

*Nicole Ehlers, Harry Havekes, Ronald Nolet (eds.)*

# **Living and Learning in Border Regions**

**Cross Border Learning Activities**  
*Issues - Methods – Places*

## Impressum

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living and learning  
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## Preface

In the following you will find the result of a project, which ran over three years, in which ten institutions cooperated in seven European countries. The project called „Living and Learning in Border Regions“ was sponsored by the European Commission from October 2005 to September 2008 with funds from the Comenius 2.1. program.

The partner organisations found together because they had a lot in common: they work with and for pupils and see the border regions as their field of work. The latter meaning, that they consider the border region a part of their subject matter or that they want to reach the people on the other side of the respective border with their offers. A further important mutual interest was that they all were open to new learning methods and that they wanted to integrate these methods in their everyday work. The new learning methods termed here in short as „Thinking Skills“ were introduced by two partner institutes in several project meetings. At home the partners compiled lessons that were based on these new methods. The special aspect about this approach was that the developed lessons had to also meet two further criteria: they were devised to sharpen the pupils' eye for borders and border regions, and to explore learning places in the border regions located outside schools. This versatility is also illustrated by the way the partnerships are composed; not only teacher training colleges and further education institutes participated but also adult educational institutes and a research institute.

In the following volume the first and general part, the „Living and Learning in Border Regions“ project is introduced so that the reader can understand in which context the presented materials were created. Furthermore, the general part contains an introductory text that explains the theoretical background of the „Thinking Skills“ and also presents several „Thinking Skills“ tasks. Some of the tasks originated from the Comenius project while others had previously been devised by the partners Nijmegen and Halden and presented at the project meetings

The second, regional, part of this volume was put together by partners in the German-Dutch, Polish-Czech, and the Austrian-Hungarian border regions who had worked together in regional work-groups. This part comprises the lessons that were developed during the project work meetings and that were then tested in the project meetings with other partners.

The third part is an appendix that contains the bibliographical references of the first and second part. Additionally it includes short biographies of the authors of the regional volumes. Finally this section contains descriptions of the institutes that took part. This is to make it easier to contact the institutes that participated in the project and to possibly trigger new cooperations.

*Nicole Ehlers (project coordinator)*  
September 2008

# Introduction

## Aims

The objective of the Comenius 2.1 project „Living and Learning in Border Regions“ was to devise learning methods that enabled teachers:

- \* to develop teaching and learning materials for an active and autonomous learning and thinking about borders and border situations;
- \* to make teachers aware of the possibilities to extend their lessons with visits to out-of-school learning environments and to implement this visit in their lessons;
- \* to illustrate comparative and contrasting developments in their border region and to heighten awareness for the European dimension of their own region.

We will look briefly at the three components of the project.

### 1. "Thinking Skills"

The first chapter of this anthology contains an introduction to the theory of the "Thinking Skills". Therefore we will only touch briefly here on the relevance of "Thinking Skills" in a modern society. According to many teachers critical thinking is a prerequisite for political education. This requires a broader palette of skills the so-called "higher order thinking skills". The development of "Thinking Skills" is a requirement for life-long learning.

### 2. Border Regions

The subject matter of the project focused on the border region. Pupils who live in border regions were to work in their lessons with materials that viewed the border region in its entirety. Thereby the following two processes were to be activated:

- \* Pupils are made aware of their own identity;
- \* Pupils learn to view their fixed opinions of the "Others" anew.

In general the "Other" is experienced as something strange that one does not want to know. Depending on the border region the threat can have economical and/or cultural factors as its origins. However, in both cases the reason for the antagonism is a knowledge deficit about the reality of the "Other" and about which factors led to the specific historical development. Dealing with the border regions in their entirety at school can strengthen regional identification and thus also strengthen the process of European unification. This could ultimately lead to the disappearance of prejudices and to the fact that pupils study or work in the respective neighbour country.

### 3. Out-of-school learning environments

Out-of-school learning environments, such as museums, historical places, or information centres, are ideally suited for imparting knowledge about the neighbour region. This applies even more so when the settings are located on the other side of the border. Crossing the border alone is an opportunity for pupils to learn about other European cultures and opinions. The visit of a out-of-school learning environment offers pupils access to original sources and enables them to pose their own research questions. This can be a part of the learning process which focuses on Thinking Skills.

Although the out-of-school learning environments, mainly museums, are becoming increasingly aware of pupils as an important target group, the visit to a out-of-school learning environment has not yet been sufficiently integrated in the curriculum. One problem is, that they often do not have the competence that would enable them to function as a learning location for schools. By providing teachers with tools as well as learning and teaching materials for an active, self-determined and autonomous learning and thinking about border related developments, out-of-school learning environments can be integrated in the curriculum even when there is no museums pedagogue available.

## Regional Networks

The aim of the project "Living and Learning in Border Regions" was to create regional networks where teacher trainers, adult educationists, and further education teacher trainers could develop learning and teaching materials, which would help integrate Out-of-school learning environments better in the

curriculum, together with museum pedagogues, research institutes, and teachers. In total three networks were created: a Polish-Czech, an Hungarian-Austrian, and a German-Dutch network. The first network comprised two new EU members, the second network included one new member and one old member, and the third network was made up of two old members. This gave the project partners the opportunity to emphasize the different situation of the border regions based on their EU membership.

### **Project Meetings**

The project ran for three years (October 2005 – September 2008). In this time five working meetings took place. The first meeting aimed to introduce the theory of “Thinking Skills” to the project partners. The methods experts of the teacher training program in Nijmegen (Netherlands) and Halden (Norway) undertook this. They also gave concrete examples of learning methods that encouraged thinking skills as well as cross-border subjects, and also facilitated outside school learning.

Parallel to this, the partners developed their own materials within their regional networks. These materials were presented to the partners in three further project meetings. During the project meetings that were held alternatively in one of the three border regions the project partners visited one of the Out-of-school learning environments for which the learning methods had been developed.

### **Project Results**

The learning methods that were developed in the regional networks are available in both languages of the countries involved. One task per border region was included in the first general part of this anthology and was therefore translated into all languages of the partners. However, not only this anthology is responsible for making the project results known, but also a strategy paper with recommendations for decision makers in the respective nation states. This strategy paper was to lead to a better integration of Out-of-school learning environments in the curriculum by providing the teachers with a certain degree of freedom when devising a lesson and also supporting the visit of a out-of-school learning environment financially, if possible.

In addition a website circulates the project results ([www.borderactivities.eu](http://www.borderactivities.eu)). The website does not only contain information about the project “Living and Learning in Border Regions” and the partners that were involved, but also provides the possibility to download individual items of the anthology and the strategy paper.

### **Evaluation method**

Project related evaluation instruments were, on the one hand the questionnaires that were designed to evaluate the project meetings and the project as a whole, and on the other hand evaluations spoken during the project meetings. Regarding the contents of the materials that were developed, the original aims were discussed and adjusted. The evaluation of the developed materials before publication found a broad forum. In addition, the piloted teacher training program also served as a test for the newly designed learning methods. This training took place at the end of February/beginning of March 2008 in the German-Dutch border region. Altogether 30 teachers participated in the training: 4 from Hungary, 3 from the Czech republic, 1 from Belgium and 11 respectively from Germany and the Netherlands.

## **Evaluation**

Given the objectives formulated at the outset of the project, we will now discuss what the general outcome has been.

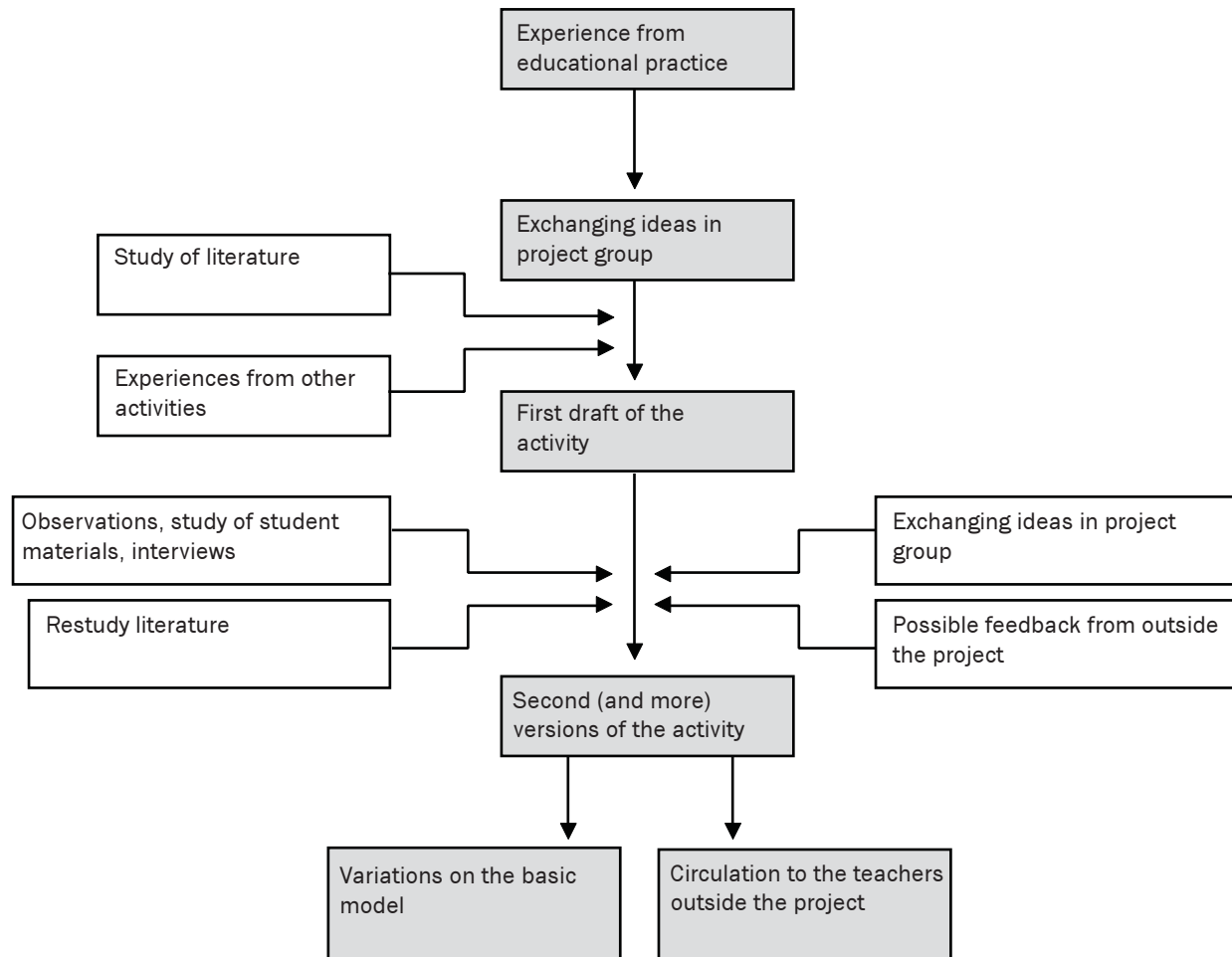
### **Thinking Skills**

An important objective of the project was to develop learning materials that could be used in out-of-school learning environments in order to enable active and self-regulated learning.

In order to achieve this goal, tasks were developed that made use of informal learning environments and specific forms of thinking skills. Those products were developed in close cooperation with ‘cross-border’ partners in the “regional networks”.

In total, twenty-four thinking skills were developed, of which a substantial part was tested in practice and discussed in the project meetings. Reflections on the use of these specific thinking skills can be found in the regional contributions.

In diagrammatic form:



### Reflection

How do the contributing partners look back on the use of the thinking skills?

In general, the thinking skills activities were found to be a highly motivational way of working with students. At the same time, they encouraged students to learn actively. This ensured that students formulated their own thoughts and knowledge on the topic in question: the regional geographical, social or historical context.

Thinking skills can bring this about because students are made aware of the way in which they learn (the process) and they perceive their task as a challenge. Additionally, the learning task requires students to use their prior knowledge and skills, thus stimulating them to transfer their knowledge and skills to another assignment or domain. The focus on the process and the subject makes it easier for the students and their teachers to get involved in informal or out-of-school learning.

Students are compelled, as it were, to manipulate their knowledge-base in order to seek out new ways of providing answers to the topic in question. That is to say, thinking skills always make students change the perspective they use for contemplating the subject.

On the other hand, the experience of the contributing partners is that, by using thinking skills, the work of the teacher, with respect to the subject matter and organisation of the learning process, shifts significantly from execution to preparation. This might prove an obstacle for teachers, since there may be too little time for this preparation.

Black and William (1998) have pointed out this attitude of teachers. They state that teachers will not use the outcome of scientific research or didactic insights, if these are presented in general words. Teachers will not, or are not able to, transfer these outcomes to their own practise or domain because they are too busy. They require 'a variety of living examples of implementation, by teachers with whom they can identify and from whom they can both derive conviction and confidence' (Black & William, 1998: 16).

The fact that the Comenius partners overcame this problem themselves is one of the project's great achievements. However, a significant stumbling block is further propagation of the project's outcome.

Only through constant and ongoing schooling and education of the teachers in the several countries is the spread of these contacts ensured.

Another consequence may be that the construction of a comprehensive set of lessons, involving thinking skills, will take a long time. Teachers must therefore see this as a real ‘in-depth’ investment in their curriculum so that the threshold can be overcome. This means that ongoing counselling is once again needed to make it a success in the long term.

### **Out-of-school learning environments**

In everyday life, the concept of learning is often limited to the school premises. This seems only logical, since the everyday experience of children and young people, as well as the recollected experience of adults, relates directly to the learning process in a school setting.

In European (and most other) societies, schools provide the setting in which the formal task of organizing and facilitating the learning of pupils and students is carried out. Beyond that, learning also takes place in many other different ways and forms outside the school.

The method of Thinking Skills introduced here has been developed for learning in these formal learning environments, the schools. Out-of-school education takes place whenever teachers and their students leave the school building (Goll 2007). Concepts and forms of learning like excursions, field studies, regional studies and study trips come to mind (Mickel 1996, Maier 1988, Knoch 1988) and, more in the context of social or political learning, social studies (Detjen 2004) or “*politisches lernen vor Ort*” (political learning on site) (Ackermann 1988).

### **Informal settings and objectives for learning**

In this project we considered three possible ways in which informal learning settings can be used in the learning process:

1. These environments can be used by the teachers who wish to “drag their teaching and learning arenas out of the classroom”; whilst remaining loyal to the curriculum of their subjects, they will use these settings to exemplify and add “depth” to the textbooks. It can be seen as an extension of the classroom. These might involve outdoor settings such as mountains, river valleys (geography), cities (geography and history), villages, parks (art), houses, museums and so on. Examples of thinking skills activities, which were developed with the intention of strengthening the use of informal learning environments as an outdoor place of learning, are: Nieuwstraat/Neustrasse, Köpfchen and Veenmuseum (Germany/The Netherlands); Heritage assignment and The way of life of the first Slav settlers in Silesia (Poland/Czech Republic); The history of the border-city Szombathely in pictures and Drawing borders (Austria/Hungary).
2. In learning processes where the subject content is subordinated to these processes, the same arenas as mentioned above can be used. However, the objective is the way of learning, the subject matter is simply a means to achieving this. The purpose of excursions to these informal settings is also to give students an opportunity to explore their own local environment as a means to forming their social identity, integrating knowledge of the area via a diversity of subjects, and, in doing so, develop an all-round perspective of the area they live in. Informal learning environments can also be used to give examples of the conditions in which people they have contact with in their everyday life actually live. It can be seen as a (re)discovery of the living experiences and their contexts. Examples of thinking skills activities, which were developed with the intention of strengthening the use of informal learning environments as settings for informal learning, are: Bilingualism in Vaals (Germany/The Netherlands); From a natural to a political border – Division of Tesin and Let’s look towards the future (Poland/Czech Republic); Editorial Department of Photographs and Does the village Magyarbük still exist? (Austria/Hungary).
3. A final perspective on informal learning environments is where the purpose of these arenas is not tied in with any specific curriculum. Many teachers know that schools are often thought of by students as a “forced” learning arena, where the real enjoyment of learning is not stimulated. Indeed, students are quite often turned off, and there is a lack the motivation for understanding their own learning processes. These teachers recognise the fact that the issue here is to activate students outside the classroom, and to understand the learning process through hands-on experience, for example, through play, and stimulation of the senses, such as sight, touch and smell. The use of these learning environments helps stimulate different forms of biological and psychological potential to solve problems and/or create products that are valued in one or more cultural contexts. In other

words, activating the students' multiple intelligences.

All of the learning tasks in this project make use of different kinds of activities, for example, involving thinking, touching, looking, smelling, etc. One activity, made by the Polish participants, should be mentioned specifically, because students have to make use of all of their five senses to come up with valid answers: "You are an architect of the future of your region. To what extent are you going to make use of the heritage of the past?".

### Reflection

How did the informal learning settings mentioned above contribute to the objectives of this project? According to the participants these learning environments proved to be a very powerful additive to the thinking skills.

First and foremost, because of their attractiveness and authenticity. Students came into closer contact with history, geography and social situations and were activated in their learning, not only through the thinking skills, but also by the immanent character and challenge they were confronted with in the learning environment. Leat and Linn (2003) have also noted in England that authenticity is a strong aspect of these learning activities.

The participants stated that the informal learning setting contributed to the development of the social identity of the students. Not only in the sense of strengthening an existing image, but rather by questioning labels and stereotypes on which these images were built. Havekes and De Vries (2008) also state that the learning activities stimulate the critical approach and thinking of the students, due to the 'differentiation by outcome' in which the students are asked to critically question their own answers and remarks.

In a practical sense, out-of-school learning environments were also seen as convenient for the teachers, as far as preparation of the learning process was concerned.

In general, the outcome of this project provides us with the insight that out-of-school settings and objects of learning make inevitable and necessary contributions to the learning of students.

The participants also found that the conditions for learning in these environments were not always satisfied: Lack of cooperation and communication, problems with equipment and accessibility of the places on the one hand; the hesitation on the part of teachers to leave the classroom in learning processes, and the unwillingness of school management to invest in these forms of learning on the other.

The participants in this project will use out-of-school learning environments more and more consistently. They will look for ways to bring about better levels of cooperation and communication, for example, with museums, and aim to integrate the learning here with the processes in, and curricula of the formal learning places, i.e. the schools.

### Cross-border Learning

What was it all about?

In this project, participants crossed borders in more than one sense. Boundaries in the way education takes shape in the school were likewise met and confronted. At an institutional level, they sought cooperation with institutions for out-of-school learning, like museums. At a learning level, they stimulated and advanced (ways of) observing and thinking of the students. In this project we have considered cross-border learning as:

- \* Learning about the border and aspects related to border regions.
- \* Learning about the neighbouring country/region.
- \* Learning in cross-border groups.
- \* Learning in the neighbouring country/region by crossing the border.

While the first three could be labelled "figurative", the latter is quite "literally" crossborder learning.

### Evaluation

And then there is the trans-national or European perspective. In this project regional and national borders were crossed to find and often experience:

- \* That there were not only differences between the regions on both sides of the border, but also, and sometimes foremost, there were common aspects - that there was a shared socio-cultural base.
- \* That national borders do not (always) demarcate identity and culture. They surely form part of history and life of today, but they were also found to be an artificial boundary to the commonalities of the region.

\* That students can therefore acknowledge the remarkable fact that they know more about their fellow countrymen many miles away than about their neighbours, who are just a stone's throw away on the other side of the border. This insight can enhance good neighbourliness, cooperation across borders, tolerance and understanding. It also can deal with stereotypes, prejudices and issues of discrimination. In order to accomplish these effects in the long run, several conditions on different levels should be satisfied. Cross-border education should become structural. Teachers should know about their own (trans-national) region and likewise cross the borders of their own subject matter. Local (cultural and educational) authorities should favour and stimulate cross-border learning by means of financial support, seminars, etc. and by stimulating cooperation between cultural (i.e. out-of-school learning environments) and educational institutions in the region.

### **General conclusions**

The three main objectives of this Comenius project were successfully achieved by the participants, partly as a result of existing practices, especially the use of out-of-school learning environments and existing cross-border cooperation, and partly because of the introduction of thinking skills as a means for learning. However, in the main, these objectives were realised because this project, in the opinion of the participants, has shown the benefits of combining these three aspects. Attempting to combine informal learning, cross-border learning and thinking skills wasn't an easy job to do. In several cases participants could only combine the thinking skills successfully with one of the two other aspects. This was partly due to the limited possibilities of some informal learning environments.

However, the project partners have produced and implemented several learning cases, on the basis of which they and their learners were enabled to cross many borders in order to learn from each other, in more ways than one. Results and specific evaluations show that it was worthwhile making the effort.

# Introduction to “Thinking Skills”

This chapter will introduce Thinking Skills and try to give an impression of the general ideas behind this learning strategy.

At first we will deal with Thinking Skills on a theoretical level. Next, we will provide some examples of Thinking Skills, which were developed for the project Living and Learning in Border Areas. Finally, we will focus on the process of debriefing.

## 1.1 Theoretical Introduction

First we will take a brief look at the starting point of these teaching and learning strategies that will be new to most teachers and educators.

We will further explore some of the main aspects of the pedagogical platform of these skills and what they are based upon in terms of theory.

Finally, we will examine the preconditions of Thinking Skills and how they are generally constructed and used in everyday classrooms.

### 1.1.1 Thinking Skills – The Beginning

In the last decade, a set of new teaching and learning strategies were constructed under the concept Thinking Skills. The main ideas behind Thinking Skills were developed by David Leat and Peter Fisher in the 1990s, in Newcastle, England.

David Leat and his associates started a project, in which they gathered materials from experienced teachers and created motivating and interesting lessons for students in and around Newcastle. This resulted in a book on Thinking Skills.

Leat and his colleagues developed a number of exercises that have since been in use in both primary and secondary schools, first in the North of England and nowadays all over England. These teaching and learning strategies have also found their way to the Netherlands and Norway.

Initially the designers of Thinking Skills were concerned about students' motivation during the changes to Northern English society in the 1980s.

In the introduction chapter of the first book about Thinking Skills, David Leat writes that these teaching and learning strategies were initially developed to make lessons in the classroom more interesting.

There was a general understanding that many students expressed boredom and a lack of motivation. Assessments had also shown rather meagre results in reading, writing, and mathematical skills. This was the case not only in England but also in many other European countries.

In the introduction of the first book on Thinking Skills, David Leat wrote, “[...] *there is more to them than just making more interesting lessons... We have learned not only why they work, but also how to make better use of their potential for promoting learning. This has helped provide an antidote to the uniformity triggered by the National Curriculum Orders.*” (1998: 1).

In the 1990s a number of Western European countries (e.g. England and Wales, the Netherlands and Norway) developed new national curricula. Post-modern teaching concepts were introduced and often embedded in these curricula; for example problem-based teaching and project and theme work took up a more prominent position in European school practices.

However, not all schools and teachers were prepared to make the changes that were required to meet the new demands. A number of teachers were sceptical towards student-centred teaching forms. Many teachers in Norway, probably not unlike their colleagues in other countries, reacted in the following manner (Nolet, 2005b):

*Group work creates more chaos in the classroom. Besides how can students know what to ask about if there is hardly any basis in knowledge, which I understand is a precondition for problem based learning? Even we teachers have problems in asking the good questions sometimes. Can we expect our students to have the knowledge to ask the good, knowledge generating questions?*

The notion that students are basically curious and may be able to ask the right question is well documented in pedagogical theory from Herbart up until today's theorists. But we should realise that we have to provide the schools with tools to obtain the skills required to embrace and utilise this curiosity. In our opinion, one of these tools is Thinking Skills.

### 1.1.2 The general idea behind Thinking Skills

The main idea behind Thinking Skills is that teachers must move away from thinking such as, “*Students should be taught that...*” (Leat, 1998). The main concern of Thinking Skills is that students should not get bored and demotivated. The purpose of the strategy is to develop skills that will give students the opportunity to become independent learners who really enjoy learning and who are able to ask questions, even though there is not only one “correct” answer. Thinking Skills is concerned with the students’ thinking abilities and aims to give students the possibility to reflect on their own thinking, on how they obtain knowledge, and on how they in fact learn. In this section we will examine some of the general ideas behind Thinking Skills.

Thinking Skills is about students learning how to use their everyday knowledge and develop this further in a *critical* manner. The idea is to stimulate students with different backgrounds and with different abilities to employ reflective, accelerated, and critical thinking. Through such processes it is believed that students will be able to develop and construct the subject knowledge and the skills required for the subject.

The pedagogical platform of Thinking Skills can be placed within the so-called social-constructivist approach to teaching and learning. These teaching principles are often based on the idea that teachers should make students aware of their responsibility for their own learning and for taking the lead in their own learning processes, which is the basis for independent learning. The students are seen as accountable for their own learning. It is not solely the obligation of the teacher, who should however explain how learning is obtained. Promoting thinking is the most fundamental part of this pedagogical approach. The teacher should put a lot of effort into promoting real thinking.

Giving tasks that require thinking activities is a major part in the constructivist theory, as opposed to frequent repetitions and telling students the content of the subjects they are supposed to learn. This means encouraging students to think by asking questions. Open questions are generally regarded as more useful than closed questions, because the answers to open questions will give better and more independent learning outcomes. Closed questions generally reveal if the students have remembered the content of the lesson, but do not give sufficient information as to whether they have in fact understood the subject matter of the lesson.

This infers that the teacher should select activities that will stimulate the students’ thinking capabilities. Routine activities might sometimes be needed but should be used on a limited scale. They should not be the basis of the learning activities, which has unfortunately often been the case in the educational systems. It is safe to say that repetition reduces the students’ thinking abilities to a mechanical and instrumental level (see also Osborne & Freyberg, 1985).

For a teacher, social constructivism means promoting reflections about learning by making it clear what kind of goals and conclusions a lesson might entail. If students are to be able to construct knowledge, then they must develop the ability to reflect on the learning process itself. They should be encouraged to ask questions like, “What is this lesson all about? What do I (we) have to learn? What is the purpose of what I (we) do? What are the goals? How do I (we) reach these goals? What have I (we) learned? Have I (we) achieved the goals?” (Nolet, 2002).

This in turn might create a *motivation* for learning. Here, it is necessary to make a distinction between *outer* and *inner* motivation. Outer motivation relates to, for example, grades students might obtain in a subject. If students obtain good grades in a subject, it might motivate them, to both continue and refine their knowledge of the subject. But if the grades are not as the students expected, either because they have unrealistic views about themselves, or because they did not understand what was expected of them in their reproduction of knowledge, or if they have done their absolute best but are still not getting the expected grades, this might lead to a lack of motivation. Demotivated students are in many ways an extra burden to the everyday life in classrooms and schools. Generally speaking, outer motivation creates too many uncertainties and does not result in real motivation and interest. Inner motivation is a much more powerful asset in the learning process (see also Ogden, Manger and Asbjørnsen, 1962; Festinger, 1962).

Inner motivation can be created through interesting and useful lessons, where the students feel the sensation of learning as something important that is related to their reality, i.e. placed in a recognisable cultural context. When students can see the usefulness of a lesson and feel that their efforts are rewarded because they understand the content, it will motivate them to work harder. They will be able to feel that they command the learning process and that their endeavours effect knowledge.

Knowledge becomes a part of their reality, a part of their life (Ibid.).

Consequently, the teacher should build her/his lessons on what the students already know, draw parallels, and create a holistic understanding of what is to be studied. The acquired knowledge must base on the students' existing knowledge. This means that the teacher must be familiar with the students' knowledge and opinions and additionally with their social and cultural backgrounds. As we will see later in this chapter, this approach is one of the cornerstones of knowledge.

The teacher must develop strategies to obtain the above-mentioned understanding, for instance, by developing "diagnostic lessons". The teacher should be sensitive towards the students' thoughts and emotions, and should try to adjust her/his lessons to the information about the students. This implies active listening to what students actually express, letting them express their ideas, taking them seriously, and encouraging them to explore their thinking process (Walker, 1986).

Encouraging the exploration of the students' thinking abilities depends on how the lessons are planned and how they take care of and challenge the everyday-life opinions and attitudes that the students might have. New impressions are often interpreted in the light of existing everyday-life opinions, and these opinions might constitute different attitudes from what was intended for the lessons. Therefore it is important that the teacher challenges opinions that are unreasonable or even unacceptable (Lund, 2006).

One method a teacher can use would be the development of cognitive conflicts i.e. the teacher confronts the inconsistencies and contradictions of the students' thinking. A different method is to contrast the students' everyday-life opinions with scientific interpretations and through this develop more consistent and precise interpretations (compare Behne, 2006).

The ideas behind Thinking Skills are based on a specific view of knowledge: a brief examination of the concept of knowledge by Erik Lund. In his essay about Thinking Skills Erik Lund stresses the importance of being aware of four cornerstones of knowledge (2006: 160-161).

The idea of knowledge expressed by Thinking Skills can be explained through four main theoretical concepts.

#### **1.1.2.1 The importance of understanding the background knowledge of the students**

It is quite obvious that no student is a "clean sheet" when he/she starts school; students also learn outside schools. We might even say that out-of-school learning is more common than learning in schools.

The first cornerstone deals with *how* teachers take students' background knowledge and their opinions and attitudes of everyday life into account, and how teachers apply this information to the teaching process. The teacher must examine his/her students' knowledge thoroughly and be clear about what he/she believes the students think they know about central issues within a subject. *This knowledge might be wrong or misunderstood.* A teacher's understanding about his/her students in this context is necessary in order to adjust and to develop new concepts and new adeptness. This is an important cornerstone within the concept of knowledge.

Vygotsky's idea of using students' "proximate zone" is adaptable to this kind of classroom work. A teacher must consider the periphery of students' interest and everyday knowledge to trigger an eagerness for new knowledge (Vygotsky, 1996). In this context, students' silent and intuitive learning in class is essential.

#### **1.1.2.2 Knowledge must be bound to a conceptual framework**

This cornerstone is about the concept of competence. If students are to develop competences within a subject or a subject area, they must have solid conceptual knowledge. It is important that this knowledge is bound to *central* concepts, the *understanding* of concepts, and *concept building* within a subject. Concept-based learning is about how students use their knowledge; a central aspect of competence building is the use and usefulness of knowledge. The relationship between knowledge and competence is as follows: knowledge is something one might have, competence is something one might show and both meet one another in practical situations.

Unfortunately, students often indicate that they see knowledge as a collection of fragmented, isolated, or useless facts. Well-organized and concept-based knowledge is probably best obtained through focussed discussions within the discipline or subject matter. This may be a big challenge for the educational system since a lot of disciplines or subjects appear to be isolated, meaningless facts to many students.

### 1.1.2.3 Key concepts and depth

This third cornerstone deals with the relationship between overview and depth of a subject or subject area. If a student is to understand the defining concepts within a specific subject or discipline, it requires in-depth knowledge. Therefore, superficial coverage of many themes within a subject area should be replaced by a reduced amount of subjects with thorough studies. This is presumed to be necessary in order to understand the key concepts of the subject or subject area. We have seen that in many European countries, the national curriculum is very ambitious when it comes to what a discipline is supposed to contain. In-depth teaching of a subject, on the other hand, demands much more of a teacher. The teacher must include but also exclude aspects of a discipline in order to convey comprehensive facts of a subject. Thus, a teacher's decision to include or exclude learning matter must be a conscious decision.

### 1.1.2.4 Metacognition

The fourth cornerstone deals with reflections on the processes of thinking and learning amongst students. Metacognition means thinking and reflections on how to think. It means becoming aware and conscious of the learning process, i.e. how we learn and think. If you ask students, "What did you learn in school today", few will produce an accurate answer and even fewer will say that they learned how to learn.

Why is this so? Metacognitive training helps students to gain control of their own learning process by becoming aware and conscious of their own thinking process concerning a discipline or subject. The question of how students reflect on their own learning mode is essential. It is important to develop metacognition if a student is to focus on relevant aspects of the lessons, retrieve existing knowledge about the topic, and understand the relationships. Metacognition can be promoted by making it clear to the students what the learning activity is all about; the intentions, the goals, and the possible outcomes.

### Learning – a social activity

Social constructivism is basically a theory about knowledge, which incorporates a certain perspective on the learning process. Social-constructivist theory explains how learning is connected with collective social activities. As the word indicates the essence of the idea is that knowledge is constructed actively. This is on an individual level (i.e. the students' knowledge) as well as on a collective level (scientific knowledge). The development of knowledge is not simply a passive registration by our senses but an active organisation of and adjustment to our different worlds of experiences. It is not merely a discovery of apparently objective reality. Knowledge is not to be seen as a direct mirror of that reality. Neither should scientific knowledge be seen as the truth, simply because human beings have developed more and consistent knowledge (Steffe & Thompson, 2000).

David Leat's idea that knowledge cannot be *given or taught* implies that knowledge is created actively by each individual (Leat 1998). Individuals do not live as hermits, isolated from the world outside. Humans live in groups, in families, with relatives and peers. We learn from each other and with each other. We are social species.

Language, like the words written in books and told by a teacher, cannot transport knowledge. Individual students construct the meaning of the words and sentences themselves. The only thing language can actually do is to bring about the experiences that the individual student associates with the words that have been used (Vygotsky, 1996).

In other words, learning is not an isolated matter, although entirely individual. It is moreover a social activity. An individual's understanding of his/her surroundings and the world is not only developed on the basis of experiences with physical phenomena, but also by communication with others and by the ideas that are embedded in languages and cultures they meet (Ibid.).

Learning is furthermore a constructive process; it is a social process and a cultural process. This view of learning has consequences for the conceptions of knowledge, which in its turn has consequences for a teacher's approach to his/her students. The question is:

What consequences does this social-constructivist approach have for the teacher in the classroom?

Traditionally one can see a teacher as a *teacher of knowledge* on the one hand and on the other as a *guide to knowledge*. In English the word "teach" is a problematic term for our context, since it can comprise many different meanings. In Germanic languages, such as German, Dutch and in the Scandinavian languages, the term teach can be translated to "vermitteln" in German, "onderwijzen" in

Dutch, and “formidle” in Norwegian. These terms were common concepts in the educational system in these countries until quite recently.

Thus, within the social constructivist theory, knowledge cannot be given or taught, or vermittelt, onderwezen or formidlet. Knowledge is to be constructed by the students themselves, preferably in a context with other people and of course in a cultural context. The teacher is a kind of mediator who should show where knowledge can be found, how it can be used, and why it is needed. This does not imply that the knowledge and the role of the teacher are of less importance in the classroom; on the contrary, the knowledge of the teacher is even more essential for developing motivating and meaningful lessons.

The classroom has of course an important function. Many students are gathered together and social activities are existing realities. With Teaching Skills it is important to use this collective platform as the basis of most exercises, which will mainly consist of group activities.

### 1.1.3 Preconditions for the use of Thinking Skills

It is important to be aware of the division between *teaching and learning strategies and teaching themes and problem-based learning*. A teaching and learning strategy is like a super-structural entrance to a theme or a subject. Within each teaching and learning strategy there are a number of lessons that might be chosen for the teaching and learning of the subject. These lessons in turn consist of exercises or tasks, covering the discipline or subject matter. In other words, every teaching and learning strategy is placed in a context. The context depends on the theme the students are working on.

As stated above, in most of the Thinking Skills lessons the students are placed in groups, with each group being given a (the same) task or exercise. The groups preferably consist of three and sometimes four members, depending on the kind of Thinking Skill that is introduced to the classroom. How these groups are composed depends on the teacher’s background on the students regarding gender, age, ability level, peer relationship between the students, and so forth. Our experience is that group work involves the students quickly in exploring discussions. The exercises are student-centred but not student-chosen curricula (Nolet, 2005a).

In *problem-based learning* the students will have to define the problem and the task themselves. In doing this, the time they spend on defining what problem to work on often exceeds more than 80% of the total time available for the lesson (Nolet, 2002). Often the questions raised cannot be considered good enough to trigger the knowledge and skills required for the subject, due to the reality that students have not got the experience to raise good questions. Raising good questions is a skill that requires long training. With Thinking Skills it is *the teacher that defines the activities* for the classroom. The teacher structures the exercises, hands out a demanding task to the students and encourages them to use the knowledge they already have. This leads to quick responses; it is time efficient and creates less “negative chaos” in the classroom.

#### Thinking Skills

A Thinking Skills strategy consists of 5 major steps.

- \* The first step is the preparation. One can start by planning and developing an exercise with the purpose of creating interesting and challenging lessons.
- \* The second step is the launching of the lessons, giving a minimum of information. This is the part where the actual exercise is given to the students.
- \* The third step is managing the activity; i.e. monitoring how the students work in their groups, observing and, if necessary, guiding them through the activity.
- \* The fourth, and probably most important, step is debriefing. The students are specifically asked about how they solved the given problem or task.
- \* The fifth step is concerned with bridging and following up the knowledge, translating it to other fields or topics outside the subject.

### 1.1.3.1 Preparations of the lessons

Planning and developing an exercise is the first step. Here the teacher should start by asking:

- \* What is the purpose of this lesson?
- \* How can my students obtain and develop the knowledge that is required for the subject or discipline?
- \* How can they develop the skills that are required for the subject or discipline?
- \* What is the possible background knowledge or competence of my students?
- \* How can I motivate them for this lesson?
- \* How can I make this lesson interesting and exiting for my students?

Obviously, the role of the teacher at this stage is central. The knowledge and creativity of the teacher play an important role for the success and the outcome of the lessons. Background information on the students is not obligatory, but it will help when placing the students into groups and planning the lessons at their level.

The teacher might experience that Thinking Skills gives an opportunity to get to know the students and their resources and background. This makes Thinking Skills a useful technique when confronting a new class and getting to know the students.

When planning an exercise it is a good idea to underline the important and relevant concepts in textbooks and to try to incorporate these into the exercise. It might also be important to consider introducing the possible debates and discussions within the subject or topic to the students.

Considerations about what kinds of skills are necessary (i.e. listening skills, observation skills, reading skills, debating skills, writing skills, explaining skills and so forth) are vital for the outcome of the exercise. It is significant to think about the (scientific) outcomes of the exercise (for example: cause-effect, causal analyses, classification, fact or opinion, developing vocabulary, decision making, handling information and so forth).

Answers to the posed questions should not be too obvious or easily solved. Planning an exercise should first and foremost deal with making students find more reflective answers. If the answer is too easy and obvious it is not likely that it will trigger the thinking processes of the class. When students are given challenging tasks, more explorative answers are more likely to occur.

The difficult part is to choose what type of teaching and learning strategy should be used and may be the most powerful strategy for the lesson.

The teacher must also keep in mind the launching of the exercise as well as the management, debriefing and following up of the lessons.

Finally it is also necessary to prepare the constellations of the groups; how many students should there be in each group and who should work together, taking age, gender, abilities, and peer relations into account.

### 1.1.3.2 Launching the exercise

Launching means introducing a Thinking Skill activity to the students. When a Thinking Skill activity is presented the first time, it might be necessary to persuade the students to recognize the relevance and the demands of the exercise. The teacher divides the class into groups and explains the advantages of collective work. "Three heads think better than one" is an often-used slogan describing this perspective. Besides it is an excellent practical lesson in democracy, where students must learn how to communicate with each other in order to solve the challenges in the exercise in the best way possible. How the groups are put together depends on what knowledge the teacher has of the students. The Norwegian experience is that a student group of three works better than a group of four, in most of the Thinking Skill activities. When four students work together there is a possibility that two and two will work together thus influencing the outcome of their teamwork. The case could also be that one student drops out of the exercise and lets the others do the work. When only three students work together, there is less chance that this will happen and it is also easier for the teacher to control the teams in the classroom. But in some exercises four students in a group are required (e.g. the Thinking Skill called "Map from Memory").

The teacher gives the students concise and unambiguous instructions and explains what she/he expects the students to do in order to solve the task. The teacher may write down the task on the blackboard so that the students do not forget what they are working on during the activities. It is necessary to make sure that every student understands what is expected.

In many Thinking Skill exercises there are no fixed key-answers. It is important that the teacher makes it clear to the students that there are no exact answers and that the exercise will have several possible outcomes. The purpose of these metacognitive exercises is to let the students arrive at meaningful and reflective answers based on reasoning and contrastive debates in the group. Many students are, however, used to factual key-answers and may find it difficult to experience the openness of the exercise at the beginning, when the first Thinking Skill activity is introduced. Research in Norway on this phenomenon shows that students are often frustrated to begin with, as expressed in the reaction, *“Please teacher, tell us what is the right answer?”* (Lund & Nolet, 2000-2004). This kind of reaction will most likely disappear after some time when the students get to know the proceedings of the Thinking Skills and understand the metacognitive purpose behind the exercises. Experiences in Norway show that this occurs quite quickly if the debriefing part of the lesson is successful in making the students understand why there are several possible answers to a question. Then, metacognitive processes will ensue amongst the students.

### 1.1.3.3 Managing the lesson

The teacher must be clear about her/his intentions for the particular activity. Often the teacher is concerned with the learning of the content, as the lessons are never content free. To a certain degree it is of course necessary to have a focus on the knowledge content. However, the main focus should be on the development of the students as learners.

The teacher wanders in the classroom and observes, how the students solve the task, how they work together as a team, and listens to what the students say, how they express their ideas, and so forth. This is important for the next step of the lesson, the debriefing part, when these observations are used by the teacher. It should also provide the teacher with useful information of the students' abilities and their different levels of subject and context knowledge. In most of the Thinking Skill lessons, the teacher is an observer, but sometimes the teacher will have to intervene in the students' working process, preferably as a guide. The teacher should not answer any questions unless they refer to formal aspects of the exercise, but should inspire and encourage the students to use their thinking abilities. We have also noticed that students sometimes prefer to ask a peer, a fellow student in the group, about the subject matter instead of asking the teacher, which would reveal their lack of knowledge (Lund & Nolet, 2000-2004). Students will help each other in the group, binding the group together and creating a kind of solidarity between the members. This in turn may create a healthy kind of competition between the groups in the classroom and make the groups put a lot of effort into solving the task in the best possible manner.

The teacher should keep in mind the time used at this stage of the lessons. Thinking Skills tasks have different durations depending on the task, the abilities of the students, and the time at disposal for the lesson.

The teacher may experience that students believe they are not really finished with the task. Since Thinking Skills exercises are open tasks with several possible outcomes, a group may find that they are not yet finished when the teacher calls a stop to this stage of the lesson. Still, the teacher should always stop the activity at the set deadline. It is often convenient to announce the deadline five minutes in advance so the students can prepare the end of the task.

### 1.1.3.4 Debriefing

This step of the lesson is considered most difficult but also the most crucial part of the lesson. In many cases this task alone is not sufficient to develop the metacognitive processes amongst the students. The debriefing consists of a plenum discussion, a classroom dialog about how the students solved the task and how they arrived at different answers and reasoning, as well as a summing up of the activities.

At this stage of the lesson the teacher should encourage the students to

- \* explain their reflections and ideas about how they went about solving the task. This constitutes the metacognition;
- \* explain at length their answers and the solutions of the task, with more than three words. What was the line of reasoning that they employed? What reasoning developed during their discussions? This constitutes the subject and content knowledge, the key concepts and depth, the development of verbal skills and rhetoric, besides the metacognition;
- \* explain how they solved their differences, if any. This constitutes the democratic skills;

- \* explain to the other group members their reasoning and how it fits into the solution of the problem or task. This constitutes the collective responsibility of the learning process, and metacognition.

In general the debriefing step of the lesson is not mainly concerned with the *solutions* per se (i.e. the subject content), but deals more with *how* the tasks were solved, what skills were necessary and what the students learned about learning and what they think about thinking. David Leat (1998: 5) calls this step of the lesson the *multiplier factor*.

#### 1.1.3.5 The bridging and following up

This step of the lesson can be seen as the final part of the debriefing. At this stage of the lesson the teacher should draw the students' attention to how the knowledge and reasoning can be *transferred* to other contexts and subjects where that content and reasoning will be valuable. This constitutes the bridging to new and other areas of knowledge, and the meaningfulness of the lesson. Questions like the following should be asked: How can we use the knowledge that the work with the task has given us for other relevant themes and subjects? The activity will also give valuable answers to the question why the students have to learn this subject.

Sometimes it might be important to follow up the lesson with written tasks in the form of homework, project work and so forth. The decision to do follow-up activities depends on the kind of Thinking Skill activity that has been used, the need for more written exercises in the classroom, and the students' writing skills.

#### Suitable for all kinds of students

The use of Thinking Skills in the classroom shows positive results. One of the major advantages of this exciting approach to the teaching and learning process is that it suits all kinds of students. Students with different abilities and interests can do the tasks at their own level. Even if tasks are demanding, most students find it exciting to work with them, which is an advantage especially with young students. Working in groups, often with demanding exercises, will strengthen the students' individuality.

In Norway, research has shown that students with a weak understanding of Norwegian are still able to participate in the exercises and improve their understanding of the language. Well structured Thinking Skill lessons challenge all kinds of students on their own level, also students with a different cultural and language background than Norwegian. Their educational background is often seen as an asset for the group and the classroom in solving the different tasks (Nolet, 2006).

There is a small but important element of competition within the groups, even though there are no winners or losers in such teaching and learning lessons. All feel like winners. Speed and excitement has a certain appeal to the young. They learn to work according to a schedule, sometimes even with a clock guiding the lesson like in the Thinking Skill *Map from Memory*. Time taking will prevent even the most reluctant students from remembering that they do not like being involved in collective activities; they will often have no time to think about their anxiety. Thinking Skills involves the students quickly in the problem or task.

It is also interesting to notice that it is often the "demanding" students that benefit the greatest from this kind of lessons because it is their creativity and energy that is assessed. And further, the classroom experiences that it is valuable to have these students on the team.

## 2 Thinking-Skills-activities

### 2.1 Taboo

#### General

'Taboo' is a learner-based activity which has been used in educational setting for many years, frequently under different names. Likewise, in the classroom setting, the activity shows many parallels with the TV game 'Charades'.

The aim of the game is for learners to explain a concept in their own words without using the 'forbidden words'. The 'forbidden words' are important because they cannot be used in the explanation and make the description of the concept more difficult. At higher levels, learners are expected to place the 'forbidden words' systematically in the correct historical context.

#### Forms of 'Taboo'

The basics of 'Taboo' are simple: learners are given a concept. They must then describe the concept, without using a number of specific words, i.e. the taboo words. The example alongside shows the format as it will appear on paper or on the blackboard.

Different forms of 'Taboo' are possible. One version might focus on familiarisation with the activity, helping to explain the principles and procedures of the activity. This basic form will teach learners to apply content and meaning to the concepts. This form of 'Forbidden to say' forms the basis of all other forms of this thinking activity.

In a second form, the emphasis is on the description of the concepts by learners, using their own words. The teacher decides what the concept is and the associated 'forbidden words'. By giving a description to the concept, learners will start to discover that they will be able to resort to examples and characteristics of the concepts.

In a more advanced version of 'Taboo', the emphasis will be on placing the concept in its historical or geographical context. Here, explicit use will be made of a 'cooperative learning method': thinking-sharing-exchanging. The main objective of the exercise is that learners use the concept in its historical context.

For all variations, post-activity evaluation is important in order to make learners aware of the learning results (product) and the thinking strategies that have led to this (process).

#### Cottage industry

Forbidden to say:

1. house
2. farm
3. textiles
4. weaving
5. spinning
6. 18th century
7. clothing
8. producing

#### Experiences

The strength of the activity (enjoyable and challenging) is also its weakness. The creative element can dominate the activity to such an extent that intended learning results are put into the background. In the first instance, learners see the activity as a language game, whereby extensive recourse is made to techniques used in the TV programme, Charades. Historical knowledge or skills is hardly applied. The undirected associative strategy and the language-creative element take too much precedence over the thinking skills. Furthermore, learners will come up with suggestions from their own realm of life, which teachers are not familiar with at all. If the evaluation, and with it, the objective of the exercise, focuses primarily on the process ("How did you do it? What worked and what didn't?"), this should not prove an obstacle.

The third version of 'Taboo' will push the creative, playful element into the background and the emphasis will be more on content-related aspects of the concepts.

The 'taboo words', it would seem, at least as far as the learning process is concerned, are the biggest controlling factor in the activity. The 'sender' attempts to steer the 'receiver' in the right direction by means of these words. It is therefore the 'sender' who learns the most in this activity. In the third version, the actual learning moment occurs before the explanation and the naming of the concept begins. Sometimes 'Taboo' misses the target completely. This happens when the competitive element takes precedence. For example, who can identify the word or context the most quickly or win the most cards? The 'sender' might influence the process by explaining or pedantically demanding that the exact concept has to be identified. This becomes even more frustrating if the 'receiver' knows what the concept

being described is, but simply cannot name it. At this point, the teacher should intervene. Then, the objective of active historical thinking is not attained.

### **Didactical background**

'Taboo' is important for learning to understand the meaning of concepts. By thinking up 'taboo words' and by describing concepts without recourse to the 'taboo words', learners will realise which other concepts are connected to the concept being described. That might be a link with other topic-related concepts or 'hands-on' knowledge (social and cognitive world) of the learners. By consolidating the learners' network of concepts, knowledge integration takes place, thus enhancing the retention and activation of knowledge. What's more, they learn to use the information available for the concept.

An important learning result is meta-cognitive knowledge, which means that learners gain an insight into the process of knowledge acquisition. If learners, for instance, discover that when concepts are learned, they must always practice using examples, since the meaning of a concept is only understood when they think of an example, then they have learned something that can improve their way of learning (learning strategy) permanently. They can use this strategy in other history lessons, but also for other subjects.

#### *'Taboo' in general,*

- \* activates the prior knowledge of learners;
- \* enables knowledge and concepts to sink in more easily;
- \* gives an insight into the learning strategies of learners (how do they order and associate things?);
- \* teaches learners to identify, classify, to order and to relate things;
- \* teaches learners not only to understand a concept/event (reproductive definition), but learners also develop an understanding (network, descriptions, context) and applications (examples) of the concept or the event.
- \* implants a network of concepts, which assists in the retention and integration of (new) knowledge.
- \* helps identify the prior knowledge of the learners at the start of the lesson/course (word-web, concept-mapping, mind-mapping, network of concepts).
- \* at the end of the lesson/course, represents a form of evaluation (diagnostic or otherwise) for appraising newly acquired information.

## 2.2 Odd one out

### General

Concepts acquire meaning and sink in more easily if they are placed in context with each other. The Odd-One-Out learning activity was originally devised for concept acquisition. Odd One Out can also serve to gain an understanding of persons, phenomena, events, objects and images. For convenience's sake, this introduction refers to 'concepts', though other terms might be used here as well.

In an Odd One Out exercise, the learner must identify the link between concepts and argue the reasoning. Since this is a puzzle-activity - 'What's out of place?' - you can kill two birds with one stone: an enjoyable activity with high learning output.

### Forms of 'Odd One Out'

In Odd One Out, learners are given a series of three or more concepts. One concept has to be picked out, which, in their view, does not belong in the series. Then, and this is the essence of the exercise, they have to provide reasons as to what the remaining concepts have in common. They must identify the common context, that is, the link between the remaining concepts. For that reason, Odd One Out is an ideal exercise in classification: it teaches learners to think about concepts and about the relationship between concepts. By thinking about the commonalities, learners move into the field of coordinated, subordinated and overarching concepts, that is, a hierarchical network of concepts.

Odd One Out can be carried out amongst various age groups and at any level, since the activity can be quickly and easily altered to suit the learner. The string of concepts can vary in length: younger secondary school learners will best be served by a maximum of four concepts. Higher levels and older learners can work with a series of five concepts. A second form of differentiation is that one concept in a series of concepts is out of place, or that there is an Odd One Out amongst all concepts, that is, if a different line of reasoning is used. Finally, the level of difficulty is determined by the choice of concepts (the abstraction level).

### Experiences

'Odd One Out' places demands on the capacity of learners to associate. That is both the strength and weakness of the activity. If the aim of the exercise is for learners to discover the commonalities of a series of concepts, then this should preferably be done within the context of the subject (history, geography, art, social studies). But results are not guaranteed if the instructions are not structured. Learners will think up anything to decide why a particular concept does not belong with the others.

With a bit of structure, this problem can be solved. This ties in with the solution that was to be found with 'Taboo', that is, that learners must work with relevant pointers, such as time, space, causes, circumstances, etc.

### Didactical background

The various learner activities in respect of 'Odd One Out':

- \* teaches learners to identify, classify, to order and to relate things (discover links);
- \* teaches learners not only to understand a concept/event (reproductive definition), but learners also develop an understanding (network, descriptions, context) and applications (examples) of the concept or the event.
- \* implants a network of concepts, which assists in the retention and integration of (new) knowledge;
- \* can be used as an evaluation activity (diagnostic or otherwise) at the end of a lesson;
- \* teaches learners to reason;
- \* allows learners to discover that reasoning is better than giving an answer just for the sake of it;
- \* helps visualise the thinking process of learners;
- \* provides an insight into the learning strategies of learners (selecting, ordering, classifying and relating by learners);
- \* allows learners to discover their own knowledge in relation to that of the other learners;
- \* can be used in groups with different levels (differentiation according to level);
- \* motivates learners (freedom for learners, creative activity, etc.);
- \* can be used in different activities; individual or cooperative learning in groups;
- \* allows learners to discover links/contexts. They do this by seeking out relevant relationships between the various concepts.

- \* shows that isolated knowledge has less meaning. Knowledge/judgements are always more relevant in a context;
- \* allows learners to experience the usefulness of their actual knowledge:
- \* The involvement of a greater amount of and more varied knowledge provides a different picture and a different interpretation;
- \* Teaches learners to reason and allows learners to discover that reasoning on the basis of facts is better than a good answer just for the sake of it.

### Odd One Out - An Example

#### *Europe*

#### **Task 1**

Look at the set of four words below and decide with your partner

- which three words are connected,
- which is the Odd One Out.

More than one answer is possible, so think of all the possible options.

Make sure that you are clear about what connects the other three and the reason why the remaining one is the odd one out.

#### **Task 2**

Again, working with your partner, find another word that you can add to each set so that now four items have something in common, but the Odd One Out remains the same. Note down your reasons.

#### **Set of words**

Scotland Scotland is the odd one out because .....

Belgium Belgium is the odd one out because .....

Turkey Turkey is the odd one out because .....

Austria Austria is the odd one out because .....

#### **Answers**

Scotland Scotland is the odd one out because it is not an independent state

Belgium Belgium is the odd one out because it is bilingual.

Turkey Turkey is the odd one out because it is not a member of the European Union

Austria Austria is the odd one out because it's a landlocked country

## 2.3 Lifeline

### General

The 'timeline' is a much used didactical method to get learners to discover chronological events. It can also indicate the position of a specific event over a longer historical period. The timeline identifies events in an abstract form within a diagrammatic structure. These historical events are often described as mere facts: In 1492, Columbus discovered America. Such a generalisation hides many countless other events, figures, causes and consequences. For that reason, the timeline is a double abstraction, that is, the timeline itself and the abstract description of the event.

'Lifeline' also includes a timeline and historical events. By means of 'self-visualisation exercises', the learners can bring the timeline and the historical events to life. Because there is a lot of scope for personal involvement, the 'historical overview' acquired takes on a larger meaning for learners. As a result, an important condition is satisfied for knowledge and skills to sink in more easily.

### Forms of 'Lifeline'

In 'Lifeline', in the first place, learners take on a particular historical role: they have to visualise being a historical figure (empathy). The learners are then given a number of events/dates. They must then indicate and provide reasons for what the historical figures thought of the event. They do this by placing a value (plus five to minus five) for the event on the timeline in the form of an x-y coordinate. Depending on the subject, the level of the group and the available time, one or more historical figures can be chosen, for a larger or smaller amount of dates and events. 'Lifeline' is a highly flexible activity which can be adapted to suit the understanding and the preferences of the teacher and the learners. For all variations, post-activity evaluation with the learners is important in order to make them aware of their learning results (product) and the thinking strategies that have led to this (process).

### Experiences

Experiences with 'Lifeline' are striking. Suddenly, learners are presented with a completely different type of exercise sheet, the lifeline graph, which captures their interest. The structured form of discussion with other participants is also effective for the learners.

What sticks in the mind most however, are the attitude towards the work and the learning results.

Learners are actually able to give meaning to hitherto 'meaningless' dates and events. In tests, learners score significantly higher for questions which bear a direct relationship with the 'Lifeline lesson' than for questions that have been dealt with in a more conventional way.

A 'Lifeline' can be quickly put together by a teacher. A series of events and a historical character can easily be found. However, to do proper justice to 'Lifeline', a well-thought-out choice of events, formulation of the events and time-demarcation are essential. For example, the subject must contain elements of conflict or dilemma.

The periodisation of the 'Lifeline' is closely tied in with the aim, that is: must the learner gain a better understanding of a long-term, or short-term period of history?

The number of events selected also has bearing on the 'Lifeline'. For lower levels, a 'Lifeline' for a long period of history is difficult to take in and interpret.

During the first 'lifeline activities' the learners made x-y lifeline coordinates themselves. Despite the instructions of the teacher, this led to so many variations that this influenced the interpretation of the events. As a result the teacher made ready-made 'lifeline graphs'. The relationships in the lifeline graphs were the same for all learners, which made a comparison between the results easier. In consequence, an additional benefit was that there was more time for the activity itself (giving meaning to events in a historical context).

### Didactical background

Timelines are closely associated with the teaching of history. They are a tool used to give learners a greater insight into chronology, so that they are better able to order and place events. In many teaching methods, we come across timelines in which a series of events, for example, are placed in sequence. Learners are also trained to answer questions in respect of the timelines, whereby the dates in the timeline have to be interpreted. These are great exercises in themselves, but because of the abstract nature inherent to the timeline and their summing-up of general events, there are sadly few learners who are really keen on these forms of timeline exercise.

'Lifeline' gives learners an opportunity to:

- \* give meaning (in a personal and historical sense) to historical events;
- \* give meaning (in a personal and historical sense) to abstract dates;
- \* extract the key facts, the connecting theme, from a historical period;
- \* bring information together and to see this in context (cause – continuity – change);
- \* interpret general trends and personal circumstances;
- \* link personal circumstances in the past to general trends (unique – generic);
- \* interpret events from different perspectives (visualisation, perspective-related);
- \* argue their standpoints;
- \* weigh up the opinions and reasoning of others (both historical characters and fellow learners) in relation to their own opinions and knowledge;
- \* argue their decisions;
- \* express precisely their thinking processes – ideas;
- \* think creatively; by association, imagination (“Just imagine that .....”);
- \* develop their own ideas.

## Lifeline – An Example

### *Industrial Revolution in Tilburg, Development of Class-struggle*

This lifeline was used to let students (16-18 years old, the highest two levels in Dutch teaching system) put themselves into someone else's situation/position: The industrial proprietor (owner) and a (small) home-weaver. It shows to the students that the industrial revolution did not automatically lead towards class-struggle. Sometimes mill-owners and home-weavers had the same interests.

This lifeline can be used to discuss the social question of the 19th century or to discuss the influence of the industrial revolution on the living conditions of the lowest social classes.

#### The lesson at a glance

<b>Subject:</b>	Industrial Revolution in Tilburg – Class struggle
<b>Activity:</b>	Students are asked to plot episodes of the industrial revolution in Tilburg, based on their emotional response, on a scale of positive to negative emotion. They have to use historical arguments to rationalize their answers.
<b>Time:</b>	50 minutes
<b>Goals:</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* Students can put themselves into someone else's situation (from the past)</li> <li>* Students understand the development of the social question and the class-struggle during the industrial revolution (in the Netherlands).</li> </ul>
<b>Initial stage:</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* Level: highest grade of Dutch Secondary School system (16-18 years old)</li> <li>* Students have some basic knowledge about the industrial revolution (in general)</li> </ul>
<b>Preparation:</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* Make a copy of the graph for every group of two students</li> <li>* Make a copy of the historical fact for every group</li> <li>* Make a copy of the questionnaire for every student</li> </ul>
<b>Instruction:</b>	<p><b>What:</b> Students plot, in pairs of two, episodes of the Industrial Revolution based on positive of/or negative emotions. Then every student interprets the graph by filling out a questionnaire.</p> <p><b>How:</b> Each group of two students will judge a historical fact based on emotions and plot a point in the graph. The choices are rationalized by historical arguments.</p> <p><b>Why:</b> The lifeline helps students feel how it was like to live and work during the industrial revolution. It helps them to review the social processes of the industrial revolution.</p>
<b>Managing:</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* Students work in pairs of two</li> <li>* Students interpret the graph individually</li> </ul>
<b>Debriefing:</b>	<p><b>What:</b> The questionnaire can be used to discuss the subject.</p> <p><b>How:</b> How did you arrive at your decisions? How are you able to judge if an (historical) argument is a strong one? Why did we do the first part in groups of two and the second part individually?</p> <p><b>Why:</b> To put yourselves into someone else's situation, in order to review the industrial revolution.</p>
<b>Follow-up:</b>	Putting oneself into someone else's situation is a very important skill for historians, but also for normal live. It will help you to look at facts and events from another perspective, before you judge them.

**Goals**

- \* Students can use (historical) arguments to rationalize behavior of different social groups or persons during the events of the industrial revolution
- \* Students can draw conclusions about social contradistinctions and social developments, from a graph they have made themselves.
- \* Students learn how the mechanization of the civilization in the 19th century influenced persons and social groups.
- \* Students learn why the industrial revolution is called a “slow revolution”
- \* Students learn to put oneself into someone else’s situation
- \* Students learn to judge facts from a different point of view

**Time**

The whole learning-activity will take about 50 minutes

- \* 5 minutes launching the activity (perhaps a bit longer if the students do not know the activity)
- \* 20 minutes working in pairs
- \* 10 minutes filling in the questionnaire
- \* 10 minutes debriefing

**Initial stage**

- \* Students should have some general knowledge about the industrial revolution, but it is not necessary that they know anything about the specific situation in the Netherlands or the city of Tilburg.
- \* Students should know what Marxism, capitalism, socialism, liberalism means in the 19th century.

**Preparation**

- \* A copy of the graph for every pair of students
- \* A copy of the historical facts for every pair of students
- \* A copy of the questionnaire for every student
- \* Every pair needs a blue and a red pencil or pen

**Instructions and managing the activity****What** are we going to do?

You are going to look at the industrial revolution of Tilburg, during the 19th century and see how the industrial revolution influenced the way that people lived and how the class-struggle developed.

**How** are we going to do it?

- \* You have to put yourselves into the situation of cotton factory owner Diepen and into the situation of a small home weaver. Then you will judge historical facts and rationalize how to react to them: are you happy, very happy, or are you depressed?
- \* You will receive a worksheet with a graph and a worksheet with historical facts.
- \* With each historical fact you will ask yourself the following questions:
  - *How does a home weaver feel when this event occurs during the mechanization of Tilburg?*
  - *How does cotton factory owner Diepen feel when this event occurs during the mechanization of Tilburg?*
- \* Make sure you use historical arguments to rationalize your answers
- \* It is important to let the students know that not one answer is THE correct answer. More answers are possible, if they are based on arguments.
- \* It is important to let the students know that they all should be able to discuss and question the answers and arguments of themselves and others during the debriefing.
- \* If the students do not know the learning activity, it is helpful to do the first fact as an example. Possible answers might be:
  - *Diepen is very happy, because it is recognition of the industrial activity he is a factor in.*
  - *Diepen does not care so much, because it does not really help him to develop industrial activities*
  - *The home weaver is happy because the king recognizes all the hard work that is done by many (poor) workers in Tilburg*

- \* Pairs start working
  - The teacher walks around and listens, in order to help, coach, and guide the students by asking questions, proposing different views, etc. The teacher also listens in, to hear the arguments the students use, so he can use these during the debriefing.

**Why are we doing it?**

We will be doing this because putting oneself into the situation of another person is very important to understand why and how people react to events and facts. It helps you to understand complex situations and to use and judge historical arguments.

**Debriefing**

The debriefing has several variations, depending on the goals.

**Debriefing the historical content**

- \* Use the questionnaire to discuss the historical facts, events and developments.

**Debriefing the process**

The following questions might be helpful

- \* How did you arrive at your decisions?
- \* How are you able to judge if an (historical) argument is a strong one?
- \* Why did we do the first part (making the graph) in groups of two and the second part individually?

**Debriefing the reason for the learning activity**

The following questions might be helpful

- \* How does the lifeline help you to learn more/better about the industrial revolution?
- \* Can you name another example where it is very important to use the skill of putting yourselves into the situation of someone else? (not only historical examples, but also every day examples).
- \* How will you use the skill of judging an argument the next time?

**Follow-up**

This activity is a very good start for writing an essay about the social contradistinctions of the industrial revolution. But it can also be used as a skill exercise for putting oneself into someone else's situation.

**Variation**

Instead of using the questionnaires, one can make a different second round:

- \* After the pairs have finished their graph, new pairs will be made and the new pairs will discuss the graph of the other.
  - It might be important to give them the following guideline:
    - If there is a small difference between your plot and the plot of the other (1 point), leave it as it is. But if the difference is bigger, then start discussing your arguments and come to an agreement, based on the best arguments.

**Working materials**

- \* Paper with instruction and events
- \* Graph
- \* Questionnaire

## The mechanization of the cotton- and wool-industry of Tilburg

The cotton- and wool-industry of Tilburg slowly mechanized in the 19th century. This process had enormous consequences for home-weavers as well as for owners of mills and factory's. You need to plot in a graph showing how the home-weaver and factory owner Diepen felt and reacted during this process. The two questions are:

- \* *How does a home weaver feel when the event occurs during the mechanization of Tilburg?*  
Use RED to draw this graph.
- \* *How does cotton factory owner Diepen feel when the event occurs during the mechanization of Tilburg?*  
Use BLUE to draw this graph.

Study the events below. Read them well. The years are also on the horizontal axis. Make a dot (red and blue) to indicate the feelings the home-weaver and factory owner Diepen had. When a certain even occurred make sure that you can explain why you made the choice and write your arguments down. When you have finished all the events, connect the dots, so two curves appear.

### Events

- 1809 King Louis-Napoleon gives Tilburg the title "city", because he was very impressed by the industrial activity.
- 1812 France places orders for French army uniforms. The factories are too small to produce these amounts of uniforms and the factory-owners subcontract a lot of home-weavers.
- 1815 Napoleon is defeated and the military orders stop.
- 1820 King Willem I promulgates protective laws to defend the young Dutch industry.
- 1827 Manufacturer Pieter van Dooren buys the first steam engine in Tilburg. The machine is used for spinning wool.
- 1828 The house/firm Diepen buys their first steam engine.
- 1829 50% of the total cotton- and wool-industry is done in factories. The labourers work up to 12 hours a day. The labourers get paid small salaries in comparison to other draughtsmen.
- 1830 Belgium becomes independent from the Netherlands. A large outlet market is lost.
- 1840 Survival is only possible by increasing the production and decreasing the costs. A lot of steam engines are bought and put to work. Especially the small factory's have a hard time.
- 1850 The house Diepen starts making flannel to undermine the English monopoly on it. It becomes a great success.
- 1856 The house Diepen is the first factory to use mechanical looms.
- 1861 Due to the American civil war, the demand for military uniforms increases. Both Northern and Southern army's place orders in Tilburg.
- 1863 Tilburg gets its first railroad (to Breda).
- 1874 The law against child labour introduced by Van Houten does not change the situation in the factories of Tilburg. Most children working in the factories are already older than 12 years. For the family's of the home-weavers it becomes more difficult to let the children work, because they have to go to school.
- 1879 In total only 54 factories and draperies, out of 133 in Tilburg, work with steam engines. Using home-weavers was more price worthy for the small factories and draperies.
- 1889 A social labor law reduces the maximum hours of work per day. As a consequence of this law, also less girls and women are put to work.
- 1890 The small factories are not able to compete any more and go out of business. Only the few big factories remain.

## Questionnaire

### The mechanization of the cotton- and wool-industry of Tilburg

Answer the following questions by yourself. You are only allowed to look at your graph and in your notes. You may not discuss it with your partner.

1. Look at all the events where the two lines show (almost) the same reaction. Give an explanation why the home weaver and the factory-owner have almost the same reaction.

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2. At which point in the graph do the two lines really split? .....  
Can you explain why, from this moment on, the lines split?

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3. Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels have written about the intense class-struggle that took place during the industrial revolution. Does your graph deny or confirm this class struggle? Use arguments, based upon the graph, to support your idea.

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4. This assignment is about Tilburg. What elements of the developments in Tilburg can be recognized in other regions where the mechanization process was very intense (Twente, Lancashire, Ruhr, etc.)?

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5. Make a question about this learning activity, that could be asked in a test-paper. Start your question with "Why" or with "Explain".

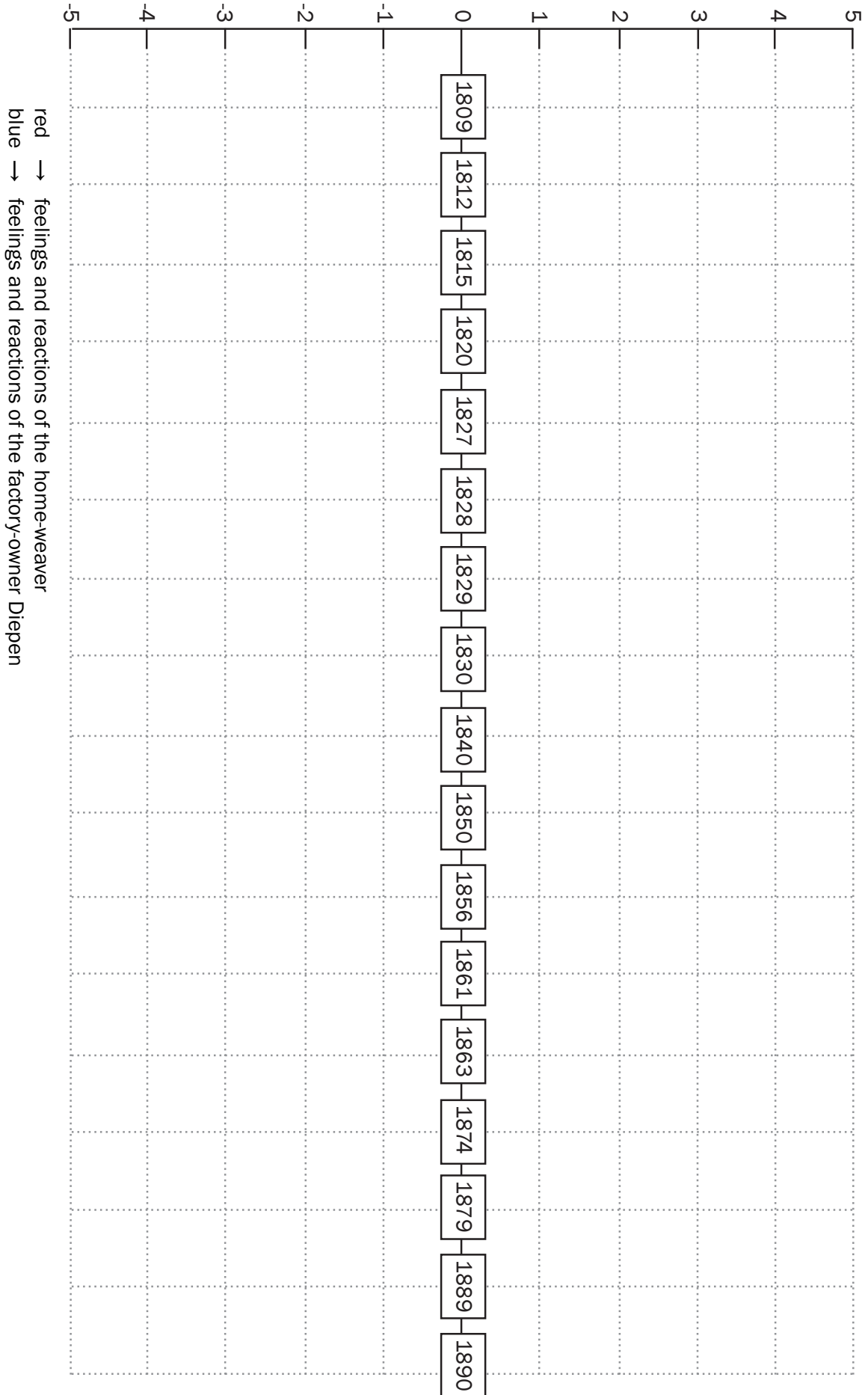
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### The mechanization of the cotton- and wool-industry of Tilburg



## 2.4 Living Graph

### General

In (history) teaching, statistical data, often in the form of graphs and tables are increasingly forming part of the teaching materials. A graph provides a visual means for learners to gain an insight into developments. Graphs are used in many teaching materials to help visualise, for example, the growth of industry in the 19th century. On the basis of graphs and timelines, learners are given questions to answer, requiring interpretations of the dates in the graphs.

Many learners find these exercises boring or difficult. That is not surprising since figures in abstract, indirect form say something about the actual events and developments. That's certainly true when the figures are put into a graph: they simply provide yet another abstraction.

A 'Living Graph' helps a graph come to life in two ways: learners must actively give meaning to the figures shown in the graph, in the sense that they will discuss the figures as a group, and in the sense that they will make a link between actual historical events using the hitherto 'meaningless' dates in the graph.

### Forms of 'Living Graph'

In the 'Living Graph' learners are given a line graph or diagram. In almost every case, the graph covers an extensive historical period, so that specific developments can be displayed visually. A number of statements or events are then given with the graph. These must then be placed in the right position in the graph, with learners giving their reasons.

The statements and events must be as 'true to life' as possible. On the basis of general developments, the consequences of the introduction of laws or other 'major events' on daily life of people still remain unclear. It is precisely the tangible individual events that make the graph 'come to life'. The more individual the statement is formulated, the greater the number of thinking steps that a learner must make to reach a conclusive reasoning.

The number of statements, the extent of factuality or abstraction and the amount of information in the statement will determine the level of difficulty for this thinking activity. For that reason, the 'Living Graph' is a flexible activity which can be carried out within a range of different time limits (30 minutes or a lesson of 50 minutes) and at different levels.

### Experiences

Of all the activities presented in this book, the 'Living Graph' is the one activity in which 'argumentation and reasoning' form the focal point. Learners also perceive this to be the case. Remarks such as 'We've never had to think so hard as this before' are quite commonly heard after a 'Living Graph' lesson. What's more, it's not just the more academically gifted learners who felt animated by the activity. Because of the open character of the statements, less gifted learners in the class could participate actively in the discussions.

Nevertheless, on top of providing reasons, the latter group of learners seems less able to then rank the events and to come to conclusive arguments.

### Didactical background

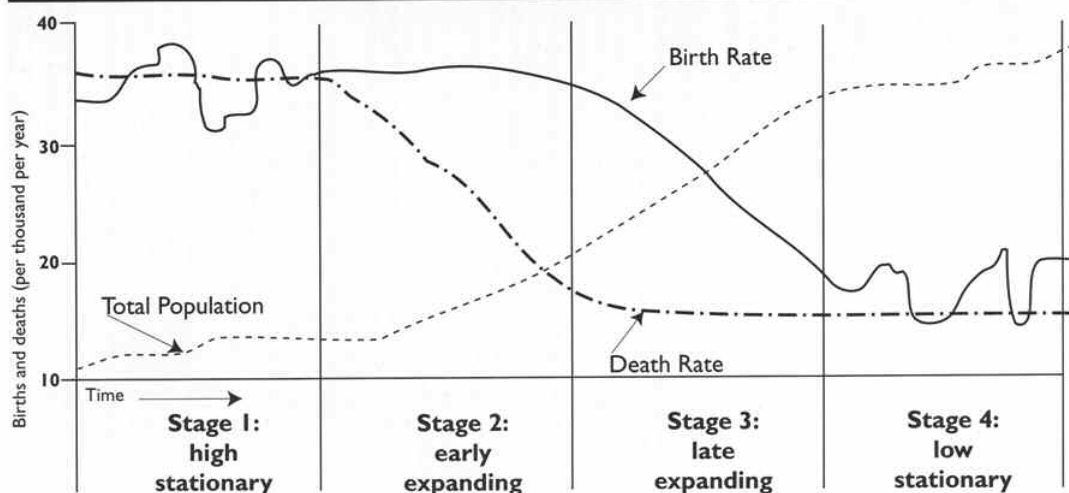
The various learner activities in respect of 'Living Graph':

- \* allow learners to discover the link between an abstraction (the graph) and actual events and processes (the statements/events);
- \* teach learners to provide arguments and reasons; In particular, learners use the inductive method: specific (actual) events are placed under terms/rules of general development (abstraction);
- \* teach learners to identify, to classify, to order and to relate things;
- \* stimulate learners' all-round skills: listening, comprehension, reading, investigation, reasoning, imagination;
- \* identify the prior knowledge of learners (reasoning behind the positioning of the statements in the graph);
- \* make use of the different learning styles of learners (thinkers-doers);
- \* stimulate the various intelligences of learners (figures, language, imagery, reasoning, listening, reading, writing).

## Living Graph – An Example

Veenpark – Indoor activity

### The demographic transition model



Source: *Population – A Comprehensive Study, Population Concern*

#### Task 1

##### What to do?

- \* Study the graph above.
- \* Imagine the living and working conditions in each of the four stages.
- \* Read the statements below.
- \* Put the numbers for each of the statements in the most appropriate stage in the graph. It might be possible to put a particular statement in different places. Justify your reasons for putting a statement in the stage you have chosen.
- \* Compare your answers and reasoning with your neighbour.
- \* Listen carefully to one another and, if necessary, change your answers and reasons..
- \* Prepare yourself for the debriefing.
- \* Use the results of the debriefing and your own reasoning in an essay.

##### Statements

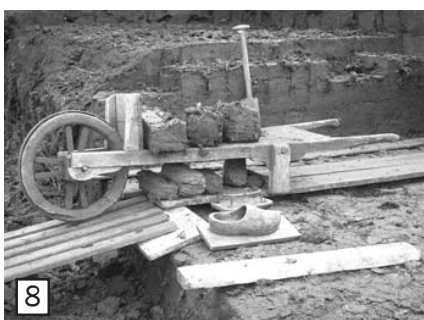
1. Johannes Reuver loses his job as a gravedigger.
2. After their wedding Gerardus and Susanne Rolink talk about how many children they want.
3. Children stay warm in bed at night because they have more brothers and sisters.
4. Jacobus and Gesina Hofstede are the third in a row to celebrate their Golden Wedding.
5. A mother cries over the grave of the last of her six children who died during a cholera epidemic.
6. In Emmer-Compascuum a lot more brick-built-houses are being built.
7. In Erica, construction of the new sewers has been completed.
8. Sisters Marietje and Leida, seventeen and eleven years old, share a bedroom.
9. Practically none of the children in Zwartemeer has grandparents.
10. Unemployment rates are increasing. Families think about moving to Amsterdam or Utrecht.

**Essay**

Write an essay on the development of the birth and death rates and the consequences for population growth. In your essay, refer to the position of the statements in the graph, your reasoning and the outcome of the debriefing.

**Task 2**

- \* Study the graph above.
- \* Imagine the living and working-conditions in each of the four stages.
- \* Look at the photos on the next page.
- \* Put (the numbers of) the photos in the most appropriate place on the graph. It might be possible to put a particular photograph in different places. Justify your reasons for putting a photograph in the stage you have chosen.
- \* Compare your answers and reasoning with your neighbour.
- \* Listen carefully to one another and, if necessary, change your answers and reasons.
- \* Prepare yourself for the debriefing.
- \* Use the results of the debriefing and your own reasons in an essay.

**Living Graph Photo's**

## 2.5 5 W's

### General

In this activity, learners learn to look carefully and critically at an image. By asking five questions (the 5 Ws), learners discover that a photograph, painting or cartoon hides a lot more information than at first glance. The principle of the 5 Ws is that five basic forms of question are asked to get more out of the picture. The 5 Ws are:

- \* What?
- \* Who?
- \* Where?
- \* When?
- \* Why?

Answers to these questions can be more general (abstract) or more specific (concrete). This seemingly closed form of questioning is capable of producing a diversity of explanations in the discussions between learners and in the evaluation with the teacher.

In this activity, learners learn to get more information from a picture, but on top of this, they will also learn how to improve the quality and quantity of the information in a structured way. The key thing is that learners want to know what is behind the information provided. Ignorance and misunderstandings are often brought about by the fact that people too quickly come to judgements about things without asking enough questions.

In this exercise, learners also learn that asking questions is often the beginning of greater learning. The activity is an initial exercise in learning how to think critically, to initiate an investigation and to combine information.

### Forms of 5W

The information provided can be varied in the exercise, for example, one or more photographs or other pictures. A combination of photographs will provide a lot more additional information and will stimulate the ability to make relationships between things. In addition, variation is possible by giving specific learners extra information. Experience shows that the evaluation is more animated if not all groups have been given exactly the same information and that learners' participation is improved if, within a group, they are given different sets of information.

Learners can also be asked: "What other information do you need to think up a good caption and where might you find the information?"

### Didactical background

In the 5 Ws activity, learners learn to:

- \* look carefully and analyse;
- \* formulate more precisely with more arguments;
- \* categorise, classify and select;
- \* ask different types of questions;
- \* provide reasons for which criteria must be satisfied for asking a 'good question';
- \* that asking questions marks the starting point of an investigation;
- \* think critically by asking questions;
- \* make a relationship between different sources of information.

### Five Ws – An Example

#### *The Year of Change*

This task shows the students how to analyze a picture or a document in detail and how to understand it correctly. By prompting the students to ask questions (5 Ws) about the picture (What does the picture show?) and giving the picture a title, the students learn to think and to formulate questions, and to implement examination methods. The students also develop their argumentation skills further when they have to substantiate their questions and answers.

This task helps to understand one of the most important historical events of the 20 century that occurred in the Hungarian-Austrian border region. The year of change, 1989, is the central theme of this exercise, whereby special attention is paid to the Pan-European picnic and its effects.

- 1) With the help of pictures and their analysis the students are confronted with the impact of the iron curtain, the fall of the iron curtain, and the differences between a free and a confined existence.
- 2) By analyzing the pictures step by step, the students gain an insight into the year 1989.
- 3) While interpreting the pictures, the students take on the role of a detective, a kind of searching stance is expected of them, so that they can understand the picture in detail and in general. The combination of previous knowledge, everyday knowledge, and new information is encouraged.

### Scenario

- 1) The students have to find a title for a picture and to then formulate questions about the contents of the picture. The picture shows the moment when citizens of the former DDR broke through the Iron Curtain and fled to Austria. The students must critically examine the picture and then ask relevant questions and provide answers.
- 2) The students receive extra materials, for example, further pictures of the Iron Curtain and information cards with which the students can check their assumptions and statements. Against this background they are asked to formulate a new picture title.

### Time

1 Lesson

### Aims

- \* The students are motivated to view a picture in detail and to ask about its importance.
- \* The students learn to formulate questions.
- \* The student's argumentation skills are developed further when they have to substantiate their questions and answers. By formulating hypotheses and proving these the students also learn about research methods.
- \* The students learn to combine pictures with historical data and reports. With the help of the pictures, the students experience the importance of the border, the Iron Curtain, the feeling of confinement and the desire for freedom.
- \* The students find out about Hungary's contribution to the process of democracy and also about the fall of the communist systems in the Eastern-European states and realize what solidarity means.

### Target group

Grade 7 and 8 (the task can be done before an excursion to the scene of the Pan-European picnic as a preparation)

### Preparation

- \* Copies of the pictures for groups of 4 students.
- \* Copies of the information cards.

### Method

The students work in groups of four.

The students evaluate and correct their solutions with the help of the information cards.

### Launching

**What** In groups of four the students must find a title for the picture that depicts the moment when the Austrian-Hungarian border was broken through, and then ask questions and discuss possible answers. The students check and correct, if necessary, their choice of title with the help of information cards.

**How** The students scrutinize the picture and think of a title. They formulate questions and answers to the picture. Then they receive additional pictures and information cards. The information cards comprise information about where and when the picture was taken and what events decided the year 1989. With the help of these extra materials the students study their first solutions.

**Why** The students learn to work, to research, and to think independently because they are encouraged to analyze a picture in detail. They practice argumentation skills by explaining their questions and answers to each other.

Important: Before the task begins the students learn that it is not so important to find the right solution but that the students should focus on how they present their arguments and prove their hypotheses.

### Reflection

The task can serve as an initial stage for the discussion about the aspects of a change of political systems and also about the importance of borders in the past and now.

### How Comprehension of the solutions

**Why** This relatively simple task conveys complex information and knowledge that illustrate the year of change, 1989, with the help of the interpretation of pictures. Independent thinking and argumentation happens in a very effective way. The students also acquire the skill to connect pictures and text and become aware of the connection of text and picture.

### Instruction

#### 1. Stage:

The picture you see here depicts one of the most important moments in modern European history. Have a good look at the picture. Find an appropriate title for it. Ask questions (5 WS) about the picture and also find answers to your questions.

#### 2. Stage:

Now I will give you information cards. Choose 5 cards that you believe correspond best to the picture. Please substantiate your choice.

#### 3. Stage:

Now you will receive additional photos. Please take a good look at the individual photos. Formulate a new title for the picture taking the new information and the new pictures into account. Please substantiate accurately your criteria that determined how your new title evolved.

#### 4. Stage: Present your solutions and how you reached your results, to each other.

### The picture that is to be analyzed



## Information cards

On 9. November 1989 the Berlin Wall falls.

On 5. October 1987 János Székely, the head of the border troops, declared in a secret memorandum, the border barriers as morally obsolete.

On 1. January 1988 the Hungarian citizens receive the freedom to travel.

The barbed wire was so rusty that it very often came to wrong alarms. On 18. April 1989 Hungary starts dismantling the fences at the frontier.

On 27. June 1989 Gyula Horn and Alois Mock symbolically cut the barbed wire. Thousands of DDR citizens were in the BRD embassies in Prague, Budapest, and Warsaw wanting to leave the DDR.

The photo captures the moment when on 19. August 1989 DDR citizens in their thousands broke through the barrier between Austria and Hungary, near Sopron, and escaped to Austria

Hungarian opposition politicians and Otto von Habsburg organized the Pan-European picnic in Sopronpuszta near Sopron on 19. August 1989. The aim was to arrange a meeting between Austrian and Hungarian citizens.

DDR refugees in Budapest were informed before the picnic that the border would be opened on behalf the event for a short time.

More than a thousand DDR citizens were able to flee to the west and the pictures of this mass escape went around the world. In the DDR, thousands applied to leave the country permanently.

The gate had just been opened, the tourists were already pushing in, and the border police were no longer interfering.

From Autumn 1989 there were unrest and demonstrations in towns in the DDR, also in Prague and in Temesvár. The socialist system in the east and middle European countries broke down.

Hungary and also the states in east and south-east Europe were separated by the so-called Iron Curtain – a heavily guarded border system with an electrical alarm system – from west Europe.

From the year 1988 there was an opposition movement and demonstrations against the government and the dictatorial system in Hungary.

## Additional pictures



## 2.6 Pictures from memory

### General

'Pictures from memory' is an activity in which learners have to redraw a picture (painting, drawing, cartoon, diagram), so that the copy represents the original as faithfully as possible. It is a short exercise that produces an enthusiastic response from learners and teachers. If a slight element of competitiveness is added to the activity, it will stimulate teamwork, visual qualities, attention to detail and recognition of the importance of the big picture.

### Forms of 'Pictures from memory'

There are various forms of 'Pictures from memory'.

In the basic version, the focus is on familiarisation with the activity and helping to explain the principles and procedures of the activity. In its basic form, learners learn to describe and analyse, for example, a painting, cartoon or object. The outcome is that a seemingly superficial picture can harbour a secret treasure trove.

In a second version, the 'observer' is introduced to help learners to identify their thinking steps and the strategic cooperation.

For all variations, post-activity evaluation with the learners is important in order to make them aware of their learning results (product) and the thinking strategies that have led to this (process). General tips to do this:

- \* Keep a check on the aims of the exercise: inform learners about the cognitive skills and learning strategies.
- \* Ask open questions and give encouragement ("Does another group have something similar? Are there other opinions? Why? Explain, please? Does everyone agree?", etc.)
- \* Listen in on the groups, so that you can use any comments in the evaluation ("I just heard you say ....").
- \* Follow up "unexpected" insights and remarks.
- \* Experiences
- \* In lessons of different levels that use the same picture it would appear that:
  - \* More intelligent learners draw up many 'plans' and come to many and effective agreements.
  - \* More intelligent learners first try to get the "big picture" and then work in detail.
  - \* More intelligent learners help each other, for example, by asking questions or, on the contrary, by staying quiet to start with.
  - \* More intelligent learners use existing frameworks (prior knowledge) to predict what will happen/has to be done.
  - \* More intelligent learners are highly task-oriented.

### Didactical background

'Pictures from memory' is important in describing a picture effectively.

In history teaching and in today's modern image-based culture, visual sources are becoming increasingly important. But do we actually take in what we see?

'Pictures from memory' compels learners to describe a picture properly before coming to conclusions too quickly. As such, this is an important component of (historical) learning: first, the facts, then the interpretation, and only then the conclusion.

With this structure, important principles of cooperative learning, such as positive interdependence, individual accountability, direct interaction, and social skills are applied.

'Pictures from memory' enables thinking processes and cognitive steps to become visible, since learners must communicate with respect to their group-based solutions, their own contribution to the whole, etc.

As a teacher, it is not often possible to determine the exact outcome, nor to answer all the learners' questions. This is now integrated into the lesson:

The learning activities in 'Pictures from memory' enable learners to:

- \* discover links/contexts (historical or geographical context);
- \* realise that isolated knowledge has little meaning;
- \* experience the usefulness of their actual knowledge: the involvement of a greater amount of and more varied knowledge provides a different picture and a different interpretation.
- \* experience that a good description of a picture is a condition for gaining an effective insight into the meaning of the picture;
- \* discover that the description of a picture is determined partly on the basis of one's own knowledge, skills, ideas and assumptions.

## Map from memory – An Example

### *Teschen Silesia*

This map from memory can be used to get students to reproduce a map as faithfully as possible. The activity receives an enthusiastic response from students and teachers alike. Its aims are to stimulate group work, visual skills, identifying and recognising details, dates and, of course, to gain an understanding of the features and the location of a map.

The activity focuses on the Teschen area and the border which has divided the area for almost 90 years.

### Goals

- \* Students recognise and learn about a map of their region.
- \* Students can describe differences between the region as it was in the past and how it is today (e.g. the new border, new towns, division of Teschen).
- \* Students recognise that change takes place and is related to time, space and context.
- \* Students learn how to work in groups.
- \* Students learn how to set a strategy.
- \* Students practice clear conversation and the ability to give specific information.
- \* Students can recognise the differences in borders through comparison.
- \* Students learn to take responsibility for the final product of their group.
- \* Students learn how to judge facts from other points of view.
- \* Students realise problems associated with the creation of new, artificial borders.
- \* It is vital to realise the aims relating to competence (i.e. cooperation, communication) and to the subject (i.e. the history/geography of region).

### Time

The whole learning-activity will take about 55 minutes

- \* 5 minutes launching the activity (this may take longer if the students are unfamiliar with the activity)
- \* 20 minutes - working in groups
- \* 10 minutes - filling in the questionnaire
- \* 20 minutes - debriefing

### Initial stage

- \* Students should have some general knowledge of the region and its history, but this is not pre-requisite, as the method works well with any map, even an unknown one.
- \* It is useful if the students have some general knowledge of the history of Central Europe after World War I.

### Preparation

- Two large (A3-size) colour reproductions of the maps (the ones the students will copy).
- A stopwatch
- A copy of 3 maps for the whole class
- A questionnaire for every student
- Every group needs coloured markers

### Instructions and managing the activity

#### What are we going to do?

You are going to learn something more about the region of Teschen Silesia and hold a discussion about the border that was established there.

#### How are we going to do it?

- \* Here, at the front of the class, are two sheets of paper. They are exactly the same. You do not know what's on the sheet. This might be a text or a photograph, a map, a drawing/cartoon or a combination of these. As a group, you will be set the task of making a near perfect copy of the sheet, as if it

had been copied by a photocopier.

- \* How are you going to do this?
  - First, give yourself a number from 1 to 3/4. You have 3 seconds to do this. (Check to see that students have done this).
  - Next, all number 1 students will come forward and look at the sheet for 10 seconds.
  - After the 10 seconds, you will go back to your group and describe what you saw on the sheet of paper. He/she is not allowed to do anything more than speak and provide information.
  - The process will be repeated for each member of the group, which means that everyone sees the sheet for 10 seconds.
  - There will be two rounds, so that means everyone will see the sheet twice. After that, you must prepare a near-perfect copy of the sheet.
- \* Check that students have understood the instructions. Ask one of the (lesser able) students to repeat the instructions. If bits have been left out, ask another student to fill in the blanks.
- \* You now have some time to talk about the strategy you will use. I want you to write down two things: What strategy are you going to use as a group? And what is the task that number one has been set? What is he/she going to do?
- \* The groups will then start working
- \* The teacher goes around the class helping, giving advice and directing students with the aid of questions, and providing different points of view, etc. The teacher also listens to the students' reasoning, which he/she can then use when debriefing.
- \* After all three/four students have come forward to look at the map, you can walk around the class and look at the work in progress.
- \* Before starting the second round, you might want to change the rules a bit (this helps raise motivation levels): I can see that you are working very hard and from what I have seen, you are doing a very good job. So now, I am going to make it more difficult for you: in the second round, you will not be allowed to discuss as a group, so once number one has looked at the map a second time, number two will come forward straightaway, followed by number three/four.
- \* I want now like you to discuss now how you will manage this slightly different task. Write it down once again.
- \* After the students have written down what they have now agreed, you can start the second round.
- \* In their enthusiasm, the numbers two might well storm forward, while the numbers one are still walking back to their chairs. It is important to keep a tight rein on this process.
- \* After the second round you might want to do a third or fourth round. You might want to start by saying:
  - I must return to what I was saying earlier about you doing a good job. Looking at it now, your copies look far from perfect. But I will give you an extra opportunity in a third or fourth round.
  - In round three one member of the group might come forward and take a final look at the map. He/She can fill in the final details.
  - Agree on which group member should come forward and write down why you chose him/her for the task.
  - In the fourth or final round, we are going to do something that is normally forbidden in a school: copying/cribbing from the other groups.
  - One person only from your group (not the one who just come forward) may go to one of the other groups and look at their results. Perhaps they have details you are still missing. Questions may be asked and these will be answered honestly..... OK... GO.
- \* Now, you will all receive a questionnaire. You must answer the questions individually, so I do not want to hear any talking, just the sound of pens writing on paper. You can use your copy to help you with your answers.
- \* To explain your answers, use the historical arguments from the text with historical events in the Appendix.
- \* It is essential to explain to students that they should ask questions and discuss their answers, as well as the answers of other students.
- \* Students will display their maps for other groups to see.

### Why are we doing it?

The aim of the activity is for you to recall details on the map and to identify the characteristic features of our region. You will learn to cooperate in groups and to take responsibility for your work. You will

learn how to clearly express your thoughts and opinions, as well as learn how to assess historical arguments.

### **Debriefing**

The debriefing can be varied, depending on the goals.

The teacher can discuss the questions on the questionnaire, or the following questions might be used in a class discussion: What kind of map was it? What period did it relate to? What differences did you spot when you compare it to a modern-day map?

### **Debriefing the content**

You can discuss the questionnaires made by the students.

### **Debriefing the process**

The following questions and tasks might be useful

- \* Is there anybody with a Polish surname?
- \* Does anybody in the class speak any Polish?
- \* Describe everything that springs to mind when you think of the map.
- \* How did you enjoy working in the groups?
- \* What were the main problems?
- \* Would you like to complement anyone from your group and why?

### **Debriefing the reason for the learning activity**

The following question might be helpful:

- \* How did the activity help you improve your knowledge of the region's history?
- \* What went well? What would you change the next time you do this kind of assignment? What have you learned? How can you use this newly acquired knowledge in the future?
- \* Can you give any reasons why historians look at historical maps?
- \* Could you give another example or a subject where we could use this kind of method?

### **Follow-up**

Students should become aware of the fact that this activity is an excellent starting point for studying any map, plan or draft where we want students to remember details. The ability to read a map and draw plans from memory is a very important skill for historians, so aspects of change in time and space can be determined. But it is also important for an ordinary person to understand how your region has evolved. Finally, it is essential to cooperate, to express yourself clearly and to decide on a proper strategy.

### **Working materials**

- \* a sheet of paper with instructions
- \* a questionnaire
- \* a text with historical events
- \* Maps - it is possible to use any map from a textbook or an atlas

# Questionnaire

## Maps from memory

You just have made, with your group, a copy of a map. Now you must answer some questions on your own. You are not allowed to talk to other students, but you are allowed to look at the copy you have made.

1. What region was depicted on the map? How are you certain of this and why?

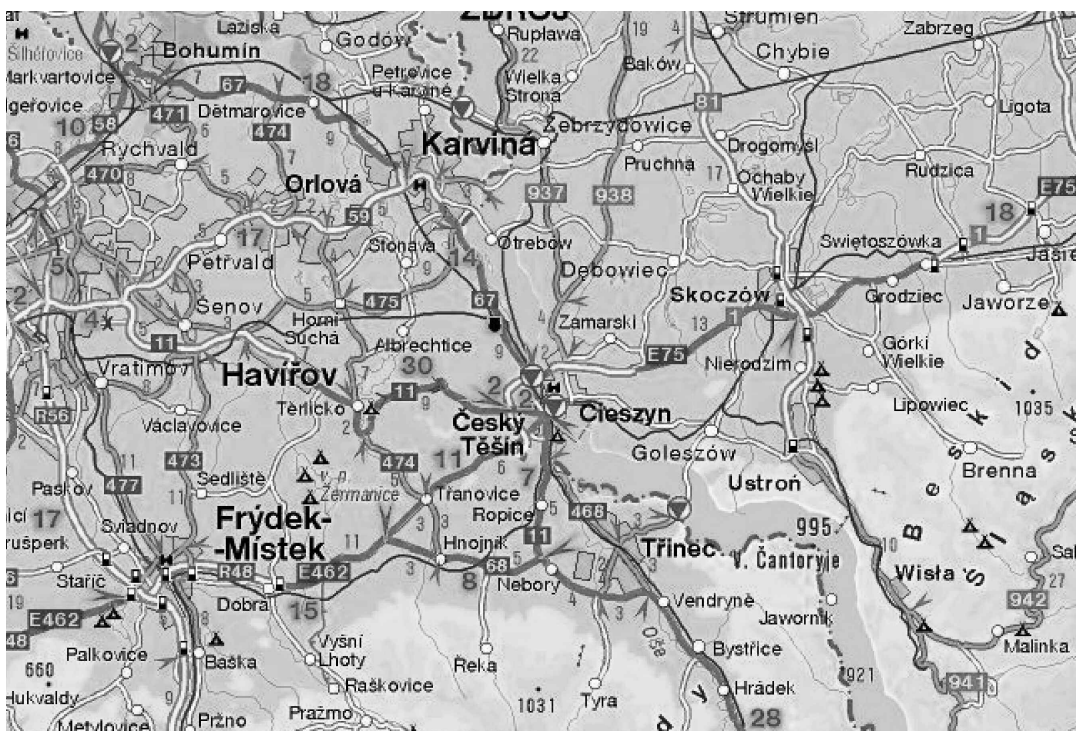
The region is ..... I know, because .....

2. The map included information on period to which it related. What period was this and where did you find this information?

Period: ..... I found this information .....

Look at the map below and use it to answer the following questions.

*Map of the present situation of the Teschen Silesia border region.*



3. When you look at your copy of the map and the current one, what are the main differences between them? Find and write down the towns that were divided. Are there any new towns? What is the grey shaded line on the map? Why is it not on the first map?

.....

4. What two historical events have had the biggest impact on the changes? (To answer the question, use the text below.)

.....

5. If you look at the map of the current situation of the region, you can see that the border has a huge impact on cross-border contacts. What do you notice?

.....  
.....  
.....

6. Give two examples where the roads provide a clear indication of the difficulties for cross-border contact.

.....  
.....  
.....

7. You can see that the border has been at the same place since 1920.  
Give one (or more) reason(s) why it is logical that the border has been drawn here?

.....  
.....  
.....

8. There were some changes in 2007. What are the changes and what differences do they have for citizens in their day-to-day lives?

.....  
.....  
.....

9. What is your own opinion on this?

.....  
.....  
.....

### Appendix: Text with historical events for students

The reappearance of the Slavic states after World War I reflected a modern trend to recognise the rights to sovereignty of ethnic groups who possessed a distinct language and territorial integrity. Demarcation of political borders however proved complicated on account of the existence of regions such as Teschen Silesia, where the population was ethnically mixed and national identity was in dispute. In the twentieth century Teschen Silesia was the source of a bitter dispute between Poland and Czechoslovakia. Ethnicity and the spoken language formed the basis for Polish claims on the region. The Czech claims were based on dynastic ties and economic considerations. Both sides claimed a considerable literary tradition associated with the region. On the basis of a 1920 decision by the Allied Powers, the former Duchy of Teschen was divided. Czechoslovakia received the richer industrialised territory in the west, which the Poles called Zaolzie, "the land beyond the Olza River", and Poland received the eastern half, populated primarily by peasant farmers. The newer suburbs of the city of Teschen, subsequently called Cesky Tesin, became part of Czechoslovakia, while the old town was given to Poland. Ironically, support for Czechoslovak rule had been most vocal in that part of the former Duchy which was awarded to Poland, while the main centres of pro-Polish sentiment became part of Czechoslovakia.

In the period between the two world wars, Poland did not reconcile itself to the loss of Zaolzie. Following the "betrayal" of Czechoslovakia at Munich in 1938 and German annexation of Czech territory, Poland seized that part of the former Duchy which it considered linguistically and ethnically Polish. Until 1939, when most of the region was attached to the Nazi Reich, the Polish border stood just to the east of Ostrava and Frydek-Mistek. After World War 2, the region was briefly a source of tension. Since both countries were occupied by the Soviets, whose sympathies lay with the Czechoslovaks, Czechoslovakia and Poland in 1947 signed a treaty ratifying the border of 1920.



Map: Teschen Silesia before 1920

## 2.7 Mystery

### General

A mystery combines all learning activities in this book. It meets the requirements of a lesson in which the learner acts as a '(historical) investigator'. As such, mystery is one of the most motivational and effective activities in the repertoire of activities for 'learning through thinking'.

A mystery always relates to a challenging problem or dilemma, for example, a murder, a mysterious disappearance, a trial or a theft, that is, events that can directly change the lives of people. The mysterious problem requires investigating and solving. The investigation is carried out using ten to thirty information cards and these will be used by learners to help solve the problem.

'Mystery' is a learner activity which is challenging in a cognitive/subject-related respect and challenging because it motivates learners to solve a problem from the past in an active, direct manner.

### Forms of 'Mystery'

An important principle of the mystery is the cognitive dilemma; more than one answer is possible. There is no single good answer, but some are better than others, for example, by taking several different aspects into consideration.

This makes demands on the composition of the cards and the supervision of the teacher.

In practice, this can lead to major problems amongst learners, since both teachers and learners are accustomed to seeking out one single good answer.

As far as thinking skills go, 'Mystery' can be endlessly varied. For the purposes of differentiation, the number of separate cards and the (amount of or level of abstraction of) information on the cards can be varied. A teacher can take on a more controlling role by limiting the amount of possible solutions. The type of information can also be varied. A choice can be made to use text cards only, but pictures and graphs can also be included on the card. The real level of differentiation is not in the types of different teaching materials provided, but in the differences in the learning process and the learners' end product itself.

### Experiences

A mystery can be performed at any level. The activity is so challenging, the power of cooperative learning so strong, that learners hardly ever complain about difficult words or tell you that's it's "impossible". However, in terms of content, learners can sometimes find the activity complicated, but that, of course, is the challenge of a good mystery: learners go one step further than they would initially have done.

In almost every case, learners (because of their psychological phase of development, but also because of the competitive edge between the groups) will want to know whether they got the right answer. The cognitive conflict as didactical objective runs up against the boundaries of the learners' psyche. For that reason, the teacher should ensure that a particular group of learners can be used as an example with respect to the correct answer. For authentic situations, the teacher can also say: "You chose to do this, in the past this happened."

For many learners, the idea of learning is reading difficult texts from a book and the teacher then explains everything, this with the aim of getting good marks in the exam. A mystery is a completely different way of learning. In order to comply with learners' idea of learning and in order to make a mystery acceptable to them, within a school context, the mystery can be tied into a course book and the test.

### Didactical background

The various learner activities in respect of 'Mystery':

- \* teach learners to argue and reason;
- \* teach learners to identify, to classify, to order and to relate things;
- \* stimulate learners' all-round skills: listening, comprehension, reading, investigation, reasoning, imagination;
- \* make use of the different learning styles of learners (thinkers-doers);
- \* stimulate the various intelligences of learners (figures, language, imagery, reasoning, listening, reading, writing).

## Mystery – An Example

*Who shot the King?*

### Launching the lesson

The 24 pieces of information below are written down on pieces of paper, and put in an envelope. The teacher places the students in groups (preferably in groups of three). Sometimes the groups can be formed at random, other times after the teachers' knowledge about the students abilities, gender or other factors that might influence the groups working capacities. Each group receives an envelope. The teacher should write down the task on the blackboard: Who shot the king?

### Managing the lesson

Let the students open the envelope, and start the task. The teacher should now go around the classroom, and listen and observe how the students solve the task. The teacher should not get involved in the discussions between the students. He/she might get questions about the meaning of words, and answer them, as long as it does not influence on the work the students are doing. The listening and observing is important. The information the teacher gets during the observations can be used in the debriefing part of the lesson. Give the students approximately 25 – 30 minutes for this part of the lesson.

### Debriefing

Debriefing with this task is confined to asking for students explanations as to who might have shot the king. The teacher asks the students to stop their work (often some groups have difficulty stopping, since their involvement is so intense, that they just want to continue – but here the teacher has to stop the activities). The teacher can ask generally in plenum, by pointing at the blackboard: who of you think you know the answer to that question? Make sure to not let the students answer who shot the king, yet.

The teacher should choose a group that he/she thinks will have a reasonable but perhaps unsophisticated and undeveloped explanation. Let the students explain, and follow up with supplementary questions like: *tell us more, why do you think that...?*

The teacher should now also try to involve the other groups in to the debate that is taking shape in the classroom, by asking questions to other groups: *Has anybody got a different opinion, or a different view of the situation...?*

The other important generic question is about how the students managed the task:

Questions like: How did you solve the task? What did you physically do with the pieces of paper? Why did you regroup the pieces of paper? How did your ideas and approach change over the course of the discussions in the group? How did you resolve your differences and disagreements in the group?

The teacher might also ask questions about methodology, like for instance asking questions like: *What is missing in this mystery to be able to really solve who shot the king? What kind of hypothesis did you work with and why? Has anybody come to valuable, reliable theory?* (This is of course not possible, since the evidence is lacking, but it is a good starting point to introduce methodological theory and knowledge).

One should use at least 30 minutes on this part of the lesson. Plenum is time consuming, but it is now that metacognition can start. Students are asked to reflect about their own learning process, or learning about learning.

### Bridging

This stage is about building bridges to other fields of investigations, other parts of history, and other subjects (mainly within social sciences). The end of the lesson should deal about how we can apply the new knowledge obtained during this lesson to other themes in history and other subjects. Here the purpose is to make sure that the lesson is not only relevant for this history lesson, but relevant in many different fields of subjects. This might enlighten a student to understand what it takes to state a fact or opinion.

## Mysterycards 'Who shot the king?'

Sweden took Jämtland and Herjedalen and Bohus Len from Norway in 1645 and 1658	Karl XII waged wars in Russia and Poland	Karl XII was the most warlike of all Scandinavian kings
The Swedes won many victories, but also many defeats	In the great Nordic War (1700 – 1721) Sweden lost the south-eastern part of Finland to Russia	In order to be able to continue the wars he increased taxes
Many Swedes were tired of the ongoing wars between Sweden and its neighbouring countries	The people had to pay very heavy taxes	In December 1718, Karl XII attacked the Norwegian border fortress of Fredriksten
Karl XII ordered his troops to dig trenches through which the soldiers could run in when they launched the main attack	After heavy losses in the east, the Swedish king Karl XII launched war on Norway to compensate	Karl XII tactic was to dig trenches to come as close to the fortress walls as possible under protection
Heavy shooting continued during the whole night from the main fortress and from the two other forts on December 11	Norwegian soldiers hung burning cloth dipped in tar on the walls to light up the darkness	On December 11 the King ordered the soldiers to dig the New Line
When the King was shot he stood 15 – 20 meters in the trench behind the New Line	The king was a brave man and he always believed in leading his men at the front	Lieutenant Carlberg from Sweden wrote in a report three years after the event: <i>"...I had been there for about seven minutes when a shot from outside hit the left side of the Kings head"</i> .
The Norwegian General Landsberg wrote in his diary on December 15: <i>"... a Swedish second lieutenant by name of Martin Hallenfeld confessed that he stood beside the King when he fell, and saw that he was shot through his head by his right eye...."</i>	Lieutenant Carlberg wrote: <i>"...None of us positioned under the breastwork and exposed to such heavy fire of cannons and guns were able, with any certainty, to say if the unhappy shot was fired from close or far range"</i> .	The French explorer and author Mottraye wrote on account from the officers who were present when the King died: <i>"...the shot passed through the Kings left temple, the whole of the upper bone was crushed and a hole the size of four fingers ...."</i>
Mottraye who was in Stockholm during the event, wrote also: <i>"Due to the size of the bullet, one concluded that the bullet originated from a cannon and from the position of the King that the shot originated from the fortress called Overberget...."</i>	A spoken report by the Kings aide was given in Stockholm on December 15, written down on December 20: <i>"...the King was killed when the Swedish made an assault on the main fortress. The shot came from a canon.... The shot had passed through the middle of his head, entering on the right-hand side through the temple and out again on the left side, by the cheekbone"</i>	A Swedish priest received a confession on a deathbed from an earl who was present at Fredriksten: <i>"...after having loaded the gun; Colonel Stjernros took it and said: "Now it shall be done". "...he walked up to the grass plain above, and so when the shot was fired, the King consequently was positioned lower than the colonel. The shot therefore passed slantingly through the head"</i> .

## Appendix: Historical Context

It is well known that the relationship between the Scandinavian peoples, i.e. between the Danes, Swedes and the Norwegians, today is based on common respect, having friendly relationships and very much in common. The differences between the Scandinavians in fact are quite small. They look alike, and they speak languages that, perhaps with some effort, can be understood between them, and it is generally considered that they have many similar cultural expressions. Even the borders between the Scandinavian countries have more or less ceased to exist. No real physical obstacles are seen on the borders. Long before the EEC introduced the concept of “open borders” in the Maastricht Treaty, the Scandinavian governments introduced the concept of open borders and free travel for Scandinavians in the Scandinavian Peninsula. There was no need to show your passport when occasionally stopped for a routine control at the border. This has been the case for the past 30 years or so.

It seems hard to imagine for Scandinavians of today that this friendly relationship has not always existed. On the contrary, for centuries the Scandinavian peoples fought for land and territories. Borders moved and changed constantly over the past centuries.

A brief look at the post Viking era shows a development of hostility and distrust between the peoples in Scandinavia. After the Viking era the Scandinavians developed three different states: Norway, Denmark and Sweden. Norway developed in the thirteenth century into a major European power, with control over a vast area including Iceland, Greenland and the Faroe islands. Denmark occupied many islands in the Baltic Sea including the southern parts of today's Sweden. Sweden expanded eastwards into Finland.

After the Black Death in 1348 – 49, more than half of the Norwegian population had perished. This was more than in the neighbouring countries, Denmark and Sweden. Also many of the nobility had deceased. This weakened the Norwegian position in Scandinavia. Inter marriages between the royal families were quite common in this period. In 1397 the three Scandinavian countries created a union in Kalmar in Sweden (The Kalmar Union) and this marked the beginning of the end of the Norwegian sovereignty. The Danish queen also became the Norwegian queen (Margareta), and set Danish nobility in vital official positions. Over the passing years Norway would become more or less a province of Denmark. The Danes ruled over Norway until 1814, more than 400 years. In the meantime the Swedes withdrew from the Kalmar Union (partly because of the Danish dominance). The Swedes now tried to gain control over the main land by attacking and taking over the Danish areas. Indeed they succeeded; slowly but surely they managed to gain control over the land which we now know as Sweden.

### **The Great Scandinavian Wars in the late seventeenth and early eighteenth century demonstrate the hostility between the Scandinavians.**

By the midst of the seventeenth century Sweden had gained the position of being the strongest Scandinavian power with control over vast areas in Poland, Russia, The Baltic countries, Finland and Northern Germany. Denmark had lost the Baltic islands, the west coast, the Norwegian provinces of Hjämtland and Herjedalen, and Bohus Len, to the Swedes. By 1658 Halden had become a border town with Sweden as their next door neighbours.

On a height along the Iddefjord, with a great view over the lower laying surroundings, the townsmen of Halden decided to build a fortress (1644), in case the Swedes should attack Halden and their country, Norway. The fortress proved to be very important for the defence of Norway. After several bloody attacks on the town of Halden and the fortress between 1658 and 1660, the Swedes could not gain control over the fortress. This also kept the Swedes from gaining control over Norway. The Danish King Fredrik 3rd understood the strategic position of Halden, whereupon he ordered to reinforce the fortress in 1660. The fortress would from now on be known as ´Fredriksten´, and as a gratitude for the heroic defence of the town, Halden received city rights and was renamed to Fredrikshald, a combination of King Fredrik's name and the former town-name Halden.

In January 1716, the famous warrior king Karl XII of Sweden, came home to Sweden defeated, having lost wars in the eastern provinces (amongst others Poltava 1709). In Sweden the situation was not any better. The cost of war was large. Wars cost the lives of many peoples, as they cost money. The country was marked by plagues, hunger and many Swedes were tired of the many wars their king had initiated. Everywhere the king went he could hear people plea for peace, and complain about the heavy taxes that was put upon the people, the nobility and the farmers. The nobility, the citizens and the farmers were tired of paying the bills the wars costs. Unfortunately, King Karl XII did not want to hear

their complaints.

The King was eager to compensate the losses in the east by taking hold of Denmark and Norway in the west. He managed to raise enough funds to establish an army of 40 000 men, with supplies for a fleet. He was also ready to invade Denmark, but a change in the weather conditions prevented him crossing the sea over the ice (Eastern Sund), so instead, he directed his army towards Norway. By March he reached Christiania (now Oslo), but due to the lack of supplies he had to withdraw. He now directed his army to “once and for all” get rid of what he referred to as “the thorn in the eye” – the fortress of Fredrikshald – Fredriksten.

In the night of July 4 1716, he launched an attack on the fortress and the city with an overwhelming army, accompanied with canons and guns. The Norwegian defenders counted no more than 1600 men, i.e. 1300 soldiers and 300 volunteer citizens. After heavy and very bloody battles, the city fell but the fortress stood and once again it proved its strategic position and stronghold.

July the 8, the heroic Peter Tordenskjold and his small fleet took the Swedish fleet by surprise. The Swedish fleet was loaded with ammunition, guns and canons and was moored in the narrow Dynekilenfjord, just a few miles from the Norwegian – Swedish border, ready to supply the king Karl XII. in Fredrikshald. The Swedish fleet was sunk and destroyed completely. When Karl XII learned what had happened, he recognized his defeat, and he decided to withdraw from Fredrikshald July 9.

Norway however was still the main target for Karl XII policy. In 1718 he negotiated with the Russian Tsar Peter the Great, to ensure that an attack on Norway would not leave Sweden open for a Russian invasion. He gave up the Baltic provinces to Russia in return for peace on the eastern front. In the Autumn of 1718, he launched an attack on Norway, now with an even bigger army.

He was determined to seize Fredriksten. From all possible sides he launched his army towards the city and pushed closer to the fortress. Together with his generals and engineers they decided to dig trenches in order to come as close and safe as possible to the outer walls of the fortress from the Northern side. Day and night the soldiers dug forward to the fortress, under the gunfire of the defenders. On December 11 the trenches had reached the walls of the fortress by 160 metres.

### **The end of the warrior King Karl XII**

The French engineer Maigret was responsible for the digging of the trenches. On December 11, he told the king that they had come so close to the fortress that he would expect the siege would be over within eight days. “We will see”, the king answered, but he looked worried and unsure.<sup>1</sup>

On the evening of that day, the Commander of the fortress Barthold Nicolai Landsberg, ordered his troops to intensify the shooting from the fortress. It was a very dark, misty evening, as often in the Norwegian wintertime. He let his troops shoot fire balls in the air and hung up flaming tar-balls from the walls so that the soldiers could see better and aim at the Swedish attackers.

At eight o'clock in the evening the king decided to inspect the trenches closest to the fortress himself. He went up to the trenches, and despite the warnings from Maigret, he crawled into the outmost trench. Here he partly lay, partly stood with his head, shoulders and arms uncovered and watched his soldiers digging deeper and closer to the fortress, under heavy fire from the walls.

As the smoke from the shooting and the mist blew slowly away, the moon lit up the surroundings. A grim atmosphere hung over the battlefield. The king lay still and overlooked the scenery. Suddenly, at a quarter past nine, the king's hand fell down and his head moved backwards a bit. The king had been hit on the left side of his head. He died immediately.

The officers that saw what had happened were terrified. “My Lord Jesus, the king is shot”, shouted the general-adjutant Kaulbars. The officers who were present decided immediately to cover up what had happened, in order not to weaken the fighting spirit of the Swedish soldiers.

What happened from here is the basis of our Thinking Skills mystery: Who shot the King?

As the historian and professor of London University Ragnhild Marie Hatton writes in her biography of the Swedish King Karl XII, 1985:

*Two soldier jackets were laid over the dead king's body so to hide, for at least a little while, the identity of the dead person. Sicre, the aide of the dead king, took away the hat of the king. The hat had a big hole after the bullet that had passed right through his head. He put on his own wig on the king and a new golden draped hat. Carlberg and Schultz got the commando over 12 king's guards who were to*

<sup>1</sup> As stated in documents from the french engineer Maigret.

*carry the king on a stretcher. They were taken to oath never to tell anyone that it was their king they were carrying. But on the way back to Stutekollen, they took a wrong curve and fell down the steep hill towards the river. The stretcher tilted so that the soldier jackets, the golden draped hat and the wig fell of the dead body. At the same time the dense air, disappeared, and the moon shone on Karl XII dead face. The soldiers recognised who it was they were carrying. They got immediately the order to stop whining and crying over the loss of their king, and were threatened that they would be severely punished if they told anyone what they had just seen.*

*One o'clock in the night of December the first, the stretcher was laid in the kings' house in Tistedal.....*

*The king's dead body was draped in cloth and was originally put in a very simple coffin made out of pine tree. Specially elected king's guards were chosen to carry the coffin to the Iddefjord. From here it was taken to the other side of the Fjord and further to Uddevalla (a Swedish town 100 km away from Fredrikshald). There the body of the king was balméd by Neuman, the personal doctor of the king and transferred in a more dignified coffin before heading to the Swedish capital, Stockholm. Special arrangements were made on the wagon in order to avoid shaking and damaging the dead body of the king.*

Many historians, professors and scholars have done research on the question: what really happened at Fredriksten these days in December 1718? Who shot the king Karl XII? Already from the beginning, rumours were spread that the king could have been murdered by the Swedish nobility, his officers or employees from his army. It was said that his brother in law, the prince Fredrik of Hessen-Kassel, could have been the initiator of the killing to take over the Crown of Sweden.

Four times the sarcophagi was opened to examine the king's balméd body; especially the head (see pictures), without any reliable scientific result.

Even the French philosopher Voltaire did serious inquiries and research on this question, and even though he concluded that it was most likely that he was killed by an enemies bullet, the final proof of who shot the king still remains unclear.

The mystery will probably never be solved. The questions still remain: Was the king murdered by the Swedish officers who were tired of the war?

Was the king murdered by the Swedish brother-in-law, the prince Fredrik of Hessen-Kassel?

Was the king murdered by the Swedish soldiers?

Was the king shot by the Norwegian soldiers?

Or: was he just a casualty of war?

## 2.8 Chronology

### General

For many years and from many different quarters, people have been bemoaning the lack of knowledge of chronological facts amongst learners. At the same time, a familiar complaint amongst learners has been, “Do we have to learn all those dates?”

Learners perceive the amount of historical characters and events they have to know about as a problem. At the same time, for many learners the memorising of dates and associated information is ‘empty and meaningless knowledge’, which makes the acquisition of an overall knowledge troublesome.

In the ‘Chronology’ thinking skill, learners must know the most important dates and characters, but that is not the objective. The objective, of course, should be for learners to understand the causes and the consequences of an event, recognise the changes, discover continuities and explain the present through historical analogies. In order to attain these objectives, a thorough understanding of facts, events and characters is indispensable. In other words: the learners must know the chronology. After all, “time” and the “determination of time” are the essential dimensions of the subject of history. Chronology comes in many forms and types (e.g. the classical ages, phasing by type of society; the non-European ages; etc. etc.). The historian, as well as the history teacher, uses chronology to order facts according to their own accents, so that a coherent picture can be put together. However, the picture they put together is from their own personal perspective. Learning dates by heart, literally and figuratively, does not make much sense. The learner must work actively with the facts and in so doing, order and place these in time, so that an awareness of time results.

### Timeline

A timeline can help learners form a basis for an awareness of time. This has always been the case and many course books and curricula have likewise used timelines. In order to reach the right answer, learners must consult the timeline as part of the exercise. The computer and internet have helped ensure that timelines have become available which facilitate this awareness of time by audio-visual means and furthermore, hyperlinks enable links to be seen between facts, concepts, characters and dates.

In all these cases however, the timeline continues to be a medium whereby the learner is consumer. The learner cannot construct the timeline. Teachers recognise this problem and have solved this by getting learners themselves to put together timelines. Although the results are often very good, the construction of a timeline requires a great deal of time and the teacher often has an inadequate amount of control over the quality of the content.

### Forms of Chronology

In devising a Chronology exercise, differentiation and variation is possible with respect to a number of different points:

- \* the time span; a choice can be made between a shorter or longer period;
- \* the time interval; a choice can be made between an interval of a year, a decade or a century;
- \* the chronological timeline can be tied in with a thematic arrangement. Here, a number of options are possible, depending on the subject: pre-history, ancient civilisation, the middle ages, etc. or discovery – colonisation – colonialism – resistance – independence struggles – independence);
- \* the number of cards with statements/events can vary;
- \* the amount and type of information on the card can vary;
- \* cards with text can alternate with source texts, pictures, etc.

In all the variations, the post-activity evaluation is of crucial importance. In deciding where to place their cards, learners can make historical mistakes (a picture or statement is not placed at the proper moment in time). However, they will have to substantiate their choice on the basis of arguments, in which they have taken the link with the surrounding information as the anchor mark. By simply indicating what is correct and incorrect at the evaluation stage, the core of this thinking activity will have been missed. Ask open questions and get the learners to react to each other’s line of reasoning. In this way they will gain some idea of the quality of the arguments and make a choice on the basis of these.

**Experiences**

Chronology exercises are not deemed to be particularly difficult by learners. Likewise, the instructions are fairly simple and require no extensive explanation. For this reason, chronology exercises can be applied well at any level. Learners can see immediately that positioning of the sources can only take place by looking carefully at the other data and making the links explicitly between them. Sometimes, this takes place on the basis of linguistic reasoning, sometimes by means of logical thinking, but usually the existing historical knowledge is used to get a good picture.

Much more difficult for learners is the post-activity evaluation, when they have to re-examine the timeline and apply the links or accents. Learners then have to consider what is important and less important or, even what characteristics mark out the period in question.

**Didactical background**

The chronology activities

- \* teach learners to argue and reason;
- \* teach learners to identify, classify, order and make relationships;
- \* stimulate learners' all-round skills: listening, comprehension, expression;
- \* allow learners to experience the dimension of time;
- \* allow learners to experience the usefulness of their actual knowledge;
- \* allow learners to see relationships and contexts.

## Chronology – An Example

### *Ideologies of the 19th and 20th century*

This learning-activity provides students with an overview of the most important ideologies and their development over time. This development is placed in time and related to important historical events.

#### The lesson at a glance

**Subject:** Ideologies of the 19th and 20th century

**Activity:** Classification and chronology of ideologies, historical figures and primary sources.

**Time:** 100 minutes

**Goals:**

- \* Students are able to place ideologies in their historical context
- \* Students are able to define historical sources on ideologies in terms of time and/or link them to proponents of the ideologies.
- \* Students are able to describe the difference between primary and secondary sources.
- \* Students can explain the development of ideologies through historical facts.

**Initial stage:** The content of the ideology is known. This learning activity will give the students a time-related overview (simultaneous developments, facts, etc.)  
Students know the difference between primary and secondary sources.

**Preparation:**

- \* Copy the working material in three envelopes
  - I The ideologies
  - II Historical facts
  - III Sources and historical persons.
- \* Use a separate colour for the different ideologies and historical persons.
  - Liberalism: Blue
  - Socialism: Red
  - Fascism: Yellow

**Instruction:**

**What:** Overview of the ideologies  
**How:** Placing ideologies, facts and sources in a time-line  
**Why:** To properly comprehend the ideologies and their development, one must be able to identify them in terms of time and their historical context.

**Management:**

- \* Make groups of two or three students and place them at two tables.
- \* Round 1: place the ideologies (envelope 1) above the time-line
- \* Round 2: place the historical fact (envelope 2) in the time-line. Connect them with other historical facts
- \* Round 3: Read the sources and place them with the historical figure (envelope 3). Then place source and figure in the time-line. Note: not all the sources have a historical figure associated with them.

**Debriefing:** The sheet with the answers gives didactical and historical guidelines for the debriefing.

**Follow-up:** It is very important to be familiar with ideologies for examination purposes. You must also be able to place them in terms of time.  
And to really comprehend the 19th and 20th century it is important to be familiar with these ideologies, because they have shaped many important events, political developments, wars, etc.

**Goals**

- \* Students are able to place ideologies in their historical context
- \* Students are able to determine historical sources about ideologies in time and/or connect them with representatives of the ideologies.
- \* Students are able to describe the difference between primary and secondary sources.
- \* Students can explain the development of ideologies through historical facts.

**Initial stage**

This learning activity can only be done if students have a good knowledge of the ideologies and have a general overview of the historical facts in the 19th and 20th centuries.

**Preparation**

- \* Copy the time-line on A3 sheets. Make sure that every group has one complete timeline.
- \* Copy the sheet with the ideology, historical persons for all of the groups. Give every -ism its own colour. Make cards for each
  - Socialism: red
  - Liberalism: blue
  - Fascism: yellow
- Put the ideologies in a separate envelope, one for each group. Write 1 on the envelope
- Put the historical persons in another envelope. For every group one. Write 3 on the envelop.
- \* Copy the sheet with historical facts and make cards for them. It is a good idea to copy them on coloured paper, for example green. Put them in an envelope. Write 2 on it.
- \* Copy the sheet with the sources. Make cards for them and put them in the envelope marked 3.

**Instruction****What** are we going to do?

You are going to make a historical overview of the ideologies that we have discussed the most recent lessons.

**How** are we going to do it? You are going to put the ideologies in a time-line and link them to historical facts and place historical sources in the time-line.

**Why** are we doing it?

Ideas on society are specific to a moment in time. To comprehend why the ideologies developed and what their original backgrounds were, you must know what happened during the various periods of history, so you can tie in the ideology with the historical context.

**Managing the activity**

Make groups of two or three students. Make sure that the group is sitting at two tables, so all of them can see the time-line properly. Give each of the groups a complete time-line.

*Round 1 (10 minutes)*

- \* Give every group envelope 1
- \* The students put the ideologies above the time-line.

*Round 2 (15 minutes)*

- \* Give students envelope 2
- \* Students place the historical facts in the time-line
- \* Some cards could be placed at several different moments in time. Place the card in the one you think the most appropriate. Make sure you can defend your choice.
- \* There may be books at the front of the class you can consult.

*Round 3 (25 minutes)*

- \* Give students envelope 3
- \* Read the sources. Find out who said it?
- \* Match the right historical person to the right source.
- \* Place the source and person in the time-line
- \* Note 1: Some sources have no author, but can be linked to a historical fact or a specific year.

- \* Note 2: You will see some names several times. You need to use each name with all the different sources.

#### Round 4 (20 minutes)

- \* Individual Students will answer a questionnaire.
- \* After this has been done, they can discuss their answers in the group.

#### Round 5 (20 minutes)

- \* Debriefing the questionnaire.

### Debriefing

#### On content

It is very difficult to discuss all the sources, because there are too many. The debriefing can be done in two different ways:

- \* The student as the starting point: Ask the groups to specify the two sources they found the most difficult. Make a list of the sources named by the students. Discuss the three or four sources that are mentioned the most.
- \* The teacher as the starting point: You can pick out the sources that you think are the most important and discuss them.

Both ways are comprehensive and perhaps can both be dealt with. If you deal with both of them, it is important for you to start with the students as the starting point. This gives them a degree of 'ownership' which will increase their motivation. Moreover, students will have already picked those you would have picked yourself. By emphasising this, you will be giving them a compliment and it also gives you insight into whether students really understand what it's about ('brain on the table').

#### Didactical

- \* Discuss the difference between primary and secondary sources.
- \* Discuss the ideas of historical persons/ideologies in connection with the period in which they lived.

### Answers: sources

source	author	year	Remarks
1	K. Marx	1848	
2	J. Stalin	1931	Speech at the start of first Five Year plan.
3	V. Lenin	1905	In his writing: What to do?
4	SDAP	1894	Out of the initial programme
5	A. Smith	1776	From his book: 'The Wealth of Nations'
6	R. Thorbecke	1848	As minister of Internal Affairs
7	A. Hitler	1923	From 'Mein Kampf'
8	B. Mussolini	1922	On his installation after the March on Rome
9	B. Mussolini	1922	As a justification for the first fascist state
10	J. Goebbels	1943	During his famous speech in the Sportpalast, February 1943
11	A. Mussert	1930s	Taken from The Larousse Encyclopaedia
12	K. Marx	1848	Famous first and last lines from the Communist Manifesto

### Working materials

- \* Empty Time-lines
- \* Sheet 1 Fascism and its most important proponents
- \* Sheet 2 Communism and its most important proponents
- \* Sheet 3 Liberalism and its most important proponents
- \* Sheet 4 Historical facts
- \* Sheet 5 Historical sources
- \* Questionnaire

**Fascism and its most important proponents** - Copy them on Yellow paper

National-Socialism	Fascism	<b>B. Mussolini</b>	<b>B. Mussolini</b>
<b>J. Goebbels</b>	<b>A. Hitler</b>	<b>A. Rosenberg</b>	<b>A. Mussert</b>

**Communism and its most important proponents** - Copy them on RED paper

Stalinism	Maoism	Communism (Marxism)	Revisionism
Marxism-Leninism		<b>L. Trotsky</b>	<b>K. Marx</b>
J. Stalin	<b>Mao</b>	<b>K. Marx</b>	<b>V.I. Lenin</b>

**Liberalism and its most important proponents** - Copy them on BLUE paper

Classic Liberalism	Progressive liberalism	<b>J.M. Keynes</b>	<b>A. Smith</b>
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**Historical facts** - On white green paper

Growing discontent by the Liberals. The discussion focuses on the right to vote and on the 'social controversy'	<b>NSDAP</b> wins the elections, but the communists also gain many votes.	<b>Nuremburg Laws</b>	<b>Peace treaty of Versailles</b>
World economic crisis	Death of Stalin	Great Leap Onward	March on Rome
<b>Revolution year</b> Citizens demand greater influence on the government in nearly all European capitals.	In England the first social laws are made to protect children.	Wall Street crash	Stalin takes power
Fire in the Reichstag	<b>Russian Revolution</b>	Marx writes the Communist Manifesto	<b>„Anschluss“</b>
Wannsee conference	<b>China becomes a peoples republic</b>	“Night-watchmen” state	First five-year plans are declared fulfilled

## Historical sources

1. Of all classes that are fighting the bourgeoisie, only the proletarians are the real revolutionary class. The other classes will be absorbed by industry. The proletariat will use its political power to take away all power, step by step, from the bourgeoisie by placing the means of production into the hands of the state.

2. It is sometimes asked whether it is not possible to slow down the tempo somewhat, to put a check on the movement. No, comrades, it is not possible! On the contrary, it must be increased. This is dictated to us by our obligations to the workers and peasants and to the working class of the whole world. To slacken the tempo would mean falling behind. And those who fall behind get beaten. But we do not want to be beaten. No, we refuse to be beaten!<sup>1</sup>

3. If we are able to achieve a dictatorship of the proletarians in our own country, a leading party of the proletarians, we can expect a world-revolution.

4. From the program of a Dutch Political party: *This political party will, as long as labourers do not seize power, use all political rights to gain power and use it.*

5. Give complete freedom to every individual and an invisible hand will make sure that the combination of natural self-interest and there need to do business, trade and exchange goods leads to welfare for all.

6. A Dutch minister of Internal Affairs: *Does this mean that the state must take care of everything, and heal all deceases and shortcomings of society? On the contrary. The first law is abstinence.*

7. *He who wants to live must fight, and he who does not want to fight in this world of eternal struggle does not deserve to live.*

8. *I deny that 'the number' can rule human society; I deny that this number can rule by means of regular consults; I confirm the inevitable inequality of people who do not become equal by general right to vote.*

9. This ideology is against individualism. The individual belongs to the state, because only then the individual will grow to its maximum.

10. I ask you: Do you want total war? <sup>3</sup>

11. *I will fight for the foundation of a Greater Netherlands, within the German Empire. This Greater Netherlands will emerge from the merger of the Netherlands, Flanders and, later, the French part of Belgium.*

12. A spectre is haunting Europe – the spectre of communism. All the powers of old Europe have entered into a holy alliance to exorcise this spectre: Pope and Tsar, Metternich and Guizot, French Radicals and German police-spies. The Communists disdain to conceal their views and aims. They openly declare that their ends can be attained only by the forcible overthrow of all existing social conditions. Let the ruling classes tremble at a communist revolution. The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Workers of the world, unite!

<sup>1</sup> Taken from: <http://www.marx2mao.com/Stalin/TEE31.html>

<sup>2</sup> Taken from: <http://www.calvin.edu/academic/cas/gpa/woweries.htm>

<sup>3</sup> Taken from: <http://www.calvin.edu/academic/cas/gpa/goeb36.htm>

## Questionnaire

You have just made a time-line. Now you must make these questions by yourself. You may only use the time-line you have just made and no talking is allowed.

1 When did the following ideology emerge? Give a year when possible.

Classical liberalism .....

Progressive liberalism .....

Communism .....

Social-democracy .....

Marxism-Leninism .....

Fascism .....

National-socialism .....

2 Who are the most important (Dutch) representatives of:

Communism .....

Social-democracy .....

Fascism .....

Progressive liberalism .....

Classical liberalism .....

3 The year 1848 is an important year.

Explain why this is, both for liberalism and for communism.

Liberalism: .....

.....

Communism: .....

.....

6 Thesis:

Communism, as explained by Marx and Engels, is the most dominant ideology for the development of history in the 19th and 20th century.

a. Support this thesis with two arguments

I. ....

.....

II .....

.....

b. Refute this thesis with two arguments.

I. ....

.....

II .....

.....

7 Fascism is the only ideology that emerged in the 20th century. It is often said that it was a reaction to liberalism, communism (and Christian-democracy). It turned against elements of these ideologies. For each ideology listed, specify the objection fascism held towards this ideology

Liberalism .....

.....

Communism .....

.....

Christian-democracy .....

.....

# Time-line

**1770** | **1780** | **1790** | **1800** | **1810** | **1820** | **1830** | **1840** | **1850** | **1860**

**Industrial Revolution**  
(first in England, later in the rest of Europe and North America)

**Napoleon**

**1794**  
James Watt invents steam engine

**1795**  
first constitution in the Netherlands

**1806**  
Netherlands becomes a kingdom

**1815**  
Napoleon defeated at Waterloo

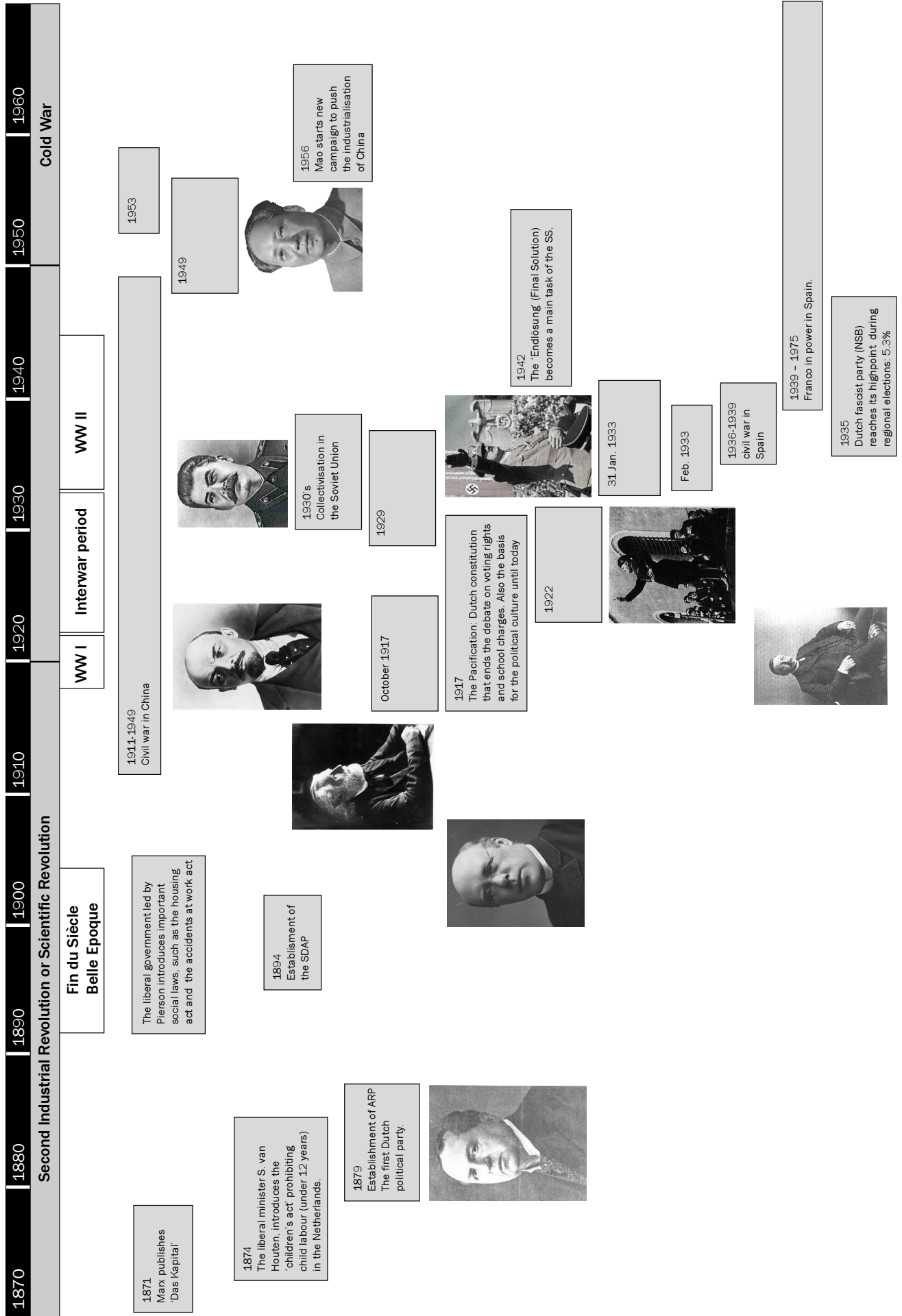
**1815**  
King Willem I rules Holland as an enlightened monarch

**1848**  
The Year of Revolutions. In nearly all European countries people are in revolt against the governments

**1848**  
Liberal constitution in the Netherlands

During the 19th century  
Due to the industrial revolution large-scale urbanisation commences. Poverty is rife among large parts of the population. Social issues can no longer be ignored, but the emphasis and political discussion varies from country to country

# Time-line



## 2.9 Causal Analysis

### *Causal Analysis – An Example*

This particular story is told to provide a simple and concrete basis for working with central and scientific causal concepts in the classroom, such as: trigger causes, contributory causes and fundamental causes.

This Thinking Skill also provides a good training exercise for the teachers' narrative or storytelling abilities. In many European countries, storytelling occupies a rather weak position and is often seen as "pacifying mediation", that is, where pupils and students sit quietly, listen and take occasional notes. Storytelling however, is not a passive approach to a lesson. If it is rendered in the proper way, storytelling can make an important contribution in stimulating pupils' and students' curiosity and imagination. Curiosity and imagination aren't passive everyday tasks, but represent important elements in triggering the development of thinking skills. The listener is compelled into activating his or her imagination and ability to create ideas so that he or she can follow the storytellers' narrative. What is essential however, is that the listener can follow and understand the story. After all, storytelling is an ancient art which has been used to hand down knowledge and other vital information from one generation to the other.

We believe that storytelling is both able to compete with and add to the modern narratives in the classroom. Nowadays, modern narratives are being used by the mass media to gain the attention of youngsters. Story-based computer games, for example, are extremely popular. Many news items, in newspapers, on TV, on the internet or on the radio, are related in the form of a 'story'. However, these media act as an interface between reality and the listener. It is essential here to develop a critical way of thinking about the role of the media as 'storytellers', in the knowledge that the teacher, as storyteller, is also acting as an interface, carefully deliberating on the words he or she uses and in this way influencing the thinking and sentiments of the students.

Few arenas remain today where the storyteller and the listener actually meet. With storytelling, the teacher has a golden opportunity to open him or herself to the needs of students and to urge them to develop their own ideas. As it is, the teacher, as storyteller, is in a unique position, since there is no impersonal media standing between the narrator and the listener. This enables the development of bi-directional, multiple communications in the classroom, as well as an atmosphere of attention and understanding between the teacher and the pupils/students.

### **The experience with the lesson causal analyses**

The students will often provide an emotional response to the story and enquire whether the story is fact or fiction. If you succeed in bringing about this reaction, then your story will have had a positive impact by catching their attention and involvement. This provides an effective starting point for lesson management. In many cases, students will be somewhat confused to start with, but you might provide them with some clues or pointers so that the first task can be managed effectively. Our experience is that the second task – the classification of causes – even though it is considered more difficult, is much easier to manage amongst the students. After having completed the first task, that is, to find 10 different causes, the discussion about what might be a trigger, a contributory or a fundamental cause demands a reflective capacity of a higher order. As a teacher it is vital to listen to the group's discussions since he or she will have to fall back on that knowledge in order to manage the later, debriefing part of the lesson, where students have to form an awareness of the various possibilities and interpretations of the causes. It is also important to show how these scientific analytic tools can be applied in other areas and subjects, even in other fields of science (for example, the analysis of literature). Some teachers have even used this lesson to solve disciplinary problems amongst pupils.

### **The Drama – the Explosion**

This is a short and simple story that a teacher will be able to learn by heart quickly. The drawings (see below) are simple and the lines easy to copy. They are effective as the story proceeds, providing the visual support to draw pupils into the story and to keep them in a state of suspended animation. For the teacher, they provide an aid to memorising the story. However, it is the introduction of the scientific concepts of causal analyses, that is important here.

The task is divided into two parts. The first part is a closed, mainly visual task, whilst the second part is open and more demanding on the students because of the use of causal analytic tools in practice. The latter part can be used in a diversity of contexts. Almost all historical material is relevant, likewise subjects such as literature, geography and social sciences.

### The story:

“This story happened some years ago. Two pupils lived close to the school, and they always walked to school together. Let’s call them Simon and Catherine. After the summer holidays they were eager to return to school, to see all their friends they’d not seen for a while, and excited about seeing the new gymnasium the local council were having constructed during the summer break. After years of lobbying for facilities which would promote more physical exercise in school, the local council had finally acceded to their demands. But, as is often the case, the building wasn’t quite finished when the new school term started. The building was still surrounded by scaffolding.

Simon and Catherine entered the schoolyard. Here they were welcomed by a teacher, who was on duty in the schoolyard that morning. There were still 15 minutes left before the school bell would ring.

Catherine saw her friend on the left-hand side of the schoolyard, and immediately went up to her. The following conversation took place: “Hi Ann....good to see you again. Did you enjoy the summer holidays? I had a great time...got myself a boyfriend this summer you know”. She smiled cheerfully, looking pleased with herself. Ann smiled back and asked inquisitively: “Oh do tell me, who is it?” “I think you know him”, Catherine replied: “It’s Richard in the year above us”. Ann’s face suddenly changed. Her smile disappeared and she turned in fury, crying: “Oh no....he’s mine!” A big fight started between the two girls. They were shouting and swearing at each other and this attracted the teacher’s attention. The teacher rushed up to the girls and separated them to try and calm the situation down.

Simon looked on at the ensuing argument at a distance and watched the teacher approach the quarrelling girls. His attention then turned to the new building and, with curiosity getting the better of him, he decided to take a closer look at the new gymnasium. He knew he had to be careful, because of the scaffolding and all the other hazardous materials lying around.

Immediately adjacent to the new gym, a small cabin had been erected for the workers, where they would have coffee, eat lunch and plan their work schedules. Before the new gym could be completed, a rock next to the building had to be removed so that the area around the gym could be extended. The workers had been carefully planning their work for the day. The explosives, which would be used to blow up the rock, were situated in a corner just outside the cabin.

One of the workers was a smoker. In the past, he’d often mislaid his cigarettes and matches, so now he put them on the window frame so he wouldn’t forget them. That particular day however, he hadn’t noticed that the matchbox had fallen onto the ground.

Simon saw the cabin. There he saw the case of explosives that had been put in the corner by the workers. He opened the case and saw to his great surprise that there were huge firecrackers in it. Suddenly, he remembered the previous New Year’s celebration, when he and his father had set off some fireworks. His father had told him to be extremely careful and how to handle these fireworks properly...by withdrawing at least five metres from the firework after it had been ignited. He thought: “Wow, now we can celebrate the start of the new school term with a real bang!” He took one of the rolls of dynamite and lit the fuse...ran the five metres from the dynamite and.....

### **BOOOOOOOOOOM**

It caused an enormous explosion. The effect was dramatic to say the least: part of the new building was blown to bits, the cabin was totally destroyed and both workers were blasted into the air, as was Simon. Luckily no other children were seriously injured...

The day after the explosion, the headline in the newspaper said: One pupil and two workers killed by horrendous explosion in schoolyard – who is to blame?

An official inquiry was set up by the government with the task of finding out: “How could this have happened?”

**Launching the lesson**

Divide the pupils into groups of three. Tell them that you are going to tell them a short story, and that you will only tell them the story once. Encourage the students to make notes.

Write on the blackboard: Who is to blame – and why?

**Task 1:** Ask the pupils to come up with at least 10 different possible answers to the question. Give them 15 – 20 minutes (depending on their age and ability) to come up with their answers.

Tell the story and support it with drawings on the blackboard as you go along (see below).  
Managing the lesson: as is the case in all Thinking Skills.

*The first debriefing:*

Make sure that every group has produced enough possible answers. Ask them about the dynamics of their group work, and try to engage the pupils in a dialogue about some of their answers...but be brief, and don't spend longer than 10 minutes on this part of the lesson. Discuss: how could it have happened? Use students' examples to make clear that there are several possible outcomes.

For example, if one of the students says that the teacher is to blame because she/he didn't stop Simon from going up to the cabin, then reply by saying, but the teacher was distracted by the fight ...and so on. This will demonstrate that behind every likely cause, more answers are possible.

Use their answers and explanations to categorise different causes, and introduce the concept of causal analysis. Explain the different meanings of the concept:

- \* trigger causes
- \* contributory causes
- \* fundamental causes

- 1 A trigger cause is one which sets a series of events in motion. Historically, they may relate to small-scale events that set in motion larger-scale events, such as the shooting of Duke Ferdinand by a Serbian member of the "Black Hand", called Princip, in Sarajevo. This is seen as a trigger cause for WW I.
- 2 A contributory cause plays an important role in bringing about progression in an event. These are often underlying and may be diverse. Examples of such causes are: the rearmament of military forces before WWI, the building of the Berlin–Baghdad railway, the forming of strategic alliances and so on.
- 3 A fundamental cause is one which is considered as being the most important reason for setting an event in motion. What one person classifies as being a fundamental cause may, of course, differ from someone else's, depending on what perspective you take. Someone might deem the economic situation as being the fundamental cause of WW I, when Germany exceeded British levels of production with the result that they wanted to expand their markets; others might classify the political deadlock or the lack of colonial possessions as a fundamental cause of WWI.

Make sure that you explain to the pupils that analyses of this kind are tools to understanding events better.

When you have finished this part of the lesson, you can introduce the next task. Explain that there is no one ideal or correct answer: it's all a matter of interpretation.

**Task 2:** Write on the blackboard: "Use your explanations and try to explain them with causal analyses". Give them 10 – 15 minutes to do this task.

Managing the lesson: as is the case in all Thinking Skills.

*The second debriefing*

This debriefing is the main part of this lesson. Here you will listen to the pupils telling you how they reached their solutions, making sure that you initiate a debate in the class about the differences

between the different causes. There are many possibilities contained within the story and you will probably have to set strict time limits. Use time for positive feed back, and ask about group dynamics and about how they solved their differences.

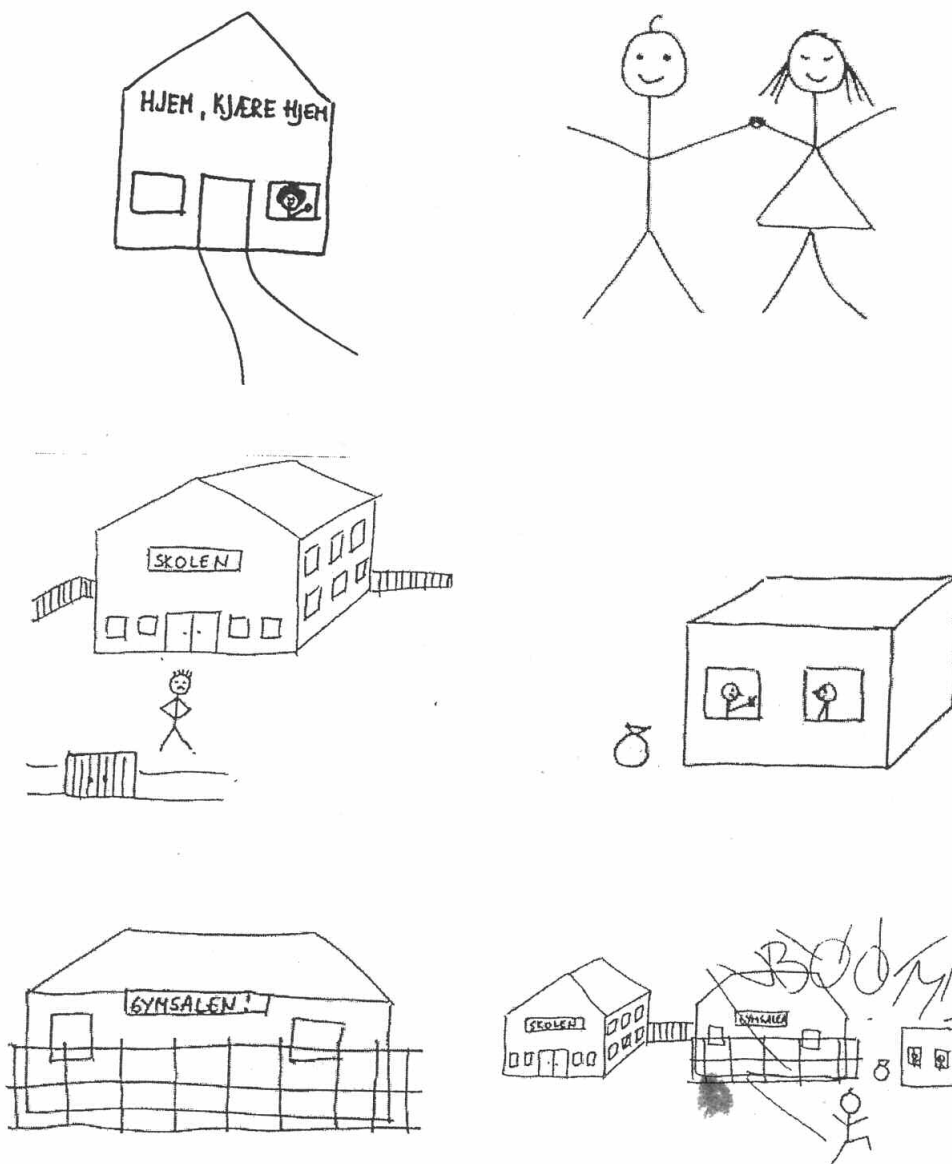
Ask the students about the examples they produced, and try to build up arguments that create more possible explanations. For example: if one group argues that the worker was to blame, as a fundamental cause, the teacher could reply that this story might not tell whole truth about his actions. He may have been distracted, when the matchbox fell, he may have been dealing with a telephone call from the boss about storing the dynamite more safely, or he may have been preoccupied in discussing last night's soap with his colleague, and so on. An important aim of this part of the task is to develop the students' ability to bring about critical thinking, helping students to reconsider their previous ideas.

The bridging

Show the pupils the importance of using these concepts in other fields. This can be done by explaining the universality of these tools in literature, social sciences, geography, biology and so on.

Also, make sure that the students are aware of the fact that every (news) story is told with a different objective in mind. No narrative can ever tell the whole truth. Every story has been customised, told on the basis of a personal standpoint and opinions and, likewise, this is the case in every narrative.

### Drawings



## 2.10 Design your Neighbour

### General

'Design your neighbour' is a challenging activity in which learners must expound on their own social values. They do this by indicating the requirements/conditions that a new neighbour must satisfy. They work according in a specific, self-explanatory manner using a diversity of geographical, sociological, moral and political concepts. In this activity, they discover to what extent stereotyping takes place and how stereotypes can be determined by their opinions and attitude in respect of others.

### Didactical background

The activities in 'Design you neighbour' teach learners to

- \* become aware of their own views and attitudes about coexisting with 'others';
- \* argue and defend their own social values;
- \* draw conclusions on the basis of data and one's own opinions;
- \* make a relationship between everyday issues (visible conduct) and abstract concepts and principles in the area of ethics, sociology, political science, spatial planning, etc. (depending on the exercise);
- \* establish a link between one's own personal life (private domain) and society (public domain);
- \* identify (label) and classify;
- \* identify relationships and contexts;
- \* imagine oneself as another person, in another country or in a different time (depending on the exercise).

### Experiences

This Thinking Skill is often considered as quite challenging for students. In fact, they will not find handling the task hard at all, since it is easy to both launch and manage. The difficult part is the debriefing and "bridging" part. Since many students hold stereotyped images about "the significant other" or how they envisage their ideal neighbour, it is often necessary to rectify the attitudes and opinions as and when they occur in the debriefing session. But this also provides an opportunity to develop critical thinking on the part of students, and help demystify cultural differences. Often, students show a great deal of interest in debating their own prejudices so that they can set their opinions against those of the other students and teachers. The teacher might use some time during the debriefing to develop reflective techniques in respect of the various levels of statements, so it is important for the teacher to have a clear idea of how to handle any xenophobia beforehand.

### Example - Design your Neighbour

#### *Stereotypes*

In many aspects of life, we divide peoples in terms of "us" and "them". We divide girls from boys when it comes to explaining different behaviour and attitudes, we divide peoples into foreigners and fellow countrymen, Christians and Muslims, black and white, teachers and students, schools and parents and so on. This stereotyping can be seen as the root of hostilities, racism and suppression between populations. Peoples along border areas have often witnessed this stereotyping and people have suffered on both sides of the borders as a consequence of this.

This thinking skill is designed to establish a debate and give a deeper understanding of how and what we can do to reduce the creation of stereotypes, for educational purposes.

### Goals

The purpose is to design a next door "neighbour" (a "them") that suits into the cultural and social habitat of the designers (students).

### Tasks

Place the students in to groups of three. Give them the following task:

1: Choose five (5) statements/pieces of information (see below) and design a neighbour you would like to share your neighbourhood with. However you must not make a fantasy figure, make sure to keep it realistic at all times. All statements/pieces of information chosen must be discussed between the students, and the choices must be reasoned for and written down.

The students should discuss what statements they chose and why for 20 - 25 minutes.

2: Which of these statements/pieces of information are more important? Give the statements you

picked out a number from one (1) to five (5) after its importance, where one (1) is most important and five (5) less important. You should use five (5) more minutes.

3: Which of these statements from the complete list (25) are less relevant and why? Pick out at least 5 statements that aren't relevant. Write down your arguments in complete sentences.

4: Is there any statement you miss in the list above? Construct 1 – 5 statements you think would suite better for this design of your neighbour. Use 10 minutes for this task.

As a tutor you should walk around when the students work. You should listen to what kind of arguments are used, and use these in the debriefing part of the lesson.

### Debriefing

When you use task 1 and 2, you might start the debriefing.

Questions you as a tutor might ask during the debriefing:

- \* How did you solve this task in the group?
- \* How did you solve your differences in the group?
- \* What does your neighbour(s) look like?
- \* Why did you choose the statements over others?
- \* What are the most important statements for designing your neighbour?
- \* What statements are not so much important, if any?
- \* Did you identify the “us and them” statements in the group?
- \* Does this lesson work well for creating good attitudes against racism?

The questions that might be used when you as a tutor is debriefing the task No. 3:

- \* How did you solve this task in the group?
- \* How did you solve your differences in the group?
- \* Why did you choose the statements over others?
- \* Did you identify what kind of statements the less important statements are?

The questions that might be asked for task No. 4:

- \* Why did you choose these statements?
- \* What do they tell about your attitude towards “strangers”?

Finally, generally for all tasks: Which statements promote tolerance and which don't?

### Design your Neighbour - Cards

It is important that he/she is well educated	It is important that he/she speaks the same language	It is not important what religion she/he has	It is not important what language he/she speaks, as long as we can communicate	It is important that she/he has the same religion as us
We should eat the same type of food	He/she should be grateful to live with us	He/she should wear the same type of clothes as us	It does not matter what music he/she likes	It is important that he/she adjust her/his life to ours
The colour of the skin is not an issue	The colour of the skin must be same as ours	It is not important if she/he is well educated	He/she should keep for themselves	He/she should mingle with us
He/she should keep appointments	We should try to understand her/his culture	He/she must understand our culture	It is not important what clothes she/he wears	He/she should follow our social and cultural rules
She/he must not be fat	Her/his appearance is of no importance	She/he should not be allowed to marry one of us	She/he should be strict in her/his upbringing of their children	It is of no importance if she/he hits their children

## 3 Debriefing

### Giving meaning to learning

Most subject matter on its own has little meaning to students. Much of the time subject matter is put into a context of overall development, transferring culture to the next generation, national and European identity, essential knowledge for the self-aware citizen and so on.

'To give meaning', and especially to give meaning on different levels, is not something every student can do. Young adults between the ages of 12 and 18 years are preoccupied with their hormones and day-to-day existence. It is even more difficult for students who don't have the intellectual capacity to think in abstract terms or who live in deprived families.

In Thinking Skills Activities, students seek solutions. Because of the strong subject-based resources and work with specific skills, content-focussed teachers and students are also given greater scope. Due to the playful, concrete forms of working, the learning materials also enable other students to make progress. "Giving meaning" at different levels is not something that should be taken for granted amongst students. This is the reason why the debriefing of the learning process is such an important aspect of all assignments.

### Problems in the debriefing

Debriefings are important, but at the same time problematic in all Thinking Skills Activities. It is difficult enough at the best of times to have a good educational learning conversation, especially where students are involved. For the Thinking Skills Debriefing it is even more difficult.

#### *The teaching methods themselves are too enjoyable*

Most students have so much fun with the learning activities (e.g. Mystery, Pictures from memory, Taboo) that anything else afterwards seems boring in comparison. Usually, students are prepared to give up a part of their break time and go on working. But to stay on, after such an engaging activity, and to discuss it is too much for most. In fact, the activity should be less fun, so we can raise the learning results.

#### *The lesson is too short*

Thinking Skill lessons take about 45 minutes or longer. If lessons in most schools are only between 40 and 50 minutes, this leaves little scope for an effective debriefing. A lot of teachers believe their students have already worked hard enough and any subsequent debriefing would just be too difficult (likewise for themselves).

#### *Students' views on learning*

Most students think that 'learning' is all about reading difficult texts from books and learning them by heart for a test. Only one answer is the correct one, and the teacher explains why it is the right answer. All students perceive this in the same way, in every lesson, and that is why students believe this to be 'the correct way to learn'.

Thinking Skills Activities present students with a different way of learning which does not fit in with the conventional image. Usually, students – mostly in a cooperative environment – are given tasks which deviate from the norm and which place the accent on skills and thinking strategies. For many students this is too difficult and results in remarks such as, "Oh right, let's talk about how we did it". Students (especially in the second to fourth year) are focused on results. A result is when they have an answer, have used the time available, or the teacher has given them the correct answer. Students by themselves are not driven to self-reflection or self-evaluation (see Egan, 2005).

In the Thinking Skills assignments, students are invited to work together and discuss what they have done. In this way, their thinking process and results become visible. By learning about the method and the results of other students they can improve their own approach and results. 'Learning together' also connects, in a social-constructive way, to the historical skills. By working in a group, more sources and students are involved in attaining a reliable result. Students become more aware of their own place in time and space and the fact that every other person has their own individual story.

An effective discussion in attaining a better result is dependent on a positive student attitude and an

interest in improving on their own answers. In the classroom we often see the opposite happening. Students often adopt a position which is based on their social interaction and hierarchy within the group. This way they can define their position in relation to their classmates and to the teacher. As a result, not every group is suited to an open and constructive debriefing.

The debriefing deals only partly with content. Thinking strategies and the use of them should also be a part of it. Sadly, most teachers are not interested in this area.

#### *Teachers' views on the debriefing*

Teachers' views also can be destructive in respect of a good Thinking Skill debriefing. Usually, teachers will ask semi-open questions about what the students learned and how they used that information. A Thinking Skill debriefing connects to the world of the students and has a different didactical approach in content and construction. There are many different ways of holding a debriefing. Normally, teachers will choose an educational-learning conversation of about 7 minutes, so it is no wonder students don't actively participate and the exchange doesn't go beyond a general level. As far as the learning goals are concerned, teachers hardly know the purpose of the activity themselves. Do we know beforehand what students should know, or what they should have been able to do by the end of a lesson? And if we do, can we see the results of the content and the thinking strategy in a test? It is very difficult to explain to students what the benefits of a debriefing are and after a couple of minutes they (the students) are fully aware of that.

In discussing the aforementioned elements, we have identified the main difficulties of a debriefing.

#### **Debriefing methods**

In a lot of Thinking Skills Activities, a quiz or element of competition is built in. In this way the question 'Am I right?' is more important. The question why something is right or wrong and its contribution is less important to the students. The quiz/competition has to be won, and they don't care how! But here lies the most important aspect of the solution: the activities are so challenging, or have to be made so challenging, that students want to know: "why have their classmates got different answers than they have?" The teacher is required to prepare meticulously in order to connect personal interest with context and thinking strategies. An effective debriefing needs care and time. The goals of the teacher have to be realistic. First, build up your own expertise by starting with learning activities which suit you and connect with your own skills as a teacher. For example, a debriefing of a complex mystery about the Soviet Union in a higher class requires different qualities than a debriefing of "Taboo" on ancient Egypt in a lower group.

#### **Preparing the debriefing**

When preparing the lesson, the teacher has to be aware of the goals of the debriefing.

These goals can be:

- \* To involve as many students as possible in the debriefing
- \* Students can describe how they can use this approach in other lessons.
- \* Students can describe how they can use their thinking strategy in everyday life
- \* Students can describe how skills/contents can be used in a test or another unit.

For every goal the teacher can devise different questions and/or examples. After a few lessons these examples and comparisons can transcend the educational level and can be distilled from other lessons, everyday life and so on.

Debriefing the content of a lesson will be easy for the teacher. In preparing the debriefing, he or she should focus on debriefing the meta-cognitive subjects, such as learning strategy, thinking processes and transfer. This includes 'thinking-about-thinking' activities and concepts such as research, induction, deduction, presumption, hypothesis, grouping, classifying, connecting, putting yourself into somebody else's position, analysing, arguing, comparison and so on.

The third goal concerns the historical skills. Many Thinking Skills Activities incorporate one or more historical concepts, like being aware of their own time and space, causality, chronology, historical context, fact/opinion and interpretation. In his or her preparation, the teacher should be aware of these concepts and look for angles, examples and analogies that connect the contents of the activity with the concepts associated with the subject.

In the lesson itself there are four possibilities where the teacher can control the quality of the debriefings: the instruction, the assignment, teacher guidance and debriefings during the activity.

At the instruction stage, it should be explicitly stated that the how and why will be crucial at the debriefing stage. In this way, students will be prepared and less bored, because they already know that this is the goal. By writing these words on the blackboard and referring to them constantly during the lesson, the effect will be even stronger.

A lot of the overall conclusions are often included in the assignment pages. If it is put on paper, the students themselves prepare for the debriefing. Furthermore, this enhances the emotional value to the students for these assignments. If it has been put down on paper, it must be important. Another advantage is that the debriefing of the content assignments easily fits in with the 'learning-learning' debriefing. In the eyes of students, it is simply the next assignment which is being debriefed.

By walking around and coaching students while they are making the assignments, the teacher also collects information he can use in the debriefing. Comments, questions and skills of students can be brought into the discussion. In some of the more extensive Thinking Skills Activities, like Lifeline, Mystery, Chronology and Pictures for Discussion, putting in some smaller debriefings can be counterproductive. Often, students don't want to be interrupted, especially when solving a Mystery or while watching a film: they only want one thing, that is to keep on working! Experience shows that this is not good for the learning output. In a smaller debriefing, students can often be made aware of their choices and approach. This can offer subjects for discussion in the debriefing and lead to a better quality learning result. The teacher is then faced with the difficult decision as to whether he wants to leave the students with their work or have them reflect on their thinking skills.

### The debriefing

Most important to an effective debriefing is a sincere interest and appreciation on the part of the teacher with respect to the students' input. Many Thinking Skills Activities are presented as games, quizzes or whodunits. This competitive element is very important to the success of the activities in education. It would therefore be unforgivable to deny them this aspect. Students

### Debriefing The Top twelve

1. Take your time
2. See to it that the debriefing is a common part of the lesson.  
*Include reflecting 'learning-learning' questions on the assignment form.*
3. Relate to the emotion of the student.  
*What is your answer?  
How did you like it?  
How was the level of co-operation?*
4. Ask open questions.  
*How did you tackle the problem?  
Did you change your working method?  
Did you allocate tasks?*
5. Give students the opportunity to explain things themselves as much as possible.  
*Can you explain this?  
Can you tell me a bit more about this?  
Can you give me an example?  
Why?*
6. Give students the opportunity to respond to each other. Withhold your own quick judgements.  
*Did other groups do it like this?  
Does anyone else have the same thing or not?  
Would it be possible to give another answer?  
What do you think about their answer?  
Which of you can give me an example?*
7. Say as little as possible, use body language.  
*Nod, lean back and forth, make gestures so the students know they can go on with their story, look students in the eyes, show interest, and so on.*
8. Make connections.  
*How can we relate this to the schoolbooks?  
Keeping this in mind, what questions can we expect on our tests?  
Is there an advantage in using this approach in other subjects?*
9. Include as many students as possible.  
*Give students the opportunity of grouping up and thinking about the answer together.*
10. Construct the debriefing.  
*If the first group gives the perfect answer, the debriefing will be a short one! Choose those answers/groups first, which need to be completed.*
11. Try to incorporate the conclusions of the debriefing in the following lessons.  
*How did we tackle the problem in one the first lessons?*
12. Students are allowed to make mistakes and so is the teacher. If a debriefing fails, try again in a following lesson.

want to know if they are right and whether they did better than the others. Before going on to 'learning', it should be important to allow emotion to run free in the debriefing. Afterwards the goals can be discussed.

For many students the question "How did you do?" is not a question about the way they performed themselves. For them, this question relates to the other students. The question is valued as a question about the end result. A 'How' question can therefore lead to much confusion.

It is better to ask for answers, without the students giving too much explanation. After debriefing the answers, it is possible to conclude that the reason for the different answers may have been the way in which the students tried to answer the question. The next question should be "How did you do it?" and after that, "Those students who came up with the same answer, did they use a different approach?" It is important that the students have enough time to prepare their answers. By including questions about conclusions and learning-learning reflection in the instructions and the page with assignments, this gives a lot more scope.

In every debriefing and every educational-learning conversation, there will be students who are fast and some who are slow, students that are direct and others that live more in a dream-like state of learning. Some students like to be in a group, others find it easier to act in a smaller setting. All these aspects can be incorporated by allowing students 5 to 7 minutes to prepare their answers in writing. In this way every student will be involved. When the subject is being discussed in a classroom with 24 other students, only one student should be talking. If, in the same classroom, groups of three students are formed, 8 students can be talking all at once. Don't hesitate to deviate from these suggestions when asked by the students. In every case 'Education' is the most important aspect of teaching.

### **Processing the debriefing**

One of the most important learning experiences of Thinking Skills is the processing of the debriefing. By including the 'learning-learning' questions in the activity itself, it is possible to make the students aware of their learning processes and learning result by the approach of 'thinking-thinking-exchange'. This effect can be invigorated by asking the students, in a following lesson, to write down their findings once more. In this way it is possible to see what they really learned and if indeed the goal was achieved. After one or two lessons the students usually validate the learning skills differently than they did the first time, shortly after the Thinking Skill Activity.

The thinking strategies as used often supersede the subject. For an optimum result a school-wide policy is needed. Considering that teachers find it very difficult to incorporate thinking strategies and historical skills into a coherent learning schedule in their own curriculum, needless to say, a school-wide policy is a thing of the future. For an optimum output of the efforts of the students and an implementation of the thinking skills into the school curriculum, a lot more research is required.

# Appendix

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## 4.2 Biographies of the contributing authors of Chapter 1

**Mónika Cseresznyák**, PhD, born 1970, Szombathely (HU)

Graduated in History and German Language and Literature at the University of Szeged in 1994. She defended her PhD thesis on “Art and Art Theory in the 1800s” in 2004. Since 1994 she has been working at the German Department at Berzsényi Dániel College (since January 2008 University of West Hungary). Her main research areas are: Art Theory of the Weimar Classicism, The Concept of the Museum in the 1800s. She has participated in several European projects.

**Nicole Ehlers**, PhD, born 1970, Heerlen (NL)

Graduated in German Studies and Mass Communication at the University of Nijmegen. In 1997 she spent a year at the University of Frankfurt (Oder) researching German-Polish relations. From 1998 until 2002 she worked as project coordinator at the Dutch National War and Resistance Museum in Overloon. In 1999 she started work on her PhD project, “The Bi-national City of Eurode”, at the University of Nijmegen. Her dissertation was completed and published in 2007. Since 2003 she has been working at the Volkshochschule Aachen, where she has been involved in various European and national educational projects.

**Harry Havekes**, MA, historian and art historian, born 1964, Boxmeer (NL)

Studied teacher training (Dutch and History) at Gelderse Leergangen (now HAN) and graduated in 1985. Went on to study History and History of Art at the University of Nijmegen and then followed post-graduate teacher training (highest level) in both of these subjects, graduating in 1992. Since 1991, has been working as a teacher of History, History of Art, Cultural Studies and Dutch in secondary schools. Since 2004, has been educational specialist in History and the History of Art at the University of Nijmegen. Was author and editor-in-chief of *Pharos* and a series of coursebooks on active and independent learning, with particular respect to Active Historical Thinking. Since 2007, has been engaged in research into the historical thinking of/by students (16-18 years old) and its didactical implications for education.

**Fer Hooghuis**, MEd, geographer, born 1954, Nijmegen (NL)

Studied teacher training in Geography and History at the Gelderse Leergangen in Nijmegen (now HAN) and then studied post-graduate teacher training for the highest level (MEd) at Fontys Hogescholen in Tilburg.

From 1978 to 1999, he worked as a Geography and History teacher at various secondary schools in Arnhem. In addition, he worked on various projects for the Dutch Institute for Curriculum Development (SLO) and the Dutch Institute for Educational Measurement (CITO). Since 1999, has worked as a teacher trainer (Geography) at the Hogeschool van Arnhem en Nijmegen and since 2006 as educational specialist at the University of Nijmegen.

Has been editor for the *Geo-aktueel* magazine and author and editor-in-chief of *Atlantis*, a teaching method used in schools.

Is an executive member of the education section of the Royal Dutch Geographical Society (KNAG)

**Ronald E.A. Nolet**, Associate Professor, born 1954 in Ubach over Worms (NL). Studied and graduated (MA) in History and Social Sciences in 1982 at the University of Bergen, and completed a Masters Degree in Social Geography at the University of Oslo, Norway in 1992. He taught Social Sciences and History in secondary schools in Oslo from 1983 to 1995. In 1996 he was appointed as scientific researcher and teacher trainer in Social Geography and History at the University College of Volda. From 1997 to 2000 he was project leader for a national research project on Crime Prevention in Norwegian schools, initiated by the Crime Prevention Council of Norway (Ministry of Justice). In 2000 he was appointed as scientific researcher and teacher trainer at the University College of Halden, Norway. From 2000 to 2003 he worked on the Thinking Skills Norway (TT-NOR) project in cooperation with the University of Newcastle-upon-Tyne (TT-NEW, GB). He is the author of a number of national and international publications and articles on Crime prevention in Norwegian Schools, Pedagogical Didactics and teaching practices in Geography and Social Science and has written textbooks for higher education in Geography. He was appointed as Associate Professor in 2002.

**Jiri Tuma**, MA, born 1974, Brno (CZ)

Graduated in History and Pedagogy at the Silesian University of Opava in 1998

From 1998 to 2004, he worked as a teacher of History and Geography.

Since 2004 he has been working at KVIC Novy Jicin (Regional Educational Establishment Novy Jicin, WS Karvina), coordinating the education of teachers and educational projects. Since 2006 he has been giving seminars in History and Methodology to History classes.

**Jan de Vries**, MA, historian, born 1955, Erica (NL)

Studied History at the University of Nijmegen, graduated in 1985. Since 1982, has been employed as a teacher of History and educational specialist in various positions in schools and at the University of Nijmegen.

Has been author and editor-in-chief of Sfinx, a series of coursebooks on active and independent learning, with particular respect to Active Historical Thinking. In 2006, he received the award of Ruyterprijs from the Dutch Association of History Teachers for special services to the teaching of History.

**Juul Willen**, MA, sociologist, born 1955, Geleen (NL)

Studied Educational Sociology at the University of Nijmegen, graduated in 1980. Since 1978, has worked in various teaching posts in secondary and vocational schools. In addition, has been employed as educational specialist at the University of Tilburg and is currently working in a similar position at the University of Nijmegen.

As senior trainer is affiliated to the School voor de Toekomst (School of the Future) in 's-Hertogenbosch, mainly in the field of assessment and examination, hands-on teaching and curriculum development. In addition, is trainer in various didactical programmes for staff at ROC Koning Willem I College and basic didactics for unqualified teachers following an in-service, fast-track teacher training programme.

### 4.3 Project partners

#### Volkshochschule Aachen – Das Weiterbildungszentrum

Community Centre of Adult and Further Education  
Peterstraße 21-25  
D-52062 Aachen, Germany  
www.vhs-aachen.de

#### Contactperson:

Winfried Casteel  
Winfried.casteel@mail.aachen.de  
Phone +49 241 4792-127

#### General information on type of education / institution

The Community Centre of Adult and Further Education Aachen is an authorised centre for continuing education for the city of Aachen. It is a non-profit organisation with a public legal status. It offers a variety of activities within the area of general and professional continuing education. A total of 120 people are employed (= 80 full-time employees).

#### Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students

There are three main fields in which the Volkshochschule (VHS) Aachen singles itself out: the first is the field of second-chance education; the second is the field of advanced vocational training, including data-processing and computer applications; finally, there is a very extensive language programme, with a strong emphasis on the German for foreigners course. In addition, there are programmes in the field of political and cultural education, physics and technology, medicine and health, dance and movement, and much more. Of particular interest is the VHS observatory in the city which provides opportunities for observing the planetary system.

In addition to the regular semester programme from September to June, the VHS offers special courses during the summer school holidays. Furthermore, tailored training programmes are available for companies and other institutions.

Approximately 60,000 students, from nearly 70 nations (of whom 70% are women), attend courses, seminars, lectures and study trips at the VHS annually.

#### Objective to participate in Cross Border Cooperation

The VHS Aachen is experienced in organising in-service training for teachers in the German-Dutch-Belgian border region. The seminars deal with historical topics that concern the border regions as a whole. An integral part of these in-service training programmes are visits to places of informal education.

An important reason for the involvement in cross-border cooperation is that peaceful co-habitation in the border region can only be made possible through an understanding of each other's historical background, since conflicts in the past are still having an influence on relations today. A major concern for the VHS Aachen is the regional history of World War II and how this memory is kept alive. This is only possible by involving our neighbours who suffered greatly from the German occupation in the period 1940-1945.

Recently, the VHS also started participating in cross-border projects that have been financed by the European Union: Interreg, Citizenship, Grundtvig, and Comenius.

#### Nyugat- Magyarországi Egyetem, Savaria Egyetemi Központ

University of West-Hungary  
Berzsenyi tér 2.  
H-9700 Szombathely, Hungary  
www.bdf.hu  
www.nyme.hu

#### Contact person:

Mónika Cseresznyák  
cserimoni@freemail.hu  
Phone +36 94 504 552

#### General information on type of education / institution

The University of West-Hungary (formerly Berzsenyi Dániel College) is a major institute of higher education in the Western Transdanubian region. With a history of over 50 years, higher education in Szombathely has given tens of thousands of highly trained professionals access to education, science, and public administration. Its departments and scientific staff have established cooperative pro-

grammes with various colleges and universities within Hungary and abroad. The college's infrastructure is constantly expanding and being updated.

These days, higher education in Hungary is facing new challenges. Following the recommendations of the Bologna process, the University of West-Hungary hopes to offer Bachelor, Master and doctoral tuition too. In accordance with the European concept of Univesitas, it is our aim to adopt a thoroughly student-centred approach.

#### **Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students**

At present, the University offers programmes at undergraduate and graduate levels, as well as adult and continuing education.

#### **Objective to participate in Cross Border Cooperation**

The University (College) is a major institution of a city in a border region, so cross-border cooperation has always been a priority. The University of West Hungary participates in various programmes funded under different European programmes, such as Tempus, Erasmus, Grundtvig, Comenius, Ceepus and also develops bilateral cooperation with corresponding institutions in neighbouring countries.

#### **Høgskolen i Østfold**

Østfold University College,  
Remmen,  
N-1783 Halden, Norway  
www.hiof.no

#### **Contact person(s):**

Head of Institution/Rector: Elin Nesje Vestli  
elin.n.vestli@hiof.no

Phone: +47 69215000

International Coordinator: Ellen Høy-Petersen  
ellen.hoy-petersen@hiof.no

Phone: +47 6921 5013

#### **General information on type of education / institution**

Østfold University College offers 60 subjects of study in three regional cities - Fredrikstad, Halden and Sarpsborg, all located in the south of Norway, close to the border of Sweden. Østfold University College has 450 staff members and offer a range of bachelor degree programmes and a several master degree programmes.

#### **Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students**

The Østfold University College consists of six (6) faculties: Norwegian Theatre Academy, Faculty of Business, Languages and Social Sciences, Faculty of Computer Sciences, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Engineering

Faculty of Health and Social Studies. Østfold University College offers a number of courses that can be studied as part of a university degree.

Østfold University College participates in a number of international co-operation programmes within LLP/Erasmus and Nordplus. We have bilateral agreements with European, American, Canadian and Australian universities. Norway has adopted the ECTS credit and grading system and the studies are internationally compatible.

The Østfold University College has approximately 4,000 students.

#### **Objective to participate in Cross Border Cooperation**

The natural hinterland for staff and students at the Østfold University College is the border region in the south of Norway, including students from the neighbouring country of Sweden. There are and have been many cooperative ventures between the Østfold University College and the neighbouring country of Sweden in educational, environmental, health and technical fields, especially in the border region. This includes cooperation between kindergartens, primary and secondary schools, health organisations in the northern part of Gøtaland (Sweden) and the Østfold University College (Norway).

## Instituut voor Leraar en School – Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen

Institute for Teacher and School – Radboud University Nijmegen  
 Secretary: Room e20.18  
 Erasmusplein 1  
 NL- 6525 HT Nijmegen, The Netherlands  
[www.ru.nl/ils/over\\_het\\_ils/inleiding/](http://www.ru.nl/ils/over_het_ils/inleiding/)

### Contact person:

Edith Verbeet (secr.)  
 e.verbeet@ils.ru.nl  
 Phone +31 24 3615573

### General information on type of education / institution

The institute is a post-academic authorised education centre for teacher training in 18 domains for secondary education. Students must obtain this degree, after their Masters, to get certification as a teacher in the Netherlands. The institute has about 40 employees (about 21 full-time places).

### Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students

The institute has three main objectives:

- educating and certifying new teachers for secondary education in the Netherlands
- research and publications on education (domain-specific and general learning psychology)
- training of teachers in the field through post-academic courses

### Objective to participate in Cross Border Cooperation

- To learn about the specific possibilities for informal learning and cross-border learning. We have been responsible for introducing the thinking skills to the project and we are interested in combining this with the other two aspects.
- To learn about the educational programmes and methods of other participants, especially non-school related partners, such as museums and places of informal learning

## Literaturhaus Mattersburg

House of Literature in Mattersburg  
 Wulkalände 2  
 A-7210 Mattersburg, Austria  
[www.literaturhausmattersburg.at](http://www.literaturhausmattersburg.at)

### Contact person:

Barbara Mayer  
 barbara.mayer@literaturhausmattersburg.at  
 Phone + 43 2626/67710

### General information on type of education / institution

The House of Literature in Mattersburg (a small town in the eastern part of Austria) works as a non-profit organisation and is the main institution that deals with issues about literature in Burgenland and the Austrian/Hungarian and Slovakian border region. 3 Persons are employed, all of them part-time.

### Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students

Readers, writers, teachers, parents and children - just people who like to read, write and discuss the fundamental questions of literature and life - meet at the Literaturhaus Mattersburg. Since 1994 this centre has been dealing with current issues about literature, culture, language and everyday life. It is located in the small Austrian town of Mattersburg near the border to Hungary and 70 km distant from Vienna. The Literaturhaus Mattersburg organizes readings, discussions, workshops for writers, writing groups for adults and children, exhibitions and cultural programmes for children, schools and adults. It has a small public library with about 5500 books dealing with such subjects as Austrian contemporary literature, language of minorities and ethnic groups, history, the changes of European culture or living and learning in European Border Regions.

### Objective to participate in Cross Border Cooperation

For 15 years, the Literature House has been organising partner projects with institutions of adult education and cultural institutions in the Austria/Hungary/Slovakia border region, for example, the Project "Literaturfahrt", together with the Österreichbibliothek in Szombathely or the project "kinderwelten". Crossing borders is a key thematic objective and is likewise significant with respect to our way of working: we act as a mediator between culture (especially literature) and education in a very special and interesting European border region and we deal with a very wide and open concepts in literature.

## Arbeitsstelle Europäische Integration und politische Bildung - EURIPOL der AGORA

Politische Bildung  
 Institut für Sozialwissenschaften  
 Carl von Ossietzky Universität Oldenburg  
 Postfach 2503  
 D-26111 Oldenburg, Germany  
 www.uni-oldenburg.de

### Contact person:

Markus W. Behne  
 markus.behne@uni-oldenburg.de  
 Phone +49 441-798-5149

### General information on type of education / institution

The Carl von Ossietzky University Oldenburg is in the far north-west of Germany and maintains close relations with the University of Groningen in the Netherlands. The Arbeitsstelle EURIPOL of the Institute for Social Sciences was established in the 1980s to strengthen the European focus of political science and political education in fields of research, cooperation, development of learning materials, teacher education and teacher training. It is part of the Agora Political Education headed by the Professor for the Didactics of Political Education, Dr Dirk Lange.

### Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students

There are three main fields of activities within the scope of the Arbeitsstelle EURIPOL in the Agora Political Education. First of all, there is the deputy head of EURIPOL, Markus W. Behne, responsible for giving lectures on the political system of the European Union or on certain fields of research in European integration and its theory and on work on innovative learning materials with Europolitical topics with students. The second field is cooperation with institutions in the region and in European countries on such subjects as citizenship education, research and development of Europolitical didactics and learning materials.

Thirdly, the deputy head of EURIPOL is also the partner for vocational training institutions with regional, national and European partners for schools and teachers, as well as public services from states and federal states.

## Regionalny Ośrodek Doskonalenia Nauczycieli "WOM"

Regional In-Service Teacher Training Centre  
 ul. Komorowicka 48,  
 PL-43-300 Bielsko-Biała, Poland  
 www.wommbb.edu.pl

### Contact person:

Maria Łątka  
 mlatka@wommbb.edu.pl  
 Phone +48 33 812 37 15

### General information on type of education / institution

The In-Service Teacher Training Centre "WOM" is an authorised centre for in-service training of teachers for primary, lower-secondary and higher-secondary schools of all types and all subjects in the Bielsko-Biała region, which encompasses five provinces. It is a state-owned institution.

### Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students

The main tasks and activities of the centre are:

- mentoring services for teachers, school managers, regional education management staff, local government representatives responsible for education in their respective provinces
- co-ordinating and assisting the activities of mentors affiliated with the centre
- assistance in the implementation of educational reforms within schools and other educational institutions
- conducting certified courses as well as in-service training in the form of workshops, seminars and conferences
- assisting teachers in getting promotion
- introducing and conducting e-training for teachers and management staff
- assisting teachers in implementing newly-acquired teaching skills, methods and techniques
- providing digital and printed information and publication services
- face-to-face mentoring
- conducting The International Mathematics Contest "Kangaroo" for schools

- organizing and conducting The National English Language Contest “Fox” for schools
- editing a monthly journal for nursery school teachers

There are 19 in-service teacher trainers employed and 40 affiliated mentors.

### **Objective to participate in Cross Border Cooperation**

For many years, the centre has been organizing in-service training in cooperation with institutions of informal education on both sides of the border and also with Czech in-service teacher training centre. The meetings deal with historic and cultural issues emphasising the common heritage. The reason for the involvement in cross-border education is the fact that it enables relations and similarities to be perceived in the border region and therefore teaches tolerance and acceptance as well as overcoming hostility, myths and stereotypes. It helps to develop new, prejudice-free, historical awareness. It enables difficult political history to be understood from the perspective of an individual’s experiences. It also constitutes the basis for nationwide education on both sides of the border.

### **Vas Megyei Múzeumok Igazgatósága – Savaria Múzeum**

Vas County Museums’ Directorate – Savaria Museum  
Kisfaludy Sándor utca 9.  
H-9701 Szombathely, Hungary  
www.savariamuseum.hu

#### **Contact person:**

József Révész  
postmaster@muzeumkoszeg.t-online.hu  
+36 94 360 240

### **General information on type of education / institution**

The key responsibilities of Vas County Museums' Directorate are preservation, research and communication, relating to public education. As an integrating institution, Savaria Museum hosts the Directorate of a network of 17 institutions, such as museums or museological exhibitions and collections in Vas County.

A total of 106 people are employed (= 101 full-time employees).

### **Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students**

The spectrum of services of the Directorate include permanent, temporary and travelling exhibitions and their promotion. Publications, information brochures and catalogues are published for professionals and the general public, as well as various guides and workshops, relating to museological presentations and collections. Museum pedagogy is a project in its own right, organised by the Directorate, providing regular information to schools about programmes and these are published in promotional materials for local and county functions and also via internet.

Approximately 125,000 visitors (of whom 35% are students) attend the exhibitions, workshops and courses at the museums in Vas County.

### **Objective to participate in Cross Border Cooperation**

Savaria Museum is one of the most prestigious museums in Vas County, looking back on a long history since its foundation in 1908. Cross-border activities of Vas County Museums' Directorate aim to show visitors and students how to learn from the museum actively, by creating exhibits for cultural meanings, ideas and concepts from different periods of this region. Nowadays, the chance for common projects with museums and other institutions has improved considerably since the “Iron Curtain” was lifted. In view of the collections, our interest focuses specifically on the territory of the historical Vas County and Western Hungary, including neighbouring countries – Austria and Slovenia – in the border region. The participation of the Directorate in cross-border projects and museological activities has been financed by the European Union (e.g. Culture 2000, Interreg, Comenius) and the Hungarian government (e.g. NKA, NCA).

## Burgenländische Forschungsgesellschaft - BFG

Research Society Burgenland - RSB  
Domplatz 21  
A-7000 Eisenstadt, Austria  
www.forschungsgesellschaft.at

### Contact person:

Alfred Lang  
alfred.lang@forschungsgesellschaft.at  
Phone: +43 2682 66886

### General information on type of education / institution

The Research Society Burgenland (Burgenländische Forschungsgesellschaft / BFG) was founded in 1987 as a private non-profit organisation in Eisenstadt, the capital of the Austrian federal province of Burgenland. The BFG is an interface between (educational) research and its translation into (regional) education activities. Lifelong learning and its meaning for regional adult education, education for active citizenship and gender studies related to labour market and qualification are the main aspects of the work.

### Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students

Since Austria joined the EU in 1996, the BFG has taken part in various EU programmes, mainly the former Socrates programme. In the course of its work, the BFG participates as coordinator or partner in a range of regional and transnational projects, organises conferences, lectures and workshops, and publishes brochures and other publications.

### Objective to participate in Cross Border Cooperation

Burgenland is one of the nine federal provinces of Austria situated in the east of the country and with borders to Slovakia, Hungary and Slovenia. Since the fall of the Iron Curtain, and more recently, since the accession of Hungary and Slovakia to the European Union, special attention has been paid to cross-border cooperation in the Austria-Hungary-Slovakian border region. In the context of the question of the role border regions may play in the process of European integration, the focus lies with developing common structures and networks in non-school based education and in the area of lifelong learning. The aim is to accelerate the process of cross-border cooperation in the Burgenland-Hungary-Slovakian border region and to build up information and communications networks. This can be achieved through the organisation of contact meetings, study trips, workshops, seminars and conferences. This is intended to create a basis upon which to plan the implementation of transnational projects in the future.

## Krajské zařízení pro další vzdělávání pedagogických pracovníků a informační centrum, Nový Jičín, odloučené pracoviště Karviná

Regional educational establishment Novy Jicin, WS Karvina  
Štefánikova 7/826  
CZ-741 11 Nový Jičín, Czech Republic  
www.kvic.cz

### Contact person:

Jiří Tůma  
jiri.tuma@kvic.cz  
Phone +420 596 317 961

### General information on type of education / institution

KVIC – Contributory organisation (Semi-autonomous Public Agency founded by the Central State Authorities) of Moravian – Silesian region was established on 1 January 2004. The goals of KVIC are:

- to provide the teaching staff in all schools and school organizations with further education – there are six separate locations: Nový Jičín, Karviná, Ostrava, Frýdek-Místek, Opava, Krnov),
- to keep the school materials on methodology, administration of school and other school organisations,
- to keep individuals informed about new trends and approaches in education
- to coordinate supporting programmes for schools and other school organisations, developmental programmes and projects

### Description of organisation: objectives, programmes, products, clients, students

The educational programmes offered by the organisation have received accreditation from the Ministry of Education Youth and Sports (approximately 800 educational programmes with accreditation; 4 – 250 hours of workshops). In 2007, approximately 112, that is, 1 % of all teaching staff in Moravian-Silesian Region took part in workshops; 1,048 workshops with 20,259 participants).

Educational programmes for kindergartens, primary and secondary schools.

Equality of opportunities in education; Support of a healthy lifestyle development; Key competences for teachers; Technical communication; Effective school leadership; Language communication; High quality of modern education; Branch activities (in all subjects).

The seminars are aimed at creating school-based educational plans, implementing new forms of active teaching, developing cross-subject relations and integrated teaching.

The seminars are chosen according to the needs and requirements of individual schools. KVIC Nový Jičín also organises specialised and qualification studies: Studies for assistant teacher, Studies for school heads, Pedagogical Studies .

One of the main activities of the organisation is working on ESF educational projects (e.g. Chance, Edunet, Euromanager, etc.)

### **Objective to participate in Cross Border Cooperation**

KVIC offers its services to all schools in the region, also for teachers in Polish-language schools. There are 34 kindergartens, 25 primary schools and 7 secondary schools with Polish-language teaching. Project Comenius 2.1 'Living and learning in borders regions' is the first international project of its kind, which helps to establish cooperation with schools in Poland. As a result of this cooperation, KVIC has organised seminars lead by lectures from Poland, as well as from Slovakia. There were some seminars aimed at teaching the history of border regions, namely the Czech – Polish border region.

## 4.4 Strategic Paper

This strategic paper is supplementary to the general evaluation in this report (pp. 5-10). It focuses on the impact of the project for future initiatives in using the results. It offers recommendations for decision makers, teachers and other educationists. Our strategic recommendations are meant to lead to a better integration of informal learning and cross-border learning in the curriculum by providing the teachers with a negotiated degree of freedom when designing a lesson.

### Recommendations

The implementation of the results of the project Living and Learning in Border Regions will not be a simple task, because it involves a vast innovation of existing teaching practices. One of the complications is that the reform we propose addresses four levels:

- \* *didactic level*: using thinking skills as a methodology to enhance active and self-regulated student learning;
- \* *curricular level*: using places of informal learning as an integrated part of the learning process of students;
- \* *attitudinal level*: going beyond the national level of the curriculum and focus on the supra-national level of the border region (cross-border learning);
- \* *organizational level*: giving opportunity to visit the informal learning places.

A second complication is that innovations of this kind are complex and hard to implement in schools. Hultman has done a lot of empirical research on this topic (Hultman G., 1987 quoted and paraphrased in: P.H. v.d. Ven, 1996). In 1987, Hultman wrote that support for innovations is fairly easy to achieve, but that without regular guidance and follow-up procedures, the proposed innovations would not settle in permanently. The central concept in Hultman's approach is 'dialogue' between practice and theory. Through this interaction between practice and theory innovation takes shape.

Experiences with the study and implementation of thinking skills in England, the Netherlands and Norway seem to give the same impression: *'It is a process that requires close partnerships and sustained involvement of teachers working together within and across schools, as well as links with critical friends.* (Baumfield, V. 2005).

More recently, Elsen (2008) held a plea for two research paradigms that typically address the gaps he found between academic theory and teaching practice in his exploratory multiple-case study: *reflective action research and design-based research.*

The findings above and the results the present project call for models that are based on the specific requirements of the teachers who are expected to successfully implement the proposed curricular and didactic innovations. Such models should include four parameters: support by the school management, having teachers design their own materials, so that they actually 'learn by doing', ongoing planning and revision, based on constant communication of the school management and the teachers, and finally frequent problem-based exchanges by teachers and researchers.

Education has a strong ethnographic connotation (Rüsen, J., 2007). Rüsen points out that this is especially the case for education in Europe, where the structures of the educational system, the content and didactics of formal education are strongly connected with the nation and the (historical) identity of the nation. This implicates that cross-border interaction and learning will always be problematic.

National elements, such as language, culture and history will have an impact on school management, teachers and learners. These aspects have also an influence on the practical barriers, because the physical problems, such as finance, travelling, etc. are resolvable, the ethnographic connotations in education bring however a much larger problem. School managers and teachers have to make sure that these difficulties are resolved. An open minded, non-ethnographic attitude towards learning is the key factor. If school managers, teachers and other educators will adopt this attitude, they might become more free in integrating thinking skills, places of non-formal learning and cross-border learning in their curricula.

The above brings us to the following recommendations:

**Decision makers**

- \* The mythology of thinking skills (see chapter 1) should be an integral part of the curriculum of the school;
- \* The idea of informal learning as an important aspect of learning by students should be supported by all members of the teaching staff;
- \* The school timetable should be flexible and allow for out-of-school learning;
- \* Facilitation of the specific needs of domains, so that informal learning can be fitted into the statutory curriculum;
- \* Facilitation of teachers, enabling them to attend in-service education to learn how to implement the methodology of thinking skills and places of informal learning in their didactics and curriculum;
- \* Facilitation and motivation of teachers to design their own lessons, using thinking skills to create informal and cross-border learning;
- \* Frequent communication between school managements and teachers on the ongoing innovations;
- \* Taking time and giving time to implement the proposed reform.

**Teachers and other educators**

- \* Be Open-minded for the implications of the methodology of thinking skills;
- \* Make places of informal and out-of-school learning an integral part of the curriculum;
- \* Look beyond the national level of the curriculum to the supra-national level of cross-border learning: an international approach towards the curriculum and learning;
- \* Cooperate with school management, colleagues and researchers to enhance the learning results;
- \* Be prepared to learn from and learn with researchers: use theoretical backgrounds for designing, executing and evaluating their lessons;
- \* Plan jointly and observe peers;
- \* Invest time and effort in the design of new assignments

**Researchers**

- \* Offer tools to school management and teachers to assist the research/evaluation process in an intervention;
- \* Offer school managements and teachers theoretical background to academically support and systematically analyze and interpret the results found in teaching practices;
- \* Cooperate with school managements and teachers to receive new data for ongoing research, so theory can be better based on empirical evidence;
- \* Put the results and practical experience of the teachers and other educators in an international perspective;
- \* Carry out further research into whether the benefits of thinking skills, informal learning and cross-border learning are due to specific aspects of the programmes and their implementations, or whether they are due to changes in teaching and learning.
- \* Set up joint ventures with practitioners to develop new learning materials incorporating cross-border activities, the use of informal learning and or thinking skills

Finally, we recommend two additional questions be addressed in future studies:

- what influence do the differences in language, culture and history have on visiting places of informal education in neighbouring countries?;
- what are the practical barriers of visiting places of informal education in neighbouring countries?