

# Catching Them Young: Teaching “History” to the 4-7 Age Group

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If we accept that all normal children, irrespective of their age, are possessed with the desire to find out about the world around them; if it is true that gaining knowledge is a powerful human desire, as basic to life as the need for love, physical safety, trust and security, then it must be the teacher's concern to give a modicum of Social Studies education to children as early in life as one can. Social Studies education teaches children about the nature of people, about the world, and about human relationships and all these are not alien even to young children of the kindergarten and infant classes.

How can teachers impart this kind of education? Certainly not by stuffing children with indigestible facts but by accepting the primacy of concepts. Facts, as every educationalist will tell you, are too numerous to learn, date very quickly, and, because they are unrelated to children's experiences, are quickly forgotten. Concepts, on the other hand, while not rejecting the use of facts, always have to do with meaning. They help

children (as well as adults) to process, associate, categorize, interpret, respond to stimuli, order experiences - in short to make sense out of their world and out of the changes they encounter.

This is not the place and time to discuss how sensory experiences of children give rise to perceptions and how these in turn are the beginnings of concepts. Nor should one dwell at length here on how concept formation is influenced by emotions, conditions of health, language, experience, personality, social relations and the like. If we accept at this stage that concepts, among other characteristics, are hierarchical and cumulative, then it must follow that even the very young child can have certain notions or concepts, very simplistic and vague, even inaccurate and incomplete, misconceptions rather than concepts if you like, but nonetheless concepts in the Brunerian rather than the Piagetian sense. Bruner strongly believes that it is possible to teach the foundations of any subject at any age in some form.<sup>1</sup>

His basic thesis is the idea of the spiral curriculum in which the child is introduced to concepts at ever increasing levels of sophistication as he goes through the enactive, iconic and symbolic stages of intellectual development.

The Social Studies curriculum, then, should be built on concept formation. Key concepts from each of the various social studies disciplines - History, Geography, Economics, Sociology, Anthropology, Political Science, etc. - can be identified and these can be ordered from the simplest, most concrete to the more abstract and complex. Taba *et al* suggested that eleven key concepts could serve as the basis for an entire elementary social studies programme. These concepts were causality, conflict, cooperation, cultural change, differences, interdependence, modification, power, societal control, tradition and values.<sup>2</sup> Teachers should not feel surprised at, even less sceptical of the advocacy of developing concepts from such subjects as Economics and Sociology. Even pupils in the infant stages can be taught such basic concepts as consumption, goods and services, wants and needs in Economics and concepts such as food, clothing, language and so on in Sociology. Research has shown that certain elements of understanding can be conveyed to young children and the groundwork for a more mature study of the subject developed in the earliest years at school, provided that the kind of understanding it seeks to create is clearly appreciated and the methods used appropriate to the child's ability.

Spodek<sup>3</sup> concluded that: 1. Kindergarten children can begin to develop significant social science concepts; 2. Kindergarten children bring a background of knowledge with them to school; 3. Kindergarten children gather information in many

ways; 4. Kindergarten children can deal with ideas over long periods of time; 5. Kindergarten children use the tools of the social scientist and 6. Kindergarten children transfer their understanding in approaching new situations. Decaroli<sup>4</sup> disclosed that children at the kindergarten level and higher were able to utilize the basic processes of concept formation. A critical variable in concept development was the degree of abstraction of the concept; the more concrete the examples, the easier it was to learn the concept. Schwab and Stern<sup>5</sup> concluded that superior learning occurs with the presentation of fewer concepts. McKinney and Golden<sup>6</sup> concluded "that many abstract concepts can be taught more efficiently through an appropriate activity which requires the child's direct experience as opposed to methods which rely solely on verbal and symbolic modes of presentation."

Although I happen to be one who firmly believes in an interdisciplinary approach to Social Studies even with the very young, I feel it best in the present context to concentrate on just one discipline, History, and suggest ways in which a few basic concepts of the subject can be conveyed to the very young child. Ideas expressed here can of course be transferred to the teaching of Social Studies in general.

But first a word on the inherent difficulties of History as a subject. Professor G.R. Elton<sup>7</sup>, and others too, are very pessimistic in their views about what kind of History can really be taught below sixth-form level when students are supposed to have gained the necessary maturity to understand 'serious' History. Watts<sup>8</sup> tantalizingly puts forward arguments against the teaching of History in the Primary School. Among these one finds that (1) History is nearly all about adults and their behaviour; schoolchildren do not know what it is like to be an adult, and do not understand adults' behaviour, so they cannot understand history<sup>9</sup>; (2) small children cannot distinguish historical stories from fairy stories, and if the history we teach is to be confused with fairy stories this will instil in the children the wrong attitudes to the subject; (3) small children cannot reason systematically - but history is a subject which makes much use of systematic reasoning - so it is impossible to teach it properly; (4) children learn from immediately observable objects rather than from words or ideas, and as history is essentially non-observable, they cannot learn it; (5) small children do not understand chronology or the concept of time - but history depends on consideration of time - and so children cannot understand it; (6) Finally, history is about people who are dead, and about the processes of death and dying, but children may not have a proper concept of death until the age of nine or ten, so

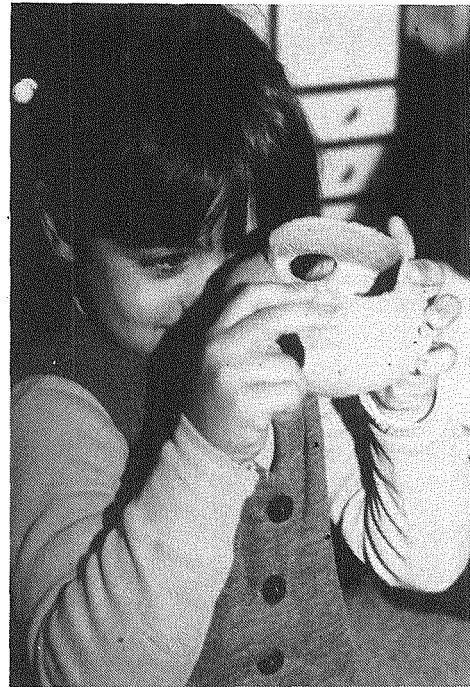


that they cannot really follow what is happening.

Now, it would not be too difficult, I think, to rebut these arguments. But it is enough to quote Professor Peel<sup>10</sup>: "The feeling for humanity can show itself at several levels and with junior children it is fortunate that the acts of men and their consequences can be described without the need to refer too much to their intentions. The latter we must introduce gradually and appropriately, not expecting penetrating imaginative inferences until mid-adolescence." So we have to reject traditional historical matter and methods of history teaching at the primary stage. Chronological outlines, abstract generalizations, causes and effects, human motivation and the like which are the very sinews of academic history, lie outside the range of a young child's understanding and as such should be shunned by the teacher<sup>11</sup>. But while there is no place for formal teaching in the kindergarten and infant school the process of being acquainted with the past which really starts at home, begins to take clearer shape here, and it may be that the teacher should accept a greater responsibility for establishing foundations for the later study of history. It is in these early years that such key concepts of history as *cause, change, evidence, time, conflict, the past* and others can be implanted or nurtured in young minds.<sup>12</sup>

How can teachers do this? What methods are advocated? One method, hallowed by time and accepted by all educators with the possible exception of Pollard<sup>13</sup> is story-telling. To quote Watts<sup>14</sup>, "In the phrase 'Once upon a time....' the affective function of history has common origins with literature; when we have uttered those magic words, the child can safely experience the thrilling and sometimes painful events that follow."<sup>15</sup> Infants and even children in the pre-school years begin developing a balanced and alert response to stories. They start establishing self-concepts of behaviour and relationships. They progress gradually from identifying first with animal children, then with imaginary children in stories, afterwards with imaginary children in history and thence with real children of the past. "All the time the stories are acting as mirrors against which the child rehearses and plays out concepts of what he is and what he ought to be, raising questions and suggesting answers about relationships with people, and personal bearing, about conduct and morality."<sup>16</sup> It is also in these years that children, in search of security, can be fed with stories which accentuate the "father-figure", the hero, the exemplar.<sup>17</sup> It is in this "mythic" stage of children's lives, as Egan<sup>18</sup> points out, that children should be allowed real heroes and villains who can be absorbed into, and dialectically help to expand their known world.

While never specifically disowning the story approach, Pollard<sup>19</sup> stresses that school history in



the Primary schools should start with family affairs and in the very early years not even with that but with themselves. In this way, he says, "the beginnings of history - or, to use a term more appropriate to the scale of the work, 'time studies' link conveniently with the sort of news-gathering which goes on naturally in most classrooms."<sup>20</sup> If objectives are simple and limited, if teachers do not think at this stage in terms of giving children a sense of historical perspective, young children can be successfully taken back into history and concepts of *time, change* and *the past* can appear in embryonic form.

Joan E. Blythe,<sup>21</sup> describes how she worked on life-lines with a group of six-year olds. It is worth, I think, quoting her rather at length: "Life-lines was another word for time-lines but was related to my life and their lives instead of national events. After looking at my life and its main events we studied the six years of my life which co-incided with their whole lives. The children then made their own life-lines from a prepared sheet and I went over their work individually in 'private interviews'.<sup>22</sup> The final efforts on life-lines were pasted into their Books of the Past as the first piece of work. This work on life-lines drew on knowledge which did not have to be taught therefore allowed us to concentrate on difference (between them and me), time and sequence. This thinking of themselves in relation to a short period of the past broadened out into consideration of them in relation to their families, thus involving more people and people of three different generations. I started with my own family as far back as grandparents on my father's side."<sup>23</sup> The family plan worked from right to left,

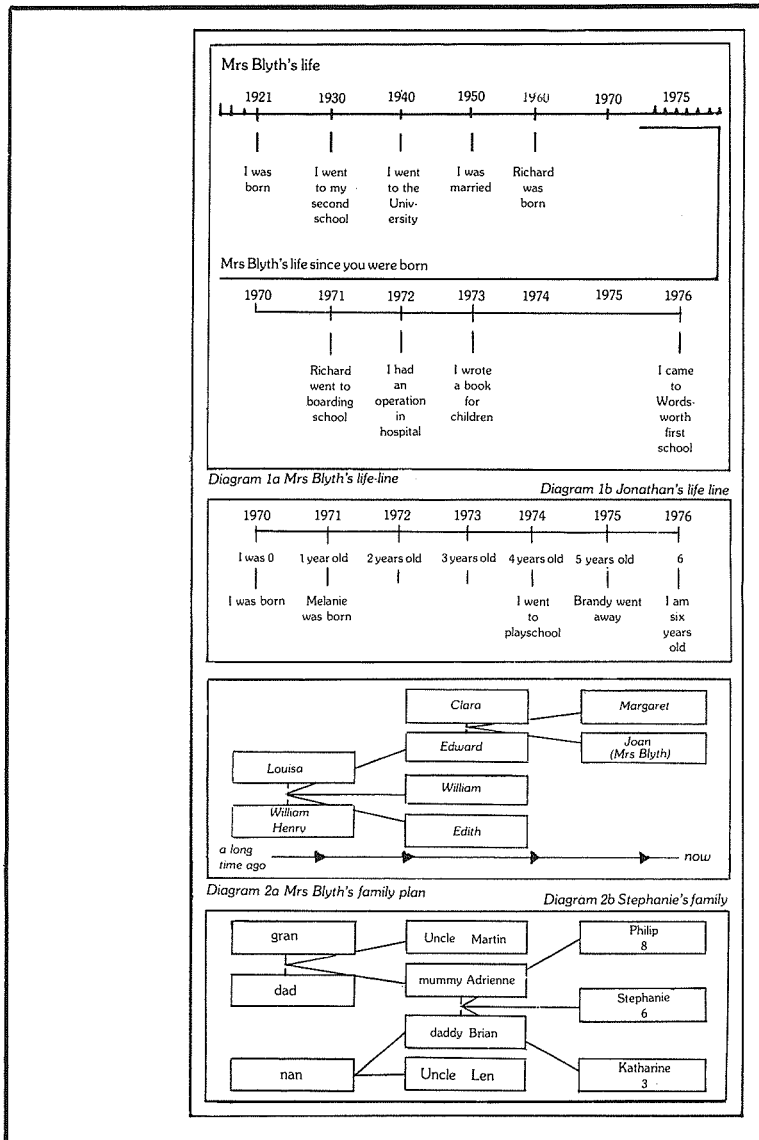
marriages were shown by dotted lines and children in relation to parents by straight lines. After much discussion of my family they made their own, but included all four grandparents".<sup>24</sup>

My students have been encouraged to adopt a similar approach in infant classes with invariably encouraging results.

The study of history is a time-oriented one, but the concept of "historical time" is undoubtedly one of the most knotty and difficult to grasp, even by adults.<sup>25</sup> Babies live entirely in the present and toddlers have only a confused concept of such times as "Yesterday", "tomorrow", "this morning" and so on. Hess and Croft<sup>26</sup> report some of the type of questions children ask in relationship to time. They are as follows: Is today a long time? How old will I be when I am forty? How much time is ten o'clock? What does four-thirty mean? When will it be tomorrow? They further report that Mark, a

five-year old was asked, "How long is a day?" He replied, "It's today until you get to tomorrow". He was then asked, "How long is that?" Mark replied, "Today is when you get up and you play and you eat lunch and you play some more and you go to school and you come home and it's nice outside and then it's night and you go to sleep and when you wake up it's tomorrow." It is only some time between the ages of 5 and 7 that a child jumps the great hurdle of realizing that other people have been in existence before he was born. This takes a long time to be accepted completely. Until a child reaches a certain stage in his mental development he sees all life as existing in time simultaneously. He does, however, eventually realise that time is not synonymous with consciousness, and that lives have been lived before his own. He comes to grasp the time concept. What eludes the child - and even many grown-ups - is any real recognition of the different layers of the past. Various people have suggested various ways to help young children, and older ones too, develop a time sense. The personal and family time-line, referred to above, is one such method. Typical time-lines which can be used in the early school years include (1) a series of pictures of children of various ages to show their progression from birth to their present age; (2) a series of pictures to show the child's daily routine, with each picture depicting an event such as eating breakfast or arriving at school; (3) a line drawn along a lengthy stretch of chalkboard divided to show the weeks and months of the school year, providing the opportunity to enter words or sketches to record significant school events as they occur; and (4) the rearrangement of a calendar by clipping it so that the dates of a month run in a continuous horizontal line.<sup>27</sup> One way to help very young children to develop time concepts is to stress routines, or predictable procedures in the pre-school. These help to develop understanding of time as well as a feeling of security.<sup>28</sup> Another method suggested is to read stories to the children that deal with the concept of time. Teachers are also exhorted to take every opportunity to convey ideas about time to the children. They should give children the correct time words to connect their experiences, such as "today", "this afternoon", "first", "last", "sooner", "before", "a little later," "yesterday" and "last week".

Research seems to indicate that children do not tell conventional time before the age of seven,<sup>29</sup> so the use of arbitrary measures for measuring time is often advocated for the four to seven age group. This gives the children experience with the concepts of duration, sequence of events and temporal order which will prepare them to tell time in the traditional way. Among these arbitrary measures one can include



the use of the stop-watch, the hour-glass, cooking-time and alarm clock for children to use independently with activities structured by the teacher.

To develop a sense of the passage of time, teachers are advised to capitalize on the child's egocentricism by concentrating on his own life through use of a "history booklet". Snapshots taken throughout the year, pieces of work the child has completed, paintings or stories he has dictated or written, records of weight and height, some of the interesting things he has said can all be recorded in such a "history" book. At the end of the year the child will have a booklet of his own life, a booklet that will give him a meaningful understanding of the passage of time.<sup>30</sup>

Other suggestions to implant the time concept in young children's minds include painting a 'road' all the way round the walls of the classroom, illustrating time sequence in the "train" or "kite" fashion, using the historical time-clock<sup>31</sup> and other ingenious but questionable means to an end. But while one should by no means decry such methods, they have to be used with caution. We are in no hurry, and we can wait. Let not the concept of time be forced upon young minds. Let the teacher through her stories, through the introduction of a variegated number of artefacts in class, through incidental teaching, and the like, help children clarify this concept as much as she can, but misconceptions, as we all know, are bound to remain.<sup>32</sup>

The introduction of various artefacts in class helps children to clarify such concepts as "the past" itself as well as relative ones like "change," "evidence" and so on. Teachers can set the ball rolling by bringing to class specimens of such objects as pieces of pottery, old coins, old tools, photographs, postcards, oil lamps, old dolls and other "antiques". Children will then be invited to do likewise and bring to class old objects from the family collection. To facilitate parents' cooperation a deliberate approach to them might be made in the form of a letter. Experience has shown that both children and their parents are normally very co-operative and one sees in some classes a paraphernalia of antique objects like old toys, heavy keys, sherds of pottery, old school books, discarded tools and the rest. Of course, some of the objects might be too treasured by parents to stay without them for more than a day; others might have an antique value which would make it foolish for the teacher to attempt to keep them in a classroom without tight security. But other objects might find a semi-permanent place in a classroom corner as the nucleus of the class's own miniature museum.

Such objects of varying antiquity and provenance provide first of all golden opportunities for talk between teacher and

children. They trigger off interest in "the past"; they stimulate children's imagination ("empathy"); they are the very beginnings of family history, currently very much in fashion.<sup>33</sup> Children will be given opportunities to compare, to classify, to relate, to use evidence, to reason logically. Concepts of "time", "oldness", "change", "evidence" will develop from pure hunches to words with some, even if still nebulous, meaning. Chasing simple and practical objectives the teacher might succeed in having children classify their artefacts as "very, very old", "very old", "old" and "not old" in the way Joan E. Blyth did.<sup>34</sup> It would then be an easy step for children to associate "very, very, old" with great-grandparents, "very old" with grandparents, "old" with mummy and daddy and "not old" with the children themselves.<sup>35</sup> It is all very imaginative, stimulating and enjoyable. It all depends on the innate qualities of the teacher, her capacity for hard work, and the amount and manipulation of ideas and resources in the process.

The study of history is, in many respects, the study of change. The record of human existence is a record of change. Such an important concept can and ought to be implanted in children as early in life as one can. Some suggestions on how this could be done have been implicit from the above. Teachers do not have to be reminded, I think, that the immediate environment offers children many



an opportunity to experience change. Changes in the classroom, in the school building, in the immediate neighbourhood can all be utilized to make children aware of the continuous nature of change. Changes in nature (trees, animals, etc.) can be used to explain historical changes themselves. Above all, since children themselves change, they can explore the many ways they have done so since they were born. Statistics of growth, eating habits, items of clothing, new skills acquired, friends made and lost can all be used by the teacher to illustrate the inevitability of change in life - and in history.

But if life is continually changing, there is a continuity to human experience and even young children of 4-7 can be given a sense of this continuity. The family is one illustration of such continuity and it would be wise to get young children "interview" parents and grandparents about their own past. Family history comes in very useful in this dialectic of constant and variants; continuity and change.

In recent years there has been shifting emphasis from history as a body to a form of knowledge, from the product of history to its process. The cry has been raised to "make the child a historian". This does not mean that the pupil has to be trained in the art of historical investigation but in the art of thinking historically. Much pen and paper have been used to show how this could be done with the 11-16 age group.<sup>36</sup> Primary sources have of course been introduced to younger children as well.<sup>37</sup> Can the methods of the historian be introduced with 4-7 age groups as well? Educationalists think that this could be done at any level. One word of warning, though. History must not be seen as a narrow academic discipline; both mind and eyes have to be kept wide open. The mind must be ready to admit the likely value of the whole range of environmental material, geographical, economic, sociological and so on, as well as historical<sup>38</sup>. The eyes have to be trained to observe beyond the obvious and the routine. Even the very young child, as we have seen, can be trained to gather information and data (from various resources: people, places and objects); observe, analyse and infer from this information and data (through use of structured questions by teachers)<sup>39</sup> and reach conclusions (often tentative, inaccurate and incomplete). This is the scientific method of the professional historian, it is true, but there is no reason why such a method, a training for life after all, be not introduced to children from as early in life as we can. All one asks is that objectives be kept simple and very limited as befits the tender age and minds of the children under consideration.

Enough has been said, I think, to show that while it is possible and, indeed, desirable, to teach History (and Social Studies) to the 4-7 age groups,

doing so is no easy task at all. The sheer list of what is expected of teachers in general and Social Studies teachers in particular, is by itself formidable: teachers have to explain, inform, show how, initiate, direct, administer, give security, clarify attitudes, beliefs and problems, diagnose learning problems, make curriculum materials, evaluate, record, report, organize and arrange classrooms - and that is not the end of the list either<sup>40</sup>. This may be frightening especially to the inexperienced, the idealist or the non-committed. Practical teachers will answer that none of us mortals can ever hope to attain a high degree of perfection in all these tasks, and if we were to wait for such perfection we would never start teaching at all. So the good teacher will do his or her best at a given moment, but will never stop striving for more competency. But this can only be attained if more positive action is taken by educators to build a Social Studies programme concerned with the total development of the young child.

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1. J.S. Bruner, *The Process of Education* (N.Y., Vintage Books, 1960).
  2. H. Taba; M. Durkin; J. Fraenkel and A. McNaughton *A Teacher's Handbook to Elementary Social Studies: An Inductive Approach* (Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1971).
  3. B. Spodek, 'Developing Social Science Concepts in the Kindergarten,' *Social Education*, 27, 1963, pp. 253-256.
  4. J. Decaroli, 'Concept Teaching,' *Social Education*, 37, 1973, pp. 331-333.
  5. L. Schwab and C. Stern, 'Effects of Variety on the Learning of a Social Studies Concept by Pre-School Children,' *Journal of Experimental Education*, 38, 1969, pp. 81-86.
  6. J.D. McKinney and L. Golden, 'Social Studies Dramatic Play with Elementary School Children,' *Journal of Educational Research*, 67, 1973, pp. 172-176.
  7. G.R. Elton, 'What sort of history should we teach' in M. Ballard (ed.) *New Movements in the Study and Teaching of History* (Temple Smith, 1970), p. 221.
  8. D.G. Watts, *The Learning of History* (Students Library of Education, 1972), p. 13.
  9. This is G.R. Elton's view in *The Practice of History* (Methuen, 1967), p. 182.
  10. E.A. Peel, 'Some Problems in the psychology of history teaching' in W.H. Burston and D. Thompson (eds.) *Studies in the Nature and Teaching of History* (Routledge, 1967), p. 161.
  11. See in this context K. Davies, 'The Syllabus in the Primary School' in W.H. Burston and C.W. Green (eds.) *Handbook for History Teachers* (Methuen, 1972), pp. 51-52.
  12. Some hold the view that History is unique in the sense that it has no key concepts of its own at all, except, maybe, 'the past', but that it borrows all its concepts from other Social Studies disciplines like Geography, Economics, Sociology etc. The argument is, however, only of academic interest in the present context. See J.A. Banks, *Teaching Strategies for the Social Studies*, (Addison-Wesley, U.S.A., 1977), 7, 'History: Structure, Concepts and Strategies,' pp. 211-218.
  13. M. Pollard, *History with Juniors* (Evans Modern Teaching, 1973).
  14. *op. cit.*, p. 70.
  15. It would be useful to quote here M. Bowen, 'Another Approach to History for Young Children', *Teaching*

- History, May 1972, V. II, No. 7, p. 255: '... Of course no dates were mentioned; the aim was to create in the children's imagination a stage in time, not a chronological period. It was found helpful to introduce stories (as opposed to class discussion) with a recognized formula, which set the time scene as it were ('Once upon a time, not yesterday, not last week, not last year, but hundreds and thousands of years ago...') Young children are capable of imagining a time before they existed, but they need help with the transition, and a familiar repetitive phrase is as good as any other aid.'
16. Watts, *op. cit.*, p. 71.
  17. As far back as at least 1955 it was recognized even in Malta that the story approach is ideal for Primary School Children. A Commission appointed by the Hon. Minister of Education in 1955, while making no recommendations for the teaching of History in the Infant stages, suggested a selection of specific stories for Standards I to III (present Years 3-5). See *The Teaching of History: Report of the Commission appointed by the Hon. Minister of Education in 1955*, pp. 8-11.
  18. K. Egan, 'Teaching The Varieties of History,' *Teaching History*, June 1978, No. 21, pp. 20-23.
  19. *op. cit.*
  20. *Ibid.*, p. 13.
  21. J.E. Blyth, 'Young Children and the Past; An Experiment with Six-Year Old Children,' *Teaching History*, June 1978, No. 21, pp. 15-19.
  22. See Diagrams 1a and 1b.
  23. See Diagram 2a.
  24. See Diagram 2b.
  25. See G. Partington, 'Teaching Time: Children's Understanding of Time,' *Teaching History*, June 1980, No. 27 pp. 31-34 for a comprehensive list of researchers in this field and a brief summary of their findings. One is also advised to read, among others, P. Mays, *Why Teach History?* (University of London Press, 1974), I, pp. 9-18; I. Steele, *Developments in History Teaching* (Open Books Publishing Ltd. 1976), 3, 'Psychology and History Teaching', pp. 18-26 and J. Lello, 'The Concept of Time, the Teaching of History and School Organization,' *The History Teacher*, Vol. XIII, No. 3, May 1980, pp. 341-350; and of course, J. Piaget, *The Child's Conception of Time* (New York, Ballantine Books, 1971).
  26. R.D. Hess and D.J. Croft, *Teachers of Young Children*, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1972, p. 197).
  27. R. Preston and H. Herman, *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*, 4th Edition, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974, p. 319.
  28. D. Springer ('Development in Young Children of an Understanding of Time and the Clock,' *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 80, 1952, pp. 83-96) described the development of clock time in four to six year olds. Children, he concludes first begin to associate activities with the regular daily class schedule. Soon they associate the schedule and time by the clock, developing concepts of hour, half-hour and quarter-hour.
  29. L.B. Ames ('The Development of the Sense of Time in Young Children', *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 68, 1946, pp. 97-125) for example, found out that four year olds can distinguish between morning and afternoon, five year olds can tell which day it is, and seven year olds can tell clock time in the conventional sense.
  30. I am indebted to C. Seefeldt, *Social Studies for the Pre-School Primary Child* (Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1977), pp. 107-111 for many of the above ideas. I have also made extensive use of R.K. Jantz 'Social Studies', in C. Seefeldt (Ed.) *Curriculum for the Pre-School - Primary Child* (Charles E. Merrill Publishing Col. 1976), pp. 83-103.
  31. See P. Mays, *op. cit.*, p. 12 for an illustration of such a device.
  32. Some researchers feel strongly, however, about the need to inculcate time concepts in young children. M. Dunfee (*Elementary School Social Studies: A Guide to Current Research*, Washington D.C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1970, p. 29) reported 'a review of the studies of time concepts seem to indicate that children may be able to understand time and chronology concepts at an earlier age than previously predicted and that many children are receptive to planned instruction in these areas. Other researchers even recommend certain guideposts in teaching time concepts.
  33. See, for example, D.J. Steel and L. Taylor *Family History in Schools* (Phillimore and Co. Ltd., London, 1973); D. Balmori, 'A Course in Latin American Family History', *The History Teacher*, Vol. XIV, No. 3, May 1981, p. 401, attempts an explanation of why Family History has exploded into print in the last few years.
  34. *Op. Cit.*, p. 16. Incidentally the author's latest publication, *History for Primary Teachers* (McGraw Hill, 1982), has not been available to me by the time this paper was written.
  35. See J.E. Blyth (1978), Diagrams 3a and 3b.
  36. See, for example, Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, *The Teaching of History in Secondary Schools*, (Cambridge Univ. Press) Fourth Edition, 1975, 'Primary Source Material', pp. 83-113, M. Palmer, 'Using Stimulus Material' in R. Ben Jones (Ed.) *Practical Approaches to the New History* (Hutchinson, 1973), pp. 84-101; I. Steele, *op. cit.*, 6 'Classroom Strategies', pp. 54-57; G. Jones and D. Watson, 'Archives in History Teaching - Some Problems', *Teaching History* Vol. I, No. 3, May 1970, pp. 188-192; R.G.E. Wood, 'Archive Units for Teaching', *Teaching History*, Vol. III, No. 9, May 1973, pp. 41-46 and other contributions.
  37. See J. Blyth, 'Archives and Source Materials in the Junior School', *Teaching History*, 1, No. 1, 1969, pp. 24 ff.; M. West, 'History and the Younger Child', *Teaching History*, I, No. 4, November 1970, pp. 258-264 and J. West, 'Testing the Use of Written Records in Primary Schools, 1979-80', *Teaching History*, No. 32, February 1982, pp. 32-35, among others.
  38. Though the present Social Studies Syllabus for Primary Schools in Malta starts only with Year III and is inadequate in many ways, it does at least embrace this 'width' dimension. We read (p. 2) 'The scope and content of General Social Studies is determined by the point of view that it is the young pupil who must learn to know and understand his environment in its widest sense. The scope of his study is therefore his social, economic, natural and physical environment, since these aspects make up the 'world' in which he lives and moves'.
  39. M.B. McAndrew ('An Experimental Investigation of Young Children's Ideas of Causality', *Studies in Psychology and Psychiatry*, 6, 1943) investigated the problem-solving abilities of children three to six years of age. She found that the type of questions asked influenced the thinking behaviour of children. B. Bloom (*Taxonomy of Educational Objectives; The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook I; Cognitive Domains* (1956)) developed a taxonomy of Cognitive objects that can be used as the basis for structuring questions requiring higher level thinking. J. Fraenkel (*Helping Students Think and Value: Strategies for Teaching the Social Studies* (1973)), suggested that pupil responses relate to the questions teachers ask. He proposed a taxonomy of questions that include a 'classification in terms of the purposes which teachers might have, the actions required or desired of students, and the types of questions which teachers would accordingly ask' (p. 177).
  40. L. Raths, quoted by L.S. Kenworthy, *Social Studies for the Seventies - In Elementary and Middle Schools* (Xerox College Publishing, Sec. Ed. 1973), 15, p. 226.