Grade 11 History of Canada

How has Canada's history shaped the Canada of today?

Beginnings — **1763** — **1867** — **1931** — **1982** — **Present**

First Peoples and Nouvelle-France	British North America	Becoming a Sovereign Nation	Achievements and Challenges	Defining Contemporary Canada
(before 1763)	**(1763 – 1867)**	**(1867 – 1931)**	**(1931 – 1982)**	**(1982 – Present)**
1.0: What is history, and why do we study it?	**2.1:** How did British colonial rule change during this period, and what was its impact on life in North America?	**3.1:** Why did the Métis resist the westward expansion of Canada, and what were the consequences?	**4.1:** How did Canada seek to establish economic security and social justice from the period of the Depression to the patriation of the Constitution?	**5.1:** How has Canada been shaped by the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*, cultural diversity, and demographic and technological change?
1.1: Who were the First Peoples, and how did they structure their world?				
1.2: Why did the French and other Europeans come to North America, and how did they interact with First Peoples?	**2.2:** How did the fur trade, European settlement, and the rise of the Métis nation transform life for the peoples of the Northwest?	**3.2:** How did territorial expansion, immigration, and industrialization change life for men and women in Canada?	**4.2:** How did the establishment of national institutions contribute to defining Canadian identity?	**5.2:** How has the question of national unity influenced federalism, constitutional debate, and political change?
	2.3: Why and how was the Dominion of Canada established as a confederation of British colonies in 1867?	**3.3:** How did Canada's relationship with First Nations, Métis, and Inuit peoples change after Confederation?	**4.3:** How was Canada's presence on the world stage shaped by its role in the Second World War and its growing participation in the international community?	**5.3:** How are First Nations, Métis, and Inuit peoples seeking a greater degree of cultural, political, and economic self-determination?
1.3: How did First Peoples and Europeans interact in the Northwest, and what were the results?		**3.4:** How was Canada's identity as a nation shaped by the First World War and by its changing relationship to Great Britain and the world?		
			4.4: How was Canadian federalism challenged by federal-provincial tensions and the debate over the status of Québec?	**5.4:** How have Canada's international relations changed since 1982, and what should its global commitments be for the future?

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Core Concept of Citizenship

The study of the history of Canada contributes to active democratic citizenship by supporting the following:

1. Interest in and knowledge of the past and the ability to think historically

2. Informed engagement in civic discourse and the democratic process

3. Commitment to the principles and ideals of democracy and human rights

4. Acquisition of an informed sense of Canadian identity within a global context

5. Commitment to the future of Canada

Enduring Understandings

Students acquire historical knowledge, develop historical thinking, and attain the following enduring understandings.
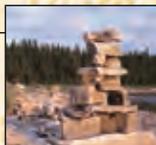
First Nations, Métis, and Inuit Peoples

1. First Nations, Métis, and Inuit peoples play an ongoing role in shaping Canadian history and identity.

2. First Nations, Métis, and Inuit peoples have a long history in North America, and their diverse and complex cultures continue to adapt to changing conditions.

3. The oral traditions of First Nations, Métis, and Inuit peoples teach the importance of maintaining a balance among the emotional, physical, mental, and spiritual aspects of life.

4. The relationship between First Nations, Métis, and Inuit peoples and non-Aboriginal peoples moved from *autonomous coexistence* to *colonialism* to the present stage of *renegotiation* and *renewal*.

5. First Nations, Métis, and Inuit peoples have achieved constitutional recognition of their unique status as Aboriginal peoples in Canada, along with recognition and affirmation of their existing Aboriginal and treaty rights.

French-English Duality

1. Canadian institutions and culture reflect Canada's history as a former colony of France and of Britain.

2. French-English duality is rooted in Canada's history and is a constitutionally protected element of Canadian society.

3. Nouvelle-France, Acadia, Québec and francophone communities across Canada have played a role in shaping Canadian history and identity.

4. British cultural traditions and political institutions have played a role in shaping Canadian history and identity.

5. As a result of Québec's unique identity and history, its place in the Canadian confederation continues to be a subject of debate.

6. French-English relations play an ongoing role in the debate about majority-minority responsibilities and rights of citizens in Canada.

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Enduring Understandings
Students acquire historical knowledge, develop historical thinking, and attain the following enduring understandings.

Identity, Diversity, and Citizenship

1. Canada's history and identity have been shaped by its vast and diverse land, its northern location, and its abundant natural resources.

2. Canadian identity, citizenship, and nationhood are subjects of ongoing debate in Canada's pluralistic society.

3. Immigration has helped shape Canada's history and continues to shape Canadian society and identity.

4. The history of Canadian citizenship is characterized by an ongoing struggle to achieve equality and social justice for all.

5. The meaning of citizenship has evolved over time, and the responsibilities, rights, and freedoms of Canadian citizens are subject to continuing debate.

Governance and Economics

1. The history of governance in Canada is characterized by a transition from Indigenous self-government through French and British colonial rule to a self-governing confederation of provinces and territories.

2. Canada's parliamentary system is based on the rule of law, representative democracy, and constitutional monarchy.

3. The role of government and the division of powers and responsibilities in Canada's federal system are subjects of ongoing negotiation.

4. Canada's history is shaped by economic factors such as natural resources, agricultural and industrial development, the environment, technology, and global economic interdependence.

Canada and the World

1. Canada continues to be influenced by issues of war and peace, international relations, and global interactions.

2. Geographic, economic, cultural, and political links to the United States continue to be important factors in Canada's development.

3. Since the beginning of the 20th century, Canada has played an increasingly active role in world affairs through trade and development, military engagement, and participation in international organizations.

4. Global interdependence challenges Canadians to examine and redefine the responsibilities of citizenship.

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History as a Discipline of Study

Historical Thinking Concepts

As students acquire historical knowledge and understanding, they are able to do the following:

1. Establish **historical significance**

2. Use primary source **evidence**

3. Identify **continuity** and **change**

4. Analyze **cause** and **consequence**

5. Take **historical perspectives**

6. Understand **ethical dimensions** of history

Skills to Support Historical Thinking

- Formulate and clarify questions to guide historical inquiry

- Select and identify diverse primary and secondary sources of information

- Consider the purpose and validity of historical sources

- Interpret, analyze, and record information from primary and secondary sources

- Compare diverse perspectives and conflicting accounts of the past

- Identify underlying values in historical sources and accounts

- Construct and communicate historical narratives, explanations, arguments, or other interpretations of the past using a variety of media

Adapted from the work of Dr. Peter Seixas,
University of British Columbia.
www.historybenchmarks.ca

Manitoba

"History is yours to make. It is not written by someone else for you to learn…. History is not just the story you read. It is the one you write. It is the one you remember or denounce or relate to others. It is not predetermined. Every action, every decision, however small, is relevant to its course. History is filled with horror and replete with hope. You shape the balance."

—*Dr. Dean Oliver, inscribed in the "A Violent Peace: The Cold War, Peacekeeping, and Recent Conflicts, 1945 to the Present" Gallery, Canadian War Museum, Ottawa*

Grade 11 History of Canada (30F)

The Grade 11 History of Canada (30F) curriculum supports citizenship as a core concept and engages students in historical inquiry. Guided by essential questions, students focus on the history of Canada from pre-contact times to the present. Through this process, students think historically and acquire learning outcomes, stated as enduring understandings, according to the following five themes in Canadian history:

n First Nations, Métis, and Inuit Peoples	n Governance and Economics
n French-English Duality	n Canada and the World
n Identity, Diversity, and Citizenship	

Historical thinking concepts and skills, based on the work of Dr. Peter Seixas of the University of British Columbia, are embedded throughout the curriculum and provide a foundation for historical inquiry. The curriculum also identifies skills in research, critical thinking, and communication that are required to develop historical thinking. Students will use these skills to understand how the past has shaped the Canada of today.

The curriculum is organized chronologically into five clusters. Each cluster includes a series of learning experiences. Teachers can choose a chronological or thematic approach for teaching the course.
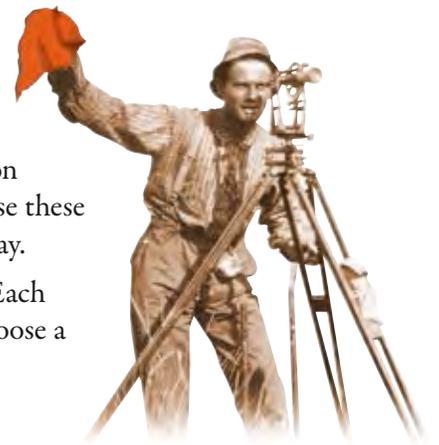
Course Rationale

Why is Canadian history a graduation requirement in Manitoba schools?

The question "why study history?" is an important one that teachers need to discuss with students. The following provides a foundation for understanding why history is important.

To learn what it means to be a citizen of Canada

Students need to acquire knowledge, values, and skills that allow them to take their place in society. In part, this involves learning what it means to be a citizen. Understanding Canadian history contributes to a student's sense of identity, provides a foundation for an informed commitment to Canada's continuing development, and cultivates a readiness to work with other Canadians in tackling the challenges that face our country.

Manitoba's social studies program is designed to help students understand how our country took shape over time and how Canada confronted its various problems. It also means learning to take part in the debates that determine how Canada will continue to develop in the future. Citizens with an informed understanding of history are critical to the health of any country and are especially important within a pluralistic, bilingual federal democracy such as Canada.

To develop a sense of global citizenship

Canada exists in a highly interconnected world and students need to develop an awareness of the interdependence of modern states, as well as the implications of interdependence. Through historical investigation, students explore Canada's international actions and relations in the past and the present, and consider how Canada might interact in the global community in the future. Finally, they will see themselves as citizens of both Canada and the world and learn to deal with the sometimes competing claims of national citizenship and global interests.

To understand the diversity and range of human experience

Knowledge of the past helps students more fully understand the variety and extent of human experience—the best and the worst. History education helps students think more deeply about what it means to be human and how to relate to others. History can be seen as a form of time travel that takes us to the past, where people think and act differently and unexpectedly. As with any journey properly undertaken, travelling back in history broadens the mind so that when we return home we see things in a new light. The study of history helps us reconsider what we might otherwise simply take for granted, while also making life more understandable and, perhaps even more importantly, more interesting and dynamic.

> *"To be ignorant of what occurred before you were born is to remain always a child."*
>
> *—Cicero, Roman author, orator, and politician (106 BCE – 43 BCE)*

To enrich cultural literacy

The study of history enhances cultural literacy by providing students with knowledge of events and people of the past. Knowledge of history is the foundation for understanding and for participating in the wide-ranging debates of the present and future. In today's information-rich society, we are bombarded with references, allusions, and claims that assume historical knowledge. By exposing students to history, we help them make sense of today's world.

To help deal with complex social and political problems

In Canada, as elsewhere, citizens face complex problems that address conflicting priorities, differing values, and competing solutions. For example, what should be the balance between federal and provincial powers in the provision of health care? What should be the balance between majority rule and minority rights? How far should the state be authorized to intrude into the private lives of its citizens? These issues have their origins in the past and an understanding of history is essential to their resolution, especially in a democratic country such as Canada.

To understand how the discipline of history works

Given the value of historical knowledge, it is important that students understand how the discipline of history works, including its underlying concepts and principles. The history curriculum in Manitoba is designed to teach students how to analyze and construct a historical argument. Students are taught to understand how historians go about their work. They are taught to grasp the implications of historical concepts such as evidence, the nature of objectivity and interpretation in historical inquiry, change and continuity, causation, and perspective-taking. Students are made aware of how history can be manipulated to serve interests. Students will learn to think historically and to appreciate the methodology of the discipline.

To refine general skills, competencies, and values

The study of history offers access to a wide body of information, ideas, and themes. Studying the past provides opportunities for our students to acquire, apply, and refine many skills and values, including those related to

- active democratic citizenship
- communication and literacy
- critical and creative thinking
- research and inquiry
- managing information and ideas
- interpersonal and collaborative skills
- respect for diversity
- commitment to human rights
- willingness to take a stand on ethical issues

To encourage intellectual independence and critical thinking

Knowledge of history provides our students with a means of intellectual self-defense. In any society, there are those who offer historically based arguments (with varying degrees of reliability) and who are eager to present what they believe to be the lessons of history. Students will be taught how our lives are shaped by history, often in ways that are unknown to us. Knowledge of history helps students to think critically in order to maintain their intellectual independence in the future.

Teaching History in Manitoba

How has teaching history evolved over time and how has it shaped the pedagogical practices underlying the history curriculum? In Manitoba, as elsewhere in Canada, three broad stages can be identified in the development of history education:

1. From the 1890s to the 1960s, history education emphasized nation-building and shaping national identity.

2. From the 1960s and continuing into the present, history was seen as a means of understanding and addressing the problems of the present.

3. Beginning in the 1990s, history education was directed towards teaching students to think historically and helping students understand the *how* as well as the *what* of history.

History as a single-story narrative

Until the 1960s, history textbooks and curricula emphasized the single story of nation-building with the goal of instilling a positive sense of Canadian nationhood in students. It was through the study of Canadian history that students would learn what it meant to be Canadian and what was expected of them as Canadian citizens. As a result, history became what Peter Seixas has called the single best story of how Canada achieved nationhood: a chronological narrative designed to be internalized rather than interrogated. Reinforced by the pressure of provincial examinations, history became a memory subject based on the transmission of information from teacher and textbook to student. There were certainly history teachers who used more innovative methods, but overall the emphasis was on covering the curriculum and memorizing facts and dates necessary for the end-of-year provincial examination.
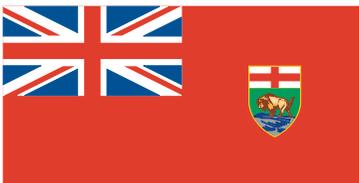
There were always those who criticized this approach to history teaching. Trade unionists and socialists rejected it for its class biases. Feminists pointed to the absence of women from history textbooks and curricula. Internationalists argued for more emphasis on world history. Some critics condemned what they saw as a lack of attention to regional and provincial concerns. Educationists called for more student-centred teaching methods. A few called for the replacement of chronological narrative with the study of themes and issues. Many historians felt that their subject was not given the emphasis it deserved and some wondered if school-age students were mature enough to tackle real history.

Social history

Beginning in the 1960s and continuing into the 1970s, the single-story approach to history education fell out of favour. Surveys showed that most students found simply memorizing history to be dull and boring, and they quickly forgot what they learned in history class. Surveys also suggested that history was not achieving its nation-building goals and that the development of Canadian citizenship left much to be desired.

Analysis of textbooks found some to be somewhat sexist, racist, and biased. The appearance of a new kind of social history drew attention to the absence of women, working people, cultural minorities, and First Nations, Métis, and Inuit Peoples in the curricula. The elimination of provincial examinations made room for teachers to experiment with a new kind of pedagogy based on inquiry and the use of primary source information, simulation, role-play, and other activity-based approaches. It was increasingly argued that, just as science teachers relied on experiment-based laboratory work and mathematics teachers taught students how to approach problems, the most effective way to learn history was to engage in historical research.

Two new ways to teach history

With the decline of single-story, narrative history in the 1960s and 1970s, history education began taking two forms. One form opted for teaching students the nature of history as an intellectual discipline by involving them in primary research projects and analyzing historical accounts and primary source information. "History as coverage" was replaced by history as the detailed study of a few select topics requiring analysis and argument, with an emphasis on history as an intellectual discipline and methodology.

The second form valued history as a way to shine a light on the present and replaced chronological narrative with the study of modern themes and issues. History was seen as a means to investigate contemporary social problems.

However, neither approach totally displaced the tradition of a single narrative. Textbooks and curricula continued to include an eclectic mix of all three approaches: the nation-building narrative, primary source research, and historical inquiry in relation to current issues.

Grand national narrative or historical discourse?

As time passed, the single narrative tradition came under increasing question. Some historians, particularly post-modernists, rejected the concept of a single narrative.

Others regretted what they saw as the fragmentation of history as a unified field of study. Still others argued that developments in historical research called into question the whole concept of the nation-building narrative and the shaping of a national identity. Modern nations, they argued, include a number of shifting and competing claims to identity and recognition, and any approach based on an authoritative national identity should be rejected. Peter Seixas (2002) draws the following conclusion:

> *In our own early 21st century predicament, with different pasts, different cultures butting up against one another, traditional practices are no longer adequate for supplying meaning, largely for this reason: they provide no way of reconciling differing stories, different accounts in a multicultural society. This is the promise of critical* **historical** *discourse: that it provides a rational way, on the basis of evidence and argument, to discuss the differing accounts that jostle with or contradict each other. And it would be self-defeating to attempt to* **resolve** *those arguments* **before** *we get into the classroom, in order to provide students with a finished truth. Rather, we need to bring the arguments into the classroom. Students need guided opportunities to confront conflicting accounts, various meanings, and multiple interpretations of the past, because these are exactly what they will encounter outside of school, and they need to learn to deal with them.*

"The past shapes who we are. An exploration of Canadian and world history enables students to acquire knowledge and appreciation of the past, to understand the present, and to live with regard for the future. An important aspect of this process is the disciplined investigation and interpretation of history. Students learn to think historically as they explore people, events, ideas, and evidence of the past. As they reflect upon diverse perspectives, personal narratives, parallel accounts, and oral and social histories, students develop the historical understanding that provides a foundation for active democratic citizenship."

(Manitoba Education, Citizenship and Youth, 2005, p. 49)

A new debate about the goals and content of history education

The result was that the 1990s saw, in Canada and elsewhere, a vigorous and often controversial debate about the goals and content of history education. Some regretted that the new approaches to history teaching had not eliminated all previous approaches. Some called for a return to the older tradition of the single narrative. Some said that the emphasis on social history had converted history into "victimology," thereby destroying students' belief in the positive achievements of Canada. Others said that the newer approaches to history teaching were weakening students' sense of national identity and thus speeding up the fragmentation of Canada.

History as systematic analysis and investigation

While this debate was raging in the 1990s, a new approach to history teaching emerged. It had its roots in developments in the United Kingdom in the 1970s and approached history not as a chronological narrative of the national past but as a systematic exercise in historical analysis and investigation. Its proponents identified a number of concepts that they saw as crucial to any understanding of history. These concepts included evidence, interpretation, causation, perspective taking or empathy, and change and continuity, and they taught students to use the ideas as building blocks in the construction of a capacity to think historically.

In this spirit, the national history curriculum in the United Kingdom included understanding interpretations of history and using historical sources as two of its attainment targets, while in the USA the national history standards spoke of historical analysis and interpretation.

Developing historical-mindedness

Ken Osborne (2006) has suggested that we currently need to combine elements of all three approaches. He has sought this through the concept of "historical-mindedness," which he sees as a composite of three elements:

1. earlier concern for narrative, factual knowledge, and chronology

2. use of history for understanding the issues of the present

3. importance of history as a form of disciplined inquiry

> "Historical-mindedness is the result of the enlargement of experience that arises from the study of other times and other places. It is the ability to situate the immediate concerns of the present in some kind of comparative perspective and to see the world as it appears to others. It helps us understand ourselves as the inheritors of the past and the legatees of the future."
>
> –Ken Osborne (2006)

First Nations, Métis, and Inuit in Canadian history

An integral part of the vision of social studies curricula in Manitoba is an awareness of what Canadian writer John Ralston Saul described as the "triangular foundation." This triangular foundation consists of First Nations, Métis, and Inuit, as well as the experiences of French and British immigration upon which Canada's complexity is based. For this reason, Indigenous perspectives are integrated throughout the teaching and learning strategies in this course. Rather than simply being restricted to a study of the contributions of First Nations, Métis, and Inuit peoples to Canadian society, this pedagogical approach consolidates Indigenous perspectives throughout the entire study of Canadian society—past, present, and future. This approach helps not only to correct historical and social prejudices of the past by presenting Indigenous points of view to all students, but also supports the development of a positive sense of personal identity among Manitoba's First Nations, Métis, and Inuit students.

> *"After some 500 years of a relationship that has swung from partnership to domination, from mutual respect and co-operation to paternalism and attempted assimilation, Canada must now work out fair and lasting terms of coexistence with Aboriginal Peoples."*
>
> *(Highlights from the Report of the Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples, www.aadnc-aandc.gc.ca/eng/1100100014597/1100100014637#chp3)*

Approaches to Teaching History

www.tagxedo.com/artful/4fbdda4b9411486c

This *History of Canada* curriculum replaces *Canada: A Social and Political History*, which was published in 1986. Since that time, new understandings about thinking and learning have shifted the way we teach and have transformed our schools. History education has also evolved, moving from the simple memorization of facts to an approach that places greater emphasis on critical thinking and bigger ideas that endure long after schooling has ended. As well, contemporary events have come to play a larger role in learning about the past. Recent research and emerging trends call for a new paradigm to demonstrate a need to make the study of history engaging and meaningful for both teachers and students—a paradigm based on the principles of a *constructivist learning* model, *teaching for understanding*, and *historical thinking*.

1. Constructivist Learning Theory

Much of the current literature related to history education (in Canada and elsewhere) focuses on constructivist learning theory and the development of historical thinking or historical-mindedness. Osborne (1999) recognizes the importance of constructivism in history and social studies:

> *"These findings that students have their own ideas about history and are capable of more than we often suspect are consistent with the recent turn to constructivist learning theory, which tells us (what good teachers have always known) that students are active meaning makers in their own right and that the task of teaching is to provide the environment and the direction so that they can actively make sense of what they are expected to learn."*

According to constructivist theorists, learning is an active process where students build on existing knowledge and expand their frame of reference. In general, constructivist learning has four characteristics:

- constructing knowledge, not receiving it
- thinking and analyzing, not accumulating facts and memorizing
- understanding and applying, not repeating back
- being active, not passive

Research on cognitive development
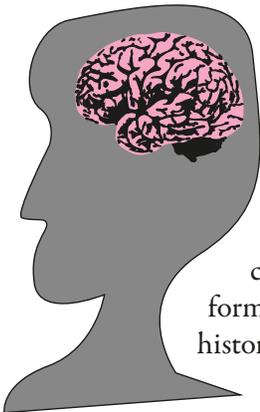
In recent years, there has been considerable research related to how the brain conducts thinking and learning. There has also been considerable debate regarding the ability of students to understand history and engage in historical thinking. According to Jean Piaget (1896–1980), cognitive development does not reach the formal operational stage until adulthood, and history is too abstract and complex for young minds. Others counter that Piaget's theory

may not apply to the discipline of history. As a result of these differing perspectives, research has been undertaken into historical thinking, as well as into how historical thinking connects to constructivist learning theory.

In Canada, Osborne (1999), Seixas (2006), and Peck (2005) all conclude that young people are capable of engaging in historical thinking. This research provides a basis for a move to a historical thinking approach in history education.

Young people have the ability to think historically

Osborne (1999) observes "students, even in the elementary grades, are capable of much more sophisticated thinking than we have usually given them credit for." Carla Peck (2005) tells us that "students of any age can be taught to use some of the tools of the historian to varying degrees of sophistication in order to begin to understand the nature of historical thought, and to orient themselves in space and time." In a discussion on the place of history within social studies, Peter Seixas (2006) suggests that "young people do have images of the past in their minds and . . . attempt to figure out what the past might mean for them and for their futures." Seixas also believes that educators need to help students make sense of the fragments of historical thinking and to make history relevant to students. In summary, the literature of history education provides significant evidence that young people do indeed have the ability to think historically.

The traditional approach: covering content

Traditionally, history education focused on content and factual information such as names, dates, and events. This approach is less concerned with providing context and relevance for students and more with presenting grand narratives and ready-made versions of history for memorization. Primary sources, interpretation, debate, and the development of historical thinking are generally not part of the traditional approach.

Students learn history by "doing history"

How can history be made more interesting and meaningful for students? Today, teachers recognize the importance of moving away from using only one reference and the lecture method as their students' sole sources of information. Teachers understand that students need "to learn history by doing history" (Osborne, 1999). Peck (2005) suggests "history teaching should shift from a process of handing over stories for students to learn, to a process of giving students the raw materials of history and letting them discover and decide what story should be told and for what purpose."

Students have their own ideas about history

Seixas (2002) points out that traditional practice is no longer adequate in helping students make meaning, as it cannot reconcile different stories and accounts. He argues that historical debates must be brought into the classroom and students must have opportunities to participate in historical discourse.

"Students need guided opportunities to confront conflicting accounts, various meanings, and multiple interpretations of the past, because these are exactly what they will encounter outside of school, and they need to learn to deal with them" (Seixas, 2002).

Engaging students is not a new idea

Engaging students in their learning is neither a new idea, nor unique to history. Many teachers have a wealth of strategies to help their students find relevance and meaning, and to be responsible for their own learning. Effective strategies engage students and encourage them to ask questions, formulate and express their own ideas, state and justify their opinions, undertake independent inquiry and research, and debate controversial issues. Student-centred approaches such as reflective inquiry, collaborative learning, differentiated instruction, debate, problem solving, reflection, and journal writing facilitate meaningful construction of knowledge and lead to greater student ownership of their learning and overall success.

Three phases of learning: Activate, Acquire, and Apply

The three-phase learning process used in Manitoba social studies curricula is based on a constructivist learning model. The *Activate* phase provides opportunities for students to articulate their prior knowledge of a subject and prepare for new learning. This becomes the foundation for the construction of new knowledge in the *Acquire* phase. In the acquire phase, students integrate new information with what is already known. Finally, in the *Apply* phase, learning is reinforced and extended, as students actively reflect and consider how their learning applies to a variety of situations.

The student inquiry model is a constructivist approach

The student inquiry model is based on constructivist theory. Inquiry is based on student curiosity and allows them to direct the learning process through opportunities to question, observe, discover, analyze, and draw conclusions. Inquiry is not a new phenomenon, and is embedded in language arts, science, and social studies curricula in Manitoba and other jurisdictions. Von Glaserfeld (2001) points out that many inspired teachers recognize the importance of student involvement in the construction of their learning and that teachers are making use of pedagogical practices and strategies that are based on a constructivist approach and the inquiry model.

Content and pedagogy in history cannot be separated

Gibson and McKay (2001) believe "there is unrealized potential for constructivist theory in social studies," while others see its specific relevance in relation to history. Osborne (1999) states that contructivism is especially appropriate to history, as ". . . there are ways of linking historical subject matter to students' concerns, and not the least of them is to approach it as something to be investigated and explored rather than memorized: to learn history by doing history, in fact." Others agree that historical subject matter and pedagogical methods are inseparable. Peck (2005) notes that content and pedagogy cannot be separated, "because historical knowledge develops most successfully by doing history—using the discipline's (or historian's) tools to construct historical knowledge."

A new paradigm in social studies education

The literature has noted that social studies lags behind other core subjects in the move towards constructivist learning strategies, although, as Charland and Moisan (2003) point out, recently revised curricula "seem to favour the constructionist approach for achieving the established objectives." Gibson and McKay (2001) believe that the findings of recent brain research call for major changes in curriculum design and implementation to reflect the constructivist view of knowledge making specifically.

"We contend that tenets of constructivist theory supported by brain research necessitate radical change in the design and implementation of social studies curricula . . . . Such curriculum change would recognize and celebrate the child as an active constructor of his or her own meanings within a community of others who provide a forum for the social negotiation of shared meanings." (Gibson and McKay, 2001)

With respect to the place of constructivism and related pedagogical approaches in the classroom, Murphy (1997) suggests that not only is there agreement amongst researchers and educators about its importance, but that constructivist approaches may well be a critical alternative to current practices. "For many, constructivism holds the promise of a remedy for an ailing school system and provides a robust, coherent and convincing alternative to existing paradigms."

A balanced approach

All this is not to say that the constructivist approach is the only approach that should be used or that it is the most suitable for all learners and situations. Wiggins and McTighe (1998) offer a word of caution when they state that "the particular instructional methods and techniques follow from the specific types of learning needed to achieve the desired results." They suggest a balanced approach of didactic, coaching, and constructivist pedagogies determined by the needs of the learners and the kinds of knowledge and skills to be learned. Students who struggle with basic facts and ideas may best respond to didactic and coaching methods. Independent learners will thrive on opportunities to engage their naturally curious natures, construct new knowledge, and "uncover" new ideas.

Constructivist pedagogy is student-centred and may require a paradigm shift in the role of the teacher

Constructivism is a student-centred approach, but one where teachers play a critical role. Research supports the idea that effective teaching from a constructivist approach requires a strong knowledge base, as well as critical management and pedagogical skills and the ability to fulfill a variety of instructional roles (Bruno-Jofre and Schiralli, 2002; Osborne, 1999; Murphy, 1997).

The knowledge base and role of the teacher is critical in the implementation of the constructivist approach. Osborne (1999) argues that teachers cannot use the constructivist historical thinking approach "if they are not themselves familiar and, even more, comfortable with it." He continues by stressing the importance of "teachers knowing their subject in a factual sense, but even more on their understanding it as a form of disciplined inquiry." Bruno-Jofre and Schiralli (2002) agree with these sentiments when they state that teachers of history need to ". . . have an understanding of history as a discipline, its critical areas of controversy, and the various explanatory paradigms with which historians work."

Constructivist teaching is a learning process for the teacher

History education requires teachers who are academically and pedagogically qualified. In addition, the role of a teacher is also very different with a constructivist approach, with teachers acting more as facilitators, guides, and mentors than as dispensers of knowledge. Teachers set the stage for learning and assist students in establishing the parameters of the learning experience and criteria for assessment. Murphy (1997) suggests that "teaching from this perspective is also a learning process for the teacher."

In summary, the constructivist theory and its implied pedagogical approaches presents itself as a model with a well-founded epistemology. Its benefits have been well documented, and its use is increasingly accepted by educationists and curriculum developers in Canada and elsewhere. It is a model that, according to Gibson and McKay (2001), is "now supported by brain research" and "offers social studies educators a renewed opportunity to make inquiry teaching and learning in social studies a reality."

Characteristics of the Constructivist Learning Environment

Research abounds with ideas to make history more meaningful to students (Fielding, 2005; Osborne, 1999; Murphy, 1997). Murphy recommends that teachers

- present and encourage multiple perspectives and representations of concepts and content

- collaborate with students to set goals and objectives

- take on the roles of guides, monitors, coaches, tutors, and facilitators

- provide activities, opportunities, tools, and environments that encourage meta-cognition, self-analysis, self-regulation, self-reflection, and self-awareness

- encourage students to play a central role in mediating and controlling learning

- design learning situations and environments, and focus on skills, content, and tasks that are relevant, realistic, authentic, and represent natural complexities

- provide students with access to primary sources of information and ensure they are authentic

- emphasize knowledge construction (over reproduction)

- recognize that knowledge construction takes place in individual contexts and through social negotiation, collaboration, and experience

- consider student's previous knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes in the knowledge construction process

- emphasize problem-solving, higher-order thinking, and deep understanding

- acknowledge that errors provide the opportunity for insight into students' previous knowledge construction

- encourage exploration and help students seek knowledge independently as they manage the pursuit of their own learning goals

- provide students with the opportunity for apprenticeship learning, with increasing complexity of tasks, skills, and knowledge acquisition

- emphasize knowledge complexity, conceptual interrelatedness, and interdisciplinary learning

- encourage collaborative and cooperative learning, exposing students to alternative viewpoints

- provide scaffolding to help students perform just beyond the limits of their ability

- encourage assessment that is authentic and interwoven with instruction
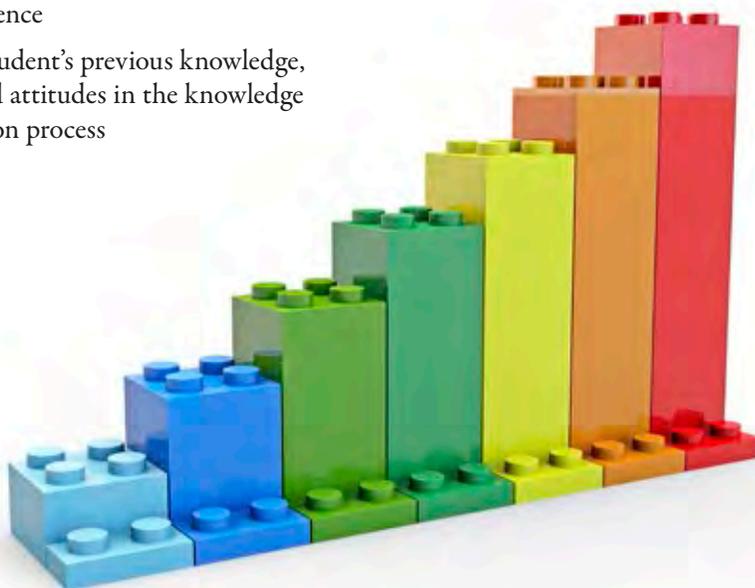
2. Teaching for Understanding

This is the second of the three approaches to teaching history (see page II-14).

Student inquiry leads to understanding

Constructivist inquiry leads to authentic and meaningful student-centred learning. This model focuses on the importance of asking questions, gathering and interpreting evidence, and reaching conclusions that can lead to important, long-term understandings. Teaching and learning experiences based on an inquiry model are designed to help students reach enduring understandings that have important conceptual links across disciplines.

The Backward Design Model

Traditional planning begins with activities and ends with assessment

Understanding by Design (Wiggins and McTighe, 1998) presents an approach to curriculum design as well as instruction and assessment strategies. Referred to as "backward design," this approach is the reverse of the traditional approach (where planning begins with the topics in the textbook or other resources, and leads to student activities and assessment of what has been learned).

Backward design begins with identifying the desired results of learning

The backward design model consists of three stages that guide planning for teaching and learning. Instructional planning is based on what students need to know and to be able to do in order to attain the desired "enduring understandings." Student tasks are designed to provide practice and to generate evidence of learning.

Wiggins and McTighe (1998) illustrated the three stages as follows:

Identify desired results

↓

Determine acceptable evidence

↓

Plan learning experiences and instruction

Applying the backward design model to a learning experience in history:

1. Identify the targeted enduring understandings (EUs) (including the big ideas and concepts that make up the EUs).

2. Use essential questions (EQs) to guide selection of historical content that will be the focus of this learning experience (establish what students will need to know)

3. Determine which historical thinking concepts students will apply throughout the tasks in the learning experience.

4. Determine student tasks for each stage of learning (Activate, Acquire, Apply) as well as assessment strategies (*as*, *for*, and *of* learning).

The backward design model offers a very different approach to assessment when compared to traditional teaching approaches, which often only assess students at the end of instruction through quizzes, tests, and examinations. The backwards design model requires that teachers first identify what would be acceptable evidence that students have achieved the desired outcomes *before* they plan teaching and learning strategies.

Meaningful assessment needs to be authentic and ongoing. Teachers need to monitor student learning, making frequent observations to check understanding and progress. Assessment may be informal, through ongoing dialogue between teacher and student, or more formal and planned, through performance tasks and projects or through testing. When instruction is carefully planned and based on evidence of learning, teaching becomes more focused and learning becomes more targeted. As noted by Wiggins and McTighe (1998:9), "[g]reater coherence among desired results, key performances, and teaching and learning experiences leads to better student performance – the purpose of design."
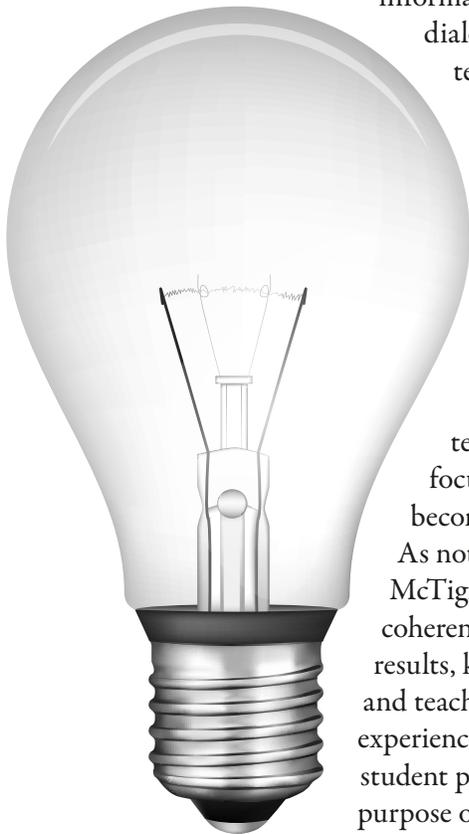
Enduring Understandings

Enduring understandings implicitly demonstrate why this topic is worth studying

Enduring understandings are important ideas that remain with students after the formal schooling process. Wiggins and McTighe (1998) note that

> *[e]nduring understandings will anchor the unit and establish a rationale for it. The term enduring refers to the big ideas, or the important understandings, that we want students to 'get inside of' and retain after they've forgotten many of the details. Put differently, the enduring understandings provide a larger purpose for learning the targeted content: They implicitly answer the question, why is this topic worth studying?*

This, ultimately, is the purpose of schooling: to deal with and understand issues, concepts, and topics that are truly worth remembering. Enduring understandings, and the general values and dispositions they imply, can inform citizenship and provide the basis for teaching for understanding.

Transmission of information is not evidence of understanding

Understanding is a complex cognitive process and cannot be reduced to the simple transmission of information. Students' ability to answer questions, repeat definitions or theories, present a project, or succeed in tests and examinations are not necessarily evidence of understanding. Wiggins and McTighe (1998) see understanding as involving

> *... the abstract and conceptual, not merely the concrete and discrete: concepts, generalizations, theories, and mental links between facts. And understanding also involves the ability to use knowledge and skill in context, as opposed to doing something routine and on cue in out-of-*

*context assignments or assessment items…
we want them (students) to be able to use
that knowledge in authentic situations as
well as to understand the background of that
knowledge.*

Understanding is a complex cognitive process that manifests itself in a variety of ways

Understanding is complex and multifaceted, and can be demonstrated in a variety of ways. Wiggins and McTighe (1998) define understanding as six related abilities:

- Can *explain*: provide thorough, supported, and justifiable accounts of phenomena, fact, and data

- Can *interpret*: tell meaningful stories; offer apt translations; provide a revealing historical or personal dimension to ideas and events; make it personal or accessible through images, anecdotes, analogies, and models

- Can *apply:* effectively use and adapt what we know in diverse contexts

- Have *perspective*: see and hear points of view through critical eyes and ears; see the big picture

- Can *empathize:* find value in what others might find odd, alien, or implausible; perceive sensitively on the basis of prior direct experience

- Have *self-knowledge*: perceive the personal style, prejudices, projections, and habits of mind that both shape and impede our own understanding; we are aware of what we do not understand and why understanding is so hard

Demonstrating understanding in the applying phase of learning

It is during the third phase of the learning process, when students *apply* their learning, that they demonstrate the strongest evidence of understanding. Student products and performances reflect their new knowledge, skills,

and attitudes. Deep understanding becomes obvious when students demonstrate how their learning applies to a variety of situations. When they are able to restructure information, express new ideas in another form, or integrate what they have learned with concepts from other disciplines, it becomes clear that they understand and it is likely their understanding will be enduring.

Themes and Enduring Understandings in Grade 11 History

This curriculum is made up of *enduring understandings*, which are structured around five themes that organize the study of history from pre-contact times to the present:

> **Five Themes in Canadian History**
>
> 1. First Nations, Métis, and Inuit Peoples
> 2. French-English Relations
> 3. Identity, Diversity, and Citizenship
> 4. Governance and Economics
> 5. Canada and the World

The complex flow of history cannot be reduced to isolated, measurable facts or specific learning outcomes

The enduring understandings in this curriculum may be seen as broadly stated learning outcomes. Unlike the Manitoba social studies Kindergarten to Grade 10 curricula, this curriculum does not identify specific learning outcomes because of their inherent shortcomings in the process of learning history. Osborne (2006) suggests that it is possible that specific learning outcomes are not particularly suited to the teaching of history, especially at the Senior Years level, because they "risk breaking up the flow of history into isolated, measurable statements of fact and skills." Focusing on multiple specific learning outcomes may interfere with critical thinking and questioning, historical inquiry, and the

development of historical-mindedness. Osborne (2004) emphasizes the risks of using specific learning outcomes simply as a list of things students need to know and be able to do:

The result can be that teachers come to see themselves, or are seen by others, not as teachers of history but as achievers of outcomes, and history becomes little more than a sequence of outcomes to be checked off in a teacher's day book. To the extent that outcomes serve as instruments of evaluation, as is their intent, it is possible that teachers will teach to the outcomes rather than concerning themselves with history as a form of disciplined inquiry. (Osborne, 2006)

Knowledge of history is an essential component of historical thinking

Despite agreement that there has been too much emphasis on large amounts of content in the past, the acquisition of factual and conceptual knowledge (historical content) remains a critical component of the study of history. We want our students to know key events in our history, to have a sense of chronology, and to be able to describe the causes and consequences of historical events. Students need to acquire knowledge of history in order to be able to think about the past. Teachers also need to know what they need to focus on so their students will attain enduring understandings that are supported by substantial knowledge. This curriculum provides an approach to organizing content for each learning experience. Teachers should focus on content related to enduring understandings that supports historical thinking concepts in order to meet student learning needs.

It is these understandings, long after the specific details may have been forgotten, that will illuminate the past, its links to the present, and its path to the future. It is these understandings that will help us identify our place, and others' places of belonging, and motivate us to engage in the ongoing dialogue and debates, rooted in the past, about the kind of country we want to

become. It is these understandings that will lead to the development of the kind of citizens and characteristics of citizenship embodied in the core concept found throughout the Manitoba social studies curricula.

Essential Questions

Essential questions capture student interest and guide student inquiry.

Questions, in one form or another, are the basis of effective instruction, and are used during inquiry, problem solving, issues-based learning, and differentiated instruction. Student-driven questions reflect their intrinsic motivation to learn and help to focus learning.

As Wiggins and McTighe (1998) point out, "one key design strategy is to build curriculum around the questions that gave rise to content knowledge in the first place, rather than simply teaching students the 'expert' answers." "Without asking and pursuing such overarching questions, the student is confronted with a set of disconnected activities, resulting in minimal understanding of important ideas."

Essential questions guide student inquiry. Seeking answers to essential questions results in the discovery and internalization of important ideas and leads to enduring understandings. "Essential questions are questions that cannot be answered satisfactorily in a sentence – and that's the point. To get at matters of deep and enduring understanding, we need to use provocative and multilayered questions that reveal the richness and complexities of a subject." (Wiggins and McTighe, 1998)

Wiggins and McTighe state that essential questions

- go to the heart of a discipline and can be found in the most important and controversial problems and topics in various fields of study.

- recur naturally throughout one's learning and in the history of a field. The same important

questions are asked and re-asked as an outgrowth of the study. Our answers may become increasingly sophisticated, and our framing of the question may reflect a new nuance, but we return again and again to such questions.

- raise other important questions. They invariably open up a subject, its complexities, and its puzzles; they suggest fruitful research rather than lead to premature closure or unambiguous answers.

Essential questions serve as the focus for inquiry in each history learning experience

This curriculum includes essential questions in each learning experience to focus inquiry. (The questions are the titles of each learning experience.) Teachers may wish to develop more specific questions as they plan their instructional strategies and to encourage students to pose their own questions throughout the learning process. Essential questions encourage students to construct their own knowledge to add to their existing cognitive structures and will promote the use and development of historical thinking.

Principles and guidelines for teaching for understanding

Wiggins and McTighe (1998) offer practical suggestions for teachers to use essential questions in the classroom. They suggest the following principles and guidelines to support student inquiry:

- Engage students in inquiry and inventive work as soon as possible. Resist front-loading all the needed information. Save lectures for "half-time" and "post-game analysis," when they are more likely to be understood and appreciated.

- Use the textbook as a reference book, not only as a syllabus.

- Teach by raising more questions and answering fewer questions. Ask and re-ask big questions and answer little ones.

- Make clear by deed and word that there is no such thing as a stupid question.

- Reverse roles; ask naïve questions and make students come up with answers that are explanations and interpretations.

- Raise questions with many plausible answers as a way to push students to consider multiple perspectives and give emphatic responses. Design learning tasks that require students to investigate and support diverse points of view.

- Coach students to conduct effective final performances (e.g., oral presentations or graphic displays).

- Strive to develop greater autonomy in students so that they can find knowledge on their own and accurately self-assess and self-regulate.

- Assess for understanding periodically, not just at the end of a lesson, unit, or course. Never assume that covering a topic once will result in student understanding.

3. Historical Thinking

This is the third of the three approaches to teaching history mentioned on page II-14.

Historical thinking actively engages students in the process of inquiry. Through historical thinking, students are encouraged to think deeply and critically about the subject matter of history and its implications, acquire a sound understanding of the discipline, and become more engaged in "doing" history.

"In its deepest forms, historical thinking is neither a natural process nor something that springs automatically from psychological development. Its achievement goes against the grain of how we ordinarily think, one of the reasons why it is much easier to learn names, dates and stories than it is to change the fundamental mental structures we use to grasp the meaning of the past . . . . Mature historical knowing teaches us to go beyond our own image, to go beyond our brief life, and to go beyond the fleeting moment in human history into which we've been born."

–Ken Osborne (2006)

A move away from passive learning

Historical thinking is a discipline-specific way of thinking. Sometimes referred to as *historical-mindedness* or *historical understanding*, this competency includes the application of general skills such as creative and critical thinking, managing information and ideas, inquiry and research, problem solving, and interpersonal and communication skills. In addition, it has components unique to the discipline of history, engaging students in tasks that are at the core of the discipline.

Recent literature provides numerous explanations of the meaning and characteristics of historical thinking, including elements such as

- analysis and interpretation of documents
- assessment of historical interpretations
- construction of historical explanations
- consideration of human agency in history
- judgments of historical significance (Seixas, 2006)

Lee (1998) believes it is important to learn "to think critically about the past or to be familiar with the nature of history as an academic discipline, its methods and findings...in order for students both to move away from passive rote learning and develop their own social, political and historical orientations." Historical thinking is at the heart of this approach, which Denos and Case (2006) describe as "the act of interpreting and assessing both the evidence from the past that has been left behind and the narratives that historians and others have constructed from this evidence."

Six key concepts define historical thinking

Researchers have identified various structural concepts that provide the basis of historical thinking. The following six concepts are used in this curriculum:

- establish historical significance
- use primary source evidence
- identify continuity and change
- analyze cause and consequence
- take historical perspectives
- understand ethical dimensions of history

These concepts are described by Dr. Peter Seixas of the University of British Columbia in *Benchmarks of Historical Thinking: A Framework for Assessment in Canada* (2006), which is reproduced below. The *Benchmarks of Historical Thinking Project* is a Canada-wide initiative, based on Dr. Seixas' work, through which history educators contribute and have access to teaching and learning exemplars and support materials related to the historical thinking concepts. For more information, see <http://historicalthinking.ca>.

Benchmarks of Historical Thinking: A Framework for Assessment in Canada

What should students know and be able to do when they are finished their years of school history? Surely, the accumulation of facts-to-be-remembered is not an adequate answer to the question. Many curriculum documents indicate "historical thinking," but are not very helpful in unpacking its meaning for teachers and students. If not "more facts," then what is the basis for a history curriculum that extends over multiple years of schooling? Whatever that is, in turn, should inform history assessments. Otherwise, we measure a journey along a road, but we don't really care whether students are travelling it. General curriculum statements about the values of learning history are insufficient, unless those values inform

our assessments. This document aims to define historical thinking for the purposes of shaping history assessments.

Ken Osborne notes: "...it is not clear whether or to what extent history courses at different grade levels are designed to build on each other in any cumulative way." British researchers and curriculum developers have been attentive to exactly this problem, defined as one of progression. Historical thinking is not all or nothing: fundamental to the definition is the notion of progression, but progression in what?

Researchers have identified "structural" historical concepts that provide the basis of historical thinking. Dr. Seixas identified six distinct but closely interrelated historical thinking concepts. Students should be able to

- establish *historical significance* (why we care, today, about certain events, trends, and issues in history. Why are the Plains of Abraham significant for Canadian history?)

- use primary source *evidence* (how to find, select, contextualize, and interpret sources for a historical argument. What can a newspaper article from Berlin, Ontario in 1916 tell us about attitudes towards German-Canadians in wartime?)

- identify *continuity and change* (what has changed and what has remained the same over time. What has changed and what has remained the same about the lives of teenaged girls between the 1950s and today?)

- analyze *cause and consequence* (how and why certain conditions and actions led to others. What were the causes of the Northwest Rebellion?)

- take *historical perspectives* (understanding the "past as a foreign country," with its different social, cultural, intellectual, and even emotional contexts that shaped people's lives and actions. How could John A. Macdonald compare "Chinamen" to "threshing machines" in 1886?)

- understand *ethical dimensions* of history (this cuts across many of the others: how

we, in the present, judge actors in different circumstances in the past; how different interpretations of the past reflect different moral stances today; when and how crimes of the past bear consequences today. What is to be done today, about the legacy of residential schools?)

Taken together, these tie "historical thinking" to competencies in "historical literacy."

It is also important to note that these elements are not "skills" but rather a set of underlying concepts that guide and shape the practice of history. In order to understand *continuity and change*, for instance, one must know *what* changed and *what* remained the same. "Historical thinking" only becomes meaningful with substantive content.

Note: The following framework is adapted with permission from *The Historical Thinking Project* by Peter Seixas, which is available online at: <http://historybenchmarks.ca>.

A Framework for Assessing Historical Thinking

In order to think historically, historians, the public in general, and school students in particular must do the following:

Establish Historical Significance

HS

This involves recognizing the principles behind the selection of what and who should be remembered, researched, taught, and learned.

History is everything that has ever happened to anyone anywhere. There is much too much history to remember all of it. So how do we make choices about what is worth remembering? Significant events include those that resulted in great change over long periods of time for large numbers of people. The Second World War passes the test for historical significance in this sense. But what could be significant about the life of a worker or a slave? What about my own ancestors, who are clearly significant to me, but not necessarily to others? Significance depends upon one's perspective and purpose. A historical person or event can acquire significance if we, the historians, can link it to larger trends and stories that reveal something important for us today. For example, the story of an individual worker in Winnipeg in 1918, however insignificant in the Second World War sense, may become significant if it is recounted in a way that makes it a part of a larger history of workers' struggles, economic development, or post-war adjustment and discontent. In that case, the "insignificant" life reveals something important

to us, and thus becomes significant. Both "It is significant because it is in the history book," and "It is significant because I am interested in it," are inadequate explanations of historical significance.

Aspects of significance:

a. Resulting in change (The event/person/development had *deep* consequences, for *many* people, over *a long period* of time.)

b. Revealing (The event/person/development sheds light on enduring or emerging issues in history and contemporary life or was important at some stage in history within the collective memory of a group or groups.)

At the most sophisticated level, students will be able to do the following:

a. Demonstrate how an event, person, or development is significant either by showing how it is embedded in a larger, meaningful narrative OR by showing how it sheds light on an enduring or emerging issue.

b. Explain how and why historical significance varies over time and from group to group.

Potential student tasks:

a. Explain what made [X] significant.

b. Choose the "most significant events" (e.g., in Canadian history; in the 20th century; for new immigrants to Canada), and explain your choices.

c. Identify and explain differences in significance over time or from group to group (e.g., Why is women's history more significant now than 50 years ago? Why do Canadians consider Louis Riel to be significant, while Americans generally don't?).

Use Primary Source Evidence

E

The litter of history—letters, documents, records, diaries, drawings, newspaper accounts, and other bits and pieces left behind by those who have passed on—are treasures to the historian. These are primary sources that can give up the secrets of life in the past. Historians learn to read these sources.

But reading a source for evidence demands a different approach than reading a source for information. The contrast may be seen in an extreme way in the difference between reading a phone book—for information—and examining a boot print in the snow outside a murder scene—for evidence. When we look up a phone number, we don't ask ourselves "who wrote this phonebook?" or "what impact did it have on its readers?" We read it at face value. The boot print, on the other hand, is a trace of the past that does not allow a comparable reading. Once we establish what it is, we examine it to see if it offers clues about the person who was wearing the boot, when the print was made, which direction the person was headed, and what else was going on at that time.

A history textbook is generally used more like a phone book: it is a place to look up information. Primary sources must be read differently. To use them well, we set them in their historical contexts and make inferences from them to help us understand more about what was going on when they were created.

Aspects of evidence

(Note: The term *author* is used broadly to mean whoever wrote, painted, photographed, drew, or otherwise constructed the source.)

a. Good questions are necessary in order to turn a source into evidence, the first question being "What is it?"

b. Authorship: the position of the author(s) is a key consideration.

c. Primary sources may reveal information about the (conscious) purposes of the author as well as the (unconscious) values and world view of the author.

d. A source should be read in view of its historical background (contextualization).

e. Analysis of the source should also provide new evidence about its historical setting.

At the most sophisticated level, students will be able to do the following:

- Use several primary sources to construct an original account of a historical event.

Potential student tasks

a. Find and select primary sources that are appropriate for responding to historical questions.

b. Formulate questions about a primary source to help shed light on its historical context.

c. Analyze a primary source for the purposes, values, and world view of the author.

d. Compare points of view and usefulness of several primary sources.

e. Assess what can and can't be answered by particular primary sources.

f. Use primary sources to construct an argument or narrative.

Identify Continuity And Change

C&C
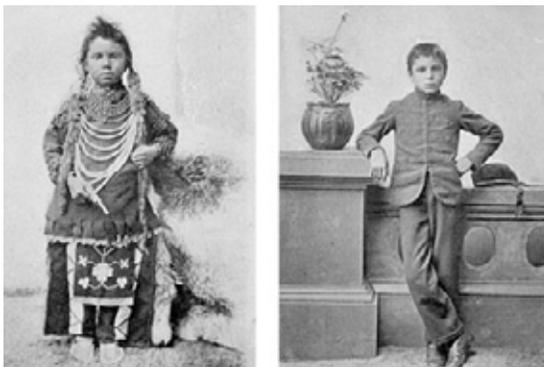
Students sometimes misunderstand history as a list of events. Once they start to understand history as a complex mix of continuity and change, they reach a fundamentally different sense of the past.

There were lots of things going on at any one time in the past. Some periods changed rapidly while others remained relatively continuous. The decade of the 1910s in Canada, for instance, saw profound change in many aspects of life, but not much change in its forms of government. If students say, "nothing happened in 1911," they are thinking of the past as a list of events.

> *Note: Because continuity and change are so closely tied to cause and consequence, student tasks may often join the two.*

One of the keys to continuity and change is looking for change where common sense suggests that there has been none; another is looking for continuities where we assumed that there was change. Judgments of continuity and change can be made on the basis of comparisons between some point in the past and the present, or between two points in the past, such as before and after Confederation in Canada. We evaluate change over time using the ideas of progress and decline.

Aspects of continuity and change

a. Continuity and change are interrelated: processes of change are usually continuous and not isolated into a series of discrete events.

b. Some aspects of life change more quickly in some periods than others. Turning points—perhaps even tipping points—help to locate change.

c. Progress and decline are fundamental ways of evaluating change over time. Change does not always mean progress.

d. Chronology can help to organize our understanding of continuity and change (you cannot understand continuity and change without knowing the order in which things happened).

e. Periodization can help to organize our understanding of continuity and change.

At the most sophisticated level, students will be able to do the following:

■ Explain how some things continue and others change in any period of history.

■ Identify changes over time in aspects of life that we ordinarily assume to be continuous, and identify continuities in aspects of life we ordinarily assume to have changed over time.

■ Understand that periodization and judgments of progress and decline can vary depending upon purpose and perspective.

Potential student tasks

a. Place a series of pictures in chronological order, explaining why they are placed in the order they are.

b. Compare two (or more) documents from different time periods and explain what changed and what remained the same over time.

c. Assess progress and decline from the standpoint of various groups since a certain point in time.

Analyze Cause And Consequence

C↔C

In examining both tragedies and accomplishments in the past, we are usually interested in the questions of how and why. These questions start the search for causes: what were the actions, beliefs, and circumstances that led to these consequences?

In history, as opposed to geology or astronomy, we need to consider human agency. People, as individuals and as groups, play a part in promoting, shaping, and resisting change.

People have motivations and reasons for taking action (or for sitting it out), but causes go beyond these. For example, the Vancouver anti-Chinese riot of 1887 certainly involved the racial attitudes and motivations of the white workers who rampaged. Did the workers cause the riot? In some sense they did. But the causes must be set in the larger context of employers paying Chinese workers a fraction of the regular wage rate and the desperate situation of Chinese Canadian workers after the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railroad.

Causes are thus multiple and layered, involving both long-term ideologies, institutions, and conditions, and short-term motivations, actions, and events. Causes that are offered for any particular event (and the priority of various causes) may differ, based on the scale of the history and the approaches of the historian.

Aspects of cause and consequence

a. Human beings cause historical change, but they do so in contexts that impose limits on change. Constraints come from the natural environment, geography, historical legacies, as well as other people who want other things. Human actors (agents) are thus in a perpetual interplay with conditions, many of which (e.g., political and economic systems) are the legacies of earlier human actions.

b. Actions often have unintended consequences.

At the most sophisticated level, students will be able to do the following:

- Identify the interplay of intentional human action and constraints on human actions in causing change.

- Identify various types of causes for a particular event, using one or more accounts of the event.

- Be able to construct counterfactuals (e.g., if Britain had not declared war on Germany in 1914, then...).

Potential student tasks

a. Examine an everyday event (e.g. a car accident) for its potential causes (e.g., the skill and response time of the driver, the state of health or drowsiness of the driver, distraction of the driver, violation of driving rules, the condition of the cars, the technology of the cars, the weather, the road signage, absence of traffic lights, the culture that glorifies speed, the size of the oncoming SUV, etc.).

b. Analyze a historical passage, and identify "types of causes" (e.g., economics, politics, culture, conditions, individual actions) that it offers as causes.

c. Examine the relationship between an individual actor's motivations and intentions and the consequences of his or her actions.

d. Create a schematic chart of the causes of [e.g., the Japanese internment] and explain their arrangement.

e. How might people at the time have explained the causes of [X] and how does that differ from how we would explain it now?

Take a Historical Perspective

HP

"The past is a foreign country" and thus difficult to understand. What could it have been like to travel as a young *fille du roi* to Nouvelle-France in the 17th century? Can we imagine it, from our vantage point in the consumer society of the 21st century? What are the limits to our imagination?

Understanding the foreignness of the past is a huge challenge for students. But rising to the challenge illuminates the range of human behaviour, belief, and social organization. It offers surprising alternatives to the taken-for-granted, conventional wisdom, and opens a wider perspective from which to evaluate our present preoccupations.

Taking historical perspectives means understanding the social, cultural, intellectual, and emotional settings that shaped people's lives and actions in the past. At any one point, different historical actors may have acted on the basis of conflicting beliefs and ideologies, so understanding diverse perspectives is also a key

to historical perspective-taking. Though it is sometimes called "historical empathy," historical perspective is very different from the common-sense notion of identification with another person. Indeed, taking historical perspectives demands comprehension of the vast differences between us in the present and those in the past.

Aspects of historical perspective-taking

a. Taking the perspective of historical actors depends upon *evidence* for inferences about how people felt and thought (avoiding *presentism*—the unwarranted imposition of present ideas on actors in the past). Empathetic leaps that are not based in evidence are historically worthless.

b. Any particular historical event or situation involves people who may have *diverse perspectives* on it. Understanding multiple perspectives of historical actors is a key to understanding the event.

c. Taking the perspective of a historical actor does not mean identifying with that actor.

At the most sophisticated level, students will be able to do the following:

- Recognize presentism in historical accounts.

- Use evidence and understanding of the historical context to answer questions of why people acted the way they did (or thought what they did) even when their actions seem at first to be irrational, inexplicable, or different from what we would have done or thought.

Potential student tasks

a. Write a letter, diary entry, poster (etc.) from the perspective of [X], based either on some sources provided by the teacher or sources the students find.

b. Compare primary sources written (or drawn, painted, etc.) from two opposing or differing perspectives about a given event. Explain their differences.

Understand Ethical Dimensions Of History ED

Are we obligated to remember the fallen soldiers of the First World War? Do we owe reparations to the First Nations victims of residential schools or to the descendents of those who paid the Chinese Head Tax? In other words, what responsibilities do historical crimes and sacrifices impose upon us today?

These questions are one part of the ethical dimension of history. Another part has to do with the ethical judgments we make about historical actions. This creates a difficult paradox. Taking a historical perspective demands that we understand the differences between our ethical universe and those of bygone societies. We do not want to impose our own anachronistic standards on the past. At the same time, meaningful history does not treat brutal slave-holders, enthusiastic Nazis, and marauding conquistadors in a "neutral" manner. Historians attempt to hold back on explicit ethical judgments about actors in the midst of their accounts, but, when all is said and done, if the story is meaningful, then there is an ethical judgment involved. We should expect to learn something from the past that helps us to face the ethical issues of today.

Aspects of the ethical dimension

a. All meaningful historical accounts involve implicit or explicit moral judgment.

b. Moral judgment in history is made more complex by collective responsibility and profound change over time. In making moral judgments of past actions, we always risk anachronistic impositions of our own standards upon the past.

c. Historians often deal with the conflict between the previous two points by utilizing the following strategies:

1. Framing questions that have a moral dimension

2. Suspending judgments in order to understand the perspectives of the historical actors

3. Emerging from the study with observations about the moral implications, today, of their narratives and arguments

At the most sophisticated level, students will be able to do the following:

- Make judgments about actions of people in the past, recognizing the historical context in which they were operating

- Use historical narratives to inform judgments about ethical and policy questions in the present

Potential student tasks

a. Examine a historical issue involving conflict (e.g., attitudes for and against women getting the vote; why Canada admitted such a small number of refugee Jews from 1933–39; the outlawing of potlatch), identify the perspectives that were present at the time, and explain how these historical conflicts can educate us today.

b. Students identify an ethical issue today (e.g., Canadians' role as peacekeepers, private vs. public health care, protection of the environment), research aspects of its historical background, and explain the implications of the issue today.

NOTES

Assessment and the Stages of Learning

Classroom-based Assessment *as*, *for*, and *of* Learning

Classroom-based assessment is an ongoing and systematic process of gathering information about what students know and are able to do. This process includes collecting, interpreting, and communicating results related to students' progress and achievement.

> *"The purpose of summative assessment is to prove learning, while the purpose of formative assessment is to improve learning."*
>
> *—David Pratt*

Characteristics of Effective Assessment

▶ **Effective assessment is congruent with instruction**

Assessment requires teachers to be continually aware of the purpose of instruction: *What do I want my students to learn? What can they do to show they have learned it?*

The methods of assessment depend upon what is being assessed. There are three sources for teachers to gather student assessment evidence:

- observations of student learning (including students' interactions with peers)
- observation and evaluation of student products and performances
- one-to-one dialogue with students about their learning, including information gathered from self- and peer assessment

Equally important, assessment informs students of the program emphasis and helps them to focus on important aspects of learning. If teachers only assess the elements that are easy to measure, students may focus on only those things.

▶ **Effective assessment is based on authentic tasks**

Assessment tasks should be authentic and meaningful. Teachers discover through assessment whether students are able to use their knowledge, skills, and resources to achieve worthwhile purposes. Teachers are encouraged to design tasks that replicate the context in which knowledge and skills may be applied beyond the classroom. As often as possible, students should communicate their knowledge and ideas to real audiences for real purposes.

▶ **Effective assessment uses a wide range of tools and methods**

In order to create a comprehensive profile of student progress, teachers gather data by a variety of means and over numerous occasions. This means planning for a balance of formal and informal student tasks, as well as a balance of written, oral, visual, and hands-on activities. Student profiles may involve both students and teachers in data gathering and assessment.

► **Effective assessment is based on criteria that students know and understand**

Assessment criteria must be established and made explicit to students before they engage in learning tasks in order to focus their attention and efforts. Assessment should focus only on what has been explicitly targeted and addressed in the learning experience. Whenever possible, students need to be involved in developing assessment criteria and to be exposed to exemplary models so that they may understand what the successful accomplishment of the task might look like.

► **Effective assessment is a collaborative process involving students**

Effective assessment enables students to assess their own progress. Gradually increasing student responsibility for assessment helps develop their autonomy as lifelong learners. Ideally, effective assessment will decrease student dependence on teacher feedback and direction. It will also reduce student reliance on marks for external validation of their accomplishments.

Effective assessment also enhances students' metacognitive abilities. It helps them make judgments about their own learning and provides them with information for goal setting and self-monitoring.

Teachers can increase students' responsibility for assessment by

- requiring students to select products and performances to demonstrate their learning (e.g., student portfolios)
- involving students in developing assessment criteria whenever possible
- involving students in peer assessment—informally through focused peer dialogue or formally through checklists

- providing students with tools for reflection and self-assessment (e.g., checklists, learning logs, identification of goals, guiding questions for reflection tasks)
- establishing a protocol for students who wish to challenge a teacher-assigned mark

► **Effective assessment focuses on what students have learned and can do**

Assessment must be equitable, offering opportunities for success to every student.

Effective assessment identifies the learning progress of each student, rather than simply identifying deficits in learning.

Teachers need to use a variety of assessment strategies and approaches:

- Use a wide range of instruments to assess the various expressions of each student's learning (i.e., oral, written, etc.).
- Provide students with opportunities to learn from feedback and to practise, recognizing that not every assignment will be successful, nor will it become part of end-of-cluster or end-of-term assessment.
- Examine several pieces of student work in assessing any particular learning task to ensure that the data collected are valid bases for making generalizations about student learning.
- Develop student learning profiles by using information that compares a student's performance to predetermined criteria, as well as by using self-referenced assessment, which compares a student's performance to his or her prior performance.
- Avoid using assessment for discipline or classroom control.
- Allow students, when appropriate and possible, to choose how they will demonstrate their competence.

■ Use assessment tools appropriate for assessing individual and unique products, skills, and performances. Teachers provide informal assessment by questioning students and offering comments.

▶ **Effective assessment is ongoing and continuous**

Ongoing, classroom-based assessment that is woven into daily instruction

■ offers students frequent opportunities for feedback and dialogue

■ allows them to modify their learning approaches and methods

■ helps them observe their progress

Assessment with Purpose in Mind

The purpose of assessment is to enhance student learning. Research has demonstrated that formative assessment, which engages both teacher and student in ongoing dialogue about learning, contributes significantly to student success. This type of assessment includes assessment *for* learning and assessment *as* learning as integrated parts of all phases of the learning process. At certain defined points in the learning process, however (such as the end of a learning experience or a cluster), teachers also need to conduct assessment *of* learning or summative assessment, with the purpose of evaluating and reporting results on student progress.

Meaningful assessment is an ongoing and integral part of the learning process. This means asking the following questions as part of planning each learning experience:

- For what purpose am I assessing?
- What am I assessing?
- What methods will I use?
- How will I ensure assessment quality?
- How will I use the evidence obtained?

It is important that the purpose of assessment (*of*, *as*, or *for*), as well as how assessment information will be used, is clear to both teachers and students. With a clearly understood purpose, students are encouraged to take more responsibility for their learning and are better able to focus their efforts, while teachers can better select the instruction and assessment strategies and learning resources that will improve student achievement.
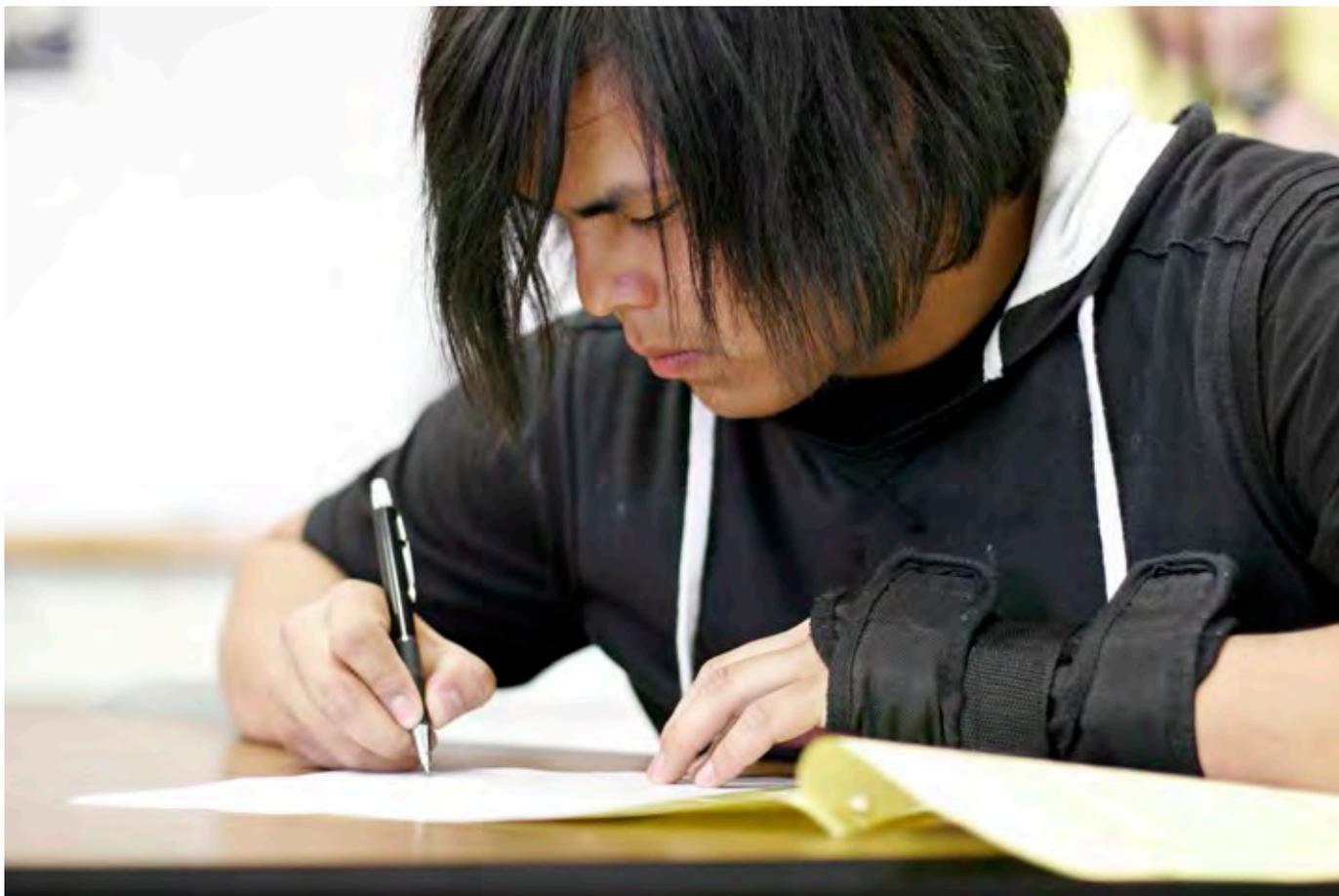
The following chart, *Overview of Assessment*, summarizes the key purposes and methods of each of the three forms of assessment.

Overview of Planning Assessment

	Assessment *for* Learning	Assessment *as* Learning	Assessment *of* Learning
Why Assess?	to enable teachers to determine next steps in advancing student learning	to guide and provide opportunities for each student to monitor and critically reflect on his or her learning and identify next steps	to certify or inform parents or others of a student's proficiency in relation to curriculum learning outcomes
Assess What?	each student's progress and learning needs in relation to the curricular outcomes	each student's thinking about his or her learning, what strategies he or she uses to support or challenge that learning, and the mechanisms he or she uses to adjust and advance his or her learning	the extent to which students can apply the key concepts, knowledge, skills, and attitudes related to the curriculum outcomes
What Methods?	a range of methods in different modes that make students' skills and understanding visible	a range of methods in different modes that elicit students' learning and metacognitive processes	a range of methods in different modes that assess both product and process
Ensuring Quality	n accuracy and consistency of observations and interpretations of student learning n clear, detailed learning expectations n accurate, detailed notes for descriptive feedback to each student	n accuracy and consistency of student's self-reflection, self-monitoring, and self-adjustment n engagement of the student in considering and challenging his or her thinking n students record their own learning	n accuracy, consistency, and fairness of judgments based on high-quality information n clear, detailed learning expectations n fair and accurate summative reporting
Using the Information	n provide each student with accurate descriptive feedback to further his or her learning n differentiate instruction by continually checking where each student is in relation to the curricular outcomes n provide parents or guardians with descriptive feedback about student learning and ideas for support	n provide each student with accurate, descriptive feedback that will help him or her develop independent learning habits n have each student focus on the task and his or her learning (not on getting the right answer) n provide each student with ideas for adjusting, rethinking, and articulating his or her learning n provide the conditions for the teacher and student to discuss alternatives n students report about their learning	n indicate each student's level of learning n provide the foundation for discussions on placement or promotion n report fair, accurate, and detailed information that can be used to decide the next steps in a student's learning

Reproduced from *Rethinking Classroom Assessment with Purpose in Mind: Assessment* for *Learning, Assessment* as *Learning, Assessment* of *Learning* by Manitoba Education, Citizenship and Youth (2006).

Rethinking Assessment

Assessment *for* learning

Assessment *for* learning helps establish what students have learned and what they will need to learn. This type of assessment involves frequent opportunities for meaningful and relevant feedback. Descriptive feedback—including analytical questions and constructive comments—helps students gather information about their progress. This process elicits information that may be used by students to adjust their learning processes, and by teachers to adjust and differentiate their teaching strategies. It provides opportunities for students to become reflective learners—to synthesize their learning, to solve problems, to apply their learning, and to better understand their learning processes. It also offers opportunities for teachers to become reflective practitioners.

Assessment *as* learning

Assessment *as* learning provides opportunities for both students and teachers to reflect on and to enhance the learning process. It involves engaging students in self-assessment and reflection so as to be able to make better choices and assume greater responsibility for their learning. Self-assessment involves critical thinking by encouraging students to observe and analyze patterns in their thinking, to appraise their strengths, and to set realistic goals for themselves. This builds student autonomy, responsibility, and motivation.

Self-assessment is dependent upon student empowerment. Empowerment needs to begin before the learning process begins and continue through to the final stages of assessment.

Students who are empowered and autonomous learners are involved in the initial decision making about learning, expressing ideas about what and how they will learn. They plan their personal learning goals, decide how they will demonstrate their learning, and select products and performances, in collaboration with their teachers and peers. Throughout the process, teachers engage students in critical dialogue about their decisions and their progress. Student empowerment supports the development of the kind of citizenship that is important in a pluralistic democracy: reflective, independent, self-questioning individuals who think critically and are unafraid to take risks and make mistakes.

Student responsibility is enhanced when students

- identify their learning goals
- help create assessment criteria
- select products and performances to demonstrate learning
- engage in peer assessment
- are provided with self-assessment tools (e.g., checklists, learning logs, reflection journals, guiding essential questions, portfolio selection processes)

Assessment *as* learning engages teachers and students in monitoring and reflecting on the learning process on an ongoing basis. This type of assessment allows for a constant and conscious adjustment in strategies and approaches, as needed to facilitate learning.

Students monitor their learning in a variety of ways.

Goal-Setting

- What are my strengths?
- How will I use these in my planning/ learning?
- What do I need to improve?
- What do I want to accomplish?
- How will I know I am successful?

Planning for Learning

- What do I know about…?
- What do I need/want to know about…?
- What strategies and resources will I use?
- What can I do myself?
- What do I need help with?
- Who can help me?

Reflection, Self-Assessment, and Metacognition

- What worked well? Why?
- What will I change? Why?
- What did I learn?
- How will I act differently as a result?
- What do I still need to understand?

Making Learning Decisions

- Are these resources helpful?
- Will these choices contribute to my goals?
- What problem-solving strategies can I use?
- Who can I talk to about this idea?
- Am I contributing to the learning environment?
- How will I know that I'm on the right track?
- Is there anything else I need to do to reach my goal?

Assessment *as* learning also informs the teacher's planning process. Through regular guided conversations with students about their learning, teachers gain essential information to plan for their needs. This in turn facilitates equitable assessment, which is focused on student growth and progress (rather than on deficits) and not used for purposes of discipline or classroom control.

Teacher Reflection

Teacher reflection is essential to effective pedagogy, and there is no teaching tool or strategy more important to a teacher than critical consciousness. As teachers assess and reflect on their instructional practices, and as they engage students in dialogue about learning, they become aware of student needs and are better able to adjust planning and teaching throughout the learning process.

Assessment *of* learning: evaluation and reporting

Assessment *of* learning takes place at the end of a learning experience, cluster, or at the end of a semester. This type of assessment provides important information about student progress and achievement, as well as instructional effectiveness. This information is usually shared with parents via report cards.

Assessment *of* learning provides a summary of how well the student has attained the desired learning. This may be demonstrated in many ways, including a performance task, an inquiry project, a simulation, a test, a historical essay, a debate, an oral or audio-visual presentation, a historical reconstruction or role-play, or many other ways.

It may also take the form of guided reflection in response to questions that address the targeted enduring understandings, or a cooperative project that incorporates research with theatre, or visual arts, or in a form of historical reproduction. Whatever the nature of the culminating task, it should provide evidence of understanding through historical thinking and the application of skills for historical inquiry. Assessment *of* learning should be based on tasks that students have had the opportunity to practice and refine, with teacher and peer feedback, over time, and these tasks should vary in nature and type (for example, an overall balance of written, oral, multi-media, and visual tasks).

Teachers may consider using a number of short assessments as evidence of progress and practice rather than as assessments *of* learning. For example, students need not undertake a full historical essay assignment for each learning experience, but they may at times be required to submit their notes and sources for assessment,

or to submit a brief interpretation of an assigned primary source. It may be that, at times, the student assignment is simply to generate questions in response to selected primary sources or divergent secondary sources. Throughout the course, students should regularly be assigned tasks that permit them to make connections between clusters, between learning experiences, and between the past and the present. Major inquiry projects should be based upon student-generated questions to guide research, and teachers should regularly provide guidance to students in the generation of pertinent and meaningful historical questions.

No matter what the type (*as, for*, or *of*), every assessment task should be based on criteria that are shared with students before they engage in learning. When students know in advance what is to be assessed, and when their performances are compared to predetermined criteria (and to their prior performances), they are better able to concentrate their efforts and focus their learning. It is also helpful to provide students with an exemplary model to strive toward, particularly in the case of a complex task. Providing students with exemplars allows them to visualize their goals and assess their own progress.

> **Activating:** *How will students be prepared for learning?*
>
> **Acquiring:** *What strategies facilitate learning for groups and individuals?*
>
> **Applying:** *How will students demonstrate their understanding?*

Assessment and the phases of the learning process

Assessment does not only take place at the end of the learning process. Effective assessment is integrated in all phases of learning: activating, acquiring, and applying. Assessment at each stage benefits students and teachers.

Activating phase: Preparing for learning

Assessment during the **activating** stage prepares both teachers and students for the learning process by identifying gaps and strengths in student knowledge and informing instruction decisions.

Assessment in the activation stage helps **students**

- "set the stage" and to mentally plan and prepare for new learning
- identify the focus of new learning
- identify what they already know about a topic
- gain interest in a new topic

Assessment in the activation stage helps **teachers**

- identify gaps, strengths, misconceptions, or faulty information in student knowledge
- identify student interests
- plan a focus for instructional strategies and student learning resources
- determine which instructional approaches or resources need to be used or adapted

Acquiring phase:
Facilitating learning for groups and individuals

Assessment during the **acquiring** stage provides feedback as learning takes place and allows teachers and students to make adjustments to strategies and activities. Well-timed, meaningful feedback as they are learning helps students improve the quality of their work and reach their learning goals.

Assessment during the acquisition stage helps **students**

- become aware of the progress and the degree of understanding they are achieving

- experience and adapt different approaches and strategies that facilitate their learning

- identify what further learning they need to undertake

- improve as they practise

Assessment during the acquisition stage helps **teachers**

- revise learning strategies to meet evolving student needs

- monitor student progress, and determine whether students are acquiring the knowledge and skills required to build enduring understandings

- determine if individual students need additional support or further practice

- identify concepts and skills that need to be the focus of subsequent instruction and assessment

- gather evidence of student growth, which may be used for reporting

Applying phase:
Demonstrating understanding

Assessment during the **applying** stage focuses on students using new understandings in meaningful and authentic ways. Authentic tasks are those that have relevant purposes and replicate as closely as possible the context in which newly acquired knowledge may be applied beyond the classroom. Ideally, students should demonstrate their learning, and the relevance and importance of their learning, for real audiences and real purposes.

Assessment during the application stage helps **students**

- become aware of their growth and achievement, and celebrate their successes

- identify their strengths, as well as areas needing further growth

- deepen their understandings as they make connections and reflect on their learning, and apply new ideas in meaningful and authentic ways

Assessment during the application stage helps **teachers**

- be aware of student understanding and acquisition of targeted knowledge and skills

- identify student strengths and areas needing further support

- provide evidence of student progress and achievement for reporting to parents and administrators

- reflect on their teaching practices in order to identify changes and revisions

Using a broad range of assessment tools and strategies

Just as diverse instructional strategies are important, so too are a variety of assessment tools and strategies. As previously stated, true understanding and appreciation of history does not occur if students simply memorize and recall information. Rather, students need to apply the knowledge they acquire to synthesize and generate new understandings, and to demonstrate evidence of their learning. They also need to have frequent opportunities to apply and refine skills.

A broad range of tools and strategies are available to teachers to assess learning in the history classroom. These include student portfolios, interviews, individual and group inquiry and research, journals, role-plays, debates, interviews and oral presentations, tests, hands-on projects, teacher observation checklists, peer assessment, and self-assessment. The most important aspect of each of these strategies is regular dialogue with students about their learning: asking them questions about their observations and conclusions as they learn, and prompting them to higher levels of thinking. When teachers use a variety of assessment tools and strategies over a period of time, student learning patterns begin to emerge. Observation and knowledge of these patterns is necessary for planning effective instruction and for successful learning.

In the wide range of possible assessment tasks, it is important to try to vary the type of task (oral, visual, written, hands-on, interactive, multimedia) and to allow students a measure of choice in determining the nature of the task. Also, it may be that certain types of performances and products are better suited to specific assessment purposes. The following chart proposes a variety of assessment tools and methods to help teachers plan a variety of tasks as part of the learning process.

Assessment Tool Kit

Method	Description
Gathering Information	
Questioning	asking essential questions in class to elicit understanding
Observation	systematic observations of students as they process ideas
Homework	assignments to elicit understanding
Learning conversations or interviews	investigative discussions with students about their understanding and confusions
Demonstrations, presentations	opportunities for students to show their learning in oral and media performances, exhibitions
Quizzes, tests, examinations	opportunities for students to show their learning through written response
Rich assessment tasks	complex tasks that encourage students to show connections that they are making among concepts they are learning
Computer-based assessments	systematic and adaptive software applications connected to curriculum outcomes
Simulations, docudramas	simulated or role-playing tasks that encourage students to show connections that they are making among concepts they are learning
Learning logs	descriptions students maintain of the process they go through in their learning
Projects and investigations	opportunities for students to show connections in their learning through investigation and production of reports or artifacts
Interpreting Information	
Developmental continua	profiles describing student learning to determine extent of learning, next steps, and to report progress and achievement
Checklists	descriptions of criteria to consider in understanding students' learning
Rubrics	descriptions of criteria with gradations of performance described and defined
Reflective journals	reflections and conjecture students maintain about how their learning is going and what they need to do next
Self-assessment	process in which students reflect on their own performance and use defined criteria for determining the status of their learning
Peer assessment	process in which students reflect on the performance of their peers and use defined criteria for determining the status of their peers' learning
Record-Keeping	
Anecdotal records	focused, descriptive records of observations of student learning over time
Student profiles	information about the quality of students' work in relation to curriculum outcomes or a student's individual learning plan
Video or audio tapes, photographs	visual or auditory images that provide artifacts of student learning
Portfolios	systematic collection of their work that demonstrates accomplishments, growth, and reflection about their learning
Communicating	
Demonstrations, presentations	formal student presentations to show their learning to parents, judging panels, or others
Parent-student-teacher conferences	opportunities for teachers, parents, and students to examine and discuss the student's learning and plan next steps
Records of achievement	detailed records of students' accomplishments in relation to the curriculum outcomes
Report cards	periodic symbolic representations and brief summaries of student learning for parents
Learning and assessment newsletters	routine summaries for parents, highlighting curriculum outcomes, student activities, and examples of their learning

Planning for Teaching and Learning *

1. **Select content and determine inquiry approach**

   Teachers and students select content and generate inquiry questions guided by the essential question and enduring understandings. Approaches will vary based on student interest and available resources, and may include:

   - Individual inquiry: each student explores different content

   - Group inquiry: groups of students explore the same content

   - Perspectives inquiry: individuals or groups explore content from diverse perspectives (e.g., socio-economic class, gender and sexual orientation, culture, ethnicity, religion, physical/mental ability, age . . .)

   - Cooperative inquiry: small groups explore different content and share their learning with the class

   - Whole class inquiry: the entire class explores the same content

2. **Determine evidence and establish criteria for assessment *of* learning**

   In this stage of planning, teachers and students determine culminating tasks and descriptive criteria for the assessment *of* learning (e.g., products, performances, demonstrations, and other tasks that will provide evidence of understanding and historical thinking).

3. **Design teaching and learning and ongoing assessment strategies**

   In this stage, teachers design teaching and learning strategies that engage students in the application of historical thinking concepts and skills. The design should identify key primary sources and allow for differentiated instruction. With purpose in mind, teachers plan strategies that integrate assessment *as* and *for* learning through each phase of the learning experience (Activate, Acquire, Apply).

Refer to the Planning Templates for each essential question in Section III.

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* This suggested model for planning teaching, learning, and assessment is based on the "backward design" approach developed by Wiggins and McTighe (*Understanding by Design,* 1998).

Teacher's Checklist

In addition to Seixas's description of historical thinking and suggestions for student tasks, Osborne (2000) offers the following teacher's checklist to support teachers in making the changes needed to help students gain a better understanding of history:

✓ **Activate**
students to nuances of language and style and their effect on argument and interpretation

✓ **Avoid**
presentism by seeing the past on its own terms, focusing on specific people or groups rather than on abstract movements, trends, and 'isms', and using concrete reality and events to open up more abstract and impersonal forces

✓ **Challenge**
students to work with primary sources using a wide variety of secondary sources and going beyond a core textbook using non-print as well as print materials (e.g., artifacts, cartoons, maps, pictures, etc.)

✓ **Create**
a sense of empathy with people of the past so that students see the world as people of the time saw it

✓ **Critically Analyze**
the textbook and other sources of information

✓ **Emphasize**
justice to all the people of the past regardless of gender, race, class, or other characteristics

✓ **Employ**
"meta-discourse" to make the past interesting (i.e., making clear to students the assumptions, reasoning strategies, value judgments, etc., that lie between and behind the lines of written and spoken statements)

✓ **Empower**
students to arrive at reasonable criteria for determining historical significance, while also seeing the subjective (but not capricious) nature of such criteria

✓ **Encourage**
students to formulate, clarify, and justify their own ideas based on evidence

✓ **Engage**
students to make connections (i.e., comparisons, contrasts, analogies, linkages) between the past and the present, but without imposing present values on the past

✓ **Explore**
history as ideas rather than facts to be learned and problems to be solved

✓ **Include**
techniques of critical thinking and issues analysis

✓ **Incorporate**
multiple perspectives into the exploration of the past (to reveal the multiplicity of voices and viewpoints in the past and present)

✓ **Insist**
that arguments and hypotheses be based on evidence, so that students see that historical understanding requires factual knowledge

✓ **Inspire**
students engage in some original research (i.e., research that has never been done before, such as family or local history)

✓ **Introduce**
students to issues of historiography and historical interpretation

✓ **Investigate**
multi-causation in history

✓ **Motivate**
students to do history, by both critically analyzing sources and constructing historical accounts

✓ **Present**
history as open-ended (so that students see the people of the past as contending with problems whose outcomes they could not foretell), showing the people of the past as active agents doing what they could to shape their lives