



A NEW LOOK AT HISTORY

Schools History 13-16 Project

**Originally published by
Homes McDougall Ltd., Edinburgh, 1976
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Introduction

In October 1968, there appeared in *History*, the Journal of the Historical Association, a perceptive article by Mary Price called “History in Danger.”¹ It brought into focus the fact that many teachers of history were being obliged by the current waves of curriculum reform to question the purpose and method of history in the classroom. At the time some teachers obviously felt the challenge more than others, and it was only a minority who saw “a real danger of history disappearing from the timetable as a subject in its own right, surviving only as an ingredient of Social Studies, or civics, or combined courses of one kind and another.”² Nevertheless the article, though condemned by some as unrealistically pessimistic, has proved in retrospect both prophetic and constructive.

For since 1968 history has had to continue to battle in some schools to ensure its place not only as a separate subject in the curriculum but also “for a place in the minds and interests of the young.” Moreover, many of the suggestions made in that article for helping history teachers to meet the challenge have borne fruit. For example, the suggestion that there should be a periodical which would act as a forum for ideas and experiment led to *Teaching History*, a periodical published twice a year by the Historical Association, the first issue appearing in May 1969. The suggestions that syllabuses should be reconsidered and information spread about the different methods of teaching history have also been followed up. There has been experimentation with new syllabuses, particularly in an attempt to give them a world perspective. The use of archives and documents in the classroom had been advocated for over fifty years but it was given a new lease of life in March 1968 with the publication of the first of several archive teaching units which have come from the Department of Education at the University of Newcastle under the editorship of J. C. Tyson. Since then many groups of history teachers have produced archive units both for commercial publication and for more limited local distribution, and within schools individual teachers are using documentary material in a variety of ways. Other new methods which have been revived or developed are war games, simulation games, and the use of audio visual materials and dramatic techniques. The suggestion that there should be more agencies for the flow of ideas among teachers has also been implemented in the growth of local associations of history teachers and of history groups attached to the various local education authority teachers’ centres.

In one other respect, the article was less than prophetic, for it noted that the Schools Council did not seem interested in sponsoring a history project. It also raised a major query about the relevance of such

¹ M. Price, “History in Danger,” *History* Vol. LIII (1968), pp. 342-347.

² *Ibid*, p.342

projects to history, and concluded that “salvation for history did not lie that way but that the only escape from danger seemed to lie in self-help.”³

Yet in March 1972 the Schools Council did fund a project for History 13 – 16 to begin at the University of Leeds in September 1972 and the project was approved precisely because it was seen as a way of helping teachers to help themselves. The proposal which the Schools Council accepted suggested that, “many teachers would find helpful a project which would provide stimulus, support and materials to help them revitalise their own practice in general and more particularly help them to encourage more pupil participation in their study of history.” It also suggested that there was a distinct need for a project which would help teachers to reconsider the place of history within the changing curriculum and especially its role in the various forms of inter-disciplinary studies which were currently being developed in schools. It also stressed the case for a project which would consider the problems of examining in history and promote modes which would examine understanding rather than ill-digested rote-learning.

The Project began its work in 1972 by reviewing current practice in the teaching of history in schools and also the relevant literature. It found that there was a considerable amount of activity among some history teachers. Syllabuses were being reconsidered, a variety of methods employed and in particular, an attempt made to relate history teaching to objectives following the work of Coltham and Fines.⁴ Much of this activity was more concerned with younger pupils than those aged 13 – 16 or alternatively with pupils who would not take public examinations in history. There were however, beginning at the same time as the Project in September 1972 and also with finance from the Schools Council, two joint working parties set up by the Southern Regional Examinations Board and the Oxford Delegacy for School Examinations on the one hand and the West Midlands Examination Board and the Northern Universities Joint Matriculation Board on the other to see if it was feasible to have a common system of examining in history for all pupils aged 16-plus.

These working parties produced experimental pilot examinations which were taken by pupils for the first time in the summer of 1974.

³ Ibid., p. 346.

⁴ Jeanette B. Coltham and J. Fines, *Educational Objectives for the Study of History*, Historical Association, 1971.

Despite all this activity, there was an obvious lack of any sort of overall rationale which might justify the retention of history in the curriculum of 13 – 16 year olds and also make it meaningful to the needs and interests of the pupils themselves. The Project began with a conscious attempt to re-think the philosophy of teaching history in school. The syllabus designs, materials and examination schemes which have been produced subsequently were based firmly on this philosophy.

History and Pupils

At a time when new areas of study clamour for inclusion in the already over-crowded secondary school curriculum, the old subjects, such as history, must inevitably justify their continued existence. It is no longer sufficient justification to say that some school pupils enjoy history, or that teachers are now using a variety of methods on a scale never seen before. There is a need for adequate expression of a philosophy for the teaching of history which will not only convince adult sceptics, whether inside or outside the staff room, but also give history teachers a reason for their belief that history is a valuable component in the school curriculum. Moreover, pupils in the age range 13 – 16 want to know why they are expected to do certain subjects and so there is also a need for a rationale which teachers can discuss with their pupils.

It is important to state at the outset that any rationale which is offered must encompass both subject and pupils. Justifications for the study of history as a subject in itself, are legion. What is lacking, however, is one which justifies the study of history as a suitable study for adolescents in school. To do this effectively demands some consideration, not only of the subject history, its content and its methods, but also of the pupils, their abilities and their needs. For if it cannot be shown positively that history does meet some of the educational needs of adolescents, then questions about its continued place in the curriculum may be legitimately raised.

Pupils' Abilities

Some attempt must first be made to characterise the pupils for whom history may or may not provide a valuable educational experience. What are their abilities and needs?

There is a limited amount of research evidence about the intellectual abilities of adolescents in history. First, investigations have been made into the thought processes of adolescents on the lines pioneered by Jean Piaget of Geneva University. In general the results of these studies suggest that most pupils between the ages 11–16 will be in the stage of concrete operational thinking. This means, in broad terms, that such pupils can think logically about the information that is available to them as first hand experience, but that they cannot generalise, or make hypotheses, and that they find it difficult to understand vocabulary which includes abstractions or accounts which present too many variables. Though in some other subjects such as mathematics the stage of formal operational thinking may be reached earlier, in history most pupils do not reach this stage of thinking, which includes the ability to

make hypotheses, to deal with abstract concepts, and to grasp that a number of variables can operate in any given situation, until they reach the age of about 16.⁵

Secondly, some study has been made of the capacity of adolescents to make judgments, that is to think in situations where there is no single correct response and where decisions are made and differ according to the weight given to different criteria. The conclusion here has been that only a minority of adolescents can offer explanations and make judgments involving this before the ages of 13–15. After that age the majority will begin to display the power to make judgments.⁶ The conclusion from this recent evidence about the intellectual or cognitive abilities of adolescent pupils in history would seem to be that before the age of 16 they are distinctly limited.

However, there are certain comments which need to be made on these researches. Firstly, the amount of research and the number of pupils involved in it is small and so the generalisations made upon such limited evidence must be treated with caution. Secondly, the results reflect the levels of abilities reached by pupils who have been taught history over the past 20 years or so. In this period history teachers have not, in general, consciously aimed at improving their pupils' thinking abilities, but have concentrated rather on making history interesting and on transmitting a body of factual knowledge about the past. It is therefore possible that different aims and approaches to the teaching of history may accelerate the development of thinking abilities amongst pupils, so that the majority may reach the stage of formal operational thinking at an age somewhat earlier than 16. Thirdly, in recent years it has been the experience of some teachers and college of education lecturers and also of the *Schools Council Project : History, Geography and Social Sciences 8–13* that much can be done in the years between 8 and 13 to develop pupils' conceptual understanding of what history involves by giving children the opportunity of handling and using historical evidence. This experience suggests that pupil readiness for learning history may occur at earlier chronological ages than has generally been allowed. Moreover, if teachers were to adopt a methodology which reinforced pupil acquisition of ideas about history by introducing pupils to the same ideas at different ages, say at 8, 11, 13 and 14, then the ability of pupils to do 'real' history may well mature earlier. A. N. Whitehead's suggestion that education should be a rhythmic process consisting of a continual repetition of cycles of ideas in which pupils, "continually enjoy some fruition and starting afresh"⁷ and J. S. Bruner's more recent view of the 'spiral curriculum' which, "as it develops should revisit these basic ideas, repeatedly building upon

⁵ R. N. Hallam, "Piaget and Thinking in History", in M. Ballard (ed.) *New Movements in the Study and Teaching of History*, Temple Smith, London, 1970, pp. 162-178.

⁶ E. A. Peel, *The Nature of Adolescent Judgment*, Staples Press, London, 1971.

⁷ A. N. Whitehead, *The Aims of Education*, Ernest Benn Ltd., London, 1959, p. 30.

them until the student has grasped the full formal apparatus that goes with them”⁸ have an obvious relevance here.

Turning from these more strictly cognitive abilities of adolescents, some attempt must also be made to describe their emotional characteristics and their abilities to respond effectively, as well as cognitively, to their experience. Since B. S. Bloom and his associates produced their classification of educational objectives in what they called the cognitive and affective domains, discussion about pupils’ abilities has been aided by the common terms of reference which they suggested.⁹

As a result, teachers can now attempt to classify their pupils’ abilities in a more detailed way. The work of Piaget and his followers on pupils’ thinking abilities has already been mentioned, and although some of it, and notably the work of Professor Peel, relates to the affective abilities of pupils, on the whole little work has been done in this area. Consequently, general description of pupils’ abilities must here suffice, but since it corresponds to the experience which many teachers have of their pupils, it cannot be dismissed as invalid. For example, many history teachers have noted that adolescent pupils, given the opportunity, can respond to the past in a positive way; they can get excited when they touch some object which has survived from the past, or when they see Elizabeth I’s signature, whether actually or in facsimile. Again, many adolescents have an ability to imagine the past, to recreate its actions and its thoughts in drama or role-play, to sympathise with people from the past in discussion or dialogue and even to hero-worship and identify themselves with some of the people of the past. Finally, even if many pupils lack the ability to respond so positively to the past – and it may be because they have missed the opportunity – most pupils are capable of the more passive ability of receiving the past and of escaping from the present into it, whether through a story told by a teacher, or through film, or through a book (either of history or historical fiction).

In conclusion then, it would seem that adolescent pupils in general do have a range of abilities which make it possible for them to do some history. All can think at the concrete level, some are approaching a more mature level of thought and there is the possibility that this can be accelerated for more pupils by different teaching methods – and the majority have the ability to respond emotionally to the past. Potentially then, history would seem a suitable subject to be included in the curriculum of adolescents. However, it would be rash to assume from this that it ought to be included in such a curriculum. For though pupils may have the abilities to respond to history, they may not want to do so. They may not

⁸ J. S. Bruner, *The Process of Education*, Harvard University Press, 1960, p. 13.

⁹ B. S. Bloom, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain*, David McKay Company, New York, 1956, Longman edition, 1971. And D. R. Krathwold, B. S. Bloom and B. B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain*, David McKay Company, New York, 1956, Longman edition 1971.

feel the need for a life involving history in the same way that most, for example, feel the need for a life involving relationships with the opposite sex, or for a life involving sport. This may be because they are not in a position to know fully what their needs are and so it is open for teachers to claim that history is a proper school subject because it answers certain needs of adolescents. Before this can be done with any confidence, however, an analysis must be made of adolescent needs and of the ability of history to meet them.

Pupils' Needs

The discussion of adolescent needs which follows is based upon two assumptions. First, that it would be inappropriate to discuss all the needs which adolescents may have. The concentration here, therefore, will be upon those needs which history seems to have some capacity to answer. Second, that pupils are not always the best judges of their own needs. The adult educator has a wide experience and a perspective which should enable him or her to say something useful about adolescent needs.

In general, few adolescents would admit that history was a subject which met their real needs. Either they would define their needs in areas where history plainly has little to offer in direct terms; as for example, the young school leavers who in a survey of 1968, rated history as a subject of little use because it did not equip them for a job.¹⁰ Or they would define history in terms which obviously did not relate to their needs; for example, they would describe it in terms of information, of topics, dates and people, some interesting and some perhaps less so, but little of which they would acknowledge as useful to them. As a third year pupil once put it: "I don't think it has any use for when I want to start work. What has George III got to do with an apprentice carpenter?"

This is not surprising since most teachers have not consciously emphasised history as a subject which might be useful to their pupils in the sense that it meets some of their needs. Nevertheless, it is possible to see history in this way, and indeed essential to do so if the premiss is accepted that pupils should not be subjected to school studies which they cannot be said to need.

What then are the needs of adolescents which history might meet? The following list is an attempt to isolate the most pertinent ones:

1. The need to understand the world in which they live.
2. The need to find their personal identity by widening their experience through the study of people of a different time and place.

¹⁰ Schools Council Enquiry 1, *Young School Leavers*, H.M.S.O. 1968, pp. 45, 57.

3. The need to understand the process of change and continuity in human affairs.
4. The need to begin to acquire leisure interests.
5. The need to develop the ability to think critically, and to make judgments about human situations.

These needs have not been arrived at by mere a priori speculation. Some of them also correspond to the reasons given by pupils in the age range 14–16 in discussion with teachers about why they want to study history. It is not unusual for sixth form teachers to ask prospective sixth formers why they want to study a particular subject and the experience of some teachers suggests that needs 1, 3, and 5 will often be formulated in much the same words by adolescents as reasons why they want to study history. Need 2 is rarely articulated in this way and need 4 is usually omitted, probably because children and adolescents rarely see school subjects as possible leisure interests. However, although some pupils aged 14–16 may be able to articulate some of these needs, the majority of pupils will not be able to do this for the reason given above, that teachers have not usually stressed this function of history in the school curriculum. Whether the majority of adolescents can come to see the value of history in this way will depend upon the extent to which teachers accept this view of adolescent needs and of the ability of history to answer them. In the discussion which follows an examination will be made of each of the needs in turn and of the relevance of history to them.

Firstly, the adolescent's need to be given in school some understanding of the present world in which he lives, would be accepted as essential by many educators. However, that history has a crucial part to play in this might gain less immediate acceptance. Consequently, the curriculum may often include current affairs or social and environmental studies and yet omit the perspective which alone can give full understanding of the present, namely the historical one. Conversely history teachers will often justify their subject with a variety of arguments and yet omit this obvious one. Present day situations can be fully understood only through the perspective of their historical origins and if adolescents are to be given more than a limited understanding of their present they must be exposed to (at least) its immediate past. History in this way serves as a kind of public memory for the adolescent, giving him a knowledge and awareness without which he cannot understand the world in which he lives. His private life and self-awareness would be inconceivable without his memory. In the same way his existence as a member of society would be impaired if he is denied or refuses to acquire some historical understanding of his situation.

Secondly, it is widely accepted that the adolescent needs to find himself, to establish his personal identity and to begin the process of realising for himself what values he finds worthwhile. He does this in a variety of ways : partly by widening and measuring his own experience against that of others such as parents, teachers or peers, partly by comparing his own experience with that which he finds

communicated in literature, art, music, psychology, sociology, geography or history. The part that history can play in this should not be underestimated, for in history the adolescent has access to a vast pool of real human experience.

In this way it differs from and offers an additional dimension to the picture of human experience which an adolescent might gain from other subjects. The novelist or the poet offers a significant view of human experience but it is a view created by imagination and this sometimes magnifies and sometimes distorts the human situation which it also illuminates. Similarly, the psychologist and the sociologist offer distinctive insights into human experience but again by seeking to emphasise what is typical and what is common to all men, they necessarily present an abstract, general view of humanity. In history the adolescent has the opportunity to find himself by relating his experience to what real men and women have done and said, in real situations. It is in this way that it differs fundamentally from other subjects. If adolescents need to widen their experience in order to find themselves, history offers them the opportunity to experience vicariously an immense range of real human life and endeavour.

This view of the value which history might have in the curriculum was put differently but eloquently in the Newsom Report. It is worth quoting in this context:

Even more important, perhaps, than this scientific approach to factual evidence is an ability to enter imaginatively into other men's minds. What is to be cultivated here is psychological sensitivity and intuitive awareness, rather than rational fact-finding. It is important to keep good company and great company. People count. They count not only in their private lives but publicly. People make history. It is an enlarging of the spirit for our boys and girls to meet great men and to respond to them as men did and still do. The racy but rich speech of Abraham Lincoln can still hold fifteen year-olds in twentieth century England and show them as it showed men a hundred years ago what things are worth more than living. It is important, too, to know bad company and to avoid it. Evil men also have power. Were those who followed Hitler necessarily worse men than those who rallied to Churchill? Why did they do it? Might we not have done the same? How did some of his own people stand out against him? These are sobering questions which ordinary young people ought to face.¹¹

An equally essential part of this widening of experience which history can offer is the perspective which it gives to the present. There is a great danger that the young may grow up to be one-dimensional beings living only in the present, arrogant about its achievements and style of life and

¹¹ *Half Our Future*, H.M.S.O., 1963, p. 166.

unaware of any criteria by which it might be judged or any other values, attitudes or styles of living with which it might be fruitfully compared. History can show pupils examples of societies with values and life styles quite distinctive from their contemporary world: the people of 5th century Athens, for example, or the Vikings or mediaeval monks or the Aztecs. It can also introduce them to individuals with ideas about life which are quite different from those which, shall we say, a contemporary “pop” star or politician might offer: for instance, Julius Caesar, Mohammed, Richard I, Michaelangelo or Albert Schweitzer.

One peculiar value of history is that it can reduce the present age to size. It can provide standards of comparison, and offer examples of things better done at other times and in other places. Perhaps no single subject can offer as much in the way of releasing pupils from the prison of their own times and the captivity of the sameness of ideas with which their peer groups and the contemporary media surround them. No subject other than history can correct the arrogant regard for the present and its achievements which so much of the contemporary curriculum inculcates in the young.

Thirdly, the adolescent needs to understand how change occurs in human affairs. This is important partly because at the present time we live in an age of increasingly rapid and built-in change, but also because the young need to be made aware that change is possible. The young should gain some understanding that life is not pre-determined but that the human being is a self-determining animal – unlike the ant or the bee he can consciously change his way of life. This being so it is essential for the next generation to know what is involved in changing the human situation so that when they wish – as some inevitably will – to change the present for a better or a different world, they will stand a reasonable chance of achieving what they desire. Whatever else history is, it is a study of change and continuity in human affairs. In this way it can relate directly to adolescent needs. Other subjects obviously offer accounts of change in human affairs, but history has a peculiar contribution to make here for two reasons. First, it emphasises that change can only be understood in the context of time and secondly, it emphasises the complexity of causation in human affairs. Other subjects may seek to explain change in terms of universal laws of general application, or by reference to particular and often short-term studies which are then made the basis for generalisations about change in human affairs. In so doing they may over-simplify the human situation, and offer a naive view of change. History can give adolescents a more realistic view of what change in human affairs involves.

Fourthly, the adolescent needs to begin to acquire leisure interests. It seems possible that the increasing technological development of our civilisation will eventually bring periods of increased leisure to more and more of our population and consequently the school curriculum should attempt to prepare the next generation for this. Future adults will need to know how to use their leisure and subjects which can contribute to this should be given some priority. History has an obvious relevance

here. It offers an area of interest which it is feasible for many people to follow in their leisure time. No expensive equipment is required, no huge stadia need to be built. Already many adults find leisure interests in the area of history. For example, local historical and archaeological societies flourish, many adults borrow from public libraries history books or historical fiction, and the number of visits to museums and historical sites increases every year. If schooling exists, at least in part, to prepare adolescents for adult life, then the contribution which history can make to the acquisition of leisure interests is an important one.

Finally, the adolescent needs to develop the ability to think critically and to make judgments about human situations. Almost without exception, every school subject justifies its existence on the grounds that it develops the skills of critical thinking. Consequently, if history has any special contribution to make to adolescent development in this respect, then it must be because of the context in which thinking takes place in history. From this point of view there are two very important ways in which history can answer adolescent needs. First, thinking in history can involve work on evidence about human action in the past. Secondly, it involves the exercise of judgment.

Other subjects may involve the comprehension and analysis of evidence, as for example English or physics, and history in a general sense gives experience of the same skills. Where it differs is in the context and range of its material: for it involves the comprehension and analysis of evidence about people – a point which it is important to stress – and in addition the evidence studied is inevitably varied and may be conflicting in itself. Consequently, the pupil learns how to question and assess the evidence that may be reported of any human event and more particularly to distinguish between evidence and interpretation. These are important skills to acquire in an age of mass-media news reports.

It is important to state here, however, that it is not being suggested that pupils in school should study only historical evidence. The historian does not go to a piece of evidence with an empty mind: he approaches his evidence with a great volume of evidence and experience and these inform his comprehension and analysis of the evidence. On the other hand, a school pupil is likely to approach evidence with an almost empty mind and consequently teachers must give some help in the way of background information before he or she can be expected to practise the skills of comprehending and analysing historical evidence. History in school should not consist entirely of studies of documents, archive or artefacts. Secondary sources, text books, information sheets and exchange of ideas in discussion are the indispensable preliminaries to work upon historical evidence.

Thinking in history also involves judgment and of all the kinds of thinking that the adolescent or adult is called upon to do in life, this is one that occurs most frequently and causes most difficulty. Judging

has been described as, “a form of thinking . . . invoked whenever we are in a situation for which there is no single final correct response to be discovered, but rather a spectrum of responses satisfying different numbers of different criteria.”¹² It is in such situations that most of us live. For example, the ordinary person is faced in life with questions such as these: Shall I buy this? Can we really afford it? Shall I apply for this job? Shall I marry this or that person? The answer is never absolutely clear and the most that a person can do is to weigh the evidence and then, having decided, to live with the consequences of decision. It is this ability to make judgments that adolescents have to begin to acquire. They do it partly by trial and error in facing the various situations which come their way in their own lives, whether at home, school, or in relations with friends and groups. They can also, however, acquire some vicarious experience of this in their study of history. For history deals precisely with situations where men have to make judgments, and adolescents in studying history should be able to gain experience, by the exercise of empathy, of the difficulties of human decision making. In history they will see men and women hesitant about the way they should go, having to take decisions in situations where there was no right answer and having to live with the consequences of their decisions thereafter. For example, Queen Elizabeth I did not find it easy to order the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots. Nor did Cromwell and the Parliamentarians when they came to consider the death of Charles I. Ultimately most of the important questions an adult has to deal with in life are those which demand judgment in situations where there are no correct answers. History in school offers opportunities for adolescents to learn something of this difficult art by allowing them to rethink some of the problems adults in the past have encountered. There is no suggestion here that history repeats itself or that having thought through some past situation an adolescent is then prepared to meet the same situation if and when it recurs in his or her lifetime. Historical situations are unique. All that is being claimed is that history can offer a vicarious experience of widely differing cases of human decision making. It is not a total substitute for coping with actual situations oneself, but since the school curriculum usually offers few direct opportunities for judgment, history is a subject which at least can attempt to meet this crucial adolescent need.

In describing adolescent needs and in indicating the part that history can play in meeting them, one large assumption has been made. It is, that history is a subject of such variety of content and approach that it can supply these various needs. Some attempt must now be made to say what history is.

The Nature of History

The most obvious point about history is that it is not a structural subject like physics. There is no body of knowledge with a coherent structure in history. Some have argued that a series of basic concepts

¹² E. A. Peel, *The Nature of Adolescent Judgment*, Staples Press, London, 1971, p. 19.

underlies it, concepts such as leadership, power, war, trade, religion and culture. Others have tried to isolate a series of covering laws which may account for events in the past. In neither case however, have their efforts produced any consensus amongst professional historians. The only statement about history which does seem to command common agreement is that it is about the human past and that it involves the concept of time past. Beyond this it is difficult to isolate any other common attributes of history. For, grammatically speaking, history does not seem to be a substantive noun; it does not stand on its own but seems always to demand that it is followed by a genitive. Thus, there is no history as such but only the history of politics, of science, of costume, of art, of education and so on. From this it follows that the subject matter of history is potentially infinite in both its variety and its extent. It is not without significance that the Historical Association should take as its motto *quidquid agunt homines* – “Whatever men engage in.” The content of history therefore cannot be defined except in very general terms. It is about the human past and all that men have done or said or undergone, as far as it can be known from the evidence which has survived.

Moving on from the content of history to the practice of history, its characteristics may be described more specifically. First, it is an activity of enquiry into the past and its raw material is the evidence which has survived from the past. Secondly, it is an activity of enquiry with three basic questions in mind; what happened, when did it happen and why did it happen then? History deals with events and these are never stable but essentially fluid. They are happenings and the essential characteristic of history is that it seeks to understand the change from one event to another, one idea to another, one institution to another and so on. In this way it concerns itself with causation in human affairs, although it must be realised that causation in this area is always compound and never simple and that happenings in the past may be linked not only because of a causal connection, but also perhaps because they occurred contemporaneously and coincidentally. Thirdly, it is an activity of enquiry about change in human affairs which takes place in the context of time and chronology. In history the human past is studied as it changed in time. Consequently some knowledge of chronology is essential if it is to be studied with understanding. A sense of anachronism is at one and the same time the condition and the outcome of historical study. It is important to note here however, that this is not the same thing as saying that the structure of history is chronological. The human past changed in time, but not because of time. Two events which came after each other in time need not be connected. Thus the historian can study part of the human past without knowing all that either went before or came after it. Some knowledge of previous events and some general chronological framework is obviously essential to a historian but the study is not structured on chronology in such a way that the nineteenth century cannot be studied until a knowledge of what happened from ancient times onward has been acquired.

Fourthly, the activity of history is concerned with understanding particular events and individuals. The events and people studied may be similar to other events and people but they are never identical and consequently the application of general laws of behaviour or standardising procedures, while in part useful, is ultimately inappropriate. Human happenings remain potentially unpredictable, and this fact is both the Achilles heel of the social sciences and the strength of history. For if it were not so history would have no autonomy as a subject and the attempt to justify its inclusion in the curriculum would be difficult indeed.

Finally, history involves some attempt to rethink the past, to re-enact it and to empathise with the people concerned in any past situation. As R. G. Collingwood put it, “You are thinking historically when you say about anything, ‘I see what the person who made this (wrote this, used this, designed this, etc.) was thinking’ “¹³ In this way it differs from subjects such as chemistry or geography, since it cannot be taught by direct experience. The facts of history cannot be shown to pupils for direct inspection, they can only be appreciated by imaginative experience. Men’s motives cannot be seen; they can only be grasped by intuition or inference. Thus the study of history involves pupils in two ways. First it demands something of themselves, since it involves some response from them to the events of the past; a response first of selecting the events they want to consider and then of reflecting imaginatively upon them. Secondly, by this very process it extends their experience, since through it they come to appreciate the experience of others.

Conceived of in this way, history demands an exercise in imagination or an ability to respond to the past sympathetically. It must be emphasised here however, that the use of the imagination in history is different from its use in, for example, a subject such as English, or art. For in history the imagination must be disciplined by the evidence, and students of history are not free to imagine the past as they will. In this way history offers to the curriculum of adolescents an experience which is peculiar to itself and which no other subject can supply. In addition, the content of history offers a potentially infinite field for imaginative study, and also the capacity to stir pupils’ imaginations. It is difficult to generalise about the part that history can play in the imaginative life of pupils, but certainly it can offer them the opportunity of romance or the chance to escape into the past from their present, neither of which should be scorned or underestimated.

To summarise, history is a subject which has an immense variety of content but which lacks any structure which can dictate how this content should be studied. On the other hand, the practice of history is a specific activity of enquiry into evidence surviving from the past, with a view to finding

¹³ R. G. Collingwood, *An Autobiography*, Penguin Books, 1945, p. 75.

out in the context of chronology and by a process of rethinking past thoughts and emotions, what particular events happened, and why change occurred.

Can such a view of history be taught in school, and if so, can it also answer some of the educational needs of adolescents? If it can, then it might justly be claimed that history is a useful subject with a strong case for being included as one of the “core” subjects in the secondary school curriculum.

History as a Useful Subject

It has been argued so far that history can make a valuable contribution to the education of adolescents and we must now suggest how this can be done in practice – the ways in which pupils will begin to see that history has its uses for them. These suggestions may conveniently be considered under three headings :

- 1 syllabus framework,
- 2 an introductory course,
- 3 discussion with pupils.

Syllabus Framework

It is possible to devise a syllabus framework which corresponds directly to the uses which history may have for pupils. The following table, Fig. 1, illustrates such a framework as envisaged for a two-year course, for the ages 14–16.

Fig. 1

Syllabus framework 14–16 years	Educational uses of History for pupils
1 Studies in Modern World History.	It helps to explain their present.
2 Depth study of some past period.	It helps them to understand people of a different time and place, and this is a widening and therefore valuable social and educational experience.
3 A study in development of some topic.	It provides material for the understanding of human development and change in the perspective of time and also of the complexity of causation in human affairs.
4 History Around Us.	It contributes to leisure interests.

Each of the four units of the framework corresponds to one specific use but also bears a general relation to some of the other uses. For example, Studies in Modern World History corresponds to the first use. However, it is not suggested that the only value of studying Modern World History is to explain the present. It has other uses too, but the contribution it can make to explaining the con-

temporary world of the pupil is the key focus. Though the framework is shaped to meet most of the needs of adolescents which were previously identified, it does not directly answer their need to develop the skills of critical analysis and judgment. A syllabus cannot be expected to do this anyway and it is more meaningful to look to teaching methods to develop such skills.

Apart from its correspondence to the uses which history has for adolescents this framework also ensures that pupils of this age range experience a wide sample of the variety of content which history has to offer. It allows teachers who adopt this framework to choose content entirely by reference to personal enthusiasm and the historical interests of pupils, though, of course, this does imply that examining boards will co-operate and offer a variety of options in G.C.E. 'O' level and C.S.E. Mode 1 papers or examine Mode 3 type syllabuses. It also introduces pupils to the ways in which historians study the past. The study of Modern World History, the study of a past period in detail, the tracing of change in some topic and the use of local history are all well established approaches to the past.

Fig. 2 shows the framework as applied to an examination course at G.C.E. Ordinary level and C.S.E.

Fig. 2 Syllabus for a Two Year Course and Examination in History at GCE/CSE

Suggested teaching time 2 ½ hrs. a week (4-5 periods)

Framework of Syllabus	Example of Content for Trial Schools	Possible Future Options	Suggested Teaching time
Study in development A study of the factors affecting the development of a topic through time.	Medicine	The Story of Flight Women in Society Education History of Science	1 term
Enquiry in Depth A study of aspects of a period of the past involving imaginative reconstruction and contrast with the present.	One of the following : Elizabethan England 1558-1603 Britain 1815-1851 The American West 1840-1890	Fifth Century Greece Chaucer's England 1340-1400 Renaissance Italy 1450-1500 The Spanish Conquest of South America 1500-1550 England 1640-1660 Russia 1905-1924	1 ½ terms

<p>Studies in Modern World History Three studies on modern issues viewed historically.</p>	<p>Three of the following : The Rise of Communist China The Move to European Unity Arab-Israeli Conflict The Irish Question</p>	<p>India-Pakistan America as a World Power Wind of Change in Africa Origins of the Cold War Pollution</p>	<p>1 ½ terms</p>
<p>History Around Us A study of the history around us, using the visible evidence as the starting point. This will involve visits to sites.</p>	<p>One of the following : Prehistoric Britain Roman Britain Castles and fortified houses 1066-1550 Country houses 1550-1800 Church buildings and furnishings 1066-1900 Studies in the making of the rural landscape Town development and domestic architecture 1700 to the present Industrial Archaeology Aspects of the historical development of the locality.</p>		<p>1 term</p>

It will be immediately obvious that this framework of syllabus is not controlled by chronological considerations. However, it should be understood that it in no way implies a rejection of chronology. Pupils will need to have a thorough grasp of chronology in order to deal confidently and competently with the range of content which this syllabus offers. This has implications for teaching methods, but the framework itself has been devised to help pupils acquire a chronological context by beginning the course with the Study in Development which traces change in a topic through historical time.

It should also be noted that although the example given relates to a course for public examination at 16, this way of structuring a syllabus also provides an appropriate basis for a course for those pupils who, for whatever reason, are not entered for public examinations in history. When considering their pupils' abilities, teachers may decide to limit the content to be studied and, for example, it may be that two rather than three Modern World Studies will be undertaken. But the syllabus framework, based as it is upon the uses which history can have in the education of adolescents, has validity for pupils of all abilities, because adolescents' needs in this sense, are the same whatever their abilities.

This syllabus framework is certainly new in its overall structure. It is at once more and less ambitious than traditional syllabuses at this age level. It is less ambitious because it does not set out to cover in detail the mass of content usually demanded. It is more ambitious because it gives pupils the opportunity of sampling in some depth a range of historical content and adopting a wide variety of approaches to history. It is offered as an alternative way of framing a syllabus and it should promote some re-thinking of the whole question of syllabus in history at the secondary level.

An Introductory Course: “What is History?”

A second way in which pupils can be led to see the use of history is to follow a structured course which attempts to show them what history is.

It has often been argued that history is too difficult a study for school pupils, since it deals with adults and consequently demands some maturity before it can be studied with profit. Following this the task of the teachers of history in school has been seen as that of arousing interest in the past and of encouraging pupils to go on to study history later. Moreover, the suggestion that schools should make a conscientious attempt to demonstrate to pupils what history is really about has been treated with scepticism.¹⁴

While acknowledging that history can be a difficult study, and that the school is not a place for training professional historians, some value may be claimed for showing pupils what history is really about and what historians do. For in the first place it will give some meaning to the school work which pupils do. If pupils can be led to see through discussion with their teachers what history has to offer them, then there is more chance that they will co-operate in the process of education. Secondly, it will introduce pupils to the historical approach to knowledge so that whether or not they continue to study history themselves, they will at least have some awareness of what historians do. The concept of education as initiation is relevant here. If one of the functions of schools is to show the next generation what pursuits adults have found valuable and worthwhile then it is important to make a conscious attempt to show pupils what history is. Similarly it is the job of the teacher to introduce pupils to the language and meanings which have been developed over the years and which historians share and use. This is obviously true for pupils who will go on to study more history, but it is also particularly important for pupils who will not. If they leave school without any understanding of what history is, it is unlikely that they will either find their own interests in the historical field or have much sympathy or tolerance for those who do.

¹⁴ G. R. Elton, “*What Sort of History Should We Teach?*” M. Ballard (ed.) *New Movements in the Study and Teaching of History*. Temple Smith, London, 1970, pp. 227.

In this connection, giving all pupils some knowledge of what historians do would help to prevent the growth of a society which lacks any common culture – a society which the increase of knowledge and specialisation tends to produce. For pupils to know at least what other subjects do, whatever their own particular preference or expertise, would seem to be a worthwhile aim of secondary school education, and it would contribute to the development of a society which was more unified in its perception of human endeavours. It is no longer possible to be a polymath, and know about all the natural sciences, the social sciences, the arts and literature. It is however, possible to know at least what the various approaches to knowledge are attempting to do.

Finally, it is worth considering in this connection J. S. Bruner's conviction, “that intellectual activity anywhere is the same, whether at the frontier of know-ledge or in a third grade classroom . . . the difference is in degree, not in kind,”¹⁵ and his corresponding hypothesis, “that any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development.”¹⁶

There is no proof of this but if the subject commonly called “history” in school is not history but some substitute for it, then the case for keeping history in the curriculum would have to be argued on grounds quite different from those urged here.

The History 13–16 Project has developed materials for a course which attempts to introduce pupils in a formal way to history. It is structured as follows : (Fig. 3)

Unit	Materials of “What is History?”
1	<p>People in the Past</p> <p>A unit which aims to provide a simple definition of history, by means of a pictorial survey of some of the people in the past and what they have said and done. It also aims to help pupils to understand the chronological framework within which the historian pursues his studies.</p>
2	<p>Detective Work</p> <p>This unit consists of three detective exercises, one contemporary and two historical. The detective exercise based in the present deals with a fictitious person involved in a road accident.</p> <p>Through the study of a police report and the contents of a wallet, it aims to introduce pupils to some of the skills needed by a modern detective when analysing and interpreting evidence and drawing conclusions from it. The other two exercises are designed to involve the pupil in historical detective work by studying and interpreting archaeological finds and clues relating to Tollund Man and the Sutton Hoo ship burial.</p>

¹⁵ J. S. Bruner, *The Process of Education*, Harvard University Press, 1960, p. 33.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 33

3	<p>Looking at Evidence</p> <p>These pupil materials are designed to introduce the great variety of types of historical evidence available for the study of ancient, mediaeval and modern history. Work on Classical Greece and Mediaeval Knights leads pupils to consider the evidence for the historian which modern Britain offers.</p>
4	<p>Problems of Evidence</p> <p>This unit has two sections, each of which forms a case study of the evidence for an historical topic which is in some way problematic or controversial.</p> <p>(a) Richard III and the missing princes</p> <p>This deals with the origins and growth of the view which portrays Richard III as an evil and deformed king who murdered his nephews. Through a study of the evidence both for and against, the pupils are led to make their own judgments about Richard himself and the fate of the Princes.</p> <p>(b) The Suffragette Derby of 1913</p> <p>Through a study of primary and secondary sources, this booklet introduces pupils to some of the problems involved in explaining the conflicting interpretations of the action of the suffragette Emily Davison, who flung herself under the King's horse at the 1913 Derby.</p>
	<p>Asking Questions</p> <p>This unit consists of one booklet designed to introduce pupils to the kinds of questions which historians ask about causation and motivation. It begins with three simulation exercises dealing with con-temporary people and events. The second part deals with an historical situation – the Voyages of Discovery and the motives of the explorers involved.</p>

The materials of the course have been developed with the abilities of average 13 year olds in mind. This has been partly because it seemed that, on the whole, pupils younger than 13 would not have the ability to understand some of the concepts implicit in such a course, and partly because the Project's brief gave it a starting point at 13. However, it is the idea of using an introductory course on these lines in schools which is primarily offered for consideration. Some teachers in schools with an 11–18 or 11–16 structure might want to use such a course with their 11 year olds as a foundation for their history in the following years.

Others in schools with a 13–18 structure may want to use it with precisely the age group for which the materials so far produced are intended, namely, the 13 year olds. There the aim may be to provide an introduction to history because some pupils will have come from schools where history has not been taught as a separate subject. Or the aim may be to give pupils a firm base upon which they can make their choice of options for the years 14–16. Whatever the aim or the considerations which make teachers choose one time rather than another it is the idea which is important. If the idea seems logically acceptable, it remains for future work to show the optimum age when such a course should be given, or alternatively the best kind of materials which can make such a course appropriate for any given age.

Discussion with Pupils

Another way in which pupils can be encouraged to see that history is a useful subject for them is through discussion. The arguments presented here for the presence of history in the curriculum of adolescents are not self-evident. To some teachers they will seem statements of the obvious and individually they are ideas which have been expressed in various books on history and history methodology.

Taken collectively however, and used to produce a new syllabus framework or a structured introductory course, they present a new look at history in school which is unfamiliar to most teachers. If this is so, such arguments are certainly unknown to most pupils, and one way in which pupils will be able to appreciate them is through discussion with their teachers. There are two main reasons for this. First, the ideas are difficult for pupils aged 13–16 but they may be perceived more clearly in a process of discussion with fellow pupils and with teachers who can appreciate and articulate them more easily. Secondly, they are ideas which cannot be learned parrot-fashion. In some way they must be acquired self-consciously and for this to happen teachers will need to be willing to discuss with pupils their own reasons for teaching history and for seeing it as a useful educative experience for adolescents.

If pupils in school repeatedly fail to see that history has any use they are likely to reject it. A syllabus framed with the educational uses of history in mind, the study of a course similar to the “What is History?” course, and frequent discussion with pupils about history, its interest and its values, are suggested as ways in which pupils may come to see that history has its uses for them.

Implications for Syllabus Making

The belief that history is not a body of knowledge structured on chronology, that pupils in secondary school should have at some stage a “What is History?” course and that for the years 14–16 the syllabus should be built on a framework which attempts to meet adolescent needs and includes a variety of approaches to history, raises various questions about syllabus making.

First, it questions the pattern of syllabus making which has normally been followed in schools and which is shown in Fig. 4.

Fig. 4 Typical History Syllabus 11–16 Content Summary Age

Age	
11–12	Ancient World History to Norman Conquest.
12–13	British, European and World History 1066–1485.
13–14	British, European and World History 1485 to 17 th , 18 th , 19 th centuries.
14–16	Either Modern British History 1815-1945 or Modern British and European History 1789-1939 or British Social and Economic History 1700-1945 or Modern World History 1870-1945.

This pattern begins with Ancient Times in the First Form and ends with Modern History in the Fourth and Fifth Forms, and although there is great diversity within this general framework, many school syllabuses follow it. It is a logical pattern if it is accepted that it is based on a view of history as a subject with a chronological structure. Once this is questioned however, the way is open for alternative patterns of syllabus making.

Secondly, it questions, in particular, the present practice in syllabus making for the years 14–16 where the content of history which pupils normally study is limited to modern history – that is, history after 1700 A.D.

As Table. 5 shows, about 94% of the candidates entered for History at the G.C.E. ordinary level and C.S.E. examinations study modern history, either as British Social and Economic history, as British and/or European History or as Modern World History.

Table 5A – G.C.E. 1971 Entries

Percentage Candidates	Study
22%	British Social and Economic History
54%	British and/or European History from 1760
18%	Modern World History

Table 5B – C.S.E. 1971 Entries

Percentage Candidates	Study
27%	British Social and Economic History
30%	British and/or European History
37%	Modern World History

This is the natural culmination of a syllabus based on a view of history as a subject with a chronological structure, but also it is possibly the result of a conscious attempt by teachers to give pupils some knowledge of their recent past. As a programme for the years 14–16 it may be questioned in various ways. First, it limits pupils' experience of the variety of content which history can offer, just at the time when their maturing abilities and their psychological and social needs would suggest that they need a widening not narrowing experience. Secondly, since in theory at least, the years up to 16 have always been regarded as years of general education and specialisation has been seen as proper for sixth form and university studies, the existence of such specialist syllabuses at this age in history is in a sense anomalous. Finally, most syllabuses for these years have often resulted in a superficial coverage of a formidable mass of content.

The suggestion that the history syllabus should be related to pupil needs also highlights the whole problem of the Third Year. In the traditional syllabus this has been a year when pupils have studied the Tudors and Stuarts and in some schools aspects of Hanoverian history as well with sometimes, in addition, references to both the European and the world context of British history.

Bearing in mind that on the whole in English schools the Third Year is the last year in which history is a compulsory subject, it may be questioned whether this traditional content is the most appropriate.

For although many history teachers plan their syllabuses with a five-year course in mind, many pupils in fact drop history at the end of the Third Year. Some teachers put forward the view that these pupils often form a minority and that in any case, they should not condition unduly the planning of courses. Others recognise that those who do not opt for history are a significant number and that it is difficult to defend a system whereby those who drop the subject and leave school at 16 have an experience of history which is limited to a period between Palaeolithic Man and the Great Fire of London.

More particularly it may be questioned whether the last formal school contact which such pupils have with history should be, let us say, the Stuarts. It is at least arguable that it would be more appropriate to give them a formal under-standing of some aspects of modern or contemporary history.

The problem of the Third Year syllabus is made more difficult by the recent administrative alterations of the age structure in secondary schools. For in the 11–16 or 11–18 school the Third Year is in one sense a terminal year. For all pupils it is a year when choices are made for the subjects which are to be taken in the years 14–16, and history is invariably one of the subjects about which an option is made. Consequently, for pupils who decide to drop history it really is a terminal year, and even for those who opt to do history it is partially terminal in that they leave the history they have been doing and start a self-contained two year course often for public examinations at the age of 16.

On the other hand in 13–16 or 13–18 schools the Third Year is not only a terminal year, in the sense described above, but also an introductory year, i.e. the first year in a new school. Moreover, history departments in schools of this type have an added problem in that the pupils at 13 are usually drawn from a variety of middle or junior schools, and their experiences of history in the classroom vary enormously. It is dangerous to assume that pupils have anything in common and the question facing the history teacher in these schools is how best to structure a third year syllabus which will not only be an introduction but also a terminal course before work for G.C.E. and C.S.E. begins, or before pupils drop history.

For 13–18 schools the idea of an introductory course “What is History?” to be used in the first term with thirteen year olds has an obvious relevance. However, it is not intended to be a whole year's course and so the question of the most suitable content for third formers (who may either drop or opt to continue with history) remains.

It is a problem which teachers must work out for themselves in the light of the differing circumstances in which they are placed. However, certain suggestions may be made to help teachers come to terms with the problem, and the most obvious one is to suggest that teachers should review their present Third Year syllabuses in the light of the uses of history which form the basis of the syllabus

framework 14-16. It is unlikely however, that all four sections of the framework can be applied to a Third Year course and priority will probably have to be given to one more than any other.

Another suggestion is to produce a common core of content suitable for all pupils, whether they will drop history or not.

The following examples of Third Year syllabuses show how the problem can be tackled in a variety of ways.

Fig. 6 Syllabus A

Year 13–14	Uses for Pupils	Framework	Example of Content
Term 1	It helps pupils to develop analytical skills and to see what history is.	Introductory Course	“What is History?”
Term 2	It helps pupils to understand people of a different time and place.	Enquiry in Depth	Either Ancient Egypt or Edwardian Britain or Russia 1905–24
Term 3	It helps pupils to understand their present world	Either Studies in Modern World History or Studies in local history.	Two of the following: 1 The United Nations Organisation and sample studies of some of its problems and activities 2 World War II and a divided Europe 3 New States in Africa Industries, Communications, Recreational Facilities, (football,

Fig. 7 Syllabus B

Year 13–14	Uses for Pupils	Framework	Example of Content
Term 1	It helps pupils to develop analytical skills and see what history is.	Introductory Course	“What is History?”
Term 2	It helps pupils to appreciate that past civilisations in other parts of the world have differed considerably from western civilisation.	Enquiry in Depth	Either Ancient China Or The Aztecs
Term 3	It helps pupils to appreciate: a) the unity of the modern world, as well as b) the diversity	Studies in Modern World History	Themes from contemporary world history: 1 Minorities and Migrations 2 Industrialisation 3 Urbanisation 4 Pollution

Fig. 8 Syllabus C

Year 13–14	Uses for Pupils	Framework	Example of Content
Term 1	It helps pupils to develop analytical skills and see what history is.	Introductory Course	“What is History?”
Term 2	It helps pupils to appreciate the continuities in the present, i.e. the present heritage from the past.	History Around Us	Themes such as : 1 British Parliamentary System 2 Judicial System 3 Buildings from the past 4 Railways, canals and road systems from the past 5 The continued survival of Shakespeare 6 Continuities of language.
Term 3	It helps pupils to understand change and continuity through time.	Study in Development	The Making of the English Landscape

Fig. 9 Syllabus D

Year 13–14	Uses for Pupils	Framework	Example of Content
Term 1	It helps pupils to develop analytical skills and to see what history is.	Introductory Course	“What is History?”
Term 2 and Term 3	It helps to give pupils an outline of the development of human society.	Study in Development	Early Man as a Hunter as an Inventor as a Farmer Man the Explorer Man as Industrialist and Capitalist Man as Scientist and Planner of the future

Fig. 10 Syllabus E

Year 13–14	Uses for Pupils	Framework	Example of Content
Term 1	It helps pupils to develop analytical skills and to see what history is.	Introductory Course	“What is History?”
Term 2	It helps pupils to understand their present world.	Studies in Modern World History	Two of the following : 1 United Nations Organisation and sample studies of some of its problems and activities. 2 World War II and a divided Europe. 3 New States in Africa.
Term 3	Sets pupils and their special interests in the perspective of development through time.	Study in Development	Own Choice, e.g. From Alchemy to Chemistry. The Development of Guns.

Finally, of course, the suggestions made here raise implications for syllabus making for the years 11–13 particularly in schools of 11–16 or 11–18. For if as it has been suggested the Third Year is a critical year which in a sense stands on its own, what sort of syllabus is most appropriate for the years 11–13? Here again teachers will decide for themselves, taking into consideration their circumstances. However, even in these years it is not irrelevant to consider the place of a *What is History?* course. Given also the infinite variety of content which history offers, the kinds of syllabuses which could be produced are also infinite in number. There is obvious opportunity here for curriculum development whether by individual teachers or by groups working in Teachers' Centres or elsewhere.

History and Integrated Studies

The first and most obvious response of any historian to the question of integrated studies must be that history is itself the great integrating subject. This has often been said before but it does seem to have been forgotten in the current debate about integrated studies.

All things have a history and consequently the subject does provide an obvious context in which subject integration may take place. There is historical geography, there is the history of scientific and mathematical ideas, the history of literature, of dance, and history based as it is on the exploration of what has happened in time can provide what schemes of integrated studies so often lack – a meaningful structure into which the various studies may be fitted. As G. M. Trevelyan put it, “History is not the rival of classics or of modern literature or of the political sciences. It is rather the house in which they all dwell. It is the cement that holds together all the studies relating to the nature and achievements of man.”¹⁷

Having said this, it must be recognised that the growth of interest in integrated subjects nevertheless challenges teachers of history in two ways. First, it is against subject divisions and consequently it forces the historian to examine whether his subject is a distinct kind of knowledge. Secondly, by suggesting that knowledge has a basic unity and should be organised as such for the purpose of learning, it requires the historian to define his role in programmes of integrated studies.

All questions about curricula whether based on separate subjects or integrated studies, imply views about the nature of knowledge. Before one can logically subscribe to one form of curriculum or another, some view of knowledge must be established. Is knowledge all one, or are there pluralities of knowledge? Are these many kinds of knowledge, though distinct, related to each other? Are there fewer kinds of knowledge than the traditional subject divisions would suggest? For example, is it that knowledge has unity in certain broad areas, such as the sciences or the humanities? Or is it the approach to knowledge rather than the content which gives unity; the approach, perhaps, through enquiry and pupil-based experience?¹⁸

The view taken here is that there are different ways of knowing and that history is a distinct way of making this world intelligible. However, this does not mean that the curriculum must necessarily be

¹⁷ G. M. Trevelyan “*History and the Reader*”, Cambridge University Press for National Book League, 1946 p. 27.

¹⁸ R. Pring “*Curriculum Integration: the need for clarification*,” *New Era* 54, 3 April, 1973. Pp. 59-64.

based on single subjects. What it does mean is that any programmes for integrated studies must be thought about carefully to see whether they would preserve the distinctive things about history.

The suggestion here is that history has particular characteristics as a study and these have such value that history should enter integrated curricular pro-grammes only if these characteristics can be preserved. First, history is not restricted to any particular subject matter, but it is concerned with the study of people and events in time. The temporal relationship in history is crucial. It is concerned to understand the relationship between past and present and it deals primarily with continuity and change. Secondly, the raw material of history is evidence from the past and conclusions must be based on this. Thirdly, history is a subject which particularises rather than establishes universal laws. It can generalise in a limited way about the behaviour of men, but it can never predict. The place of history in integrated curricula should be considered with these things in mind.

For example consider the case of a school where an integrated curriculum based on the broad area of social sciences has been established. This includes content and methods previously taught separately as geography and history, but it also includes some anthropology and biology, while economics, sociology, technological and community studies may also play an important part. The question to ask is by what principle do these come together? Is there a common range of concepts or are there techniques, approaches and evidence which are common to social scientists? If so, what are they? And before accepting them the history teacher should be sure that they include the distinctive element of history, namely, that conclusions about man must be based on particular evidence. If they are not, if generalisations are based on statistical prognostications or covering laws of behaviour, and fail to recognise that accidents happen in human affairs, or that men can be perversely different, then the history teacher may well question whether history fits into a broad area of knowledge known as the social sciences.

Similarly, it must be asked whether history belongs to that broad area of knowledge now often designated 'the humanities' which usually includes English, history and religious education and sometimes geography, while it illogically often excludes art and music. Once again, the question is : what is the distinctive structure of the humanities? Is it a misnomer? Do the humanities ask different questions and use different tests for truth from say the sciences, and are these different procedures common to all the subjects of the humanities ? If it is suggested that the humanities have a common object, the study of man as a thinking, self-determining animal, then history might well fit into an integrated curriculum based on this premiss. Though once again the history teacher should want to ensure that his concern for evidence as the basis of historical study was honoured, and he would also want to question why man's achievements in the applied sciences such as engineering and medicine were excluded from these so called humane studies.

If the term humanities means “that group of subjects which is predominantly concerned with men and women in relation to their environment, their communities and their own self-knowledge,”¹⁹ as Schools Council Working Paper 2 described it, then again history can and should play a part in this area of education. What this part should be needs analysing more precisely. Obviously, history is about real people and so it can contribute to self-knowledge and an awareness of values. Other subjects however, can contribute similarly if not identically to this process. The unique contribution which history has to make is the focus it gives to the study of change in human affairs. The history teacher should be concerned to make sure that topics in any humanities course are studied from the point of view of change and in relation to their past. If a humanities programme does not include this element then the history teacher should press for it to do so, since this historical perspective is so essential for a balanced understanding of the human situation.

This in turn means that history teachers should be anxious to contribute to humanities programmes where they exist, rather than shy away from them. The Schools Council publication *Humanities for the Young School Leaver: An Approach Through History* (1969) gives a clear account of the contribution history can make in such a situation and also some examples of syllabus content and method.

Another consideration must also be taken into account. Even if the history teacher can accept the structure agreed upon for an integrated curriculum such as the humanities, he should also ask what would be lost if his subject was no longer taught as a separate subject. The approach of the historian and the teacher of literature may be similar, but they are not identical. Where the subjects interconnect and where they differ needs careful analysis.

A particular example will best illustrate the way in which the distinct contribution of history to integrated studies can be made. One way of integrating studies is to choose a theme which can show the different ways in which the various subject methods contribute to knowledge. Thus the theme of Pollution might be chosen in an integrated course for 14–16 year olds called Contemporary Studies.

The historian in approaching this theme would want to ask questions different from those of the geographer, biologist or social scientist who might also be teaching on the course and he therefore needs to be clear about the distinctive contribution which history can offer. The following scheme attempts to provide an example of the contribution history can make to the study of the theme Pollution.

¹⁹ Schools Council Working Paper 2: *Raising the School Leaving Age*, H.M.S.O., 1965, p. 14.

Fig. 11

1	<p>Change in Time Has mankind always had the problem of pollution of his environment? Is it a problem which is more acute at different time and does this depend upon the type of society (i.e. agricultural/industrial/rural/urban) which is in existence?</p>
2	<p>People What effects has pollution had on people's lives at different times? How have other civilisations or societies coped with the problem? Has there been a progressive development in the technology with which man attempts to curb pollution? What ideas or beliefs have men had which have either heightened or dulled their awareness of the problems which pollution can raise? (Such questions will involve the exercise of empathy and judgment.)</p>
3	<p>Evidence How do we know about pollution in past or present societies? What is the evidence?</p>

Finally, there is a lot to be said for the view that in the education of adolescents what is needed is not so much subject integration as the need for pupils to know what subjects are about and what activities are involved in them. This would seem to be more important than the linking of subjects, and in this context the need for a course such as *What is History?* gains in importance.

Implications for Teaching Methods

Before deciding which particular teaching methods to employ, it is helpful for teachers to consider the following elements: the nature of the subject or know-ledge to be taught, the abilities of the pupils, the general educational objectives or outcomes which the teacher wants to achieve and the more specific outcomes implied in the syllabus framework. Here each of these will be examined in turn and some indication given of the implications which they have for teaching methods in history.

The Nature of History

First, the nature of the subject. It has been contended in this book that history is not a body of knowledge structured on either chronology or any other conceptual framework. Such a negative position is not however helpful when it comes to thinking about the appropriate teaching methods to be employed. If history is not a coherent body of knowledge, what is it? The suggestion here is that it might be more meaningful to see history as a heap of materials which survives from the past and which historians can use as evidence about the past. The word “heap” is not used inadvisedly, for in the strict sense it is more accurate than the words “body” or “collection” since both of these imply a structure which the sources of history do not of themselves have. Even if some of these sources were deposited intentionally by people in the past, they have survived only by chance and in disorderly fashion. This view or “model” of history provides an appropriate analogy in other ways. First the “heap” consists of both primary and secondary sources. If the core of the heap is primary material, such as documents and artefacts, buildings and works of art which have survived from the past, the outer layers consist of a kind of top soil and crop of secondary sources which each generation, pupils, students and historians, ploughs, sows and reaps. In this way they create an order out of the sources which future students and historians will consider before they make their own enquiries into the past. Secondly, it stresses that the sources of history are varied in kind; that they are not, as is so often assumed, only literary but that pictures, artefacts, buildings and the very ground upon which we walk is evidence from the past. Thirdly, it emphasises that studying history involves the activity of enquiring into the past, and is not the passive acceptance of information gathered by others. Fourthly, it emphasises that the sources of history are mere dust and dry bones until teachers and pupils make them come alive. History in this sense involves a perpetual act of resurrection in which pupils, teachers and historians reconstruct the past and so make it become real and “present” to them. Such a view of history has immediate implications for teaching methods. It implies that history in school should involve the active enquiry of pupils into the various kinds of primary and secondary sources which make up the raw material of history. It also suggests that a major activity should be the reconstruction of the past and that this involves the making of an imaginative response to the evidence from the past as well as the intellectual one implied in R. G. Collingwood's remark that, “all history is

the history of thought.”²⁰ Here such activities as role-playing, simulation games, and dramatisations have an obvious relevance.

Pupils' Abilities

Turning to the intellectual abilities of the pupils it is relevant to consider here the general conclusion reached above, that most pupils below the age of 16 will be, in Piagetian terms, at the stage of developing from concrete to formal operational thinking. In addition the majority will also be capable of making an emotional response to the past. These conclusions also raise implications for teaching methods. They suggest for example, that abstractions such as “revolution,” “free trade” or the “economy” – abstractions which history teachers often use – will need to be explained in a whole series of concrete and differing examples before they can be acquired by pupils. They suggest, too that the number of abstractions which pupils can consider at any one time will be limited. They suggest that teacher-pupil discussion is an essential method for teaching history, and that any means, which make ideas more concrete such as visuals, tape-recordings, and analogies are invaluable. Finally, they also imply that activities in which pupils can make an emotional response to the past, such as dramatisations and role-playing situations, have an important part to play in the teaching of history.

Educational Outcomes

The educational objectives or outcomes which teachers have must also be considered. It is probably true that teachers do not consciously have objectives in mind when they approach their classes but nevertheless the teaching methods used do imply some underlying objectives or aims and these will repay some analysis in relation to history. It may be helpful at the outset to make a distinction between objectives and outcomes. An educational objective has been defined as, “what a learner can do as a result of having learned.”²¹ An outcome refers hopefully to the general ideas or attitudes which learners may begin to acquire as a result of their educational experience.

In the discussion which follows, the emphasis is upon the outcomes that are peculiar to history. Moreover, it should be noted that the word “outcome” is preferred here to that of “objective” since particularly in the affective areas of imagining and responding to the past, it is not easy to observe what a learner can do precisely as a result of his learning experiences, and in any case, learning may

²⁰ R. G. Collingwood, *An Autobiography*, Penguin Books, 1945, p. 74.

²¹ Jeanette B. Coltham and John Fines, *Educational Objectives for the Study of History*, Historical Association, 1971, p. 3.

not necessarily produce immediate behavioural change but rather make possible change in behaviour or attitudes in the future.

The following table (Fig. 12) summarises the educational outcomes which it is hoped will emerge from the adolescent's study of history.

Fig. 12 Educational outcomes of History

A Ideas	Evidence Change and continuity in time Causation and motivation Anachronism.
B Abilities	Analysis Judgment Empathy.
C Experience	A wide vicarious experience of what it is to be human.
D Interest	Interest in the human past as a leisure or even perhaps professional pursuit.

In order to show the implications which these have for teaching method, they will now be examined in turn.

A Ideas

The ideas of evidence, change, causation and anachronism are central to history. If pupils are to begin to acquire them in schools, then teaching methods will need to be related directly to these hoped-for outcomes.

(i) Evidence Whatever men have said or written, or made, provides evidence for the historian, and some idea of the variety of historical evidence would seem to be a legitimate outcome to expect from history in school. Pupils should come to see that historical evidence includes artefacts, buildings, and (for modern history) film as well as documents; that evidence about the past increases in both volume and variety as it approaches more recent times; and that historical evidence is incomplete and that its survival is often a matter of chance. They should appreciate that historians have to select from the mass of evidence which is available and that in so doing some elements of bias may creep in. They should also have some conception of the difficulties which the interpretation of evidence involves. For

example, that the purposes and the prejudices of the writer of a contemporary document must be considered. Or that parish registers, if approached with certain questions in mind, can yield more information than at first glance might seem possible.

If pupils are going to gain these ideas, then obviously teaching methods must include analysis and discussion of some of the evidence from the past. Class discussion and individual comprehension and analysis of documents, whether in facsimile or print, the handling of artefacts in the classroom and visits to museums and historical sites – all these would be relevant methods here. However, emphasising the historian's reliance on evidence must not be taken to mean that the adolescent in school should pursue historical studies solely through primary sources. This cannot be said too often. It would seriously mislead him to ignore the accumulation of scholarship that successive generations of historians have made accessible in text-books, articles and specialist monographs. The historian needs a wide range of knowledge drawn from secondary sources before he can make sense of primary sources, and the young adolescent historian is no exception to this. However the adolescent also needs to understand the nature of the evidence on which historians' writings are based and should become accustomed to subjecting these secondary sources to the same analysis as the primary documents mentioned above.

(ii) Change and continuity in time. In general terms the historian studies the same phenomena as the sociologist, the anthropologist and sometimes the geographer – the behaviour of man in society. However, one of the characteristics which distinguishes this discipline from the others is the questions brought to bear on those phenomena. These are “what happened?” “when did it happen?” and “why did it happen then?” This means that each event that he studies will be seen as one in a developing story of continuity and change through time.

Teaching methods should include frequent discussions about change in history and there should be a constant asking of the questions given above. It means too, that these activities should take place with repeated reference to the chronological context and for this time charts would seem to be not only useful, but indeed necessary. Finally it implies pupil practice of the composition of a credible narrative, whether in written or oral form as one of the most appropriate ways of recording and communicating conclusions drawn from work upon historical evidence.

(iii) Causation and motivation. History attempts to do more than link events in a chronological sequence or to chronicle events. It is concerned with explaining change and this involves asking questions about causation, about why events happened and also about the factors which prevented or delayed change. Central to any understanding here, is the realisation that causation in history is never simple but always compound.

Obviously, to gain any appreciation of all that is implied in this concept of causation will take time, but it may be suggested that pupils can be helped in this process if teaching methods involve discussion about causation, and the use of comparisons and analogies drawn from the pupil's own experience.

(iv) *Anachronism*. Closely related to the above is the sense of anachronism; the sense of knowing whether things are out of place in the context of chronology and change in human affairs. An example of the sort of outcome that is hoped for here might be that a pupil will be able to sense not only what is wrong but why it is wrong when Shakespeare makes Brutus say:

“Let me see, let me see; is not the leaf turned down
Where I left reading?”

(Julius Caesar Act IV Sc.3 lines 272–3)

This sense of anachronism is acquired only slowly and it is dependent upon a growing knowledge of historical context. It does seem, however, that teachers can help pupils acquire this sense by using methods which relate historical experiences to a chronological framework which ranges widely over historic time. Once again the completion of time charts would seem to be a valuable method for the study of history in school. It does suggest too that in pieces of imaginative reconstruction of some past episodes, pupils who imagine themselves Drake's drummer boy, for example, but who constantly tell the time by wrist watches or shoot revolvers should be restrained.

B Abilities

In addition to the above ideas about history, the activities in which pupils will engage will help to develop certain abilities such as analysis, judgment and empathy. However, this again implies that teachers should use methods which will give pupils practice in those abilities if they are really to be outcomes of the educational process. The hope would be, moreover, that the abilities required in the study of history would be general enough to be transferable for use in similar situations encountered either in other studies or in real life.

(i) *Analysis*. The ability to analyse historical evidence employs other skills such as vocabulary acquisition, reference skills and comprehension, and these may well be acquired in the study of other subjects such as English or geography.

History however, differs in the experience it gives pupils of analytical skills by virtue of its content. Analysis of historical evidence is different from much of the analysis undertaken in other subjects. Like the detective, the historian has to search out the truth from a quantity of sometimes conflicting or

self-contradictory evidence, with documentary sources acting as witnesses and material objects providing the clues. He has to study each source carefully, to determine its limitations, to appreciate the bias or prejudice that underlies it and to set it in the context of its own time. He must be able to recognise the difference between statements of fact and statements of opinion. He must also learn to spot gaps in the evidence and make some hypothesis as to where to look to remedy the deficiencies. This implies that pupils should work on documents or visual evidence or objects, both in museums and in the classroom, and also on historical sites. This work, should involve questions such as, “What does this tell us about the past?” “Is it reliable evidence?” “What other things do we need to know?”

(ii) Judgment. Assessing the weight to be given to the various sources available for any inquiry in history, and producing from them a coherent account of an event or period of the past, demands the exercise of judgment. A significant quality of history which gives it especial value for the general education of adolescents is that the judgment it requires is closely allied to the commonsense thinking of ordinary men and women, and is expressed in their everyday language without the need to resort to the specialised jargon that some disciplines demand. The ability to make judgments about the way human beings behave and behaved is central to historical study. Interpretation and explanation in history must seek to give a credible account of recognisable people behaving in character within the constraints placed upon them by their situation. However, two points need emphasis here.

First, historians in attempting to reconstruct the past must make their judgments with reference to the beliefs and values of the people and period under study. For example, Hitler's actions must be interpreted with reference to his views about the position of Germany in Europe, about the nature of Germany's treatment at the Peace Conference at Versailles in 1919 and about Aryanism and the Jews. Secondly, any judgment made about the rightness or wrongness of events and actions in the past from the point of view of the present, or from some ethical standard held by the historian, must be clearly presented for what it is. For example, a historian may legitimately condemn what happened at Auschwitz either on political or moral grounds, so long as he makes clear just what kind of a judgment this is.

The implications for method here clearly overlap with some of the suggestions already made. Briefly, however, it means that pupils should look at evidence, both primary and secondary, and in particular seek to understand from the “inside” the situation under study. This should involve discussion about the criteria used in making judgments and their appropriateness, about the existence of other possible interpretations, and about the difference between present day values and those of the period under study. Certainly, in the classroom it will be impossible to prevent pupils from making moral judgments about some of the events of the past and there is no reason why they should be prevented from doing so as long as they recognise that their judgment is a matter of opinion. This obviously

implies too, the exercise not only of judgment but also of empathy and some methods referred to below are relevant here.

(iii) Empathy. Analysis and judgment must be illumined by imagination to provide the understanding of people of the past that characterizes the historian's perspective. He has to be able to enter into the mind and feelings of all the persons involved in an event and appreciate their differing attitudes without necessarily approving of their motives if he is to understand why, given their situation, they acted as they did. The important point to note here however, is that the imagination must be disciplined by the evidence available.

For teaching method this implies activities which involve imaginative reconstruction. For example, role-playing activities, simulation games, dramatic reconstructions, and debates as well as written or oral reconstructions. It also implies however, that teachers should not allow complete licence to pupil imaginations. "Imagination disciplined by the evidence" is a key point here. One other important point needs emphasis. If exercises in empathy are to be widening rather than narrowing experiences, then pupils must be set exercises which ask them to consider the viewpoints of the various characters or sides in any situation and of people with whom they may not naturally feel sympathy. For example, pupils should try to understand the views of Charles I as well as Cromwell, or the factory owner as well as the factory worker.

These general abilities of analysis, judgment and empathy cover a number of what might be called 'historical skills'. These vary in the level of sophistication which they involve and the following Table (Fig. 13) lists them in order of ascending difficulty.

Fig. 13 Historical Skills

<p>1. Finding information</p>	<p>Ability to use: an index, library catalogue, table of contents, glossary.</p>
<p>2 Recalling information</p>	<p>Ability to recall and use:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • standard abbreviations such as e.g., i.e., sic., viz. • general historical vocabulary e.g. statute, act, treaty, • chronological conventions e.g. century, decade, • particular terminology e.g. middle ages, chivalry, domestic system, laissez-faire.

<p>3 Understanding evidence</p>	<p>Ability to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> state information in other words, summarise, interpret graphs, charts, cartoons and maps, give examples of general points.
<p>4 Evaluating evidence</p>	<p>Ability to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> distinguish between facts, assumptions, inferences and hypotheses and value judgments, distinguish between valid and invalid conclusions, verifiable and non-verifiable information, relevant and irrelevant material, compare information and recognise contradictions, recognise kind of information necessary to support a judgment, argument or an hypothesis, detect logical fallacies, recognise an author's attitude or bias, recognise propaganda and its purpose, recognise lack of connection or gaps in evidence.
<p>5 Making inferences and hypotheses</p>	<p>Ability to :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> suggest sources of relevant information where there are gaps, make inferences either logical or intuitive from evidence, draw and state conclusions, suggest causes and consequences of actions and events, form hypotheses as starting points for further investigations.
<p>6 Synthesis</p>	<p>Ability to use:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> organising themes or ideas (temporal, behavioural, causal) to make a credible narrative.

C Experience

One difficulty in engaging the interest of the adolescent in history is that, at a time when he is intensely interested in the world about him, he is being asked to think about people and events remote from him in time and, often in space. However, it is important that he should be given this wider experience and it is one of the outcomes which history can offer pupils. For no other subject can provide the perspective and insight that follows the widening experience of studying people over a wide span of time and place.

For method this implies the use of contrast and comparisons between the pupils present and the past of others. While it is true that the study of history must begin from the adolescent's own experience and be shown repeatedly to be relevant to it, it should not rest there. This last point has implications for the syllabus too. For it would seem in this context that a failing of many school history syllabuses has been that the appeal to the pupil's interest has led to a concentration on recent or local history with a consequent neglect of the wealth of experience that history is uniquely equipped to provide. For the whole of the historical past is potentially relevant to a pupil, and not just the most recent past. Similarly anything that a pupil can enjoy is relevant to his experience and if he finds exploring mediaeval life enjoyable and interesting then this fulfils the criterion of 'relevance' as adequately as explorations of contemporary history.

D Interest

That pupils should develop a life-long interest in history is an outcome that most teachers would aim to achieve. However, because there is no single way into history, interest in the past will manifest itself in different forms. Some adults, for example, take pleasure in visiting ruins, some are avid war game players, and some are industrial archaeologists. Others are arm chair explorers of history through other people's books. The implications here for teaching method is that it must show the variety of ways in which the past can be interesting. Narrative, analytical, visual and play ways into history are all appropriate. It is only when one method is used to excess that the danger of arousing, not interest but boredom, may arise. In this connection there is need to emphasise that the introduction of pupils to some conceptual thinking about what history is, should not be seen as something which will work against the arousing of interest. On the contrary, the outcome should be a more perceptive interest in the past. Similarly, the emphasis upon analysis, judgment and empathy should result in a more vivid focus on the people who are being studied, until they emerge as individuals with characters, hopes, failings and fears that pupils can recognise and with whom they can identify. With such an emphasis, history should be able to stimulate among adolescent pupils a life-long interest in history.

Syllabus Framework

The various component studies in the syllabus framework suggested above also have specific implications for teaching method.

Study in Development

The primary aim of this study is to help pupils understand the processes by which change takes place in human affairs and continuities from the past survive into the present. The aim is not to learn all

about the history of medicine and public health from ancient times until the present. Rather concentration should fall upon what has changed and why and the things that have not changed.

Thus an appropriate way to start the study of medicine would be a comparative exercise in which, for example, the resources available to a doctor today to deal with some human illness with symptoms such as stomach pains would be contrasted with those available to early man. Following this, selected studies of the resources available to different people at different times would be relevant. Studies would also need to be made of the various periods in time when significant changes appeared such as the revolution in anatomical studies of the sixteenth century or the mid-nineteenth century developments in public health, or the drug revolution in the first half of the twentieth century. Equally important would be a study of periods when change was minimal and medical knowledge was stable with a view to finding out just why this was the case; for example the centuries 1100 to 1400 are significant here. The study in development should also consider questions of causation in history. How important for example are the contributions of individual men in bringing about change in medical practice? How far are changes in medicine dependent upon changes made in technology? What effects do religious and philosophical ideas and beliefs have on medicine? Have they accelerated or inhibited change in any historical situations? Finally, an appropriate end to the study might be the consideration of future trends and anticipated changes in the topic area which has been studied.

Such studies would not allow pupils to deduce any laws which they might then apply to change in human affairs. They should however, provide them with a general awareness of the nature of change in human situations. Whether or not such an awareness is carried over into adult life to affect any individual's response to the question of change depends upon the individual. Factors other than his study in school of development of some topic in time may condition his attitude towards change. Nevertheless, to try to give adolescent pupils some idea of what is involved in changing human affairs would seem to be a legitimate and relevant aim for a history teacher.

Modern World Studies

The primary aim of the modern world studies is to help the adolescent understand the world in which he lives.

Professor Elton has written:

“I very much doubt the general conviction that studying the past provides a better understanding of the present; and I think I am supported by experience – the experience of historians' pronouncements on their own time.”²²

This is undoubtedly true. To assert that the modern historian who studies the causes of the outbreak of the Second World War, thereby gains an insight into potentially warlike situations today is to fall into the heresy of arguing from covering law or claiming that history repeats itself. To understand our contemporary situation, we have to study the contemporary situation and not something like it that happened fifty or a hundred years ago. However, this is not to say that history has no relevance to the contemporary situation. The philosophy underlying these studies is that a full understanding of our contemporary situation will be attained only as the result of placing recent developments in the historical perspective of continuity and change through time.

Another perspective that helps the adolescent to perceive some coherence in the welter of his experience is the framework of our contemporary world situation. If he can relate the news that he reads in the press or hears on radio and television to both the historical and the contemporary context he need no longer be the victim that Sir John Newsom describes:

“A man who is ignorant of the society in which he lives, who knows nothing of its place in the world and who has not thought about his place in it, is not a free man even though he has a vote. He is easy game for the hidden persuaders.”²³

The studies should begin with a short introductory unit designed to outline the most important elements in the modern world situation. These are, broadly, two. First, that most people in the world are now so closely interdependent that events and developments anywhere affect almost everyone; and secondly that international issues are ultimately concerned with, and are likely to be settled by reference to the balance of force between the super-powers. The resource material should include statistical tables, maps and extracts from primary and secondary documents. Pupils should be required through a series of structured exercises to look at the evidence from the point of view of America, and then of the Soviet Union. From this inquiry they will see where and for what reasons each super-power believes its security to be threatened and its vital interests to lie.

²² G. R. Elton, "What sort of History should we Teach?" in M. Ballard (ed.) *New Movements in the Study and Teaching of History*, Temple Smith, London, 1970, p 227.

²³ *Half Our Future*, H.M.S.O., 1963, p. 163.

Each individual regional study will begin by relating the whole issue to the contemporary framework of the introductory unit, to show which of the super-powers are involved as well as the more immediate participants. Next, there should be an identification of the issues that are at stake in the situation. The historical perspective will be concerned to discover the origins and course of development of those issues; the contemporary perspective will seek to establish the reasons why the super-powers are caught up in them.

The final series of exercises must aim at developing an empathetic under-standing of the people being studied. If it is a study of a straightforward situation, such as the rise of Communist China, then it is necessary to undertake an imaginative leap to understand why the Chinese are willing to submit themselves to a regime and a dictatorship which some others would find oppressive. If it is the study of a conflict, such as the Irish Question, it is as important to understand why the extremists wish to impose a settlement by force as it is to appreciate why the more moderate forces are seeking negotiation and compromise. To condemn the extremists out of hand, without attempting to see from their point of view the grievances that move them to such disorder would constitute a distinct failing in historical insight.

It is impossible to include in any syllabus a review of all the centres of interest in the modern world and issues should be chosen that are more likely to continue in prominence for some time to come. The resource material to support the inquiry should include newspaper extracts, excerpts from radio and television news broadcasts, reports of speeches and articles by prominent statesmen and commentators, as well as reference to good secondary sources, pictures, cartoons, maps and tables of statistics. Moreover, stress should be laid on the process of inquiry and the development of analytical skills so that the pupil gains some idea of how he may approach issues in contemporary affairs that may arise later in his adult life.

Study in Depth

The primary aim of this study is to help pupils to understand people of a different time and place. This is to be attained by an inquiry into a limited and clearly defined period in the past directed to an appreciation of all its main aspects as seen from the point of view of the people living at the time. Subsidiary aims include showing pupils the complexity of the relationships that link people and events in any period; setting contemporary events in perspective by providing a contrast with the present; and giving pupils the experience of learning to empathise with people of different views, values and times. These aims determine the method by which the study should be pursued.

First, because there is obviously too much in any one period for pupils to be expected to study it all, some method of sampling must be established. It is suggested that five major topics should be chosen which as far as possible should cover the political, social, economic, religious and cultural (understood here as intellectual and artistic) life of the time.

Before the pupils begin work on the separate topics, some time must be spent in setting the framework for the study. For example, the American West would have to be introduced by an explanation of the geographical boundaries of the area, its relationship with the rest of America in the second half of the nineteenth century, the economic, religious and social pressures on people on the Eastern seaboard and the attractions of the West.

In studying each of the five topics it is suggested that the primary source evidence should be used as much as possible and that consequently there must be some previous preparation of collections of these materials. In addition since the major objectives are to give experience of empathy and to show pupils people of a different time it is suggested that the study of the topics should be pursued through a series of case studies. The following three types of case studies will, it is suggested, help to meet these overall objectives:

- 1 A case study involving the comparison of present and past values, attitudes and conditions,
- 2 A case study involving an episode of personal or group decision-making,
- 3 A case study involving a conflict or controversy in the period.

The several topics can be studied in any sequence. The manner in which the pupils extract their information from the material can take many forms, ranging from individual assignments to work in groups and whole classes. In general, however, stress should be laid on the exercise of enquiry skills and on the analysis and evaluation of evidence.

To ensure that the separate topics are finally related to each other to create an integrated picture of the past, some concluding activity on the part of the whole class is called for. This can take many forms. It might consist of a wall frieze and time chart depicting important events, famous people and various aspects of the life of the period. The class may wish to debate or discuss issues that were disputed at the time; or they may compile a class magazine. Finally, a full scale dramatic production or soiree in appropriate costume is an ideal activity for conveying the general feel of a period but this is a time consuming activity and the history teacher has to consider whether it is the best way of spending the limited time allocated to his subject.

History Around Us

This study aims to achieve a variety of purposes. First it aims to make pupils aware that the visible remains of the past around us are as important a resource for our understanding of history as written documents. Secondly, it aims to equip pupils with the knowledge, skills and techniques which will enable them to identify these remains, study and interpret them, and place them in their wider historical context. Thirdly it aims to enable pupils to reconstruct the lives of the people associated with a site at a particular period or periods in the past. Finally it hopes to create in pupils an interest in the historical exploration of the environment which they will find a rewarding leisure pursuit both outside school time and beyond the years of schooling.

Since there is so great an amount and variety of visible historical evidence the method once again must be one of taking a sample rather than one of overall coverage. Various topics are suggested such as Roman Britain; castles and fortified houses; country houses, churches, landscape study, industrial archaeology and town studies, and pupils are expected to study one of these. Before visits to sites are made there should be school-based introductory work on the topic which should include the use of maps, plans and slides which will help pupils to :

- i. acquire the general historical and chronological background essential to observation work,
- ii. acquire the specialist vocabulary of the topic,
- iii. learn to recognise the main features of the site,
- iv. learn to read and use maps, plans, diagrams and guide books,
- v. learn some of the different skills involved in recording information (e.g. making maps, plans, diagrams, sketches, using a tape recorder, taking photographs and slides, completing record cards, surveying),
- vi. begin to devise a framework of key questions (things to look for and consider?) for use when exploring any site of a particular type.

After this, visits to sites should be made during which pupils aided by the teacher may use their knowledge and skills to study a site. The follow-up work would then involve not only the use of records of the visit but also appropriate primary and secondary source material and visits to museums so that the pupils may i) reconstruct specific incidents in the history of the site, ii) study specific personalities connected with the site, iii) reconstruct life at a particular period(s), iv) relate the site to similar sites elsewhere (through slides, etc.). The follow-up work should particularly emphasise the human associations of the site and the way it reflects the needs, purposes and way of life of people in the past. Finally pupils should produce their own record of a site involving a visit to it and a study of the relevant background material.

Conclusions

The general conclusion which emerges from this discussion of teaching methods is that since the outcomes hoped for are attitudes and abilities rather than the memorisation of facts, classroom methods should be favoured which create an active learning situation for the pupil, rather than those which cast the teacher in the role of a transmitter of information.

However, lest this should be seen as the uncritical advocacy of “learning by discovery”, some qualifications are necessary. First, the pupil who is set to learn by discovery and who simply amasses a body of facts without evaluating or interpreting them, will have achieved no more than a skilful teacher could have done for him in less time, with a traditional chalk and talk lesson. This is not being advocated here. Secondly, the adolescent pupil lacks the knowledge needed for the selection of source material, the maturity of judgment to evaluate it or the understanding of the context in which it should be set. Indeed these are the very skills that the inquiry aims to develop and they should not be assumed at the outset by making the pupil attempt to impersonate the professional historian conducting his researches into areas previously unexplored. The discoveries that the pupil makes are new only to him; they do not constitute new knowledge for mankind. Consequently, each inquiry on which he embarks must have a limited and clearly defined aim. The source material on which he will work must be carefully selected, some knowledge of its context given before work commences and the exercises structured in such a way that they aid comprehension and analysis. Finally, to propose that one teaching style should be adopted to the exclusion of all others is to impose an artificial limitation on a subject, one of whose greatest strengths is its variety. There is still a place for the teacher as the narrator of a good story when the occasion presents itself, as well as scope at other times for the pupils to make their own discoveries.