

SUGGESTIONS
ON THE
TEACHING
OF HISTORY

by
C. P. HILL

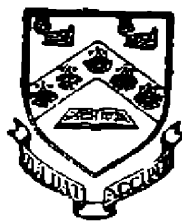
TOWARDS WORLD UNDERSTANDING

IX



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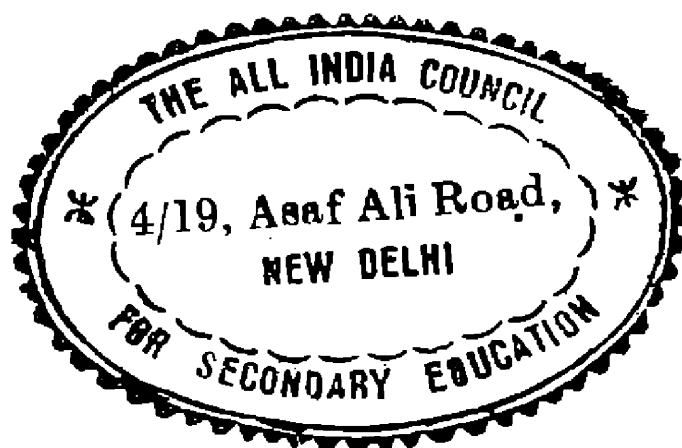
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by
C. P. HILL



U N E S C O

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PREFACE

Seventy teachers from 32 different countries met in the summer of 1951 at Sèvres, near Paris, in an international seminar organized by Unesco to discuss the teaching of history as a means of developing international understanding. The seminar was divided into four working groups, three of them concerned with teaching history to different age groups and a fourth with the training of the teacher of history. Discussions in all the groups covered a wide range of problems concerning subject-matter, syllabus and methods of teaching history. Unanimity was not to be expected or wished for; yet a wide measure of general agreement was reached.

It is customary for the participants in the seminars to prepare individual and group reports on the questions which they discuss, intended primarily for their own use and not for publication. It seems desirable, however, that this international exchange of ideas should find expression in more permanent form and be given wider distribution.

This pamphlet has, therefore, been compiled by Mr. C. P. Hill, senior history master of Bristol Grammar School, who attended the seminar at Unesco's invitation. He has analysed the suggestions made by the participants and interpreted their conclusions, incorporating many suggestions made by experts from various countries.

The main emphasis here, as at the seminar, is placed on the contribution which the teaching of history can make to international understanding. The theme is, however, developed within the general framework of considerations relating to the content and methods of history teaching. In publishing this pamphlet Unesco does not necessarily endorse opinions expressed by the author.

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CHAPTER I

INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING AND THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

‘Daddy, what’s the good of history?’ With this question, put by a small boy to a father who was a historian, the French historian, Marc Bloch, began his remarkable essay, *Apologie pour l’histoire, ou Métier d’historien*. As Bloch observed, the small boy in his apparently naive enquiry had with the embarrassing directness of youth raised a fundamental question. What is the use of historical study in a practical world? It is a question that strikes with double force the thousands of men and women whose daily task it is to teach history to children of all ages in the schools of the world. Bloch and other eminent historians of many lands have argued cogently that history is a study worthy of the adult mind, opening a door to wisdom and tolerance and a power of profound criticism. Yet there is a sense in which the teacher, responsible for training the immature minds of children, must carry the argument further. For he has not only to justify to himself his own adult study of the past. He has also to show that history is an essential school subject.

He may indeed claim for it a wide range of solid virtues and suggest that it has much to offer to the individual child. History can satisfy in a unique way the growing child’s curiosity about other people, about their lives, personalities, deeds, and ideas; and it can awaken an imaginative wonder and excitement about the whole world of humanity past and present. History can develop an understanding of the cultural heritage of mankind, or provide a measure of background knowledge for the appreciation of literature, art and ways of life of other people. In the realm of intellectual discipline, the study of history can train pupils to be accurate in comprehension and expression, to weigh evidence, to separate the trivial from the significant, to distinguish between propaganda and truth. History can provide twentieth-century men with standards

of reference against which they can measure the values and achievements of their own age; it can encourage an enlightened awareness of the problems of modern communities; political, social and economic. Not least important, it can train men to handle controversial questions in a spirit which searches for truth, insists on free discussion, and permits compromise. This is a rich harvest for any school subject to yield. No teacher of history would maintain that he can do more than sow some of its seeds and nourish them so long as his pupils are still at school. But he will assert confidently that the seeds are worth the sowing.

There can be little doubt that the majority of history teachers the world over, called on to justify their work, would find common ground in a single concept—that of training for national citizenship. The child is one day to vote, perhaps to serve in the army, to pay taxes, to take a part great or small in the working life of his native land, to carry out the duties of a citizen. One of the special functions of history teaching in schools therefore has been to help to develop in children a love of their own country, and an understanding of its traditions and ways of life; how the homeland has become united or has freed itself from foreign rulers, how its system of government has come into being, what are its distinctive customs and traditions, what changes have taken place in its economic and social life, and so on. A survey of history curricula in the schools of the majority of Member States of Unesco reveals that the teaching of national history predominates at every stage of the school course, and is as evident in countries with a decentralized school system as in those where national control of education is far-reaching.¹

This is understandable and reasonable. But the citizen these days must concern himself with problems that transcend national frontiers. For men now live on a globe which is shrinking and a world which is fast becoming a closely interrelated unit. The swift growth of means of communication has hastened the exchange of ideas and material goods between remote parts of the world. Modern scientific progress holds out the hope of a better standard of life for all. The forces of technical change, building complex industries which draw their raw materials from the ends of the earth and distribute the finished goods all over the world, have created methods of transport which make intercontinental travel

¹ Unesco issued *A Comparative Study of Curricula in History, Geography and Social Studies* (Unesco/ED/108, Paris, July 1951), revised in 1952, which give a detailed survey of the content of syllabuses on these subjects divided by age groups and school types in the different Member States.

a commonplace. Nation is dependent on nation as never before. This dependence, clear in the friendly intercourse of peacetime, has been driven into men's minds and hearts by the terrible argument of war. Men must learn to live together, and the two world wars of this century have brought in their train the first elaborate attempts to establish permanent international organizations in the political field, the League of Nations and the United Nations Organization. The League did not endure; UN remains, embodying the political concept of the twentieth century, that of constructive co-operation between the nations of the world. In this concept lies an element of national citizenship which is vital to modern men.

In the teaching of the past, historical truth has often been sacrificed in the interests of national pride, and history has often been distorted in order to arouse patriotic emotions. Children have often been left with the idea that contacts between nations in different parts of the world are invariably connected, directly or indirectly, with war. The chauvinist has made history serve the purposes of his nationalism; the history textbook, with its unavoidable generalizations and its necessary simplifications, has frequently been turned into a powerful instrument of this nationalism.¹ Certainly, in the last 50 years, the teaching of history in many countries has greatly improved, in this as in many other respects; some textbooks have become more objective in their presentation of facts, syllabuses have become more international in their outlook and scope. But the need for further improvement remains great, and it becomes daily more urgent. Children of today must grow up to know that there are other types of human communities than their own and they must learn that the past has made other countries what they are, just as it has made their own what it is.

History properly taught can help men to become critical and humane, just as wrongly taught it can turn them into bigots and fanatics. For the child can begin to develop, even from an elementary historical training, qualities and attitudes of mind which all aid international understanding. He can acquire an abiding interest in the lives and achievements of peoples outside his own homeland and realize what they have contributed to the common cultural inheritance of man; he can learn to be accurate and critical and grasp the idea of change as a factor in human affairs; he will be able

¹ For consideration of textbook problems, see the companion volume in this series, *History Textbooks and International Understanding*, by J. A. Lauwerys.

to see that the civilization of the present is only one of many civilizations that have existed on this planet, and that for all our marvels we may lack certain qualities which some former age had in abundance. The cause of international understanding benefits yet further when children reach adulthood knowing something of the causes and results of past human conflicts, and something of the history of man's efforts towards international co-operation, and when the history they have learned teaches them both about the growing interdependence of nations and about the strenuous efforts of millions of individual men to establish human freedoms.

Few would deny that international understanding is a desirable result of history teaching, and that the teacher who strives to promote it is pursuing a laudable end. But many will ask whether history which has formerly been focused on national concerns is now to be distorted to serve international ends. The answer is emphatically 'no'. There may be teachers who believe that by omitting or by glossing over the wars and international rivalries of the past they will thereby promote the spread of international understanding in the present; but surely they are very few. This would be a fallacious practice, educating the child to unreality; peace is not gained by pretending that wars have not existed. The historian can in the ultimate analysis only deserve the attention of men by his unremitting pursuit of truth; he must never turn aside from his course, however worthy the ideal which tempts him to do so. And to falsify history in the name of international understanding is to open the way wide to its perversion for other and less worthy ends.¹

The practical problem facing the teacher who believes in the relevance of his work to international understanding is one of selection. If, for example, children learn little of normal intercourse between nations, but instead have their attention habitually focused on wars, their perspective is bound to be warped. 'Even if we have not been inculcating downright misstatements in defenceless young minds, we have often interpreted history to them as a succession of military triumphs or diplomatic exchanges, a gallery of portraits and conventional pictures where the nations display their egoism and their blindness.'² Such narrowness the teacher must certainly avoid, if the contemporary world in all its richness and variety is

¹ In this context the observation of a French delegate in one of the discussions at Sèvres is worth quoting: 'If there is a conflict between truth and international understanding, I am for truth.' It was a judgement generally shared by participants in the seminar. The Director-General of Unesco, Mr. Jaime Torres Bodet, in his opening address to the Sèvres seminar, 19 July 1951.

to make sense to his pupils and if they are to know anything at all of the things which unite as well as of those which sunder.

What principles might guide the teacher in the selection of materials which would contribute to international understanding? Some suggestions on this score have been advanced by a committee of eight experts, professional historians and teachers of history, at the request of Unesco.¹ These suggested principles are as follows:

THE SEARCH FOR TRUTH

'History is a record of a people's past based on a critical examination of documents and other facts. The essentials of this historical method are not beyond the grasp of even young children. Concrete examples, such as the story of the Rosetta stone, which enabled Champollion to establish the first principles of the deciphering of Egyptian hieroglyphics, vividly illustrate the fundamental processes involved. This search for the facts can be used to illustrate one side of the search for historic truth. The other side is the truth of historic interpretation. The facts cannot be changed, but the interpretation of them can and does change. An explanation of archaeological techniques (excavation and research are going on in most countries) will demonstrate how the past can be investigated, what facts archaeological remains can reveal and what interpretations can be placed upon them. If children can be brought to appreciate the distinction between the objectivity of facts and the inevitable subjectivity of interpretation, an invaluable lesson will have been learnt. They will be less likely in adult life to fall victims to propaganda.'²

¹ See *Some Suggestions on the Teaching of History* (Unesco/ED/90 mimeographed) which served as a basis of discussion at the Sèvres seminar in 1951.

The members of the committee were: Miss Margaret Miles, Chairman, Headmistress of Pate's Grammar School for Girls, Cheltenham (Great Britain); Dr. Arturo Morales-Carrion, Vice-Chairman, Chairman of the Department of History, University of Puerto Rico (Puerto Rico); Dr. Merle Curti, Professor of History, University of Wisconsin (U.S.A.); M. Louis François, Inspecteur général de l'Instruction publique, Ministère des Affaires étrangères (France); Dr. H. H. Fussing, Inspector of History Teaching (Denmark); Dr. A. F. Radwan, Institute of Education, Ibrahim University, Cairo (Egypt); Dr. S. N. Sen, Vice-Chancellor of Delhi University (India); Professor Louis Verniers, Directeur général de l'Enseignement primaire et normal, Ministère de l'Instruction publique (Belgium).

² This and the succeeding passages are from *'Towards World Understanding', Some Suggestions on the Teaching of History*.

HISTORY AS AN EVOLUTIONARY PROCESS

'Pupils should be helped to realize that history is an account of an evolutionary process, that man has conquered the world by slow degrees and by slow degrees re-fashioned it to fit his needs; that technological advances, to which peoples all over the world have contributed, have accelerated the evolution of human societies; that civilizations have developed, matured, and died, to be replaced by new civilizations which have always preserved some part of the heritage left by those who had gone before. History should not be presented as if it were static. On the contrary it is a dynamic story of continual change. Pupils should be helped to appreciate the unity of history, and not to view it as a broken pattern of "stories" which they are all too likely to equate with tales of adventure.'

MUTUAL INFLUENCES AMONG NATIONS AND PEOPLES

'In this connexion children can be shown that races and nations have never really lived in complete isolation from each other. In technology, politics, culture and philosophy there have been constant exchanges, borrowings and mutual influences. Teachers should make a point of seeking out examples of interchanges of this kind from their national history. In order to develop a sense of the interdependence of nations and to avoid encouraging unwarranted feelings of superiority, what their own country has received should be recognized as frankly as what has been contributed to others.'

THE IMPORTANCE OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL FACTORS

'The economic history of the past is still far from complete, but the patient work of historians is gradually bearing fruit. Today many school textbooks give considerable attention to economic and social factors, and in most countries sufficient information is now available to enable teachers to show their pupils how important these factors have been at all periods of human history. The stage of development of the children must of course be taken into account, but the struggle for food and shelter, the bartering of goods, and the growth of means of communication can be easily appreciated even by quite young children. In this way a good basis can be given for a later understanding of the complex economic problems of our times.'

THE IMPORTANCE OF INTELLECTUAL AND MORAL FACTORS

‘Intellectual and moral currents of thought have probably had as great an influence on history as have economic and social factors. Regardless of frontiers, they have influenced millions of men and women throughout the world and inspired them to action. These factors should be brought home to children. Examples might include the missionary religions of Christianity, Buddhism and Islam, the influence of the Reformation, the abolition of slavery or the movement towards self-determination and social justice in the nineteenth century. Examples can be found in all national histories and, with the use of comparisons, links can be established with the history of other parts of the world.’

THE STRUGGLE FOR TOLERANCE AND PEACE

‘Throughout history there has been a time-lag between moral and material progress. Pupils should be helped to understand why this has been so and to see that not only the desire for power of rulers, politicians and national cliques, but also ignorance, intolerance, mutual distrust and the prejudice and selfishness of groups and individuals have been responsible. Moreover, intolerance has contributed both to civil and to national wars. In many countries examples can be taken from national history to show that intolerance and prejudices have been successfully overcome so that former enemies can now live together in peace. At a suitable age, children must learn that war has brought in its train not only death for millions of soldiers and civilians, men and women, children and old people, but also incalculable suffering and destruction of which the defeated have never been the only victims. War has frequently caused serious damage, or has brought utter ruin in a brief space of time—a few years, months, days, even a few seconds—to the results of centuries of human effort, the achievements of generations of architects, sculptors, painters, engineers and technicians, craftsmen, peasants and labourers of all kinds.’

These principles have been advanced as suggestions of a group of experts. They do not claim to be complete nor should they be viewed as final or dogmatic pronouncements. Historians and teachers from different countries continue to meet to exchange their ideas. New statements of principles will undoubtedly be formulated.

If history is taught in the light of principles such as these, children should be better able to see for themselves how important it is to try to understand their fellow-citizens and the citizens of other nations and to help in the struggle of mankind against prejudice, intolerance and selfishness. They will be receiving education for living in a world community. A sense of responsibility to this world community and to peace may take root in their minds as they begin to see the underlying reasons which account for the varying ways of life of different peoples—their traditions, their characteristics and their problems; to understand that modern civilization results from the contributions of many nations and that all nations depend very much on each other; and to realize that throughout the ages moral, intellectual and technical progress has gradually grown to constitute a common heritage for all mankind.

SYLLABUS AND SUBJECT-MATTER: SOME GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Clearly there is no ideal history syllabus, nor any of universal utility; and no teacher of history would wish to see a kind of international blueprint. The whole nature of his subject and the freedom which is a necessity of its study cry out against anything of the sort; national, provincial, and local differences forbid it in practice. Nevertheless it is not unreasonable to suggest that there are several general observations on the construction of a school history syllabus which, in varying measure, are of universal applicability. Some of these are obvious enough, springing from the nature of any school discipline; others relate more directly to the requirements of history teaching in the shrinking world of today. .

First, a syllabus must be planned and coherent, directly and carefully designed to meet the needs of the particular school or group of schools which it is to serve. There is very little value in presenting to children over a number of years at school a haphazard assemblage of historical topics and periods. The detailed subject-matter must be graded in an ascending scale of difficulty as children move year by year through the school course. In schools for very young children, particular attention must be given to the process of introduction to the learning of history. Large schools, where the range of pupils' ability is considerable, will need a syllabus flexible enough to provide for widely varying rates of individual development. Within the national and provincial area the differences of local government should contribute to the details of the syllabus, if only because the child's historical imagination grows best when its roots are local; the industrial city, the seaport, the farmlands each need a different sort of history syllabus, even if the differences are found only in illustrative detail. Such factors as these point to the need for flexibility in the syllabus, and flexibility can only be achieved by intelligent planning.

Secondly, this planning must take account of the relationship of history to other subjects in the school curriculum. In one sense history is not so much a body of knowledge as a way of approach to all knowledge, and its study in schools should in some degree be based upon this fact. Correlation between the several school subjects naturally takes a wide variety of forms. At one extreme it means little more than the occasional study of pieces of contemporary literature in connexion with a particular historical topic, as for example the reading of some of Charles Dickens' novels as a background to English social history during the first half of the nineteenth century; at the other it finds expression in the deliberate abandonment of traditional subject-divisions and their replacement by integrated schemes of studies. The general desirability and value of correlation is clear, as one of the few methods by which the teacher can give his pupils some indication of the essential unity of all knowledge. It is not difficult, at least in theory, to correlate the teaching of history with that of geography or of the native language; from the historian's point of view both these studies are essential as background or as illustrative material, and it should be possible to plan syllabuses in both subjects accordingly. In some countries social studies courses covering history, geography and civics—and sometimes the native language—are designed to meet the need for integration. Many teachers feel that when this method is adopted, either history or geography suffers; whether the subjects are taught separately or not, it is logical to treat history as a temporal canvas against which the facts learned in other subjects can be arranged. Modern languages—peculiarly important for the contribution they can make to the growth of international understanding—present a rather different problem, whose best solution seems to lie in the inclusion of appropriate historical material in the modern language course itself. Science and mathematics are subjects far remote from history in the mind of the child; yet here a well-planned history syllabus can help to set scientific discoveries and the invention of mathematical techniques in an historical perspective, particularly by relating them to their wider social implications in, for example, the story of transport and communications, of tools and machines, of food and medicine, or geographical discovery; and thus make possible for the child a more secure understanding of science and mathematics as well as a wider sense of the meaning of history.

The limits within which a school history syllabus can operate are extremely narrow. A very small minority of the world's children

have a long school life, from 5 to 18 years of age. A larger minority receive some form of further education to an age varying between 14 and 16. Vast numbers get no more than some sort of elementary instruction. Even where education is compulsory it ends on an average when the child is 13. Further, in the most propitious circumstances history is only one of a large and growing range of subjects which can stake a legitimate claim for inclusion in the school curricula of an increasingly elaborate world. The child who is taught history for four hours in every week of his last years at school is receiving quite exceptionally favourable treatment. For most children at primary level, the principal task of most teachers is the development of the basic skills like reading, writing and simple arithmetic, and in such circumstances history has to find its place in plans for teaching these skills; at secondary schools level, two hours history per week is probably a generous average. So far as generalization is possible, the time available for the study of history is almost invariably short and more often than not desperately so.

Two other limiting factors are inherent in the educative process: the age and the aptitude of the particular children for whom a given syllabus has to be designed. More will be said below of their implications for the detailed work of particular groups of children.¹ It is a basic requirement of any historical material presented to children that it shall be appropriate to their age-level and to their intellectual capacity. It must be neither too complex nor too simple, neither too full nor too sketchy. At the extremes this principle is easy enough to apply; the development of a constitution or of the ideas of democracy is obviously unsuitable study for the very young child, and the romantic tales of folklore and heroes are inadequate diet for the older adolescent. In the middle years of childhood, the problem is far more difficult, particularly when, as so often happens, the syllabus is organized chronologically; for the story of the past does not naturally grade itself in an ascending scale of difficulty from the earliest times to the present. Perhaps the severest practical test of a working history syllabus is the extent to which it provides suitable material for children between 10 and 14 years of age.

There is today, in quite a number of countries, a tendency to consider secondary education, at least in its earlier stages, as an essential part of compulsory schooling forming an organic continuation

¹ See below Chapter IV, pp. 45-72 (children under 12); Chapter V, pp. 73-88 (children from 12 to 15); and Chapter VI, pp. 89-102 (children from 15 to 18).

and conclusion of primary education, leaving specialization, preparatory for university and technical high schools, to the later stages of secondary education. This tendency is beginning to have its effect on syllabuses; in particular, it is helping to free them from university requirements which are left to the specialized sections of the senior classes of secondary schools. The present day is in fact a time of considerable fluidity and experimentation in the drafting of history syllabuses; new educational plans are going into operation in the less-developed countries, while changes in the structure of society are beginning to modify both content and modes of approach in lands where an academic tradition has previously been dominant. There is now a very great need for new enquiry into the content of syllabuses and into their arrangement; it is obviously of importance that all children of the age group 10-14 either in primary or junior secondary school should before leaving school have some fundamental knowledge of man's past.

The range of subject-matter open to the teacher of history is theoretically unlimited. The whole story of man's past is there, for his use, and he may take from it what he will as the raw material of his work. No doubt various practical reasons will eliminate great stretches of history from serious consideration; the dark corners about which little is known and the by-ways which remain the province of the specialist must be omitted, and also those numerous areas of the past which are neither interesting in themselves nor clearly relevant to the present. The length of the school course, the time within that course which is available for the teaching of history, the age of children and the aptitudes of particular groups of children impose considerable limitations on the choice of material. Even so, a vast field remains. The teacher and the educator must select, and select ruthlessly and carefully in order to produce a syllabus which is rational, coherent, and workable.

What general principles should govern the selection of content? It is not possible here to attempt to review all considerations to be taken into account. But there is a most important issue which arises in connexion with the teaching of history as a means of education for international understanding.

Some educators believe that the pursuit of this aim requires drastic modification of the content of history courses in schools. The child who is to live in the complicated world of the present and to be an adult in what will undoubtedly be a still more complicated world in the future, must learn history which is directly relevant to that world; he must above all be equipped with a basic knowledge

of the history which has made that world what it is and what it is going to be. This indicates at the very least great emphasis upon a knowledge of the immediate past; it also requires a general knowledge of world history. Recognizing that a sound knowledge of national history is also essential, they propose the addition of the two other bodies of content—*recent history* and *world history*. There is much to support the argument that many a pupil has left school with a considerable knowledge of the civilization of Greece and Rome and a total ignorance of the developments of the last 100 years. Similarly the staple diet of national history upon which children have been and still are nourished has left little or no space for knowledge of the story of mankind as a whole. And if it is true that the study of national history has helped to integrate men into the national community, it is attractive to argue that the study of world history will make them aware of their membership in the greater community.

Yet many educators demur at the proposal that both recent history and world history be accepted as essential parts of the history courses taught in school. As to recent history, they hold that scholarly and objective knowledge is not yet firmly established and consequently such teaching will be very strongly influenced by propaganda and political controversy. Further, it may foster short-range rather than long-range perspective, which should be a contribution of history teaching.

Turning to the proposal to teach world history, the critics argue that this attaches too much significance to subject-matter and overlooks the vital importance not only of teaching-method, but also of the spirit in which history is taught. National history for example may be taught in very different ways. Admittedly, it will become nationalist in the hands of those who claim that their own country has almost invariably been in the right, and that the rare occasions when it seems to have been wrong have been the responsibility of politicians who can be dismissed as traitors or weaklings. By contrast, there are teachers whose approach to their own national history is balanced and therefore genuinely international. A sane and proportioned teaching of national history can make clear the contributions made by other countries at various points in the story; can indicate the extent to which every part of a national culture is in some degree dependent on imported ideas or customs; and can show quite clearly that the history of one nation, however long and important it may be, is no more than the story of one more or less small portion of humanity.

It is argued, on the other hand, that an outline of the history of mankind is no panacea. It certainly offers no automatic guarantee of the growth of international understanding among those who learn it. It may be used as a mere backcloth, serving simply to focus special attention on the external policies or the general development of a particular national group. Moreover, the teaching of world history presents formidable practical difficulties, even in areas where there are teachers whose own knowledge and outlook qualifies them to handle the vast range of content involved and where appropriate teaching materials are available. Many educators would say that its comprehension, even a limited and bare comprehension, demands a capacity and range which can only come with experience. Certainly, unless very ample time is available, a school course in world history may tend to be dull because it becomes a mere outline sketch, lacking the vivid detail that gives it life for children. It is fair to say that, to many teachers of history, the idea of a school course in world history is not acceptable, and that their arguments for rejecting it proceed at least as much from practical and educational reasons as from national bias.

Yet this is surely too sombre a view of the prospects of teaching world history. Such a subject may be not merely acceptable but both enjoyable and profitable. There are strong arguments for emphasizing in the history syllabus those various forces, spiritual as well as material, which have helped to unite men and which are compelling them to realize the oneness of their world. The great religions, proclaiming the equality of every man in the sight of one all-powerful God; the arts, which ignore national frontiers and appeal to all mankind; science, the basis of the technical developments which are transforming the modern world; that vast range of social customs in which the great majority of men have so much in common despite the superficial differences—festivals and family life and amusements; great deeds of heroism and kindness and love—for all these things the history syllabus should find a place because they are the things that the world's children will inherit in common. They will help children to grow up in the knowledge that the culture of mankind represents the accumulated experience and contributions of almost every part of the globe. Where the core of a history syllabus is national history, it is obviously of special importance that the material selected for inclusion should be outward-looking, stressing these unifying, supra-national forces.

In a sense most of the history books written before the eighteenth century, where they were not simply chronicles, embodied a uni-

versal outlook and had some elements of world history about them; but since the romantic period of the nineteenth century interest and study were focused on the national aspects of history. Thus, the most urgent need of historians in contemporary society is to recover or recreate this sense of world history. The difficulties of initiating this process in schools can be exaggerated; there are, in fact, many schools, notably in the United States, where courses of world history are given—admittedly most often in the curricula of the advanced pupils in secondary schools, who already have a fair amount of general historical knowledge and some elementary historical skills, and to whom a relatively generous amount of time is available. Yet, provided the teacher has an understanding of world history and sufficient knowledge to be able to handle the wide range of questions and discussion that must arise, world history can be an excellent element in the education of children of any age. The range of appropriate material, appealing to the mind and imagination even of quite young children, is inexhaustible. It is here specially important to develop in children an imaginative approach towards world history. Once their imagination has been opened to other lands and peoples, it will be easier at a later stage to relate the facts. The Bible and the legends and martyrs of all religions; the great folk-movements and migrations—the Aryans and the Norsemen, the Great Trek, the opening of the American West; the explorers—Marco Polo and Columbus, Tasman and Cook and Livingstone; Xenophon's *Persian Expedition* and Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*—there is an endless supply of thrilling subjects whose significance is universal and educative value high.

It may be useful here to tabulate a number of positive and practicable suggestions about the content of the history syllabus. They must be regarded as tentative, although they summarize the ideas of many practising teachers in numerous countries. They are stated in general terms, without detailed reference to particular age-groups, and without any attempt to examine the arrangement of material within the outline of the syllabus.

1. World history from the emergence of man as a distinct creature to the present day. A course covering this ground would necessarily involve serious problems of selection, whatever the age of the pupils with whom it was studied. Its supreme merits are that it reveals the underlying unity of mankind, and that it shows what men have in common and where they differ.
2. National history. This is, as it should be, the core of every history syllabus. Yet many would suggest that its place in the

syllabus is too preponderant; they would add that a new approach is needed, stressing the extent to which the culture of every nation is drawn from many sources.

3. Local history. This may form a valuable part of the syllabus with younger children, since the story of how the child's own neighbourhood developed can form a vivid and attractive way of stimulating the nascent historical imagination and of introducing very elementary techniques of historical study.
4. Social, economic and cultural history. Material drawn from this field may open the past to many children who find little to attract them in strictly political history; and it very often provides varied and interesting opportunities of elementary research in a limited environment. Further, the subject-matter shows the interdependence of the peoples.
5. Contemporary history or current affairs. Some teachers of history oppose any attempt to teach current events in schools; others, while prepared to see this subject in the curriculum, maintain strongly that it must not be called contemporary history or indeed be in any way regarded as a part of history. Yet many believe not only that current affairs should be taught in schools, but that the teacher of history should bear a particular responsibility for such work; and some few go so far as to maintain that contemporary history is the most important part of their work. Whatever the reactions of individual teachers, and however delicate the problems raised, the story of the very recent past, of the immediate background to the day's news, is of peculiar relevance, and it therefore deserves consideration as a possible part of the history syllabus, at least for older pupils.
6. The history of regions remote from the homeland. Many teachers regard the idea of world history as vague and remote, and believe that some of its purposes—notably that of beginning to understand peoples of very different outlook—can be better achieved by the careful study of the history of a region or country which is markedly different as well as far away from the homeland. They suggest that for the student himself this may serve as a kind of 'pilot' course, equipping him to undertake similar study of other lands on his own initiative in later years.
7. The history of smaller countries. This suggestion, in some ways similar to the previous one, is based on the belief that, whereas the achievements of the great powers inevitably force a way into the history-books, those of many smaller countries—often no less interesting, and less important only in scale—are

crowded out; and it is argued that the study in some detail of the histories of some of the smaller countries, especially of those which were at one epoch of particular significance in man's story, could do much to encourage the growth of a balanced and tolerant outlook.

One remaining general question connected with the syllabus calls for mention here. How is the selected material to be arranged within the syllabus? This clearly depends to a great extent upon the material chosen; yet at first glance the general answer appears obvious. History is the study of events taking place in a span of time, and it would seem natural to study them chronologically. We trace the development of a country from the earliest known settlements to the present day, and we thereby throw light upon the history of a country; we do the same with a locality, a factory, a school, a farm, or whatever human institution we are interested in. This is the normal adult approach; and the arguments for following it in a school syllabus are strong. It avoids confusion, for it takes full advantage of the only continuous element of order in the story of the past, the sequence of events; it accustoms children to a chronological outlook, an attitude of mind based upon constant habit. It involves, no doubt, a certain learning of dates, but there is no reason to condemn this unless the process becomes mere drudgery. It has what is in many teachers' eyes the inestimable advantage of ensuring that a child studies in his last year at school those events of the recent past which do so much to determine the framework of the present. Moreover, the chronological approach is in fact sanctified by usage; it provides the normal mode arranging the syllabus in most schools, as well as the normal pattern of most school textbooks; and it is not impossible that children as well as teachers prefer to begin at the beginning of a given historical period and to go on to its end.

To question the wisdom of the chronological arrangement of the syllabus may seem heresy to many teachers and futility to others. Yet it is worth observing that there are serious drawbacks to such an arrangement. The 'periods' chosen for study are usually conventionally and arbitrarily determined, and the development of history is allowed to determine the subject-matter presented, whereas the decisive factor should be the development of the child's own mind. This may lead to considerable difficulty in practice, with historical epochs whose main issues are obscure occurring at early stages in the school course. Moreover, the claim that the chronological approach to history guarantees the growth in the

child's mind of a chronological outlook is not wholly convincing. It is at least arguable that a sense of time, and in particular a sense of historical time, develops comparatively late in the mind of the average human being. The child may learn dates accurately, and yet completely fail to comprehend the dimension they represent; he sees human history, so to speak, as a flat panorama without perspective, and hence, for example, causal relationships in the past lose much of their meaning for him.¹

There are alternative ways of arranging material in a syllabus. Many historians have advocated the study of important historical topics or problems rather than of periods, an approach clearly applicable in schools. The child may start his history by studying the development of tangible and familiar things—food, clothing, houses, or means of transport; as he grows older he can be introduced to the history of institutions and of government, and finally to the history of ideas. Thus the material upon which he is set to work develops *pari passu* with his age and aptitude. Moreover, this approach can help to promote international understanding by making plain the contributions of many lands to the growth of techniques, institutions and ideas common to mankind. Another method of arrangement is what has been called the 'patch' system. Children love the particular, and under the chronological system detail eludes them as they pass rapidly from reign to reign; further, they ought to be encouraged to pursue in their investigation of the past their own personal fields of interest. Therefore, it is suggested, they ought to study in depth 'patches' of past time, relatively short periods which are of special interest or attraction. They can soak themselves in the atmosphere of these periods, finding out how people lived and earned their living, how they fed themselves, what they wore, what their amusements were, what they believed in, what sort of government they had, and so on. Thereby children can follow their own interests; they can also learn by elementary experience something of how the historian goes about his business; most important of all, they can begin to grasp in some detail how several past epochs differ from one another and from the present day.

These two approaches, the topical or 'problem' and the 'patch', each has obvious defects. Both, especially the second, are bound to leave children with great gaps in their knowledge. Both are open to the charge that they may give students a confused impression of chronology, a muddled picture of the order in which events have

¹ For further discussion of these questions see pp. 32-33.

happened in man's history. Neither is as easy for the teacher to handle as the chronological approach, because the teacher himself, whether he is a specialist in history or not, has almost certainly been trained on chronological lines. Nevertheless, each offers interesting possibilities of valuable experiment. For neither these two lines of approach nor any others which may be devised should be regarded as mutually exclusive. The syllabus ought in fact to serve as a framework within which the teacher works out his own synthesis of the historical period for teaching purposes. The accessions and deaths of kings, the elections of presidents, the rise and fall of parties may, for example, provide the 'chronological' pattern; economic events and social change offer 'topics' for separate treatment; and relatively short but exciting or creative epochs can be handled as 'patches'. And even the most rigid chronological syllabus must provide for a fuller treatment of certain topics, a sketchier treatment of others.

The history syllabus must be planned; it must be flexible; its arrangement must be open to experiment. It must, finally, be subject to periodic revision. Its detailed content will from time to time require reconsideration in the light of the results of historical research. Perhaps more important, its general pattern and structure will have to be re-examined to ensure that they accord both with current educational knowledge and with the beliefs and needs of contemporary society. For a history syllabus is a social instrument. It must give formal expression to the aims which the teaching of history may be supposed to fulfil. Some of these aims express permanent values, yet the media through which they can be achieved must be subject to reinterpretation; and the syllabus of 1900, of 1914, of 1939 is not adequate for the present day. A planned syllabus must not mean an unchanging one.

METHODS AND TEACHING AIDS

METHODS

It is easy to proclaim lofty and ambitious aims for the teaching of history and easier still to draw up long and carefully documented courses of study. But the men and women in the classroom who have to translate these into practice may sometimes feel a certain scepticism about them. Few school subjects so often show so wide a gap between ultimate aim and classroom method.

In certain ways, history does not appear an ideal classroom subject. Children not infrequently complain of the remoteness of its subject-matter from their own lives, interest and experience, or condemn history as being useless in the immediately material and practical sense; it does not teach them how to mend a fuse, or to cook a breakfast, much less how to earn a living. A great deal of history, especially political history, does not enthrall or inspire. Moreover, the subject seems to lend itself to much vague talk and to little practical activity, and to involve much dull memorization.

To these objections made by children, teachers will add others of their own. History demands a mature study; of its long-range rewards, relatively few are within the immediate grasp of the child. Though of a high educational value, history is thought by some to be weak in intellectual discipline, at any rate in the earlier stages of its study. A child who has a tolerably retentive memory for facts may know a large amount of historical data without in any real sense making that knowledge part of himself. History can in fact very readily become a kind of 'soft option' among school subjects—easy to learn and therefore peculiarly hard to teach, if by teaching we mean that process which transforms ephemeral knowledge into lasting understanding.

How can we teach history so that children have a real chance of

finding in the subject some at least of the educational values that have been claimed for it? Something of the answer lies in the right choice of subject-matter, clearly; but a great part of it must be in the field of what can properly be called method. In a sense it is unrealistic to generalize about teaching methods, in history as in any other subject. For method, the type of approach adopted with a given class on a given occasion, must be strictly linked with a group of factors every one of which is variable. It must depend on the teacher's aims, not merely upon his long-range objectives in teaching the subject, but also upon his immediate purpose in the particular lesson. Moreover, method must be appropriate to the teacher's own personality, his gifts and his failings; the teacher who has learned from the yawns of his pupils that he cannot tell a tale vividly must resist the temptation to plunge into narrative description, whereas the teacher who has a flair for swift blackboard sketches should make full use of them.

Most important of all, every teacher must learn—it is the cardinal rule of the craft—to adapt his techniques, thoroughly and habitually, to the needs of the particular group of children whom he is teaching; and those needs will depend upon their age and ability, their aptitude and environment. Effective teaching requires a constant and delicate adjustment to all these variables. In short, there is no method which is universally applicable, least of all to the teaching of history.

No subject has suffered so greatly from the excessive use of one single technique, the lecture. Suitable for undergraduates and adult students, and frequently valuable for the senior classes in secondary schools, lectures are still inflicted upon thousands of children who by reason of their years and their undeveloped abilities are bound to be bored. No teacher can afford to rely wholly on one method, however good it may be in suitable circumstances. He must have at his command as wide a range as possible of the methods most appropriate to the particular historical subject and to the type of children whom he teaches, and he must be willing to use them all. This is particularly true for those who teach children of very varied age-groups and levels of ability. For children, notably young children, detest monotony; they want to be stimulated by a variety of methods of approach to their work.¹

There are however certain guiding principles as regards methods

¹ For examples of their application, see below in Chapters IV-VI dealing with the teaching of history to children of different age-groups.

which every teacher of history should remember, whatever the age of his pupils. The child's interest in the subject must be secured and maintained by techniques which call upon him to take an active part in its study. Young children are naturally interested in the past—the past of their own family, their own town or village, their own homeland; they are passionately interested in stories, in the sequence of happenings in general, and the teacher of history who does not maintain and extend that interest is failing in his job. Interest swiftly vanishes when the child's role is merely passive, when he is asked to do little more than listen to the teacher talking, or to read, in class or outside, one stodgy textbook—or to look at a succession of filmstrips or other illustrations. For in all subjects the child's continuing interest hangs upon the liveliness with which the subject can be brought near to him; this determines his willingness to learn and finally his success in learning.

Now the use of activities seems at first sight to present serious difficulties in history. The mathematician has his formulae, the chemist his acids, the biologist his bottled specimens, the geographer his maps; all can give their pupils opportunities of daily and active practice in developing skills and techniques, and in handling the raw material of the subject. But the raw material of the historian is less tangible and the special skills of his subject are few in number and often beyond the child's mind. Yet this is to exaggerate the difficulties. The teacher who is really helping the child to learn history is constantly trying to get him to imagine himself back in a particular part of the past; and to this end he may employ, at appropriate ages, a remarkably wide range of active devices. The collection of flints, of relevant illustrations, of coins; visits to ancient camps, to museums, to castles and churches and country-houses; debates, dramatic work; the making of models; the compiling of scrap-books; the writing of diaries, of eye-witness accounts, of dialogues; the investigation of sources, the comparison of different accounts of the same episode—all these in their varying ways are activities which give satisfaction and a sense of achievement to children who use them, and all are in some measure effective in promoting knowledge of, and interest in, the events of the past. No teacher of history need feel himself condemned to an endless routine of talking and dictating notes. If he does, the fault lies in himself, not in his subject. The disaster will be his pupils'; they will lose interest in history—and hence all the personal joy and profit they can gain from it.

One of the strongest factors in stimulating active interest is to bring into play children's natural tendency to work together. A

teacher concerned with keeping his children in lively contact with the subject will want to make the best use of co-operative methods. There must of course be ample individual and personal work, and there must be room for the play of competition between members of the same class; but there should be deliberate and frequent use of methods which accustom children to working together as a group for the attainment of a given end. Moreover, social attitudes are learned in the classroom no less than outside it. Experience in co-operating on a piece of work helps to develop the habits and standards of social co-operation. These include relatively simple examples of teamwork, like the construction of large-scale collective models of towns or castles, to illustrate various stages of social history, models for which every child has his separate piece to make; or rather more complicated and advanced tasks, like the compilation of a book—complete with illustrations and index and so on—to describe and summarize the work which a class has been doing on a given historical theme over a term or a year. The production—and even, in favourable circumstances, the writing—of an historical play is an occasion for co-operation of a different kind. Among older children, historical study provides much opportunity of co-operative investigation of past problems, with, for instance, various members of a class contributing to a symposium on some central topic, and thereby learning something of that process of co-operative investigation of social questions which is an established technique of modern democratic society. Debates on historical topics may be a valuable form of co-operative exercise, for they train pupils in the tolerance and self-restraint without which all free discussion is impossible.

A third general suggestion is that the teacher should relate the past to the contemporary world. It is difficult to persuade children who are intensely occupied with the present to concentrate their attention on the past. Naturally the extent of this problem varies enormously from child to child. Nearly all children show some interest in the past, and small children have no difficulty in plunging into it as into a world of make-believe. Yet older ones, as they grow more aware of the varied and vivid richness of the world around them and as they develop their own special hobbies and interests, often find it harder to go back into the past. Intellectually they increase their capacity, growing more able, for example, to grasp cause and effect in political and economic history; but imaginatively they appear to lose touch with the subject, to have less power of entering a previous age. This failure of imagination is serious, for imagination is the lifeblood of historical understanding.

How can the teacher prevent this failure? In a general way, clearly, he must make his teaching as vivid as possible; for example, he can make full use of lively contemporary sources, especially those which describe the conditions in which ordinary men lived in previous ages or which give sharp pictures of historical characters. All this is important, and will do much to maintain imaginative interest. Yet the teacher of history should also try to strike at the root of the problem—the child's overwhelming interest in the present. He may find it possible to use this interest to his own advantage in promoting the study of the past. He will certainly discover, on the borderline between subject-matter and method, some useful ways of approach to his own work.

Present-day problems should be used to introduce topics of the past. Historical parallels—of personality, policy or situation—between an earlier age and the present day should be employed as often as is reasonably possible. Such methods may appear in varying degree at any stage in school work. In so far as they link together past and present in the child's mind, or even make him aware that people of the past lived and thought in ways which were not wholly different from his own, they will help him to project himself the more easily into the past.

This same necessity to make history relevant strengthens the case—which on practical grounds alone would be very strong—for making the fullest possible use of local and familiar materials in the teaching of history. The argument applies most powerfully, perhaps, to young children, for whom history most naturally springs from things they can touch and see—the inscription on the coin in their pocket, the pattern of a flag, the flint their father has dug up in the garden, the monument in the town square, the name of the road along which they come to school, the odd-shaped mound in the field by the river, the foreign stamp; and it is one of the reasons why a course of local history is peculiarly fruitful in the first years of a child's formal study of history. But it is always valid at any stage in the school course, for the local and familiar are always a gateway to imagination; and the teacher should constantly be on the watch for any opportunity of making a local reference, of indicating the historical background of events in the child's experience, and—at the highest school level—of pointing the historical relevance of contemporary news.

All these methods have their perils; they may, unless used wisely, have results opposite to those which are intended; they may lead to distraction instead of achieving concentration. Some teachers may

be inclined to think that by such methods history may be presented to children as an entertaining and pleasurable pastime rather than as a serious intellectual discipline. The child who as an adult is to have some understanding of the past, some grasp of what history means to him and to his world; must as a foundation obtain some sound and reliable information of the essential historical facts. But how can children acquire such foundation if not by methods of teaching which bring the subject nearer to their heart? Unless teaching methods are used by which the child is able to assimilate the subject taught, history can hardly be effective as an intellectual discipline for teaching habits of accuracy or developing a critical sense.

All this necessitates, among other things, constant and scrupulous care on the part of the teacher, even the teacher of very young children. For the pupils it will mean the learning of a certain amount of knowledge, and however skilfully or painlessly the teacher conveys this knowledge, he must see that it is accurately absorbed and must at frequent intervals test his pupils' hold upon it. The reviewing or recalling of what has been previously learned presents a special problem of history teaching, and especially at older levels it, demands specially designed methods which compel the mind of the child to make intelligent and constructive use of knowledge. Among these, for example, are some elementary investigation of sources and some careful comparison of different secondary accounts of the same incident or series of incidents; the latter, if the accounts are from textbooks of two different countries, is an exercise of peculiar value to international understanding. At appropriate age-levels the formal essay on an historical theme is an outstanding example of a technique which uses the past as a source of intellectual discipline.

At this point, it may be well to consider one specific problem which causes trouble to every teacher of history and especially to those who teach younger children. History is dependent upon chronology; exact and verifiable dates provide the framework within which the historian works, imposing a visible order upon his material and enabling the mind to discern cause and effect in the story of mankind. What is the place of chronology in the teaching of history in schools? How far and in what ways is it possible for the teacher to develop in the minds of his pupils a sense of the sequence of events within historical time? Ought he to attempt to make his pupils learn dates, and if so how many and what sort of dates? Few teachers would wish to answer these questions dogmatically; every teacher must in practice attempt an answer.

Some teachers of history maintain that there is little point in trying to make their pupils learn dates. This view has in practice been beneficial to the teaching of history by discouraging the memorization of lists of dates as the main feature of history lessons; and it has thereby saved great numbers of children from a burdensome task which has inevitably tended to kill their interest in the subject. On the other hand, it seems impossible to teach history without including some dates and absurd to imply that children should learn the stories and the events without learning the dates as well.

It is worth while for the teacher to ask himself, what is the value of dates? Surely knowledge of dates contributes to understanding by helping us to relate events correctly, to measure duration and length of intervals, to arrange events in their correct sequence and to discover the simultaneity of occurrences. If this be so, it would seem to follow that dates should be learned in relation to other dates and that they should be learned as *aids* in the course of learning to relate different events to one another. Dates are a sort of index to which we can refer when we try to sort out significant events in the rich field of past human experience.

One point remains: whatever the methods the teacher adopts, however great their technical merit, he will always add to them one other element—himself. Teaching is an individual process particularly appropriate in the humane studies, of which history is one of the greatest. Methods of teaching history vary in their effectiveness. Their successful application depends largely upon the personality of the teacher. The teacher who goes to his method-books in search of the best way to handle a topic, and comes away dissatisfied with what they may suggest, should take courage. Let him be himself, let him experiment and adjust these methods to his own experience. There are few school subjects in which constant experiment in method is more needed and few in which there is more need to publish for the benefit of other teachers accounts of such experiments. There is none in which an individual and personal way of teaching is more justifiable and brings greater rewards to those who are taught.

TEACHING AIDS

The teacher of history has at his disposal a number of useful aids. Some of them are so well established that they are now scarcely looked upon as 'aids', and are rather taken for granted as part of

the normal equipment of the classroom. The most obvious of these are the blackboard and the textbook. Other aids like films, filmstrips, and radio are the best known of the newer devices. The value of these aids, old and new, varies considerably; so does the extent to which they are available to teachers, and the degree to which they are suitable for different age-levels. None is a substitute for good teaching, yet each, in its own way, can find its place in a well-planned history course.

The blackboard, the oldest-established of the mechanical aids to education, still has its vital role to play in the teaching of history. Its great worth lies in the opportunity it offers to the teacher to present points visually as occasion arises during the lesson, for the drawing of a diagram to illustrate some point of detail, or for the sketch-map to emphasize some special feature which the wall-map or atlas fails to bring out. Yet it will also carry the headings for notes, the words of which are hard to spell, the foreign names that are unusual, the special arguments that the teacher wishes to stress. Blackboard work must be simple to be effective, and the board must never be overcrowded. Even more important, it must be clear in the writing as in the spacing. Most teachers will find that they can do reasonably good sketch-maps; and many will discover, if they try, that they can draw quite effectively on a blackboard, using simple cartoons and rapidly-done sketches. Coloured chalks can be very effective, notably for map-work. But elaboration must never replace clarity. Above all, everything done on the blackboard must be legible from the back of the classroom.

The textbook is the most commonly used of all teaching aids. In the textbook is presented the body of information which the pupil is expected to master during the course. Many factors influence the selection and organization of the information presented in the textbook; examination of these factors lies outside the scope of this work.¹

The extent to which teachers and pupils depend on the textbook varies enormously. There can be two extremely different conditions. In the one, the teacher has had only little elementary training, economic circumstances prevent the school from being supplied with any other teaching aid, and the pupil has access to scarcely any other books. Here, teacher and pupil are highly dependent on the textbook. On the other hand, the teacher may be highly trained

¹ For fuller consideration of content of textbooks, their contribution to international understanding, the problem of their selection and distribution, see the companion study in this series: *History Textbooks and International Understanding*, by J. A. Lauwerys.

in the field of history, a person of wide reading and general culture; and the school may be richly equipped with other teaching aids. The pupil has ready access to libraries, museums and other cultural resources. In this situation, the textbook may be a little more than a reference work in which the ground to be covered during the course is conveniently sketched and summarized. The second of these two conditions is, of course, the ideal.

A textbook ought to be used not as a collection of facts to be learned by heart, but rather as a storehouse of basic information which the pupil can use in a variety of active ways. An important use of the textbook, obviously, is to supply introductory information preparatory to the study of a new topic, or to review a topic which has already been introduced by the teacher in class. If a pupil is going to write an essay or to carry out some elementary piece of research, the textbook supplies a minimum of background; or again the information in the textbook may be used by the pupil for construction of historical maps, time-charts or tables.

In the light of these needs, the book ought to conform to certain standards. It must be scholarly and accurate, yet written in an attractive style and using a vocabulary appropriate to the age-group for which it is intended. It ought to have some genuine literary appeal, so that its young readers will not dismiss it at once as merely another school book. For most children, particularly for young ones, it is probably desirable that the book should be arranged chronologically; for all children it is essential that it contain abundant detail, for children's study of history thrives on detail, and for all but the oldest children there should be plenty of direct and lively narrative. In appearance—cover, paper, typography, layout—it should be pleasant, clear in quality and bright in colour. Illustrations should be numerous, well-chosen, and of good standard; they should be varied, including not only portraits and reproductions of famous paintings, but also caricatures and facsimiles of documents; and it is important that they should have clear, full captions and be placed at relevant points in the book. There should, so far as space allows, be quotations from contemporary sources, and also maps directly related to the material in the book but not overloaded with detail. Finally it is essential for older students and desirable for younger ones that all textbooks should contain a list of contents and an alphabetical and detailed index; for textbooks are among the earliest books of reference which the child will have placed in his hands, and training in the careful and comparative use of the index is a valuable minor result of a child's study of history.

Children will tend to accept as absolute truth the wording and the judgements of their textbook. This is certainly true if other sources of information are poor or non-existent; yet it is a widespread habit of mind which many children acquire early, and it may become a dangerous one. For it may easily lead to an assumption that history is something fixed and contained within the covers of one book, and to the growth of an uncritical trust in the accuracy of the printed word. It may well be desirable for the teacher to counteract this in practice by adopting a critical attitude himself towards the textbook in his classes. He may also use more positive measures, of which the most obvious is to encourage constant reference to local library facilities. Few schools will be able to afford to supply their pupils with two textbooks each on the same historical period, but where this is possible it is a sound corrective. More practicable, and probably more useful, is the development of a system whereby several sets of different textbooks on the same period—with five or six copies of each—are available, being used by pupils in turn; better still, of course, if one or two of the books are written by historians of other countries.

Maps and atlases must play an important part in the teaching of history, partly because an understanding of geographical detail is vital to much historical study, and partly because maps are very often an exciting and effective means of fixing information in the minds of children. Ideally, every child ought to have an historical atlas from the age of 10 or thereabouts. In some schools, this is possible, but in many others considerations of expense prohibit it. Moreover, the quality of historical atlases varies considerably; many devote a disproportionately large amount of space to military and political maps; nearly all are far too detailed, particularly those atlases which are reduced reproductions of wall maps. Some teachers go so far as to say that they prefer their pupils to use only an ordinary geographical atlas containing a full and clear series of physical maps; and that they themselves supply, from blackboard sketches or by printed wall-maps, the historical data their pupils need. Certainly schools ought to possess a number of historical wall-maps; and many teachers find it useful to have blank outline maps of the world and the separate continents, printed on black material and mounted on rollers, which they can take with them from one classroom to another and use to show the results of historical events. At the other end of the scale, the teacher who is studying local history should make use, even with quite young children, of large-scale local survey maps where these are readily available;

moreover, few things can awaken a child's interest in history as easily as an old map, showing what his city or village consisted of two or three centuries ago. It should scarcely be necessary to add that one of the earliest techniques a child should learn is that of drawing maps for himself; the teacher of history must encourage children to learn to sketch maps rapidly and boldly, and thus save time for putting in the historical information, and the best place to begin is with maps of the child's own locality where the general layout is familiar to him.

Time-charts are to be found in textbooks and on the walls of classrooms, or are made by the pupils themselves. There is considerable difference of opinion among teachers about the real value of these devices, about the age at which children start to profit by them, and about the form which they should take. Their value is two-fold. They help children to get an orderly picture of the passage of historical time, giving, for example, an impression of the contrast between the vast spaces of prehistory and the short span of modern industrial history. They can reveal how events are related within a span of time. Further, they are a convenient revision exercise, helping them to set in order their knowledge of events and providing a useful tabulated version of an historical period. Some teachers believe that they are of little help to children under the age of 12, while others would have them used as the first formal way of attempting to give children some sense of historical time. Some maintain strongly that time-charts are of no conceivable service unless they are made by the pupils themselves; others admit that teacher-made or textbook charts have value for reference or revision.

The form which they take naturally varies with the precise object they are designed to fulfil. The most common is some kind of linear representation of time. For example, a large-scale horizontal time-chart, covering the period of history which a particular class is covering during an entire year, may be gradually constructed as a group exercise, and finally form a useful and even decorative mural in the classroom. For time-charts in children's own exercise-books, by contrast, a vertical type of chart is practically inevitable. This may range in form from something which is very little more than a list of important events set out in chronological order, and spaced out proportionately on the page, to a fairly elaborate double-page affair, containing not only events but movements, appropriately shaded or coloured, illustrative pictures or symbols, and a column devoted to biographical information. One of the practical draw-

backs of using time-charts of this kind is that children often devote a disproportionate amount of time to drawing lines, measuring spaces, and putting in headings; and some teachers prefer their pupils to use ready-made time-chart booklets or folders which are published in some countries, with blanks to be filled in by pupils. Devices other than linear are sometimes used to represent time, e.g. a ladder, which seems inappropriate because of its implied suggestion of steady progress; a spiral; a clock dial; and a tape measure.¹

Collateral readers and other materials are potentially of very high value as teaching aids, but they are expensive. A few of the more valuable examples may be worth mentioning here. Books of well-chosen extracts—from source material referring to social history and including verse as well as prose—can do an immense amount to bring the past to the imagination of the pupils. For older pupils, clear and accurate documentary materials, often in pamphlet form and published at regular intervals by independent fact-finding organizations, are most useful in the study of current affairs; so are some of the pamphlets on strictly historical topics occasionally published by national historical societies for their members. Similarly books containing short but well-written historical plays on important occasions of the past provide admirable classroom material for younger children. In contrast to these last, yet equally scholarly, are the fictional newspapers published in one or two countries; these take as their central theme some major event of the past, describing it at length in their main ‘feature’, commenting on its results in their leaders, and accompanying it with numerous other pieces of contemporary material, contained in news items, book, theatre, and even fashion reviews, advertisements, and so forth, the whole paper being notably accurate in its faithful attention to contemporary fact and detail.

The next group of teaching aids are, in a sense, not properly aids at all but rather part of the raw material of the historian, and they are for that reason at once more worth while and yet more difficult to handle. They include the entire range of the arts and crafts of past ages—either in the original or by reproduction, photographic or otherwise, in forms suitable for classroom use; and to them must be added the whole range of literature—novel, drama and poetry.

¹ See *History Textbooks and International Understanding*, p. 51, by J. A. Lauwerys.

How is the teacher to make use of them in the classroom? There are great possibilities, particularly in the visual arts. The last two generations have seen remarkable progress in the teaching of the history of art; reproductions have become much more numerous and of higher quality; we possess today in museum catalogues and publications genuine illustrations of many aspects of life for the last 10,000 years and from every great civilization.

There are in fact many ways in which the teacher can make this diverse cultural inheritance an integral part of his work, utilizing the manner in which art mirrors the period in which it was produced, helping to visualize an historical period as a whole rather than as a disconnected series of events. The walls of the classroom ought to be hung with two or three good reproductions of works of art of historical interest and high merit; these should be changed fairly frequently, possibly though not necessarily in line with the particular period of history being studied at that time. Books of reproductions of great works of art should be available in the school library and should be brought into class occasionally by the history teacher and used as a basis of a lesson; of special value for the teacher are those which illustrate in detail the social milieu from which they spring. At appropriate stages in the syllabus, lessons should be devoted to the history of architectural styles, and visits paid by classes to historical buildings should concern themselves with architectural detail as well as with more general historical information.

Music is another medium, though sometimes difficult to relate to a precise historical background; it could be used by means of gramophone recordings or radio to give colour and flavour to a particular period or country.¹

Literature is the easiest to handle, though some of its colour and quality may be lost by translation. There should be ample opportunity for pupils, even quite young ones, to read some of the poetry of a particular period as an illustration of its outlook; with older pupils the reading of the great novelists—especially those who had a strong social purpose in their writing—or a great historical drama is strongly recommended.

In this part of the teacher's task at any rate there is a splendid opportunity of correlating what he is doing with the work of certain other departments in his school—notably of course with that of art and literature. Some attempt to teach the appreciation of art and

¹ See: 'Musical Recordings of American History' and 'Musical Recordings for World History', by W. G. Tyrrell. *Social Education*, 1948, Nos. 5, 7; 1949, No. 8.

music should be part of the curriculum of every child, at least over the age of 15, and if this work can be done in conjunction with the history syllabus, so much the better. It is of peculiar value for two reasons. First, to many children who are not 'good' at what is normally regarded as 'history', or who are frankly bored by political and diplomatic detail, it offers a way back into the past, and perhaps eventually a means by which they gain an imaginative grasp of much of the best that history can offer. Secondly, there is no better beginning to the development of a real feeling of unity of mankind than through an appreciation of this common achievement of all men in the arts.

Historical novels deserve brief separate mention. They can do much to awaken the child's historical imagination, and they supply pictures of the past which are alive with flesh-and-blood people and full of vivid detail. Undoubtedly they have their weaknesses and dangers. Some are misleading—they are grossly inaccurate about details, and romanticize history—notably by an excessive devotion to lost causes. Yet the teacher unquestionably does right to try to persuade his pupils to read historical novels—and particularly perhaps those aged 14 or 15, when a taste for this kind of literature is most easily formed. The books he commends should be suited to the age of the pupils to whom he commends them; and a school that has money to spend on its library does well to build up a carefully-chosen section of historical novels. Appetite may be whetted and taste guided by occasional reading in class of passages from such novels. Provided the teacher is modest in what he expects from such novels—provided he regards them not as an additional source-book to give more facts to the pupil but rather as a means of kindling the imagination, a source of heat rather than of light—he may well find historical novels a valuable aid to himself and to some of the most unexpected of his students.

Perhaps the most striking development in the technique of teaching aids has been the growing use of visual aids. The oldest of them, the magic lantern, is still very useful to the history teacher if he has access to a collection of slides—to which he may add, if he is also an amateur photographer, his own examples. One of the most useful things he can do on his travels is to accumulate a large and varied collection of postcards, photographs of historical buildings, churches, temples, castles, town halls, mansions, cottages, etc. They will form a lasting store of illustrative material. Its utility will be greatly widened if he has an epidiascope in his classroom which will enable him to show illustrations from books and similar sources.

The most useful successor to the old magic lantern is its modern descendant, the filmstrip projector. Small, easily portable, it is an extremely manageable piece of equipment. Films replacing the heavy slides are small and light, a strip containing some 40 or 50 separate pictures or frames which can be easily packed in a pill box. It has the special merit of enabling the teacher to move on or back to particular frames by a single turn of the wrist, without any of the troubles involved in discovering and replacing one slide in a set. The teacher can easily learn how to operate a filmstrip projector, but must also learn how to discriminate between good and bad quality filmstrips, between those which are suitable for history lessons and those which are not. A great deal of historical material, however, cannot easily be fitted into the filmstrip technique and is more suitable for the cinematographic film. Filmstrips, for example, which claim to present biographies may prove to be only a succession of portraits and views which fail to tell a story. For other purposes, filmstrips are of outstanding value; among these are the portrayal of industrial changes of the last centuries, with their accompanying social changes, by a judicious blend of technical drawings, statistical diagrams and descriptive pictures. Yet neither for these nor for other subjects will filmstrips be really effective unless the teacher takes a good deal of trouble to handle them intelligently. He must know in detail the strips he is using and be clear which frames fit his scheme of work and which do not. He must use them in close conjunction with his lesson schedule and not allow the filmstrip to dictate the content of the syllabus; and he must make the showing of strips the basis of active follow-up work by the class. A filmstrip must not be merely a kind of light relief put on to break the course of the normal routine. In most circumstances the teacher should aim at showing in one lesson only those frames which deal with a particular aspect of his topic and should make the central purpose of the lesson a discussion, or some piece of written work, arising from them.

A film can give a fully illustrated account of a historical topic as it evolves in time. Its reaction on the imagination of a child is profound and often touches it more deeply than words with the result that the experience of history becomes more real. The film can illustrate changes, progress in time, related features like cultural background, social life and customs. It can show costumes, settings, environment and the peculiar colour of a historical period. This appeals very strongly to the mind of the child whose historical imagination is still undeveloped. In view of their qualities, motion

pictures may be particularly suitable for introducing the child to the world of the past. There is obviously a danger that the pupil remains passive and receptive; special methods have therefore to be designed to reconstruct the historical facts after the pictures have been seen. Class discussions, descriptions, analyses and evaluations of the different aspects of the film can prevent the use of these aids from becoming simply an entertainment, and can provide effective stimulus to coherent study.

The use of motion pictures in the classroom confronts the teacher with a number of difficulties. Outside the classroom a considerable number of historical and other films are shown by the commercial cinema. Many of these do not satisfy scholarly standards of historical accuracy. They often contain too much detail or are guilty of anachronisms, nor do they always present their subjects with any measure of historical objectivity. In fairness, however, it must be said that a number of commercial films have been very convincing historically and to these the teacher of history not only may but must encourage his pupils to go. These commercial films set a high technical standard, by which children will naturally judge any films which the teacher introduces into the classroom. Thus any educational film, if it is to be convincing and serve real educational aims, must possess all the technical qualities of the modern film. Presenting these films in classrooms presents several difficulties: the film projector is expensive, its handling demands some technical skill, and there is the time factor. Feature pictures have an average running time of 80 minutes while the average class period is only 40 minutes.

Film materials for the classroom are only useful teaching aids if they illustrate the subject within the given time schedule. Recently, experiments have been made in the U.S.A. in preparing condensed versions of good commercial films for educational purposes. Scenes which correctly present certain historical episodes or conditions are extracted, while much of the original film is excluded. These are interesting experiments in bridging the gap which exists at the moment between educational films and those which are produced for the entertainment of the public. These experiments suggest new possibilities of a creative co-operation between industry and education.

The other great mass medium, the radio, has a different contribution to make to the teaching of history. Difficulties in the use of live broadcasts within time-table and syllabus limitations are being solved by the development of the modern, tape-recording

technique which will greatly increase the value of such materials, giving them permanence and enabling the teacher to store them like records and use them at need. Experience of teachers suggests that radio can do some things supremely well. It can provide authoritative talks by experts on historical topics, suitable for pupils of the 15 to 18-year-old group; it can produce excellent descriptive accounts of past episodes and events, often in the form of an imaginary eye-witness account similar to those 'live' commentaries given by news reporters on important events; and it can offer to small children quite admirable dramatizations of historical subjects, based on careful and well-directed research and made vivid by the use of background noises and effects. Most of these are of their nature short and intensive, thus making it possible for the teacher to use them as the basis of work for the remaining portion of a class period. History teachers using their classroom experience should co-operate with school broadcasting organizations in composing suitable radio scripts as illustrations for history lessons after which the broadcast can be fully exploited for the routine work and study in class.

The History Room

History is a subject with its own techniques, and it may fairly be claimed that it needs its own room for their effective use. Many of its essential aids cannot easily be carried about the school; the history pupil requires atlases and reference books at hand, much as the chemical student needs his reagents; the history teacher who wishes to take full advantage of the newer technical aids to his work needs and deserves a place in which they may be permanently accessible. Moreover, an atmosphere favourable to the study of history should be created and this can be far more readily achieved if history rooms are set up where work done and in progress is visible.

What sort of a room should this be? The special equipment needed in a room for the effective study of history may be listed as follows:

Flat-topped tables and chairs, should be numerous enough for any class that is taught in the room, but should be portable, so that the room may be readily used for play readings, debates, and so on during lessons.

Blackboard, should extend along entire length of one end of room, and be divided into two or three sections, each of which is easily removable and reversible, set in long horizontal slots on wall.

Screen (for use with projector), where there is no provision for daylight projection.

Wall boards, suitable for pinning notices, time charts, pupils' drawings, etc.

Bookshelves should be of sufficient length to contain (a) small sets of textbooks in use; (b) reference books; (c) a small junior history library, with some historical fiction as well as 'straight' history books appropriate for young children.

Storage cupboard, large enough to store filmstrips, exercise books, cartridge paper, etc.; small enough to discourage accumulation of junk.

Display cases suitable for showing coins, miscellaneous relics, good examples of project work, notebooks, etc.; glass top essential.

Map rack to carry historical wall maps.

Epidiascope.

Film-strip projector.

Additional electric point for use with radio, etc.

To this list much might be added, particularly of illustrative material. But to make that sort of addition is the function of the individual teacher and his pupils. The most superbly-equipped history room will only come to life if those who use it want to make it a living centre of the study of history.

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY TO CHILDREN
UNDER TWELVE YEARS OF AGE

The great majority of the world's school children are under 12 years of age. Some of them have been at school since the age of four or five; some will remain at school until they are 15 or even older; but most will undoubtedly leave school at the age of 13 or 14. This state of affairs—the result of shortages of schools and teachers and public money, or of economic pressure in homes—is profoundly regrettable, but it is scarcely likely to come to an end in the near future. For teachers of history in many countries this means that nearly all their pupils will learn nearly all their history at primary or junior secondary level. To postpone the teaching of history until later in the child's career would in effect mean that the vast majority of the world's children would never be taught anything at all about man's past.

Clearly the work done in these early years is vital. History must be taught in primary schools. Those who teach it must face the risks and difficulties, and realize their great opportunity as well as their heavy responsibility.

Conditions of schooling vary greatly from country to country. Thus, there can be no question of attempting to standardize the approach to history teaching at this or any other stage of education. If the whole of schooling must be compressed into three or four years, it is impossible to introduce the same progression of studies as applies in countries with a highly elaborated school system. Nevertheless, making full allowance for these differences, teachers of children under 12 in widely-varied countries may reach a broad measure of agreement about the immediate and wider aims of their work. They may find much in common, in the content of their syllabuses as well as in principles of selection; and there are methods of teaching children under 12 which are universally valid. Every teacher of history should frequently remind himself that

he is not only teaching history but also teaching children. It is important that work in history with small children should be closely and continuously related to the abilities and characteristics of their age.

There is of course considerable mental and emotional growth during these early years, and it is wrong to suppose that there can be no important difference between the approach to history used with 8-year-olds and that adopted with 11-year-olds. It seems in fact to be widely agreed that there should be two fairly distinct stages in the teaching of history in these early years. The first, extending from about 7 years of age to about 9 or 10, may be regarded as a time of introduction to history; the second, from 9 or 10 to 12 or 13, as the beginnings of elementary teaching proper—the beginnings of systematic learning of history. The main objectives of the first stage will be to awaken an interest in history, and to develop some awareness of the contribution many different peoples have made to human progress. Here, at the start, are the years in which children may get used to thinking of the human race as one. The second stage, elementary teaching proper, will carry these processes further; indeed, in those more fortunate countries where compulsory schooling continues beyond the age of 12, it is probably desirable to continue the preparatory studies of the period of initiation right up to the age of 12, and to leave any attempt at systematic work in the subject until later. But in most countries it will be necessary to provide time, between the ages of 10 and 12, for some kind of course in national history, a course which will probably be systematic and formal, at least in so far as it is likely to be chronological in approach. Such a distinction between the two stages cannot, of course, be a rigid one; the planning of this work in the earlier years must vary greatly according to national needs and the local problems of each school.

History can only be taught profitably as a continuum after a period of introduction, during which the child has been led to become aware of the reality of the past—of the long way back it goes and of the changes which the passage of time has brought to the world which he knows. Such introduction must start from realities which are close to the child in time and space. Now what is near to the child is first and foremost the immediate past in the immediate environment of family and locality. Therefore the teacher at this stage can profitably call on the child's own memories and on those of people near to him, and on eye-witnesses and landmarks which

will enable him to compare the background of his own childhood with that of his parents or grandparents. This kind of initiation may be used with children throughout the world.

On the other hand, the past which is most accessible to the child may well be the most primitive and distant past—prehistoric times. Nearly all children show a spontaneous interest in the life of the earliest men, for they can readily capture with their imagination a vivid sense of what that life was like; they can quickly grasp something of the insecurity of lives which depended on fragile flint tools. Here too the setting is in no way national, and from this study children can learn that all peoples all over the world share this period of history in common. The furthest past, the most distant and most general pages of the story of man, is admirably suitable to serve as an initiation to history, both for its intrinsic interest and for the natural foundation of international understanding which it can lay.

The child's immediate family and local past and some topics from prehistory are good sources of subject-matter for the child's initial lessons in history. Another, appropriate like these to his characteristics and natural interests, may be found in stories about individuals. Small children are keenly interested in people and in tales of heroic achievement. If the people selected are from a number of countries, children may be helped to form a world outlook; in recent times, for example, such names as those of Nansen of Norway, Pasteur of France, Sun Yat Sen of China, and Gandhi of India may be suggested. Many teachers, however, would prefer to avoid the danger of distortion and suppression by using anonymous biographies, describing for example the life of a peasant of the time of Charlemagne, or of an early Portuguese adventurer in Brazil, or of a child chimney-sweep in Victorian London.

One of the primary purposes of the period of initiation is to accustom small children to the idea that life today is not what it was in other times; just as people in different places at the present time live in ways very different from our own, so too did people at different times in the past. This leads to a fourth type of subject-matter for this stage of teaching, the development through the past of the elements of daily social life. This offers a wide range of interesting themes which have their starting-point firmly rooted in the child's own experience—like food and drink, clothing, houses and other buildings, tools, travel and means of communication, fire and heating and lighting, games and recreation. Such themes are profoundly important in themselves; they are of basic interest

to all human beings in all countries and in all periods of history, and supply abundant teaching material which may be interwoven with geography; they are capable of making young children conscious of the bonds existing between different peoples and different generations, as well as of reminding them of the value of the daily work of ordinary people; and they are indicative of the way in which the units of human society become more interdependent as they grow larger. In school, they will serve as centres of interest around which the teacher can plan the work of the class for a period of weeks, for a term, or for a year.

To these four main types of subject-matter—the nearest past within the child's own grasp, prehistory, biographical stories, and themes arising out of daily life—others can undoubtedly be added. Not all the noble stories of man's past are biographical in form, nor have all great deeds been performed by outstanding personalities; there are tales of the building of railways, of polar and other explorations which provide superb examples of co-operative—often international—achievement. There is no shortage of subject-matter suitable for the child's initiation to history; and the sensible teacher will build up for himself over the years a careful list of topics and themes which have proved successful.

How is the subject-matter to be handled at this stage? The teacher must go carefully and slowly, allowing children ample time to accustom themselves to their tasks; and to this end he should plan his programme in groups of lessons rather than in units of single lessons. He will no doubt spend a good deal of time telling stories, particularly if he can do it well; but he should remember that his function is to evoke the past and not merely to discourse upon it. He will encourage drawing, painting in bright colours, elementary modelling, and the writing of brief descriptive passages about a scene or episode of the past. He should not bother much about chronology at this early stage, except perhaps in two small ways; when he is developing a particular theme or centre of interest, like food or housing, he will naturally treat it chronologically, unless there is good reason for doing otherwise; and when he is talking about some very important event of the past he will do no harm by writing a date against it on the blackboard; he will certainly not attempt yet to use time-charts. Finally, he will remember that the spirit in which he presents the subject is particularly important at this early stage. A chance remark condoning racial prejudice, a funny story against a foreigner, can do lasting damage now. Nor does that awakening of interest which is the main purpose of initia-

tion merely imply a love of exciting stories of high adventure. It must also involve the dawn of a respect for the toils and tribulations of man and of a feeling of belonging to the human community; the beginnings of a horror of war and its results, and of a realization that human progress is the work of countless generations of men and women of different lands.

It may be helpful to discuss, by way of illustration, some methods of approach to several of the themes suggested as subject-matter for the years of initiation. Every teacher will naturally work out for himself, in the light of local conditions, allocation of time, detailed plans and techniques; it is hoped that what follows both here and at similar points later on will offer guidance about objectives and methods.

THE NEAREST PAST: LOCAL AND FAMILY HISTORY

This affords opportunities, at a very simple level, for active enquiry by small children into their own immediate past. They can trace the history of their family for two or three generations back, finding out also where their immediate ancestors came from, and make a simple family tree; they can try to do the same for other families known to them in the village or town. They can talk to old people in the neighbourhood and find out what life was like when they were young, and write simple accounts of the ways in which things have changed. Old photographs in family albums can be compared with modern ones, and changes of dress and manners noted. The names of streets and localities, with their reminders of ancient customs or important families, provide useful material, as do local festivals and traditions. Churches, with the memorials and brasses, are sources of information as well as visible proofs of the continued existence of local communities on one site. Cemeteries can be mines of useful and interesting genealogical information. Other old buildings—castles and houses, schools and monasteries—are worth visiting, though very occasionally, even with small children; not because they will retain any exact memory of architectural detail or, still less, of date, but simply because they may obtain a vivid and lasting impression of a past which survives into their own lives. Such visits and activities should be recorded in a calendar and in individual or group diaries and, where possible, illustrated by drawings made by the children or by photographs which they have collected. Each child in the group might also be encouraged to

make a graphic representation of time, covering first his own life, then the lives of people known to him, and finally events both in the past and in the future, e.g. a holiday he has taken and an excursion he is soon to take part in, or even one or two national holidays which have taken place or are soon to do so.

THE FURTHEST PAST: PREHISTORY

Prehistory is a particularly valuable first project; partly because so much of its story deals with one simple theme which children can grasp, namely that of sheer survival in a terrifyingly difficult environment, and partly because some of the archaeological evidence—the flints, the shells, the bits of amber—can so often be readily seen and touched. Eight-year-old children love to imagine that they are hunters, finding their food through their own unaided efforts. They crouch happily by a struggling little fire and make crude attempts to prepare a meal; they try desperately to make fire the primitive way, twirling one stick in a hole in another, or to cut a flint axe-head with the dexterity of stone age man. Thus they begin to form an idea of the problems that faced man in an age when extinction was the only alternative to a constant struggle for survival. Moreover, they may start to realize how long it took man to attain some mastery of nature with primitive implements which are forerunners of our own. The older children may begin to compare the long palaeolithic age, when men lived through the last great geological upheavals, with the much shorter neolithic age, and see how the rate of acquiring new techniques increased in the second period. This can be explained to children by making them a long folder illustrating the successive millenaries, with a very short space at the end divided up for centuries. The main classroom methods here will no doubt include the display and handling of the primitive tools and adornments, where these are available, and the frequent use of vivid and imaginative description.

BIOGRAPHIES

Many of the great historical characters are necessarily utterly remote from the interests and ideas of the small child who is told about them, and therefore the child's role in learning might seem to be merely passive. Yet listening can be a thoroughly active process,

and rarely more so than when the child is hearing the stories of a wide and varied range of people who have accomplished great deeds. These should be presented in as lively a manner as possible, and should at first be extremely simple in form and content—perhaps legends like those of Greece and Rome, India and China, Persia, etc., or folk-tales. Accounts of single dramatic incidents should be given rather than of entire lives; more complex, longer stories can come as the child reaches the age of 9 or 10. Naturally national background will be a factor in the choice of subject here, but it must not predominate; it is essential that the child should grow up ready to find the highest qualities among the people of any nation. Further, he should be taught to value a wide range of human qualities—and this can only be achieved by a teacher who casts his net wide in his search for characters to show what greatness is, or to reveal the variety of man's deeds and interests.

THEMES FROM SOCIAL LIFE

There are many possibilities here; choice among them is likely to depend on the environment of the school and the teaching materials available. The story of the ways in which man has obtained his food through the ages, for example, naturally awakens and wins the interest of small children. They can learn how early men hunted, fished and gathered their food, how they started to cultivate the earth, living in settled groups. They can learn something of the long tale of conflict, in the lands of the Middle East, of China and India, and of pre-Columbian America, between the aggressive nomads and the settled peoples. Later children may learn how comparatively rare commodities like silk or spices, tea, and coffee became important; how the potato was introduced; how the development of the New World added to man's food supplies; how in some parts of the world a very elaborate diet has come to be taken for granted, while many millions elsewhere still subsist largely on rice and primitive grains. Finally, the story can be brought up to date with a simple account of the work of the Food and Agriculture Organization. In these years of initiation, the teacher must take great care to keep the story very simple—he should start with a few staple foods familiar to the children, avoiding elaborate suggestions of cause and effect, he should make simple comparisons with other countries' foodstuffs and try to show how the eating habits of many peoples have come to depend on supplies

from all over the world. The development of tools might follow as a second project, an excellent theme for illustrating the means used to produce food and, more generally, to increase the productivity of human labour. The development can be traced from the hoe to the plough drawn by animals, and finally to the tractor with its far-reaching effects on the lives of agricultural workers. Dwelling-places and buildings, clothing, pottery, means of communication and transport, fire, light and heat, mining, metals and water are among many other possible themes which can appropriately be used at this stage of the child's growth.

Systematic teaching of history may well begin at the age of 10 or soon afterwards. Whatever the subject-matter selected—whether it is a continuation of some of the themes from social life used in the period of initiation, or whether it is an outline of national history—it must be treated almost entirely in narrative and description. There is room, however, even with children of 11, for some very elementary consideration of cause and effect, and for some obvious generalization; it is, for example, possible for them to learn something about early migrations or to begin to grasp some of the reasons why the Roman Empire in the West collapsed, as well as to create in their minds a fairly vivid picture of barbarian invasions. But any elaborate or complicated analysis, no matter what its validity or importance, must be avoided. In many countries, at the age of 10 or 11 great numbers of children move from one type of school to another; this age may therefore be reasonably regarded as an appropriate one for beginning a systematic study of history. There should be no sharp break in approach between the period of initiation and this new stage. If the child has been introduced to the past in a manner that has stimulated his interest and whetted his imagination, it is the more essential that he should not now be bored and dulled by methods that treat him as passive and that compel him to learn by heart a stereotyped adult version of the history of one country. In subject-matter and method alike, the teacher must continue above all else to relate his work to the needs and growth of his pupils.

The child grows fast between the ages of 10 and 12. His active curiosity leads him to a range of interests wider than hitherto; his creative abilities are richer and his linguistic facility greater. His capacity for self-direction develops; he can be given greater opportunities to help in the planning and evaluation of his work. The desire for adventure and excitement is strong; he needs excursions,

dramatizations and other group activities which give more scope for initiative. There is an increasing range of individual differences among children of the same age; hence grouping must be more flexible and class procedures more individualized, and the teacher must take care to provide materials of varying levels of difficulty. The interests of boys differ widely from those of girls, and care must be taken to use materials appealing to both. The history programme for children of this age-group must be carefully adjusted to their needs and growth, must as far as possible be related to experiences which have meaning in the everyday life of the child.

The choice of subject-matter for children between 10 and 12 depends upon local and national circumstances, and in particular upon the stage of education which these years represent. If this stage is a preliminary one, to be followed by several years of secondary school, there is much to be said for a further pursuit of the topical approach suggested for the period of initiation to history. If, on the other hand, this stage of schooling is the last period of formal education children will have, then most of the time they spend on the subject should be devoted to an outline of national history. There is no practicable alternative, for in all countries neither public opinion nor the views of teachers and educators would permit the omission of such a course from the curricula of schools.

Even though national history is the staple of the work at this age-level, some attention should be given to other types of history—and in particular to local history. Shortage of time will be a serious obstacle here; an adequate course in national history cannot easily be completed within two or three years. Nevertheless, many teachers may find it possible to provide a short course in local history, that is, the history of the child's own town or rural area, perhaps as an introduction to the more systematic work of these years. As it deals with scenes, buildings and names already familiar to the child, it affords good opportunities of encouraging him to discover simple historical material for himself. European teachers know how much can be learned from an ancient village, or from a city going back 1,000 years, to illustrate various stages in the development of Western civilization. In India and in other countries of the Middle and Far East, which grew out of ancient civilizations, cities with modern standards of life and culture exist side by side with a way of life that has remained unchanged for centuries. Here are possibilities in plenty of showing children in what various ways a community may develop, and of winning their vital, active interest in the process.

Any systematic attempt to teach universal history at this level has serious disadvantages, partly because it will be an outline sketch shorn of the detail that gives colour and movement to history, yet principally because the world as a theme of history is beyond the child's mind. The subject is too big, too remote. But the teacher of 11-year-olds should try to prepare the imaginative background of world history by referring his pupils to stories which have become the common saga of all mankind—those of Joseph and his brothers, Moses and the Exodus, stories of the Prophets in Israel, of Leonidas and the 300 Spartans at Thermopylae, of Alexander in India, of Mahomet, of the Arabian Nights, of Attila and Genghis Khan, of Akbar and Napoleon, of Christopher Columbus and Florence Nightingale or Louis Pasteur. There is abundant material here, rich and stimulating.

The practical difficulty of teaching universal history at this age-level must not be held to justify a nationalist approach to history. The choice of subject-matter and the spirit of the teaching should make children feel that their civilization has resulted from the combined efforts of other peoples of different ages—that the history of any nation makes sense only if we understand the contributions made to it by men and ideas from outside its frontiers. A remarkable essay by two French historians, cast in the form of a short textbook study addressed to school children of 14 years of age, has lately demonstrated the interdependence of France and the rest of the world.¹ The writers trace how great is the historical debt of Frenchmen to foreigners—in language and place-names and Christian names, flowers and trees and vegetables, in food and clothes and cooking, in race and blood, in the arts and science and medicine. 'When we come to consider it,' say the authors, 'we see that there is nothing in the splendid structure of France that we French can claim as our own single-handed achievement except the act of its creation, the art of the building and the general style of the whole; there is nothing else which can be called our own exclusive property. All the materials our forefathers used to build their civilization, the civilization of France, they took wherever they were to be found, wherever they were to be taken, from every quarter and from every hand. . . . Let us look at a garden in Touraine. Imagine King Louis XI (1461-83), with his pointed nose and his hat set round with holy medals, coming back today and walking round with one

¹ 'The International Origins of a National Culture,' by Lucien Febvre and François Clouzet (Unesco, April 1951); mimeographed.

of us. What surprises there would be for him too; how many plants he would find which he had never seen or tasted! "What is this, my boy?" "What, your Majesty, don't you know those? They're beans." "Beans? Do you eat them? No one used them in my time." "No, Sire; they came to France from America." "And what are those big red fruit, and those fine dark purple gourds?" "Tomatoes and aubergines. But, your Majesty, you must have seen them on your own table?" "Tiresome boy! I have never seen them before. And what are those clumps of green leaves, close to the ground in neat rows? Over there. Some have curly leaves and others smooth. What do you do with them?" "What do we do with our salad plants—our lettuces and our endive? We eat them with oil and vinegar towards the end of the meal." "How curious! In my time, there were none of these—'lettuces', did you say?—in the gardens of Touraine." And Louis XI would be quite right. It was a good 50 years after his death that we began to import seeds from Italy, which, in turn, had got them from the East. . . . I must cut short the list, but should mention the cauliflower, which was introduced into France in the middle of the sixteenth century, its seeds coming from Cyprus, Malta, Crete and later from Italy; Brussels sprouts, which were unknown in our country until the late eighteenth century, when they were first introduced as "chou d'Allemagne" or German cabbage; and red cabbage, which is mentioned for the first time in 1570 by a botanist who was also an epicure. Today, one of Vilmorin's catalogues offers over 100 varieties of cabbage. In the thirteenth century, St. Louis and his contemporaries knew only three sorts: white cabbage, green cabbage, and kale. One might go on forever on this subject; spinach, which was brought back from the crusades; its competitor, tetragonia, which was discovered by Banks in New Zealand (1772); melons, which are said to have been brought back from Naples by Charles VIII in 1495; endive, which was first produced in Belgium in 1850-51 and introduced into France by Vilmorin in 1875. And the swarm of invaders from the Americas which was launched against our old culinary habits, led by the potato, and including the bean, the tomato, the Jerusalem artichoke, pumpkins, maize, cacao, vanilla, the sunflower, pimento, manioc, ground-nuts and the vanilla plant—not to speak of the cinchona tree, from which we get quinine, and the coca tree which gives cocaine. In short, any kitchen garden in France today is a sort of miniature botanical garden, but the plants are not labelled; if they were, we should read more than 5 times out of 10: "Foreign plant, native of Asia,

or Africa; introduced at the time of the crusades” or, still more often: “Imported from America after the discovery of that continent in 1492”.’

This picture of the ‘cultural borrowings’ of one country, which it is hoped may stimulate similar studies elsewhere, indicates a most valuable line of approach to national history. Certainly without some approach of the kind, stressing the immense cultural reciprocities between different peoples, children are likely to grow to adulthood believing that the only important *rapprochements* between their own and other countries concern wars and rumours of wars.

Furthermore, the history of any nation should so far as possible be taught with frequent reference to contemporaneous events in the rest of the world. The English child, for example, ought to know that in the very years when St. Augustine and his missionaries were converting the Anglo-Saxons to Roman Christianity, the prophet Mahomet in far-off Arabia was launching a great new world faith on its course, and that the ‘spacious days’ of Queen Elizabeth were also the golden age of Akbar, wisest and greatest of the Mogul emperors of India. This habit of reference, if it achieves nothing else, will provide opportunities of comparison, and may encourage a sense of balance in the evaluation of events which have shaped the world. Many teachers at this level would go further. Agreeing that any attempt at a comprehensive course in universal history is impracticable, and believing therefore that national history must be the main material here, they would nevertheless think it reasonable to devise a list of general historical facts—broad developments, not specific events—which are of world importance and ought therefore to be included in the history teaching of all countries. Obviously such a procedure raises serious difficulties of selection. Countries whose development has been closely connected with the shaping of world affairs are tempted to restrict ‘world events’ to their own part in them. The teacher might usefully devise such a list for himself, to make sure that he is relating his work in national history to the main trends of world history at any given epoch. He must take every opportunity, and provoke opportunities, to emphasize the effect which other countries, peoples, races, and civilizations have had on the development of his country. By so doing he will help to prevent national history from fomenting a narrowly nationalist spirit.

The problem of the teacher’s treatment of war arises here, for wars have played a large part in the history of almost all nations, and a part which has often been creative as well as destructive. The respect for truth which is the basis of the work of teacher and

historian alike makes it essential for the teacher to discuss and describe the wars of the past. He must make every effort to handle them objectively, especially those in which his own country has taken part; and he must take care not to follow the example of too many history textbooks which, by giving excessive space to accounts of wars and by neglecting the normal peaceful relations between peoples, have implied that war is almost the only form of intercourse between neighbouring States. He may also fairly point out the causes which have contributed to past wars as revealed by the evidence—intolerance and prejudice, economic and ideological rivalries, the hatreds provoked by clashes of prestige. He should certainly describe the damage, the mourning, and the miseries caused by wars, as well as the heroism and the self-sacrifice which they evoke. And if his teaching of modern international relations is to have any reality or relevance, he must reveal war as the scourge of the modern world which it is the chief purpose of international co-operation to combat.

In some areas, a wide range of teaching aids is available to the teacher of children under 12 because he happens to be working in a community where material resources are plentiful—books, models, maps, illustrations and historical objects in ample supply, not to mention audio-visual aids; in others he may have to do his best with a black-board and a few textbooks; in far too many he will not have even the textbooks. It is therefore difficult to generalize about methods, without implying possibilities which for many teachers remain unattainable. What follows is not so much a statement of ideal techniques which relatively few teachers could adopt, as a brief discussion of some of the methods open to those who have a fair quantity of teaching resources at their disposal. Probably no one teacher will be able, or will wish, to adopt them all; yet here, as throughout the whole range of education, every teacher should be encouraged to experiment freely and to use as wide a variety of teaching devices as possible. The best of methods can quickly grow stale and lead to boredom, and nowhere more quickly than among a group of 10- or 11-year-old children.

The teacher should organize his various techniques within a firm framework of subject-matter. He has, it may be assumed, a definite syllabus which he wishes to complete within a definite time—two years, a year, or a term. If he is wise, he will plan his work over that time not by single lessons but by groups of lessons; a group of lessons constitutes a unit of work devoted to an important and coherent theme. These units will naturally vary in length,

some taking only two or three lessons, others as much as six or eight weeks. To study history in a long succession of separate lessons, each devoted to a distinct topic, may have the merit of simplifying each topic for the child; it can scarcely have any other merit. For he is not likely to learn any topic thoroughly; he will have little opportunity of individual work; and almost certainly the teacher will be tempted to use the same method of approach again and again. By contrast the teacher who employs units of work will be encouraged to use a variety of techniques. He can devote the first lesson of the unit to the awakening of children's interest in the theme—by telling them the story or reading a vivid contemporary document, by showing them pictures, or even by taking them on a visit to some local building. A second lesson may perhaps be spent partly on silent reading of their textbook, partly on drawing to illustrate what has been read, or on one or two simple fact-finding exercises. Later lessons, their number depending on the nature of the subject-matter, will develop the theme, the children doing further individual work as well as some group work, and the whole series being rounded off by some co-operative activity such as making a collective model or producing a short play, or perhaps by the showing of a film or filmstrip intended to serve as a summary. To the children, this approach by units will give a real chance of mastering the essentials of the subject-matter by making it part of themselves; the teacher's powers will be increased and strengthened by the freedom which comes to one who does not bind himself to the routine of a single method.¹

Mention of units of work draws attention to the value of getting children to keep some kind of written record of their own work. This is worth doing from the beginning of the systematic study of the subject; it encourages an orderly approach to work, and it may suggest the rudiments of historical method. In these early stages what is done will be elementary and crude, but that matters little, provided the child is guided along the right lines. The child can be encouraged to keep a record-book; the teacher should not look upon this as a formal notebook, but rather as something more like a diary, in which the child writes short accounts of the jobs he is doing, visits he has made and passages he has read, and decorates them either with his own drawings or with cut-out pictures and pho-

¹ This paragraph owes much to *History in the Primary School* by C. F. Strong (London, 1950), pp. 39-44, which has a very practical description of what its author calls the 'lesson-period' method of approach.

tographs; for this last purpose it is useful to have a book interleaved with plain drawing paper instead of the usual exercise book with ruled lines. Another, and probably better, method is to have the child keep his record on a series of cards, several being devoted to each unit. They are an interesting alternative to the exercise books (of which the average child will see all too many during his school career), and the best of them can be selected to provide a record of the work of the class as a whole.

Much of the teacher's work at this level will, no doubt, have to be oral, telling stories and explaining in very simple terms the movement of events, reading aloud short extracts from documents. These things cannot be effectively done by children, yet except upon rare occasions a class of small children has a very limited power of active and continuous listening. The teacher necessarily will do a good deal of talking, but he must intersperse his talk with frequent opportunities for individual and group work by the children. He must take particular care over words which can have no real meaning for the members of his class. Political and historical terms such as *democracy*, *municipal*, *community*, *colony*, *legislate*, *toleration*, *institution*, *constitution*, *government*, *modern*, *medieval*, are common-places of his thought and handy items of his stock-in-trade as an historian. Some of them he must avoid altogether with children of this age; others he must deliberately introduce, written on the board and given careful explanation, as a necessary part of his pupils' education.

An essential part of the teacher's task is to encourage the children's own oral work—for example, to persuade those who are shy to tell the class what they have discovered about an old building in the neighbourhood. He can expect very little at this stage, but most children are interested enough in their own work to be ready to say something about it—and nearly all children are much more interested in hearing what other members of the class are doing than in listening to what they read out of a book. Reading aloud from a book, indeed, will form part of the child's activity at this stage, in history as in other lessons; but the book should not normally be the class textbook, and the supplementary books chosen should contain at least as much poetry as prose, for verse—especially ballads and heroic narrative verse—has a wonderful power of winning a child's imagination to the past. Further, the amount of reading aloud should diminish progressively as the child grows older; by contrast, he should be more frequently encouraged to give short lectures to the class, perhaps containing information drawn from sources 'outside school, and to read them stories or poems

which he has himself written about historical episodes. These stimulate constructive criticism among members of the class and compel the lecturer to be accurate.

This need for accuracy in learning history must be stressed early; and most teachers assume that from the beginning of the systematic study of the subject, their pupils should learn accurately a small but steadily increasing number of facts. This certainly does not justify the practice, still widely used, of making children commit to memory whole chapters or summaries of chapters of very condensed books, in the hope that repetition will make them comprehensible. Periodic oral tests may be given in which children are asked questions about the main facts of a chapter they have just read in their textbooks. Two points are worth emphasizing about such tests. First, the teacher should not ask questions haphazardly, should not fire them off at random without reference to any plan; the questions should form part of a story which he develops as he goes through the lesson, and serve as a genuine means of revising a theme or topic. Secondly, tests can be made competitive, and much more interesting for the children, by dividing a class into teams and getting them to ask questions of each other in turns, the teacher acting as umpire deciding on the fairness of questions and the correctness of answers.

Possibly the most effective form of group oral work available to the teacher of history at this age-level is dramatization. Most children enjoy acting, and watching one another act. Drama releases physical as well as mental energy and enables children to combine in one activity the impressions they form about the past from books and illustrations. Most of the material which is presented to the children at this age will consist of stories of action and of significant single episodes, suitable for presentation in dramatic form. Books of short historical plays for use in schools have obvious advantages, but they vary greatly in quality. On the whole it is more valuable if the plays performed in class—which cannot be very frequent—spring naturally out of the study of a particular theme, and have been written either by members of the class or by the teacher in collaboration with them. Some teachers are inclined to view this dramatic approach with reserve; they feel that plays of this kind may be extremely inaccurate in detail and may therefore do more harm than good. Yet most would probably agree that the children's research which precedes creative expression in this medium need only result in that degree of accuracy which is normally acceptable from children of this age; and that any risk of inaccuracy is more

than offset by the love of history and the increased power to co-operate which this kind of activity may bring to many children.

Many who teach history to small children make use also of puppetry, which can open a real place in the work of the class to the child who is just beginning to show gifts as a craftsman. Whereas dramatization may provide one more means of self-expression only to those who are readily inclined to express themselves in public, puppetry gives a real chance to the child who is shy or tongue-tied because he lacks confidence in himself.

Written work presents more serious difficulties than oral work at this stage. Only a small quantity can reasonably be expected of, say, a 10-year-old child, for his knowledge is slight, and furthermore his concentration upon one topic, though often intense, is rarely long-lived. He will write short, lively, and direct pieces enthusiastically and often well; but he writes easily for only a short time, and cannot go much beyond narrative or simple description. Some written exercises are essential; they help a child, as no other form of activity can, to begin to arrange his thoughts on a subject, and the process of writing can give him a real satisfaction and sense of achievement. But too much writing, and too much of the wrong sort of writing, can kill the child's interest in history.

First, particular care must be exercised at this age-level to choose appropriate subject-matter for written exercises: stories of action, of struggles for a noble cause, of courageous conquest of difficulties—stories which awaken and thrill the imagination—are admirable, and so in a different manner are descriptions of everyday ways of life in which the child can compare the customs of some past age with those he daily sees about him. Secondly, the precise form in which a child is asked to write, the exact kind of exercise he is set, matter greatly. Children under 12 should never in their learning of history be asked to 'write an essay' on some topic; such a demand is at once too difficult and too dull. They may fairly be required to write a short biography of some great figure of the past, provided they have been given some elementary advice on how to go about it. Better still, let them be given some exercise which by its very form compels them to imagine themselves back in the past—for example, an eye-witness account for a newspaper ('from our special correspondent'), or a running commentary for the radio on some memorable event, or a series of extracts from the diary of a traveller visiting a court or a great city. Or let them be encouraged—never compelled—to write verses on some suitable historical topic; the results will often be surprisingly good, if the topic is lively, lending

itself perhaps to the ballad form, and if the child is uninhibited and is given some preliminary advice about metre and rhyme.

Finally, the written work of young children should be frequently inspected by the teacher; not merely that he should check mistakes, though that is obviously important, but rather that he may find out what there is to praise and so give the child the maximum of encouragement. Most small children are ready to be proud of books which contain their own bits of work, and respond willingly to praise of a clear and bright map, or of a lively written account; few are enthusiastic about the teacher who does no more in their books than mark all the spelling and grammatical errors. The teacher of history should always, even from this early stage, encourage his pupils to keep their writing books tidy and orderly; here is a necessary preparation for later years when they may be required to compile full and elaborate notebooks. Beyond this, it may be observed that excessively detailed correction of written work, especially for younger children, may be a waste of the teacher's time; if he can convince a child of one or two mistakes and make him realize how he has gone wrong, he is probably getting as much as he can from one written exercise.

A great deal of the history done by children under 12, however, will be neither written work nor strictly oral work. It will be visual, or practical, or even musical, because such methods provide simpler and more direct means of awakening the child's mind to the past, and of encouraging co-operative activity in a class. There is a wide range of possibilities here. Some of the more obvious and important kinds of audio-visual aids, like wall-pictures, maps, films, film-strips, and radio, have already been considered;¹ if they are available, they are of peculiar value to the teacher of small children. Other devices fall more properly under the heading of method itself, and are briefly summarized here.

The collecting of pictures to illustrate historical episodes fits neatly with the average child's natural tendency at this age to collect things, and can do much to equip a school in a relatively short time with a most valuable range of material. Old books, magazines, newspapers and the like provide the raw material for this activity; and classification, done at school under the teacher's guidance, is a useful elementary exercise in historical method.²

¹ See Chapter III, pp. 36-37 and 40-43.

² But children should be protected even at this early stage against the pseudo-romantic oleographic picture popular in the nineteenth century and still all too frequent in textbooks.

Collections can be made on a smaller, yet still valuable, scale, of other material of historical interest—such as stamps, old letters, and family documents.

The drawing of historical objects—tools, weapons, dress, parts of buildings and so forth—should be encouraged as long as children show signs of wanting to draw. The pictures that result may be artistically crude and historically rather inaccurate; these are risks to be taken in order that children may learn actively by their own efforts.

Exhibitions should be held occasionally, showing tools, etc., or illustrations collected by children, and displays of their own drawings; they should be set up in the classroom and so far as possible planned and arranged by the children themselves.

Model-making, carefully organized with a responsive group of children, may be a particularly valuable activity for pupils between the ages of 8 and 12. Models satisfy a child's desire to create something; individual models may be grouped together to form a collective model of, for example, a Roman town, an early settlement from almost any part of the world, or a castle; and model-work, in the form of a diorama or of a demonstration model, may contribute usefully to the permanent equipment of a classroom. To be effective as teaching devices, models should be simple to construct, solid to handle, and accurate in their representation of historical detail.

Music, where circumstances permit, should play a part in history teaching at this level, and ample use should be made of gramophone records. Contemporary songs and dances, in simple form, may also be within the scope of children's own performance. For many children, music can do much to convey a little of the feeling of a particular past age; a saraband of Lully may recall the splendour of Louis XIV, or a minuet of Mozart the measured grace of the eighteenth century, and the spirit of the French Revolution still cries out in every note of the 'Marseillaise'.

Where an adequately-equipped room is set aside solely for the study of history, the possibilities open to the teacher are immensely widened. He can do much to prepare in advance an environment appropriate to each theme or unit of work on which his class is engaged. This is especially valuable for small children whose approach to history depends so much on what they touch and see; and it may be useful to add a brief mention and illustration of something which an American writer has called 'the arranged environment'.¹

¹ See John U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. Prentice-Hall, New York, 1950, pp. 158 *et seq.*

The classroom is arranged with books, pictures, maps, charts, models, and historical materials selected so as to focus interest on a chosen theme. Work on the theme begins by encouraging the children to spend one lesson or more examining these materials, discussing them with one another, and asking questions of the teacher about them. On the basis of these questions, a plan of work on the theme is drawn up, embracing a variety of the methods suggested earlier in this chapter. The example which follows was taken from a unit of work on the westward movement in the United States.

‘The classroom was arranged as follows:

- ‘1. Pictures of scenes in an early pioneer town on the Missouri River were posted on the bulletin board. They included a general store, a wagon being loaded, a blacksmith shop, a general street scene, a covered wagon in process of construction, and a wagon leaving the city for the West.
- ‘2. On another section of the bulletin board there were pictures related to the Oregon Trail, including a caravan fording a river, life in a camp, a herd of buffalo, three Indian scouts watching a wagon train, wagons crossing the plains, and pioneers building cabins.
- ‘3. Another section of the bulletin board showed several pictures of plains Indians, including a buffalo hunt, an attack upon a wagon train, and Indian scouts.
- ‘4. On a table in the corner of the room there were several articles that the children could manipulate. These included a model of a covered wagon, pioneer dolls (a man, a woman, a child), a powder horn, a flint-lock rifle, candle moulds, a water pouch, shot pouches, buffalo horns, a bull whip, arrows, bows, a corn grinder, and flint used in making arrows.
- ‘5. In another section of the room there was a large map of the United States, showing various mountain barriers, rivers, and trails.
- ‘6. In the library corner, attractively displayed, were several books about Indians, pioneers, covered wagons, cities in the early West, and travelling in pioneer days.
- ‘7. In the construction corner tools, nails, boards, sawhorses, paper, scissors, paint, and empty boxes had been placed.’

As a useful example to illustrate the suggestions that have been made, a term’s work for nine-year-old pupils is given in conclusion.

A TERM'S WORK ON THE THEME OF MEANS OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

Work on the theme of transport and communications can well occupy one year, as is the practice in the Decroly schools in Belgium and the International School in Geneva. Details of the study are shown overleaf in two parallel columns, giving respectively the contents of a pupil's exercise-book and a corresponding list of lessons and other activities.

Only one term's work of the three is shown in detail; the one spent on land communications. Sea and air communications should be studied in the following terms. The section on land communications may encroach a little on the second term, as it includes a study of vehicles and also of roads and railways.

Considerable time is required for this study if active methods which will stimulate the receptive powers of the children are to be used, and if the teacher wishes to begin with simple exercises that will lead gradually to certain simple general conclusions. A year is, indeed, hardly sufficient time to complete it for, if everything indicated by the term 'communications' is to be considered, the studies will have to include the history of writing, of the postal and telegraph services, and of newspapers and broadcasting, and should make some reference to the work of international organizations, such as the Universal Postal Union and the International Civil Aviation Organization.

However, it is no great disadvantage for children between 8 and 12 years of age to study only one part of this theme, going on to other equally essential subjects, such as the history of food, fire, clothes or housing.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE THEME

The subject is important for it shows the progressive efforts made by men for centuries past to meet their common need for means of communication, and it demonstrates their interdependence.

In working out this theme, the first consideration has been the psychology of the nine-year-old children for whom it is intended. Though they are still very much absorbed by immediate interests, this does not mean that they are not also keenly interested in tales of distant lands and other times. We have thus tried to start with matters that are sure to engage their attention before tackling more

abstract elements. It may seem odd to suggest taking children to a travel agency and a railway station, but to guide a child one must take account of his nature and he will then seek guidance and follow it of his own free will. A child under 12 years of age embraces life as a whole, for it is as a whole that he sees and takes pleasure in it. He wants to unravel its complexities, but if he is given only one thread at a time, he will fail to recognize it as a part of a pattern. The oft-prescribed method of moving from the simple to the complex still holds good, but for the child at this age, it is the whole which appears simple and the parts complex.

Contents of pupil's exercise book

Lessons and other activities

1. Title-page: drawings of carriages, motor-cars, boats, aeroplanes.
2. Time-table of a railway journey, as given in a railway guide.
3. Composition:¹ Our visit to a railway station.
4. The map of our continent, showing means of communication (either drawn, or, if printed maps can be obtained, pasted in).
5. Drawings of trains, boats and aeroplanes.
6. Dates when the child's grandparents and great-grandparents were alive (exact if possible).
7. In countries where stage-coaches have been used, drawing of a stage-coach, copied from a picture.

Talk with the class: Suppose we go on a journey? How shall we go?

Visit to the information office at a railway station and to the actual station.

Let us work out a journey; we will start by consulting the time-table.

Talk: Places we can visit on foot; those for which we have to take the train, boat or aeroplane. Let us plan a long journey, to distant places, using a large map of the world showing means of communication.

Questions by the teacher: How would we have travelled 150 years ago? What year was it, 150 years ago? Was it during the lifetime of your grandfather, your great-grandfather, or your great-great-grandfather? Each child should obtain the answer to these questions at home.

Talk: The roads in our country. What is to be seen on them? With the help of pictures, imagine what we would see on other roads in Europe, Asia, North and South America, Africa and Australia. Point out those pictures which

¹ Free compositions may be written either individually or by a group of children. The teacher should make slight corrections in the ideas and style and should pay particular attention to spelling mistakes. The composition may then be re-written in the exercise-books.

8. Copy of a small chart:
a man walks 6 kilometres an hour;
a fast stage-coach could cover 10 kilometres an hour;
a post-chaise covered 16 kilometres an hour;
the speed of an express train is 80 kilometres an hour;
that of certain cars is 90 kilometres an hour.
9. Problems: How long would it take me to go on foot from to? By train? By carriage? By car?
10. Drawings copied from the pictures in the exhibition.
11. List of the animals which help man to travel and to transport goods in the different parts of the world: donkeys, horses, bullocks, dogs, elephants, yaks, sheep, camels. Drawings of these animals and their trappings next to their names, if possible.
12. List of the centuries and years from 2000 B.C. to A.D. 2000.
13. Drawing of a horse and its modern rider, with saddle and stirrup.
14. Composition: Saddle and stirrups; their purpose.

reveal similarities and differences and locate them on the map (slides and films might be used).

Organization of an exhibition of pictures illustrating the previous talk.

Explanation of average speed. How is it calculated? The children join in calculations, using local examples. It is recommended that they ask people they know, e.g. motor-car drivers, about speeds. What is the average speed of various vehicles going from one specific place to another?

Talk: Animals used by man for travelling and for transporting goods (in different countries). Pictures should be used to illustrate the talk.

One or two lessons concerning the past centuries and the way in which they are counted. Draw up a vertical chronological table from 10000 B.C. to A.D. 2000, pointing out to the children that they will probably live to the year 2000. Draw attention to the Roman figures for the centuries and the corresponding Arabic figures for the years.

Talk: The history of wild horses. Discussion with the children on the different ways in which they were probably tamed.

If possible, visit to a riding school and observation of a saddle-horse.

The teacher describes the way in which a horse was ridden in ancient times, without saddle or stirrups. He points out that the Chinese invented the saddle

15. Copy from a document showing a horseman mounted in ancient fashion.

16.

17. Drawing, from life if possible, of a horse attached to a cart, showing the harness and carrying the following explanatory note: The horse pulls with its neck; if the load is too heavy the horse is strangled.

18.

19. Composition: The shoulder-harness, a very important invention; inventor unknown.

20. Composition: Why do we shoe horses? How long have we done so? or: Our visit to the farrier (choice of topic to be left to the children).

21. Series of drawings showing the evolution of the wheel.

22. Drawing of a war chariot or an ancient racing chariot. Explanatory note: the load drawn by the four horses must be very light owing to the harnessing by the neck.

23. Composition: Our visit to the wheel-wright.

24. Drawing: a modern cart drawn by yoked oxen.

in the second century B.C. and that the Indians invented the stirrups in the seventh century A.D. Pictures illustrating the talk.

These transformations are shown on the chronological table, which is brought up to date. It is pointed out that the Arabs introduced the saddle and stirrups to the West.

With the help of pictures, the teacher explains how horses were harnessed before the tenth century B.C. and how the method used prevented them from pulling a very heavy load.

Talk: How Lefebvre des Noëttes drew his conclusion concerning slavery from the long existence of the ancient form of harnessing.

Talk: Horse-shoes. What is their purpose? It is pointed out that they were invented in Europe in the ninth century B.C.

If possible, visit to a farrier.

Talk about vehicles and wheels. The teacher shows pictures of an Indian sled which, at first, was drawn by dogs or women; the solid Sumerian wheel; the Egyptian, Greek and Roman hollow wheels.

Work on the wall map of the world in order to localize all the kinds of vehicles which have been discussed. Small drawings or clippings may be pinned to it.

Visit, if possible, to a wheel-wright when he is putting a tyre on a wheel.

With the help of pictures, the teacher tells the history of the yoking of oxen.

25. A drawing showing the defective ancient yoke, and the yoke attached to the withers of donkeys and oxen.
 26. Composition: The donkey, friend of the poor.
 27. Small copy of a map which has been drawn during the lesson.
 28. Composition: How our roads are made.
 29. Drawing of a cross-section of a modern road built for heavy traffic.
 30. Composition: History of roads illustrated by various drawings of cross-sections.
 31. Map of the oldest roads in the country.
 32. Copy of chronological table concerning the history of roads.
 33. Composition on the history of wooden and cast-iron railway lines. How did the railways facilitate traction?
 34. Drawing: a tollgate on a road.
 35. Drawing: the first train.
- Cuttings or drawings are pinned to the wall map of the world to indicate the different regions in which horses, oxen, donkeys and mules, camels, etc., are found.
- Talk: The history of the donkey and of the countries where it is most widely used; its economic role in North Africa, in the Iberian Peninsula and in the countries of Latin America. What would poor people do without donkeys and mules?
- Visit to a neighbouring spot where a road is being repaired.
- Talk and discussion: The way in which the roads in our country are made and repaired.
- Talk: The roads in other countries, illustrated with pictures or slides. Particular attention should be given to the surface of the roads.
- Talk: The history of roads, from the crude trail up to the development of macadam paving.
- Talk by a pupil or the teacher: The history of macadam. The teacher continues the history up to the time of the most modern road built with American bulldozers.
- The large chronological table is brought up to date with respect to roads, as an elaboration of the section extending from the Christian era to the present day.
- History of the first wooden railway lines between the English coal mines and the rivers where the coal was loaded on to boats (eighteenth century); the cast-iron 'tram-roads' of the Coalbrookdale Iron Company (1767).
- Talk by a pupil or the teacher: The history of Stephenson's steam engine and of his first experimental trip from Liverpool to Manchester, financed by merchants who did not wish to pay tolls on the roads.
- The teacher shows pictures or slides or caricatures of the first railway line.

36. Copies of caricatures (or originals) of the first railway lines.
The teacher tells the history of tolls. Modern tolls on the great bridges in the United States. Why don't we pay tolls more generally on our roads? Ideas of public service ensured by the State: we pay through taxes.
37. Composition: History of Stephenson and his steam-engine.
The teacher tells of the dangers of travelling on the roads in former times; highwaymen. Why have highwaymen almost completely disappeared? Who pays the police?
38. If possible, copy of a cross-section of Stephenson's steam engine.
The chronological table is brought up to date on the subject of railways.
39. Composition (according to the choice of the children): (a) History of highwaymen. (b) How are travellers on the roads protected? How were they protected in former times?
40. Drawings copied from pictures of the world's largest bridges.
Talk: Collective transport. The teacher explains that it is a sign of general prosperity and social progress.
41. Drawing of a motor-car or of a large motor-coach.
The teacher explains how the railways reduced travel by road and how the roads then regained their importance owing to motor-cars, which now compete with the railways.
42. Copied text: There are kilometres of roads in our country and kilometres of railways. For us, the more important of the two is because In other countries, such as it is (mode of transport) which is the most important because
43. The history of motor-cars shown by drawings.
Exhibition or projection of slides showing the evolution of motor-cars, with a talk on the same subject.
44. Drawing of a derrick showing its underground penetration.
On the map of the world the teacher indicates the world's oil fields and explains their importance.
45. Composition: What we learnt by our visit to a petrol-station.
Visit to a petrol-station and a conversation with the operator concerning his supplies and their prices.
Comments on the visit. Estimate of the cost per kilometre for different types of vehicles, including large motor-lorries. Discussion of what

46. Drawing of a graph representing the competition between the roads and the railways.

47. Humorous composition: Imagine that your great-great-grandfather comes back to earth and you take him on a voyage.

48. Map of the travels of Marco Polo, with a note summing them up.

49. Composition on the way in which people travelled in former times.

50. Illustrations copied from documents.

materials should be sent by motor-lorry rather than by rail. Railcars. Talk: How men have always travelled in spite of difficulties and distance. A long journey in former times over one of the oldest roads in the world. The voyage of Marco Polo.

End of the travels of Marco Polo.

Talk: The pilgrimages in the Middle Ages. Who travelled at that time? (Mention may be made of the characters of the *Canterbury Tales*.)

Another talk on more recent voyages and, if possible, the reading of texts such as that of Montaigne on his travels in Switzerland and in Italy.

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY TO CHILDREN BETWEEN TWELVE AND FIFTEEN YEARS OF AGE

It is obviously dangerous to generalize about the rate at which children develop in different parts of the world; so many factors, environmental as well as physiological and psychological, are involved in the reckoning. Nevertheless, it is certain that the overwhelming majority undergo vital changes between the ages of 12 and 15, whether they live in the more 'advanced' countries or the less developed ones, in city or countryside, in the tropics or in the temperate zones. They move from childhood proper to adolescence; and in the process they become more sharply defined and yet more complex personalities, developing new interests and potentialities, and presenting to those who teach them a new range of problems and opportunities. To the history teacher in particular these years are at once bewildering and profoundly significant. They form the period of his pupils' development in which, more than in any other, he knows that his subject must either begin to make sense and to become of lifelong value or remain a barren and meaningless assortment of facts, forgotten almost as soon as they are learned. They are the decisive years in which his pupils may begin, so to speak, to win history for themselves, opening their minds to the varied possibilities it holds. The stories which have fascinated them in childhood may now begin to take on new meanings, to become the foundations of a rich intellectual growth. For the community in which the child lives, these are pre-eminently the years when the history which he studies at school becomes of direct relevance to his development as a young citizen.

The changes in the mental growth of children are no doubt responsible for some of the apparently external factors which the teacher of history has to take into account in planning and carrying out his work during these years. For example, some countries base their entire system of secondary education, from the age of 11 or 12,

upon the selection of children and their grouping into different types of schools according to ability; thus they provide separate schools for the more literary as well, as for the more technically-minded, both kinds of school being quite distinct from those set up for the great majority of the population. By contrast, other countries prefer to emphasize the common citizenship of all their children, rather than their varying individual abilities; and so they tend to adopt comprehensive types of schools embracing all children of the 12 to 15 age-group and offering to them a curriculum which is in most respects common to all. In some countries the official syllabuses for secondary schools are designed to take account of examinations, particularly of those which qualify successful candidates for admission to the universities. This does not necessarily distort every part of the syllabus for children between 12 and 15; but it inevitably makes syllabuses in secondary schools more rigid than those in primary schools, and the restrictions which it imposes are probably most harmful to the least academic pupils. Recent years have seen a trend towards the prolongation of what is called 'secondary' education to the age of 16 or even of 18—either for all children or for an increasing proportion of the able ones. The effect of this trend upon school syllabuses is not easy to assess, yet it seems likely to lead to the planning of secondary education as a continuous process from the age of 10 to 16. It may increasingly involve the shaping of syllabuses, in history as in other subjects, to meet the needs of those who leave school at 15 or 16, who obviously should have some fundamental knowledge of man's past before the end of their school career.

Whatever changes future development may bring, in the extension of secondary education or in the raising of the school-leaving age, at present the great majority of children who receive any kind of secondary education leave school not later than their fifteenth birthday. For these children, most teachers of history would maintain that the emphasis during the last three years of schooling should be on national history. The three years from 12 to 15 provide an excellent opportunity for a course covering all periods of national history, placing special stress upon topics which contribute to an understanding of present-day problems or which enable the pupil to note the differences and similarities between life in earlier times and life today. Such a course is appropriate for those who do go on to senior classes of secondary schools as well as for those who leave school at 15, for it leaves the way clear after 15 either for further study of broader and more varied topics, or for the second

stage of that 'two cycle' treatment of national history which is followed in some European countries.

Few teachers would cavil at this. But it raises serious problems so far as international understanding is concerned. How much of the history of other countries should be taught at this stage? And in what ways should national history be taught in relation to that of other nations? The answer to the first of these is conditioned by practical considerations. The teacher lacks time, as well as teaching material and documentation; and he will often be dealing with children who vary greatly in ability. Therefore he will undoubtedly have to simplify his teaching about the history of other countries, and to select carefully the countries with which he deals. He will naturally try to include those which have a direct connexion with the history of his own country—neighbouring lands or countries upon which his own has been dependent. He should certainly teach about those to which his own country owes much. And he will be contributing to his pupils' understanding of the common heritage of man if he can find time to teach about peoples who have transmitted important elements of civilization.

The second question—in what ways should national history be taught in relation to the history of other nations?—goes much deeper, for it concerns not only the content of the syllabus but also the spirit in which it is used. The teacher's handling of the relations between his own and other nations is of cardinal importance to any contribution he may make towards the development of international understanding. His immediate purposes here should be two: to provide his pupils with the knowledge essential for any international understanding, and to develop in them a spirit of inquiry and the power to think for themselves. He will not find these purposes easy to fulfil. History is in many ways a subject requiring mature powers of comprehension, and the teacher has to simplify his material without losing the essentials; over-simplification may kill the spirit of inquiry and lead to a passivity of outlook well-suited to the reception of propaganda. Where standards of living are low and illiteracy is to be found in many homes, the teacher has to overcome influences which pull the child in the direction of a localized outlook, incompatible with international understanding. And he will have constantly to be on his guard against his own environmental prejudices; it is always easier to teach only a nationalist interpretation of history, for it requires energy to seek out the detailed evidence about the point of view of the other nation in an historical controversy, and it often needs a good deal of courage

to present and explain it in the face of traditional national bias.

National history should always be taught against an international background; that is to say, the history of one nation should never be treated in isolation, even where it is made the central theme. The unity of civilization in Europe prevailing in the Middle Ages must, for example, be strongly stressed in teaching the medieval history of any European country. Developments at home should be related to external events, so that children can begin to realize how human affairs interact; the story of Frederick the Great's attack upon Silesia, for example, may have its place not only in the history of Germany and of Europe, but also in that of America and India. The cultural relationships between different nations and areas should be made clear, as in the ancient cultural debt owed by western Europe to Arabia and India or the modern one of the United States to Europe. There should be frequent comparison of social change; British school children who readily learn how their country came to the fore in the industrial development of the eighteenth century need also to be reminded, by actual comparison with contemporary processes in other lands, how relatively backward was their penal code and social legislation at the same period of history. Such comparisons may do much to bring home to children how unreasonable it is to assume that different nations ought to evolve at the same rate in social, economic or political affairs. This is a major step in the growth for an international outlook in the mind of the individual, for there can be no international understanding which is not firmly based upon an appreciation of the differences between nations—upon the realization that every nation at a given time is a combination of good and bad, and should not be compared with others on the basis of its merits alone or of its failures alone.

Not the least of the teacher's difficulties is in handling the peculiarly difficult problem of the historical conflicts and rivalries in which his own country has been involved. Though it may appear to be relatively easy nowadays for both French and English teachers of history to treat the Hundred Years War with reasonable impartiality, nevertheless the Battle of Agincourt is still a source of patriotic fervour in modern England as is the heroic story of Joan of Arc in modern France, and such questions of the distant past tend to be explained in the traditional way, which embodies much prejudice and little critical discussion. But it is even more difficult to treat the history of conflicts of more recent date between two nations with impartiality. The teacher must not shirk the existence of

such controversies; he must be objective, striving to lay before his pupils all the relevant facts that he can in the time available to him and also to encourage them to discover more for themselves—and to ask why these things happened; he must be tolerant, leading his pupils by example to believe that while facts must be sacred, the expression of opinion should be free. In such work, some exercise of judgement is inevitable, but it should emerge from the lesson without direction from the teacher; and children should learn that in international relations right is seldom to be found entirely on one side. In the field of method, the use of documents, of textbooks giving different interpretations of the same event, and of newspapers of opposite political views is particularly valuable; and it is no negligible achievement if pupils realize that on some historical events no final decision can be reached. It is above all essential that the teacher should introduce to his pupils the results of the best international scholarship available on such topics.

Many teachers of this age-group will not rest content with teaching national history, even against an international background and in an international spirit; if time and circumstances permit they will be ambitious enough to try to give their pupils, especially those whose school life will end at 15, a wider knowledge of their subject. Indeed in some countries, for example the Americas or some of the nations in the British Commonwealth whose history as separate nations has been comparatively short, teachers will take it for granted that the syllabus in these years cannot be limited to national history. There are various ways of providing additional material relevant to the contemporary development of mankind towards a closely interrelated world. This material, while giving the child a fair chance of obtaining some of the intellectual values which have been claimed for the subject, will also help to awaken in him the sense of membership in a world-wide community.

Some teachers prefer one independent outline course in world history. The difficulties of this for children of this age-level have already been indicated, not the least being the fact that most teachers of history, whether university graduates or not, are inadequately equipped to handle it. Nevertheless some teachers use such a course with much success, usually for the 14-year-old pupils at the top of this age-level; and there is certainly need for much more experiment in the teaching of world history in schools. Other teachers, however, suggest for their pupils the device of several courses which give some idea of the main centres of human civilization through the ages, and of the way in which these centres have

influenced one another. Such courses could do much to make children realize how very distant and entangled are the roots of the twentieth-century world civilization, and how in man's history the great creative areas have been those that have kept lively exchanges and contacts between themselves. They could also make known some of the major problems of the present day, such as social questions which are not confined by national frontiers; the problems of relations between Europe and an America which plays today a leading role in the world; the difficulties of an Africa brought more and more into the system of world relations; and the relations between 'the West' and the ancient centres of civilization in 'the East'. There is ample field for pioneering work here for teachers, provided they aim not at acquisition of a sum of miscellaneous data, but at a coherent knowledge of man's contributions to civilization.

Another means of widening the syllabus lies in the further continuation of the topical or problem approach mentioned for the earlier age-groups. The topics chosen for study will now be more advanced than those previously dealt with, and they will naturally contain more political material; indeed, the peril of this topical approach lies not so much in the possibility that it may upset the child's sense of chronology as in the risk that he will continue to study relatively easy social topics when he should be investigating more complicated questions. The development of government and the history of religion both offer suitable material; as, in rather more narrow fields, do some parts of economic history—the rise of banking and the history of trade routes or of inventions. Provided careful guidance is given, the story of tolerance, the ideas of liberty and law, from ancient Greece to the UN Declaration of Human Rights, can also give invaluable aid to education for international understanding. Many teachers dislike this topical approach because they cannot easily obtain suitable textbooks for their purpose. The absence of a textbook undoubtedly creates difficulties in class teaching; yet other teachers would argue that these are more than offset by the stimulus this approach gives to the child of lively and enquiring mind and by the opportunities it affords of co-operative work which can draw every member of a class into active participation.

A final suggestion about the widening of the syllabus in these years is at first sight more modest than those already made; it may thereby be the more practicable. In addition to learning their own national history, pupils should study in some detail the

history of some one nation or region which is notably dissimilar to their own land. Care would have to be taken to ensure, for example, that the teacher responsible for this work was sufficiently expert to be able to stand up to the questioning that intelligent 14-year-olds would give him; that there was available a good supply of teaching materials, filmstrips and like technical aids dealing with the country concerned; and that so far as possible there was thorough correlation with the teacher of geography. In favourable conditions such an experiment might do much to introduce children to the unfamiliar ways and customs of a very different people and so break down the limitations of environment; it might also implant in them the important idea that the development of any community is determined by and grows out of the needs of that community. They would have some chance of getting a fairly detailed picture, an impression in depth rather than a series of somewhat disconnected scraps of knowledge. This more intensive process might do more than a study of an outline of world history to make their minds receptive of international ideas and capable of understanding the problems of nations other than their own.

Whatever the arrangement of the syllabus—however it may be subdivided into national history, world history, the history of important topics, or the history of some country very different from the homeland—it is essential for the teacher to enlarge and broaden its content. He must remember that he is dealing with children who are maturing fast and remind himself, too, that the vast majority of them will go out into the world to earn their living at the age of 15. His response to this situation must be flexible and varied, depending on the particular needs and aptitudes of the group of children whom he is teaching; yet at all times his general objective will be to increase the scope of his work and to stretch the powers of his pupils—partly by raising the amount of knowledge he expects them to assimilate, yet principally by revealing to them new ideas and new possibilities in the subject of history. Thus, for example, although the majority of his teaching will necessarily remain descriptive, there must be increasing room for elementary analysis; he must encourage them to start thinking in terms of cause and effect, to wonder as often as they can—and to try to find out for themselves—why things happened the way they did in the past. Or again he must help them realize that history is not just concerned with conventional types and events—kings and statesmen, capitalists and revolutionaries, battles and dynastic marriages and acts

of parliament; that in reality it involves all human society, and that everything has a history—their own school, the factory father works at, the old mill down the lane; and that all manner of things have a place and often a significant place in it.

Some of this extension of the scope of history at this stage of education is of special moment for international understanding. Three points in particular may be mentioned. First, the growing radius of interest and work should not be allowed to involve an excessively detailed study of military and diplomatic history. Most of the history studied by children under the age of 12 should be social history, and the interest then aroused must be encouraged to continue and expand into some elementary consideration of economic history and economic factors in general history. It is scarcely possible to exaggerate the importance of economic factors in modern international history; the vast expansion of industry and trade has drawn countries closer together and made them more interdependent than ever before, yet rivalry for markets and sources of raw materials has been a potent cause of international rivalry and, directly or indirectly, of war. No child can receive a balanced historical background for our times unless he is taught something of these economic matters.

Secondly, children between 12 and 15 are old enough to begin to attain some understanding of the force of intellectual and moral ideas in history. In most lands, the most obvious way in which the teachers can develop this understanding is by examining the rise and influence of the great religions, and by showing their importance in the modern world as well as in the days of their foundation. Many Western children learn about the life of Mahomet and the early conquests of his followers in Asia, North Africa and Spain; few know much about the Moslem States of the twentieth century. Considerable attention should be paid to the rise and achievements of the great humanitarian movements of history whose work has transcended national frontiers, the prolonged campaigns for the abolition of slavery, or the story of the Red Cross or of the work of the Quaker or of international relief organizations. The impact of science on society should also be studied. We live in an age which grows ever more dependent on the work of scientists; and great numbers of children are passionately interested in the achievements of applied science. The story of medicine, of food, of transport, of industry—all these and many others open easy avenues to the study of science in the past. The biographical approach, too, can be naturally used here—provided the teacher takes care

to make clear the dependence of any scientific worker on the research and experiments of many others. The great scientists have come from many countries; nearly all scientific discoveries and inventions have been based directly or indirectly upon research conducted simultaneously in several countries, and their results have spread rapidly beyond national frontiers.

Thirdly, there must be room in the syllabus at this age-level for some special attention to significant events in man's struggle for tolerance and peace; for these children are old enough to begin to reflect upon the meaning of freedom of expression and upon the implications of persecution. There is only too much material available here, from the stories of Socrates right through to the twentieth century. In handling this material, two precautions must be observed. The teacher should not be content to describe the persecutions of the past; he should also show how, in innumerable lands, hatreds and rivalries have been overcome by reason and charity, and how creeds and racial groups which once were savagely intolerant now live together in harmony. Further, he must never leave the impression that this kind of hatred and intolerance is a thing of the past; the facts of twentieth century history are evidence to support the view that liberty can only be maintained by perpetual vigilance.

The treatment of war and peace in school can never be easy. Wars occupy a considerable space in recorded history; their effects have been immense; and they must be handled with the respect due to facts, neither minimized nor exaggerated. Moreover, boys in particular between 12 and 15 frankly enjoy 'drum and trumpet' history, with the glamour and excitement and heroism of battles. The glamour may be fading, especially in areas like modern Europe or China, where recent wars have involved so many families in personal loss and suffering, and where the sight of bomb-damaged ruins still makes appallingly evident the havoc which war must bring. The teacher's task here is to help children grasp why wars—civil wars as well as national or ideological ones—have broken out in the past; to describe the events of the war, heroism and brutality included, as clearly as he can; and to give an objective account of their results and effects. He must avoid propaganda. He must let history speak for itself, encourage children to draw their own conclusions, and not abuse his subject even to support ideas which he believes to be supremely important.

There is no doubt at all that children of this age should study the growth of international co-operation. International co-operation

is itself a fact of history; forms of it have long existed, and they are becoming more and more important in an increasingly interdependent world. Children need to learn about positive examples to understand that such co-operation grows out of needs recognized by peoples, and to be open-minded about having their own nation take part in the work of international agencies. Courses in history should provide a background to contemporary problems of internationalism, and should include information about both governmental and non-governmental organizations, such as the Boy Scouts, Red Cross, Postal Union, the World Court and the League of Nations. This teaching can then naturally and logically be extended to cover study of the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies. Clearly pupils of this age-range cannot understand the technical details of some of the modern problems which call for international agreement; yet they do in fact hear, either in adult conversation or through mass media of information, about the problems with which the United Nations are attempting to deal, and they are interested in them. Naturally the political activities of the United Nations will provide the majority of examples, but these should not be permitted to overshadow teaching about the Specialized Agencies, whose importance, character, and service to individual men should be made clear.

The range of methods employed in teaching children between 12 and 15 must be wide, for the younger children in this age-group are not very far removed from their initiation to history, whereas the ablest of those who are nearly 15 will be capable of quite advanced work. No doubt the technique suitable for 12-year-old children will be very similar to those used in teaching younger pupils, and it is on general grounds desirable that there should be no abrupt break here. The change to more advanced methods must be gradual, at any rate in its first stages. But a clear and decisive change must be made; and it must above all be a change impelled by the greater and more varied abilities and the stronger intellectual stamina which older children show. Children can now tackle longer and more complicated pieces of work; they can learn more, they are more capable of reasoned thought and have more sense of order; they can read more difficult books and begin to grasp some idea of the nature of historical evidence. The teacher must be conscious of the need to set tasks which are a real challenge, whether those tasks are individual or collective. This is not to say that his approach must now become formal and that he ought

to adopt a lecture-room technique. Nothing could be more disastrous, both to his own success as a teacher and to his hopes of stimulating his pupils to a lifelong interest in history. The need for active and co-operative methods is at least as strong as ever, and the possibility of controlled and planned activity is now higher than with small children; the need for lively and vivid methods and ample illustrative material remains; yet children as they grow older expect from their teachers a higher standard of performance.

The core of history teaching during these years will usually be the oral lesson, in which the teacher himself normally plays the most active part. This is so partly because time for history teaching is short, and partly because the oral lesson is for many reasons invaluable. Through it the teacher can awaken interest in a new topic and give a preliminary explanation; elucidate difficult historical problems; and give instruction in new techniques. It should not be a lecture from which the pupils are expected to take down notes. The most useful type of oral lesson is based upon the elaboration of facts by question and answer in class discussion. It should be used with caution, for it can only be effective when the members of the class have some knowledge, perhaps from their textbook, of the subject under discussion; and with children of 12 and 13 it should at first be used only sparingly, though it is undoubtedly of special value in clarifying difficult topics in class, particularly when it is combined with skilful use of the blackboard and preparation time. A new topic may be opened by a short introductory talk by the teacher, a few simple important headings being written on the blackboard as a reminder of the main points to be dealt with (as well as a second focus of interest, distinct from the teacher and his voice). Private reading by the pupils, during a lesson or at home, in their textbooks or in other sources, can follow this up and give them enough information to make them want more. The class discussion, consisting mainly of question and answer—questions and answers coming from both sides—can be rounded off by a note written on the blackboard as the discussion proceeds and copied by the class into their notebooks at the end of the lesson. This pattern is of course capable of innumerable variations. Some teachers prefer to send their pupils back to the texts a second time before they draw up any kind of note; others believe that the note should be taken down bit by bit as it is built up on the blackboard; others prefer to set some kind of original composition rather than use a note as the last stage of the process. Whatever the variation, this type of work is extremely useful, not least because the teacher can in the course

of discussion vary his demands on each child according to his ability, and because the final product is in a real sense the corporate work of the class.

But the type of oral lesson must depend on the immediate objective of the teacher. Sometimes that objective is the testing of his pupils' knowledge, a process which must be undertaken with fair regularity; here he will adopt some kind of oral test, perhaps by a series of straightforward questions asked—*not* in rotation—of members of the class, or perhaps by dividing the class into two teams and asking them questions alternately. Such oral testing is useful because it is a flexible procedure; questions can be of varying difficulty according to the abilities of particular children, and they can call for answers ranging from the purely factual to more considered, though elementary, judgements. It is a technique that stimulates activity as well as interest. Should the objective be the explanation of some obscure incident or difficult problem of the past the oral lesson may consist of reading two or three extracts from contemporary sources, commenting on them, and provoking a general discussion among the class on the topic, leading to some generally agreed conclusion about the matter under discussion. This can be done very effectively even with 13-year-olds when the topic chosen is controversial or exciting.

The justification of source work with children of this age is perhaps worth a brief digression here. Many teachers would strongly maintain that its value is very limited indeed. They say that the time available is bound to be very short, whereas much of the real merit of work on sources lies in the careful and thorough study of a number of related documents; further, the handling of sources is an adult technique and a highly specialized one, which the professional historian only acquires after a long process of training. There is much in this warning, and quite certainly we are wrong to expect children of 13 or 14 years of age to develop their critical powers by working on historical sources. Nevertheless, they deserve a high place in school history teaching; they give life, colour and reality to history, reminding children that it is concerned with real people; and they help satisfy the curiosity of children, who rightly ask 'how do we *know* about these things'? In some countries suitable source material—the tales of travellers, medieval chronicles, adventures of seamen and explorers, journals and autobiographies, or even appropriate extracts from legal documents and records of trials—is fairly readily available, and suitable collections of extracts are published for school use.

The term 'oral lesson' is slightly misleading; it sets up an artificial distinction between oral method and any other kind of method, whereas the real test of the teacher's skill and flexibility lies in his power to combine his oral teaching with the use of other methods and aids to method. For example, in many 'oral' lessons, notably those which are primarily expository in their aim, suitable illustrative material is required—maps, time-charts, models, etc., as well as a blackboard for drawing quick sketch-maps or diagrams, listing headings, or writing words which are hard to spell. A special example of this combination of oral work with other techniques occurs in connexion with the use of notes. Most teachers would agree that at some time between the ages of 12 and 15 the child ought to begin to learn how to make notes, and to keep an individual notebook. If he is going on to further school and college education, this technique will be invaluable to him; if he is not, it will be most useful for him to have acquired the skill of making quick clear summaries of detailed information upon particular topics. Children should be trained in history lessons to make notes, first by supplying in class discussion the material from which the teacher makes notes on the blackboard under headings he has himself written up; this composite note can then be copied into their own notebooks. Later, they should be taught to make notes in their own notebooks, carefully-chosen headings still being supplied by the teacher. It is highly important that the space allocated to each part of a note be strictly limited; equally important that children be encouraged to obtain material for the notes from as many sources as they can find, not merely from their class textbook. Two forms of note-work should normally be avoided; dictation by the teacher, either orally or via the blackboard, bringing monotony and passivity to the classroom; and the attempt to get pupils to take down the gist of the teacher's remarks while he is making them—a mistaken anticipation of an adult or an undergraduate technique.

Children's notebooks should also be illustrated by their own drawings, maps and annotated diagrams, and by pictures and photographs cut out of magazines and other sources. They should have space for time-charts and genealogical tables. Most important of all at this stage of development, there should be abundant room in them for the child to attempt a wide variety of written exercises. Between the ages of 12 and 15 their imaginations still roam free and untrammelled, and they should now have appreciably more literary mastery than they had when they were smaller. Textbooks, source-readings, collateral reading in libraries where available, and

the accumulated knowledge of the teacher should supply them with sufficient factual information; on this basis they should be frequently challenged to attempt imaginative description. Eyewitness accounts of important events in the past, articles for newspapers, descriptions such as might be broadcast on radio programmes—all these offer excellent opportunities, and no wise teacher will worry unduly about the element of anachronism contained in the titles. Vivid extracts from diaries of important or representative persons, short biographical sketches, letters, ballads, lively verse compositions and controversial dialogues are other suitable modes of expression.

Such work is predominantly individual, however much its writers are encouraged to read out good examples to other members of the class, or however much the class is encouraged to criticize bad ones. Many teachers of history will feel that they are only doing half their task by promoting the intellectual and imaginative progress of children as individuals; they believe that they serve the cause of international understanding more fully by planning and encouraging group work in the subject, so that members of the class may learn to co-operate as a team rather than to compete in open or implied rivalry. They will therefore seek to employ methods which carry to a rather higher level the kind of intellectual co-operation which was encouraged by the making of collective models by younger children. Such methods are not always easy to put into practice. They require careful planning, and cannot be readily improvised; and they are sometimes open to the objection that they do not make sufficiently equal demands on all the members of a class. Yet when successfully used, they can give immense satisfaction to children, in addition to opening varied gateways into the past.

Among such methods, dramatic work and puppetry have already been mentioned for the younger age-groups. They may be continued at this level, although it is likely that the average teacher will find that the length of the syllabus he has to cover will prevent him from giving much time to them and will leave them to the enthusiast, in whose hands dramatic work can continue to be a teaching technique of high value at quite an advanced level. Many are inclined to consider debates of greater value, since they offer scope, which drama does not, for full and free discussion of important controversial issues of the past. Debates should be conducted with all due formality, and when this is done they undoubtedly play a part in education for living in a democratic society. Whether

they really contribute much to the study of history in schools is another matter. A debate, for example, on the causes of the American Civil War, in which one side championed the Unionists and the other the Confederates, would undoubtedly ventilate the grievances of the two sections and help its hearers understand the causes of the outbreak of the war. But it is open to doubt whether it would contribute much to the development of attitudes of mind favourable to international understanding; for the purpose of debates, unlike the purpose of the historian, is not the establishment of truth but the conversion of majorities. Moreover, each side's store of arguments tends to run out distressingly quickly in classroom debates on historical topics.

Other group activities, falling under the general description of projects, deserve much less qualified commendation. They range widely in type. A class may be divided into five or six small groups, each of which takes a particular topic to be covered in the syllabus for the term; they spend several weeks finding out, in class and out, all they can about it; and at the end of that time each group delivers its report to the class, one child acting as chairman, another as lecturer, a third as blackboard artist, and all as a sort of expert panel to answer questions on their particular topic. Or the class may be set to produce within a given time—say two or three weeks—a group of newspapers ‘featuring’ some important event of the past and in addition offering other material describing contemporary affairs and social life. Or again pairs of pupils are set to produce a ‘book’ on some topic. A wide choice of topics is provided; one child does the writing, his partner the illustration. Or a class may take it upon itself to stage an historical exhibition, displaying charts, models, posters, maps, and specimens of written work. There are in fact a great many possibilities here, varying greatly from country to country, but all in their way combining both co-operative activity and the careful study of history.

At this stage of school life, organized visits become much more practicable, and are of high value because they carry the subject outside the walls of the classroom. The groups, however, must never be too large, and they must be given beforehand a brief talk on what they may expect to see, and what they must particularly look out for. If possible—especially with young children—they should be given a series of questions to which they will be expected to find out the answers during the course of the visit. Local and expert knowledge should be used as fully as possible; the archivist, for example, should be asked to talk about his treasures.

Generally speaking the choice of places to visit will be evident enough—early sites, museums, country mansions and town houses; but the teacher should try to strike some sort of balance, planning his visits according to his syllabus, and not neglecting buildings erected during fairly recent times if they are of historical importance. The planning of visits must be thorough, and though the teacher may find it much trouble, he may be richly rewarded, for sometimes a visit to the site of an old castle or to an ancient cathedral may unlock a child's imagination and open his mind to historical understanding as no amount of classroom teaching can do.

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY TO CHILDREN BETWEEN FIFTEEN AND EIGHTEEN YEARS OF AGE

The number of children whose school life continues beyond the age of 15 is a very small fraction of the total child population of the globe. In a few favoured areas compulsory schooling continues to the age of 15 or 16 or even 18, and embraces children of every degree of ability and from every kind of social background. Elsewhere the prolongation of school education depends either on the means and social status of parents or on the intellectual ability of the child. This second factor has become of increasing importance with the social changes of recent years, and in many parts of the world to-day there are clear signs that the idea of 'the career open to talent' is fast becoming a reality. Nevertheless any rapid or widespread expansion of educational facilities for children over 15 is, for economic reasons, unlikely in the near future, except in specially fortunate countries. Thus any observations about teaching such children are necessarily observations concerned with that small but important minority of any community to which belong the entrants to the universities and technical high schools, a great number of future civil servants, administrators, business executives and managers, future technical experts, scientists and teachers, writers and journalists.

Many of these students will be boys and girls whose intellectual gifts are above the average; by reason of their abilities as well as of their greater years, they are qualified to obtain from the study of history the maximum benefits which it can give, and the teacher of this age-level should constantly remind himself what those benefits may be. The student should be able to acquire through this extended period of historical education a more enlightened view of society as well as a deeper understanding of the background of contemporary problems seen in historical perspective. His potential contribution to the development of international under-

standing should be enlarged by a greater knowledge of the causes and consequences of past human conflicts; by a heightened ability to evaluate contemporary events and to judge between different ways of presenting current issues; by a wider appreciation of the growing interdependence of peoples in the modern world; and by a measure of experience in the practical necessity of free discussion in the search for truth, and of compromise in political action. These are high and idealistic aims; yet on their achievement depends the judgement and social purpose, the tolerance and respect for others which are essential in this age when enlightened citizenship has come to imply a world conscience and outlook. To their attainment the teacher must direct all his knowledge, skill, and experience.

What is the place of the teaching of history in the school work of children over 15? Nearly everywhere teachers regard history as a normal and essential part of the school programme for children under 15. In many countries this holds good for older students of the senior level of secondary schools, where history is regarded as a fundamental subject in the sense that all pupils customarily include it in their programmes. In some the continued study of history remains optional for the older student, with the result that many pupils over 15 do not study it in their final years at school. The main reason for this is that the need of detailed preparation for future careers is held to be paramount, especially for pupils whose bent is scientific or technical. There are others also, proceeding from the belief that for these relatively advanced pupils education should go deep rather than wide; and that from the age of 15 or 16 students gain more intellectual benefit from fairly specialized work in one or two subjects of their own choice than from the inevitably less detailed study of a broader course. In this case not only do future doctors and engineers cease to study history at the age of 15 or thereabouts; those whose gifts are linguistic or literary—and whose later careers are thus very likely to bring them into close contact with foreign countries—do likewise, except perhaps for a rather limited study of part of the history of that particular foreign country in whose language they are specializing.

This is an unfortunate state of affairs. It is surely a most mistaken policy to halt the study of history just at the time when children are becoming old enough to profit most by it. It was the ancient discipline of kings, princes, and aristocrats, called by right of descent to govern; it seems odd to deny its full advantages to those who are likely to be leading citizens in the democracies of the modern

world. The wide variations in national systems of education, as well as the demands of examinations, make it difficult to generalize on this topic; but it is essential that history should be given in all countries a fundamental place in the education of adolescents between 15 and 18.

The immediate aims of the teacher of history in these years can be briefly described, at any rate in so far as these are not determined by the examinations for entry to college or university or profession. His first concern will be to lead the ripening minds of his pupils towards a stronger and keener critical sense, making them more accustomed to scrutinize, more emphatic in their objectivity, and capable of forming independent views on the problems of the present as of the past. This aim will be to guide the growth of a wise and balanced judgement, able not merely to sift evidence but also to build it into a coherent argument. Pupils must now begin to analyse and interpret in addition to absorbing facts. For the first time they will be learning history which goes beyond an elementary and over-simplified outline; for the first time, too, they will come to the problem of understanding others from an almost adult point of view. The teacher must insist on scrupulous accuracy in dealing with factual information, and a great deal of hard work in assimilating details. Yet he will seek also to extend the cultural heritage of his pupils, relating their work frequently and directly to art, music and literature. He will want to spread the intellectual discipline of his subject, not by methods of his own but by encouraging the active participation and co-operation of his pupils to a much higher degree than this was possible with the previous age-group; for true citizenship, international as well as national, must rest upon self-reliance and upon independence of mind.

Pressure of examinations and the conditions imposed by national, provincial or municipal legislation combine to restrict syllabuses in history more severely at this age-level than at any earlier one. As a result, many teachers are more concerned with examining and criticizing the detailed content of their syllabus than with replacing it by some alternative period or topic. Perhaps the most important illustration of this trend is the demand that a very considerable place in the teaching of history at this level should be given to economic, social, cultural, and religious developments. These show the underlying reasons for the diversities between human groups; they reveal even more sharply the resemblances, reciprocal influences and growing interdependence of peoples, and enable us to become aware of mankind's common heritage; and they

provide an opportunity, so far as the facts allow, for stressing man's constructive efforts. All this is no doubt true; yet it should not be permitted to imply neglect of political, diplomatic and military history. For it would be quite wrong to leave pupils in ignorance of the importance of political factors. If we broaden our teaching, combining political, social, economic, and cultural history, and begin to use individual and social psychology to explain the material and human factors involved, we have reason to believe that we are taking some steps nearer the truth.

The teacher's task in handling subject-matter at this advanced level should surely be to try to interweave the various threads—social, political, and the rest—that go to make up the complex pattern of a human society at a given time. For example, his account of the causes of the French Revolution of 1789 must be as complete as possible. Bad social conditions did not automatically provoke the revolution; in fact, the evidence is that French peasants were better off than those in most of the rest of Europe. We must teach our pupils the costs of the court at Versailles, the suppressed position of the French farmer, the effect of world commerce upon the power of the merchants, the growth of the influence of the lawyers. But we must give them, in addition, some account of the ideas of Montesquieu and Rousseau, Voltaire and the Encyclopaedists. There will often be occasions when it is desirable to analyse and classify historical phenomena as economic, political, and so on, and to make a special study of them. But in general it is desirable that the broad picture of a past epoch which is given to young students should be as nearly as possible a whole.

All over the world, history teaching even at this level is planned so as to give considerable space to national history. It has already been indicated how, with younger pupils, the teaching of national history can and should be used as an excellent means of explaining the historical interdependence of nations and civilizations. The additional detail possible in more advanced work gives a greater opportunity of presenting a more balanced picture because it is more complex; the simplification of historical events and movements which is a major source of distortion and bias is a lesser peril here. A relatively short period of national history may be selected for special study, which, from the international point of view, is advantageous. It helps the young student to obtain a more precise impression of how national policy is formed, because he can examine in detail crises in the relations between his own and other countries; again, it enables him to read different versions of the same series

of events, and he may be able to discover how conceptions of history have been distorted or deliberately falsified by the bias of his own country as well as by that of others—particularly if he is encouraged to read books written by historians of other countries as well. Here, as throughout the entire range of history teaching, the major factor in the development of international understanding is of course the spirit which pervades the teaching.

Many teachers would maintain that, if national history is taught at this level, it must be studied in as close conjunction as possible with world history. So far as the normal organization of school studies permits, and wherever the past of the country makes this possible (it is obviously not possible where the development of national history is little related to world events), national history should be studied at the same time as world history and within the framework of the latter. The adolescent will thus be able to see that at all ages his own country has found its own answers to problems that were not peculiar to one country. He may hope to understand that his country is part of a vaster community, and learn to reconcile a legitimate attachment to it with a sense of human community in a wider world.

Yet, however wisely national history is handled, it is most regrettable if these older pupils do not carry the range of their studies beyond their own frontiers, in view of the fact that they will undoubtedly have covered the history of their own country at least once and in fair detail during their earlier years at school. For these pupils are boys and girls of relatively high average ability, some of them outstanding; and they are reaching the years when they become alert to public affairs and profoundly susceptible to the influences exerted by press, radio and other mass media of information. Rightly encouraged, they are avid for detailed information about current affairs and the contemporary world; and to prepare themselves to fulfil the responsibilities which will shortly fall upon them as citizens of democratic societies, they need to develop an intelligent judgement. Information and judgement alike can come to them in rich measure from a study of the past. Yet it must be study which, so far as is possible in the time allotted to the subject, goes both wide and deep—wide in the sense that it takes the student out of his own age and his own country, deep in that it offers material which is sufficiently detailed to draw him beyond the superficial and the descriptive and compel him to analyse and weigh the evidence. The following tentative suggestions of suitable subject-matter are offered in the light of these needs.

The most obvious possibility is a course in world history. Those who teach at this age-level should themselves, one assumes, be sufficiently widely read to be able to devise and conduct such a course, and their students ought now to be mature enough to profit by it. But great care should be taken in planning the course in detail; it must not become a mere succession of disconnected facts, a kind of gigantic chronicle, nor a 'meaningless juxtaposition of national histories. Neither must it swing to the other extreme and become a pattern dictated by some preconceived philosophy.

World history, it is suggested, should be taught in all countries and taught in the way best adapted to the school system of each country; yet so much attention should not be focused on the contemporary achievement of the homeland that its children grow up assuming that their own country represents the climax of human evolution. It must give all peoples a place which is in proportion to their world importance and to their contributions to world civilization. More generally, the significance accorded to the different peoples in the story should depend not only on the extent of their territories, their wealth, or the power of their armies, but as well on the cultural and material contribution they made to the common heritage of mankind. Finally, it is vital that the course should be so planned that pupils have real opportunity of detailed investigation of particular problems or periods; this will mean, in practice, that the course must be in progress over a considerable period of school time, preferably over at least two successive years of the three between 15 and 18.

Recommendations of this kind will not be easy to carry out in practice. The choice of subject-matter throws a heavy responsibility on the teacher, however erudite or internationally-minded he may be. It is easy to suggest that in the story of classical Greece, for example, most attention should be paid to political life within the city-states, and to philosophy, art, and literature, because it is through these things that the Greeks have most influenced the later development of mankind; that in Roman history, on the other hand, the growth of the empire and the evolution of the *Pax Romana* and of Roman law deserve most space. It is not so simple to know where to lay the emphasis in dealing with the nineteenth century; how to strike a balance between, say, the Napoleonic wars and their after-effects, the expansion of Russia and the United States, the great advances in industry and communications, the struggle to establish nation-States and constitutional government, and the growth of international co-operation in various fields.

One other question connected with the teaching of world history deserves special mention here. Respect for truth and concern for understanding between peoples require that an important place in world history should be given to the study of the great religions. The specific fact of religion must be respected and clarified. Without ignoring the social and economic forces which have encouraged the growth of a faith or helped to modify its content, the inner experience of the founder or reformer of a religion, together with its essential doctrines, must be taught. Religions should rather be shown as they are, in doctrine and social impact as well as in ethical content, for such knowledge can make a much-needed contribution to better understanding between peoples.

A second type of course which is pre-eminently suitable for pupils of this age is the detailed study of one or two historical periods of intensive change, such as Alexander's conquest and the expansion of Hellenism, the rise and breakdown of the Roman empire, the spread of Islam in Africa, Europe and Asia, the era of the Renaissance and the Discoveries in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the American and French Revolutions, the Napoleonic epoch, the Industrial Revolution, the era of liberation in Latin America in the early nineteenth century, the struggle for independence in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in Asia, and the Russian Revolution. The study of these periods demands high accuracy, and offers vivid interest in return. In some ways the most difficult of all periods to understand, and subject to the most diverse interpretations by scholars and propagandists alike, they yet present to the enquiring mind of the young student many avenues of approach and a multitude of lessons to stimulate his thought and fortify his judgement.

A third possible course, more pedestrian and less ambitious than either of the two already mentioned, is the study of modern history since the late eighteenth century. Emphasis on recent history must not of course be held to suggest that periods remote in time from the present are necessarily irrelevant to the modern age; this would be an unhistorical judgement, and many historians would claim that certain remote epochs offer much that is of practical value to the citizen of the present day; Greece, they say, can teach us much of the strength and weaknesses of a democracy, Rome the problems of a world-State, and medieval Europe the organization of communal institutions. Yet there is much to be said for encouraging a thorough and detailed study of the last 150 or 200 years. The changes that have taken place in those years dominate

the lives of all mankind today, for they have set the pattern of our world. The developments of the greater powers during this period offer a fruitful field for comparative work of a kind peculiarly valuable to young students. Particular benefits which should emerge from such a course are a more rational grasp of and attitude towards some of the major controversial questions of modern politics, and a firmer understanding of nationalism and other creative forces of the modern world. Pupils may come to see, for example, how readily violent conflict may arise when attempts are made to impose an alien way of life on a particular people or group, or to interfere with the free choice by every people of their own form of government; or begin to appreciate the deep roots and alarming complexities of minority problems in the modern world; or learn to look at the present struggles for freedom of colonial peoples in the light of the struggles of American and European peoples for independence in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

Such reflections lead naturally to a fourth—and much more debatable—type of course for pupils over 15, namely contemporary history or current affairs. The existence of the two alternative names is in itself an indication of the conflict of opinion about the teaching in schools of current world problems and their recent background in history. Some historians and teachers oppose it strongly. They maintain that teachers and students alike are too close to the events dealt with, too likely to be drawn into partisanship by emotional sympathies or economic interest, to be able to treat them in the objective spirit essential to the true student of history. They add further that the evidence available on current problems is incomplete, and that so often much of it is one-sided; the history of the present is not scientific, for it is not susceptible of proof. Such subject-matter cannot properly be treated historically, and it should therefore not be permitted to masquerade in school syllabuses under the name of 'contemporary history'. On the other side, the advocates of this type of school course retort by asking exactly where 'history' stops and 'current affairs' begin, and by pointing out that there is no good reason to suppose that the evidence on any historical topic is in fact complete. More positively, they maintain that it is extremely illogical to champion the merits of history as a training for public affairs and then to refuse to apply its principles to the study of present-day problems; that modern adolescents are shrewd enough to see this illogicality and that they are passionately interested in current problems. If this interest is not catered for in school, it will find satisfaction out of school,

and find it in sources like the press and the radio which are not always disinterested. It is surely far better that the teacher should accept the responsibility, and that he should seek to apply in his teaching about the contemporary world the devotion to objectivity which is the first fruit of his own training as an historian.

There are perils in both paths. To refuse to teach about current problems is to leave the minds of the adolescents open to other guides, some harmful, many suspect; to teach about them is to run all the risks attendant on the introduction of current controversies into the classroom. Some would compromise by saying that these things must be taught in schools, preferably by the historian, but that they must not be called 'history'; instead they should be a separate subject called 'current affairs', or 'civics', kept quite distinct from history.¹

Others, perhaps more wisely, think that the difference in nomenclature does not matter very much, and that the decisive factors for the teacher must be, first, the desire of his pupils to understand contemporary affairs, and, second, his own confidence in his ability to teach about them objectively. If these two factors are present, then the teacher should introduce a course in contemporary history—provided always that he realizes that in any community there may be certain issues about which opinion runs so strongly that it would be highly injudicious to introduce them in the classroom. Within these limits, contemporary history has many advantages. The ready interest of many children of this age in public affairs provides an excellent foundation for the work; there is normally no shortage of teaching material; opportunities for critical investigation are frequent, e.g., in the comparison of rival newspaper articles on the same episode, or in the detection of bias in supposedly objective accounts and the tracing of its source. The techniques employed in the study will very often be much the same as those employed in the study of the controversies of a past age. But the teacher should take care to point out, perhaps by way of introduction to the course, the ways in which such work differs from strictly historical study; and when a topic arises about which the evidence is notably defective, he may decide that this topic cannot be discussed for lack of data, and say so—which is in itself a good piece of education.

The experienced teacher of young people over 15 who reflects

¹ Though civics strictly implies a special attention to the structure and functioning of government, local and national, and 'current affairs' can properly be only a branch of it.

on the problems of method may well conclude that it is as dangerous as it is easy to be dogmatic about the best sort of approach. So many methods are in use, ranging from a rigid adherence to the formal lecture to the generous encouragement of browsing, from elaborate techniques of group investigation to intensive individual essay and notebook work; so many factors govern the situation facing the teacher—the precise requirements of examination boards, the size of his classes, the home backgrounds of his pupils, and many others. The criteria by which successful teaching is measured vary widely at this level. One teacher wants his pupils to go out into the world full of factual knowledge and well-informed on the questions of the day; another is less concerned about the range of his pupils' knowledge, much more about their ability to think straight; some see the main purpose of education after the age of 15 as the production of sufficient civil servants and administrators and executives for business and commerce, others regard senior high school as merely a preliminary to college. All these things react, directly or indirectly, upon the teacher's attitude towards his subject as well as towards his pupils, and affect the methods he employs in class.

There is no doubt at all that the most important single factor in method at this level is the personality of the teacher. Where classes are in general smaller and often quite small, and relationship between teacher and taught is necessarily more intimate, much depends on the teacher—his attitude, his outlook, and his tastes. Merely by his example, independently of any specific techniques, he can do a great deal to foster an historical outlook and the spirit of international understanding.

Of the various separate methods appropriate to students of this age, the formal lecture is probably still the one in most widespread use. Some teachers would maintain, however, that it has no proper place in schools and that the pupil should not meet it until he goes to a university. This may be too strong a condemnation; for the orderly introduction of new topics or for the exposition of complicated historical problems, it is a useful working tool with senior pupils. But it must be used with caution and not too often—certainly not, for example, in a majority of the history lessons in any one week; and it should never be used without pupils being given adequate time to ask questions at the end. With pupils at the lower end of this age-range it should, of course, be used very sparingly. Furthermore, all lectures for school children should be very carefully constructed; their delivery should be prefaced

by a clear statement of the objectives of the lecture and of the plan which the lecturer proposes to follow. For 15 and 16-year-old pupils, if not for older ones, this plan should be written on the blackboard before the lecture. As for note-taking, it is as wrong for the teacher to expect pupils to take down all he has to say as it would be to forbid them to take any notes at all; and he can do much to simplify their note-taking and to sharpen the impact of his lecture by issuing duplicated summaries, giving the headings and the main points of his argument, to which his audience can add detail as the lecture continues.

Class discussions must play a most important part in work at this level. These will be varied and flexible, yet in all of them the pupils, either individually or in groups, should contribute to the resultant of the lesson. Sometimes the teacher will introduce a topic by putting forward two or three provocative questions or statements; sometimes a member of the class will do so by giving a short talk or reading a paper, or a group will give a series of brief reports on some subject which its members have been given to investigate; or a 'panel' discussion may take place, in which three or four pupils conduct in front of the class a discussion prepared in advance, to be followed by a general discussion of the topic. In the discussions themselves every member of the class should be encouraged to participate freely. This discussion technique can be most successful in stimulating thought, in giving confidence, and in leading the class to balanced conclusions based upon consideration of widely-differing points of view. But the teacher must handle it with great care. He must check irrelevance and discourage vagueness; and he must make his pupils justify their opinions as well as express them. Most vital of all, he should take care that, wherever it is possible, discussion should be based on knowledge and information of the subject, secured by some preparatory reading. The discussion itself will of course confirm and enlarge that knowledge. Without the knowledge, it will be barren and possibly dangerous; for speculation without evidence is an unhistorical technique which can become an intellectual vice.

Pupils should be encouraged to acquire habits of independent study, enquiry, and thought. To develop these powers they must know how to read intelligently, and they must be given frequent opportunity of doing so in textbooks, books of reference, the more accurate biographies and the simpler monographs, historical novels and other ancillary reading. They must be taught to evaluate the worth of material; to understand, for example, the significance of

an author's background and reputation, and his purpose in writing, and to question the truth of his statements and to find evidence to show whether he is accurate or biased. They must become accustomed to forming their own opinions by reading different textbooks which present varying interpretations of the same theme.¹ They should be given advice on when to read fast, when to read slowly, where and how to take notes from a particular book. They should be encouraged to make full use of the facilities of local public libraries as well as of their own school library, and to read foreign books (usually of course in translation). Gradually, when reading interests are established and skill in finding materials developed, pupils of this age-level should be able to find and use books without much supervision.

At this age-level rather fuller use may be made of source-material. Pupils are now capable of reading quite elaborate original extracts; they should be set to study these with care, and it is a useful exercise, promoting skill and judgement, for them to answer specific questions, testing their comprehension. Further, students should be encouraged to read fairly extensively in contemporary materials like diaries and journals when these are accessible; and the abler of them at least should read some contemporary novels which—as, for example, in connexion with France, England or Russia during the nineteenth century—can do so much to illuminate the social customs and attitudes of mind of an historical period.

A good deal of written work should be attempted, in the shape of essays intended to stimulate the student's critical ability and to compel him to formulate and express his knowledge and ideas. Essay-writing is an exercise of high value; it teaches the student to be relevant and accurate, to distinguish between the significant and the trivial, to be tidy-minded, arranging his material in an orderly manner. It trains his mind; he must come to clear and definite conclusions, and know and explain cogently why he has done so. Yet to reap the full intellectual benefit from essay-writing, the student must be trained to it slowly, not confronted at once with topics designed to test his critical ability. His early essays, at 15 or thereabouts, should be predominantly descriptive, and he should be carefully guided and advised in the planning of his answers; only gradually should he be set questions of more reflective

¹ One participant at Sèvres described an experiment in which a senior class was split into groups each group studying the account of the partition of Africa in the nineteenth century as related by the historians of one of the main occupying powers. The group reports, with their widely-differing interpretations of the same historical facts, made a great impression on the class.

or critical type. Some essays should be small-scale pieces of research designed to encourage the use of detailed reference books; most should be shorter, done in a definite and limited period of time, usually without reference to texts or other books. In this way they become effective tests of the student's progress and are thus especially valuable to the teacher. It is a useful practice to have students read their essays to the class, and to get other members of the class to criticize them. Finally, the teacher does well to take special care about the correction of essays at this level, and regularly to spend time checking them through with individual students.

The notebook is an important element in the work of the advanced student. He should be encouraged to keep it neat and orderly, yet as something which is very much his own responsibility. The most useful type of notebook is a looseleaf one, or perhaps a file, in which notes taken during lessons can be co-ordinated with those summarizing the textbook or those on passages from more specialized books; and with maps, tables, and the like. The kind of editing involved in this process is of real educational value, especially if it involves the construction of a detailed table of contents and lists of cross-references.

So far this consideration of methods has been limited to the classroom. But some of the most valuable work of the history teacher is done outside the classroom. Something has been said already of the use which the teacher of history may make of films, radio, and allied techniques. Here it may be useful to indicate the role of various school societies in the teaching of history and in the promotion of international understanding. The strictly historical society, whose sole purpose is to further the study of history, can do a great deal to stimulate the critical powers and widen the intellectual horizons of its members. They read papers on historical subjects and have them criticized by their fellows; they listen to lectures and talks by outstanding visitors, usually though not invariably historians; they visit sites of historical interest, attend debates of their national legislature, or visit collections of archives. Sometimes, they may take part in the digging of an archaeological 'find'; often they produce a magazine or bulletin of their own. In short they are a kind of junior learned society, offering an activity of considerable value to students between 15 and 18. On a wider basis, there are such organizations as current affairs clubs, UN societies and Unesco clubs, international relations societies and the like, which study and discuss current problems. Membership of these is normally voluntary; naturally they tend to attract pupils

who are interested in history, and although they are usually—and rightly—run by the students themselves, they very often come under the general guidance of a member of the history staff. Their value varies greatly, and much depends on the environment of the school—including the attitude of parents towards public and international affairs—and on the enthusiasm of the teacher responsible; but at their best they do good service in creating an active interest in national and world problems.

Exchange of pupils with foreign countries, or the sending of parties abroad, customarily falls more often within the province of the teacher of modern languages than within that of the historian. Yet the latter should assuredly do all he can to encourage his pupils to take part in schemes of this sort; the benefits to be gained from them are complementary to those to be gained from the study of history, and are obviously of direct relevance to all efforts he is making to promote international understanding. There is one somewhat similar matter in which the teacher of history has perhaps a special responsibility. It is little use delivering high-sounding sentiments on the virtues of internationalism if pupils are not also encouraged to adopt a friendly attitude towards any minorities—racial or religious—with whom they come in daily contact. The teacher of history can do much to give this encouragement, attacking the tendency to form fixed judgements about the characteristics of different racial, religious, and national groups, and the related tendency to identify whole peoples with the policy of a government or a ruling class. Hostility towards a particular minority may well reflect parental influence; and associations in which parents and teachers can meet and talk together can provide valuable help in this connexion—as well as in mitigating that clash of values which can so easily develop between the world of the school and the society in which the pupil of this age lives. To activities of this kind the teacher of history can rightly give his support.

CHAPTER VII

THE TEACHER OF HISTORY

Clearly there neither can nor ought to be any uniform system of training history teachers. Nevertheless, all teachers of history have much in common and should have more in common as the trend towards education for living in a world community continues.

ACADEMIC PREPARATION OF THE TEACHER

By academic preparation of the teacher, we mean his study of history and allied subjects in school, university and training colleges.

The preparation of the elementary school teacher is of special importance because most children receive only elementary schooling. The needs in different countries necessarily vary greatly but there is no doubt that the standards required of all such teachers should be gradually and systematically raised. Their qualifications should include a basic knowledge of the cultural history of mankind in addition to national and local history. Whatever the age of his pupils every teacher should also acquire a good background knowledge of the trends in recent history, of international relationships of today, of the United Nations Organization and its Specialized Agencies.

The academic preparation of teachers for the higher grades of secondary schools is usually given at universities. In addition to a thorough knowledge of his special subject, the teacher's studies should include social sciences and the humanities. He should be acquainted with the methods of historical research through the use of documentary sources, and should have some experience in independent research work.

Many of the men and women who teach the subject in the lower classes of secondary schools (i.e. to children between the ages of

12 and 15) come from training colleges. Some countries train teachers for primary schools and for secondary schools in separate colleges, others provide joint training. Two differences, however, usually distinguish the preparation of teachers in training colleges from that given in universities: the students' education is continued at a level which is nearer to that of the highest classes of secondary schools than to a university; and a greater proportion of the total time is devoted to professional training, for even academic subjects are taught with a professional orientation.

The training college students look at their curriculum with a vocational eye. Nevertheless their academic preparation and professional training ought not to be confused or treated as one; their historical training should be widened. The prospective teacher should be encouraged to select for specialization either some period of history outside that of his own country or a period which can only be properly studied by taking into account wide international aspects. He should study important works of historians of his own and other countries. All students in training should be given an introduction to the general cultural history of mankind, the rich and diverse heritage of which every man in every country can say 'this is mine' and none can add 'because I made it'.

Many teachers of history have to teach additional subjects such as geography, modern languages, social studies and civics. The system of teaching two subjects greatly helps towards complementary treatment which is of benefit to a comprehensive understanding of both subjects. But every history teacher should widen his historical vision by acquiring some basic knowledge of such subjects as modern languages, history of philosophy, history of literature and geography.

It is essential, too, that he should be introduced to such social sciences as political science, economics, cultural anthropology, sociology and psychology. Opinions differ as to whether this can or should be done through separate courses, or through one or more synthesized courses; the limited time available in the training colleges, of course, is an important factor in the decision. Without some introduction to these subjects, the history teacher is quite likely to perpetuate, unwillingly, outmoded social concepts, or uncritically repeat assumptions and theories that are in dispute among serious students. The studies issued by Unesco on aspects of race may be cited as examples of modern social science which should be known by all history teachers. Further, it should be noted that history teachers may be called on to teach new courses

in social studies, or the older type of course in civics, for which he needs a basic training in social sciences.

All teachers of history or civics should study international organizations and the development of international relations during their training. International organizations should be studied in the light of their historical evolution, the attempts of men from early times to co-operate with each other in preserving peace and in helping each other and themselves by common effort.

Everything possible should be done to enable teachers to have a clear and practical understanding of the various existing international agencies and of the ways in which they work. They should be given opportunities of first-hand study of the working of these organizations, for example through contact with Unesco National Commissions and by visits, excursions, lectures, seminars and the like. Scholarships for this would be of great value.

THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The professional training of teachers is concerned with the art and technique of teaching, with the teacher's ability to pass on to his pupils according to their needs and capacities what he has learned.

The elementary teacher needs a thorough understanding of the growth and development of the child and a knowledge of the principles of learning. There should be consideration of the emotional aspects of a child's development, and of the ways in which children form attitudes towards others. The impact upon children of the various forces and agencies such as press, cinema, radio should be explored systematically so that practical implications can be drawn for the improvement of teaching.

Special attention should be given to the fact that the teacher is a multipurpose teacher often working in 'one-teacher schools' where children at various ages have to be taught several subjects into which history has to be woven. Practical methods of integrating the teaching of history in the other school subjects will therefore play a dominant role in early elementary instruction. Active methods and techniques should be studied and attention be given to the improvement of community resources, to audio-visual devices and to the most effective use of textbooks. The future history teacher should also learn how to encourage children to identify themselves with the ways of living of other peoples through dramatic representations, arts, music, literature, rhythmic expression, construction

of objects, and modelling of materials, typical of the people which they study in the history lesson.

Since a clear conception of co-operation is an essential element in international understanding, history teachers in elementary and secondary schools should be prepared to teach effectively about co-operation in the local community, in the nation and the world. Since children must have open minds if they are to develop world understanding, techniques for developing open-mindedness should be considered in teacher-training courses and applied in student teaching. These will involve emphasis upon the growth of self-control in controversial situations, upon curiosity about all points of view and tolerance of the points of view of others, and upon willingness to change one's own opinions and beliefs on the basis of facts. More attention should be paid to the ways in which children can be taught to think critically; here the stress should be upon defining and clarifying problems, securing and appraising information, verifying evidence, and forming conclusions on the basis of facts. Teaching loyalty to family, local community and country, should receive special treatment. An open-minded conception of loyalty is needed, whereby the growing child develops an understanding of the relationship between his family and other families, his community and other communities, his nation and other nations, thus comprehending interdependence and common purposes as elements of loyalty.

Teachers in training should, of course, learn some of the well established techniques of teaching. They should be warned against the use of drab exercises in memorization, such as long lists of dates, and the employment of materials like time-charts before children are old enough to benefit from them. They should realize the uselessness in the classroom of mere lecturing with little or no discussion or active participation by the pupils. They should learn the proper use of teaching aids. Above all, the teacher should learn how to use his main tool, the history textbook, effectively. A comparative study of textbooks will give him an idea of how to select and arrange historical material best; how to set graded questions and problems, so as to stimulate active methods of learning. A comparative study of history textbooks of different countries will enable him to gain a wider perspective for the evaluation of historical events and give him some indication where textbooks need improvement as a means of teaching about international understanding.

Special consideration should be given to training future teachers in the use of audio-visual devices. They should receive expert

training in their technical handling, in selecting them within the framework of the syllabus, their proper pedagogical evaluation, in methods which assure their effective use.

Much that was said about professional training of primary teachers holds good for the training of teachers in the junior classes of secondary schools. This generally includes both theoretical courses to be given at university level or training colleges and practical training in schools. But training in teaching methods and techniques and a knowledge of child psychology is not enough for the history teacher. More than this is necessary, for these cannot be truly effective until they are brought into vital relation with the historical material to be taught. For this reason the work done by students must include discussion of the scope of history and of the spirit in which it should be taught. Whereas what can be taught is fundamentally a psychological question involving knowledge of children, what ought to be taught can only be decided by the nature and aim of historical study; and students in training must therefore be led to reflect upon the kind of knowledge historical studies impart and the discipline that they impose, upon the nature of historical truth and upon the relation of such concepts as freedom, the dignity of man, equality and brotherhood to historical evolution. Such reflections should be related to the consideration of the various techniques and methods which will best give meaning to the material to be presented. Finally, it is essential that all training colleges should provide students with abundant opportunities of practice teaching under the guidance of skilled teachers and observers.

The new material which is involved in a wider approach to history will bring its own difficulties to the child, and the teacher should learn to handle them. This is notably true, for example, in the handling of current world affairs. The material chosen for study should be integrated with the history already taught or being taught. The evidence should be examined, its soundness tested, further information sought, and both sides of the question discussed. Teachers require careful training in how to carry out such discussions objectively and dispassionately, avoiding the creation of prejudice against other communities. They must also be taught how to examine the origin of prejudice and propaganda and how to perceive the ways in which these penetrate the mind and give rise to international misunderstandings; for no clear thinking or objectivity is possible without such knowledge.

Responsibility for carrying out the kind of training outlined here must rest primarily with lecturers in training colleges and the

education departments of universities. Student-teachers in training can learn from a good instructor a vast deal of pedagogical wisdom, as well as much practical experience. The instructors must themselves be men and women of wide teaching experience and it is essential that they have broad human understanding as well as a sound academic knowledge of history and a sure and up-to-date grasp of the techniques of teaching it.* Much will depend upon the spirit in which they approach their task. Ready encouragement of frequent foreign contacts will give their students the habit of thinking internationally about education and its problems. Their balanced emphasis on the contribution which history can make to international understanding, and their careful explanation of the difficulties which are bound to arise in teaching the kind of history appropriate to the modern world, can set future teachers on the right road from the start. The lecturer or instructor needs, perhaps even more than the teacher in the schools, the critical mind, the sympathetic understanding of other ages and other peoples; and the concept of history as the common study of all mankind.

A word should be said about the professional training of teachers of the higher classes of secondary schools. Practice varies profoundly from country to country. In some countries, all teachers at all levels of secondary schools are required to take courses of professional training. Elsewhere, the teacher of higher classes—and even of lower classes in some schools—may be appointed solely on the basis of his academic training, without any requirement that he be professionally trained.

It is sufficient to observe here that, at the Sèvres seminar, the view was generally supported that professional training in the theory and techniques of this profession, and in underlying sciences such as psychology, would be of benefit to all teachers at all levels of the schools.

CONTINUED EDUCATION OF TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Methods of teaching are nowadays the subject of constant experiment and adaptation, owing in part to the rapid development of audio-visual aids, to the numerous discoveries being made through educational and psychological research, and to the acceleration of social changes. Thus, it is more than ever necessary that a teacher be as well informed in the scientific field as in his technique as a pedagogue, if he is to keep abreast of constantly changing conditions

both inside and outside the classroom. Throughout his career, the teacher must improve his background and training by ceaseless personal effort.

Most teachers in service have had no training in the use of audio-visual devices; and it is suggested that suitable instruction in their effective use be given to teachers in urban areas during summer school courses at teacher training colleges, or as part of 'in-service' training programmes. Teachers who serve in more isolated areas might receive comparable instruction during workshop meetings lasting for a period of two or three days each year; or they may be reached by well-equipped mobile units for instruction and demonstration. The ministries of education in some countries may consider the possibility of appointing audio-visual supervisors whose responsibility would be to travel from centre to centre in order to advise teachers and teachers in training on audio-visual devices and the latest techniques for using them. Such supervisors should be well acquainted with the proper place of audio-visual aids in education, particularly in the teaching of history, and not be merely experts in their particular technical field.

But to accomplish this constant task, the teacher should be assured of: a sufficient stipend, so that he may be able to buy books and subscribe to magazines; a reasonable time-table, or teaching load, so that he may have free time for further study; a store of documentary information at his disposal that is both accurate and easily available.

Collections of foreign textbooks and standard histories by foreign authors should be readily available; he will then be able to observe the progress of history teaching in other countries and keep himself informed of the views and findings of foreign historians. Secondary schools should subscribe to the major historical reviews, which usually contain bibliographies of international scope. Associations of history teachers should be formed within each country, and should publish a bulletin containing articles, reports and symposia on problems of history teaching as well as an annotated historical bibliography. Objective documentation on current affairs and the activities of international organizations should be made readily available to history teachers; and photographic documentation should be provided in quantity for use in both primary and secondary teaching.

The refresher course, or its equivalent, is of very great value in reviving the intellectual curiosity of the teacher and in reaffirming his educational faith. He should be encouraged and given every

opportunity to attend local, regional and national conferences and seminars, and to take part in discussions about textbooks and audio-visual methods in use in his own and in other countries. Demonstrations of new and effective teaching techniques, which would include visits to outstanding educational institutions; advice from expert inspectors; conducted visits to buildings and sites of historical interest; classroom experiments in method, with the subsequent pooling of results on a local or national basis; active membership of professional or historical organizations—all these should be open to the teacher of history, and should in fact be normal and regular features of his career rather than, as many of them are at present even in the more advanced countries, unusual and special occasions.

An important feature of the history teacher's continued education is to have contacts with the world outside his own country. For the vast majority of children who do not learn a foreign language the teacher of history must carry a special responsibility of interpreting the world beyond their national frontiers; and it is a responsibility which will increase the wider and the more international man's view of the past becomes. It is therefore essential that the history teacher should learn to examine the history of his own country 'from the outside', from the outsider's point of view, and that he be encouraged to examine the history of at least one other country 'from the inside.' It is this first step outside one's own frontier of thought and feeling which is decisive, for once a man knows that there is another point of view, he is ready to believe that there are many other points of view.

It is universally recognized that residence and study abroad are desirable for the teacher of a foreign language. There is a parallel but less widely recognized need for the teacher and student of history, who would benefit not only from a general acquaintance with the life of a foreign country but also from contact with those who write and teach and study its history.

The easiest contacts to arrange, and in some ways the most natural, are those with neighbouring countries. It is less easy, but of at least equal importance to arrange fruitful opportunities, of sufficient duration, for Western students to reside in the East; the reverse arrangement has long been relatively normal. There are various ways in which students and teachers of different lands might meet for relatively long periods, with the object of improving understanding between cultural neighbours and cultural strangers.

There should for example be an intensified programme of inter-

national visits and exchanges between the staffs of teachers' training colleges. The emphasis should be placed on exchanges, which in general are likely to prove more successful than visits; and the minimum duration of an exchange should be one complete term. International travel and study for post-graduate students should also be extended. Certain countries, notably Great Britain, France, and the United States, attract a great number, including future teachers of history; and it is possible that certain Eastern universities might consider jointly with the West the establishment of specific post-graduate courses or special institutes for Western students.

Among practising teachers, the system of exchange of junior assistants has done much in some countries to improve the teaching of modern languages; and it might be extended with advantage to the field of history teaching. In principle, the exchange of teachers of history is the major solution of the whole problem under discussion. It should be greatly extended and developed, but it must be emphasized that teachers who take advantage of programmes for foreign study and travel abroad should be at no subsequent disadvantage in their professional career as regards employment, standing, promotion, or pay.

CONCLUSION

Full and thorough academic preparation and professional training are essential for the teacher of history in the modern world. But training alone will not make a good teacher, and will not inspire him with the passion to promote international understanding. The raw material of history is humanity itself, and the man or woman who would interpret it to children should possess the finest of human qualities.

The history teacher must be a person of wide culture. He should be well read, and there can be no doubt that as a messenger of man's cultural inheritance he should be familiar with the great works of the world's literature and he should know something about the works of writers of today. If he is interested in the arts, if he writes or paints or plays a musical instrument, he is a person potentially more alert to international sympathies. If he has done even a little research in his own subject—helped to throw a little light on some obscure topic of local history, or dug a prehistoric site—he is as a teacher potentially more capable of communicating to pupils a living sense of what history is about. These things,

small facets of his experience, are invaluable to him. Some critics of the teaching profession would go further and say that teachers need a wider experience of life than they usually get before they begin their professional career; that they ought to spend a year or two in some other occupation before they presume to prepare children for life. This criticism is hard to answer, yet harder to translate into practice in terms of a world where specialization of employment is an increasing necessity. If its argument is valid, it applies with peculiar cogency to the teacher of history whose subject is the collective experience of man.¹

The teacher of history must be devoted to truth, and be known to be devoted to it; scrupulous in his accuracy, critical in handling detailed evidence, yet never unwilling to admit ignorance. These are the virtues of his historian's training, and like all virtues they are better learned from example than from precept. Yet he should never be afraid of enthusiasm for noble causes, either in his pupils or in himself; it is a poor kind of history that teaches children always to be judicious and never to be inspired.

Reading and travel and experience—these things will find their ultimate expression in the mind and personality of the teacher. He needs integrity, a sane and balanced judgement, and a wide appreciation of varied human beings. He needs the courage to believe in man and at the same time the sense of humour without which the story of man would be intolerable. If to these and to a love of children he can add a sound academic and professional training, he will be able to make a rich and personal contribution to the promotion of the true ends of history teaching.

¹ This passage owes much to Chapter I (on 'The History Staff') of the *Teaching of History*, published by the Cambridge University Press, in 1950, for the (English) Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters.

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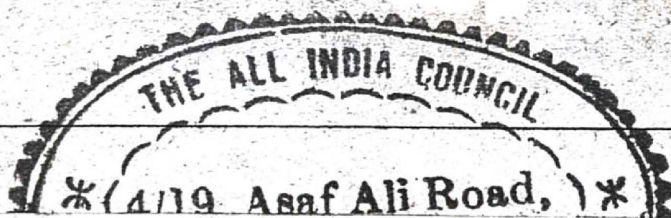
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