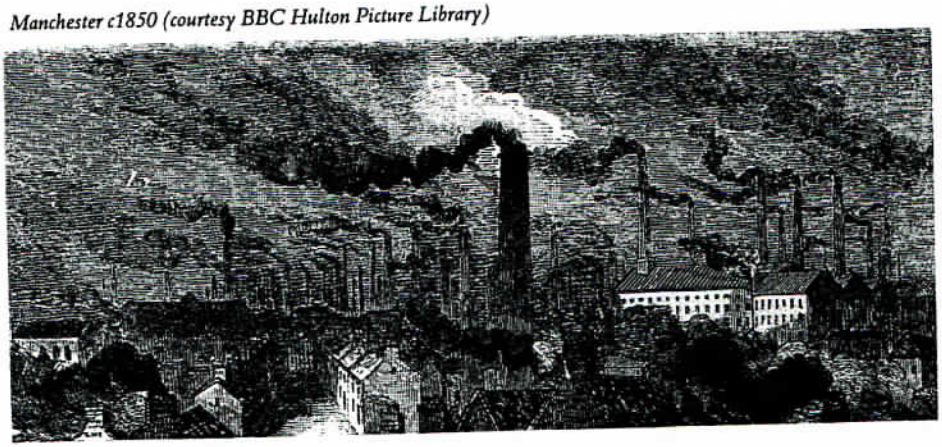
My method of approaching the investigation of how teachers tried to teach these skills consisted of four parts. First I would meet the teacher concerned and talk generally about their aims, objectives and the problems they had in achieving them. I also tried to find out some background information about the general schools context: the place of history, expectations of the department, relations with other departments, especially English, attitude to language across the curriculum etc. Secondly, just b the lesson I was to see, I would a the teacher to outline the specific objectives for that lesson. Third a recording and timing of the activities of the lesson. I did not out any taping, but made very fi notes. Lastly, the teachers and I talked about the lesson in order reach some sort of consensus evaluation. A further layer of comment was added to the who investigation by circulating som tentative conclusions half-way through the term to all intereste teachers, and collecting their comments.

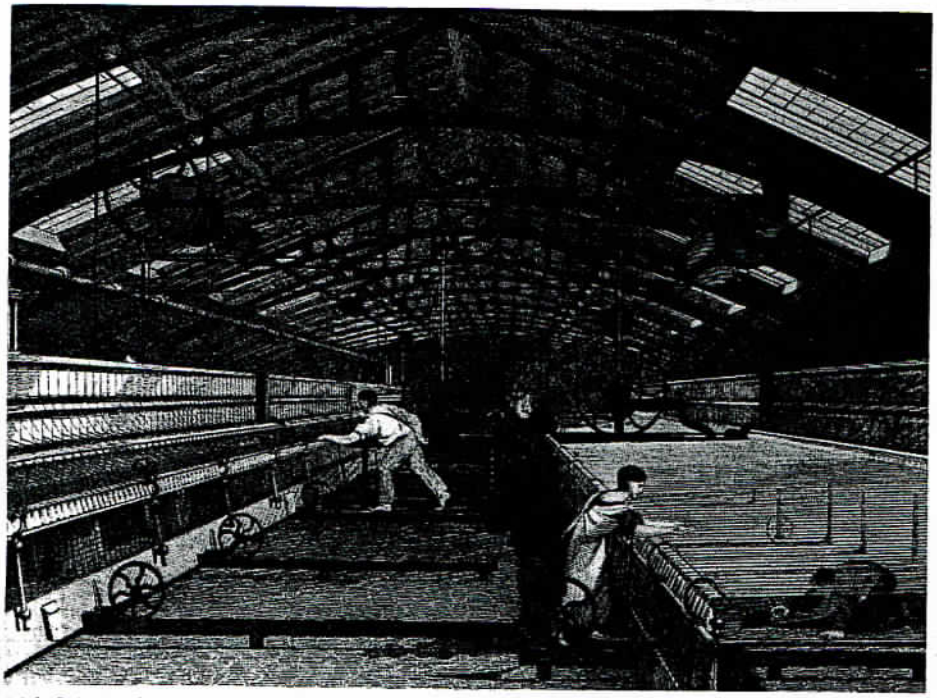
An important preliminary resul my term's work was the small proportion of schools (about a t actually working on the skills ir which I was interested. Before t term started I divided the schoo the area into two groups: those teaching simple narrative histor those teaching the skills mentio above. This was done on the ba personal contact with teachers, reading syllabus documents an talking to advisory staff. This h the schools I would find it



*Back-to-Back Houses at Staithes, Yorkshire (courtesy Mary Evans Picture Library)*

*Manchester c1850 (courtesy BBC Hulton Picture Library)*





*Mule Spinning (courtesy Mansell Collection)*

worthwhile to visit, but in fact when I started to go to schools it became clear that a further division had to be made: some schools stated that they wished to develop such skills as empathy and the interpretation of evidence but no teaching which could be said to develop such skills in fact took place. Even in schools which were genuinely making an effort, teaching for the two skills in question – admittedly the most difficult – did not take up a large proportion of lessons taught. Thus a class might carry out one empathy exercise, consisting of a lesson and a homework, out of a whole term, or even a whole year. Schools basing their syllabuses on the Schools Council History Project had a significantly higher proportion than this.

This patchy take-up of innovation 12 whole years after the publication of the Coltham/Fines pamphlet *Educational Objectives for the Study of History: a framework* (*Teaching of History* series no. 35, The Historical Association) is, of course, one result of the autonomy of our schools and our departments. One is led to question, however, the large differences which exist in what children learn from the subject called history. On the positive side, our autonomy allows teachers to work out their own approaches. The eight lesson-descriptions which follow describe attempts to develop empathy.

## Developing empathy

G. Dankworth in *Teaching History*, May 1971, page 165, speaks of 'bridging the gap between the present, with its sharp definitions, intimacy and immediacy and the unreality of the past, by directing pupils to the conscious human elements which make past and present and make his participation possible'. It is probably for reasons similar to these that teachers seeking to develop empathetic responses have turned to drama, with its form basis in 'human elements' in past and present. In the accounts which follow, however, it should not be thought that drama was the only way of approaching the development of empathy in pupils. There are other ways of stimulating the creative response in pupils.

A piece of empathetic work is certainly a creative response. It is creative in that the intuitively-felt empathy can only be expressed in art, or drama, or creative writing. But is is also a response, and a historical response, in that the teacher has to structure the lesson so that the pupil's response is rooted in the historical situation. It is not an act of untrammelled creative fantasy; it is, at best, a meticulous piece of historical work. The teacher therefore has not only to 'bridge the gap' between past and present in order to fire the imagination, he has to bridge the gap between factual reporting and creative fantasy.

**Lesson One**

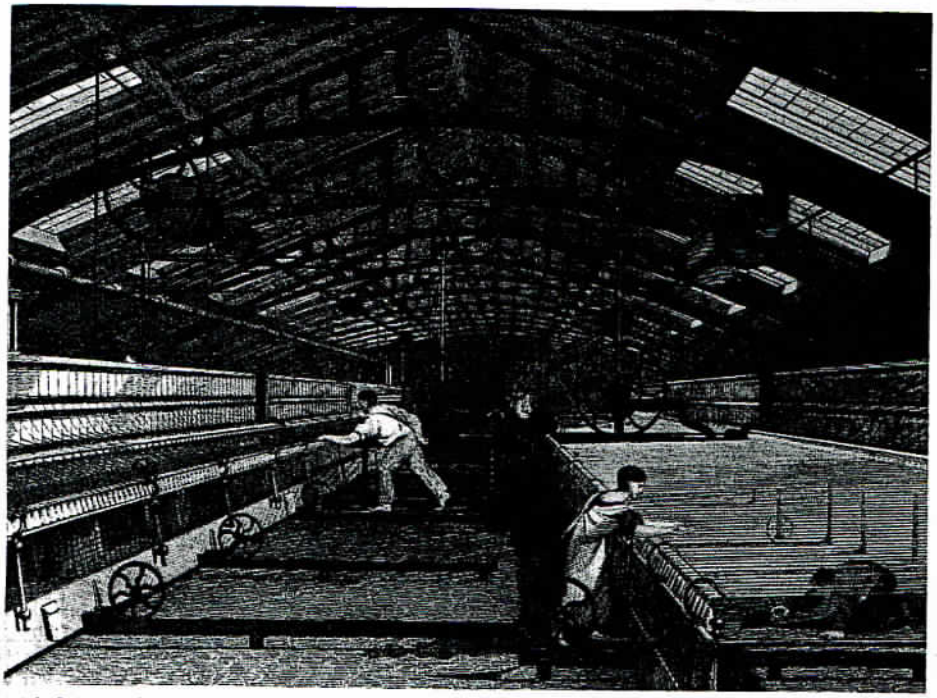
This was a lengthy factual account, lasting 35 minutes, of the conditions in factories in the nineteenth century. The teacher started by attempting a personal register in the way he delivered his talk: 'We enter through the big doors and can hardly hear ourselves speak because of the noise. Our mouths and noses are soon full of dust'. However, this register did not last and the more usual instructional mode of speech took over: 'Workers could be fined for leaving a window open or talking'; 'steam power was increasingly used...'. The rapport with the class was good, the atmosphere was informal and relaxed, and the stimulus material was lively, including some primary source material and some pictures. The work set was 'Imagine you work in a Lancashire cottom factory in 1825; write about a day in your life'. The teacher was anxious to stress the imaginative element. 'Think youself back...what were your feelings?' he asked. The work was of mixed quality, most of it being very closely rooted in the facts of the situation. The sheer emotional power of the primary source material did produce some real empathetic feeling in bursts, but the general tone was rather like this extract:

> 'We have to work very long hours and are very strictly watched. If you leave a window open you can be fined. They can even fine you if you start whistling. Our wages are low and not really enough to live on'.

**Lesson Two**

If the first lesson was weak on cultivating and stimulating the imaginative elements, *Lesson Two* seemed to lack accurate factual background. The arrangement was that the drama teacher took the occasional drama session with groups withdrawn from the Humanities lesson for a whole morning. The drama teacher was in close contact with the Humanities team of teachers, but did not, in fact, teach the course himself.

His aim for the lesson in question was to investigate the feelings and attitudes of factory workers in the nineteenth century. The lesson started with a brief discussion of factory conditions, which pupils had studied in the class the week before, using a range of primary and secondary sources. This was followed by a number of brief improvisations:



*Mule Spinning (courtesy Mansell Collection)*

worthwhile to visit, but in fact when I started to go to schools it became clear that a further division had to be made: some schools stated that they wished to develop such skills as empathy and the interpretation of evidence but no teaching which could be said to develop such skills in fact took place. Even in schools which were genuinely making an effort, teaching for the two skills in question – admittedly the most difficult – did not take up a large proportion of lessons taught. Thus a class might carry out one empathy exercise, consisting of a lesson and a homework, out of a whole term, or even a whole year. Schools basing their syllabuses on the Schools Council History Project had a significantly higher proportion than this.

This patchy take-up of innovation 12 whole years after the publication of the Coltham/Fines pamphlet *Educational Objectives for the Study of History: a framework* (*Teaching of History* series no. 35, The Historical Association) is, of course, one result of the autonomy of our schools and our departments. One is led to question, however, the large differences which exist in what children learn from the subject called history. On the positive side, our autonomy allows teachers to work out their own approaches. The eight lesson-descriptions which follow describe attempts to develop empathy.

## Developing empathy

G. Dankworth in *Teaching History*, May 1971, page 165, speaks of 'bridging the gap between the present, with its sharp definitions, intimacy and immediacy and the unreality of the past, by directing pupils to the conscious human elements which make past and present and make his participation possible'. It is probably for reasons similar to these that teachers seeking to develop empathetic responses have turned to drama, with its form basis in 'human elements' in past and present. In the accounts which follow, however, it should not be thought that drama was the only way of approaching the development of empathy in pupils. There are other ways of stimulating the creative response in pupils.

A piece of empathetic work is certainly a creative response. It is creative in that the intuitively-felt empathy can only be expressed in art, or drama, or creative writing. But is is also a response, and a historical response, in that the teacher has to structure the lesson so that the pupil's response is rooted in the historical situation. It is not an act of untrammelled creative fantasy; it is, at best, a meticulous piece of historical work. The teacher therefore has not only to 'bridge the gap' between past and present in order to fire the imagination, he has to bridge the gap between factual reporting and creative fantasy.

**Lesson One**

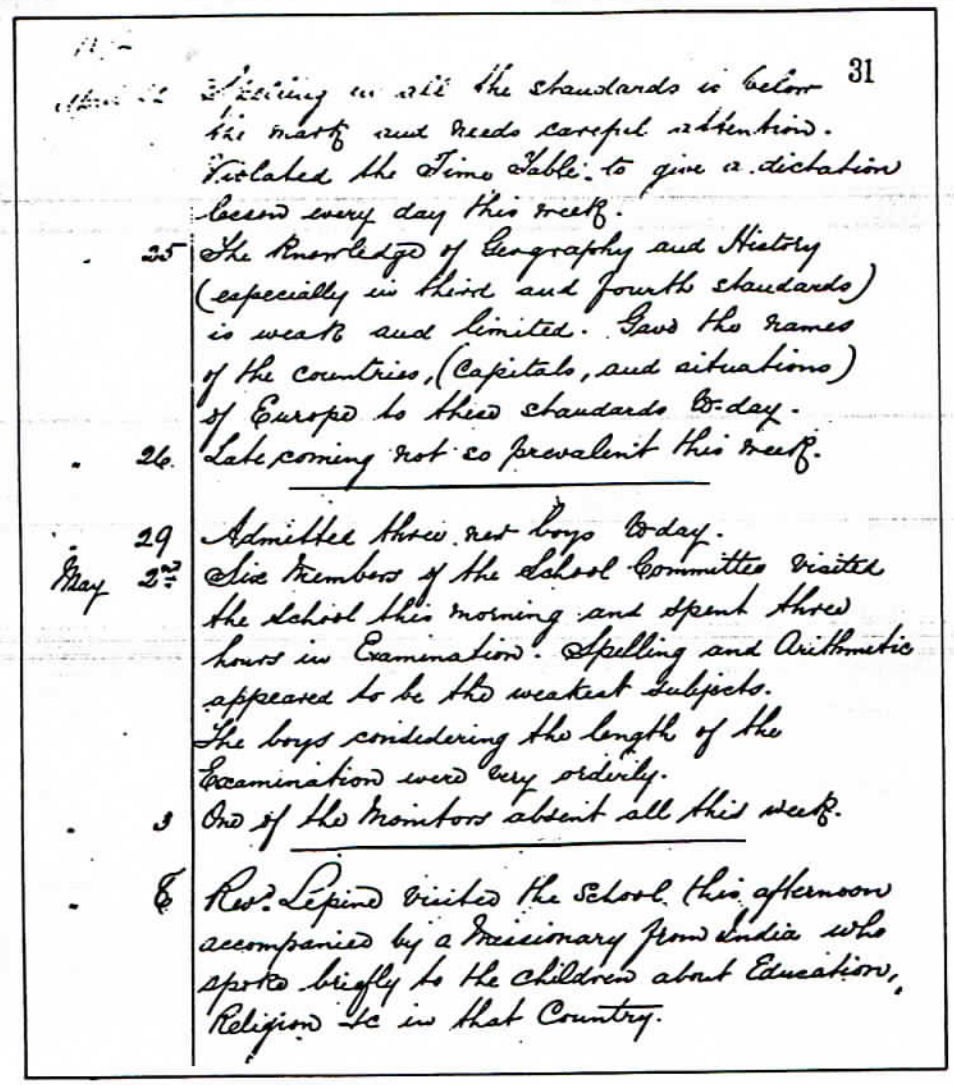
This was a lengthy factual account, lasting 35 minutes, of the conditions in factories in the nineteenth century. The teacher started by attempting a personal register in the way he delivered his talk: 'We enter through the big doors and can hardly hear ourselves speak because of the noise. Our mouths and noses are soon full of dust'. However, this register did not last and the more usual instructional mode of speech took over: 'Workers could be fined for leaving a window open or talking'; 'steam power was increasingly used...'. The rapport with the class was good, the atmosphere was informal and relaxed, and the stimulus material was lively, including some primary source material and some pictures. The work set was 'Imagine you work in a Lancashire cottom factory in 1825; write about a day in your life'. The teacher was anxious to stress the imaginative element. 'Think youself back...what were your feelings?' he asked. The work was of mixed quality, most of it being very closely rooted in the facts of the situation. The sheer emotional power of the primary source material did produce some real empathetic feeling in bursts, but the general tone was rather like this extract:

> 'We have to work very long hours and are very strictly watched. If you leave a window open you can be fined. They can even fine you if you start whistling. Our wages are low and not really enough to live on'.

**Lesson Two**

If the first lesson was weak on cultivating and stimulating the imaginative elements, *Lesson Two* seemed to lack accurate factual background. The arrangement was that the drama teacher took the occasional drama session with groups withdrawn from the Humanities lesson for a whole morning. The drama teacher was in close contact with the Humanities team of teachers, but did not, in fact, teach the course himself.

His aim for the lesson in question was to investigate the feelings and attitudes of factory workers in the nineteenth century. The lesson started with a brief discussion of factory conditions, which pupils had studied in the class the week before, using a range of primary and secondary sources. This was followed by a number of brief improvisations:



31

Spelling in all the standards is below the mark and needs careful attention. Violated the Time Table to give a dictation lesson every day this week.

25 The knowledge of Geography and History (especially in third and fourth standards) is weak and limited. Gave the names of the countries, (Capitals, and situations) of Europe to third standards to-day.

26. Late coming not so prevalent this week.

29 Admitted three new boys to-day.

May 2nd Six Members of the School Committee visited the School this morning and spent three hours in Examination. Spelling and Arithmetic appeared to be the weakest subjects. The boys considering the length of the Examination were very orderly.

3 One of the Monitors absent all this week.

6 Rev. Lépine visited the School this afternoon accompanied by a Missionary from India who spoke briefly to the children about Education, Religion &c in that Country.

*Extract from Hadleigh National School Log-book, 1872*

mime of a job the pupil liked doing; mime of a job the pupil did not like doing; mime of working in a factory – about 12 minutes in all. The work was good, extremely expressive in gesture and mood of resentment, boredom and fatigue. The groups then had to develop a longer mime about working in a cotton mill. The teacher and three pupils went into the groups in the roles of the factory owner, his wife and two investigating MPs. There was some excellent improvised dialogue as the factory owner tried to cover up and excuse what was happening.

Then the class moved from the drama hall to a classroom for a discussion between owner and worker. At this point the pupils lost any roots they might have felt in the nineteenth century and became much more like a hostile workforce in a late twentieth-century factory. The written work which followed evinced emotions of anger, resentment and some of the causes of these feelings. However, it was often anachronistic detail and lacked individuality. Perhaps the real 'product' was the last part of the drama, in which case the teacher's aim in purely 'affective' terms, was fulfilled. If, however, the written work was the product, then the lack of historical foundation reduced its quality as empathetic work:

> 'There are no safety guards and you can easily get fingers and arms cut off. The money isn't good and we get fined more than we earn, so some weeks we get nothing. We work sometimes up to 18 hours a day...'.

If drama is used as the creative, explanatory product of a scheme of study, closely integrated with the course, then interesting results can take place.

**Lesson Three**

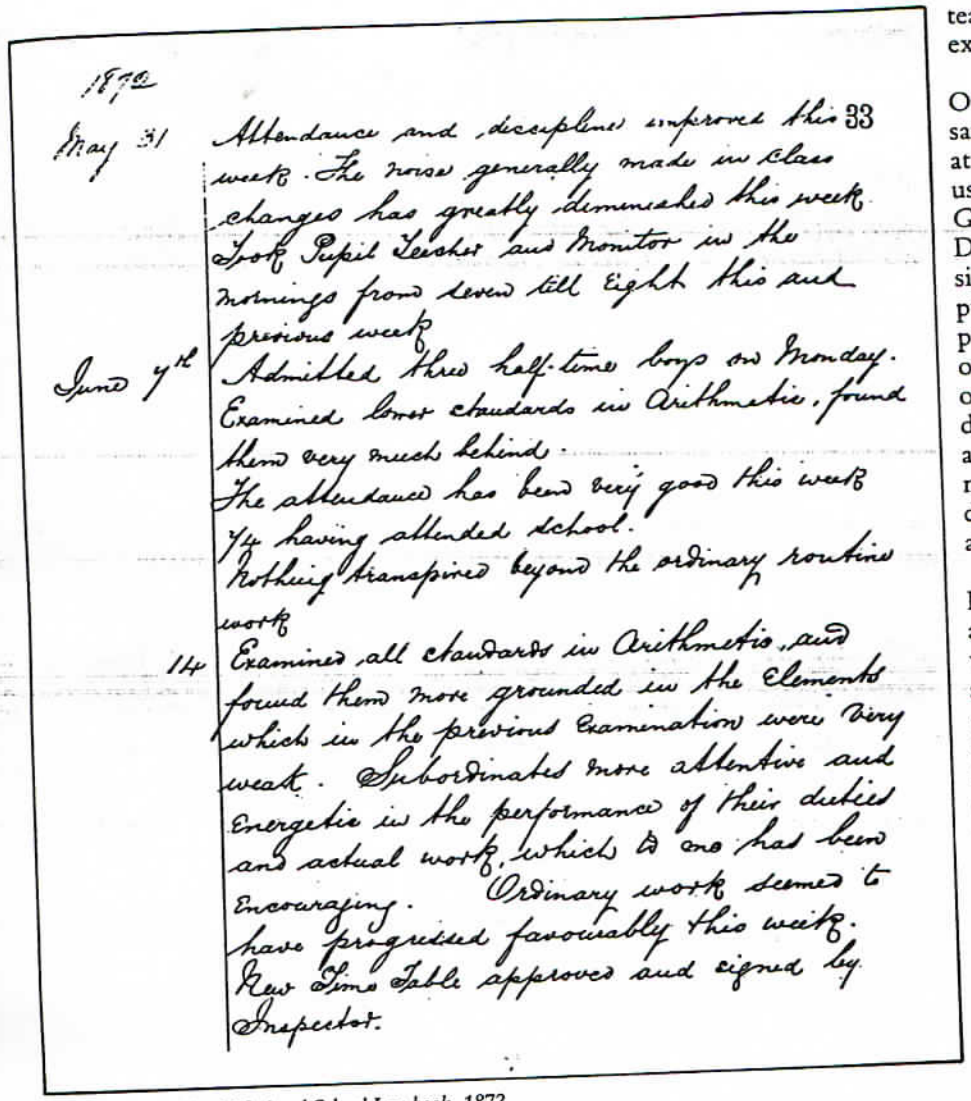
This was the climax of a period of about six weeks work on Victorian schools. A block of four classes had used primary and secondary printed and visual sources to investigate Victorian schools. Details and information were well established, therefore. Alongside this the drama teacher had used his drama lessons with each class to work on the theme of 'authority'. Improvisations on various aspects of authority – at home, at school, at work – took place. There was thus a double stimulus: the Humanities lessons feeding the intelligence with interesting and accurate information, the Drama lessons feeding the imagination with felt experiences.

The two parts of the work were brought together in a performance, in costume, of a day in the life of a Board School. Some 120 pupils played authentic playground games, marched into school in lines, sang 'All things bright and beautiful', heard an address on Samuel Smiles from the Head, and split into classes for history, geography and arithmetic, where rote learning took place. The school was then 'inspected' and its grant cut.

Once again the evaluation of the experience should perhaps remain with that drama, but there was also some interesting written work afterwards, of which this is a short extract from one example:

> 'All our teachers have been nervous and bad tempered recently, we have done nothing but go over our tables with Miss Smith all morning. Now I know why. We had a visit from a tall man in a black coat who Mr Sign called "Her Majesty's Inspector". He asked us to say our seven times table and when Peter got eight sevens wrong, I saw Miss Smith and Mr Sign look everso worried. Miss Smith said afterwards that she couldn't take us out on any more nature walks, or do any object drawing as the Inspector told us to work harder at our sums. I hate him'.

There is no doubt that drama teachers have been making use of the historical situation in drama lessons for years. There seems to me to be no doubt that the closer the pupils' improvisation gets to a known situation, the more confident and personal is their work. Some history teachers do attempt their own dramatic work, but not many, and there is probably a need for in-service training here in basic drama-teaching skills for history teachers. A full-scale drama may not be necessary at all. Two brief descriptions of 'experiences' may suggest ways of introducing and exploring an attitude, or an emotion which can then be transferred to a historical situation afterwards.



1872

May 31 Attendance and discipline improved this week. The noise generally made in class changes has greatly diminished this week. Took Pupil Teacher and Monitor in the mornings from seven till Eight this and previous week

June 4th Admitted three half-time boys on Monday. Examined lower standards in Arithmetic, found them very much behind.

The attendance has been very good this week 4½ having attended school.

Nothing transpired beyond the ordinary routine work

14 Examined all standards in Arithmetic, and found them more grounded in the Elements which in the previous examination were very weak. Subordinates more attentive and Energetic in the performance of their duties and actual work, which is one had been Encouraging. Ordinary work seemed to have progressed favourably this week. New Time Table approved and signed by Inspector.

*Extract from Hadleigh National School Log-book, 1872*

**Lesson Four**
This simply involved taking a class of 11 year olds on to the school field, blindfolding three or four and placing them in a completely open space, with no recognisable features. The blindfolded pupil was, of course, carefully watched, but otherwise allowed to wander for five minutes (a long time!) before changing places with another pupil. The aim was to give the experience of being quite alone on the open featureless sea, without any point of reference as a preparatory experience to a section of work on fifteenth-century ocean explorers, especially Columbus. The evaluation must, again, be subjective, but the pupils were certainly quite affected by the experience and appear to have had a much more personal understanding of the conditions faced by early explorers. As such it certainly seems to have worked as an empathetic piece of work.

**Lesson Five**
This was slightly more complicated: the aim was to develop the feelings of frustration and resentment at being inadequately taught which a medieval medical student might have experienced. The class had no prior knowledge of medieval teaching styles. I was introduced to the class by the history teacher as an observer in an experiment to see whether history teachers could be re-trained as science teachers. I read out the instructions for assembling an electric circuit; the history teacher pointed to the parts as he assembled them; the class, sitting in the raked lecture room, were then asked to make the circuit up. They could not, and were told off. Quite a good dialogue ensured before they were let into the secret that it was a 'put up' job.

The teacher and I disagreed about some of the evaluation of this lesson. He felt that it was not very successful as his pupils did not get angry and frustrated at being asked to do something for which they had been inadequately prepared. I was not certain that this reaction was authentic: the lesson may well have been very effective at simply making known just how inadequate such teaching methods were in an experimental way,

One teaching strategy which may be said to characterise the New History at least as much as any other is the use of simulations and games. In *Games and Simulation in History*, by D. Birt and J. Nichol, 1975, on page six the authors claim 'role-play helps pupils understand and appreciate points of view different from their own. By associating with the position of figures in history the pupils are drawn into a form of understanding and an insight into character and motivation which might otherwise be denied them'. In other words, games and simulations help empathy.

I saw several games and simulations and did not feel that this was so, whatever else they might do successfully. In games, the concerns of pupils were entirely with tactics and competitiveness and with rules – motives and personalities hardly entered into their considerations. This was also true of such computer program games as I saw and used. There was some role play in some of the simulations, but not very effectively explored.

**Lesson Six**
In this lesson I saw the Enclosure Game by Birt and Nichol, *op. cit*, being used. The phase that I saw simulates a village in 1800 with open fields, contemplating enclosure. There were 14 'characters' from the Squire to lesser villagers on feehold land. The class had spent a full hour the previous week assimilating the village situation and the parts they were to play. These roles were higly individualised – not only as to economic background but to certain quirks of character as well.

The actual lesson was very well managed. The pupil playing the Squire chaired the meeting and each side put their point of view about enclosure. The teacher only intervened minimally. The discussion was lively and relevant. It was certainly a great success in terms of the development of oral skills, with some concern, too, for social and political realities. What was learned in fact, was the multiplicity and complexity of motive and causation in any historical situation. The thinking of the participants was, however, firmly in the twentieth century with conversations and deals which would have been more appropriate to the second-hand car

market than to a village undergoing enclosure. The exception was the Rector – played by a girl – who used her own thoughts about the motives of a local minister to make her contribution highly individual, and more empathetic perhaps. It appears that in refining the issue in order to make it more comprehensible and to force the class to deal with motivation, the authors had left out any information about social standpoints and assumptions. Almost all the information given to each 'character' was economic and so all attitudes were expressed in these terms. The nature of the 'game' also encouraged twentieth-century patterns of rivalry and competitiveness, which were inappropriate for empathetic work of this kind.

Most history teachers would consider themselves effective at putting across a narrative, or a mass of factual material. However, the attention given to the imaginative aspect of the empathetic response required may be very perfunctory, as in Lesson One, above. The response may then be merely a regurgitation of the narrative, or a woolly fantasy with no factual underpinning. Yet many history teachers will spend considerable time and effort on developing essay-writing skills: could there not be a need to put equal time and care into developing the skills of empathetic writing? The problem may be that the training of the history teacher has simply left him or her totally ill equipped to carry this out. Yet colleagues in the English department have no such difficulties: the development of imaginative responses is part of their repertoire of skills and is given its full allocation of time, care, stimulus and oral work. Could the history teacher not learn something here?

The best example I saw of this expertise applied to a history lesson was at a school where there is an integrated scheme of work including English, History, Geography and RE. Teachers from all these disciplines teach all the subjects in the integrated course. The lesson described was taught by an English teacher who had familiarised herself with the historical material which was being used.

**Lesson Seven**

This was taught to a group of 11 year olds who were studying the Victorian village. They had studied village life from local source material, among other resources, and had come across an entry in a school logbook of a boy who had played truant for three days. The teacher held a question-and-answer session about why he might have truanted, where he might have gone, and so on. Anachronistic and unlikely events were skilfully weeded out here. The pupils were read more of the logbook, shown some more local documents and a map and went into groups to sort out ideas for the story of the boy and his truancy.

After 15 minutes the groups reported back and the teacher pressed, quite hard, for historical and imaginative detail in each case and in equal measure. Considerable time was spent on how the boy would feel, how his parents would feel, and so on. The class then went into groups again to jot down words, phrases and sentences about the situation, with no real shaped narrative at this stage. This exploratory, low risk technique was one used throughout the whole school by the English department and was familiar to the pupils as they were taught English by the same teacher. There was then a further report back section and more discussion. Indeed, a whole hour was spent on developing and building up ideas before any coherent sentences were written.

I did not see the next lesson in this sequence but this involved individuals reading their draft stories to each other and carrying out individual and group criticism. This is a further aspect of the work of this English department, and encourages pupils to take responsibility for making and receiving judgements. The final stories were extremely lively and well written pieces of empathetic work.

> ' "Mark, hey Mark, breakfast!" my mother called into the dark autumn morning. I heaved my legs out of the rough blankets and dressed, putting on my boots listlessly. I ran along the boards to the kitchen. "You'll get no breakfast if you don't stop making such an infernal din with your hob-nailed boots." I ate my gruel slowly, softening last week's bread in warm milky water. As I finished the last vestiges of my breakfast, I slipped to the door. "Where's my school penny?" I asked. "What a waste," said my mother, "I wish these schools had never been invented." Why did I have to go to senseless old school? I would rather be out in the fields earning a few pennies by picking stones.'

It may be that the dichotomy I have been making between 'historical fact' and 'imaginative development' is a false one. Certainly the teacher described above made no such distinction; and one of the teachers with whom I discussed these ideas felt that this was false and unhelpful. It is in the small details, the capturing of a tone of voice, or just a sense that the author has actually visited that time and place in his imagination, which marks out empathy work of high quality. The use of historical evidence material in the 'input' can do a great deal to establish this. Thus the words of eye witnesses of urban life in the nineteenth century carry with them not just the facts of what they saw but their own views on this, expressed through the language they use.

**Lesson Eight**

This did not employ anything special in the way of drama or simulation exercise. It was merely an empathetic exercise, well set up by a teacher who had some experience of teaching English, but was a historian by training. The teacher read some accounts of town life in the nineteenth century and the class looked at some pictures in textbooks.

They discussed what they had seen and heard as a class first, and then split into groups. Each group had a wide selection of primary source material in printed form, with some illustrations. The task was then to write a letter as from a concerned member of the town council to a local MP describing conditions in the town and asking for his help. The groups talked about the kind of point to be made, and criticised each other's work. The elements of the stimulus all had sufficient weight: factual knowledge, in depth; imaginative viewpoints from within the framework of Victorian knowledge and values; language derived from the time in question and setting a tone. It is interesting to note that some of the class who attempted to write replies as from the MP were unsuccessful – the frames of reference were not present to guide and shape their thinking. ■