



Progress & Progression in History

1 PLANNING SEQUENCES OF LEARNING FOCUSED ON PROGRESS

Planning for progression is effectively what good teachers are doing all the time. One of the key developments for trainees is to start seeing lessons as part of bigger sequences of learning. The Planning for Progression assignment and Progression Map in Stage 2 help to prepare trainees for this approach, however it is much bigger than just these isolated examples. In order to plan for progression, trainees will need to give consideration to how a sequence of learning will progress students in terms of their subject specific conceptual understanding eg. in terms of causation, significance etc. (See Appendix A for more) They also need to consider how pupils will progress in terms of their knowledge of the content (eg. the people, events, stories and dates, as well as substantive concepts like understanding what a peasant was, or what people expected of medieval kings).

One core tenet of progression in history is that students should be engaged in a process of historical enquiry throughout their study of history (Byrom, 2013; Riley, 2000). Meaningful enquiries allow students to deepen their knowledge and understanding of key historical periods, issues and questions. In order for this to be effective, students need to develop both in terms of the processes of historical enquiry, but also in mastering their use of the second-order concepts which underpin such enquiries (See Appendix A). The second order concepts however are not designed however to be stand-alone marking criteria – they are inherently tied to the specific knowledge developed by students in each unit. Therefore, students should never be asked to demonstrate progress against second order concepts alone, these need to be tied to specific historical knowledge and contexts in order to develop an holistic awareness of students' understanding.

For each class they teach, trainees should work towards planning sequences of work rather than just individual lessons. It is suggested that this begins with Key Stage 3 classes. Ideally sequences of work should be no more than around 6 lessons and have a clear conceptual and topic focus. Developments in sequences of work would be entirely proper topics for discussion in meetings between the trainee and SBT. The items below outline how trainees might approach this:

1.1 KEY QUESTIONS TRAINEES NEED TO ASK TO PLAN FOR PROGRESSION

- What have pupils done before and how will this sequence of learning build on this? (this year, or previously – discuss with the host teachers)
- How much time is available for this work?
- What do you want the pupils to know, understand, and be able to do by the end? (consider in terms of content knowledge and also second-order conceptual understanding)
- What enquiry question will you use to tie the learning together? (make sure it has a clear conceptual focus and it rigorous – see next section)
- How is the learning to be assessed at the end? What model of progression will underpin how you assess this? (make sure it both motivates pupils but also helps you to understand how the pupils have progressed)
- How is the learning to be assessed during the sequence? (what opportunities can you build in for formative assessment? How might you tie these to progression in terms of knowledge or conceptual understanding?)
- How is it preparing pupils for future work?

1.2 WHAT MAKES A GOOD ENQUIRY QUESTION?

According to Riley (2000), a great enquiry question aims to give shape and focus to a sequence of lessons – the sequence then aims to solve the problem that the question posed. Features of a good enquiry:

- captures the interest and/or imagination of your pupils.
- places an aspect of subject thinking, concept or process at the forefront of the pupils' minds eg. Causation or historical interpretations.
- links together a series of lessons.
- results in a tangible, lively, substantial, enjoyable 'outcome activity' (i.e. at the end of the lesson sequence) through which pupils can genuinely answer the enquiry question.

So, "What happened in the French Revolution" fails on a number of fronts: focusing almost entirely on knowledge, having a very vague focus, and not necessarily offering much by the way of direction. By contrast, "Why was there a revolution in France in 1789?" is a valid question in the sense that it focuses on a real historical issue and around the concept of causation, however it might be less effective in capturing imagination or really challenging students to develop their causal thinking. A better question might be: "Was Louis XVI responsible for his own downfall?" which takes the same topic but now asks student directly to weigh up the role of Louis XVI vs. other factors in the French Revolution. There is also a more deeply human approach to this question and its focus on Louis.

Some other examples of good enquiry questions:

- Why didn't medicine improve much during the Middle Ages?
- When did the First World War become inevitable?
- Is Clarkson the forgotten hero of abolition?
- Why do historians disagree about the abolition of the slave trade?
- Was there a common experience of the Industrial Revolution?
- Why did women get the vote in 1928 and not before?

1.3 SETTING A SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT

With the big enquiry question set, trainees should also consider how the final product of the learning sequence might be effectively assessed. Assessments represent points at which trainees might engage in more formal checking of students' understanding; however, they do not in themselves provide proof of progress. They should be seen as measures of attainment in specific assessments, at specific points in time. In doing this, trainees should plan to assess:

- The historical knowledge and substantive concepts that pupils are able to work with
- How they are able to apply this knowledge to the second order concept being developed eg. causation. To do this, trainees should have a working knowledge of how pupils might progress in their understanding of such concepts. A rough guide to this is included in Appendix A.

Assessments do not have to just be essay questions. Here are a range of valid outcome tasks for a sequence of work on "How far was Hitler personally responsible for the Nazi rise to power 1924-33?"

- An essay style task weighing up Hitler and other factors.
- An TV talk show in which two historians argue the case for Hitler's responsibility for the Nazi rise to power.
- A diagram illustrating how the Nazis got to power and showing the influence of different factors.
- A small group/class debate in which the issue of Hitler's rise to power is discussed.

Each assessment should have a specific mark scheme, against which trainees can mark students' responses to the enquiry. Mark schemes should aim to take aspects of the second order concepts, as well

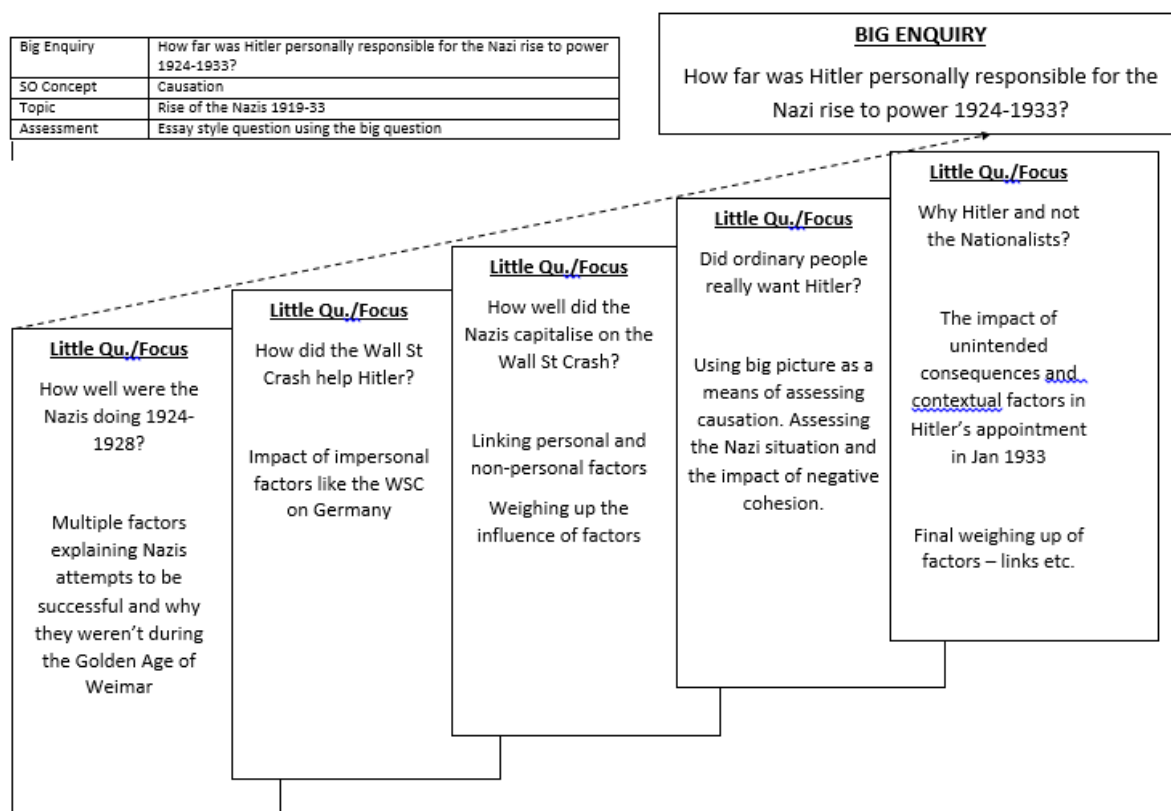
as making direct reference to the specific knowledge (key people, dates and details, but also concepts such as monarchy, peasantry etc.) pupils might reasonably be expected to refer to in their answers. An example mark scheme is given below.

Example Mark Scheme: How far did the French Revolution change France?

<p>Low level response (A minority of students) 5-7 marks</p> <p>Students at this level will tend to produce work which contains limited knowledge of changes brought by the French Revolution. Knowledge will be asserted where available and there may be inaccuracies in the knowledge given. In other cases, the knowledge used may be generic rather than specific eg. lots of people were killed during the Revolution; this was a big change. Students may also repeat planning notes with limited links or explanation. At this level, students are unlikely to grasp the nature of change over time, and may well refer to change in a very generic way, discussing some of the big differences between France before and after the Revolution. At the top of the level, students may be able to make some valid, if general comparisons between pre and post-revolutionary France. Ie. Before the Revolution, France had a king, but he was killed which was a big change. If specific details are given in a number of cases, this might be rewarded at the bottom of the next level. The structure will tend to be narrative. Command of language will be weak.</p>
<p>Adequate response (Some students) 8-12 marks</p> <p>Students at this level will have at least some knowledge of the changes over the course of the Revolution. They will include some detail on how lives changed at different points, although this may be stronger for some time periods than others. The evidence at this level may be drawn more from planning materials than contextual knowledge. For example, they may refer to the fact that the Peasants gained very little from the French Revolution in the end as they did not achieve many of their aims. They will provide some details to support this, but the support may be fairly limited. The accuracy of evidence will be satisfactory, although errors may appear. Students at this level will show some understanding that things changed over time, but they may not express this clearly. For some groups they may focus almost exclusively on one period rather than describing the flow of change. Alternatively, they may cover different periods but with limited explanation for why fortunes changed, or limited links between the aspects. Some contextual knowledge should be shown and students should have a reasonable idea that France changed significantly between 1789 and 1804.</p> <p>The structure will tend towards narrative, although some paragraphing may be evident thanks to the planning frame. Links back to the question will be implicit at best. There will be some evidence that the student understands at least the main changes brought by the French Revolution ie. the deaths of thousands during the Terror, the removal of the king and the power of the people. A conclusion may be offered but might not really add much to the essay.</p>
<p>Sound response (The vast majority of students) 13-15 marks</p> <p>Students at this level will have a good understanding of the changes over the course of the Revolution for the chosen group. They will include some specific detail on how lives changed at different points, although this may be stronger for some time periods than others. For example, they may refer to the fact that the peasants suffered most under the period of the Terror, giving relevant details to support this but be weaker on the issues before the Terror. The accuracy of evidence will be generally good, demonstrating a good understanding of the fact that different groups were impacted at different points during the Revolution. There may be some minor inaccuracies. Students will go beyond simply restating work from their planning and there should be reference made to other parts of the unit, for example, providing contextual detail of the Terror, or Napoleon's ascent to power. Students will implicitly or explicitly cover issues of the pace, nature and extent of change for different groups.</p> <p>There will be a logical structure to the work, with paragraphs being formed logically. Some conclusion, even if only short, should be arrived at. The explanations given in paragraphs may still be implicit in their links to the question, however the conclusion will make an attempt to provide a direct answer to the question. Command of language will be adequate.</p>
<p>High level response (A minority of students) 16-18 marks</p> <p>Students at this level will have a very good understanding of the changes over the course of the Revolution for the chosen group. They will include specific detail on how lives changed at different points in a coherent way for at least two of the time periods. For example, they may refer to the fact that the Bourgeois initially gained much power through the National Assembly, but then lost this during the Terror; giving relevant details to support this. Evidence will be used to support most points made. There will be a reasonable sense that the student understands the changing patterns over time and can explain this in a valid way. Language will reflect this to some extent, with reference being made to the pace and extent of change (though not necessarily in these words) and some attempt might be made to describe turning points. The accuracy of evidence will be good and students will bring in contextual detail from the rest of the unit to support their answer: for example, explaining how the Sans Culottes had achieved their aims by 1793, or noting that the experience of women was different to that of men.</p> <p>The structure of the essay will be largely analytical with a focus on the question which is sustained for the majority of the time. The account will show a deliberate engagement with the question and the conclusion will show an independent reflection on the question itself. Command of language will be good.</p>
<p>Gold standard response (exceptionally rare) 19-20 marks</p> <p>As above but also, students at this level should produce a sustained and well-focused answer which is analytical. The answer will use a range of specific and accurate evidence to explore the nature of change for their chosen group during the Revolution. There may still be some limitations to the analysis but the conclusions will demonstrate clear, justifiable and independent thinking and a good command of language. There will be clear evidence that contextual knowledge and not just specific planning has influenced the answer and students will consider the evidence they give in context. Students will have a strong grasp of the idea that changes happened at different rates and to a different extent. They will provide a convincing analysis of this over time, reaching a substantiated conclusion.</p>

1.4 MOVING FROM AN ENQUIRY QUESTION TO LEARNING STEPS

Once trainees have established an enquiry question and outcome task, they should give consideration to the learning steps. Two formats for doing this are given in Appendix B. These don't need to have huge amounts of detail but it is important that trainees consider the necessary logical steps for pupils to develop the knowledge and conceptual understanding to tackle the enquiry question. A brief example of this is given below.



1.5 PLANNING FOR FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT

It is also crucial that trainees plan formative assessment opportunities within their lesson sequences. The advice below is based on Michael Fordham's work from the Historical Association Supplement for the 2014 Curriculum reforms (Fordham, 2013). He suggests including "health checks" as well as engaging in various means of formative feedback.

Regular "health checks"

Health checks are assessments of students' knowledge. This includes their recall of key people, places, dates and events; their understanding of the chronology of the topic; and their understanding of abstract or complex terms such as 'Divine Right' or 'peasantry'. Ideally they should be used to identify where pupils have weaknesses in their knowledge and those students who are getting 'chronologically lost' (Fordham, 2013). Regular testing of pupils' recall will also give them a greater body of knowledge to command when doing their final, summative assessments. This is supported by recent research outlined in Brown *et al.* "Make it stick: the science of successful learning" (2014). More guidance on this can be found at www.andallthat.co.uk/blog.

Formative Feedback

Formative feedback should form an ongoing discussion between the trainee and pupils: in lessons, on work, and as part of tasks. Formative feedback should be linked to the misconceptions identified pupils' thinking (see Appendix A), as well as the knowledge students' are expected to develop in each unit. Comments should help students to overcome their misconceptions.

Questioning is a key aspect of formative feedback in lessons. Trainees should always be listening to pupils' responses carefully and using these to shape follow-up questioning. Don't fall into the trap of accepting any answer. Make sure pupils know if they have got something wrong, but also help them to identify how to move forwards. This could be done through: teacher explanation, using another pupil to add input OR by follow-up questioning designed to get the pupil to unpick their misconception themselves.

Trainees should ensure their marking comments fit with the school's marking policy. In addition, they should be specific to the work being tackled, rather than referring to second order concepts generically. For example, in a piece on why William won the Battle of Hastings, trainees may be encouraging students to find links between factors. In this instance, the trainee might want the student to connect the knowledge that William had prepared and drilled his troops and that Harold's army was exhausted. In this instance, a comment which says 'You need to explain the link' is less useful to a pupil than a specific comment such as 'Why do you think Harold's men fared less well than William's once they actually met in battle? Is there a link here?' It is suggested that time is given for pupils to respond to these comments, and correct or improve work, thereby allowing them to embed their new understanding.

2 PLANNING LESSONS WITHIN LEARNING SEQUENCES

Once the bigger aims of the sequence of learning have been established, trainees can then work out the contribution of each lesson to this. Having a clear lesson purpose and lesson objectives are crucial in this process.

2.1 ESTABLISHING LESSON PURPOSE

Trainees need to be able to answer the following for each lesson which forms part of a larger lesson sequence:

- How does this lesson contribute to the bigger aims of history?
- What exactly will students need to know or apply by the end?
- How will the lesson(s) fit into the bigger sequence of learning? How will you communicate this?
- What formative and summative assessments will you need to check on progress?

2.2 SETTING CLEAR LESSON OBJECTIVES

Lesson objectives help to shape the focus of the lesson and ensure that it contributes as expected to pupils' understanding. One of the biggest issues with trainees' lessons is when their objectives are unclear, or un-assessable. Great lesson objectives should shape learning but leave things open ended enough to stretch and challenge all learners.

Consider that lesson objectives usually have one of the following stems, although this is generally left off in most cases:

- **At the end of the lesson the pupil(s) should be able to...**
- **OR: To enable the pupil(s) to...**

The best lesson objectives have a simple structure: a specific action required; a link to specific content and/or subject concepts; an implied, assessable outcome.

Bear in mind that "To understand" is not a precise enough action as it is hard to pin down and link to an outcome. "To understand the causes of the French Revolution" is therefore a less effective LO than say "To make connections between Long Term and Short Term causes of the French Revolution". The following might also make good lesson objectives:

- Identify the main claimants and claims to the English throne in 1066
- Summarise the ways in which the Glorious Revolution changed the English monarchy
- Predict what effect Henry VIII's religious changes will have on England
- Reach a judgment about why William won the Battle of Hastings
- Judge how useful the "London Likepenny" is for describing conditions in Medieval London.

Objectives might also be structured to develop from content onwards

Content-based objectives	Identify the three main claims to the English throne in 1066
Objectives, which seek to extend pupils' subject specific understanding and skills	Justify why each claimant thought he should be king in the context of medieval kingship
Objectives relating to developing pupils' ability to organise and communicate.	Reach a conclusion about whose claim to the throne might have been considered the best in 1066.

This summary of key actions may help trainees to focus their objectives more precisely. These come from Terry Haydn at UEA <https://archive.uea.ac.uk/~m242/historypgce/planning/intro.htm>. Bear in mind

that these are not necessarily increasingly difficult and that a “knowledge” objective might well be more challenging in some ways than a “synthesis” one.

Knowledge	Define; state; list; reproduce; name; identify	Write; recall; recognise; label; illustrate	Underline; select; Measure; explain
Comprehension	Justify; select; indicate; predict; distinguish	Represent; name; formulate; choose	Judge; contrast; classify; construct
Application	Select; assess; explain; create; prioritise	Find; show; demonstrate; select	Compute; use; perform; justify; interpret
Analysis	Analyse; identify; conclude; combine;	Separate; compare; argue;	Resolve; break down; select; extrapolate
Synthesis	Restate; summarise; make a precis	Discuss; organise; derive; collect	Relate; generalise; conclude
Evaluation	Judge; evaluate; determine; recognise	Support; defend; attack; criticise.	Identify; avoid; select; choose.

2.3 DIFFERENTIATION WITH OBJECTIVES?

Differentiation of lesson objectives is fairly common practice, however it does not always have the desired effect. If the final objective is seen as an extension for the most able, it means that not all students have made the progress required. This in turn challenges aspects of pupils’ progression and appropriate stretch and challenge. Differentiation of objectives needs to be viewed differently therefore. Let’s take the example objectives from above and look at how differentiation might be seen or enacted:

Objective	Differentiation
Identify the three main claims to the English throne in 1066	How could this objective be assessed? What would it tell you?
Justify why each claimant thought he should be king in the context of medieval kingship	How might you see different levels of attainment WITHIN this objective? What would the best students be able to do in response to this? What about the weakest? What do you need them all to be able to do as a minimum?
Reach a conclusion about whose claim to the throne might have be considered the best in 1066.	Why do you want ALL pupils to do this objective? How might different levels of attainment be evident in pupils’ responses? What could you do to ensure that all pupils had a response to this? What support would you need to put in place? How would you ensure it didn’t do the thinking for them?

2.4 DEMYSTIFYING DIFFERENTIATION

Differentiation is an area which can often be a nightmare for the trainee. Who to differentiate for? How to differentiate? What is the line between differentiation and lowering expectation? This final section aims to target a few of these questions. First I want to take a short extract from Richard Harris’ work in Teaching History, 118 (2005, p.5)

In the past, differentiation has commonly been seen as pitching the lesson at the middle of a group, giving the weaker pupils easier material and the more able some form of extension exercise. Alternatively, it is sometimes assumed that ‘lower-ability’ pupils cannot deal with too much information so they are given a slimmed down curriculum which somehow wants them to understand complex issues on the basis of less information, when quite often they need more information to make something intelligible. The result can

be pupils at the lower end of the ability range lacking the knowledge they need to make sense of something. Although these strategies do have a place in teaching, there is much more we can do.

In my experience the following principles are far more successful in allowing pupils of all abilities to succeed:

- 1. Make the work engaging.*
- 2. Make the work accessible but challenging.*
- 3. Decide where you want to place the obstacles.*

In many ways there is not much more to the whole issue of differentiation. The key is to meet pupils at their point of need and then hopefully help them to achieve the challenging goals you set. For some this will take longer, but that doesn't mean that we should abandon the attempt in favour of lower outcomes.

Effective differentiation in history lessons therefore means:

- Meeting individual needs effectively.
- Removing or minimising potential barriers to progress.
- Offering appropriate levels of challenge BUT having high expectations for all.
- Not providing something different for every child.

These things might be addressed by approaches such as:

- Grouping students for activities where thinking is needed.
- Providing more accessible resources, but which also allow pupils to do their own thinking.
- Using the fascinating material of history to motivate and engage pupils.
- Noticing and addressing misconceptions in terms of subject knowledge or conceptual understanding.
- Dialogue and support of individuals.
- Assessing prior knowledge effectively and building on this.
- Not making assumptions about what pupils have or have not understood – making productive use of ongoing formative assessment.

3 APPENDIX A: MAKING PROGRESS IN HISTORY

3.1 ON SECOND ORDER CONCEPTS, MASTERY, AND MISCONCEPTIONS

The model which has been developed here is based on seven key aspects: six dispositions of historical thought referred to in the second order concepts (causation, change and continuity, using evidence, interpretations, significance and perspectives); and the process involved in historical enquiry. The progression model should be used to inform teaching and assessment; however it is not designed to be a standalone set of targets. Nor is it designed to provide a series of ladder like steps for students to climb. The concepts outlined here will need to be revisited by students throughout their historical studies, strengthening and building upon dispositions of thought in parallel with each other.

The model is grounded in a theory of conceptual mastery, a slow process in which students are encouraged to undertake disciplined enquiry into the past in order to improve. For each key concept, and in line with the work of Morton and Seixas, (Morton & Seixas, 2012) a number of key ‘signposts’ have been identified. These are effectively the misconceptions which students need to overcome in order to work towards mastering the concept in question. There is no necessity for students to tackle each ‘signpost’ in turn, and indeed students may achieve more difficult aspects of the concept whilst still failing at the basics. The conceptual models are outlined below with some brief notes and explanation.

The final point to reiterate is that these concepts do not exist in isolation – they are only relevant as part of the study of the historical periods. That is to say, a causation piece on the Norman Conquest is similar to one on the Reformation, but also has key differences rooted in the content. It is therefore crucial to understand that the progression model cannot be divorced from the specific historical content. Nor should it be divided into linear steps to show ‘progress’. It is expected that teachers develop and deepen students’ knowledge of each of the topics in the book through the use of meaningful enquiries, supported by second order concepts and relevant historical evidence.

3.2 ON HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE

It is worth outlining here the nature of current thinking on the importance of historical knowledge. Much of this is based on Kate Hammond’s excellent research in this area (Hammond, 2014). Clearly, students’ understanding of historical events, changes, people and periods is dependent on their ability to marshal large amounts of historical knowledge. However, there has been something of a false dichotomy drawn between historical knowledge and historical concepts (Counsell, 2000b). For students to deepen their understanding of history there needs to be interplay of historical knowledge and conceptual understanding. As stated previously, this can be tied together through the processes of valid historical enquiry.

However, there are different qualities to students’ grasp of historical knowledge, which help to make distinctions between those students whose grasp of knowledge is fairly shallow, and those for whom the understanding goes deeper. The points outlined here are certainly worth bearing in mind when reaching a judgement about students’ progress in their understanding of history.

If good knowledge is key to good history, then how such knowledge should be defined?

1. Students with good knowledge are able to work with different forms of knowledge. That is to say, students can make use of topic knowledge, relevant to the work they have been doing; however they are also able to display a wider knowledge of the period, and at the very top, are able to make reference to broader historical knowledge and understanding. For example, when explaining the causes of the Nazi rise to power 1929–33, a good student may refer to events which occurred in the early 1920s to bring in period knowledge, but could equally refer to the

behaviour of voters in times of economic crisis more broadly to bring in their wider historical understanding.

2. Students with good knowledge are able to work with multiple pieces of historical knowledge in parallel, bringing these to bear on statements or claims made about the past. Hammond refers to this process as the student's underlying historical understanding 'flavouring' what they write. To take the Nazi rise to power example again, a good student may refer to the behaviour of voters in Germany belying a deeper understanding that they were not a single homogenous mass, whereas a weaker student may deal with 'The Public' as a seemingly single entity. History teachers sometime need to look hard for where this historical 'flavouring' is influencing their students' work.
3. Finally, students with good knowledge are able to switch between historical frames when appropriate. For example, a student with good knowledge discussing the rise of the Nazis may zoom out to explore the wider significance of the economic crises of 1923 and 1929 on Germany, before returning to explain the relevance of the Great Depression. A weaker student may not see the necessity of providing this context, or may provide context when not strictly necessary.

As such there are three key things to say about historical knowledge:

1. Historical knowledge really matters as it shows that students understand a period, and that understanding should increasingly include the broader historical context. As such, historical knowledge should be a core part of all historical enquiries and explanations, not something simply bolted on afterwards.
2. Students should aim to bring in historical knowledge on a range of time frames and in a variety of ways.
3. Trainees need to be aware of the subtlety of historical knowledge.

This leaves a number of key challenges for history trainees to enable students to retain their knowledge in the long term, so that it can carry on flavouring their answers. It also raises the challenge that trainees cannot accept the 'anything goes' mentality that a supporting piece of evidence always validates a claim. There is a real need for trainees to encourage the development of accurate and appropriate historical knowledge.

3.3 OVERVIEW OF SECOND ORDER CONCEPTS IN HISTORY

1) Causation		4) Historical Interpretations	
SIGNPOST 1 Causal Webs	Change happens because of MULTIPLE CAUSES and leads to many different results or consequences. These create a WEB of related causes and consequences.	SIGNPOST 1 Identifying Interpretations	Historical interpretations are everywhere. Every piece of historical writing is an interpretation of some sort. The past is not fixed but CONSTRUCTED through interpretations.
SIGNPOST 2 Influence of Factors	Different causes have different LEVELS OF INFLUENCE. Some causes are more important than other causes.	SIGNPOST 2 Drawing Inferences from Interpretations	It is possible to draw INFERENCES from interpretations of the past, just like with historical sources. INFERENCES will reveal the MESSAGE of a particular interpretation.
SIGNPOST 3 Personal and Contextual Factors	Historical changes happen because of two main factors: The actions of HISTORICAL ACTORS and the CONDITIONS (social, economic etc.) which have influenced those actors.	SIGNPOST 3 Evaluating Interpretations	The APPROACH of an author must always be considered. This means considering their VIEWPOINT, PURPOSE, AUDIENCE and EVIDENCE chosen to build their interpretation and how this might impact on the final interpretation.
SIGNPOST 4 Unintended Consequences	HISTORICAL ACTORS cannot always predict the effects of their own actions leading to UNINTENDED CONSEQUENCES. These unintended consequences can also lead to changes	SIGNPOST 4 Interpretations in Context	Historical interpretations must be understood on their own terms. This means thinking about the CONTEXT in which they were created, what conditions and views existed at the time, and how this might impact the final interpretation.
2) Change & Continuity		5) Significance	
SIGNPOST 1 Identifying Change	Past societies are not fixed, there are changes which have occurred spanning centuries. Changes in the past can be identified by looking at DEVELOPMENTS between two periods.	SIGNPOST 1 Resulting in Change	Events, people and developments are seen as significant because the RESULTED IN CHANGE. They had consequences for people at and/or over time.
SIGNPOST 2 Interweaving Continuity and Change	Change and continuity are INTERWOVEN and both can be present together in history. CHRONOLOGIES can be used to show change and continuity working together over time.	SIGNPOST 2 Revelation	Significance is ascribed if they REVEAL something about history or contemporary life.
SIGNPOST 3 Flows of Continuity and Change	Change is a process which varies over time. Change can be described as a FLOW in terms of its PACE and EXTENT and can be said to TRENDS and have specific TURNING POINTS.	SIGNPOST 3 Identifying Significance Criteria	Significance is seen as something constructed therefore CRITERIA are needed to judge the significance of events, people or developments within a particular historical narrative.
SIGNPOST 4 Complexity of Change	Change and continuity are not a single process. There are many FLOWS of change and continuity operating at the same time. Not all FLOWS go in the same direction	SIGNPOST 4 Provisional Significance	Historical significance varies over time, and by the INTERPRETATIONS of those ascribing that significance. Significance is PROVISIONAL.
3) Historical Evidence		6) Historical Perspectives	
SIGNPOST 1 Inferences from Sources	When we write history we need to create interpretations of the past based on evidence. INFERENCES are drawn from a variety of primary sources to create interpretations of the past.	SIGNPOST 1 Appreciating world-views	There are major differences between modern WORLD-VIEWS and those of people in the past. Differences are seen in their beliefs, values and motivations. We must avoid PRESENTISM.
SIGNPOST 2 Cross Referencing Sources	Historical evidence must be CROSS-REFERENCED so that claims are not made based on single pieces of evidence. CROSS-REFERENCING means checking against other primary or secondary sources.	SIGNPOST 2 Perspectives in context	The perspectives of HISTORICAL ACTORS are best understood by thinking about the CONTEXT in which people lived and the WORLD-VIEWS that influenced them
SIGNPOST 3 Source Utility	Historical evidence has multiple uses. The UTILITY of a piece of historical evidence varies according to the specific enquiry or the questions being asked.	SIGNPOST 3 Perspectives through evidence	Looking at the perspective of an HISTORICAL ACTOR means drawing INFERENCES about how people thought and felt in the past. It does not mean using modern WORLD-VIEWS to imagine the past
SIGNPOST 4 Evaluating Sources	Working with evidence begins before the source is read by thinking about how the AUTHOR, intended AUDIENCE and PURPOSE of an historical source might affect its WEIGHT for a purpose.	SIGNPOST 4 Diversity	A variety of HISTORICAL ACTORS have very different (DIVERSE) experiences of the events in which they are involved. Understanding DIVERSITY is key to understanding history.
SIGNPOST 5 Sources in Context	Historical evidence must be understood on its own terms. This means thinking about the CONTEXT in which the source was created and what conditions and views existed at the time.		

3.3.1 Causation

Model based on (Scott, 1990) and (Morton & Seixas, 2012)

Understanding ‘causation’ in history is crucial for students to make sense of the past. At a basic level, causation appears to be the bread and butter of history. The causation model outlined here attempts to get student to understand a number of key strands:

1. Change happens because of **MULTIPLE CAUSES** and leads to many different results or consequences. These create a **CAUSAL WEB**.
2. **RANKING CAUSES**: Different causes have different **LEVELS OF INFLUENCE**. Some causes are more important than other causes.
3. **UNDERLYING CAUSES**: Historical changes happen because of two main factors:
 - a. the actions of **HISTORICAL ACTORS**
 - b. the **CONDITIONS** (social, economic etc.) which have influenced those actors.
4. **HISTORICAL ACTORS** cannot always predict the effects of their own actions leading to **UNINTENDED CONSEQUENCES**. These unintended consequences can also lead to changes.

	Misconceptions	Mastery
Signpost 1 Causal Webs	Causation is attributed to a single cause, usually short term, or multiple causes are given but not explained.	Multiple short-term and long-term causes of events are identified and explained. Relationships between causes are recognised.
Signpost 2 Ranking Causes	There is no differentiation between the influence of various causes.	The causes of historical change are analysed and different causes are ranked by their influence.
Signpost 3 Underlying Causes	Historical causes are personalised to be the actions of great leaders or are seen as abstractions with human intentions.	Historical change is explained through the interplay of the actions of historical actors and the underlying conditions in which they operated (for example: social, political, economic, religious or military conditions).
Signpost 4 Unintended Consequences	Past events are seen as the result of specific plans and actions.	A differentiation is made between the intended and unintended consequences of actions.

3.3.2 Change and continuity

Model Based on (Blow, 2011), (Morton & Seixas, 2012) and (Foster, 2013)

Understanding the processes of change and continuity enables students to appreciate the past, not as a homogenous whole, nor indeed as a series of events, but as a complex flow of currents and counter-currents. It helps students to appreciate the complexity of the past and creates uncertainty around loaded terms such as ‘primitive’ and ‘progress’. Again, there are four key strands to this concept:

1. Past societies are not fixed, there are changes which have occurred spanning centuries. Changes in the past can be identified by looking at DEVELOPMENTS between two periods.
2. Change and continuity are INTERWOVEN and both can be present together in history. CHRONOLOGIES can be used to show change and continuity working together over time.
3. Change is a process which varies over time. Change can be described as a FLOW in terms of its PACE and EXTENT and can be said to TRENDS and have specific TURNING POINTS.
4. Change and continuity are not a single process. There are many FLOWS of change and continuity operating at the same time. Not all FLOWS go in the same direction.

	Misconceptions	Mastery
Signpost 1 Identifying change	Seeing the past as homogenous and unchanging. Failing to perceive that changes happen over time.	Understanding that changes can be seen as differences between two periods of time, i.e. what has changed between two points in history, or conversely, what has stayed the same.
Signpost 2 Interweaving change and continuity	Failing to appreciate that change and continuity can happen simultaneously.	Change and continuity are shown to be INTERWOVEN. Some things change whilst others remain stable.
Signpost 3 Process of change	Seeing all changes as individual events with short term impacts.	Understanding that historical change and can be described as a flow over a longer period of time in terms of pace, extent, trends or specific turning points and that these flows might have greater importance than the changes individually.
Signpost 4 Complexity of change	Believing that change is a single process which ebbs and flows over time.	Understanding that the past is formed of multiple lines of development and that each has its own flow but that these do not always go in the same direction as the larger river of history.

3.3.3 Historical Evidence

Model based on: (Lee & Shemilt, 2003), (Wineburg, 1999) and (Morton & Seixas, 2012)

Without evidence, there is of course no history to speak of, only speculation. This was one of the trickiest aspects to create a model for as working with evidence is such a complex process. When working with sources the danger is that we simply read them uncritically or through a modern lens. As Wineburg notes, the ‘spread of activation’ effect leads us to think down similar lines of thought once we have been pushed in a certain direction. For example, when looking at a document which discusses slavery, then the modern mindset overrides other aspects of the document and leads us to condemn the practice without engaging with the meaning of the source itself. Wineburg gives the example of a group of people given an 1892 document about Columbus Day. Non-historians used the document to comment on the shame of Columbus’ conquest in 1492; these readers used the source to ‘... confirm their prior beliefs. They encountered the past here and labelled it.’ (Wineburg, 1999, p. 498). Yet on the other hand, ‘...historians used the document to puzzle about 1892, not 1492. They paused long enough to allow their eyes to readjust from the flashing neon of Columbus’ name to go down to the bottom of the document to ponder the context of the document’s production.’ (Wineburg, 2007, p. 11)

1. When we write history we need to create interpretations of the past based on evidence. INFERENCES are drawn from a variety of primary sources to create interpretations of the past.
2. Historical evidence must be CROSS-REFERENCED so that claims are not made based on single pieces of evidence. CROSS-REFERENCING means checking against other primary or secondary sources.
3. Historical evidence has multiple uses. The UTILITY of a piece of historical evidence varies according to the specific enquiry or the questions being asked.
4. Working with evidence begins before the source is read by thinking about how the AUTHOR, intended AUDIENCE and PURPOSE of an historical source might affect its WEIGHT for a purpose.
5. Historical evidence must be understood on its own terms. This means thinking about the CONTEXT in which the source was created and what conditions and views existed at the time.

	Misconceptions	Mastery
Signpost 1 Drawing Inferences	Seeing evidence as a series of windows on the past or a collection of facts to be unearthed.	Understanding that the past is not a set of fixed and known events and that evidence isn’t a collection of facts about the past. Understanding that inferences can be drawn from evidence which go beyond the obvious content of the sources.
Signpost 2 Cross Referencing	Claims about the past are often shaky or unwarranted as they are based on single pieces of evidence.	Understanding that history is a complex web and should be constructed from a wide array of complimentary and contradictory sources. Commenting on the certainty of inferences drawn from multiple sources.
Signpost 3 Utility of Evidence	Seeing evidence as inherently useful or otherwise based only on what it says.	Understanding that all evidence can have multiple uses and that its utility depends on the questions which are being asked. Evidence does not have a fixed value of utility; it varies according to the enquiry.
Signpost 4 Evaluating Evidence	The provenance of evidence is not questioned.	Understanding that a source will reflect the views of its author. Explaining the impact of author, audience, and purpose on a source.
Signpost 5 Evidence in Context	Understanding historical evidence and inferences from evidence through a modern mindset. Judgements are made without reference to context.	Historical evidence should be understood on its own terms and be recognised as an area of complexity and confusion. Interpreting historical evidence in historical terms rather than understanding it through a modern mindset. Sources cannot be understood quickly and easily – they require work. Context has an enormous impact on the meaning of a source.

3.3.4 Historical Interpretations

Model based on (Lee & Shemilt, 2004)

Understanding historical interpretations means asking students to step back and appreciate the processes of the discipline of History itself. In many cases, this is a skill we do not expect of students until they are much older as the contextual knowledge required is so great. It is also important to note that historical interpretations here refer to conscious reflections on the past, deliberate attempts to make sense of past events, and should not be confused with sources or personal views.

1. Historical interpretations are everywhere. Every piece of historical writing is an interpretation of some sort. The past is not fixed but CONSTRUCTED through interpretations.
2. It is possible to draw INFERENCES from interpretations of the past, just like with historical sources. INFERENCES will reveal the MESSAGE of a particular interpretation.
3. The APPROACH of an author must always be considered. This means considering their VIEWPOINT, PURPOSE, AUDIENCE and EVIDENCE chosen to build their interpretation.
4. Historical interpretations must be understood on their own terms. This means thinking about the CONTEXT in which they were created and what conditions and views existed at the time.

	Misconceptions	Mastery
Signpost 1 Identifying Interpretation	The past is seen as knowable and therefore interpretations of the past are all just different ways of relating the same events.	Interpretations are understood to be particular viewpoints and constructions of the past.
Signpost 2 Inferences from Interpretations	Inferences are not drawn from interpretations. Information may be extracted from an interpretation.	The messages and main points of an interpretation are identified. This is done through reference to the interpretation itself.
Signpost 3 Evaluating Interpretations	Accounts of the past are either used uncritically or are seen as accurate versions of the past containing mistakes – either deliberate (bias) or accidental.	An interpretation is seen as the product of a particular author. The APPROACH of the author is identified and an understanding is shown of the viewpoint of the author, their purpose, their intended audience and the evidence they have chosen to use.
Signpost 4 Interpretations in Context	Interpretations are seen as views on the past but are not understood in the context of their own time.	Understanding that the context of an historical interpretation is often more important than the period it is talking about. Interpretations can reveal a lot about the context in which they were created and could be put to this purpose.

3.3.5 Significance

Model based on (Counsell, 2004), (Phillips, 2002) and (Morton & Seixas, 2012)

1. Events, people and developments are seen as significant because they RESULTED IN CHANGE. They had consequences for people at and/or over time.
2. Significance is ascribed if they REVEAL something about history or contemporary life.
3. Significance is seen as something constructed therefore CRITERIA are needed to judge the significance of events, people or developments within a particular historical narrative.
4. Historical significance varies over time, and by the INTERPRETATIONS of those ascribing that significance. Significance is PROVISIONAL.

	Misconceptions	Mastery
Signpost 1 Resulting in Change	There is a reliance on a textbook or other authority to assign significance. Or relies on a personal preference as the basis for significance.	The significance of events, people or developments are explained by showing how they resulted in change.
Signpost 2 Revelation	Criteria for determining significance are limited to the impact of a person, event or development.	Historical significance is explained by showing what people, events or developments reveal about issues in history or contemporary life.
Signpost 3 Identifying Significance Criteria	Unable to identify the criteria used by textbooks or other historical accounts to establish the significance of events or people.	The criteria used to establish historical significance in textbooks and other historical accounts are identified and explained.
Signpost 4 Provisional Significance	Significance is seen as fixed and unchanging – i.e. it is inherent in an event, person or development.	Historical significance is shown to vary over time and from group to group. Some reasons for this are given.

3.3.6 Historical Perspectives

Model based on (Wineburg, 1999; 2007) and (Morton & Seixas, 2012)

One of the most crucial aspects of understanding history is trying to see the past on its own terms. Too often students place modern values on top of the past and therefore fail to understand why people acted in the way they did. When speaking to students about the Holocaust, Primo Levi once noted that he increasingly faced the question: why did you not escape or rebel? These students are viewing History through their own modern lens of understanding rather than trying to engage with the strange world of the past. As Richard White notes: ‘Any good history begins in strangeness...the past should not be a familiar echo of the present...’ (White, 1998, p. 13). History exposes our inability to understand people in the past on their own terms. In order to do it well we need to try and understand the mentalities of those in the past. History helps us to practice understanding peoples we cannot hope to understand – this is a crucial lesson today (Wineburg, 1999).

1. There are major differences between modern WORLD-VIEWS and those of people in the past, this means their beliefs, values and motivations. We must avoid PRESENTISM.
2. The perspectives of HISTORICAL ACTORS are best understood by thinking about the CONTEXT in which people lived and the WORLD-VIEWS that influenced them.
3. Looking at the perspective of an HISTORICAL ACTOR means drawing INFERENCES about how people thought and felt in the past. It does not mean using modern WORLD-VIEWS to imagine the past.
4. A variety of HISTORICAL ACTORS have very different (DIVERSE) experiences of the events in which they are involved. Understanding DIVERSITY is key to understanding history.

	Misconceptions	Mastery
Signpost 1 Appreciating World-Views	There is an assumption that the beliefs, values and motivations of people in the past were the same as those of people today. Presentism abounds.	An understanding of the differences between the world-views of people in the past and the present day. Understanding that caution is needed when trying to understand Historical Actors through shared human experiences eg. Death, fear, love or hunger.
Signpost 2 Perspectives in Context	A lack of historical empathy with people of the past. An assumption that people in the past were stupid or ignorant because their historical context is ignored.	Understanding that the perspectives of people in the past have to be explained with reference to their historical context. A respect for the lives of people in the past.
Signpost 3 Perspectives through evidence	Empathising with Historical Actors is often conducted as an imaginative exercise with little or no reference to evidence or historical context.	Evidence based inferences are used to empathise with an Historical Actor. Evidence is used to reconstruct beliefs, values and motivations. Limitations of our understanding are recognised.
Signpost 4 Diversity	A failure to recognize that there are a diverse range of perspectives in the past.	The ability to distinguish a variety of diverse perspectives and experiences in the past. Evidence is used to reconstruct these different perspectives with respect.

3.4 ON THE PROCESS OF HISTORICAL ENQUIRY

Model based on Hammond (Hammond, 2011) & Dawson (Dawson, 2014)

1. There is a recognition that an historical enquiry involves ASKING QUESTIONS about the past. Historical ENQUIRIES are rooted in SECOND ORDER concepts and can be pursued INDEPENDENTLY.
2. There are a range of POSSIBLE ANSWERS to historical questions, however some of these may be less VALID than others.
3. Historical claims need to be refined by seeking EVIDENCE and asking FURTHER QUESTIONS.
4. Claims made in historical enquiries need to be SUPPORTED by EVIDENCE.
5. Historical claims need to be communicated with CLARITY and PRECISION. Different historical claims have a greater degree of CERTAINTY than others.

	Misconceptions	Mastery
SIGNPOST 1 Asking questions	Enquiry is not really understood. History is seen as a collection of facts which do not need further interrogation.	Enquiry is tackled as a process of ASKING QUESTIONS. Questions asked will enable lines of enquiry to be pursued. Students develop an ability to ask RELEVANT questions INDEPENDENTLY. Students use a grasp of SECOND ORDER concepts to help frame appropriate questions
SIGNPOST 2 Suggesting answers	Answers to questions are suggested with little consideration for the historical period or the validity of such answers. All answers are seen as equally valid OR only one answer is seen as valid. Little independence is shown in suggesting answers.	Recognition that questions may have a MULTITUDE of answers and that some answers may have more VALIDITY than others. Recognising a range of POSSIBILITIES. Answers are suggested showing INDEPENDENT thought.
SIGNPOST 3 Refining claims	Claims are not refined and there is little or no recognition of the process involved in making historical claims. Limited independence is shown.	Claims arising from historical questions are REFINED by asking further questions after the gathering of evidence. Questions help to develop and deepen the understanding of an enquiry and answers become more plausible. INDEPENDENT thinking is shown in the process of refining claims.
SIGNPOST 4 Supporting with evidence	Claims arising from enquiries are based on conjecture or limited evidence. Evidence might be taken at face value, or evidence of a contradictory nature may be ignored or misunderstood.	Claims arising from enquiries are SUPPORTED by a range of relevant evidence. Evidence is used critically and in context to build and support complex claims about the past. Evidence informs processes of questioning and refinement. INDEPENDENCE is shown in sourcing and referencing evidence.
SIGNPOST 5 Communicating with degrees of certainty	Claims arising from historical questions are communicated in a simplistic manner with little or no reference to how certain such claims are.	Claims arising from historical questions are communicated with CLARITY and PRECISION. There is a recognition of the degree of CERTAINTY of a particular claim as well as of other POSSIBILITIES. Enquiries show considerable levels of INDEPENDENT thinking.