GROUP WORK IN BLACK HISTORY CLASSES

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CONTENTS

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PREFACE

As a history teacher at Kuyasa High School in the Ciskei and afterwards as history method lecturer at the University of Fort Hare, visiting a large number of schools regularly for purposes of practice teaching with groups of students, I became aware of the problems encountered when history is taught to mixed ability groups. By far the most glaring problem is that of teaching methods. Teachers are in doubt concerning the teaching methodology to be adopted in classes where the spread of ability is wide. They face considerable difficulties in developing a role for themselves both in the classroom and in relation to their colleagues. The often noted tendency of teachers is to isolate themselves and guard the privacy of their classroom life. This realisation prompted me to undertake this study.

The aim of this study is twofold. Having large classes in Ciskeian secondary schools, it is obvious that the spread of ability within classes is wide. The teachers then would have to form groups within the class. The first aim, therefore, is to develop and apply a reading comprehension test, with passages of varying difficulty. The performance of pupils in the test will serve as a guide when the children are put into groups. Secondly, I intend suggesting group activities which could be done by history pupils in such groups.

Since all Ciskeian secondary school classes are unstreamed, they consist of a wide range of abilities. The study could be of use in that it will reveal the difficulties and constraints of mixed ability teaching. Teachers will be made aware of their own responsibilities with regard to making personal contributions towards alleviating the existing problems.

The first chapter is concerned with a discussion of various grouping procedures; an examination of streaming and mixed ability grouping; and a brief consideration of the strategies of teaching history to mixed ability groups. Since the difficulty levels of books need to be assessed before reading comprehension tests can be given, reading difficulty indices will be discussed in depth in the second chapter. Chapter 3 deals with the grouping procedures used in Ciskeian secondary schools

and the development and administration of the pretest instrument. The administration of the final version of the research instrument, the discussion of results, the forming of tentative clusters or groups of pupils on the basis of the results and the application of the product moment correlation coefficient to the test instrument results and the pupils' class test scores, will be handled in chapter 4. The fifth chapter will concentrate on the strategies for dealing with mixed ability groups. A detailed examination of model worksheets and simulations will be done in chapter 6.

Sharing Andy Reid's belief that "Whatever one's personal views, if one is working with mixed ability groups there is an obligation to approach the situation positively and to seek strategies which are effective in the mixed ability context" (1982, p. 15), I sincerely hope that the suggested strategies will make history meaningful to mixed ability groups.

CHAPTER 1

GROUPING AND GROUPWORK IN HISTORY

The population explosion has posed formidable educational problems in developing countries like the Ciskei. The demand for facilities and suitably qualified teachers simply cannot be met as yet. It leads to overcrowded classes, double school sessions and a high pupil/teacher ratio. If there are large numbers of pupils in each class, then it is suggested that there will be a wide range of ability and attainment. In order to reduce the range of individual differences, to provide enriched educational experiences for gifted pupils, to facilitate the use of special personnel or resources, to enable remedial or compensatory help to be given to those who require it, to organise differential programmes or courses to cater for a variety of educational and vocational needs (Yates, 1966), groups have to be formed.

All grouping procedures attract criticism and disapproval. So far no criterion that has been adopted for the purpose of assigning pupils to classes has not become a subject for controversy. Debates concerning grouping practices lead to the adoption of uncompromisingly partisan attitudes. Yates (1966, p. 19) maintains that in some quarters, for example, to suggest that primary school children might be assigned to distinct 'streams' almost provides a call to man the barricades.

It is clear that attitudes about grouping practices are determined partly by social and cultural factors. Those who bitterly attack or staunchly defend existing forms of educational grouping regard them as threatening or satisfying some of their own basic psychological needs. Since grouping of pupils is a sensitive issue, we therefore need to know the most commonly encountered grounds on which educational grouping practices are based.

Administrative convenience, classroom manageability, pupils' needs, teachers' preferences, the effective use of equipment and facilities, social and economic pressures, may all help to determine grouping practices (Yates, 1966). Intra-school grouping is usually organised on the basis of such criteria as intelligence, aptitude, achievement, special needs, interests and motivation. In a major NFER report (Reid et al, 1981) the allocation of pupils to teaching groups is discussed.

The schools involved in the investigation had adopted mixed ability grouping especially in the first year. One reason for this type of grouping was that they felt they had insufficient information from primary schools to be able to allocate pupils to streams. In some cases the primary record on which allocation was based consisted of an overall or global assessment in terms of a grade. The largest number of schools, however, derived a classification of children from a single test score on the record card, invariably a test of either verbal reasoning or reading age. Children might be listed in columns, for example, according to whether their verbal reasoning quotient scores were 130^{+}, 120^{+}, 110^{+}, etc., and then teaching groups structured so that they had an equal number of children in each column.

Sometimes brothers and sisters or friends were kept together to ensure a fair social mix. In one case, the special interests and abilities of children in music and sport were considered, with children exhibiting excellence in these areas being distributed among the classes.

Mixed ability groups may be formed on the basis of pupils' scores on psychometric tests which reveal their abilities. Frequently these are supplemented or supplanted by primary teachers' assessments, adding factors concerned with achievement, motivation and attitudes. Performance on reading tests (skills), random sampling, alphabetical ordering or friendship may all be taken into consideration when groups are being formed (Reid, 1977).

There are so many grouping plans that Shane (1960) listed thirty-two in his survey of 'historically interesting and educationally promising' practices. In this study a brief summary of nine broad categories of intra-school grouping practices as suggested by Yates (1966) and Kelly (1978) will be given.

i. **Grading**

This form of grouping is based on the pupils' levels of attainment and rates of progress. It involves designing, for children of a given age, a syllabus which the majority can reasonably be expected to complete satisfactorily within a specified period, usually a school year. At the end of this period those children who have fulfilled this expectation are moved forward to the next stage, grade or standard. At each extreme of the range of ability there are children for whom the normal methods of pro-

motion prove to be inappropriate. Some abler children tend to be promoted more frequently than the majority, and some of the slowest learners may have to stay behind and repeat a grade. As a consequence, classes grouped in this fashion usually manifest a fairly wide range of chronological ages.

ii. **Special classes**

Special classes are commonly formed for children who are unusually gifted, backward, maladjusted, physically handicapped or who, for any other reason, are regarded as in need of a kind of education different from that which is provided for the majority of pupils. Such groupings may be relatively permanent (when they are designed, for example, on behalf of children with some handicap or defect) or they may be for a short duration (ad hoc groups are sometimes formed to enable children who have missed schooling through illness to catch up with the rest).

iii. **Tracking**

This form of grouping involves assigning pupils in a school to different classes or courses, in which different curricula are provided. This is a common device in comprehensive schools, within which it is usually considered necessary to provide a number of distinct courses (although there may be a common curriculum during the early stages) for pupils who develop different capabilities and interests.

iv. **Streaming and setting**

These are devices for assigning pupils, on the basis of their abilities or attainments, to separate classes within which, however, they may, and often do, follow the same curriculum. The objective is to secure relatively homogeneous groups for instructional purposes. Streaming involves teaching children of different levels of ability separately for all or most of the subjects of the curriculum. Setting, on the other hand, may apply to a few key subjects only: thus children may be divided into homogeneous groups for instruction in mathematics or modern languages but may follow the rest of the course in relatively heterogeneous classes.

v. **Informal groups**

For the organisation of musical, dramatic, athletic and other activities, groups are formed. Such groups may be directed by teachers or by the

pupils themselves and may or may not be confined to a particular age group.

vi. **Planned heterogeneous grouping**

This, in a sense, is the converse of streaming and, indeed, has sometimes been introduced as a deliberate counter measure into schools where streaming has been the practice and has fallen into disfavour. Children are assigned to classes by a random process or, alternatively, measures of ability are employed in order to ensure that each class is heterogeneous in this respect.

vii. **Planned flexible grouping**

This description applies to a variety of arrangements, one of the purposes of which is to ensure a more economical use of the supply of trained teachers. "Team Teaching" is the best known example of this type of grouping. At different times children are taught in large groups (the equivalent of the two, three or even more 'classes' of the usual size) or in small seminars, or, on other occasions, are given individual tuition.

viii. **Teachability grouping**

This is a form of grouping which has not as yet been extensively used and which involves an attempt to 'match' teachers and pupils - to bring together teachers and classes of pupils who can most effectively co-operate with each other.

ix. **Intra-class grouping**

Within any class, on whatever basis it may have been formed, further sub-grouping often takes place. The grounds for this sub-grouping are sometimes similar to those already discussed: sub-groups within a class may be determined, for example, by the childrens' levels of ability or attainment. Alternatively, other criteria - the childrens' friendships, common interests, etc., may be employed for this purpose.

Teachers may use different methods of grouping for different subjects, or may use a combination of methods for a particular subject or indeed for a particular lesson. For example, all the children may be taught a new concept together. When it has been taught, the teacher may find that the majority of the class has grasped the meaning of the concept but that some have not understood it. As a consequence, the children are divided

into groups: those who have mastered the meaning of the concept work on events related to it, while those who have not understood are helped by the teacher, either as a group or individually. This method is a mixture of total class, group and individual teaching.

A comparable trend may be discerned in grouping policies within schools. Yates (1966, p. 129) noted that the tendency seems to be to defer the age at which pupils are allocated to different courses and, in general, to abandon the practice of seeking to organize pupils into homogeneous classes. In the new Swedish comprehensive schools, only a minor degree of educational differentiation takes place before the ninth and final year of the course and, to a lesser extent, the same trend is occurring in Belgium, Italy and West Germany. In Britain the policy of 'non-streaming' is becoming more widely used. In some respects the United States would be counted as an exception to this general rule. There is evidence to indicate a tendency to introduce more homogeneous grouping in American schools at both primary and secondary levels.

Research into the various forms of grouping within schools has been abundant but inconclusive. For example, some investigations into the effects of grouping pupils in accordance with their abilities and attainments have yielded results favourable to streaming (homogeneous grouping); some have indicated that non-streaming (mixed ability grouping) leads to superior attainments; others show that there is no significant difference between the two. Yates (1966) found that in arguments about grouping policies one can usually find evidence to support any point of view that one chooses to adopt; enough evidence to discomfit one's opponent but never enough to overwhelm him. Reid et al (1981) warns that grouping practices at secondary level merit close scrutiny for there are no certain outcomes, either positive or negative, which can be assumed to follow inevitably from mixed ability grouping or, probably, from any other form of organization. What is achieved or not achieved for the pupil, in academic, social and personal terms, will depend on a complex array of circumstances.

THE CASE FOR STREAMING

Streaming, which may be defined as a classification of pupils who are relatively similar in the factors that affect learning (Davies, 1975, p. 13) resulted from an awareness of the differences between one pupil

and another. The general feeling amongst the exponents of streaming was that children should be allowed to progress through the school at varying rates suited to their individual capacity. The structure that allowed this was classification by ability. Standards were replaced by streams and a 'triple track system of organization' (Kelly, 1978, p. 8) was adopted, whereby pupils who were regarded as clever and quick to learn were grouped in the 'A' stream; average ability pupils were grouped in the 'B' stream and the backward or slow learners were grouped in the 'C' stream. These pupils were separated and were taught by different and appropriate methods. At the same time, separate curricula were worked out for the various ability groups. Davies (1975) cites examples where French, Algebra and Geometry were reserved for the class designated as the most able, whilst 'B' pupils had practical Arithmetic, and 'C' classes were taught more practical subjects and given more oral work. The ideology behind this was the ideology of the day and it led to the organization of secondary education itself as well as the grouping of pupils in classes along selective lines (Kelly, 1978).

The arguments given in favour of streaming are as follows (Pattinson, 1963):

i. It is the only arrangement which sketches the most able pupils and encourages the weakest.

ii. Homogeneous groupings are advantageous to both staff and pupils; pupils and parents know what is expected of them.

iii. To put poor pupils with more able ones results in the former developing feelings of inferiority.

iv. The demands of the 11^{+} examination make it necessary for the most able to be pressed.

v. Streaming arrangements follow naturally on the individual differences in levels of educability.

vi. Results show that the practice has been succesful.

vii. Pupils are kept 'on their toes', and work hard to hold their positions or to gain promotion.

viii. As the system of transfer is an integral part of the organization, pupils can easily be placed in the correct group, free to move at their proper pace.

Thelen (cited in Yates, 1966, p. 143) argues that streaming is popular because the notion that it would be advantageous to narrow the range of brightness, aptitude, speed, prior knowledge, etc., of the class has widespread appeal. The usual explanation of its appeal is that a homogeneous class should be easier to teach than a heterogeneous one; the teacher would have fewer individual differences to contend with.

Start (1961) explains that streaming could produce either a stimulating or deadening effect on the child. If the streaming is done well, the system is fluid and promotion and demotion are easy, stream 'types' do not appear and each individual is allowed to work at his optimum pace in the company of those whose rate of learning is similar.

In an investigation carried out by Daniels (1961), analysis of the answers to a questionnaire showed that a large majority of respondents believe that streaming allows children to progress, educationally, at their own natural pace; bright children are held back by being taught in classes containing duller pupils, whilst duller pupils tend to be overawed and consequently are retarded by the presence of brighter pupils in their classes. Consequently, it is believed that both dull, average and bright pupils make maximum educational progress when streaming policies are operated.

Schiller's article in the Times Educational Supplement (1963) summarised the school's task: to find out what each boy and girl can do, sort them into classes accordingly, give each class the sort of work that interests them and is within their powers, and then let each class flow each year through the school like a stream (cited in Davies, 1975, p. 17).

How many of these assumptions had been tested empirically? Is inborn intelligence all-important in academic success? Can we achieve homogeneous groups by our crude measures? Are the common factors which persuade us that a group is relatively homogeneous in one subject area equally operative in a different area of the curriculum? Are groups which we consider to be homogeneous likely to make more progress more rapidly? Davies (1975) shows how the challenge to streaming was developed round these questions.

THE CASE AGAINST STREAMING

The system of setting pupils into groups according to their supposed ability has been challenged on many grounds. The validity of streaming pupils on the basis of the evidence currently being proffered by exponents of psychology or any other single discipline is questioned because the theories upon which the psychologists of the time based their recommendations no longer enjoy general acceptance today (Kelly, 1978). Nearly 30 years ago Vernon (cited in Davies, 1975, p. 18) voiced the fears of many when he wrote that one should never think of a child's IQ (or other test result) as accurate to one percent. Instead, an IQ of, say, 95, should be thought of as a kind of region or general level. Vernon's postulation, that pupils could be prepared for and be taught to do intelligence tests, shook the faith of many in the inborn and innate pattern of abilities.

It was argued that streaming denied children equality of educational opportunity. It appeared that the system worked to the distinct advantage of middle-class children. Davies (1975) states that many research studies pointed to the disproportionate numbers of middle-class children found on the registers of 'A' classes. On the contrary, places in lower streams tended to be filled largely by pupils whose social status is relatively low.

Kelly (1978) argued that streaming is based on a false premise concerning general ability. Most pupils are a mixture of strengths and weaknesses; with good motivation of special interests, a pupil should actually be found working in a number of different groups. Intelligence manifests itself differently in different spheres. General ability is, therefore, highly questionable.

Although the didactic, class-teaching approach which is emphasized in streamed groups has its merits, it also has its limitations. It does not recognise the need to facilitate learning by making use of less formal, heuristic and individual methods, instead it implies that the only, or even the best way to learn, is by being taught. On the other hand, given a wider spread of ability within a group, teachers are compelled to devise more effective teaching methods (Pattinson, 1963).

Streaming is based on quite small and often unreliable differences in performance, which suggests that there should be frequent transfers.

Davies (1975) reports that it has been argued, too, that academically, streams tend to polarize, that the attainment gap between groups tends to increase markedly. Douglas (1964) concluded that once allocated, it seems that children tend to take on the characteristics expected of them and the forecasts of ability made at the point of streaming are to this extent self-fulfilling.

Pattinson (1963) argues that streaming is unnatural and undemocratic. It deprives many less able pupils of the stimulus and leadership to be gained from learning alongside the more able. It establishes a 'class system' in a school and this causes much insecurity and unhappiness because it thrives on competition.

Daniels (1961) concluded that research has shown that streaming in the junior school "is an unnecessary and restrictive procedure." Even as early as 1958, Pearce was arguing that a sense of failure or a reputation of inferiority, a decline in morale, effort and attainment was inevitable. Rudd (1960) carried out an experiment to test the hypothesis that "the attainments, attitudes, behaviour and personalities of a group of pupils in an organization based upon streaming are influenced by that organization." He concluded that transfer did not increase the homogeneity of the streams; streaming brought no improvement in attainments; transfer of pupils was accompanied by temporary traumatic difficulties; the more lasting effects of transfer were a highly individual matter, depending on the particular psychological field at the time; and, the traumatic effects upon the pupils in a streamed organization appeared to pass unnoticed by the teachers involved in it.

The criticisms against streaming ushered in an ever increasing trend towards mixed ability classes. The desire to create a society less divisive, less intolerant, more participatory and more democratic, informed the movement towards comprehensive education (Davies, 1975). This brought non-streaming (mixed ability grouping) in its wake.

MIXED ABILITY GROUPING

There is no agreement among educationists and social scientists as to what constitutes ability. Mixed ability is often confused with mixed skills, mixed attitudes, mixed motivation and mixed attainment. When teachers apply the phrase "mixed-ability grouping" to their classes,

what is implied is that the groups contain a wider range of whatever is meant by ability than would have been the case had some form of selective grouping been applied. The actual ability mix in these classes will vary according to the school's catchment and the criteria and procedures employed to allocate children to classes (Reid, 1977).

Reid et al (1981, p. 4) defined a mixed ability class as "a teaching unit which is not streamed, banded or setted and which is in a non-selective school. The class may or may not contain pupils from a remedial department."

The ILEA inspectorate survey (1976) defined mixed ability grouping as follows:

> "In its purest form this type of organisation groups pupils in such a way that each class in the year group is assumed to have an equal range of attainment. Each class remains together for all subjects except where separately grouped by sex (as in physical education) or divided into sub-groups (as in craft work)."
>
> (Times Educational Supplement, 10 June, 1977 : 15).

A conference was arranged by the Programme for the Reform of Secondary Education in 1977. Mixed ability teaching enthusiasts met an unexpected and unwelcome call to prove themselves. In the Times Educational Supplement (18 March, 1977) it is reported that parents wanted to know why some teachers were insisting on introducing mixed ability teaching. Peter Davies of Whitechurch School, Cardiff and Richard Kelly of Goldsmith College, explained that the reason lay in a total suspicion of the way children had been categorized in the past. They claimed that mixed ability teaching was essential to the development of the curriculum. Kelly explained that "the curriculum has to change in tune with a rapidly changing society. That was not possible with streaming. Mixed ability teaching gave priority to the individual, and it carries the implication that control of what goes on in the schools will ultimately be in the hands of the teachers." (1977 : 10).

David Newbold carried out a study with the aim of comparing mixed ability grouping and streaming. Banbury School had a large lower school made up of four sub-schools, each of four-form entry. They shared the same ob-

jectives and efforts had been made to match the schools for intake, teachers and resources. The sample included 2000 pupils taught by more than 130 staff. A comparison between mixed ability grouping and streaming was possible because two of the halls were organized on mixed ability lines while the other two were streamed. Tests of English, Mathematics, Science and French were given, some of which were standardized NFER tests and some of which were constructed at the school. The Banbury enquiry exonerated mixed ability teaching. As reported in the Times Educational Supplement (9 January, 1976) mixed ability teaching does not necessarily lead to lower academic standards. No evidence was forthcoming from the enquiry of bright children being held back by sharing classes with the less able. The study disclosed slight academic gains for the less bright in mixed ability groups. The enquiry came to the conclusion that the real benefits of not streaming were social.

Doe reported in the Times Educational Supplement (30 January, 1976) that teachers' reasons for introducing mixed ability grouping included being convinced of the social or academic benefits by research results, or by their own pilot schemes, or by the conviction that this was the only genuine approach to comprehensive education. Reasons included greater social integration, which gives pupils more confidence and stability; improved relationships between staff and pupils; improved attainment resulting from higher expectations; staff relationships improved where shared problems replaced professional jealousies; and increased enjoyment and output of work from all pupils.

Clearly, there are general benefits resulting from mixed ability organization which can be expected in all subjects. Hull (1978) argues that pupils no longer feel judged, stigmatized or categorized. Those who would be members of lower streams no longer feel rejected by the selection process. In the mixed ability class under a system that allows pupils to progress at their own speed, skills can be acquired, practised and refined highly efficiently. Davies (1975) claims that the lower stream pupil whose self-concept was so inexorably fulfilling the expectations of those who streamed him may now feel the challenge of trying to reach his own personal ceiling of achievement without being constantly reminded that his ceiling is below that of others. Thompson (1975) concluded that non-streaming logically leads to individualized learning.

This is important because it implies that each pupil learns by doing and is moving at his own pace.

PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS OF MIXED ABILITY TEACHING

The Mixed Ability Teaching Project (1975-1978) conducted a survey to evaluate mixed ability grouping in the light of its apparent pay-offs, the problems encountered and the degree to which such problems could be resolved. A total of twenty-nine schools in five areas of the country took part. All were comprehensive schools with different lengths of experience of mixed ability teaching. Approximately 500 teachers were interviewed about what they were aiming to achieve in their mixed ability classes and the approaches they were using. Broader issues of policy, including reasons for adopting mixed ability organization, methods of allocating pupils to groups, resources and constraints were discussed with heads. Reid et al (1981) reported that there was a fair measure of common ground concerning the constraints identified by teachers on the effective operation of mixed ability teaching. The lack of materials suitable for teaching a wide ability range and the difficulties of producing quality materials in quantity without adequate ancilliary staff were widely reported. Large classes were considered to increase the difficulties of mixed ability work, although these were generally accepted as an inevitable fact of life, due to the population explosion. By far the most frequently stressed constraint concerned teaching methods. In the words of one teacher, "we teach mixed ability groups but we do not do mixed ability teaching." (Reid et al, 1981, p. 5). The abilities and the attitudes of teachers were also frequently identified as obstructing the development of effective mixed ability work; reference was made to their natural inhibitions, prejudice and conservatism to an inability to respond creatively to change. The biggest variable is the teacher, the biggest constraint the ability of the teacher. Difficulty in finding time and the expertise to prepare teachers for approaches required in teaching unstreamed groups was widely reported. Despite these constraints, it was reported that mixed ability grouping was receiving more and more support, on the evidence of both experience and a growing body of research.

SUBJECT DIFFERENCES

Some subjects are perceived as generally suitable for a mixed ability approach and others regarded as largely unsuitable. Reid et al (1981)

reported that the humanities were commonly viewed as providing excellent opportunities for mixed ability work, while modern languages and mathematics were considered to present problems which were regarded as insuperable by many of those who taught mixed ability classes. An important factor which affects how appropriate a subject is for mixed ability teaching is its perceived structure. Teachers of mathematics, physics and modern languages, where pupils are required to work through a specific body of knowledge, felt that mixed ability teaching presented problems, whereas historians and geographers reported fewer problems. In subjects where other resources such as worksheets, workbooks, pamphlets, films, tapes, etc. were available, mixed ability teaching was possible, whereas when the teacher was perceived as the central or major resource of the classroom, fewer possibilities were seen.

MIXED ABILITY HISTORY

Mixed ability teaching is one development which history teachers regard with a suspicion which is slow to lift. Probably this is due to the fact that they are in doubt concerning the teaching methodology to be adopted in classes where the spread of ability is wide. Davies (1975) explained that when they introduced unstreamed groups in the History Department of their high school, they were not sure whether they had to aim their lessons at the average ability, in the hope that all the group would be able to follow their lessons. They considered splitting the group into subdivisions and teaching each separately, but that was tantamount to internal streaming. They foresaw problems of obtaining textbooks which would be suitable for use with unstreamed classes. The main question at the back of their minds was, "How would we, as teachers, face the problem of teaching these groups?" They attempted several approaches. Worksheet research and independent, original, imaginative follow-up tended to be the one most utilized.

Hull (1978) gives a report on the experiences of David Lister High School. Groups in the first year (12-14 years of age) are taught in classes containing a full ability range. All pupils are offered a wide choice of optional subjects for study in the second (14-15 years of age) and third (15-16 years of age). Among those opting to continue their study of History, the full ability range is accurately reflected. In these second and third years work continues in mixed ability groups. To the crucial question, "How can a teaching strategy be designed for mixed ability

classes that allows for individual progress and learning?", the following answers are given: single worksheet, games and simulations, open-ended questions and the graded worksheet. Hull is convinced that graded worksheets do seem to provide one succesful method of both meeting the demands of the mixed ability situation and at the same time, achieving the objective of the new skill-based History.

Birt (1976), in talking to secondary History teachers in various parts of England, was struck by the vehemence with which they outlined the practical problems of the mixed ability situation. A common 'solution' was the choice of class material pitched to the ability median of the class. Gifted pupils found the material wholly undemanding, and boredom set in. Many of the academically less able had reading problems and found the material incomprehensible at times, and hence equally boring. One reaction to this has been the move towards 'individualized learning'. Workcards and individual projects were used. Class entity and group work were also used in conjunction with individual projects. Games and simulations, source materials, open ended questions and model making are some of the approaches used to teach history to mixed ability groups.

Davies' (1975) conclusion is that teaching history to unstreamed groups can work, if it is rooted in two foundations: hard work and a preparedness to see pupils as individuals. Constant readjustment is called for to deal with children of diverse abilities and different problems have to be tackled in different ways at the same time.

In the final part of this thesis, further attention will be given to strategies and techniques for dealing with mixed ability classes in history teaching.

Towards the beginning of this chapter, it was stated that as a result of the population explosion, there are large numbers of pupils to be handled. To reduce the wide range of attainment, groups have to be formed. In order to form groups in history classes, passages have to be selected from history books and their difficulty levels need to be assessed before reading comprehension tests can be given.

CHAPTER 2

READING DIFFICULTY INDICES

History textbooks have been criticized for repetitiveness, dullness, difficultness, authoritarianism, bias and so on, yet they are not abandoned. Because of the general inadequacy of materials in history rooms, textbooks are an important resource. Teachers are faced with an ever-increasing accumulation of books and other written materials which differ widely in content, style and difficulty. On many occasions they have to select books for use by pupils on projects and assignments. Sometimes they have to extract passages from books which they will use to test skills which have been acquired by their pupils. In order to do that, teachers need to have objective means of selecting and organizing material suitable for particular pupils. The study of readability might be of particular benefit since it provides a systematic basis on which to judge the appropriateness of reading material for children of various abilities. In the section which follows, considerable use has been made of a useful study by Gilliland (1972), especially chapters 1 and 8.

READABILITY

In essence, readability implies the grade-level difficulty of reading materials. It involves the problem of telling whether a particular piece of writing is likely to be readable to a particular group of readers. Various educationists have suggested detailed alternative definitions of readability.

Dale and Chall (1948) cited in Gilliland, 1972, pp. 12-13 define readability as "the sum total (including interactions) of all those elements within a given piece of printed material that affects the success which a group of readers have with it. The success is the extent to which they understand it, read it at optimum speed and find it interesting."

English and English (1958) define readability as "the quality of a written or printed communication that makes it easy for a given class of persons to understand its meaning or that induces them to continue reading." (Cited in Gilliland, 1972, p. 14.)

According to McLaughlin (1968) readability is "the degree to which a given class of people find certain reading matter compelling and, necessarily, comprehensible." (Cited in Gilliland, 1972, p. 14.)

The definitions given above differ with regard to the aspects of readability they emphasize. English and English (1958) mention persistence at reading and comprehension as the principal factors. They lay emphasis on the text and its properties, rather than the reader. On the other hand, McLaughlin (1968) (cited in Gilliland, 1972, p. 14) emphasizes the degree to which the text compels the reader to read and comprehend. In other words, the characteristics of the reader, which were disregarded by English and English (1958) are stressed by McLaughlin (1968). The definition which seems to emphasize all three aspects of the reading process, namely understanding, fluency and interest is that given by Dale and Chall (1948). Gilliland (1972, p. 13) gives the following explanation of these aspects of the reading process:

Fluency is connected with the perceptual aspects. It means the extent to which a person can read a given text at optimum speed. It reflects such aspects of reading as the ease with which the text may be seen and the ease with which letters and words can be identified. These factors relate to primary reading skills which a reader must have already acquired if he is to comprehend what he reads. It also refers to the relationship between the linguistic skill of the reader and the syntactic complexity of the text.

Interest is affected by motivational aspects. The degree of motivation which readers show towards books will depend upon the nature and quality of interest, the sources of the interest and motivation, and variations in focus of interest. Interest will depend upon how the reader feels at the time, what he needs to know and the influence of his previous experiences. In addition, factors in the book (size, design of the cover, illustrations) have been found to influence the extent to which a reader enjoys and understands what he reads.

Comprehension is concerned with the meaning which is attached to the print and is dependant upon fluency and interest. The elements which lead to comprehension are the understanding of words and phrases, and the relating of ideas in the passage to the reader's experience.

From these definitions, it can be concluded that readability has to do with the interest or the ease with which a book can be read, and the extent to which the books can be read profitably will be determined largely by the way in which the reader and the text are matched. Since readability involves the interaction between many aspects of a reader and the books he reads, a review of the attempts to measure the way in which these factors interact is justified.

METHODS OF PREDICTING AND MEASURING READABILITY

Klare (1974) differentiates between predicting and measuring readability. According to him, because readability formulae do not require the actual participation by readers, they are predictive. Comprehension tests and judgements, on the other hand, require some kind of measurement of or by readers to determine the difficulty of certain material for a larger population of readers. Readability formulae, with their dependence on counts of language variables in a piece of writing predict readability, whereas comprehension tests and judgements measure readability.

Gilliland (1972) reported that from the beginning of this century, the study of readability has been concerned with the search for factors in the text which could be easily counted and incorporated into measures which are objective. These measures usually took the form of a formula and the procedures often involved lengthy calculations.

Klare (1963) described the chronological sequence in the development of formulae which reflects the aims and intentions of the designers. Between 1920 and 1934 formulae were crude and clumsy, but used aspects of the texts such as vocabulary range, and the number of prepositions or polysyllabic words. These early formulae were applied generally and gave only approximate ratings of the difficulty of the texts. Between 1934 and 1938, the formulae became more detailed and reflected a concern for greater accuracy and reliability. These measures involved the use of aspects of the text but required the laborious collection of statistics as well as lengthy calculations. During the period which extended from 1938 to 1953, efficiency and simplicity of use were the prime considerations. This was as a result of the fact that teachers and other workers who used them had limited time. Between 1953 and 1959 specialized formulae for particular purposes were de-

veloped. For instance, particular reading material such as childrens' books, or the level of abstractness in a passage were taken into consideration by developers. More recently, more accurate measures for predicting and controlling the difficulty of texts have been developed. The use of new methods such as charts and sentence completion procedures is fast gaining ground.

Klare (1974) groups the formulae and other devices for predicting readability under the following categories:

(i) Recalculations and revisions of existing formulae

(ii) New formulae, for general-purpose or special- purpose use.

(iii) Application aids, for both manual and machine use.

(iv) Predicting readability for foreign languages.

Gilliland (1972, p. 83) describes the methods of predicting and measuring readability under the following categories:

(i) Subjective assessment.

(ii) Objective question and answer techniques.

(iii) Tables and charts.

(iv) Sentence completion and cloze procedure.

(v) Formulae.

Although the categories are different, the formulae discussed under them are similar. The categories used in this study are those offered by Gilliland (1972, pp. 85-108).

The various measures reflect the definitions of readability. Most researchers regard these three aspects of readability, namely (i) ease of reading; (ii) interest or compellingness; and (iii) ease of understanding, as alternatives and consequently each measure devised reflects only one of them. In that case an explanation of what is being measured would be helpful.

When emphasis is on ease of reading, readability is measured by use of word recognition speed, error rates, number of eye fixations per second and so on. When referring to interest or compellingness, readability is measured by reference to human interest, density of ideas, and aesthetic judgements of style. When defined as ease of understanding or compre-

hension, measures have referred to characteristics of words and sentences, such as their length and complexity. Gilliland (1972) warns that the methods devised for measuring readability must be easy to apply, easy to mark, easy to calculate and accurate.

(i) Subjective judgements

When judgements that are subjective are used, the assessor haphazardly casts a glance through the pages, using such clues as content, style, range of vocabulary, format and organization as a basis for judgement. Coltham (1970) reported on the proceedings of the conference, 'History in Schools, 8-14', held at C F Mott College of Education from 27 March to 1 April, 1969. One working party was engaged on considering the assessment of history books. The assessment was largely subjective. A schedule was decided upon and used to assess the books. Amongst other things, readability was assessed. Sentence structure, choice of words, rhythm, frequency of special terminology and explanation of the latter, were assessed. An age span was given in terms of a combination of chronological and mental age. For example, 8-10 indicates that a book is thought appropriate for an average child of 9, a less able child of 10 or an able child of 8, all ages being approximate. Because the judgement used is subjective, it is therefore unreliable. Gilliland (1972) suggests that such factors as ease of reading and familiarity of vocabulary could be more reliably assessed by looking at childrens' performances on different objective measures.

(iii) Question and answer techniques

These are used to measure the difficulty of a passage and as a criterion against which other measures can be compared. Although the procedure measures comprehension of content, is more impartial and controlled than subjective estimates, it has several limitations which restrict its utility. The content of a question may be simple, but complex phrasing may interfere with the reader's ability to provide the correct answer. Alternatively, the phrasing may be simple, but it may call for a very sophisticated interpretation of the text. The use of time restrictions has been found to affect many people in test situations. Objective questions are restricted in their use because responses have been found to be afected by the range and type of alternatives offered to the reader. Gilliland (1972) maintains that these methods assess only the

extent to which the reader can pick out the content of the passage, but do not reflect the other components of readability, such as fluency. He does not recommend the use of question and answer techniques for use in readability because of their dubious value. On the contrary, Klare (1974) contends that comprehension tests can provide desirable evidence of the reliability and validity of the scores they yield.

(iii) Graphs and charts

Graphs and charts are used to predict readability. Samples are selected from texts and the incidence of one or more factors is counted. Few tables and graphs have as yet been produced. Klare (1974) reported that Fry mentions a graph he claims is a way of saving the user's time and effort. Fry used the common formula of variables of syllables per 100 words and words per sentence and actually referred to his method as a formula, even though no formula as such was presented. The user simply enters the counts of the variables in a graph and reads the readability grade score directly from it.

The Mugford Readability Chart (Klare, 1974; Gilliland, 1972) uses the common variables of word length in syllables and sentence length in words but also takes repetition into account. Deriving a score involves only the addition of four whole numbers. McLaughlin (1968) proposed a Readability Table which is based on a number of assumptions about the factors which are useful in measuring readability, the theoretical models for word and sentence comprehension, and the interaction between word and sentence factors.

(iv) Sentence completion and cloze procedure

Gilliland (1972) gives the impression that there is a difference between the completion of sentences and the cloze procedure, yet the skills expected of the pupils are the same. In the case of sentence completion, sentences are taken from the passage and certain words omitted. The degree of comprehension is taken to be the extent to which a person who has read the passage can replace the omissions correctly.

The use of the cloze procedure invloves the deletion of a number of words randomly determined or at fixed intervals, commonly every fifth word. Subjects are then asked to complete the passages and the number of correct responses is scored. In contrasting passages, those on which

higher scores were obtained will be regarded as more readable than those on which lower scores were obtained.

The value of the cloze procedure as a measure of readability has been stressed by writers such as Bormuth (1963), Klare (1966) and McLeod (1970). Klare (1974) explains that where cloze scores on a larger number of passages covering a wide range of difficulty are available, they can be used as criteria in formula development. Gilliland (1972) claims that the cloze procedure, if applied systematically, can provide the readers with a means of judging the suitability of different materials for their level of attainment.

(v) Readability formulae

These are the most frequently produced and widely accepted methods for measuring readability. Some notion of the acceptance of readability formulae for predicting comprehension test scores, can be seen from the development and popular use, up to 1960, of over thirty such formulae, plus at least ten variations of these (Klare, 1974).

The application of a formula involves the selection of a sample from a text, the counting of some easily identifiable characteristics, such as the average number of words per sentence or the proportion of polysyllabic words in the sample, and then performing a calculation to produce a score. The score indicates the difficulty of the sample of the text. If the sampling procedures advocated by the constructors are carefully followed, it is assumed that this score reflects the difficulty of the whole text (Stokes, 1978; Klare, 1974; Gilliland, 1972).

Readability tests are numerous and almost all are American in origin. For the purposes of this study the Fog Index and the Flesch Formula will be discussed in depth. The Fog Index has been selected because it is the one chosen as an example in the Open University Reading Development Course. The Flesch Formula has been included because it was used by the Schools Council Effective Use of Reading Project. In addition to that, both indices are the most widely used (Klare, 1974) in the history of readability measurement.

The Flesch Formula

In 1943 (Klare, 1974) Rudolph Flesch published his first formula. He de-

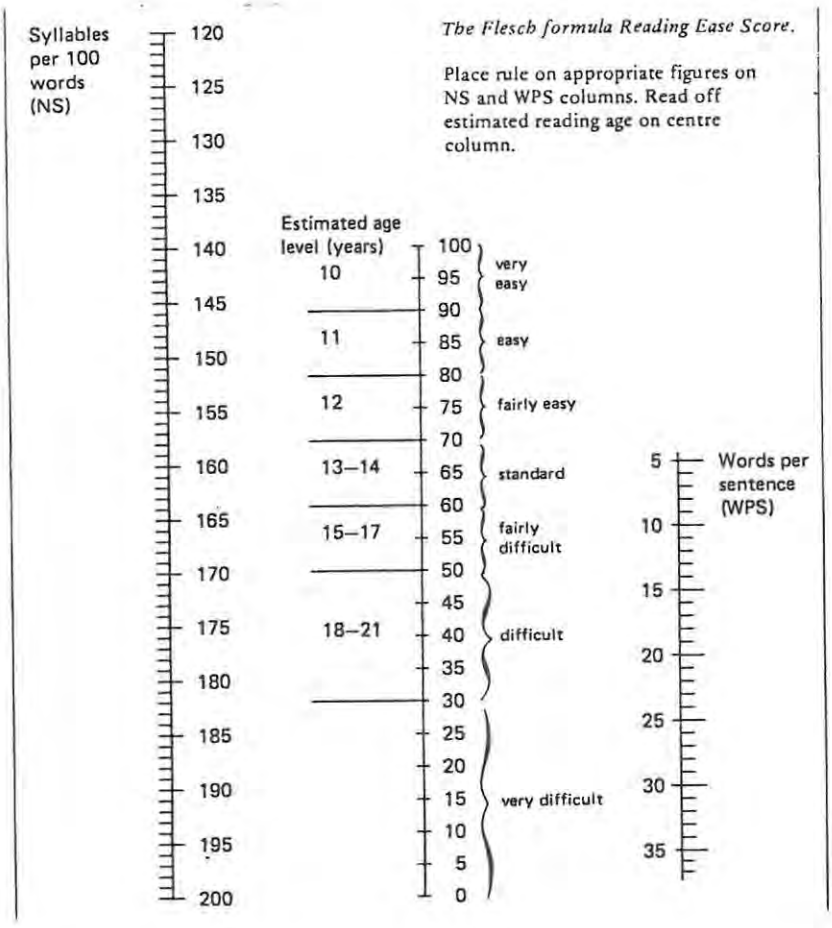
signed it for general adult reading matter and he claimed that it gave proper attention to abstract words as well as sentence length. Flesch found that his count of affixes was time consuming, that the count of personal references was misleading, and that the scoring system was unsatisfactory. He consequently provided a second formula, known as the Reading Ease.

The instructions for using this formula are as follows (Kerry and Sands, 1982; Lucas, 1974; Klare, 1974; Stokes, 1978):

(i) Select 100 word samples from the text.
(ii) Determine the number of syllables per 100 words.
(iii) Determine the average number of words per sentence.
(iv) Calculate the following equation -

Reading Ease = 206. 835 - .846 wl - 1.015 sl
where wl is word length and sl is sentence length.

Kerry and Sands (1982) suggest the following table which allows one to work out the reading level of a passage on the Flesch Formula without any complicated calculations.



To read off estimated reading age, a ruler is placed on appropriate figures on NS and WPS columns.

A practical example

Given a sample of 100 words:

> These are the most frequently produced and widely accepted methods for measuring readability. The application of a formula involves the selection of a sample from a text, the counting of some easily identifiable characteristics, such as the average number of words per sentence or the proportion of polysyllabic words in the sample, and then performing a calculation to produce a score. Gilliland (1972) maintains that this score indicates the difficulty of the sample of the text. If the sampling procedures advocated by the constructors are carefully followed, it is assumed that this score reflects the difficulty of the whole text.

Number of syllables = 176

Average number of words per sentence = 25

Reading Ease = 206.835 - (.846 x 176) - (1.015 x 25)
= 32.564

The Flesch Formula provides a score in terms of an index figure between 100 and 0 (Stokes, 1978). It is American practice to give more meaning to this scale by dividing it into bands, variously labelled as 'high school' or 'college graduate' level.

Using Flesch's pattern of reading ease scores the sample passage is difficult and according to Kerry and Sands' table, the passage is suitable for age level 18-21, which is 'college graduate' level.

The Flesch Formula measures style and not content, organization and format. Lucas (1974) maintains that despite this fact, the Flesch Formula is very useful because vocabulary load and the length of sentences is important. The teacher may find that books allegedly of secondary school standard are extremely difficult indeed. Arkell (1982) reported that Flesch's Formula was reputed to be a reliable guide to the degree of abstraction in a particular passage and that this formula was soon widely used in business, government and journalism.

Numerous validation studies involving the Flesch Formula are to be found.

According to Gilliland (1972) these studies use different criteria, such as comprehension test scores, expert judgement and speed of reading. Klare reported correlations between the Reading Ease Formula and the Ojemann and Gray-Leary Reading Test of .82 and .55 respectively. He further reported studies showing correlations with expert judgement ranging from .61 to .84. The highest correlation reported (.98) was between the Flesch and the Dale.Chall readability formulae. Bormuth (1966) argued that it might be possible to improve on these correlations if formulae could be revised.

Gunning's Fog Index

Rather than counting the number of syllables as in Flesch's work, Gunning proposed counting words of three or more syllables. These he termed 'hard words' (Klare, 1974). He developed his Index in 1952. It measures readability according to the number of words per sentence and the proportion of words with three or more syllables. The instructions for calculating this formula are as follows (Stokes, 1978; Klare, 1964; Gilliland, 1972):

(i) Select samples of 100 words.

(ii) Determine the average sentence length (number of words divided by the number of sentences).

(iii) Determine the percentage of hard words by counting the number of words of three or more syllables.

(iv) Obtain the Fog Index by totalling these two factors and multiplying by .4.

A practical example

Using the passage on page 23 the Fog Index can be calculated as follows:

Average sentence length = 25

Number of long words = 23

25 + 23 x -4
48 x .4

Score = 19.2

The Fog Index gives the reading grade level required for understanding the material. The grade levels are American in origin and grade 4 is

roughly equivalent to Standard 2; grade 8 is roughly equivalent to Standard 6 and grade 12 is roughly equivalent to Standard 10. The sample passage is, therefore, very difficult and meant for university students. It should be noted, however, that the Fog Index has a tendency to inflate scores.

THE USE OF FORMULAE

Stokes (1978) cited in Arkell, 1982, p. 25, warns that though readability formulae may be regarded as worthwhile research tools, they are for the casual user so varied and are used for such diverse purposes, that recommendations are likely to be either too simple to be accurate, or too complex to be convenient. It is essential that users of readability formulae should make themselves fully aware of the assumptions and characteristics of any formula to be used, and that they exercise more caution, both in the choice of formula and in the interpretation of results, than has hitherto been usual.

Arkell (1982) argues that if Readability formulae are not handled sensitively with knowledge and understanding, they may prove very misleading. According to Harrison (1979), as cited in Arkell (1982, p. 25) "Readability formulae offer...an objective estimate of text difficulty which...can then be used as one factor in the decision about whether or not a book or passage is likely to cause problems for a particular class or group. It is incumbent upon the teacher to use such information profitably, and to be aware of its limitations." Harrison warned that Readability Formulae are unable to predict precise reading ages. It is sensible to regard a formula score as correct to within a limit of no more than one year.

Arkell's conclusion is that history teachers should use readability tests only to supplement their individual and collective judgements on the selection of reading material suitable for their pupils.

CHAPTER 3

THE PRETEST

In the chapter on grouping procedures, trends in grouping policies within schools in countries such as Sweden, Belgium, Italy, West Germany, Britain and the United States of America were discussed. Nothing was said about the grouping policies used in the Ciskei. Because the setting of the present study is the Ciskei, a discussion of the grouping procedures used in Ciskeian secondary schools is essential. Interviews with teachers and principals of schools yielded some information about this subject.

Ciskeian secondary schools are comprehensive and cater for all children from a given geographical area. However, once the pupils enter the neighbourhood comprehensive school, they still need to be divided into classes. Class groups are formed by selecting pupils at random from a year's intake, with the result that classes contain pupils representative of the whole ability range. There may be one or more pupils of very low ability who may require intensive remedial help, as well as children of very high ability in the same class.

Children of a given age range are taught according to similar syllabuses which the majority can reasonably be expected to complete satisfactorily within a school year. At the end of the year those children who have fulfilled this expectation are moved forward to the next standard. Pupils who fail examinations at the end of the year repeat a standard.

In the Republic of South Africa, for standards 5, 6 and 7, a common curriculum is followed. In certain circumstances, two subject choices are allowed in anticipation for the final field of study which will be followed in standards 8, 9 and 10. For example, if a child anticipates following the commercial field, he has to do Accountancy in standards 6 and 7, plus an additional subject chosen by him. This arrangement becomes problematic when a child wishes to change his field of study. In the Ciskei, pupils follow the same common curriculum with no choice of subjects.

In standards 8, 9 and 10 there are two kinds of differentiation. For white schools, the following fields of study are followed: natural

sciences, humanities, commercial, home economics, technical, agriculture, performing arts and general. The same fields of study, with the exception of performing arts are followed in the Ciskei. These fields were recommended by the Differentiation Committee in their report (HSRC, 1971).

The Joint Matriculation Board which is responsible for maintaining standards for Matriculation Exemption has stipulated certain curriculum requirements. These requirements are identical throughout the country and Ciskeian schools have also to comply with them.

A matriculation candidate registers for six subjects which have to spread over at least four groupings. The subject groupings available are the following:

A - Official Languages
B - Mathematics
C - Biology, Physical Science
D - Other Languages
E - Social Sciences (such as History, Geography, Biblical Studies)
F - Approximately 30 subjects consisting of the aspects of the various fields

A child must include at least two subjects from his field of study. For example, a candidate following the humanities course must choose at least two subjects from Group E. History is in Group E.

If pupils do not plan to enter a university or some demanding tertiary education diploma, they may choose to sit a school leaving certificate examination. In these circumstances, the grouping requirements are not as stringent.

In order to cater for the wide range of abilities, the courses themselves are differentiated. Subjects are offered at two levels. Pupils who perform fairly well in a subject, enrol for that subject at a higher grade. Standard Grade is meant for pupils who do not have a strong aptitude for that subject. For the junior secondary course, the content is the same for both levels. The difference is on the skills expected. Standard Grade pupils are expected to function at the level of knowledge (basic skill), whereas Higher Grade pupils are expected to show mastery of intellectual skills. For instance, a greater understanding of the theoretical background of the syllabus topics is expected.

In Matriculation examinations there are some differences on the content,

as well as the skills expected of candidates registered for Higher and Standard Grades. In order to obtain an exemption, at least three subjects have to be taken at Higher Grade, but for a school leaving certificate, only one subject (the pupil's mother tongue), must be written at the Higher Grade. These stipulations have a direct effect on the history groups that have to be taught. Some pupils take history because they are studying the humanities. They need history because it gives them a greater understanding of society. Because history is in their field of study, these candidates have considerable ability in it. They register for history at the Higher Grade. Others are not registered for the humanities field of study. They need history because they have a shortage of subjects that would qualify them for their Matriculation Certificate. This group could be less motivated than the first one. Others are not trying to get an exemption. They only want a school leaving certificate. By implication, this group of pupils is not as able as those who fall into the first two groups. At times, other pupils take history at Standard Grade, although they are bright. They already have three Higher Grade subjects and include history as one of the remaining subjects not needed at this higher level. The result is that in history groups there is an interplay of motivation and ability. The situation is worse in standards 5, 6 and 7 because history is compulsory.

The history groups taught by Ciskeian secondary school teachers can safely be classified as mixed ability in the sense that in all groups, pupils of wide ranging abilities and motivation are found. There is a need, therefore, to help Ciskeian secondary school teachers with grouping procedures and graded activities for the wide range of pupils' abilities in their classes.

THE ORIGINAL COMPREHENSION TEST

The aim of this investigation is twofold: first, to develop and apply a reading comprehension test, with passages of varying difficulty. The performance of pupils in the test would serve as a guide when the children are put into groups. Secondly, the aim is to suggest group activities which could be done by history pupils in such groups.

Two researchers worked together during the initial stage of the investigation. Another Master's research student was working on a research topic

which involved readability formulae as a method of assessing the appropriateness of resource material for a standard 10 class. For that reason, the research instrument was developed as a joint test to be used both by the researcher and the fellow research student.

The first stage of the investigation was to select a series of passages from school history resources which were of varying difficulty. The reason was to see if a reading comprehension test, with passages of varying difficulty, could be used, to group pupils. If this worked, then the reading comprehension test could be used by teachers at the beginning of the year, when little or nothing was known about the children of a given standard.

Initially, seven passages which were expected to be of varying difficulty were selected from resource books, designed for schools, on the American Civil War and the American War of Independence. A full text of these passages is presented in the Appendices 1-7. The passages were selected to cover a period which the pupils had not covered before. The aim of the exercise was to test the extent to which pupils could understand what was being communicated in the passages and be able to make some use of the material or ideas contained in it. Participants, therefore, should have to rely on their own independent reading and comprehension skills without the extra support of their teachers, which could have been given in previous lessons on topics already prescribed in syllabuses. Further, if pupils were to be tested on passages which covered a period they had studied, then, the validity of the test would be threatened. Prior knowledge of the material could cause changes in the subjects' sensitivity to the experimental variables and this could cloud the true effects of the experimental treatment (Cohen and Manion, 1980, p. 167).

To test the varying difficulty of the passages, readability formulae were explored. In the preceding chapter, it was stated that readability can be measured by searching for factors in the text which could be easily counted and incorporated into measures which are objective. These measures usually take the form of a formula and a calculation. The researcher relied on Reading Ease Tests. Flesch's Reading Ease Formula and Gunning's Fog Index were selected for the reason that they are the most widely used (Klare, 1974) in the history of readability measurement. Further, the two indices do not involve complex calculations. Because of variations in difficulty levels which are commonly found with a book, two

passages were taken from each book. Some easily identifiable characteristics, which were demanded by the formulae themselves, were counted. Calculations were done to produce scores. The resultant two scores from each book were averaged to give a single score for each passage. The difficulty levels of the passages are tabulated below.

TABLE i
READING EASE SCORES ACCORDING TO GUNNING'S FOG INDEX

Passage	Topic	Score
1	The Loyalists	10.20
2	The Olive Branch Petition	11.52
3	Alliances against Britain	12.58
4	The Boston Tea Party	13.04
5	Abraham Lincoln	13.86
6	President Thomas Jefferson	14.29
7	The American Revolution	16.26

TABLE ii
READING EASE SCORES ACCORDING TO THE FLESCH FORMULA

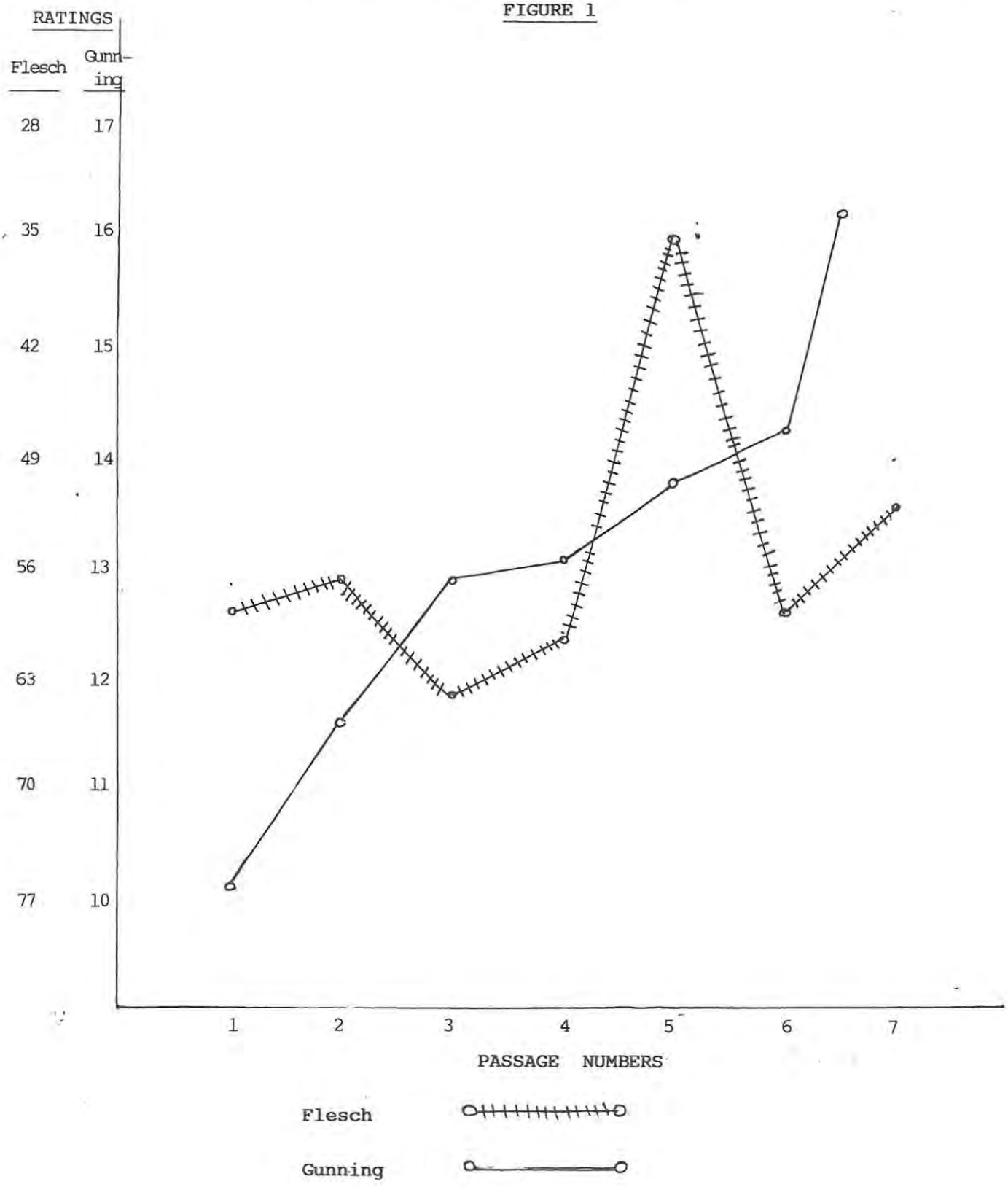
Passage	Topic	Score
3	Alliances against Britain	64.00
4	The Boston Tea Party	60.50
1	The Loyalists	58.50
6	President Thomas Jefferson	58.50
2	The Olive Branch Petition	56.50
7	The American Revolution	52.00
5	Abraham Lincoln	35.00

It should be remembered that higher scores derived from the Flesch Formula represent easier passages and lower scores are indicative of more difficult passages.

The graph below represents the Reading Ease scores for the seven passages. The vertical axis has been used for both Gunning and Flesch scores. The scores are in different scales but can be interpreted in order of difficulty.

READING EASE SCORES FOR THE SEVEN PASSAGES

FIGURE 1



According to Gunning's Fog Index, the easiest passage is 1, with a reading ease score of 10.20. The most difficult one is 7, with a reading ease score of 16.26. When Gunning's scores were compared with Flesch's, there were differences in their ratings. Flesch's easiest passage was 3, with a reading score of 64.00. The most difficult passage was 5, with a reading ease score of 35.00. If the passages are arranged from easy to difficult, they reflect the following pattern:

Gunning :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flesch :	3	4	1	6	2	7	5

The differences in these ratings confirm what was claimed by Harrison (1979). Readability formulae offer an objective estimate of text difficulty. They are unable to predict precise reading ages. The researcher, mindful of the limitations of the Fog Index and Flesch Formula, used the reading ease scores to supplement her judgement in the decision about whether or not the passages were likely to cause problems for her sample.

It was felt that if the seven passages were to be used in an increasing order of difficulty, pupils would have problems with understanding. They would have to jump backwards and forwards, between the American Civil War and the American War of Independence. Consequently, the number of passages was cut down to four and all four passages were linked to a particular topic: The American War of Independence. Further, it was felt that, if all seven passages were to be used, respondents would need a long period to complete the exercise. They might even have to respond in stages. The danger in this case was the possible loss of subjects through dropping out (Cohen and Manion, 1980, p. 166). The difficulty levels of the passages finally selected are tabulated below:

TABLE iii
READING EASE SCORES FOR THE FINALLY SELECTED PASSAGES

Original Passage	Final Passage	Topic	Gunning	Flesch
4	A	The Boston Tea Party	13.04	60.50
2	B	The Olive Branch Petition	11.52	56.50
1	C	The Loyalists	10.20	58.50
3	D	Alliances against Britain	12.58	64.00

The final arrangement of the passages is not according to difficulty levels.

This would not have been possible, because of the differences in ratings of Flesch and Gunning scores. It was, therefore, decided to arrange the passages according to the sequence of events. This would help pupils understand the topic better. After the elimination of three passages, the easy to difficult arrangement of the passages resulted in the following pattern:

Gunning :	C	B	D	A
Flesch :	D	A	C	B

The next stage of the investigation was to develop the research instrument. A full text of the original questions is presented in Appendix 8. Questions that test the reading comprehension levels of children were devised to reflect some of the main points listed by Oosthuizen (1981, p. 15): pupils understand facts when they are related to one another, when they recognise them in a new context, or when they are stated in different words, when they distinguish between relevant and irrelevant material, when they recognise contradictions and when they separate main ideas from supporting facts.

The test included both literal and interpretative questions. Literal questions are questions that can be answered by drawing responses directly from the text. They included questions such as the following:

> What did the American merchants do to show their anger when tea was sent directly to America?
>
> In their petition to the King, what two things did the colonists ask for?
>
> According to the passage, what was the effect of the American Revolution on human relations?
>
> What did Lord North offer the rebels?

Interpretative questions required pupils to infer or generalize on the basis of the text that they had read. Questions such as the following were asked:

> Why would the price be reduced by sending the tea directly to America?
>
> A tea party usually means people sitting in a house and drinking tea. Why were the events in this passage called tea parties?

> Explain why the letter was called the Olive Branch Petition?
>
> America decided to set up a Committee for Secret Correspondence to negotiate with France and Spain. Why was the correspondence secret?

Answers to the interpretative questions could not be drawn from the passage. Readers were expected to read between lines and show their understanding of the text.

One question with answers to be provided in tabular form was included in the original test. It ensured that the ability to understand facts rather than the handling of language to communicate the facts was being measured. Pupils who understood the facts, but could not communicate them, were accommodated by this type of question. The question is reproduced here:

> As the war continued, Britain found she had more and more enemies. List the countries which were against her and then, say why each country was against Britain. Use the table to give your answer.

Country	**Reason for being Britain's enemy**
American Colonies	
France	
Spain	
Holland	
Sweden	
Denmark	
Russia	

Some questions which tested fundamental concepts were included. It was expected that the context in which the concepts appeared could help the pupil determine the meaning. Two examples of such questions are given here:

> Explain what a civil war is.
> People who are rebellious are called rebels. What does a rebel mean?

In other circumstances, words which were likely to cause difficulty were defined in a glossary place. Pupils were expected to respond in answer books which would be supplied. The original research instrument was then ready for administration to a preliminary sample of pupils to improve the test after some practical experience with it.

The pretest was administered to a sample of twenty standard 7 pupils from Jabavu Secondary School in the Alice circuit. The particular school was chosen for its proximity to the researcher. The pretest sample did not take part in the final exercise. The test was graded by the researcher. Pupils performed badly, especially on interpretative questions. For instance, to the question, "Why would the price be reduced by sending the tea directly to America?", there were responses such as:

> Because the tea carried in Townshend was cheaper than the smuggled tea sending in America.
>
> Because the sales should be increased.
>
> To help the private trading of.
>
> The price would be reduced because of bankruptcy in East India Company.

These responses reveal language difficulties. Respondents were trying to get abstract ideas across, when language structure command was not sufficient.

When respondents were asked to explain why the letter was called the Olive Branch Petition, there were explanations such as:

> Because it was a letter of a Olive Branch Council to the King.
>
> Because the letter was written by a person who liked olive branch and sword in his hands.
>
> Because during the first year, few if any, Rebels fought for freedom from the Empire.
>
> Olive Branch petition is a petition of cruel persons.

Respondents explained that the civil war is:

> a war which took more than seven weeks' war
>
> a war between Loyalists and Rebels
>
> A hard war

When asked to explain why a Committee for Secret Correspondence was set up, responses included the following:

They were so short of money and materials in the early part of the war that it had to overcome its fears.

Because America have no love with Britain and they were ready to help.

The correspondence was secret because it had to overcome its fears and set up.

Americans decided to set that because they fear to overcome the early part of the war.

The results of the pretest are tabulated below.

TABLE iv
PRETEST RESULTS (n = 20)

Passage	Difficulty order	Maximum Score	Mean Score	Average Percentage	Range
A	4	20	7.10	35.5	0-12
B	2	15	1.75	11.7	0- 6
C	1	10	3.85	38.5	0- 8
D	3	15	6.20	41.3	1-12

In Table iii it was shown that the easiest passage was D with a reading ease score of 64.00. The most difficult passage was B with a reading ease score of 56.50. It is important to see how the pupils scored in relation to the difficulty level of the passages. In Table iv the average scores of the pretest sample on each passage are given. In the table which appears below the passages are arranged so as to reflect the increasing order of difficulty.

TABLE v
COMPARISON BETWEEN PUPILS' SCORES AND DIFFICULTY LEVEL OF PASSAGES

	D	A	C	B
Flesch rating	64.0	60.5	58.5	56.5
Average percentage	41.3	35.5	38.5	11.7

It should be noted that passages C and B, which rated very closely on the Flesch scores, do not rate similarly in the pretest scores. The sudden drop from 38.5 to 11.7 is remarkable. Probably the questions in passage B were very difficult. The title of passage B itself was abstract, 'The Olive Branch Petition'.

Because, finally, amongst other things, the intention is to use the material in order to group pupils quickly, the researcher arranged the pretest sample into three clusters, according to their scores. The resultant clusters were as follows:

TABLE vi
CLUSTERS RESULTING FROM PRETEST RESULTS
(n = 20)

Scores	22 - 7	16 - 19	6 - 15
n	6	6	8

This suggests that even with the first research instrument, crude as it might be, clusters of pupils of a comparable attainment level and of reasonable size for group work could be formed. This is important because the aim of the study is to suggest ways of forming clusters suitable for history teaching.

After the test had been graded, it was decided to amend the research instrument. Difficult words were underlined and their meaning was explained immediately below the passage, before the questions were asked. The idea was to help pupils understand the content before attempting the questions. Spaces for respondents to write their answers were provided below each question. Marks carried by the questions were stated next to each question. The purpose was to help pupils estimate the amount of writing expected when answering the questions.

To help pupils with communication problems, new questions which required pupils to select the correct answer from a number of alternative answers were developed. Such questions included the following:

> If you were to describe Lord North, the British Prime Minister, which of these words would you choose? Underline three words. (worried, seeking revenge, contemptuous, helpful, angry, friendly)
>
> Up to the time the Americans sent the Olive Branch Petition, most of them wanted peace with Britain, to still be a colony of Britain, to break with Britain, to defeat Britian in a war, to be treated as equals, to have some say in their own government, to sink all British ships. (underline the four correct answers.)

In some new questions, respondents were required to calculate certain periods. For instance, "According to the passage, how many battles had there been before the Olive Branch Petition?"

"How long was it between the passing of the Punitive Acts and the sending of the Olive Branch Petition?"

The purpose was to have questions which fell between the literal and interpretative types. More interpretative questions were included. For instance, they were required to explain why General Gage would be worried about a store of arms owned by the rebels. To show their understanding of the phrase "tarred and feathered", respondents were asked to explain what would happen if someone tarred and feathered them.

After the necessary changes had been effected, the research instrument was considered ready for administration. The final version of the test is presented in Appendix 9.

CHAPTER 4

THE FINAL TEST

When the final version of the research instrument was ready, it was decided to administer it to a sample of the research population. The research population was delineated as all Standard 7 history pupils in the Alice inspection circuit. For practical reasons, it was impossible to administer the test to the entire population. It was, therefore, decided to select a specific number of schools in the Alice inspection circuit and to administer the test to all Standard 7 history pupils in those selected schools. The original sample consisted of four classes from three schools. There were 179 respondents distributed as follows:

TABLE vii
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS

GROUP	SCHOOL	VILLAGE	n
W	Impey Siwisa	Khwezana	39
X	Impey Siwisa	Khwezana	40
Y	Zweliyazuza	Msobomvu	55
Z	Amabhele	Rwarwa	45

The positions of the villages and the schools are shown on map 2.

The Standard 7 history teachers of the participating schools supervised the exercise, after the purpose and nature of the study had been explained to them. However, the test was marked by the researcher in order to ensure standardization of marking procedure.

The results of the test are tabulated below:

TABLE viii
PASSAGE 'A' RESULTS (MAXIMUM MARK 25)

(THE BOSTON TEA PARTY)

Group	n	m	Average percentage	Range
W	39	8.41	33.64	1-14
X	40	8.55	34.20	2-15
Y	55	8.17	32.68	3-15
Z	45	10.80	43.20	1-18

CISKEI


Hewu
Seymour
Keiskamahoek
Alice
Middledrift
KWT
MDANTSANE
Zwelitsha
MDANTSANE
Peddie
N
S
Scale 1:750 000
0 7 14 21

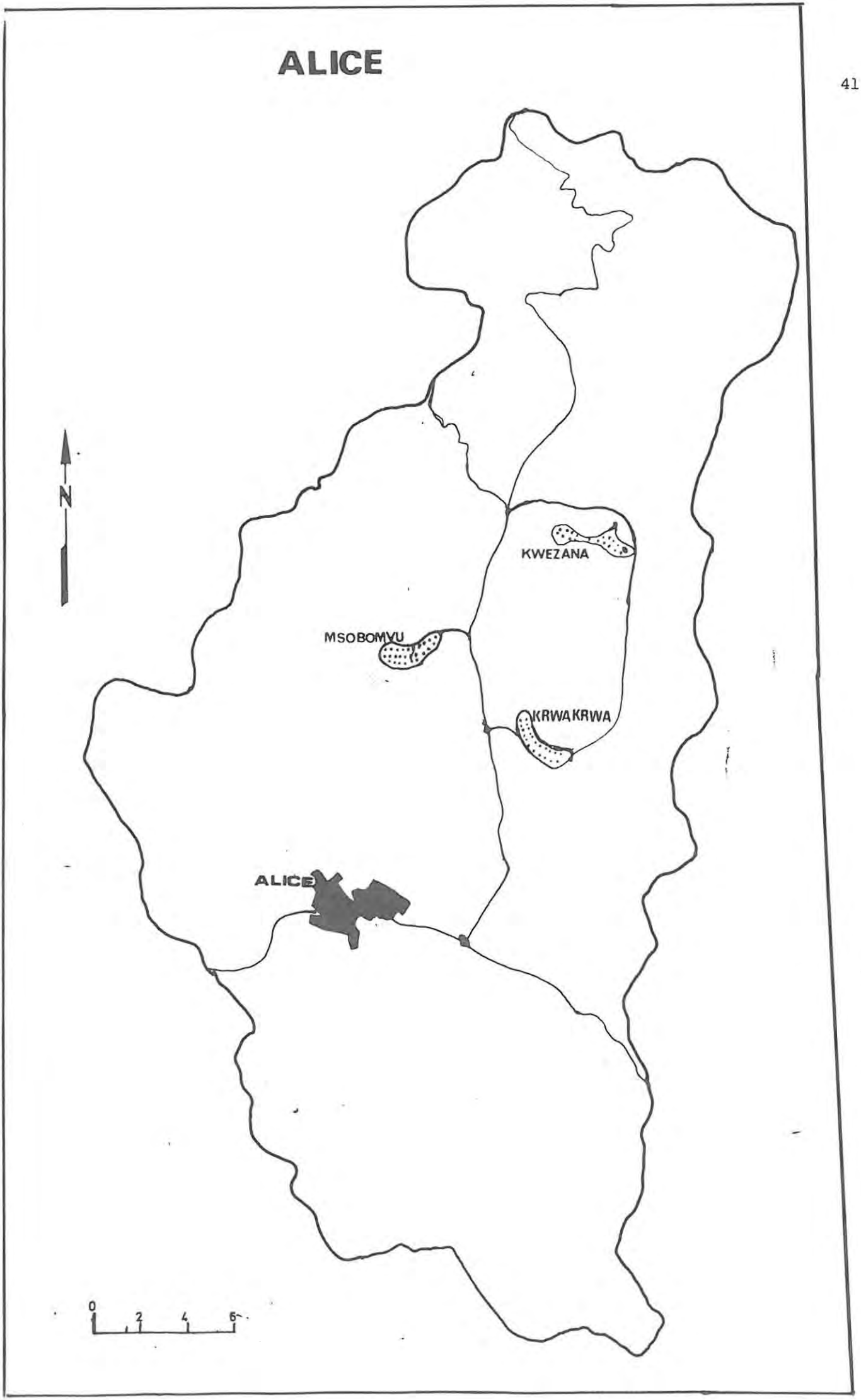

ALICE
N
KWEZANA
MSOBOMVU
KRWAKRWA
ALICE
0
2
4
6

TABLE ix
PASSAGE 'B' RESULTS (MAXIMUM MARK 25)

THE OLIVE BRANCH PETITION

Group	n	m	Average percentage	Range
W	39	4.08	16.30	0- 9
X	40	3.78	15.12	0-11
Y	55	4.82	19.28	0-13
Z	45	6.49	25.76	2-13

TABLE X
PASSAGE 'C' RESULTS (MAXIMUM MARK 15)

THE LOYALISTS

Group	n	m	Average percentage	Range
W	39	2.44	16.30	0- 6
X	40	11.13	74.20	1-15
Y	55	2.36	15.73	0- 7
Z	45	3.82	25.40	0- 8

TABLE xi
PASSAGE 'D' RESULTS (MAXIMUM MARK 15)

ALLIANCES AGAINST BRITAIN

Group	n	m	Average percentage	Range
W	39	2.31	15.40	0-11
X	40	3.78	25.20	2- 7
Y	55	2.09	13.93	0- 9
Z	45	3.84	25.60	0-12

TABLE xii
FULL TEST RESULTS (MAXIMUM MARK 80)

Group	n	m	Average percentage	Range
W	39	17.25	21.56	7-35
X	40	27.67	34.59	15-41
Y	55	17.41	21.77	6-37
Z	45	24.80	31.00	5-44

When the results were analysed, it was established that there was reasonable consistency across all the passages, except where group 'X' was concerned. Group 'Z' obtained the highest scores on each passage. The group that scored the lowest marks and occupied the last position at all times was 'Y'.

As can be seen in Table x, the scores of group 'X' for passage 'C' were noticeably higher than those of other groups, and were much higher than the scores obtained by the group in the other passages, as can be seen from Tables viii, ix and xi. The mean for passage 'C' was 11.13 and the average percentage was 74.20. Group 'X's' other average scores were 34% for passage 'A', 15% for passage 'B' and 25% for passage 'D'. It was suspected that coaching had been introduced by the teacher who supervised the test. Probably the pupils were given the correct responses by their teacher. It was, therefore, decided to eliminate group 'X' entirely from the investigation. This now left three groups with a total of 139 pupils.

It should be noted that the scores have a wide range in all the passages. This is important because it is desired that the test should discriminate so that homogeneous groups could be created for teaching purposes. The test seems to be fulfilling that planned purpose. This will be explored more fully later in this chapter.

It was explained in Chapter 3 that the Flesch difficulty level scores seemed to provide a better measure than the Fog scores. It was, therefore, decided to concentrate on the Flesch scores. The reading case scores according to Flesch are repeated, for convenience in Table xiii.

TABLE xiii
READING BASIC SCORES ACCORDING TO FLESCH

Original Passage	Selected Passage	Topic	Score
4	A	The Boston Tea Party	60.50
2	B	The Olive Branch Petition	56.50
1	C	The Loyalists	58.50
3	D	Alliances against Britain	64.00

The table shows that the easiest passsage was 'D' with a reading ease score of 64.00. The most difficult passage was 'B' with a reading ease

score of 56.50. It should be noted, however, that passages 'B' and 'C' score very closely on the Flesch ratings. If the passages are arranged from easy to difficult, they reflect the following pattern: D A C B.

It is important to see how the pupils scored in relation to the difficulty level of the passages. In Table xiv the average scores for each group on each passsage are given. In this table, however, the passages are arranged so as to reflect the increasing order of difficulty, according to the Flesch scores.

TABLE xiv
COMPARISON BETWEEN PUPILS' SCORES AND DIFFICULTY LEVEL OF PASSSAGES

	D Easiest	A	C	B Most difficult
W	15.40	33.64	16.30	16.30
Y	13.93	32.68	15.73	19.28
Z	25.60	43.20	25.40	25.76

The reader should, first of all, note that passage 'C' and 'B', which rated very closely on the Flesch scores, also rate very similarly in test scores. It could be argued that the scores for passage 'C' and 'B' are so close that only one of them need be used if the test instrument were to be used for grouping purposes in the future. The two passages do not discriminate sufficiently because their scores are too close.

The second point that seems to emerge very clearly from Table xiv is that the test instrument seems to be poorly related to the difficulty level of passsage 'D'. It is the easiest, according to the Flesch rating, but the pupils consistently scored much lower on this passage than they did on passage 'A', and about as poorly as they scored on the most difficult passages, 'C' and 'B'.

It is difficult to put forward a reason for this low score. One possible reason is that the questions were markedly more difficult for passage 'D' than for the other three passages. A similar problem emerged in the work of a fellow researcher who used the same instrument but applied it to Standard 10 pupils. It is possible, therefore, that passage 'D' could be eliminated from the final test instrument, thus leaving only two passages to be given, and so considerably reducing test administration time.

In the pilot test it was noted that the pupils were performing badly on interpretative questions. It was argued in chapter 3 that by asking such questions, it would appear as if new demands were being put on the pupils. They were required to infer. If the pupils were used mainly to rote memory demands which did not include interpretation, then the comprehension test results were being distorted by the new interpretative demands being made on the children. Some pupils might have been so unused to interpretative questions that they were scoring badly not because they could not read and comprehend the passages, but because they had not previously exercised that skill in history. It was next decided to see what would happen if interpretative questions were eliminated from the test results in this testing. Concentration was then focused on literal questions only. The results of that situation are tabulated below:

TABLE xv
PASSAGE 'A' RESULTS : LITERAL QUESTIONS
(Maximum mark 18)

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	39	7.513	41.738	1-13
Y	55	6.745	37.472	3-14
Z	45	8.8	48.8	1-13

TABLE xvi
PASSAGE 'B' RESULTS : LITERAL QUESTIONS

(Maximum mark 10)

Group	n	m	Average Percentage	Range
W	39	3.0	30.0	0-7
Y	55	3.0	30.0	0-7
Z	45	3.75	37.5	0-9

TABLE xvii
PASSAGE 'C' RESULTS : LITERAL QUESTIONS

(Maximum mark 6)

Group	n	m	Average percentage	Range
W	39	2.051	34.183	0-5
Y	55	1.818	30.3	0-5
Z	45	2.28	38.1	0-6

TABLE xviii
PASSAGE 'D' RESULTS : LITERAL QUESTIONS

(Maximum mark 12)

Group	n	m	Average percentage	Range
W	39	2.179	18.158	0-11
Y	55	2.090	17.416	0- 9
Z	45	3.68	30.7	0-12

TABLE xix
FULL TEST RESULTS : LITERAL QUESTIONS

(Maximum mark 46)

Group	n	m	Average percentage	Range
W	39	14.72	32.00	5-32
Y	55	13.66	29.70	4-28
Z	45	18.58	40.40	2-32

The results reveal a wide range of marks, as was the case when the interpretative questions were included. The test seems to be discriminating and fulfils the planned purpose.

There was reasonable consistency across all the passages. Positions remained the same in all instances. Group 'Z' obtained the highest scores on each passage. Group 'W' occupied the second position and group 'Y' scored low marks and occupied the last position at all times.

Table xiv showed the test results in relation to the difficulty ratings

of the passages, according to the Flesch formula. It is necessary to repeat the pattern of Table xiv insofar as the literal scores are concerned. This is done in Table xx.

TABLE xx
COMPARISON BETWEEN PUPILS' SCORES AND DIFFICULTY LEVEL OF PASSAGES

(Literal questions)

	D Easiest	A	C	B Most difficult
W	18.158	41.738	34.183	30.0
Y	17.416	37.472	30.3	30.0
Z	30.7	48.8	38.1	37.5

A picture very similar to that of Table xiv emerges from this table. The pupils' scores for passages 'C' and 'B' are very similar. They are clearly lower than passage 'A'. Passage 'D' remains the lowest scoring passage despite its having the easiest rating on the Flesch formula, but, in this case, a new development can be noted. In the full test (see Table xiv), the pupils' percentage scores on passage 'D' were almost identical, with their scores on passages 'C' and 'B'. When the interpretative questions were eliminated, the pupils scored much lower on passage 'D' than they did on passsages 'C' and 'B'. If, in comparison with the more difficult passages, the pupils' scores are considerably lower, when only the simpler questions are considered, then the first suggestion that the questions were distorting the results on passage 'D' must be incorrect. Whatever the cause, however, it is clear that passage 'D' must be eliminated from the final research instrument.

The results for literal questions reveal that as in the full test, the scores for passages 'C' and 'B' are very close. The earlier decision to eliminate one of the passages because their scores were not discriminating sufficiently, was confirmed. Passage 'B' was retained in order to maintain the sequence of events. The final research instrument could be used because it operated in the same way for both the full test and the literal questions. The two passages finally selected to differentiate between pupils.

In view of the fact that the purpose of this study is to suggest ways of grouping pupils, it was decided to prepare a histogram which might reflect

the nature of the resultant clusters or groups. The histogram was prepared for the passages which were finally selected, 'A' and 'B'.

In Table xii the results for passages 'A', 'B', 'C' and 'D' were shown. Now that the full test consists of passages 'A' and 'B', it was decided to prepare a table which reflects such results.

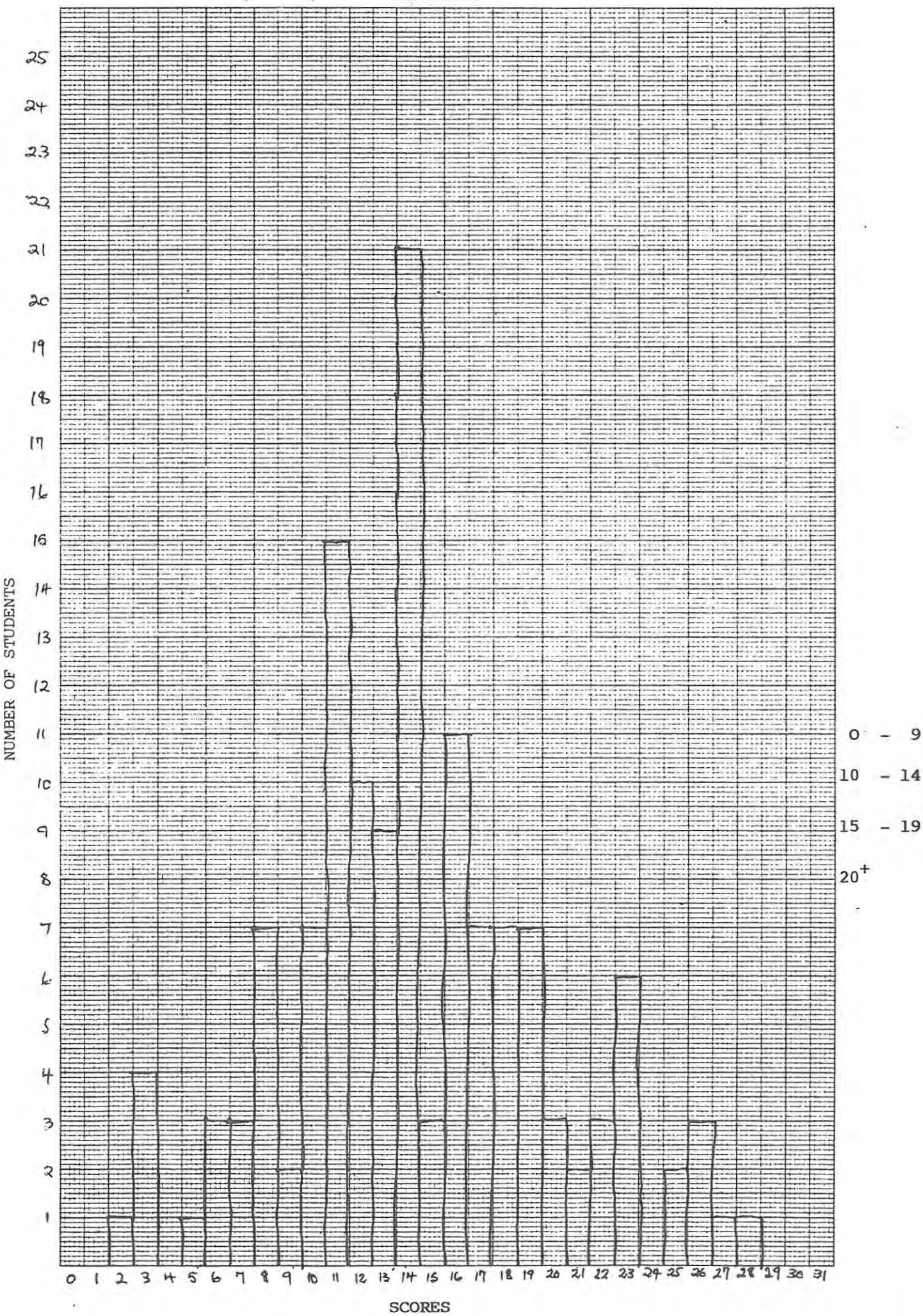
TABLE xxi
FULL TEST RESULTS (PASSAGES 'A' AND 'B')

(Maximum mark 50)

Group	n	m	Average percentage	Range
W	39	12.49	24.98	2-20
Y	55	12.98	25.96	3-26
Z	45	17.28	34.56	3-28

HISTOGRAM : FULL TEST FOR ENTIRE SAMPLE

FIGURE 2



By observation, four tentative clusters of pupils can be identified from the histogram. These are represented in a different way in Table xxii.

TABLE xxii
CLUSTERS IN FULL TEST

SCORE	PERCENTAGE	n
0 - 9	0 - 18	21
10 - 14	20 - 28	62
15 - 19	30 - 38	35
20+	40+	21

Four groups were formed by finding positions in the histogram which showed a sudden increase or decrease in the frequency of scores. For example, a sudden increase of 2-7 pupils occurs from a score of 9 to a score of 10. Similarly, a sudden decrease in frequency from 7 to 3 occurs from scores 19 to 20. The divisions between the groups as suggested in Figure 2 and Table xxii mean that the most able and the least able performers are almost equal in numbers. It is equally clear that the least able pupils will need very considerable help in any activities planned by the class teachers. The most able group consists of those pupils who scored above 40 per cent in the complete test. While their performance is not brilliant, the pupils in this group certainly deserve more demanding and stimulating materials than do the others.

It was assumed that the test results would bear some relation to the scores obtained by the pupils in class tests. Marks obtained by the pupils who participated in the exercise, in their class tests for the first half of the year were obtained. The scores were combined and a product moment correlation coefficient was applied to the test instrument results and the pupils' class test scores. The results of that situation are reflected below:

TABLE xxiii
PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN
TEST INSTRUMENT RESULTS AND THE PUPILS' CLASS TEST SCORES

Group	v
W	0.484
Y	0.534
Z	0.912

Had there been a high correlation coefficient it would have been possible to predict the score one measure from the score on the other. It can be seen that for groups 'W' and 'Y' the correlation coefficients are extremely low. The exception, however, is the 'Z' group with a very high correlation coefficient. It is interesting to note that this group also consistently obtained the best marks in all passages. It was, however, decided to abandon the correlations because of the following reasons:

There is no guarantee that there was consistency of testing by an individual teacher across the monthly tests. This would particularly apply to the question of whether the tests were of the same order of difficulty. There was also no evidence that the teachers were testing the same things as the research instrument was measuring. The high correlation for group 'Z' might suggest that this did not apply to that group's teacher. This part of the investigation was taken no further.

In this chapter it was shown how the final test instrument was improved and reduced to two passages. A simple analysis of the results was undertaken and an attempt was made to use the results to produce somewhat homogeneous groups for teaching purposes. In chapter 3 it was shown that the test passages had reading difficulty indexes of 60.50 and 56.50. Such scores on the Flesch scale are described as being at the top of the "standard level" and into the "fairly difficult" level. Kerry and Sands (1982) suggest that this difficulty is appropriate for children of approximately 14 to 15 years old. These assessments, however, are related to pupils who have English as their mother tongue. The pupils investigated in this study all use English as their second language. The poor performance of many of the pupils when they were confronted with the final version of the test shows how very carefully group and individual activities need to be planned so that the pupils' learning becomes meaningful.

CHAPTER 5

STRATEGIES FOR DEALING WITH MIXED ABILITY GROUPS

Although the mixing of abilities seems to offer a number of social and academic advantages, history teachers often list a number of practical problems associated with the mixed ability situation. Birt (1976) puts the blame on the teachers' approaches to solving the problems. He particularly stresses the choice of class material pitched to the ability median of the class as a common situation. According to him, the danger in this approach is the resultant boredom or confusion at the ability extremes. High academic ability pupils find the material and the pace at which it is presented undemanding. Many of the academically less able have reading problems and many find the material incomprehensible.

In a study undertaken by the Mixed Ability Teaching Project (1975-78), the most frequently stressed constraint concerned teaching methods. Although the history teachers involved in the study were teaching mixed ability groups, they were found in many cases not to be doing mixed ability teaching (Reid, 1981).

According to Hull (1978), the teacher whose work has been influenced by the 'New History' should inculcate certain attitudes towards the study of history, should create an awareness of the nature of the discipline and should equip his pupils with a range of skills and abilities. Hull (1978) asserts that mixed ability grouping and the 'New History' are complementary to one another. According to him, the methods required in the mixed ability context are precisely those best suited to the achievement of the educational objectives of the 'New History'. Individualized learning is seen as the cornerstone of mixed ability work. The teacher is transformed from a 'front stage teacher' to an 'at-elbow-adviser'. This change means that the emphasis moves from teaching by the teacher to learning by the pupil. This is educationally sound because pupils learn by doing rather than by listening. Because each pupil is engaged in individualized study and is moving at his own pace, the teacher is far more closely aware of his particular problems and achievements. In the mixed ability class, under a system that allows pupils to progress at their own speed, skills can be acquired, practised and refined highly efficiently.

In this chapter, an explanation of what is meant by skills will be given; an examination of the origin of the skills approach will be made and then skills will be discussed in relation to some strategies which are linked with the problems of mixed ability teaching.

THE SKILLS APPROACH

The work of Bloom (1956) and his associates is regarded as the foundation of the skills approach. They published a Taxonomy of Educational Objectives which, in essence, was a classification of the student behaviours or the intended outcomes of the educational process. Bloom (1956) divides educational objectives into three discrete domains. The objectives which deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills were classified as the cognitive domain. The affective domain includes objectives which describe changes in interest, attitudes and values, and the development of appreciations and adequate adjustment. The third domain is the Manipulative or Psychomotor skill area.

Bloom (1956, p. 62) argued that knowledge involves the recall of specifics and universals, the recall of methods and processes, or the recall of a pattern, structure or setting. The knowledge objectives emphasise most of the psychological processes of remembering. The relating process is also involved in that a knowledge test situation requires the organization and reorganization of a problem in such a way that the learner will furnish the evidence that he/she possesses such knowledge.

On a higher level than knowledge, evidence that the pupils or learners can utilize the knowledge they have acquired is essential. It is expected that learners will acquire generalized techniques for dealing with new problems and new materials. Bloom (1956) refers to these techniques as 'intellectual abilities and skills'. In solving problems requiring intellectual abilities, learners are expected to organize or reorganize a problem, to recognize the material which is appropriate, to remember such material, and to make use of it in the problem situation. According to Bloom (1956, p. 38) skills refer to modes of operation and generalized techniques for dealing with problems. Skills emphasize the mental processes of organizing and reorganizing material to achieve a particular purpose.

It is important to summarize Bloom's explanation of what each skill entails.

i. Comprehension refers to understanding information in such a way that the learner knows what is being communicated and can make use of the material without necessarily relating it to other material. Comprehension includes those objectives, behaviours or responses which represent an understanding of the literal message contained in a communication. According to Bloom (1956, p. 89) there are three types of comprehension, namely translation, interpretation and extrapolation.

ii. Translation means the ability to translate information from one level of abstraction to another. The skill of translation is judged on the accuracy with which the material in the original communication is preserved although the form of the communication has been changed. Learners can be asked to translate some information expressed in concrete terms into an abstraction. For instance, this question could be asked: "What do we call the system of trading where people exchanged what they had to get what they wanted?" The abstraction wanted would be 'bartering'. They may translate from one medium to another. For example, they may be asked to study a given map and say how far New York is from Boston.

iii. Interpretation. In order to interpret a communication, the reader must first of all be able to translate each of the major parts of it. He must then be able to go beyond this part-for-part rendering of the communication to comprehend the relationships between its various parts. Interpretation involves a reordering, rearrangement or a new view of the material. It involves the ability to grasp the information as a whole at any desired level of generality.

iv. Extrapolation requires that the reader be able to translate as well as interpret a document, and in addition, he must be able to extend the trends or tendencies beyond the given data and findings of the document, to determine implications, consequences, corollaries, effects, etc., which are in accordance with the conditions as literally described in the original communication. The skill of extrapolation implies that a learner will forecast how a given situation will develop. According to

Bloom (1956, p. 95) an extrapolation can only be an inference which has some degree of probability.

v. Application. To apply something requires comprehension of the method, theory, principle or abstraction applied. Given a problem new to the student, he will apply the appropriate abstraction without having to be prompted as to which abstraction is correct or without having to be shown how to use it in that situation.

vi. Analysis refers to the ability to break down material into its component parts. Such an analysis is aimed at clarifying the communication, to indicate how the communication is organized.

vii. Synthesis. This skill provides for creative behaviour on the part of the learner, although the pupil is expected to work within the limits set by particular problems, materials, or some theoretical and methodological framework. The skill requires the ability to put together different parts in order to form a meaningful whole. Parts and elements are arranged and combined to form a pattern or structure that was not clear before.

viii. Evaluation involves the use of criteria as well as standards for appraising the extent to which particulars are accurate, effective, economical, or satisfying. The judgements may be either quantitative or qualitative, and the criteria may be either those determined by the student or those which are given to him.

It should be noted that Bloom's objectives are general and, therefore, applicable to any field of study. Gunning (1978) mentions the fact that there has been much controversy about whether Bloom's particular list of skills is the most helpful and whether or not it truly constitutes a hierarchy. However that may be, the idea of skills is of immense importance to teachers of history, according to Gunning. The influence of Bloom in the field of history teaching was seen when Coltham and Fines (1971) formulated objectives specifically for the study of history. Their objectives were partly based on the work of Bloom. Coltham and Fines (1971) have four categories of objectives. Under skills and abilities, they listed almost the same cognitive skills as Bloom. They emphasize compre-

hension, translation, extrapolation, analysis, synthesis and judgement/ evaluation. In addition to these, they list other skills which wre not mentioned by Bloom.

i. **Vocabulary**

A pupil distinguishes between general or specific historic meaning of words.

ii. **References**

It is expected that learners should be able to use simple bibliographic tools, index, table of contents and grid references on maps.

iii. **Memorisation**

Learners should keep in memory such facts as the key sequence of events in a period, or key dates.

In the category of attitudes, Coltham and Fines (1971) emphasize the following behaviours, which are particularly close to Bloom's affective domain:

i. **Attending**

This means showing interest in people, places, buildings, events and relationships.

ii. **Responding**

When a learner responds, he indicates a willingness to follow up and re-inforce. The learner starts dramatisation, model-making, picture drawing and asking further questions.

ii. **Imagining**

The behaviour involves sympathy and empathy. This is demonstrated by the pupil's personal involvement, by identifying with the character and understanding his viewpoint.

In the category of objectives referring to the nature of the discipline, Coltham and Fines (1971) include the following:

i. **Information**

The learner will recall types of primary source material, will distinguish between closely related types of primary source material and will recall types of secondary source material.

ii. **Organisation**

The learner can examine documents and artefacts and recognize their relevance. He can evaluate them for authenticity and reliability. He can analyze material for bias and value judgements.

ii. **Products**

The learner can reproduce material in the form of diagrams, plays, models, summary or narrative. He can combine two or more of the forms. He can give oral or written explanation or interpretation in the form of debate, exposition or biography.

Under educational outcomes, Coltham and Fines (1971) emphasize broad aims such as insight, knowledge of values and reasoned judgement.

Gunning (1978) believes that the idea of using a concept is inseparable from the idea of practising a skill. Concepts are developed by getting learners to apply a range of skills to the concepts which have to be developed. He claims that the skills of translation, interpretation, application, extrapolation, evaluation, analysis and synthesis are useful in aiding the acquisition of historical concepts. It is important to note that Gunning (1978) confesses that Bloom's hierarchy of cognitive skills has had a tremendous influence on the teaching of history. However, the actual scheme of skills used by Gunning is not that of Bloom, though obviously derived from it.

In selecting some possible objectives for the teaching of history, Sylvester (1976) elaborates on other people's lists and also includes his own skills. In the report of the Schools Council History 13-16 Project, Sylvester classifies educational outcomes of History according to the following titles:

A. Ideas

i. Evidence

Pupils should come to see that historical evidence includes artefacts, buildings, film, and documents. They should appreciate that historians have to select from the mass of evidence which is available and that in doing so some elements of bias may creep in.

ii. Change and continuity in time

This means that learners have to understand that each event that he studies will be seen as one in a developing story of continuity and change through time.

iii. Causation and motivation

History is concerned with explaining change and this involves asking questions about causation, about why events happened and also about the factors which prevented or delayed change.

iv. Anachronism

This is the sense of knowing whether things are out of place in the context of chronology and change in human affairs.

B. Abilities

Sylvester (1976) maintains that the activities in which pupils will engage will help to develop certain abilities such as analysis, judgement and empathy. Analysis and judgement/evaluation are Bloom specifics, and were emphasized by Coltham and Fines, as well as Gunning. Empathy was isolated by Coltham and Fines originally. Sylvester (1976, pp. 41-42) claims that these general abilities of analysis, judgement and empathy cover a number of what might be called historical skills. The skills vary in the level of sophistication which they involve. The table below lists the skills in order of ascending difficulty.

HISTORICAL SKILLS

1. Finding information

Ability to use:
an index,
table of contents
library catalogue
glossary.

2. **Recalling information**

Ability to recall and use:
standard abbreviations such as, e.g., i.e., sic., viz.
general historical vocabulary e.g. statute, act, treaty,
chronological conventions e.g. century, decade,
particular terminology e.g. middle ages, chivalry, domestic systm, laissez-faire.

3. **Understanding evidence**

Ability to:
state information in other words, summarise, interpret graphs, charts, cartoons and maps,
give examples of general points.

4. **Evaluating evidence**

Ability to:
distinguish between facts, assumptions, inferences and hypotheses and value judgments,
distinguish between valid and invalid conclusions, verifiable and non-verifiable information, relevant and irrelevant material,
compare information and recognise contradictions,
recognise kind of information necessary to support a judgment, argument or an hypotheses,
detect logical fallacies,
recognise propaganda and its purpose,
recognise lack of connection or gaps in evidence.

5. **Making inferences and hypotheses**

Ability to:
suggest sources of relevant information where there are gaps,
make inferences either logical or intuitive from evidence,
draw and state conclusions,
suggest causes and consequences of actions and events,
form hypotheses as starting points for further investigations.

6. **Synthesis**

Ability to use:
organising themes or ideas (temporal, behavioural, causal),
to make a credible narrative.

C. **Experience**

Pupils should be given the experience to think about people and events remote from them in time and space.

D. **Interest**

The development of a life-long interest in history is an outcome that most teachers would aim to achieve.

The following grid summarizes some possible objectives for the teaching of history according to Sylvester (1980, p. 29). It should be noted that the objectives are set into age levels.

	Reference & information finding skills	Skills in Chronology	Language	Understanding Evidence	Synthesis	Empathetic Understanding	Historiography
12 years old	Can use contents, glossary of a book. Can make notes under supplied headings. Can use abbreviations such as e.g., i.e.	Know what a 'generation', 'century' and 'decade' are. Know terms B.C. and A.D., prehistory, ancient, medieval and modern. Be able to put a date in correct century. Can make a simple time chart.	Can use terms which often recur in history such as ruler, king, lord, slave, peasant, law, order, government, citizen, subject.	Can define in simple terms 'evidence'. Can comprehend and make deductions about historical pictures, artefacts and simple documentary extracts.	Can describe in writing some past events or situation.	Can make orally or in drawings, models or writing an imaginative reconstruction of the past which is based on evidence.	
14 years old	Can use a library catalogue. Can make notes using a system of notation which distinguishes main and sub-points	Know sequence of Roman, Norman, Tudor, Stuart, Hanoverian/ Georgian, Victorian. Be aware of some major historical "period" terms such as Renaissance, Reformation.	Can use terms such as motive, cause, change, revolution, progress & have some understanding of the terms 'politics', 'economics' and 'society'.	Is aware of variety of historical evidence. Can distinguish between primary & secondary sources in history. Can compare 2 accounts of the same events & note differences & similarities. Can recognize bias. Can interpret secondary sources such as maps, charts or graphs. Can summarize evidence & draw relevant conclusions. Can distinguish between 'fact', 'opinion' & 'propaganda'.	Can state information in a graph or diagram. Can write an account of some past events in terms of their causes.	Can make imaginative reconstructions of the past which are not anachronistic.	

	Reference & information finding skills	Skills in Chronology	Language	Understanding Evidence	Synthesis	Empathetic Understanding	Historiography
16 years old			Can use terms which relate to some particular historical period studied, e.g. 19th century, free trader, chartist, evangelical, imperialise.	These above abilities should become progressively more sophisticated.	Can write a clearly-structured credible account of some past events in terms of causes and consequences	Can consider viewpoints of opposing sides and of people for whom they may not feel sympathy.	
18 years old	Know how to use and make use of footnotes and bibliographical references.		Acquisition of a more specific vocabulary.		Can develop their own written arguments and use their understanding of different historians' interpretations.	Can discuss differing historians' interpretations of some historical characters.	Can understand phrases such as Whig interpretation of history, determinism, Marxist interpretation of history.

Lally and West (1981) emphasize the same skills as those mentioned by earlier writers such as Coltham and Fines (1971) and Sylvester (1976 - 1980).

Their skills are also linked to age levels. The skills are meant for primary school children, but are similar in ideas to Sylvester. The grid below summarizes the skills according to Lally and West (1981, p. 25).

	Time	Authenticity	Evidence	Observation/ Identification	Deduction	Vocabulary	Concepts
9 years old	Can sequence historical stereotypes in time	Can distinguish fact & fantasy. Can understand meaning of authentic & apply the concept correctly to pictures & objects	Can understand what evidence is. Can recognise stories, artefacts & pictures as evidence.	Can describe minute details in a picture. Can recognise well established stereotypes.	Can make deductions about artefacts & pictures. Can use other knowledge to make deductions about artefacts & pictures.	Can use a special vocabulary for historical artefacts & events. Can use terms which permit ordering of events. Can describe events orally.	Can recognise differences in past from today. Can recognise changes in past.
11 years old	Can recognise that disparate events occur at the same time. Recognise contemporarity. Can identify main historical periods. Can use simple time scale . Can understand that contemporary events were not coextensive	Can distinguish fact and fiction.	Can identify different kinds of documents. Can recognise bias & some of its causes.	Can identify new individual facts in written/ printed documents.		Can write sentences with a satisfactory degree of precision. Can recognise bias in use of language.	Can indicate simple causation
13 years old	Can relate time sense to number skills. Can understand duration over short period of time up to 100 years.		Can distinguish primary and secondary sources. Can state briefly the main facts found in a written document.			Can write an account of a past event using reported language. Can apply specialised vocabulary to reading & writing	

Thompson (1982, p. 20) suggests the following table of objectives for the teaching of history:

TABLE OF OBJECTIVES

Skills			Personal Qualities
Intellectual	**Social**	**Physical**	**Interests, Attitudes, Values**
1. The ability to find information from a variety of sources, in a variety of ways.	1. The ability to participate within small groups.	1. The ability to manipulate equipment.	1. The fostering of curiosity through the encouragement of questions.
2. The ability to communicate findings through an appropriate medium.	2. An awareness of significant groups within the community & the wider society.	2. The ability to manipulate equipment to find & communicate information.	2. The fostering of a wariness of over-commitment to one framework of explanation & the possible distortion of facts & the omission of evidence.
3. The ability to interpret pictures, charts, graphs, maps, etc.	3. A developing understanding of how individuals relate to such groups.	3. The ability to explore the expressive powers of the human body to communicate ideas & feelings.	3. The fostering of a willingness to explore personal attitudes and values to relate these to other people's.
4. The ability to evaluate information.	4. A willingness to consider participating constructively in the activities associated with these groups.	4. The ability to plan & execute expressive activities to communicate ideas and feelings.	4. The encouraging of an openness to the possibility of change in attitudes and values.
5. The ability to organize information through concepts & generalizations.	5. The ability to exercise empathy (i.e. the capacity to imagine accurately what it might be like to be someone else).		5. The encouragement of worthwhile and developing interests in human affairs.
6. The ability to formulate & test hypotheses & generalizations.			

The objectives are similar to those mentioned by other writers such as Coltham and Fines (1971), Sylvester (1976; 1980), Lally and West (1981). The difference is Thompson's claim that the skills can be acquired by primary school children. Lally and West share the same claim .

From this exposition, it is clear that history teachers recognise a need for the equiping of learners with a range of skills and abilities. The crucial question is: 'how can a teaching strategy be designed for mixed

ability classes that allows for individual learning and the acquisition of skills?

In the next chapter, two strategies which are useful for mixed ability groups will be examined.

CHAPTER 6

A DETAILED EXAMINATION OF WORKSHEETS AND SIMULATIONS AS STRATEGIES FOR DEALING WITH MIXED ABILITY HISTORY GROUPS

The emphasis in the thesis has been on the need to have ability groups within a mixed ability class. The possibilities for the creation of these groups were explored in chapter 1. In this chapter, concentration will be on two strategies based upon meaningful work for different groups within a large, mixed ability class. In contrast, another strategy, not necessarily based on homogeneous groups, will also be discussed.

If we are to work from the assumption that a mixed ability group reflects the conviction that each person is to be valued for himself, then there are certain demands teachers have to make of themselves in doing their job. Aims and objectives of history teaching have to be looked at seriously. The syllabus content should be seen as a means to an end, the end being the achievement of the stated aims and objectives. The aims that teachers set for pupils are not always overt. There are also covert aims. In order to achieve these latter aims, pupils need to be guided in methods of researching answers, using a multiplicity of resources, asking further questions, expressing answers with clarity and logical development and evaluating materials or information.

Davies (1975) recommends that in a mixed ability class pupils have to develop individual skills at their own optimal pace, and each has to have his historical appetite whetted. Work patterns should be determined within the content framework which is thought appropriate. He suggests the use of the "stimulus and varied response" approach.

WORKSHEETS

In Davies' (1975) 'stimulus and varied response' approach, a series of lessons on a topic is opened with some sort of stimulus from the teacher. This may, for instance, take the form of a brief talk or film. Pupils then follow up and respond to the stimulus in various, more or less structured ways. The most closely guided response is created by using a single worksheet which is suitable for a wide variety of abilities. This wide suitability is achieved by a gradient of difficulty within

the tasks set. It is expected that the less able will complete only the initial simpler tasks. The more able will complete almost the whole worksheet, quickly covering the initial work but progressing more slowly through the concluding difficult tasks.

The main problem with the 'stimulus and varied response' approach is timing. At a certain point the teacher has to call halt. Will it be time up when the most able have completed the worksheet or when the less able are stuck? An element of subjectivity is noticed here because the individual teacher will use his own discretion. There is also the possibility that the less able will always leave the worksheet uncompleted. When will they get the chance to practice the most difficult tasks which come towards the end of the worksheet? Despite this limitation, the stimulus and varied response approach is frequently recommended as one of the strategies of teaching history to mixed ability groups.

Hull (1978) recommends and uses the graded worksheet approach. The standpoint here is that teaching should offer every pupil the opportunity to work at his own speed on material geared to his own ability. The teacher structures work to exploit each individual's ability, yet avoiding any implication that one pupil is failing in comparison with another. Three grades of worksheets are used. One is for the most able pupils, usually the top 30 per cent of the ability range. For the majority or average ability, usually 30-70 per cent, another worksheet on the same topic is designed. The third worksheet is for the slow learners, usually those with learning difficulties and are below the 70th percentile.

The slow learners' worksheet places stress on the repeated exercise of skills which require a simpler cognitive behaviour. The most commonly fostered skills are comprehension, reference and communication. Translation is frequently demanded with the use of structured questions or activities. The demands made on retention of vocabulary and information are limited by the simplification of most accounts. The exercise of analysis skills is rendered more simple by the 'character contrast' stress. Synthesis, evaluation and extrapolation are attempted only occasionally because these are very difficult skills for these pupils.

The worksheet for the average ability group contains more information and exercises the range of skills more evenly. It exercises the same skills

as the slow learners' worksheets, but includes more difficult skills of synthesis, evaluation and extrapolation more often. It demands the use of reference skills at a higher level by giving less specific direction for the retrieval of information from the textbooks. Analysis of a more complex variety is required by contrasting the different stress in two secondary accounts in the textbooks.

The worksheet for the most able, exercises the more difficult skills more often. In exercising comprehension and analysis, longer passages in textbooks and primary sources are prescribed. Tasks which presuppose greater retention of previous information become more common. More details of differing interpretations at secondary source level are included.

In the worksheets for the most able and average ability pupils, comprehension questions are structured to ensure that pupils' answers form a record of information that is brief and clear. This record can be consulted again by pupils in revision for examinations.

The contents of the three grades of worksheets are represented in the grid below.

Slow learners	**Average ability**	**Most able**
Comprehension Translation Vocabulary Reference Chronology		
	Extrapolation Analysis Synthesis Evaluation	
		Empathy Evidence Historiography
Simple materials, largely rewritten by teacher from sources.	Longer passages	More difficult passages, more difficult skills.

SAME TOPIC FOR ALL THREE GROUPS

Hull (1978) argues that graded worksheets not only allow an individual rate of progress on work closely geared to ability, they also ensure that no pupil feels his work to be inferior. In order to achieve this sense of equality it is essential that no pupil feels himself 'judged' by the teacher. He must himself participate in the choice of the work-sheet grade that suits him best. Pupils self-select their own worksheet grade after a clear explanation of the graded system at the start of the second year. Pupils realize that it is crucial to choose a grade with which they can cope. In addition to this, a real effort is made to make all pupils feel that in a real sense they are coping with the same work. One cosmetic point is that worksheets for all three grades have the same cover. The topics into which each worksheet is divided have similar titles and content. When discussions take place in class, pupils realize that they have covered all the same material, although different in form.

Hull (1978) warns that the graded worksheet approach is inevitably not without problems. It requires massive teacher preparation with every item dealt with at three grades on three worksheets. A teacher has to adjust his mind and vocabulary instantly. With pupils advancing at different speeds and exercising some choice in the material they cover, individualized study has moved to an extreme. The class entity or unity sometimes is lost in the sense that pupils assemble only for occasional class discussions or simulations.

Despite the problems mentioned, Hull (1978) believes that graded work-sheets do seem to provide one successful method of both meeting the demands of the mixed ability situation and at the same time, achieving the objectives of the new skill-based history.

WORKSHEET EXAMPLE PRESENTED IN THIS THESIS

Approaches to the worksheet strategy and the principles of applying it have been discussed. The idea of the worksheet is that it is presented together with stimulus material after the teacher has taught the class about the topic. The stimulus material is to be worked on at least partly independently by the pupils.

The topic selected for the worksheets was 'Hitler on the road to war, 1933-39' (Eliot, 1966, pp. 82-97). The stimulus material was the same for all ability groups and, as a result, the difficulty level of the stimulus material had to be considered very carefully. The reading ease score of the text was determined according to Flesch. Three sample passages of 100 words each were selected for that purpose. The table below represents the worksheet passage difficulty indices as well as the difficulty indices of the test instrument passages.

TABLE xxiv

Passage	Test Passages Difficulty indices	Paragraph	Worksheet Difficulty	Passage Indices
A	60.50	1	42.29	
B	56.5	2	66.06	
		3	53.91	
Average 58.5		Average 54.08		

According to Rudolph Flesch's table, the resource chosen was fairly difficult (54.08) and was suitable for children who are 15-17 years old. The passages selected for the test instrument had the reading ease scores of 60.50 and 56.50 and were fairly difficult. The resource selected for the worksheet was therefore fairly similar in reading difficulty to the texts of the research instrument.

The stimulus material was edited for various reasons. The researcher was preparing worksheets for Standard 7 pupils who have English as a second language. Their difficulty in handling texts was seen in chapters 3 and 4. Further, pupils are supposed to work on their own when attempting the worksheets. It should be stated, however, that the removal of surplus detail does not mean the removal of things that make the passage live. For example, quotations such as :"The whole history of Austria is just one long act of treason to the German race," were retained to give more meaning to the text. The sentence: "...and then moved into Memel a week later", was removed because it had not been mentioned before, and

would only confuse pupils. The story of Gleiwitz was badly told in the text and, therefore, had to be removed. Pupils do not need to know the names of Presidents. It is enough for them to know that the President of ... did that. So, the names of all the Czechoslovakian Presidents, such as Benes and Hacha were removed. There was little follow-up on the Disarmament Conference of 1932-34. This was just a burden of additional information for the pupil. The paragraph was, therefore, removed. In Appendix 10, both the original and edited versions of the stimulus material are represented.

In other examples, it might be necessary to edit further, or to find additional or different stimulus materials, for instance, when the text is drastically difficult. However, if the stimulus material can be common, it is much better, because pupils feel that in a real sense they are coping with the same work (Hull, 1978).

There were photographs of German troops crossing the Rhine at Cologne in 1936, the German army occupying Vienna in 1938, Hitler's triumphal return to Vienna after twenty-five years, Chamberlain arriving for the Munich Conference, German troops entering the Sudetenland in October 1938 and the suffering of Polish children during the war. These were not reproduced in the text, but would be reproduced in the final stimulus material. The same applies to the map showing German annexations, 1938-1939.

After the stimulus material had been edited, possible activities related to the chosen topic were devised. Because there were more ideas than were needed for the exercise, the final activities were selected according to the following criteria:

Motivation : Is the activity going to involve the pupils? Are there things to attract both able and less able pupils?

Objectives : What other objectives, apart from the recall of facts, can be achieved through these activities?

In order to cater for all abilities, four graded worksheets were prepared for the following ability groups: least able, slightly better, much better and most able. A total group of thirty-four possible

questions from the chapter as edited was devised. So, although four graded worksheets were prepared, the common questions were repeated according to the ability levels of the pupils. A composite, single worksheet was also prepared. In the common worksheet, questions were arranged in order of difficulty, although the order of questions was done by the researcher and so this does include a subjective element. In preparing the questions a map was selected from Bredekamp and van den Berg (1986, p. 61) and a picture was reproduced from Bumstead (1972, p. 37).

WORKSHEET QUESTIONS

HITLER ABANDONS THE TERMS OF THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

1. Copy down the list of "heads" into your book. Then, copy out the "tails" alongside the "heads". Be sure to match them properly in two columns.

HEADS	TAILS
Mein Kampf	Rebuilding an army.
Versailles Treaty	A book written by Hitler.
Conscription	Hitler's political party.
Rearmament	It marked the end of World War I
	Compulsory training of soldiers.

2. The Treaty of Versailles forbade Germany doing certain things. From 1935, Germany under Hitler did some of the things it had been forbidden to do. In the table below you will see two of the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. In the second and third columns, write in the ways Hitler broke these terms and when he broke them.

TREATY OF VERSAILLES	HITLER'S ACTIONS	
	HOW HE BROKE THE TERMS	DATE
Germany had to make her armed forces smaller		
Germany was not allowed to have troops within thirty miles (48km) of the Rhine river.		

3. Read the following sentences, then write them out in the correct order to tell the story of how Hitler's actions led to war from March 1935 to September 1939. Before doing that, in the left hand column, write the numbers of the sentences in their correct order. When this has been checked by your teacher, cut the sentences and paste them into your workbook in their correct order.

   (i) Hitler's forces marched on Poland.

   (ii) German troops crossed the Rhine bridges and occupied the Rhineland.

   (iii) Military conscription was introduced.

   (iv) German forces occupied the Sudetenland.

   (v) The Russo-German non-aggression pact was signed.

   (vi) Austria was occupied by German troops.

4. What did Hitler mean by German unity?

5. Which people did German unity involve?

6. How did Germany plan to get living space and enough food to feed the people in the new bigger German state?

HITLER TAKES OVER CZECHOSLOVAKIA 1938-39.

7. Match the events listed below with the correct dates on which they took place. The dates are listed here:

(September 1938, 1918, 1936; 1 October 1938; 15 March 1939; 22 September 1938, 1938-1939.)

EVENTS	DATES
Konrad Henlein expressed the wish of the Sudeten Germans to join the German Reich.	
German forces entered the Sudetenland.	
Neville Chamberlain made three flights to Germany to talk to Hitler.	
President Hacha of Czechoslovakia took a train for Berlin to talk to Hitler.	
Czechoslovakia came into existence.	

8. Read these sentences carefully, then write them out in the correct order to tell the story of Hitler's fourth step to war. Before doing that, in the left hand column, write the numbers of the sentences in their correct order. When this has been checked by your teacher, cut the sentences and paste them into your workbook in their correct order.

(i) Chamberlain, the British Prime Minister, flew to meet Hitler at Godesberg.

(ii) On September 29, 1938 Chamberlain met Hitler at Munich.

(iii) After Hitler had begun to threaten Czechoslovakia, Chamberlain flew to meet him in Germany on 15 September.

(iv) At the start of September 1938 Hitler demanded the Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia. This made a war look very likely.

(v) In March 1939 Hitler took over the rest of Czechoslovakia.

(vi) On his return from Munich, Chamberlain was received as a hero who had been able to make sure there would be peace.

9. List three reasons why Hitler hated the Czechs.

10. Chamberlain met Hitler in Germany in 1938. Where?

11. Why did Chamberlain want to meet Hitler at this time?

12. Hitler wished to remove the humiliations which were put on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles. Why would Hitler need to re-arm in order to remove those humiliations?

13. Hitler had no intention of attacking Czechoslovakia, although he was interested in gaining land. What gave him an excuse to interfere in the affairs of Czechoslovakia?

14. Look at your answers to questions 8 and 9. Do you think Hitler would be satisfied with the arrangement about the Sudetenland? Why do you say that?

15. When Chamberlain arrived in London from Munich, he was welcomed as a hero. Why?

16. At the Munich conference, Czechoslovakia was not represented. Britain, France, Italy, Germany and Hungary dismembered Czechoslovakia by giving Teschen to Poland, Sudetenland to Germany and Moldavia to Hungary. What do you think would be the reaction of the President of Czechoslovakia to these arrangements?

17. German newspapers published statements such as:

"German blood flows again in Brunn."
"Humiliation of German honour."
"German student beaten up."

How would people in Germany react to such statements about events in Czechoslovakia?

HITLER ATTACKS POLAND

18. Read the following passage and choose only the correct word from the two in brackets.

> The Poles had good reason to fear Nazi Germany. (Lands/mines) which they had taken over from Germany in 1919 cut off East (Russia/Prussia) from the Reich by the (Police/Polish) corridor and separated Danzig from Germany in order to give Poland a (seaport/airport). For a time Hitler remained (unfriendly/friendly) towards Poland, hoping to form an alliance with her against (Russia/Prussia). Then (Hindenberg/Hitler) started (defending/demanding) the return of Danzig. The Poles now saw that German friendship would be of (little/big) use. These fears were further confirmed when German troops occupied (Czechoslovakia/Austria) on 15 March 1939. Hitler was keen to march into (Poland/Holland). But he was worried about what Soviet (Russia/Prussia) would think. So he hinted that German would like to become more (friendly/unfriendly) with Russia. But neither side would make a move.

19. In March 1939, Hitler cancelled his 1934 "No war" treaty with Poland. Why?

20. After 22 August 1939, what would happen if Germany attacked Poland?

21. What was the reaction of Britain and France when Hitler attacked Poland in 1939?

MAPWORK

22. Name the countries which were separated by the Rhine river.

23. Germany was not supposed to be within 30 miles (48km) of the..... river. Put the name of the river in the right place in the map.

24. Below the name of the river, write the date when Hitler's troops occupied the area.

25. Write the name of the area which was occupied by Germany in March 1938 in the right place in the map.

26. Hitler invaded another European country in 1939. This action led quickly to the Second World War. Which country did he invade? Mark the right place of this country in the map.

PICTURE ON GODESBERG MEETING

27. What is the name of the man wearing a grey jacket?

28. Which symbol in his clothing makes you to say that?

29. The other man in the picture was a politician from England. What was his name?

30. This picture was taken at Godesberg. When did this meeting take place?

31. Why did these politicians meet at Godesberg?

32. In the picture the two men are smiling. But during the meeting, the English politician became angry. Why?

33. If the English politician was angry, why do you think he was smiling when the photograph was taken? (You will not find the answer in the answer in the text.)

34. What did they agree on at Godesberg?

The grid below represents the distribution of the common questions among the five worksheets which were developed. The worksheets will be represented in Appendices 11-15. The questions devised for the common worksheet (E) do not follow the order in which they appear on the grid. The idea was to ask the easiest questions first.

DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONS IN WORKSHEETS

Question	A Least able	B Slightly better	C Much better	D Most able	E Common
1			x	x	x
2	x	x			
3	x	x			x
4	x	x			x
5	x	x			x
6	x	x			x
7	x	x			x
8			x	x	x
9		x			x
10		x			x
11		x			
12				x	x
13			x	x	
14			x		
15			x	x	
16				x	
17				x	x
18	x				
19			x	x	x
20			x	x	x
21	x			x	x
22	x	x			
23	x	x			
24	x	x			
25	x	x			
26	x	x	x		
27	x	x	x	x	x
28	x				x
29	x	x	x	x	x
30	x				x
31	x	x	x	x	x

Question	A Least able	B Slightly better	C Much better	D Most able	E Common
32	x	x			x
33	x	x	x	x	x
34	x	x	x	x	x
Total	21	20	13	15	22

SIMULATIONS

A logical development from the evidential approach has been the attempt to simulate a historical event or to recreate the past through a game. A simulation attempts to recreate a particular situation in order to explore why an event or situation tended to follow the path it did. Its focus is on role playing and decision making. The aim of a game is to explain a historical concept. Birt (1976, p. 316) is in favour of the use of games and simulations in the mixed ability situation for the following reasons:

i. Adolescents are usually very ready to identify with external figures, often from the world of sport or pop culture. Since most simulations involve role play, they can channel this need for identification and use it as a means of gaining historical understanding. This is particularly true for those of lower academic ability, who might find the study of historical abstractions meaningless and boring.

ii. Those of low academic ability are usually convinced that the more able pupils have a built-in lead owing to good memories and the accumulation of previous knowledge. Most simulations discount this advantage. The pupils are presented with simple facts and asked to make decisions based on common sense. For many pupils, simulation is a new way of learning, so everyone starts on an equal footing.

iii. The essence of simulation is that through making decisions within the historical 'model', the pupils are learning about historical processes. Such decisions are usually within their understanding. For

example, as a Saxon chief, whether to build a village at A, B, or C. For most pupils this is more interesting than reading about factors affecting Saxon settlement. For the low ability pupils (academically), personal involvement concretizes abstract concepts and the concepts become meaningful and comprehensible.

iv. Simulations are concerned with activity on the part of the pupils. There is a succession of decisions, debates, consultations, negotiations, tables to fill in, mapwork to complete, and so on. Most pupils seem to prefer this to passive listening, but it is again those of low academic ability who are the chief beneficiaries. They may well still be in the concrete stage of operations, and so "learning by doing" - as opposed to attempting passively to absorb abstractions presented by the teacher - is a vital element in the educational process.

v. Discussion is an essential part of the decision-making process. Such discussion is structured by the constraints of the decision in hand. Points have to be examined one by one, so that those of lower academic ability need not be overwhelmed. The decisions are often open-ended and as a result answers are accepted as sensible, rather than right. This combination of structure and flexibility can help build up the confidence of the academically less able.

vi. Most historical work at the secondary level tends to generate writing as its end product. Those with literacy problems are naturally handicapped. But in simulation, decisions are often reported verbally, or in terms of simple numerals, or shown on a map, or by movements of 'pieces'. Here the pupil with literacy problems can function fully in the simulation and record his decisions as efficiently as the rest of the class.

vii Some simulations provide an excellent opportunity for introducing interplay between the group and class.

The teacher could give the introduction and arrange the class in pairs. The text may be read, pupils asking questions and the teacher making explanations. Decisions could be taken in pairs and then reported to the rest of the class. Pairs could read about their own roles and discuss. Each pair then could announce its decision to the class and give reasons. Finally, comments and conclusions may be given by the teacher.

viii. Since many of the decisions in simulation are relatively open-ended, they offer an intellectual challenge for the most able as well as comprehensible problems for those of lower academic ability.

Birt (1976) recommends that provided the teacher selects the simulation with care, the technique seems to offer special answers to some of the particular difficulties of mixed ability classes.

SIMULATION EXAMPLE PRESENTED IN THIS THESIS

Pupils would be given the textbook used at school and the stimulus material as background. The reading material would be the same for all ability groups. It may happen that if teachers continuously keep ability groups in their history classes, they could be promoting intra-class streaming. The dangers of streaming were discussed at length in chapter 1. Simulations could help by doing away with homogeneous ability groups whenever the need arises.

The topic discussion is "Hitler on the road to war".
The main countries involved in the topic are the following:

Russia	England
Germany	Czechoslovakia
Austria	Poland
France	

The class would be divided into seven groups. It should be noted that the distribution of the pupils would be across ability groups. Roles would be allocated to the seven groups which represent the seven countries listed above.

The attention of the pupils would be drawn to the following dates:

March 1934
March 1938
March 1939
September 1939

The task given to the class would be to go to their various groups in order to hold discussions. They should write down everything that their country is involved in on each date. They should write down their fears and what they think their actions should be. The textbooks and the common stimulus material would give them the background information. After some time, the leaders of the groups would go to the Head of the League of Nations and voice their fears and planned actions.

In earlier chapters, the necessity of forming groups within the same class was emphasized. In chapter 4, four groups/clusters were formed by finding positions in the histogram which showed increases and decreases in the frequency of scores. The idea was to devise activities for the various groups, according to the pupils' abilities. The teacher's task would be to allocate the worksheets according to the pupils' abilities. For instance, according to the scores derived from the test, worksheet A would be allocated to group/cluster 1, in the histogram, worksheet B to group 2, worksheet C to group 3 and worksheet D to group 4. Worksheet E would be allocated to all pupils in that particular class. It should be noted that there is no guarantee that the distribution would be identical for all classes. If classes were to be grouped as in figure 2, it would be possible to distribute worksheets. In some instances, it might be possible to use three worksheets.

CONCLUSION

The reader should, at this stage, be reminded that because of the grouping procedures used in Ciskeian secondary schools, teachers are working in classes where there is a wide ability range. Teachers then need to form smaller groups on the basis of the pupils' performance on a reading comprehension test which could be given right at the beginning of the year when nothing is known of the pupils' abilities.

In the pretest, it was noted that the Standard 7 pupils were performing badly on interpretative questions. The researcher assumed that the reason for the bad performance was that the pupils were used mainly to rote memory demands which did not include interpretation. Some pupils appeared to be so unused to interpretative questions that the researcher came to the conclusion that they had not previously exercised that skill in history.

It was further noted that the pupils' responses revealed language difficulties. Pupils were trying to get abstract ideas across, when their command of language structure was not sufficient. The extent to which pupils were experiencing difficulties with handling texts was high.

The researcher wishes to suggest lines of action which could be taken immediately in order to cope with the teaching of history to mixed ability groups.

i. In order to form groups within history classes, the test as finally modified (see Appendix) can be used.

ii. Initially, the graded worksheets and simulation developed in this study could be used as models.

iii. Resources need to be collected as much as possible and pupils have to be encouraged to refer to them independently.

More research can develop from the issues raised in this study. For example, researchers could investigate how the suggested worksheets and simulations could be applied in practice in real classroom situations.

In conclusion, the researcher firmly supports Van den Berg and Buckland (1983, p. 67) when they say:

> "The teacher who is prepared to move forward one step at a time, and who does not give up because she or he is unable to rectify everything immediately, will not only achieve great personal satisfaction...,but will also have made a significant contribtuion to the intellectual and personal development of young people studying history at school."

APPENDIX 1

PASSAGE USED IN THE TEST

THE LOYALISTS

"As in all civil wars the American Revolution broke up long friendships and loving families. The Rebel leader Benjamin Franklin never forgave his son William for remaining a Loyalist.

How many Loyalists were there? No one knows exactly, but there were Loyalists in every colony. Probably about one third of all the people who took an active part in the Revolution were loyalists in sympathy.

Why, if there were Loyalists everywhere, and Great Britain's army and navy were behind them, did their side lose? The Loyalists never worked together as well as the Rebels did. They laughed at Sam Adams's Committee of Correspondence but never got together themselves so that Loyalists in one colony could exchange ideas and news, or even find out who were Loyalists in the other colonies.

Most important: before the Declaration of Independence many Loyalists and Rebels agreed politically on many things. They both resented the King's ministers. They both opposed 'taxation without representation'. They both wanted a restoration of their 'Englishmen's rights'. What they disagreed about was independence itself. The Loyalists feared the 'mob rule' independence might bring far more than they resented Parliament's nex taxes.

Since the two parties agreed on so much, the Loyalists were caught off guard when, in July 1776, independence was declared. Suddenly, after 4 July, they were no longer considered law-abiding citizens, but traitors to their native land! And if their wealth and position made them the objects of envy, Rebel mobs threatened them with tar and feathers, so they fled out of the country. Over 50 000 Loyalists fought during the Revolution. The names of some of their regiments are the British Legion, the King's Orange Rangers and the Maryland Loyalists.

What became of the Loyalists after the Revolution? If their position did not excite envy in their neighbours, if they kept their political opinions to themselves, if they never fought against the Rebels, they could live quietly, without being attacked, right through the Revolution and afterwards. Many of them did, and became leaders in the young American republic. but if they left the country during the Revolution or joined the British Army, their lands and property were confiscated."

(Clarcke C, The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 91-93)

APPENDIX 2

PASSAGE USED IN THE TEST

THE OLIVE BRANCH PETITION

"During the first year few, if any, Rebels fought for freedom from the Empire. In March 1775, Benjamin Franklin told Lord Chatham that he had never heard any American, drunk or sober, hint that he wanted a permanent separation from England.

Even the battles of Concord and Lexington did not mean an open break. While Congress was creating an army and launching an invasion into Canada, it still hoped for **reconciliation**. As John Adams put it: 'Hold the sword in one hand and the olive branch in the other.'

This was the mood in which the Second Continental Congress in the Summer of 1775 sent 'The Olive Branch Petition' to King George.

Signed by forty-six delegates it was addressed to their 'Most Gracious Sovereign'. It said that the colonists earnestly wanted their 'former **harmony**' and a 'permanent reconciliation'. In the meantime it asked that the killing of 'Your Majesty's subjects' stop and the laws that distressed them be **repealed**.

King George refused to accept or read the petition. In August he proclaimed the Rebels 'wicked and desperate persons' and urged their countrymen to inform on their 'treasons and traitorous conspiracies'. In December he followed up this Proclamation with the **Prohibitory Acts**. They stated that the colonies were no longer under British protection, all American ports would be **blockaded**, and all American ships seized on the high seas.

The moderates in Congress were bitterly disappointed by the King's actions. As a Virginia delegate, Thomas Jefferson, wrote, 'It is an immense misfortune to the whole empire to have a king of such a **disposition** at such a time.' But the more fiery Rebels claimed that the king had now forced independence on them."

(Clarcke C, The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 23-24)

APPENDIX 3

PASSAGE USED IN THE TEST

ALLIANCES AGAINST BRITAIN

"For a long time Americans had looked upon the two Catholic countries of France and Spain as dangerous enemies. Then Congress was so short of money and materials in the early part of the war that it had to overcome its fears and set up a 'Committee for Secret Correspondence' to negotiate with them. France and Spain had no love for Britain and were ready to help. France had lost Canada and other possessions in the Seven Years War, and Spain was anxious to get back Gibraltar and Minorca lost to Britain in earlier wars. Both countries sent large amounts of money and supplies to the Americans before 1778, and after Saratoga, France was convinced that this was the time to strike down her old enemy. The Spaniards joined in the following year.

To make things even worse for Britain, a quarrel developed with Holland. The Dutch were selling supplies to the Americans and the British attacked their ships in an attempt to stop it. In 1780 Sweden, Denmark and Russia joined in a League of Armed Neutrality, and closed the Baltic to British warships as a reprisal for British interference with their trade.

Britain was now isolated in Europe and threatened at many points in the world. Would she have the forces and resources to cover them? If not, how could she make best use of what she had? Lord North decided to negotiate with the rebels. He offered to grant all their demands about government and taxation, and more control over their own affairs, but it was the familiar story of doing the right thing too late. The colonists wanted independence. At the same time as he was negotiating for peace, North was sending instructions to the new commander-in-chief General Clinton for the next campaign of the war."

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 32-34)

APPENDIX 4

PASSAGE USED IN THE TEST

THE BOSTON TEA PARTY

"Those who have read about the British in India will know that the great East India Company was near to bankruptcy in 1770. To help this private trading company, the British government decided in 1773 to allow it to send its tea directly to America, and not through Britain, in order to increase sales by reducing the price. The tea carried the Townshend duty, but was still cheaper than the tea smuggled in by American merchants. These merchants, who had made good profits from tea, were very angry, and they dressed up as Red Indians, boarded the first tea ships from India, and threw the chests into the harbour at Boston. There were similar 'tea parties' in Charleston, New York and Annapolis.

Coming at the end of ten years of worsening relations, this was an act of disobedience which the British government could not ignore. It 'took out the big stick' and passed some ferocious measures known as the Punitive Acts (1774) which closed the port of Boston (see map on page 19), demanded repayment in full for the tea, and in the meantime put the colony of Massachusetts under the control of the British military commander. In this way, Britain set out to teach the rebellious colonists a lesson.

The colonists, however, did not take all this lying down. They met (all except Georgia) in a congress at Philadelphia in 1774 in a defiant mood. They said that all trade with Britain would stop, and that if force was used against Massachusetts they would all resist. They adjourned, agreeing to meet again in May 1775 if their grievances had not been put right. Lord North's government regarded all this as complete disobedience, and ordered General Gage, the commander at Boston, to seize a store of arms as a precaution. When the troops went to do this, they were opposed by a group of farmers at Lexington, where the first shot in the war was fired. War had started, to the surprise of many Americans and Englishmen."

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 8-10)

APPENDIX 5

PASSAGE USED IN THE TEST

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

"Abraham Lincoln and Secession. Like many brought up on the frontier Lincoln was personally opposed to slavery, but he did not think it right to impose his personal opinion on the whole country. He also thought the Declaration of Independence was hostile to slavery in the long run.

But a practical solution was extremely difficult. To send Negroes back to Africa was impractical; to free them but not give social and political equality would be no improvement; to give equality was impossible in the short run because, right or wrong, the strength of white feeling could not be ignored. The only alternative left was gradual emancipation. Immediately there were some specific steps to take. Lincoln recognised the constitutional right of the planters to recapture slaves who were their property, but he held that the Fugitive Slave Law was too easily abused. Free men were sometimes made slaves. This would mean at least a change in the Fugitive Slave Law.

Lincoln realised that no compromise was really possible.

Lincoln was elected...As President in 1861 Lincoln said that there would be no interference with southern property but that secession was impossible under the Constitution and that he would continue to govern the South..."

(Beacroft B W, Smale M A, The making of America: from wilderness to world power, pp. 89-90)

APPENDIX 6

PASSAGE USED IN THE TEST

THOMAS JEFFERSON

"Jefferson welcomed Tom Paine's **Rights of Man**, dedicated to Washington. A bitter press campaign broke out, centring upon Federalism versus state rights. Washington wished to retire at the end of his first Presidential term in 1792, but was persuaded to stay on. Jefferson said: "North and South will hang together if they have you to hang on to." So, on 4th March, 1793, Washington was re-inaugurated. In the same year war broke out in Europe, as the French Revolutionaries had executed their King, Louis XVI, and threatened to destroy European monarchy as a whole. Washington wanted neutrality and was supported by Hamilton. But Jefferson believed that America owed obligations to the French people, and to the cause of universal liberty. The Democratic Societies, or Jacobin Clubs, became part of a party led by Jefferson, with his home at Monticello as its base. Washington, however, with Hamilton, continually stressed neutrality and the need for strong central government. Washington's authoritarianism was shown when, during the 1794 rebellion in Pennsylvania against the excise tax, and against the wishes of Jeffersonians, he called out the military. Also against Jefferson's wishes, Washington concluded a treaty with the British in April, 1794. Washington welcomed the end of his second Presidential term.

(Parkinson R, The American Revolution, pp. 122-123)

APPENDIX 7

PASSAGE USED IN THE TEST

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

"The American Revolution did not start as a war for independence. During its first year, no Americans said they wanted to leave the British Empire. What they wanted was the restoration of their 'Englishmen's rights' within the Empire. These rights King George III and his government threatened. Not until after July 1776, when the Americans had tried and tried to explain how they felt to the King, and he had refused to listen, did they declare independence.

Since 1607, for over 150 years, Englishmen had crossed the Atlantic and started new colonies on the east coast of North America.

During the first 150 years of the American colonies, the government in England paid little attention to them. The colonists were allowed to develop their own life and laws - many of them, naturally, quite different from the life and laws that were developing back in England.

Though the colonies became different from the English politically, they still fought for her. Whenever England had a war with France, Holland or Spain in Europe, the colonies fought her enemies in America. The last of these wars they called the French and Indian War. (It was part of the Seven Years War..."

(Clarcke C, The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 1-3)

APPENDIX 8

ORIGINAL VERSION OF THE TEST

THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

During the seventeenth century thousands of people left Britain for various reasons, in order to settle in other parts of the world. Some of them settled in thirteen British colonies on the east coast of North America. Though they had settled in America, they remained British subjects. For several reasons, the Americans wished to be independent of Britain. This feeling led to a revolt against, and a demand for independence from Britain. To stop the revolt, Britain declared war on the American colonies. For various reasons, countries such as France, Spain, Holland, Sweden, Denmark and Russia joined the war against Britain. As a result of this war, the American colonists got their independence from Britain.

The content of the following passages consists of some of the events that led to the War of American Independence. Read each passage and answer the questions asked.

PASSAGE A

THE BOSTON TEA PARTY

Those who have read about the British in India will know that the great East India Company was near to bankruptcy in 1770. To help this private trading company, the British government decided in 1773 to allow it to send its tea direct to America, and not through Britain, in order to increase sales by reducing the price. The tea carried the Townshend duty, but was still cheaper than the tea smuggled in by American merchants. These merchants who had made good profits from tea, were very angry, and they dressed up as Red Indians, boarded the first tea ships from India, and threw the chests into the harbour at Boston. There were similar 'tea parties' in Charlestown, New York and Annapolis.

Coming at the end of ten years of worsening relations, this was an act of disobedience which the British government could not ignore. It 'took out the big stick' and passed some ferocious measures known as the Punitive Acts (1774) which closed the port of Boston, demanded repayment in full for the tea, and in the meantime put the colony of Massachusetts under the control of the British military commander. In this way Britain set out to teach the rebellious colonists a lesson.

The colonists, however, did not take all this lying down. They met (all except Georgia) in a congress at Philadelphia in 1774 in a defiant mood. They said that all trade with Britain would stop, and that if force was used against Massachusetts they would resist. They adjourned, agreeing to meet again in May 1775 if their grievances had not been put right. Lord North's government regarded all this as complete disobedience, and ordered General Gage, the commander at Boston, to seize a store of arms as a precaution. When the troops went to do this, they were opposed by a group of farmers at Lexington, where the first shot

in the war was fired. War had started, to the surprise of many Americans and Englishmen.

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 8-10)

1. What did the British government do in 1773 to save the East India Company from bankruptcy?

2. Why would the price be reduced by sending the tea directly to America?

3. What did the American merchants do to show their anger when tea was sent directly to America?

4. List the things that Britain did to punish the Americans for their 'tea parties'.

5. When the colonists met in Philadelphia, list the things that they agreed to do if Britain punished the colonists.

6. How did the British government feel about this meeting in Philadelphia?

7. What did Lord North order General Gage to do?

8. A tea party usually means people sitting in a house and drinking tea. Why were the events in this passage called "tea parties"?

GLOSSARY

Smuggled : brought goods into country illegally, without paying customs duties.

Punitive Acts : laws intended to punish wrongdoers.

Adjourned : postponed discussion until another fixed time was arranged.

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PASSAGE B

THE OLIVE BRANCH PETITION

During the first year, few, if any, Rebels fought for freedom from the Empire. In March 1775, Benjamin Franklin told Lord Chatham that he had never heard any American, drunk or sober, hint that he wanted a permanent separation from England.

Even the battles of Concord and Lexington did not mean an open break. While congress was creating an army and launching an invasion into Canada, it still hoped for reconciliation. As Adams put it: 'Hold the sword in one hand and the olive branch in the other.'

This was the mood in which the Second Continental Congress in the Summer of 1775 sent 'The Olive Branch Petition' to King George.

Signed by forty-six delegates it was addressed to their 'Most Gracious Sovereign'. It said that the colonists earnestly wanted their 'former harmony' and a 'permanent reconciliation'. In the meantime it asked that the killing of 'Your Majesty's subjects' stop and the laws that distressed them be repealed.

King George refused to accept or read the petition. In August he proclaimed the rebels wicked and desperate persons, and urged their countrymen to inform on their 'treasons and traitorous conspiracies'. In December he followed up this Proclamation with the Prohibitory Acts. They stated that colonies were no longer under British protection, all American ports would be blockaded, and all American ships seized on the high seas.

The moderates in Congress were bitterly disappointed by the King's action. As a Virginia delegate, Thomas Jefferson, wrote, 'It is an immense misfortune to the whole empire to have a king of such a disposition at such a time'. But the more fiery Rebels claimed that the king had now forced independence on them.

(Marjorie Reeves, ed., The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 23-24)

1. At the Second Congress at Philadelphia, what was the main hope of the colonists?

2. In their petition to the King, what two things did the colonists ask for?

3. How did the King describe the writers of this letter?

4. What did the King threaten to do?

5. Why did Jefferson regard the King's reaction to the letter as a 'misfortune to the Empire'?

6. The answer to this next question is not in this passage. Explain why the letter was called the Olive Branch Petition?

GLOSSARY

Rebels	:	people who fight against the established government, authority, control.
Reconciliation	:	establishment of friendly relations with former friend.
Invasion	:	a hostile entry into another country.
Repealed	:	laws removed; laws abandoned.
Treasons	:	failure to be loyal to the state which is punishable by death.
Conspiracies	:	secret plots for doing evil.
Prohibitory Acts	:	laws intended to forbid people from doing certain things.

Blockaded : surrounded a place by hostile forces.

Moderates : people who avoid extremes, who hold mild views.

PASSAGE C

LOYALISTS

As in all civil wars the American Revolution broke up long friendships and loving families. The Rebel leader Benjamin Franklin never forgave his son William for remaining a Loyalist.

How many Loyalists were there? No one knows exactly, but there were Loyalists in every Colony. Probably about one third of all the people who took an active part in the revolution were Loyalists in sympathy.

Why, if there were Loyalists everywhere, and Great Britain's army and navy were behind them, did their side lose? The Loyalists never worked together as well as the Rebels did. They laughed at Sam Adam's Committees of correspondence but never got together themselves so that Loyalists in one colony could exchange ideas and news, or even find out who were Loyalists in the other colonies.

Most important: before the Declaration of Independence many Loyalists and Rebels agreed politically on many things. They both resented the King's ministers. They both opposed 'taxation without representation'. They both wanted a restoration of their 'Englishmen's rights'. What they disagreed about was independence itself. The Loyalists feared the 'mob rule' independence might bring far more than they resented Parliament's new taxes.

Since the two parties agreed on so much, the Loyalists were caught off guard when, in July 1776, independence was declared. Suddenly, after 4 July, they were no longer considered law-abiding citizens, but traitors to their native land. And if their wealth and position made them the objects of envy, Rebel mobs threatened them with tar and feathers, so they fled out of the country. Over 50 000 Loyalists fought during the Revolution. The names of some of their regiments are the British Legion, the King's Orange Rangers and the Maryland Loyalists.

What became of the Loyalists after the Revolution?
If their position did not excite envy in their neighbours, if they kept their political opinions to themselves, if they never fought against the Rebels, they could live quietly, without being attacked, right through the Revolution and afterwards. Many of them did, and became leaders in the young American republic. But if they left the country during the Revolution or joined the British Army, their lands and property were confiscated.

(Marjorie Reeves, ed., The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 91-93)

1. According to the passage, what was the effect of the American Revolution on human relations?

2. Why did Benjamin Franklin not forgive his son?

3. Name the two sides which were fighting during this war.

4. Which side won the war?

5. According to the passage, what helped this side to win?

6. Why did the Loyalists flee from the country?

7. Why were the Loyalists considered traitors after independence?

8. Explain what a civil war is.

GLOSSARY

Revolution	:	forcible action by a nation to substitute new system of government.
Committees of Correspondence	:	a group of people elected to receive and to send out letters.
Independence	:	not depending on authority or control of another country.
Republic	:	a state in which supreme power is held by the people or its elected.
Loyalists	:	persons who are faithful and devoted to the existing government.

PASSAGE D

ALLIANCES AGAINST BRITAIN

For a long time Americans had looked upon the two Catholic countries of France and Spain as dangerous enemies. Then Congress was so short of money and materials in the early part of the war that it had to overcome its fears and set up a 'Committee for Secret Correspondence' to negotiate with them. France and Spain had no love for Britain and were ready to help. France had lost Canada and other possessions in the Seven Years War, and Spain was anxious to get back Gibraltar and Minorca, lost to Britain in earlier wars. Both countries sent large amounts of money and supplies to the Americans before 1778, and after Saratoga, France was convinced that this was the time to strike down her old enemy. The Spaniards joined in the following year.

To make things even worse for Britain, a quarrel developed with Holland. The Dutch were selling supplies to the Americans and the British attacked their ships in an attempt to stop it. in 1780 Sweden, Denmark and Russia joined in a League of Armed Neutrality, and closed the Baltic to British warships as a reprisal for British interference with their trade.

Britain was now isolated in Europe and threatened at many points in the world. Would she have the forces and resources to cover them? If not, how could she make best use of what she had? Lord North decided to negotiate with the rebels. He offered to grant all their demands about government and taxation, and more control over their own affairs, but it was the familiar story of doing the right thing too late. The colonists wanted independence. At the same time as he was negotiating for peace, North was sending instructions to the new commander-in-chief General Clinton for the next campaign of the war.

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 32-34)

1. How did the Americans regard France and Spain at first?

2. What made the Americans start negotiating with the Catholic countries of France and Spain?

3. As the war continued, Britain found she had more and more enemies. List the countries which were against her and then say why each country was against Britain. Use the tables to give your answer.

COUNTRY	REASON FOR BEING BRITAIN'S ENEMY
American colonies	
France	
Spain	
Holland	
Sweden	
Denmark	
Russia	

4. Americans decided to set up a 'Committee for Secret Correspondence' to negotiate with France and Spain. Why was the correspondence secret?

5. What did Lord North offer the rebels?

6. Why did the rebels not accept Lord North's offers?

APPENDIX 9

REVISED VERSION OF THE TEST

THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

During the seventeenth century thousands of people left Britain for various reasons, in order to settle in other parts of the world. Some of them settled in thirteen British colonies on the east coast of North America. Though they had settled in America, they remained British subjects. For several reasons, the Americans wished to be independent of Britain. This feeling led to a revolt against, and a demand for independence from Britain. To stop the revolt, Britain declared war on the American colonies. For various reasons, countries such as France, Spain, Holland, Sweden, Denmark and Russia joined the war against Britain. As a result of this war, the American colonies got their independence from Britain.

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PASSAGE A

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Coming at the end of ten years of worsening relations, this was an act of disobedience which the British government could not ignore. It 'took out the big stick' and passed some ferocious measures known as the Punitive Acts (1774) which closed the port of Boston, demanded repayment in full for the tea, and in the meantime put the colony of Massachusetts under the control of the British military commander. In this way Britain set out to teach the rebellious colonists a lesson.

The colonists, however, did not take all this lying down. They met (all except Georgia) in a congress at Philadelphia in 1774 in a defiant mood. They said that all trade with Britain would stop, and that if force was used against Massachusetts they would resist. They adjourned, agreeing to meet again in May 1775 if their grievances had not been put right. Lord North's government regarded all this as complete disobedience, and ordered General Gage, the commander at Boston, to seize a store of arms as a precaution. When the troops went to do this, they were opposed by a group of farmers at Lexington, where the first shot in the war was fired. War had started, to the surprise of many Americans and Englishmen.

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GLOSSARY

Smuggled : brought goods into country illegally, without paying customs duties.

Punitive Acts : laws intended to punish wrongdoers.

Adjourned : postponed discussion until another fixed time was arranged.

Write your answers in the spaces provided.

1. What did the British government do in 1773 to save the East India Company from bankruptcy? (2)

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2. Why would the price be reduced by sending the tea directly to America? (4)

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.....

3. What did the American merchants do to show their anger when tea was sent directly to America? (3)

.....

.....

.....

4. List the things that Britain did to punish the Americans for their 'tea parties' (3)

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.....

5. When the colonists met in Philadelphia, list the things that they agreed to do, if Britain punished the colonists. (3)

.....

.....

.....

6. How did the British government feel about this meeting in Philadelphia? (1)

.....

.....

.....

7. What did Lord North order General Gage to do? (1)

.....

.....

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8. Why would General Gage be worried about a store of arms owned by the rebels? (2)

.....

.....

.....

9. People who are rebellious are called rebels. What does a rebel mean? (1)

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.....

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10. A tea party usually means people sitting in a house and drinking tea. Why were the events in this passage called 'tea parties'? (2)

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.....

.....

11. If you were to describe Lord North, the British Prime Minister, which of these words would you choose? Underline three words.

(worried, seeking revenge, contemptuous, helpful, angry, friendly) (3)

(25)

PASSAGE B

THE OLIVE BRANCH PETITION

During the first year, few, if any, Rebels fought for freedom from the Empire. In march 1775, Benjamin Franklin told Lord Chatham that he had never heard any American, drunk or sober, hint that he wanted a permanent separation from England.

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that the killing of 'Your Majesty's subjects' stop and the laws that distressed them be repealed.

King George refused to accept or read the petition. In August he proclaimed the rebels wicked and desperate persons, and urged their countrymen to inform on their 'treasons and traitorous conspiracies'. In December he followed up this Proclamation with the Prohibitory Acts. They stated that colonies were no longer under British protection, all American ports would be blockaded, and all American ships seized on the high seas.

The moderates in Congress were bitterly disappointed by the King's action. As a Virginia delegate, Thomas Jefferson, wrote, 'It is an immense misfortune to the whole empire to have a king of such a disposition at such a time.' But the more fiery Rebels claimed that the king had now forced independence on them.

(Marjorie Reeves, ed., The American Revolution 1775-83, pp. 23-24)

GLOSSARY

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Treasons	:	failure to be loyal to the state which is punishable by death.
Conspiracies	:	secret plots for doing evil.
Prohibitory Acts	:	laws intended to forbid people from doing certain things.
Blockaded	:	surrounded a place by hostile forces.
Moderates	:	people who avoid extremes, who hold mild views.

1. At the Second Congress at Philadelphia, what was the main hope of the colonists? (1)

.....

.....

.....

2. Up to the time that the Americans sent the Olive Branch Petition, most of them wanted peace with Britain, to still be a colony of Britain, to break with Britain, to defeat Britain in a war, to be treated as equals, to have some say in their own government, to sink all British ships. (Underline the four correct answers.) (4)

3. According to the passage, how many battles had there been before the Olive Branch Petition? (3)

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4. In their petition to the King, what two things did the colonists ask for? (2)

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5. How long was it between the passing of the Punitive Acts and the sending of the Olive Branch Petition? (3)

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6. How did the King describe the writers of this letter? (1)

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7. What did the King threaten to do? (3)

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.....

.....

8. Why did Jefferson regard the King's reaction to the letter as a 'misfortune to the Empire?' (4)

.....

.....

.....

9. The answer to this next question is not in this passage. Explain why the letter was called the Olive Branch Petition. (4)

.....

.....

.....

(25)

PASSAGE C

LOYALISTS

As in all civil wars, the American Revolution broke up long friendships and loving families. The Rebel leader, Benjamin Franklin, never forgave his son, William, for remaining a Loyalist.

How many Loyalists were there? No one knows exactly, but there were Loyalists in every Colony. Probably about one-third of all the people who took an active part in the revolution were Loyalists in sympathy.

Why, if there were Loyalists everywhere, and Great Britain's army and navy were behind them, did their side lose? The Loyalists never worked together as well as the Rebels did. They laughed at Sam Adam's Committees of correspondence but never got together themselves so that Loyalists in one colony could exchange ideas and news, or even find out who were Loyalists in the other colonies.

Most important: before the Declaration of Independence many Loyalists and Rebels agreed politically on many things. They both resented the King's ministers. They both opposed 'taxation without representation'. They both wanted a restoration of their 'Englishmen's rights'. What they disagreed about was independence itself. The Loyalists feared the 'mob rule' independence might bring far more than they resented Parliament's new taxes.

Since the two parties agreed on so much, the Loyalists were caught off guard when, in July 1776, independence was declared. Suddenly, after 4 July, they were no longer considered law-abiding citizens, but traitors to their native land. And if their wealth and position made them the objects of envy, Rebel mobs threatened them with tar and feathers, so they fled out of the country. Over 50 000 Loyalists fought during the Revolution. The names of some of their regiments are the British Legion, the King's Orange Rangers and the Maryland Loyalists.

What became of the Loyalists after the Revolution? If their position did not excite envy in their neighbours, if they kept their political opinions to themselves, if they never fought against the Rebels, they could live quietly, without being attacked, right through the Revolution and afterwards. Many of them did, and became leaders in the young American republic. But if they left the country during the Revolution or joined the British Army, their lands and property were confiscated.

(Marjorie Reeves, ed., The American Revolution 1775.83, pp. 91-93)

GLOSSARY

Revolution	:	forcible action by a nation to substitute new system of government.
Committees of Correspondence	:	a group of people elected to receive and to send out letters.
Independence	:	not depending on authority or control of another country.
Republic	:	a state in which supreme power is held by the people or its elected.
Loyalists	:	persons who are faithful and devoted to the existing government.

1. According to the passage, what was the effect of the American Revolution on human relations? (1)

.....

.....

.....

2. Why did Benjamin Franklin not forgive his son? (1)

.....

.....

.....

3. Name the two sides which were fighting during this war. (1)

.....

4. Which side won the war? (1)

.....

5. The passage says, both the Loyalists and the Rebels objected to 'taxation without representation'. Finish the following sentence, to show that you know what this means: They did not want to pay taxes unless... (2)

.....

6. According to the passage, what helped this side to win? (1)

.....

7. Why did the Loyalists flee from the country? (1)

.....

8. What would happen if someone tarred and feathered you? (1)

.....

9. Why were the Loyalists considered traitors after independence? (2)

.....

10. According to the passage, the Loyalists: were all wealthy, were against independence, were stronger than the rebels, all kept their feelings secret, feared rule by the uneducated mob, did not expect the colonies to declare their independence from Britain, were well organised, all fled from America after the war. (Underline the ones you think are right.) (2)

11. Explain what a civil war is (2)

.....

.....

.....

(15)

PASSAGE D

ALLIANCES AGAINST BRITAIN

For a long time Americans had looked upon the two Catholic countries of France and Spain as dangerous enemies. Then Congress was so short of money and materials in the early part of the war that it had to overcome its fears and set up a 'Committee for Secret Correspondence' to negotiate with them. France and Spain had no love for Britain and were ready to help. France had lost Canada and other possessions in the Seven Years War, and Spain was anxious to get back Gibraltar and Minorca, lost to Britain in earlier wars. Both countries sent large amounts of money and supplies to the Americans before 1778, and after Saratoga, France was convinced that this was the time to strike down her old enemy. The Spaniards joined in the following year.

To make things even worse for Britain, a quarrel developed with Holland. The Dutch were selling supplies to the Americans and the British attacked their ships in an attempt to stop it. In 1780 Sweden, Denmark and Russia joined in a League of Armed Neutrality, and closed the Baltic to British warships as a reprisal for British interference with their trade.

Britain was now isolated in Europe and threatened at many points in the world. Would she have the forces and resources to cover them? If not, how could she make best use of what she had? Lord North decided to negotiate with the rebels. He offered to grant all their demands about government and taxation, and more control over their own affairs, but it was the familiar story of doing the right thing too late. The colonists wanted independence. At the same time as he was negotiating for peace, North was sending instructions to the new commander-in-chief, General Clinton, for the next campaign of the war.

(Traver Cairns, ed., Introduction to the history of mankind, pp. 32-34)

1. How did the Americans regard France and Spain at first? (1)

   .....

2. What made the Americans start negotiating with the Catholic countries of France and Spain? (1)

   .....

   .....

3. As the war continued, Britain found she had more and more enemies. List the countries which were against her and then say why each country was against Britain. Use the table to give your answer.

COUNTRY	REASON FOR BEING BRITAIN'S ENEMY	
American colonies		(1)
France		(1)
Spain		(1)
Holland		(1)
Sweden		(1)
Denmark		(1)
Russia		(1)

4. Americans decided to set up a 'Committee for Secret Correspondence' to negotiate with France and Spain. Why was the correspondence secret? (3)

.....

.....

.....

5. What did Lord North offer the rebels? (2)

.....

.....

.....

6. Why did the rebels not accept Lord North's offers? (1)

.....

.....

.....

(15)

APPENDIX 10

ORIGINAL AND EDITED VERSIONS OF THE WORKSHEET TEXT

HITLER ON THE ROAD TO WAR 1933-39.

ORIGINAL

Hitler's Plans for Europe.

Some European statesmen who had never read **Mein Kampf** believed that Hitler merely wished to tear up the Versailles Treaty and return Europe to its condition of 1914, before World War I. Hitler had far more sweeping plans than this, based upon the twin principles of the Germanic unity and German living space.

German unity meant the gathering together of all Germans in Europe, one people into one empire, ruled by one leader. This involved people living in Austria, Czechoslovakia, Danzig, Memel and in other isolated pockets. Germany had not enough farmland to feed her population or enough raw materials to supply her factories. New lands to the east - in Poland and Russia - would therefore have to be taken over. These territories were, of course, to be made 'Jew-free'.

Hitler intended to destroy the power of France for ever but he hoped to take Great Britain into partnership after settling the question of the former German colonies. He also regarded Rumania highly because of her oil wells, and respected Yugoslavia because of her fine army. His overall vision was of an alliance of eastern European states, dominated by Germany, to form a buffer against the Russians and 'Asiatics'. Hitler valued the friendship of Italy, but in 1933 had not become an ally of Mussolini. For some time therefore the two dictators regarded each other warily.

EDITED

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ORIGINAL

European Reactions

The Russians knew what Hitler's intentions were and reacted swiftly. Since 1917 Russia had been excluded from Europe. The refoundation of the Polish state at Versailles had been conceived partly as a barrier to keep Communism out of Europe. Now France brought Russia back into Europe.

Threatened in the east by Japan and in the west by Germany, Russia was only too happy to enter into agreements which might restrain her potential enemies. So in 1934 she became a strong supporter of the League of Nations which formerly Russians had described as a 'robber band of capitalist states'. The next year she signed a defensive pact with France and Czechoslovakia. Russia had become a new problem for Hitler.

Poland was in a difficult position because she now occupied former German lands. Previously she had been France's leading friend in eastern Europe. France was now drawing closer to her (Poland's) former enemy, Russia, so that the Poles turned to Hitler and in January 1934, hopefully signed a ten-year pact with Germany. It was to survive less than six years.

France was thoroughly alarmed by Hitler's seizure of power and hastened to complete the Maginot Line fortifications. It was hoped that this great wall would keep the Germans out. France's fear played a major part in undermining the World Disarmament Conference of 1932-34. Deeply suspicious of Germany, she was quite unwilling to agree to the MacDonald plan which called for the reduction of all armies. Meanwhile she sought to encircle Germany by the alliance with Russia and smaller European powers. Time was to show how worthless these treaties were.

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Britain, secure behind the Channel, treated the threat of Nazism much more casually. Sir Horace Rumbold, British Ambassador to Berlin from 1928 to 1933, wrote a private letter in 1932 in which he compared Hitler to a 'revivalist preacher with the appearance of a greengrocer, wearing an Air Force moustache'. In 1935 Lord Lothian visited Hitler and wrote afterwards: 'I am convinced Hitler does not want war'. G Ward-Price thought Hitler was a 'human, pleasant personality' with a 'strong strain of sadness and tenderness in his disposition'.

Not everyone agreed with these assessments of Hitler. Winston Churchill asked, 'What manner of man is this grim figure who has... loosened these frightful evils?' Professor Stephen Roberts, an Australian who had stayed in Germany, said quite bluntly: 'Hitlerism cannot achieve its aims without war...the German people are ready to accept war.'

In 1933 when Hitler came to power the horrible memory of World War I was still so strong that many in Britain were prepared to go to almost any lengths to avoid war. (War was the only way in which Hitler could be stopped and with both the U.S.A. and Britain unwilling, attacking Germany was a ridiculous idea. If Hitler were overthrown Germany would return to the terrible chaos of 1923. In any case nobody believed Germany could become a real threat for ten years. This was true but as A.J.P. Taylor has commented, 'they failed to allow for the fact that Hitler was a gambler who would play for high stakes with inadequate resources'.

As Hitler's actions and demands became more menacing during the next five years western European statesmen retreated and gave way in the hope that Hitler would be satisfied. This policy of 'appeasement'

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ORIGINAL

was to fail because there were no limits to Hitler's ambitions. Many people now believe that a really determined stand against Hitler in 1934 or 1935 would have blocked his trail of conquest for ever. When it was obvious that appeasement had failed it proved too late to stop Hitler without a long and terrible struggle.

The First Steps

After less than a year in office Hitler withdrew Germany from the League of Nations, and followed this by a pact with Poland. Later in 1934 Hitler suffered his first set-back when an attempt by Austrian Nazis failed to overthrow the government in Vienna. Mussolini brought troops to the southern frontier of Austria as a warning to Hitler not to interfere. The Austrian Chancellor Engelbert Dollfuss, was mortally wounded by Nazis and allowed to bleed to death on the floor of his study. Doctor Kurt von Schuschnigg then took over as Chancellor until 1938, 'protected' by Mussolini.

Following Mussolini's action, Britain, France and Italy formed the Stresa front to prevent the destruction by individual countries of the Treaties which might endanger world peace. In order to secure the participation of Italy, France had to make certain concessions in Africa. This gave Mussolini the impression that the French would not interfere if he decided to press his claims in Abyssinia.

In 1935 Hitler had further successes. The important coal-mining area of the Saar voted by ten to one to return to Germany. In March Hitler felt confident enough to announce that he was abandoning the Treaty of Versailles by introducing conscription to bring the army up to 500 000 men. He was further able to split the Western Allies by concluding a naval treaty with Britain by which Germany was allowed a surface fleet equal to

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ORIGINAL	EDITED
35 per cent of the Royal Navy and also a submarine fleet. Britain was influenced to a large extent by France's independent attitude. Accepting that German re-armament was 'here to stay', the British leaders decided that the best solution was to come to an agreement with Hitler. Mussolini, who now seemed closer to France than to Germany, invaded Abyssinia in October. Attempts by the Allies to hold up or to stop the invasion failed and by May 1936 the conquest was complete. The League of Nations proved helpless and Hitler knew he could act without fear of the consequences.	35 per cent of the Royal Navy and also a submarine fleet. ...Mussolini, who now seemed closer to France than to Germany, invaded Abyssinia in October. Attempts by the Allies to hold up or to stop the invasion failed and by May 1936 the conquest was complete. The League of Nations proved helpless and Hitler knew he could act without fear of the consequences.
The Rhineland, 1936	
By the Treaty of Versailles Germany was forbidden to station troops or build fortifications within thirty miles of the Rhine. In the event of war, France would enjoy a big advantage over Germany, and to Hitler this state of affairs was intolerable. The French-Russian alliance signed on 27 February 1936 gave him the final proof and on 7 March small forces of German troops crossed the Rhine bridges and entered the 'forbidden' zone.	By the Treaty of Versailles Germany was forbidden to station troops or build fortifications within thirty miles of the Rhine. In the event of war, France would enjoy a big advantage over Germany, and to Hitler this state of affairs was intolerable. ...on 7 March small forces of German troops crossed the Rhine bridges and entered the 'forbidden' zone.

German annexations, 1938–39

The French army, which far outnumbered the Germans, made no move to stop them. Had they done so the Germans had orders to retreat quickly. In Britain the majority feeling was that Hitler had every right to occupy his own country.

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More Successes, 1936

In July civil war broke out in Spain. The Republican Government, supported by the Socialists and Communists, was attacked by the Nationalists led by General Franco. Hitler decided at once that he would help Franco in order to prolong the war as much as possible. This would distract France and draw Mussolini, who was becoming heavily involved in Spain, nearer to Germany. In fact by 21 October a secret agreement had been signed in which Germany and Italy would work together in foreign affairs. A month later Germany and Japan signed an anti-Communist Treaty, soon to be signed also by Italy.

It was still less than four years since Hitler had become Chancellor. He had moulded Germany into a proud, vigorous and united nation once more, with rapidly growing armed

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forces. He had, it seemed, found two powerful allies while shattering the unity of the Western powers. The time had now come to put his plans fully into action.

Austria, 1938.

The 7 million German-speaking inhabitants of Austria - the land of Hitler's birth - were to be the first acquisition to the new German Empire. Having bungled in 1934, Hitler sent Franz von Papen as ambassador to Vienna in 1936, to work for the overthrow of von Schuschnigg. Von Papen recommended strong measures, and he got them. Austrian Nazis made bomb attacks on public buildings and organised huge parades throughout 1937. Finally on 12 February 1938 Hitler summoned von Schuschnigg to meet him at Berchtesgaden, the Führer's mountain residence. For two hours Hitler stormed, raved and threatened: 'The whole history of Austria is just one long act of treason to the German race', and later: 'Who knows perhaps you will find me one morning in Vienna like a spring storm. Then you will go through something....The S.A. and the legion will come in after the troops...wreaking vengeance.'

After lunch Ribbentrop, the German Foreign Secretary, presented von Schuschnigg with a draft of Hitler's demands. These included lifting the ban on the Austrian Nazi Party and the release of imprisoned Party members. Three Nazis were to be given seats in the Austrian Cabinet: Seyss-Inquart as Minister of the Interior, Glaise-Horstenau as Minister of War, and Fischbok as Minister of Finance. Finally, Austria was to be tied closely both economically and militarily to Germany. Von Schuschnigg tried to get the terms modified, but in vain. Hitler allowed him three days' grace before the Agreement came into force, and von Schuschnigg reluctantly signed. He then returned to Vienna and four days later began to carry out Hitler's demands.

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ORIGINAL	EDITED
Hitler was well satisfied, for he realised that Austria was going to fall into his lap without any need for revolution. During the following weeks, the Austrian Nazis began to behave more and more boldly. It was obvious that before long they would be in complete control of the country. Von Schuschnigg then acted with blind and desperate courage. On 8 March he ordered a plebiscite to be held to decide whether Austria should remain independent or unite with Germany. This meant that every Austrian would vote and the result might destroy Hitler's argument that most Austrians wanted an **Anschluss** (union with Germany).	...During the following weeks, the Austrian Nazis began to behave more and more boldly. It was obvious that before long they would be in complete control of the country. Von Schuschnigg then acted with blind and desperate courage. On 8 March he ordered a plebiscite to be held to decide whether Austria should remain independent or unite with Germany. This meant that every Austrian would vote and the result might destroy Hitler's argument that most Austrians wanted an **Anschluss** (union with Germany).
Hitler was furious at the news and ordered plans for a military invasion to be drawn up. They would be carried out only 'if other measures proved unsuccessful'. Meanwhile, a letter was sent to Mussolini to seek his support, for it was he who had largely prevented a German take-over in 1934. Later Hitler issued orders for the possible invasion of Austria - 'Operation Otto'	Hitler was furious at the news and ordered plans for a military invasion to be drawn up...'Operation Otto'.
It was still hoped to gain control without an invasion. First the Nazis secured the abandonment of the plebiscite, and then the resignation of von Schuschnigg. When they tried to replace him by Syess-Inquart, the President of Austria, Wilhelm Miklas, refused. In spite of threats from Berlin, Miklas stood firm, but as the day wore on, news of Nazi uprisings throughout the country poured in. At last Miklas yielded. Seyss-Inquart became Federal Chancellor of Austria, but Hitler refused to stop the occupation of the country by German troops. He had already received news from Rome that Mussolini would not interfere.	It was still hoped to gain control without an invasion. First the Nazis secured the abandonment of the plebiscite, and then the resignation of von Schuschnigg.
Early on the morning of 12 March 1938 advance patrols of the German army crossed the frontier. In the afternoon Hitler himself drove through the streets of Linz, to an	Early on the morning of 12 March 1938 advance patrols of the German army crossed the frontier.

ORIGINAL

enthusiastic receiption. He spent the night in the town, deciding there and then to incorporate Austria into the German Reich.

Soon, motorised units of the German Eighth Army were pouring over the passes and down the valleys of Austria. Many vehicles broke down on the way, which helped to delay Hitler's arrival in Vienna. Nevertheless, huge crowds turned out to greet him when he did arrive. Now, just a quarter of a century since he had slipped out of the city unnoticed and unwanted, Hitler returned as lord and conqueror.

A month later a plebiscite was held to seek approval of his action. The vote was 99.75 per cent in favour. Speaking to a press conference, Hitler said: 'This is the proudest hour of my life.'

Behind Hitler came Himmler and the Gestapo. A special camp was set up at Mathausen and the usual victims of Nazism, who had been unable to escape or buy their freedom, became the first inmates. Hitler had increased his empire by 7 million and opened the road to his next conquest: Czechoslovakia.

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ORIGINAL

Czechoslovakia, 1938-39.

STAGE ONE
Czechoslovakia had come into existence in 1918 at the Treaty of Versailles. The population of 14 million was composed of the former inhabitants of Bohemia, Moravia and other smaller territories. The Czechs represented half the population and the Slovaks 2 million. Hitler's interest lay in the northern part, the Sudetenland, where there were 3 million German-speaking inhabitants. Under the Presidency of Thomas Masaryk (1918-1935) and Eduard Benes (1935-39), Czechoslovakia became a free country surrounded by Nazi, Fascist and Communist dictatorships.

Hitler had long hated the Czechs - they were 'subhuman' in his eyes, a free people and allies of his deadly enemies, France and Russia. Their fine army had to be destroyed before he could move east and by seizing Austria he was now able to outflank the northern defences. In addition Czechoslovakia was cut off from her allies, so help was not likely to come. But the greatest danger to the Czechs came from within - the 3 million Sudeten Germans. They had been inspired by the **Anschluss** (union with Austria) and they too wanted to join the great German Reich.

Konrad Henlein, the physical education teacher, who led the Sudetenlanders, said in 1936: 'As Germans in the Sudeten provinces...we feel ourselves members of the great cultural community of Germans in the whole world.'

Hitler did not, therefore, create the Czech crisis - he merely took advantage of it. He had no intention of making a head-on attack upon Czechoslovakia but intended to increase tension and conspire and threaten until somebody's nerve broke.

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ORIGINAL

The leading statesmen of Europe evidently believed that Hitler only wanted 'justice' for the Sudeten Germans. Once again they hoped that by satisfying his immediate appetite he would not invade Czechoslovakia and plunge Europe into war. The French Government was so divided on the question of whether they should support Czechoslovakia that they sent a message to Britain, begging Chamberlain to make the best bargain he could with Hitler. It was for this purpose that the seventy-year-old British Prime Minister, Neville Chamberlain, was to make three flights to Germany in September 1938 to talk to Hitler. Chamberlain sought only to avoid war. In a broadcast to the nation before leaving he said: 'How horrible, fantastic, incredible that we should be digging trenches...here because of a quarrel in a far away country between people of whom we know nothing.'

Chamberlain sent a telegram to Hitler on the 13th suggesting that he should set off for Germany the next day. Hitler was delighted, but to conceal his feelings, he casually awaited Chamberlain's arrival in the Berghof, a seven-hour plane journey from London. On a stormy afternoon the two leaders sat down to discuss the fate of several million Czechs. As could be expected, Hitler talked and Chamberlain listened, but it was a rambling monologue with hints of war, and Chamberlain began to feel that his journey had been wasted. Finally, Hitler agreed to the peaceful detachment of the Sudetenland areas following a plebiscite. Secretly he continued preparations for an invasion.

During the following week, Chamberlain sought the agreement of the French and the Czechs to the terms which he and Hitler had arrived at. Meanwhile pressure on Czechoslovakia was increased by demands from Poland for Teschen, from Hungary for Moldavia, and by the Slovak people's

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self-rule. If these three demands in addition to Hitler's were met it would mean the complete break-up of Czechoslovakia.

Chamberlain arriving for the Munich Conference

On 22 September Chamberlain again flew to Germany and met Hitler at Godesberg on the Rhine, and reported that he had secured the consent of the British, French and Czech Governments. Hitler replied: 'I am exceedingly sorry but after the events of the last few days this solution is no longer any use.' Chamberlain was angry and puzzled. He failed to realize that Hitler's real objective was the destruction of Czechoslovakia by force. The demand for the Sudetenland was merely an excuse to invade. Finally a compromise was reached. The Czechs would evacuate the Sudetenland by 1 October, 'This', said Hitler, 'is my last territorial demand in Europe.'

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ORIGINAL

But the British Cabinet refused to yield to Hitler's demands. A promise of support was sent to France if she became involved in war with Germany over Czechoslovakia. Chamberlain continued his lone quest for peace and tried to persuade Hitler not to attack President Benes in a forthcoming speech. Sir Horace Wilson, Chamberlain's special envoy, met Hitler but had to submit to a storm of interruption and insults as he presented his case. Finally, Hitler invited Wilson and the British Ambassador to the Sportspalast to hear him speak - a speech which turned out to be a long, vicious attack against Czechoslovakia and its President. The clouds of war gathered darkly.

Chamberlain then sent a message to Mussolini asking him for support in the plan which he was addressing to Hitler: an international conference to give Hitler what he wanted. Hitler telephoned Mussolini and agreed to hold a meeting at Frankfurt or Munich provided Mussolini came in person. Mussolini agreed on Munich and invitations went to Daladier and Chamberlain.

The Munich meeting was held in the newly built Führerhaus, with the delegates seated in easy chairs round the room. The discussions were repeatedly interrupted and often broke into heated arguments. Eventually terms were agreed and the dictators left the two Western leaders with the task of informing Benes of the dismemberment of his country. Benes resigned the presidency.

On 1 October German forces entered the Sudetenland. On the 10th Poland took Teschen, and three weeks later Hungary's claims were satisfied. Hitler and Chamberlain signed a pledge 'never to go to war with each other' and everyone was happy.

EDITED

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ORIGINAL

Everyone, that is, except Czechoslovakia which, with no representative at Munich, eventually lost one-third of her territories and population to Germany and Hungary.

Chamberlain was greeted as a hero in London. 'Come straight to Buckingham Palace', said King George VI, 'so that I can express to you personally my most heartfelt congratulations'; and **The Times** applauded: 'No conqueror returning from a victory on a battlefield has come home adorned with nobler laurels.'

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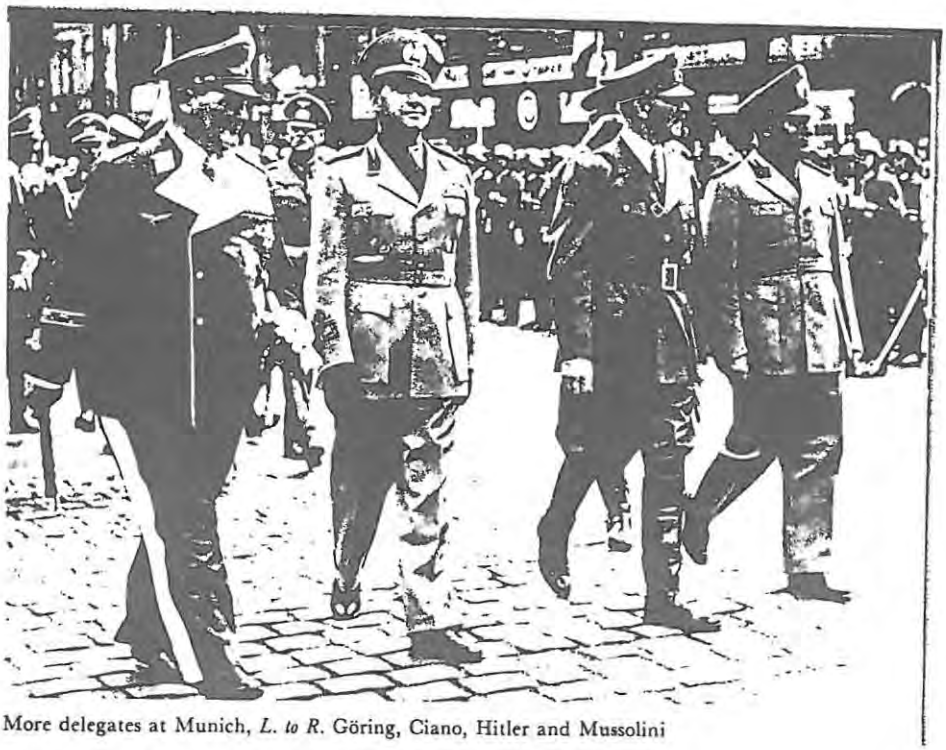

More delegates at Munich, *L. to R.* Göring, Ciano, Hitler and Mussolini

STAGE TWO

The tiger had been fed but he was still ravenous. Throughout the winter of 1938-39 the Nazis made plans for the final destruction of the Czechoslovak State. Hitler's reasons were mainly economic ones. The seizure of the great Skoda armament works and the gold and foreign currency reserves in Prague would be an immense relief from the strain of German rearmament. German newspapers began to fill with stories of violence by the Czechs upon Germans in that country.

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ORIGINAL

'GERMAN BLOOD FLOWS AGAIN IN BRUNN.'

'HUMILIATION OF GERMAN HONOUR.'

'GERMAN STUDENT BEATEN UP.'

To protect these 'unfortunates' Hitler began to mass troops on the frontier and on 15 March 1939, in an effort to save his country, President Hacha (who had succeeded Benes) took a train for Berlin. He was kept waiting until 1 a.m. before being admitted to the presence of Hitler. Göring and five others. After an attempt to curry favour with Hitler, Hacha was forced to listen to a long speech, which ended with Hitler telling him that the German army was going to invade Czechoslovakia at 6 a.m. - in less than four hours' time. Göring then warned Hacha that if the Czech army resisted, Prague, the capital, would be bombed. Hacha fainted, but after being revived put through a telephone call to his government telling them not to resist. He then signed an agreement asking the Fuhrer to 'protect' his people.

Within four days the German garrisons were in complete occupation and the new members of the puppet government in control. The British and French ambassadors could only mumble inadequate protests.

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Hitler's triumphal return to Vienna after twenty-five years

ORIGINAL

Hitler's seizure of Czechoslovakia was his first aggressive move against non-Germans. Even Chamberlain realised that Hitler could no longer be appeased and said so on 17 March.

Exactly two weeks later Britain gave a solemn promise of help in the event of attack to Hitler's next obvious victim - Poland.

Hitler then cancelled his 1934 'No war' treaty with Poland and his 1935 naval agreement with Britain and followed this by a ten-year military alliance with Italy. Far away across the Atlantic the U.S.A. regarded the squabblings in Europe as none of her business. Another giant, Russia, regarded everyone with suspicion and could not be left out of the reckoning.

The Poles had good reason to fear Nazi Germany. lands which they had acquired from Germany in 1919 cut off East Prussia from the Reich by the Polish Corridor and separated Danzig from Germany in order to give Poland a seaport. For a time Hitler remained friendly towards Poland, hoping to form an alliance with her against Russia. When Hitler started demanding the return of Danzig the Poles realised that German friendship would be of little value. These fears were further confirmed when German troops occupied Czechoslovakia on 15 March 1939 and then moved into Memel a week later. Only worry about the attitude of Soviet Russia held up Hitler's march into Poland, so the Germans began to drop hints that they would like to become more friendly with Russia. But neither side would make a move.

The French and most Englishmen could see that it was no use promising to help Poland without Russia's support. An alliance with Russia was repugnant to a great many Englishmen. In a letter to his sister in 1939 Neville Chamberlain wrote: 'I must confess to the most profound distrust of Russia.

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ORIGINAL

I have no belief whatever in her ability to maintain an effective offensive even if she wanted to. And I distrust her motives...' A neutral Russia, however, would be able to control Europe if Germany, Britain and France fought to the death. In the event of a Russo-German war the winner would also be in a controlling position so Britain adopted the impossible policy of trying to keep at peace with Germany by an alliance with Russia.

Negotiations in the summer of 1939 between the British and Russians came to nothing because the former wanted to warn Hitler against attacking Poland, while the latter wanted a military alliance which could defeat Germany. This belief of the Russians that the Western Allies wanted her to fight Germany alone led to the bombshell of 22 August 1939 - the Russo-German non-aggression pact.

By this Russia and Germany agreed not to go to war for twenty-five years. The door was left wide open for Hitler to move into Poland.

The Polish Agony

It only remained for a shallow excuse to be provided for the invasion of Poland. A series of incidents were faked on the frontier, the most famous being at Gleiwitz, organised by Alfred Naujocks, a Gestapo officer. Twelve German criminals dressed in Polish uniforms were killed and left lying near a German radio station. Shots were fired, a broadcast made and members of the Press invited to see the 'evidence' of the wicked 'Polish' attack.

Nine hours later at dawn on 1 September 1939 Hitler's forces set out to 'punish' the Poles. Great columns of tanks, mobile guns and lorries poured over the frontier while overhead the dive-bombers screamed in for the kill.

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ORIGINAL

Two days later, on the refusal of Hitler to withdraw his forces, first Britain then France declared war on Germany. But this belated action could not save Poland. In spite of the utmost bravery, the Poles found that cavalry regiments were no match for tanks. Their air force was destroyed on the ground. Their commanders were captured and mobile German units sprang from nowhere to prevent retreat and mop up resistance.

The Russians were surprised by the speed of the German advance and moved in hastily to claim their share of Poland under the August Agreement. Meanwhile the last units of the Polish army were being rounded up and on 30 September, after a desperate siege, Warsaw surrendered.

Walter Schellenburg, a young S.S. officer, walked through the ruins. 'I was shocked at what had become of the beautiful city I had known - ruined and burnt out houses, starving and grieving people. A pall of dust and smoke hung over the city and everywhere there was the sweetish smell of burnt flesh... Warsaw was a dead city.'

The horror of war had again descended upon Europe.

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APPENDIX 11

GRADED WORKSHEET A FOR THE LEAST ABLE

HITLER ON THE ROAD TO WAR

Maximum Mark : 65

EXERCISE 1

(a) The Treaty of Versailles forbade Germany doing certain things. From 1935, Germany, under Hitler, did some of the things it had been forbidden to do. In the table below you will see two of the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. In the second and third columns, write in the ways Hitler broke these terms and when he broke them.

Treaty of Versailles	Hitler's Actions	
	How he broke the terms	Date
Germany had to make her armed forces smaller.		
Germany was not allowed to have troops within thirty miles (48km) of the Rhine river.		

(6)

(b) Read these sentences carefully, then write them out in the correct order to tell the story of h ow Hitler's actions led to war from March 1935 to September 1939. Before doing that, in the left hand column, write the numbers of the sentences in their correct order. When this has been checked by your teacher, cut the sentences and paste them into your workbook in their correct order.

(i) Hitler's forces marched on Poland.

(ii) German troops crossed the Rhine bridges and occupied the Rhineland.

(iii) Military conscription was introduced.

(iv) German forces occupied the Sudetenland.

(v) The Russo-German non-aggression pact was signed.

(vi) Austria was occupied by German troops. (12)

(c) What did Hitler mean by Germany unity? (2)

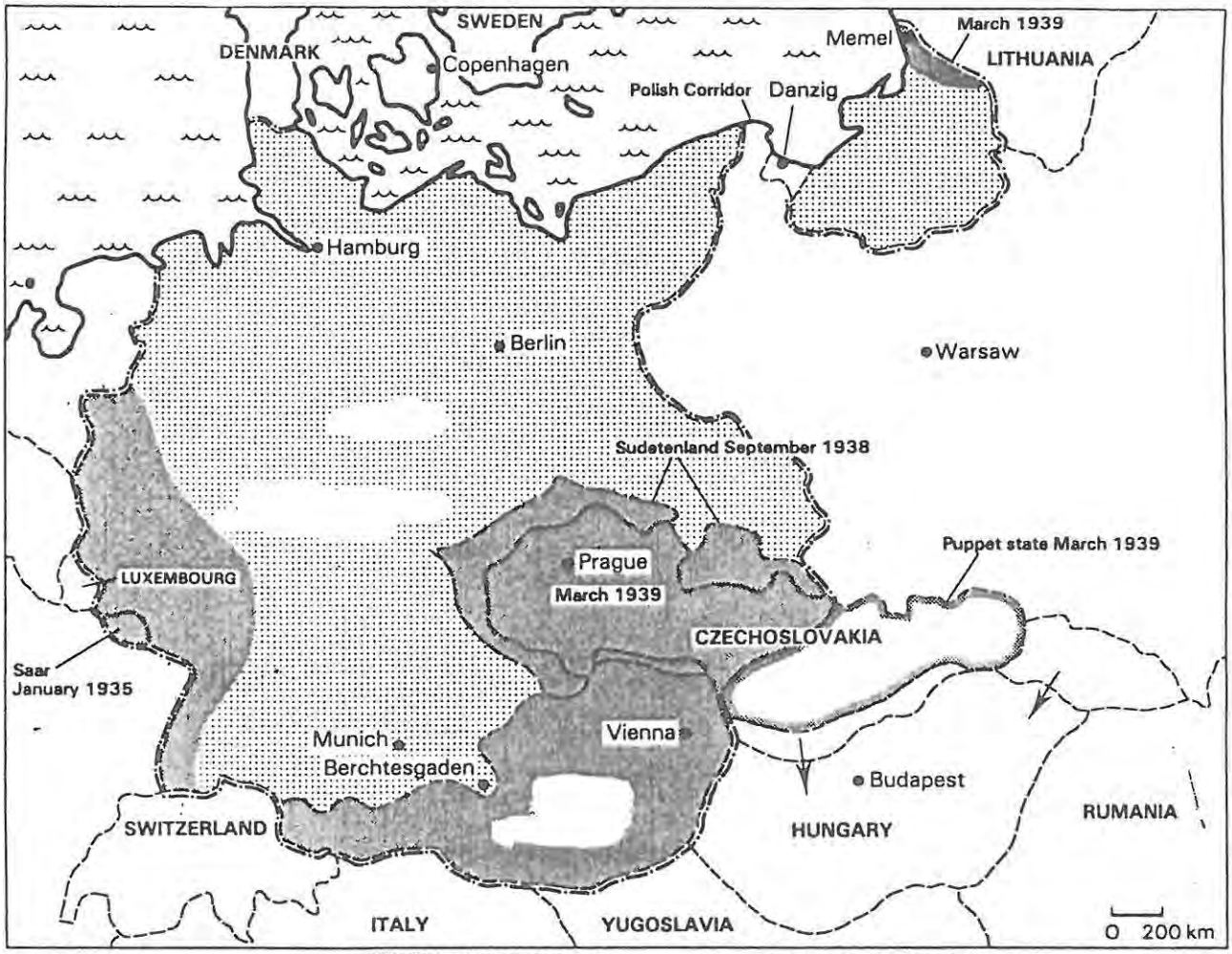
(d) Which people did German unity involve? (2)

(e) How did Germany plan to get living space and enough food to feed the people in the new, bigger German state? (2)

(24)

EXERCISE 2

Study the map and answer the questions below.



(a) Name the countries which were separated by the Rhine river. (4)

(b) Germany was not supposed to be within 30 miles (48km) of the _____ river. Put the name of the river in the right place in the map. (1)

(c) Below the name of the river, write the date when Hitler's troops occupied the area. (1)

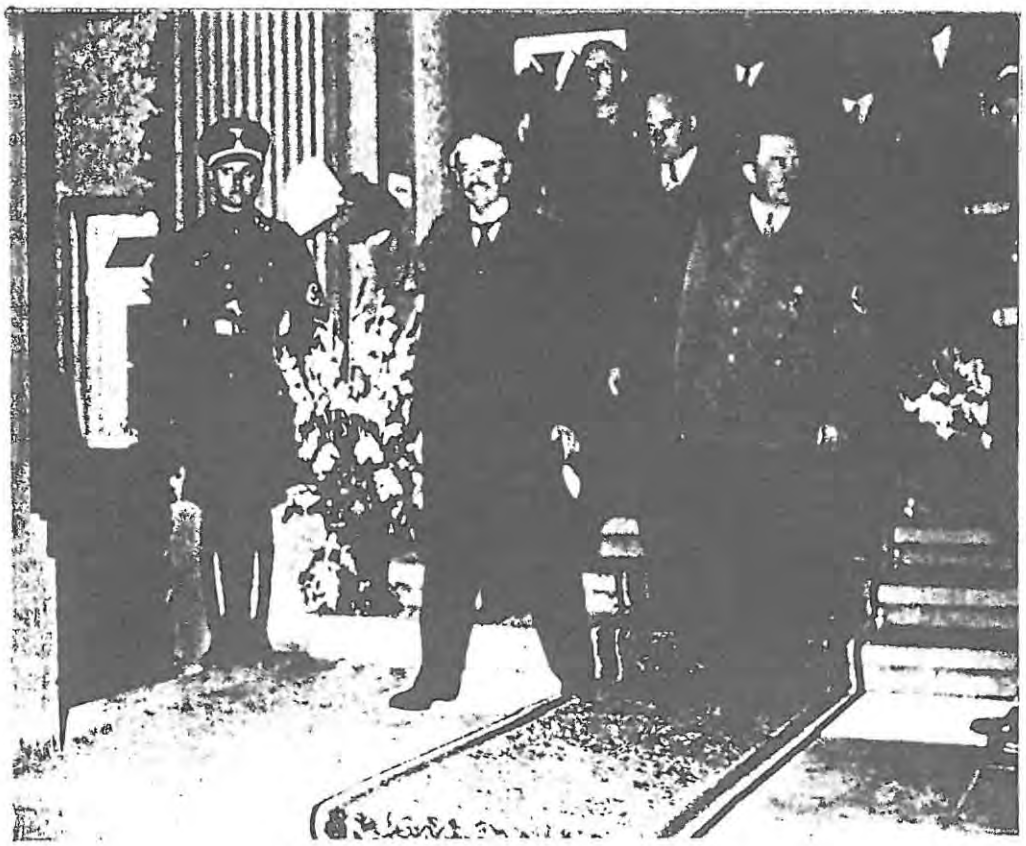
(d) Write the name of the area which was occupied by Germany in March 1938 in the right place in the map. (1)

(e) Hitler invaded another European country in 1939. This action led quickly to the Second World War. Which country did he invade? Mark the right place of this country in the map. (1)

(8)

EXERCISE 3

Study the picture carefully and answer the questions below.



(a) What is the name of the man wearing a grey jacket? (1)

(b) Which symbol in his clothing makes you to say that? (1)

(c) The other man in the picture was a politician from England. What was his name? (1)

(d) This picture was taken at Godesberg. When did this meeting take place? (1)

(e) Why did these politicians meet at Godesberg? (2)

(f) In the picture, the two men are smiling. But during the meeting the English politician became angry. Why? (2)

(g) If the English politician was angry, why do you think he was smiling when the photograph was taken? (You will not find the answer in the text.) (3)

(h) What did they agree on at Godesberg? (1)

(12)

EXERCISE 4

(a) Match the events listed below with the correct dates on which they took place. The dates are listed here: (September 1938, 1918, 1936; 1 October 1938; 15 March 1939; 22 September 1938, 1938-1939).

EVENTS	DATES
Konrad Henlein expressed the wish of the Swedish Germans to join the German Reich.	
German forces entered the Sudetenland.	
Neville Chamberlain made three flights to Germany to talk to Hitler.	
President Hacha of Czechoslovakia took a train to Berlin to talk to Hitler.	
Czechoslovakia came into existence.	

(b) List three reasons why Hitler hated the Czechs. (3)

(8)

EXERCISE 5

Paste the following passage in your workbook. Read carefully and choose only the correct word from the two in brackets.

The Poles had good reason to fear Nazi Germany. (Lands/mines) which they had taken over from Germany in 1919 cut off East (Russia/Prussia) from the Reich by the (Polish/Police) corridor and separated Danzig from Germany in order to give Poland a (seaport/airport). For a time Hitler remained (unfriendly/friendly) towards Poland, hoping to form an alliance with her against (Prussia/Russia). Then (Hindenburg/Hitler started (defending/demanding) the return of Danzig. The Poles now saw that German friendship would be of (little/big) use. These fears were further confirmed when German troops occupied (Czechoslovakia/Austria) on 15 May 1939. Hitler was keen to march into (Poland/Holland). But he was worried about what Soviet (Russia/Prussia) would think. So he hinted that Germany would like to become more (friendly/unfriendly) with Russia. But neither side would make a move. (13)

APPENDIX 12

GRADED WORKSHEET B FOR THE SLIGHTLY BETTER

HITLER ON THE ROAD TO WAR

Maximum Mark : 47

EXERCISE 1

(a) The Treaty of Versailles forbade Germany doing certain things. From 1935, Germany under Hitler, did some of the things it had been forbidden to do. In the table below you will see two of the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. In the second and third columns, write in the ways Hitler broke these terms and when he broke them.

Treaty of Versailles	Hitler's Actions	
	How he broke the terms	Date
Germany had to make her armed forces smaller.		
Germany was not allowed to have troops within thirty miles (48km) of the Rhine river.		

(6)

(b) Read the following sentences, then write them out in the correct order to tell the story of how Hitler's actions led to war from March 1935 to September 1939. Before doing that, in the left hand column, write the numbers of the sentences in their correct order. When this has been checked by your teacher, cut the sentences and paste them into your workbook in their correct order.

(i) Hitler's forces marched on Poland.

(ii) German troops crossed the Rhine bridges and occupied the Rhineland.

(iii) Military conscription was introduced.

(iv) German forces occupied the Sudetenland.

(v) The Russo-German non-aggression pact was signed.

(vi) Austria was occupied by German troops. (12)

(c) What did Hitler mean by German unity? (2)

(d) Which people did German unity involve? (2)

(e) How did Germany plan to get living space and enough food to feed the people in the new, bigger German state? (2)

(18)

EXERCISE 2

(a) Match the events listed below with the correct dates on which they took place. The dates are listed here: (September 1938, 1918, 1936; 1 October 1938; 15 March 1939; 22 September 1938, 1938-1939).

EVENTS	DATES
Konrad Henlein expressed the wish of the Sudetenland Germans to join the German Reich.	
German forces entered the Sudetenland.	
President Hacha of Czechoslovakia took a train for Berlin to talk to Hitler.	
Czechoslovakia came into existence.	

(5)

(b) List three reasons why Hitler hated the Czechs. (3)

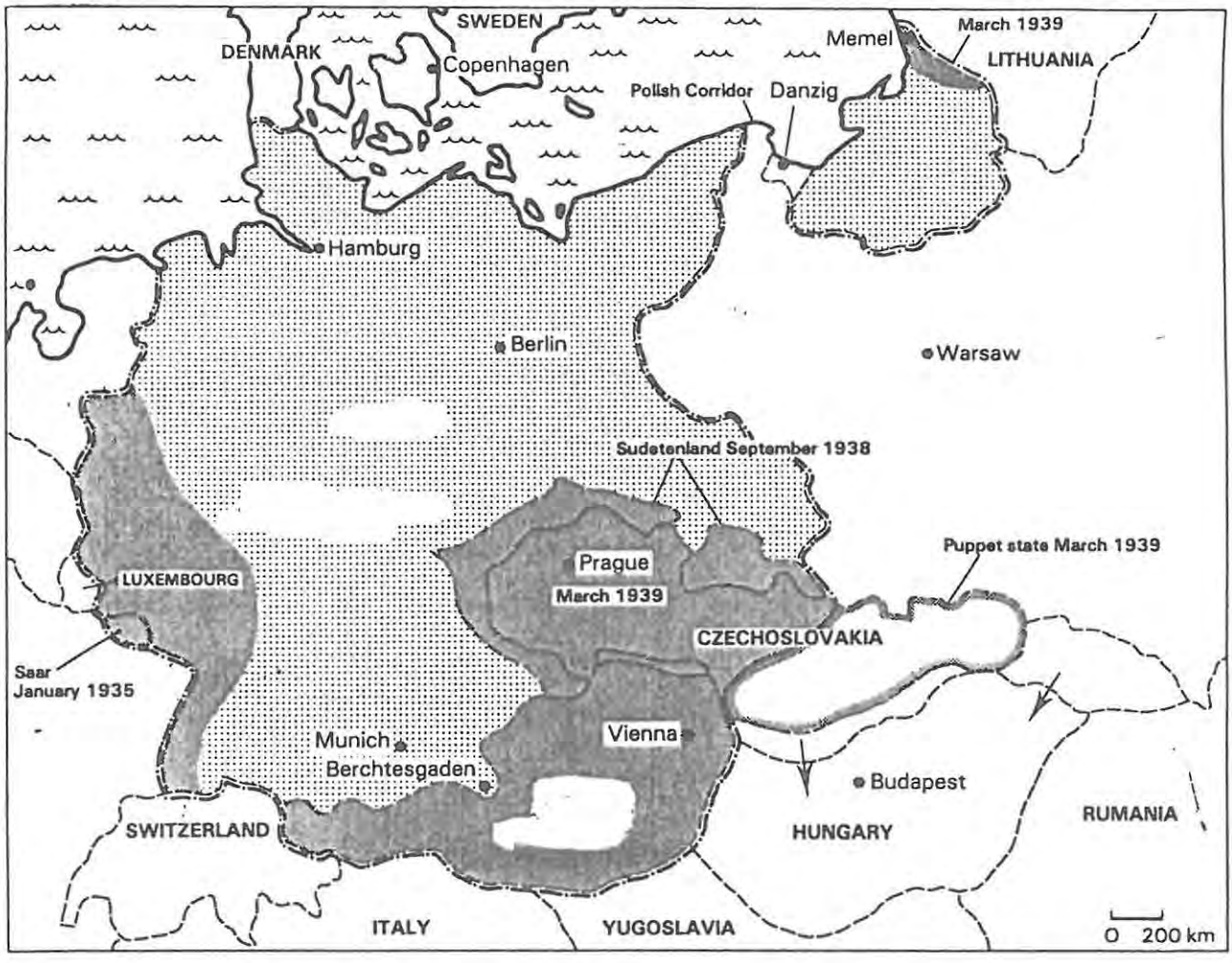
(c) Chamberlain met Hitler in Germany in 1938. Where? (1)

(d) Why did Chamberlain want to meet Hitler at this time? (2)

(11)

EXERCISE 3

Study the map and answer the questions below.



(a) Name the countries which were separated by the Rhine river. (4)

(b) Germany was not supposed to be within thirty miles (48km) of the _____river. Put the name of the river in the right place in the map. (1)

(c) Below the name of the river, write the date when Hitler's troops occupied the area. (1)

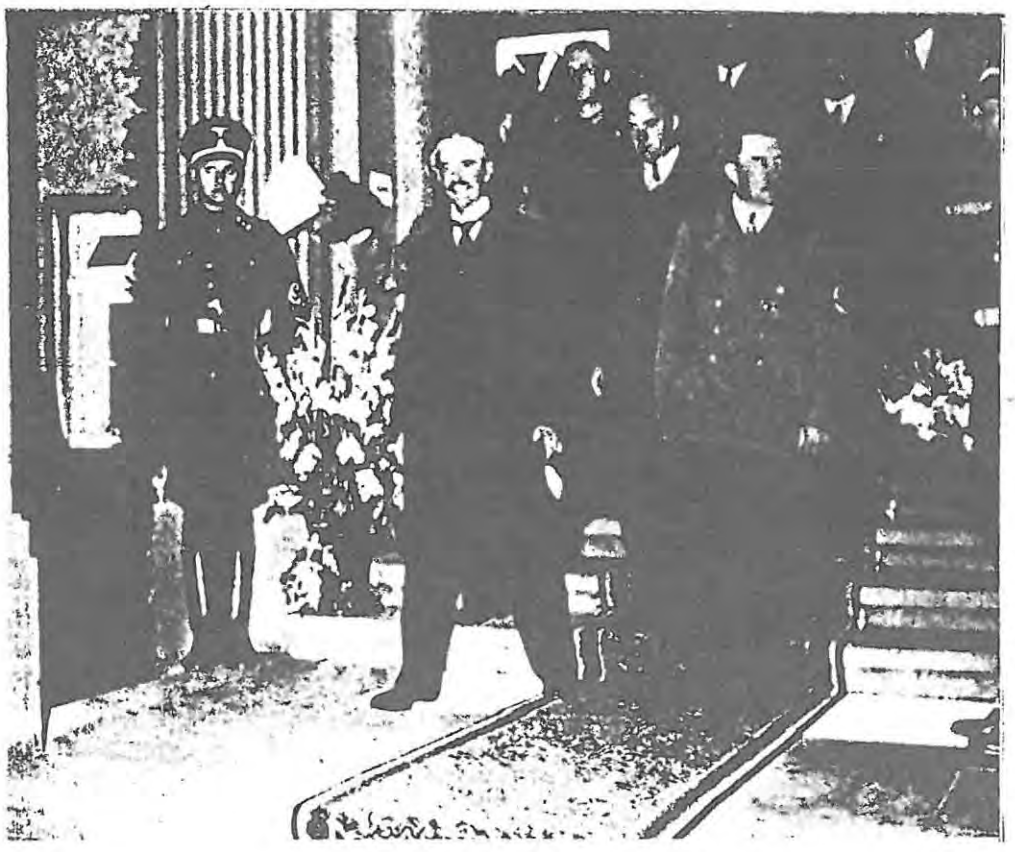
(d) Write the name of the area, which was occupied by Germany in March 1938, in the right place in the map. (1)

(e) Hitler invaded another European country in 1939. This action led quickly to the Second World War. Which country did he invade? Mark the right place of this country in the map. (1)

(8)

EXERCISE 4

Study the picture and answer the questions below.



(a) What is the name of the man wearing a grey jacket? (1)

(b) The other man in the picture was a politician from England. What was his name? (1)

(c) Why did these politicians meet at Godesberg? (2)

(d) In the picture the two men are smiling. But during the meeting, the English politician became angry. Why? (2)

(e) If the English politician was angry, why do you think he was smiling when the photograph was taken? (You will not find the answer in the text.) (3)

(f) What did they agree on at Godesberg? (1)

(10)

APPENDIX 13

GRADED WORKSHEET C FOR THE MUCH BETTER

HITLER ON THE ROAD TO WAR

Maximum Mark : 38

EXERCISE 1

(a) Copy down the list of "heads" into your book. Then, copy out the "tails" alongside the "heads". Be sure to match them properly in two columns.

HEADS	TAILS
Mein Kampf	Rebuilding an army
Versailles Treaty	A book written by Hitler
Conscription	Hitler's political party
Rearmament	It marked the end of World War I.
	Compulsory training of soldiers

(4)

(b) Read these sentences carefully, then write them out in the correct order to tell the story of Hitler's fourth step to war. Before doing that, in the left hand column, write the numbers of the sentences in their correct order. When this has been checked by your teacher, cut the sentences and paste them into your workbook in their correct order.

(i) Chamberlain, the British Prime Minister, flew to meet Hitler at Godesberg.

(ii) On September 29th, 1938 Chamberlain met Hitler at Munich.

(iii) After Hitler had begun to threaten Czechoslovakia, Chamberlain flew to meet him in Germany on 15th September.

(iv) At the start of September 1938 Hitler demanded the Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia. This made a war look very likely.

(v) In March 1939 Hitler took over the rest of Czechoslovakia.

(vi) On his return from Munich, Chamberlain was received as a hero who had been able to make sure there would be peace. (12)

(c) Hitler had no intention of attacking Czechoslovakia, although he was interested in gaining land. What gave him an excuse to interfere in the affairs of Czechoslovakia? (2)

(d) Look at your answer to question (b). Do you think Hitler would be satisfied with the arrangement about the Sudetenland? Why do you say that? (3)

(e) When Chamberlain arrived in London from Munich, he was welcomed as a hero. Why? (2)

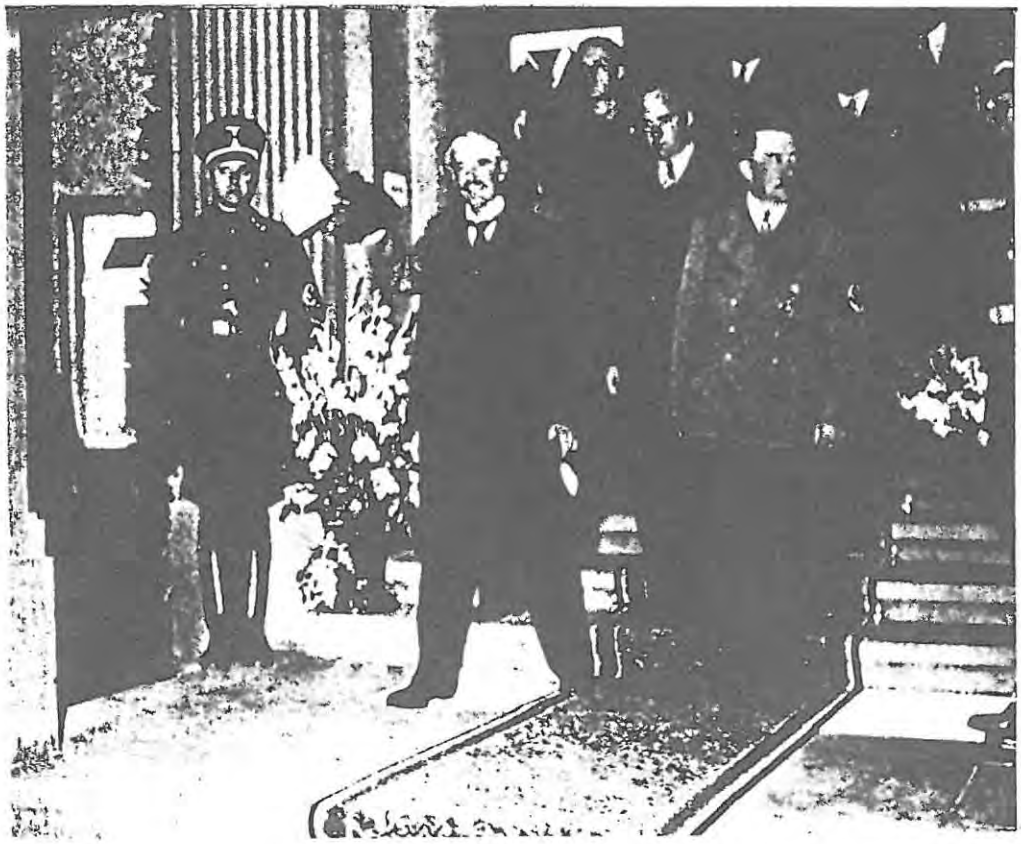
(f) In March 1939, Hitler cancelled his 1934 "No war" treaty with Poland. Why? (2)

(g) After 22nd August 1939, what would happen if Germany attacked Poland? Why? (4)

(29)

EXERCISE 2

Study the picture and answer the questions below.



(a) What is the name of the man wearing a grey jacket? (1)

(b) Which symbol in his clothing makes you to say that? (1)

(c) The other man in the picture was a politician from England. What was his name? (1)

(d) Why did these politicians meet at Godesberg? (2)

(e) If the English politician was angry, why do you think he was smiling when the photograph was taken? (You will not find the answer in the text.) (3)

(f) What did they agree on at Godesberg? (1)

(9)

APPENDIX 14

GRADED WORKSHEET D FOR THE MOST ABLE

HITLER ON THE ROAD TO WAR

Maximum Mark : 43

EXERCISE 1

(a) Copy down the list of "heads" into your book. Then, copy out the "tails" alongside the "heads". Be sure to match them properly in two columns.

HEADS	TAILS
Mein Kampf	Rebuilding an army
Versailles Treaty	A book written by Hitler
Conscription	Hitler's political party
Rearmament	It marked the end of World War I.
	Compulsory training of soldiers

(4)

(b) Read these sentences carefully, then write them out in the correct order to tell the story of Hitler's fourth step to war. Before doing that, in the left hand column, write the numbers of the sentences in their correct order. When this has been checked by your teacher, cut the sentences and paste them into your work-book in their correct order.

(i) Chamberlain, the British Prime Minister, flew to meet Hitler at Godesberg.

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(v) In March 1939 Hitler took over the rest of Czechoslovakia.

(vi) On his return from Munich, Chamberlain was received as a hero who had been able to make sure there would be peace. (12)

(c) Hitler wished to remove the humiliations which were put on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles. Why would Hitler need to re-arm in order to remove those humiliations? (3)

(d) Hitler had no intention of attacking Czechoslovakia, although he was interested in gaining land. What gave him an excuse to interfere in the affairs of Czechoslovakia? (2)

(e) When Chamberlain arrived in London from Munich, he was welcomed as a hero. Why? (2)

(f) At the Munich conference, Czechoslovakia was not represented. Britain, France, Italy, Germany and Hungary dismembered Czechoslovakia by giving Teschen to Poland, Sudetenland to Germany and Moldavia to Hungary. What do you think would be the reaction of the President of Czechoslovakia to these arrangements? Why? (3)

(g) German newspapers published statements such as:

"German blood flows again in Brunn."
"Humiliation of German honour."
"German student beaten up."

How would people in Germany react to such statements about events in Czechoslovakia? (3)

(29)

EXERCISE 2

(a) In March 1939, Hitler cancelled his 1934 "No war" treaty with Poland. Why? (2)

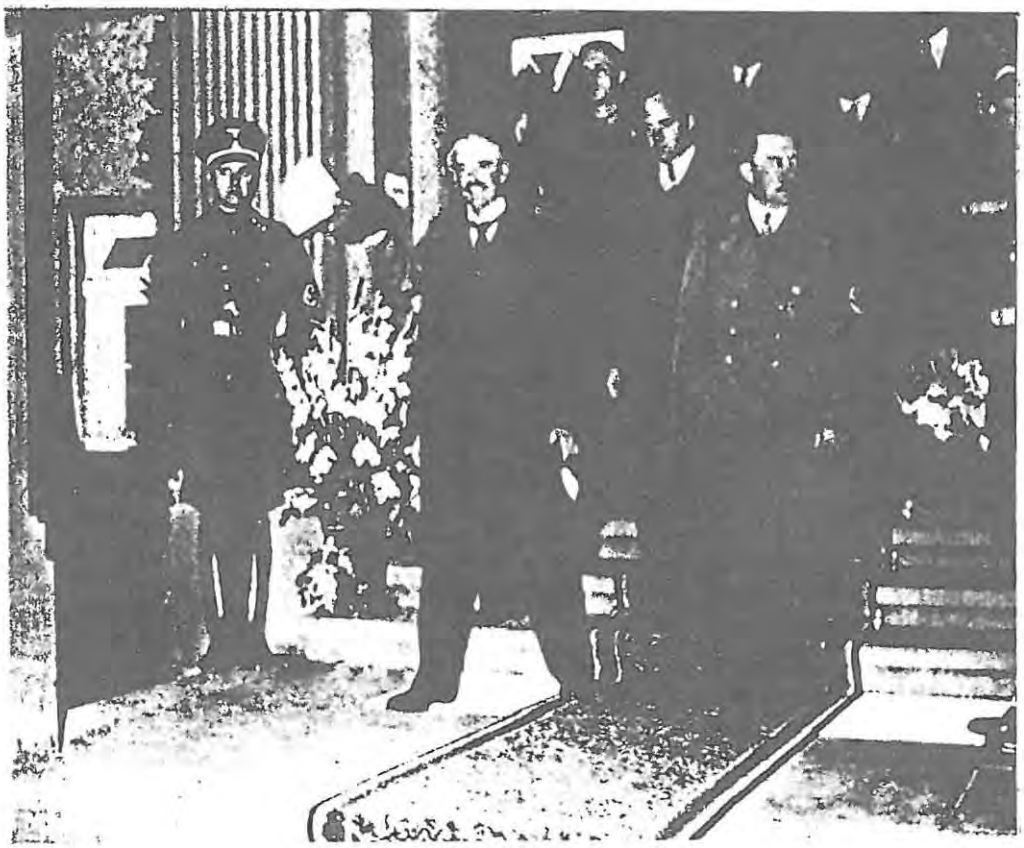
(b) After 22nd August 1939, what would happen if Germany attacked Poland? Why? (4)

(c) What was the reaction of Britain and France when Hitler attacked Poland in 1939? (1)

(7)

EXERCISE 3

Study the picture and answer the questions below.



(a) What is the name of the man wearing a grey jacket? (1)

(b) The other man in the picture was a politician from England. What was his name? (1)

(c) Why did these politicians meet at Godesberg? (1)

(d) If the English politician was angry, why do you think he was smiling when the photograph was taken? (You will not find the answer in the text.) (3)

(e) What did they agree on at Godesberg? (1)

(7)

APPENDIX 15

GRADED WORKSHEET E FOR A WIDE RANGE OF ABILITIES

HITLER ON THE ROAD TO WAR

Maximum Marks : 67

EXERCISE 1

(a) Copy down the list of "heads" into your book. Then copy out the "tails" alongside the "heads". Be sure to match them properly in two columns.

HEADS	TAILS
Mein Kampf	Rebuilding an army
Versailles Treaty	A book written by Hitler
Conscription	Hitler's political party
Rearmament	It marked the end of World War I
	Compulsory training of soldiers

(4)

(b) Read the following sentences, then write them out in the correct order to tell the story of how Hitler's actions led to war from March 1935 to September 1939. Before doing that, in the left hand column, write the numbers of the sentences in their correct order. When this has been checked by your teacher, cut the sentences and paste them into your workbook in their correct order.

(i) Hitler's forces marched on Poland.

(ii) German troops crossed the Rhine bridges and occupied the Rhineland.

(iii) Military conscription was introduced.

(iv) German forces occupied the Sudetenland.

(v) The Russo-German non-aggression pact was signed.

(vi) Austria was occupied by German troops. (12)

(c) What did Hitler mean by German unity? (2)

(d) Which people did German unity involve? (2)

(e) How did Germany plan to get living space and enough food to feed the people in the new, bigger German State. (2)

(22)

EXERCISE 2

(a) Match the events listed below with the correct dates on which they took place. The dates are listed here: (September 1938, 1918, 1936; 1 October 1938; 15 March 1939; 22 September 1938, 1938-1939).

EVENTS	DATES
Konrad Henlein expressed the wish of the Sudetenland Germans to join the German Reich.	
German forces entered the Sudetenland.	
Neville Chamberlain made three flights to Germany to talk to Hitler.	
President Hacha of Czechoslovakia took a train for Berlin to talk to Hitler.	
Czechoslovakia came into existence.	

(5)

(b) Read these sentences carefully, then write them out in the correct order to tell the story of Hitler's fourth step to war. Before doing that, in the left hand column, write the numbers of the sentences in their correct order. When this has been checked by your teacher, cut the sentences and paste them into your workbook in their correct order.

(i) Chamberlain, the British Prime Minister, flew to meet Hitler at Godesberg.

(ii) On September 29th, 1938 Chamberlain met Hitler at Munich.

(iii) After Hitler had begun to threaten Czechoslovakia, Chamberlain flew to meet him in Germany on 15th September.

(iv) At the start of September 1938 Hitler demanded the Sudetenland from Czechoslovalia. This made a war look very likely.

(v) In March 1939 Hitler took over the rest of Czechoslovakia.

(vi) On his return from Munich, Chamberlain was received as a hero who had been able to make sure there would be peace. (12)

(c) List three reasons why Hitler hated the Czechs. (3)

(d) Chamberlain met Hitler in Germany in 1938. Where? (1)

(e) Hitler wished to remove the humiliations which were put on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles. Why would Hitler need to re-arm in order to remove those humiliations? (3)

(f) German newspapers published statements such as:

"German blood flows again in Brunn."
"Humiliation of German honour."
"German student beaten up."

How would people in Germany react to such statements about events in Czechoslovakia? (3)

(27)

EXERCISE 3

(a) In March 1939, Hitler cancelled his 1934 "No war" treaty with Poland. Why? (2)

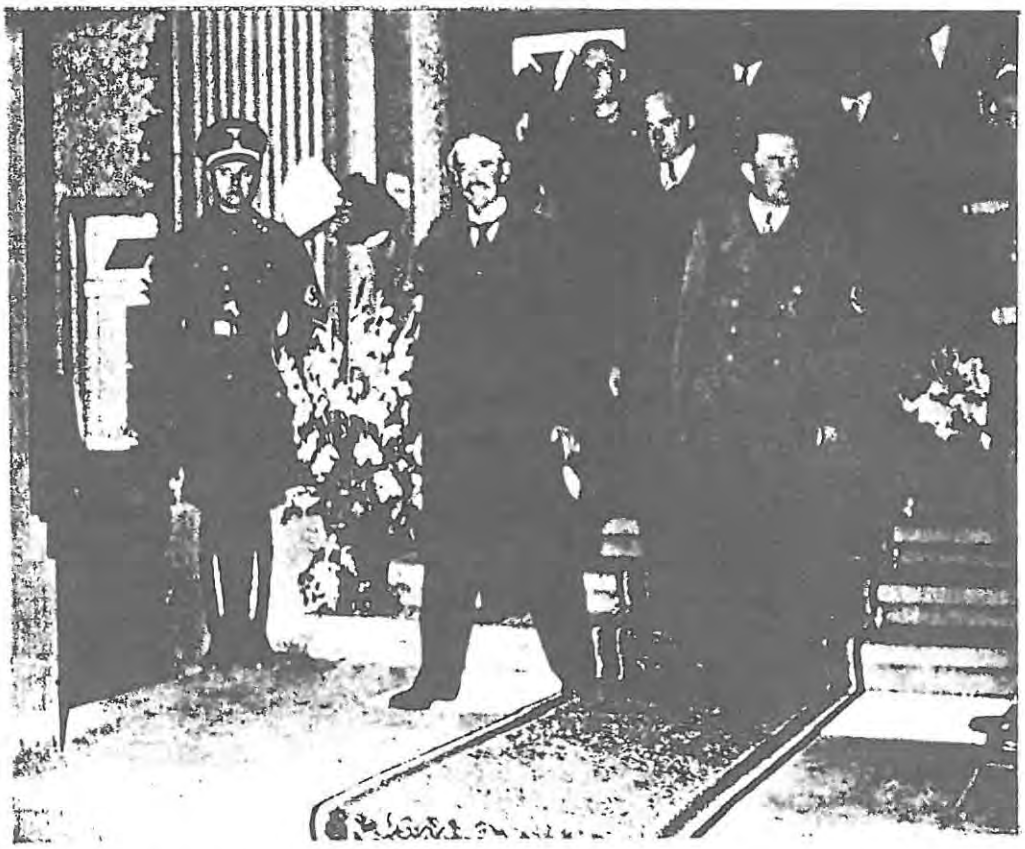
(b) After 22nd August 1939, what would happen if Germany attacked Poland? (4)

(c) What was the reaction of Britain and France when Hitler attacked Poland in 1939? (1)

(7)

EXERCISE 4

Study the picture and answer the questions below.



(a) What is the name of the man wearing a grey jacket? (1)

(b) Which symbol in his clothing makes you to say that? (1)

(c) The other man in the picture was a politician from England. What was his name? (1)

(d) This picture was taken at Godesberg. When did this meeting take place? (1)

(e) Why did these politicians meet at Godesberg? (1)

(f) In the picture the two men are smiling. But during the meeting the English politician became angry. Why? (2)

(g) If the English politician was angry, why do you think he was smiling when the photograph was taken? (You will not find the answer in the text.) (3)

(h) What did they agree on at Godesberg? (1)

(11)

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