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History skills

Oxford Big Ideas History is a brand-new series developed and written to provide complete coverage of the Victorian Curriculum: History – across Years 7–10.

Focus on inquiry

Each chapter of *Oxford Big Ideas History* is structured around key inquiry questions from the Victorian Curriculum. Each unit of the text supports teachers and students as they adopt an inquiry-based approach to the key learning areas in the Humanities.

The learning sequence in each chapter is clearly set out under key inquiry questions. Students are encouraged to use their prior knowledge and make predictions at the start of each new topic.

Stunning full-colour photography generates discussion and interest.

Focus on engagement

Each unit of the Student book combines a range of engaging source materials – such as photographs, videos, data tables, graphs and illustrations – with supporting questions and activities.

Source materials – such as photographs, infographics, political cartoons, graphs – simplify difficult concepts and engage reluctant learners.
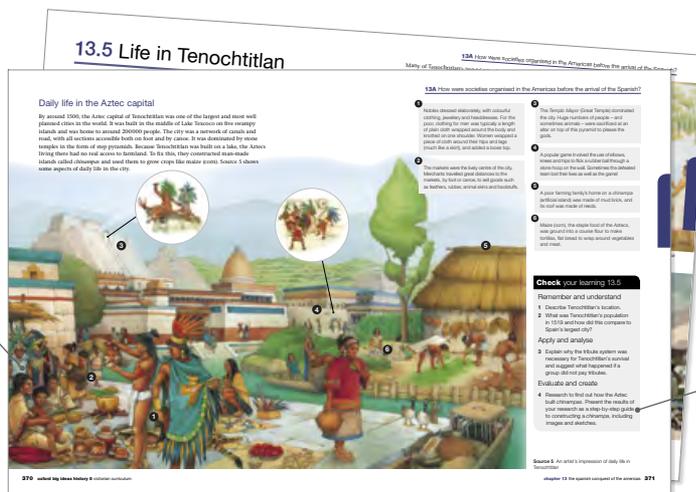
Check your learning activities accompany every unit, allowing students to consolidate and extend their understanding. These are graded according to Bloom's Taxonomy – catering for a range of abilities and learning styles.

Focus on concepts and skills

Complete coverage of all concepts and skills provided in stand-alone reference 'toolkits'. All of these concepts and skills are also integrated throughout the text so students can see them at work in context.

Rich task activities encourage students to apply the knowledge and skills they have learned in each chapter to a new and interesting case study, event or issue.
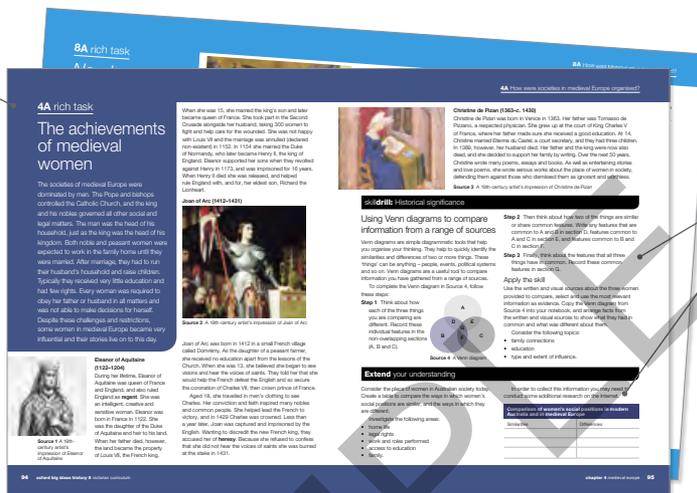
Skill drill activities guide and support students step by step as they learn and apply key skills.

Extend your understanding activities challenge students to conduct further research, or complete group work, to deepen their understanding of an issue or skill being investigated.

Digital support

obook assess

Student obook assess provides a fully interactive electronic version of the print Student book in an easy-to-read format. A host of additional resources for students – such as videos, worksheets, interactives objects, online quizzes and multimedia links – are linked to each unit in the book making them easier to access than ever before.

obook assess is compatible with laptops, iPads, tablets and IWBs, and access to content is provided online and offline.

TEACHER obook assess

Teacher support is offered in digital format via **Teacher obook assess**. Teacher notes, answers, tests, additional worksheets, lesson ideas, planning tips and assessment advice are provided for every unit. **Teacher obook assess** allows teachers to manage their classes by assigning work, tracking progress and planning assessment.
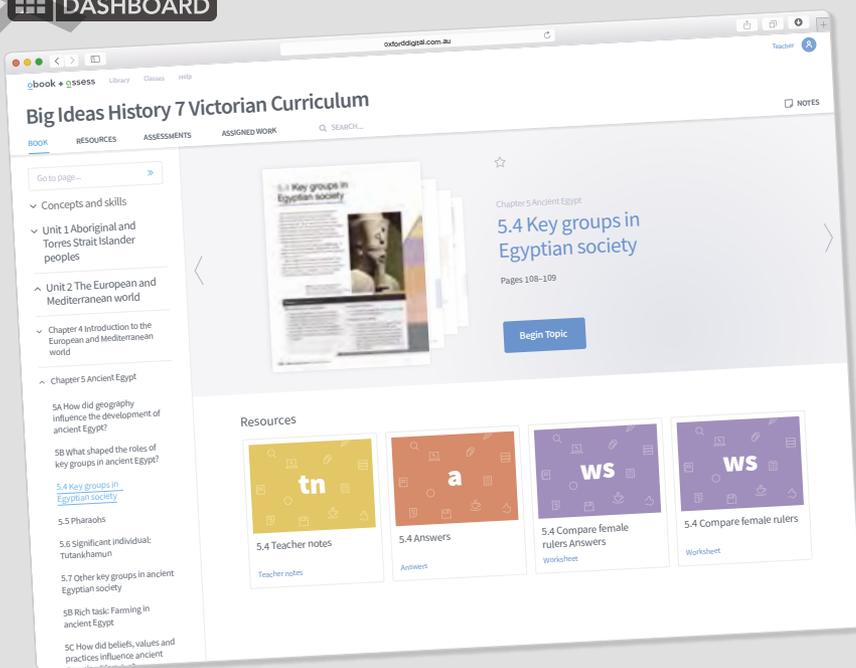
Concepts and skills

The history toolkit

History is the study of the past. Historians are interested in all aspects of the past and seek to piece together accurate pictures of what life was like in days gone by. They also look for patterns – what has remained the same, what has changed, and why.

Historians are time detectives; they follow a process of **historical inquiry** in order to better understand the past. They ask questions, form opinions and theories, locate and analyse **sources**, and use **evidence** from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past.

Historians are curious. They investigate **artefacts** like the Bayeux Tapestry and want to know more about them. These artefacts, provide historians with the opportunity to actively investigate how ancient ideas and beliefs influence our modern world.

1A

What are the historical concepts?

1B

What are the historical skills?

chapter 1

Source 1 The Bayeux Tapestry is one of the most significant primary sources from Europe's medieval period. It is a piece of hand-embroidered cloth nearly 70 metres long that shows the events leading up to an important battle in 1066 known as the Battle of Hastings. This battle resulted in England crowning a new king and changed the course of history.

1.1 Historical concepts

Historians use seven concepts to help them investigate and understand the past. At times you will use several of these concepts at once; at other times you may focus on just one. As you learn to apply each concept, you will begin to think like a historian. The seven key concepts in history are:

- **perspectives**
- **empathy**
- **continuity and change**
- **significance**
- **cause and effect**
- **contestability**.
- **evidence**

Perspectives

The concept of perspectives is an important part of historical inquiry. Perspective is a point of view – the position from which people see and understand events going on in the world around them. People will have had different points of view (or perspectives) about a particular event, person, civilisation or artefact depending on their age, gender, social position and their beliefs and values. Just like anyone else, historians have perspectives, which can influence their interpretation of the past and the way in which they write about it. Despite their own perspectives, historians must try to understand the different values and beliefs that shaped and affected the lives of people who lived in the past.

Source 1 This Spanish artist's impression shows the conquistador Hernán Cortés meeting the Aztec ruler Moctezuma II in the capital of Tenochtitlan in 1519.

The Spanish conquest of the Americas (1492–1572) provides an example of how a clash between very different cultures, societies and religions resulted in the near-destruction of the native civilisations in the Americas. Spanish conquistadors such as Hernán Cortés came to the Americas in 1519 driven by a desire to convert the native people to Christianity, to expand Spanish territory and to increase Spanish wealth. The Spanish believed it was their duty to convert to Christianity a race of people that they saw as barbarians. From a Spanish perspective at the time, their actions were lawful and blessed by their Christian god. They also believed they were entitled to enslave the population and send the wealth and treasures of the Americas back to Spain in the name of the king. Within 100 years, the Inca, Aztec and Maya civilisations and cultures had been largely destroyed.

From a modern perspective, the actions of the Spanish during this time are seen as brutal, cruel and unjustifiable. Many historians and descendants of these once-great empires mourn the loss of their cultures at the hands of Spanish invaders.

Regardless of what you may think personally about the way in which the Spanish acted, the concept of perspectives encourages us to view the actions of the Spanish as typical of the way Indigenous populations around the world were treated by European colonisers.

Continuity and change

Historians recognise that over time some things stay the same, while others change. This concept is referred to as continuity and change. Examples of continuity and change can be seen across every civilisation and any given period of time.

Historians refer to aspects of the past that have remained the same over time as continuities. Aspects of the past that do not stay the same are referred to as changes. Change can occur within a certain civilisation or specific time period, but also across different civilisations and time periods.

Many aspects of history influence how we act and live today. For example, barbers and barber shops are as common today as they were during **medieval** times. This is an example of historical continuity. However, in the middle ages, hair was not the only thing that barbers cut. They also performed a number of different medical and dental procedures. The most common medical procedure was known as **blood letting** (see Source 2). Blood letting involved cutting a person's veins and collecting a set volume of blood in a dish. It was believed to cure illness and prevent diseases such as the bubonic plague. No barber today would be legally permitted to perform such a procedure, nor would you want him to. This is an example of a historical change.

Another interesting example of continuity and change relating to barber shops can be seen in Source 3. Barber poles are a reminder of blood-letting operations carried out by barbers in medieval Europe. Patients held on to a metal pole tightly during the operation so their veins popped out and were easier to cut. It also helped them stay standing. After each operation bandages were used to stop the bleeding. After use, they were often hung out to dry on poles and would twist together in the wind forming a red and white spiral pattern. This pattern can still be seen today.

Source 2 A 15th-century illustration of a barber performing a blood-letting procedure on a woman. Note that she is tightly gripping a pole in her left hand to allow her vein to be easily cut. The barber also holds a bandage to stop the bleeding after the procedure.

Source 3 A red-and-white-striped barber pole advertising a modern-day barber shop. The red and white spiral pattern on the pole dates back to the blood-letting procedures performed by barbers during the medieval period in Europe.

Cause and effect

The concept of cause and effect is used by historians to identify chains of events and developments, both in the short term and in the long term. Cause and effect aims to identify, examine and analyse the reasons why events have occurred and the resulting consequences or outcomes. It helps to think of cause and effect as the 'why' and 'what' of history.

Sometimes the link between cause and effect is very clear. For example, heavy rain over many weeks (cause) leads to flooding and the destruction of crops (effect). However, often this link is not quite so obvious. Generally, there are many causes (reasons) that lead to an event or action. There can also be many effects (outcomes). Sometimes the effects are simple to identify, while in other cases they are more difficult to predict and may not even be observed until long after the event.

During the 14th century, a terrible plague known as the **Black Death** swept across Europe, Asia and parts of Africa. Historians estimate that at least 75 million people across Asia, North Africa and Europe died as a result. In Europe, this represented between 30 and 40 per cent of the population.

There were a number of factors that led to the rise and spread of the Black Death. **Bubonic plague** (the most common form of plague) was spread by fleas infected with a bacterium known as *Yersinia pestis* (cause). These fleas lived on black rats that were commonly found in all medieval towns and cities because of poor hygiene and sanitation (cause). Bites from the infected fleas spread the disease to humans (cause). Pneumonic plague (another form of plague) was spread from person to person through the air, infecting bodily fluids such as mucus and blood (cause).

The Black Death resulted in a range of effects – some short term, others long term. Short-term effects included:

- a massive drop in population resulting

Source 4 A medieval illustration of a couple with the plague. The Black Death had short-term effects, such as children being left without their parents, as well as long-term effects, such as the weakening of the feudal system across Europe.

in shortages of farm labourers and skilled tradesmen
- abandoned houses were left dirty and unattended, and rubbish and raw sewage in towns and cities was left to rot
- large numbers of deaths meant that mass burials of plague victims in large pits were necessary
- some priests refused to bury victims of the plague for fear of contracting the disease
- the persecution of some people in society (such as Jews) who were accused of causing the plague.

Long-term effects included:

- the breakdown of **feudalism** across Europe because labourers and tradespeople could now demand better conditions and higher wages instead of working in return for the protection of feudal lords
- a reduction in the power and influence of the Church on people's lives due to the belief that the Church (including priests and clergy) had not been able to prevent the plague
- workers demanding recognition of their rights through a number of uprisings
- improvements in hygiene and medical knowledge due to new regulations and laws introduced to prevent further infections.

Evidence

Evidence is the information gathered from historical sources. The concept of evidence is an essential part of historical inquiry. Evidence can come from many different sources; for example, interviews and accounts from people who lived at the time, letters, diaries, films, maps, newspapers, buildings, paintings, photographs, song lyrics, nursery rhymes, clothing, photographs and even cartoons. But how do we use these sources to piece together the story of the past? We can make an educated guess (called a **hypothesis**) and then look for evidence to support it.

Evidence can be gathered from two types of sources:

- **primary sources** – objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after. Examples of primary sources include: official documents, such as laws and treaties; personal documents, such as diaries and letters; photographs or films; and documentaries. These original, firsthand accounts are analysed by historians to answer questions about the past.
- **secondary sources** – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation. Examples of secondary sources include writings of historians, encyclopaedia entries, documentaries, history textbooks, films, illustrations, reconstructions and websites.

Historians do not always agree on evidence, even when it is coming from the same source. They often have different opinions or points of view. This is why historians are constantly searching for new sources of evidence. They need to use a range of different sources to help them gain a more complete picture of the past.

Source 5 This Viking stone carving, known as the Tjängvide image stone, was discovered in 1844 on the Swedish island of Gotland. Carved during the 8th century CE, it shows gods from Norse mythology together with an image of a Viking longship. It is a primary source because it was made during the Viking Age. The remains of several Viking longships, such as the *Oseberg* ship, have been found that confirm this representation. However, no evidence remains relating to the size, shape or materials from which sails may have been made.
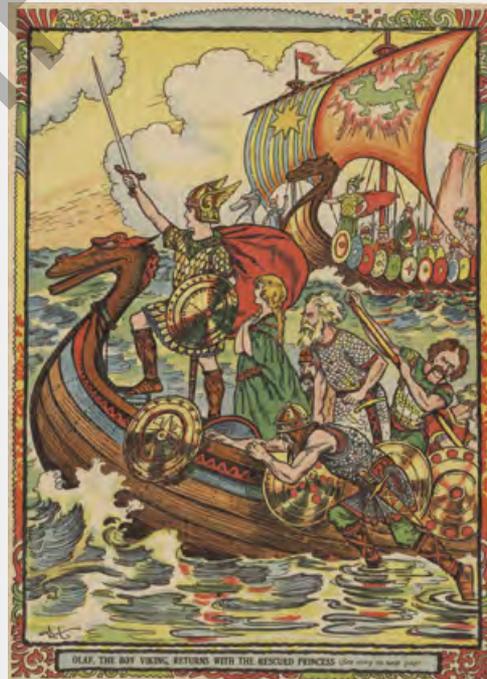
Source 6 This illustration from a children's book published in 1928 shows Olaf, a young Viking, returning to the Viking homeland with a rescued princess. It is a secondary source because it was created long after the Viking Age. Although a number of historically accurate features are shown (such as the basic shape and design of the longships), it would not be a reliable source of evidence for a historical inquiry because its purpose is to entertain young readers.

Empathy

The concept of empathy helps us to understand the impact of past events on particular individuals or groups. This includes an appreciation of the circumstances they faced and the motivations, values and attitudes behind their actions. Put another way, empathy is the ability to 'walk in someone else's shoes' – to be aware of, and sensitive to, their feelings, thoughts and experiences.

Empathising brings history to life. It connects us as human beings regardless of how much time has passed. For example, in medieval Japan a type of feudal system was developed in which there were rigid social classes. The warrior class, which included samurai, lived under a strict code of behaviour known as **bushido** ('the way of the warrior'). This code was based on honour, loyalty and discipline. From the age of five, children destined to become samurai began their training in important texts, etiquette and military arts. Every samurai's first duty was to honour and obey his master. If a samurai was defeated in battle, captured by the enemy or dishonoured in any way, the code required him to commit ritual suicide – an act known as **seppuku**. A special knife or short sword was used to stab deep into the abdomen and cut across the body from left to right. Only by taking his own life in this way would the samurai and his family be spared shame and disgrace.

It is difficult to imagine the agony of committing *seppuku*, and for many people today this act might seem barbaric. However, by applying the concept of empathy, we are able to appreciate how young men trained in the warrior code would have believed that their honour and loyalty was worth more than their life, and that no other option was acceptable. An appreciation of the type of disgrace brought upon the families of samurai who did not commit *seppuku* also goes a long way towards explaining their actions.

Source 7 A Japanese woodblock print of a samurai warrior about to perform *seppuku* – ritual suicide.

Significance

The concept of significance relates to the importance assigned to aspects of the past. This includes people, events, developments, discoveries, movements and historical sites. History is full of so many important events, significant people and interesting places that we could never study all of them. Instead, we need to make a judgement about which of these is worthy of study. In order to determine if a person, event, development, discovery, movement or site is historically significant, historians may ask the following questions:

- How important was this to people who lived at that time?
- How many people were affected?
- To what degree were people's lives affected?
- How widespread and long-lasting were the effects?
- Can the effects still be felt today?

For example, the changes introduced by Genghis Khan during his time as ruler of the Mongol Empire are considered significant because they affected enormous numbers of people over a vast area of the world. Even though Genghis Khan ruled the Mongol Empire for a short period of time, many of his actions continue to influence the lives of people all over the world. Some of these legacies include:

- the unification of many nomadic tribes and the establishment of a vast empire and fierce army
- the establishment of a legal system that governed over 100 million people
- the development of a system that respected and accepted people of different religious beliefs
- the establishment of **dynasties** in several parts of the world, including Korea, China and southern Russia.

However, depending on your age, gender, ethnicity, religious beliefs, nationality and family background, different events and people from the past will be significant to a greater or lesser extent.

Source 8 This Mongolian banknote shows an image of Genghis Khan.

Source 9 This statue of Genghis Khan near the Mongolian capital of Ulan Bator is over 40 metres high. Genetic research indicates that Genghis Khan's DNA is now found in around 0.5 per cent of the world's population, indicating that he and his sons fathered an enormous number of children. One out of every 12 Asians is now thought to be descended from Genghis Khan.

Contestability

The concept of contestability relates to explanations or interpretations of past events that are open to debate. Historians around the world often have access to very different sources. Artefacts, such as jewellery and weapons, may have been damaged, or stone carvings and artworks may be incomplete. Written records may contain errors, or might have been changed after they were written. Some artefacts may even have been completely destroyed. This can lead historians to draw different conclusions about what they are seeing. Even historians studying the same sources can sometimes come to very different conclusions about what the evidence is telling them. This is one of the exciting things about history – it is open to debate. There is often no right answer, and historians are always seeking a more complete understanding of the past.

For example, historians generally agree that early Polynesians migrated to various islands across the Pacific Ocean from one point of origin. However, since the 16th century (when European explorers were surprised to find people living on islands throughout Polynesia), historians have argued about how stone-age people could have crossed vast stretches of oceans to settle on these remote islands. Historians also disagreed about whether Polynesians originally travelled from South America or from South-East Asia to get there.

One theory suggests that Polynesians originated from modern-day Peru, floating across the ocean on rafts made of balsa wood, which is common in South America. This is known as 'the east–west theory'. The people who support this theory argue that the regular wind patterns and ocean currents would allow this type of travel, while travelling in the opposite direction would be much more difficult. They also sometimes suggest that there are similarities between Aztec, Incan and Mayan stone buildings and the stone statues of Polynesia such as the *moai* on Rapa Nui (Easter Island).

Another theory suggests that Polynesians originated in Asia and travelled eastwards across the Pacific Ocean. This is known as 'the west–east theory'. People who support this theory argue that Polynesian people speak languages with a common origin, and are similar to South-East Asian languages. There are also many similarities between the belief systems, social structures and tools used by Polynesians and the people of South-East Asia. Today the west–east theory has become more popular, with DNA evidence supporting it.

Although there is great support for the west–east theory today, this is an excellent example of contestability in history. Now a new debate has developed among historians who cannot agree on whether Polynesian expansion across the Pacific was deliberate or just the result of a group of fishermen whose canoes were blown off course.

Source 10 In 1947, a Norwegian adventurer named Thor Heyerdahl carried out a daring voyage in an attempt to prove 'the east–west theory' of Polynesian expansion. He constructed a raft (which he called *Kon-Tiki*) made of balsa wood and sailed it from South America into the Pacific.

Source 11 Recent DNA analysis carried out on Polynesian peoples across the Pacific – such as these Māori men in New Zealand – shows that they all share similar genetic characteristics with people in the South-East Asian countries of Taiwan and New Guinea. Many historians now believe this evidence proves 'the west–east theory' of Polynesian expansion.

Check your learning 1.1

Remember and understand

1 What is the difference between a primary and secondary source? Give an example of each type of source.

2 The red-and-white-striped pole commonly seen outside modern barber shops had its origins in medieval times. Which historical concept would this be an example of?

3 *Seppuku* (ritual suicide) was practised by samurai (members of the warrior class) in medieval Japan. Which historical concept would be most helpful to historians attempting to understand the factors that led samurai to do this?

4 Historians have developed two competing theories about where Polynesians originated from. Which historical concept is this an example of?

Apply and analyse

5 The importance of DNA analysis has been discussed a number of times in this section. Give at least one example of how and when it has been used to expand historians' knowledge and understanding of the past. Would this DNA evidence be classified as a primary or secondary source? Give reasons to support your answer.

6 Look again at the types of questions historians ask to decide if events, discoveries, people or sites are historically significant. Use each of these questions to determine the historical significance of Genghis Khan. Discuss your findings with the class.

7 Examine Source 1 showing the Spanish conquistador Hernán Cortés meeting the Aztec ruler Moctezuma ll in the city of Tenochitlan in 1519.

   a Use evidence from the illustration to determine the main differences between the two cultures.

   b Cortés and the Spanish viewed the Aztecs as 'barbarians'. From the evidence presented in the illustration, would you agree or disagree with this point of view? Give reasons to support your answer.

Evaluate and create

8 Museums display many different artefacts such as bones, swords, jewellery and coins. Conduct your own Internet research to find examples of Viking coins held in museums around the world. Explain two different pieces of evidence these coins provide about the way Vikings lived.

9 Create a flow chart to show the causes and effects (both short-term and long-term) of the Black Death.

10 Using images and text, create a poster which illustrates and briefly explains all seven of the historical concepts discussed in this section.

1.2 Historical skills

History has been described as 'who we are and why we are the way we are'. Historians examine the past and try to explain what they find. Like detectives at the scene of a crime, they follow a process of historical inquiry – they pose questions, locate and analyse sources, use evidence from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past, and then communicate their findings.

To conduct a historical inquiry, historians need a range of skills. By studying history you will gradually master each of these skills. Some of them you will find easy to master, others may take a little longer. As you develop each new skill you will have gained another important tool for understanding and explaining events and people that have shaped our world.

Each of the skills you will learn over the course of this year is explained below. Each one represents a stage in the process of historical inquiry. These skills are organised into five broad categories (see Source 1). Each category has a number of more specific skills that you will be learning. It might help you to think of each of these skills as individual tools in your toolkit. For some historical inquiries, you may only need to use one tool; for others, you may need to use many.

As shown in Source 1, there are five stages in any historical inquiry. They are:

1. Ask questions and conduct research.
2. Sequence events and use historical terms and concepts.
3. Use historical sources as evidence.
4. Analyse different perspectives and interpretations.
5. Communicate your findings.

1. Ask questions and conduct research.

2. Sequence events and use historical terms and concepts.

5. Communicate your findings.

4. Analyse different perspectives and interpretations.

3. Use historical sources as evidence.

Source 1 There are five stages in any historical inquiry. At each stage, historians use a number of different skills. Each of these skills is like a tool in a toolkit.

1.3 Ask questions and conduct research

Identifying a range of questions about the past to inform a historical inquiry

Historians begin any historical inquiry by asking big questions. From these big questions, historians develop a hypothesis (a theory) about who, what, where and why certain events took place. These questions then help to frame the process of inquiry and act as a guide for the collection of evidence.

The Bayeux Tapestry (shown in Source 1) is one of the best preserved historical sources from the medieval period in Europe. It is a piece of cloth measuring nearly 70 metres in length and around 50 centimetres in height. The embroidered cloth shows a series of events leading up to a significant battle in medieval times, known as the **Battle of Hastings**.

The Battle of Hastings was fought in 1066 in England after the death of the English king, Edward the Confessor. Edward died without an heir to the throne, so a number of men believed they had the right to rule England. The battle was fought between a group of people from England known as **Anglo-Saxons** and another group of people from France known as **Normans.**
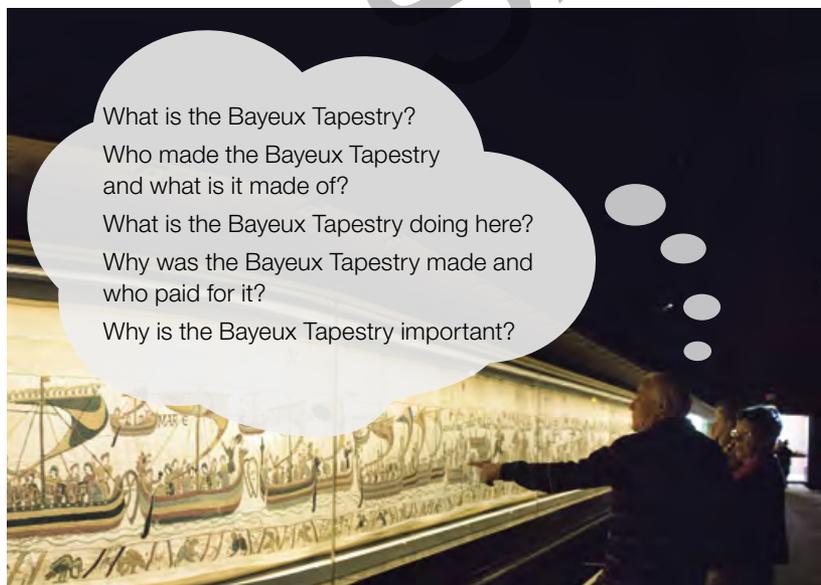
Source 1 Developing historical questions is an important part of every historical inquiry.

Generating questions to inform a historical inquiry

Look closely at Source 1. This visitor looking at the Bayeux Tapestry is asking some important historical inquiry questions. You can learn to do this too by starting your questions with the words 'what', 'where', 'how', 'when' and 'why' before beginning your inquiry.

For example, big questions such as the following help to guide the steps in the research process:

- What is the Bayeux Tapestry?
- Who made it?
- When was it made?

The very best questions open up an exciting area for you to explore. For example, the visitor might ask a simple question, such as 'What does the Bayeux Tapestry look like?' This is a question with a relatively simple answer. A better historical question for the visitor to ask might be 'What does the design and construction of the Bayeux Tapestry tell us about the skills of people living in medieval Europe?' This question opens up a whole new area for exploration.

Apply the skill

1. Based on what you have read and seen, generate four big questions of your own that will help guide your investigation into the Bayeux Tapestry.

2. Once you have generated your inquiry questions, identify the information you will need to answer these questions and where you might be able to locate it.

3. Are there any questions for which you have not been able to find reliable evidence or answers? What reasons might there be for this?

Identifying and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

Sources provide information for historians. They can take many different forms, from historical artefacts to written records in books or online. Some examples of sources include human remains, coins, cave paintings, textbooks, journals, online databases, newspapers, letters, cartoons and diaries.

Locating a range of relevant sources is a valuable skill which usually involves a number of different search methods, such as:

- checking catalogues at your school and local library
- using online search engines such as Google, Yahoo and Bing
- visiting museum and government websites
- looking at newspaper and magazine archives
- contacting local historical societies
- interviewing older family members about the past, and examining family antiques and keepsakes.

Using ICT to locate relevant sources

Although printed books and newspapers are valuable sources of information, most research today is conducted online. In order to ensure that sources gathered online are accurate, reliable and relevant, a number of guidelines should be followed:

- Search engines such as Google are useful research tools, but much of the material on these sites is not reliable and may contain inaccuracies, false and misleading information or material that is out of date. When using search engines like Google or Yahoo, be sure to define your search using keywords. Your librarian is a good person to ask for help and information. Most schools will also have a website devoted to providing information about developing good research skills.

- A reliable way of searching for sources is to use sites linked to educational institutions, government departments, reputable companies, museums, universities and educational institutions. A quick way of telling if a site is reputable is to look at the domain name in the URL (Internet address). Some of the most common domain names are listed in Source 2 along with some information about their reliability.

- Avoid blogs posted by unknown individuals. If you happen to find information relevant to your investigation on a blog or social media site, always verify it by using a more reliable source.

- Never cut and paste information from the Internet straight into your own work. Taking someone else's work, ideas or words and using them as if they were your own is called plagiarism and can result in very serious consequences.

Domain name	Description
.edu	The site is linked to an educational institution such as a university or school. These sites are generally very reliable.
.gov	The site is linked to a government institution. These sites are generally very reliable.
.net	This site is linked to a commercial organisation or network provider. Anyone is able to purchase this domain name and generally there is no one to regulate the information posted on the site. As a result, these sites may be unreliable.
.org	This site is linked to an organisation. Generally, these organisations are not for profit (e.g. Greenpeace, World Vision International, British Museum). If the organisation is reputable and can be contacted, it generally means that the information provided has been checked and verified by that organisation. You need to be aware of any special interests that the organisation may represent (e.g. particular religious, commercial or political interests) as this may influence what they have to say on a particular issue. If you are unsure about the reliability of information found on a website with this domain name, check with your teacher or librarian.
.com	This site is linked to a commercially based operation and is likely to be promoting certain products or services. These domain names can be purchased by anyone, so the content should be carefully checked and verified using another, more reliable source.

Source 2 Some domain names and their characteristics

Recording relevant sources

As you identify and locate relevant sources, it is essential that you record details to include in your list of references or bibliography.

When citing (mentioning) a book in a bibliography, include the following, in this order, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s)
2 year of publication
3 title of book (in italics)
4 edition (if relevant)
5 publisher
6 place of publication
7 page number(s).

Example:

Saldais, M, Smith, R, 2016, *Oxford Big Ideas History 8 Victorian Curriculum*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 16–17.

When citing an online source in a bibliography include the following information, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
2 year of publication or date of web page (last update)
3 title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
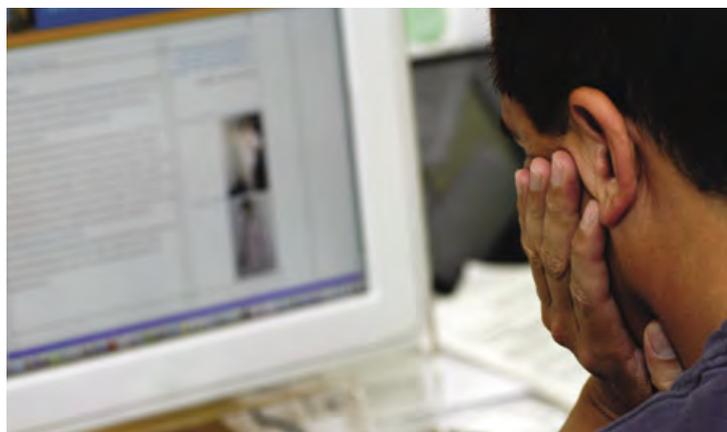
Source 3 Most research today is conducted online.

4 date of posting
5 organisation name (if different from above)
6 date you accessed the site
7 URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets <…>.

Examples:

1 'Bayeux Tapestry', Encyclopaedia Britannica, www.britannica.com (2016), accessed 18 July 2016, <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Bayeux-Tapestry>.

2 Bartlett, R, 2010, 'The Bayeux Tapestry', http://www.bbc.co.uk, accessed 18 July 2016, <http://www.bbc.co.uk/blogs/ahistoryoftheworld/2010/08/the-bayeux-tapestry.shtml>.

Check your learning 1.3

Remember and understand

1 List three different examples of sources.
2 Beside each source write where it can be found.

Apply and analyse

3 Using the table below give two advantages and two disadvantages of using the different search methods shown.

Search methods	Advantages	Disadvantages
Using the library catalogue	• •	• •
Google search	• •	• •
Interviewing older family members	• •	• •

4 Examine the following sites. Explain whether you think they are reliable. Explain why.
  a Australian National Museum
    www.nma.gov.au
  b Apple
    www.apple.com.au
  c La Trobe University
    www.latrobe.edu.au
  d Answers.com
    http://wiki.answers.com/Q/Why_were_the_vikings_feared

Evaluate and create

5 Create a handbook or class wiki providing tips on good research techniques to share with other students in your year level or post on your school intranet.

1.4 Sequence events and use historical terms and concepts

One of the most helpful things historians can do to get a better understanding of the past is to organise events in the order that they happened. This is known as **chronology**. Chronology can help us organise things that happened over a small period of time, like a day or week, or huge periods of time, like hundreds of thousands of years. We can also use chronology to look at events that happened in one place or society, or compare events across many different places and societies.

Chronology allows us to develop an ordered sense of time. Once events have been ordered chronologically, we are able to use a range of historical concepts such as cause and effect, significance, and continuity and change to analyse them in detail.

Sequencing time

Examples of how historians sequence time are shown in Sources 1 and 2. Each table shows how 2100 years have been divided into smaller periods of 100 years. These periods are known as centuries. Source 1 shows the time Before the Common Era (BCE) and Source 2 shows the time in the Common Era (CE). Because there is no zero used in the Common Era calendar, we have to begin from the year 1. This means that the years from 2001 to 2100 are actually part of the 21st century. These tables will help you as you work through Year 8 History. Refer to them as often as you need to.

Century BCE	Time period	Century BCE	Time period	Century BCE	Time period
21st century BCE	2100 to 2001	14th century BCE	1400 to 1301	7th century BCE	700 to 601
20th century BCE	2000 to 1901	13th century BCE	1300 to 1201	6th century BCE	600 to 501
19th century BCE	1900 to 1801	12th century BCE	1200 to 1101	5th century BCE	500 to 401
18th century BCE	1800 to 1701	11th century BCE	1100 to 1001	4th century BCE	400 to 301
17th century BCE	1700 to 1601	10th century BCE	1000 to 901	3rd century BCE	300 to 201
16th century BCE	1600 to 1501	9th century BCE	900 to 801	2nd century BCE	200 to 101
15th century BCE	1500 to 1401	8th century BCE	800 to 701	1st century BCE	100 to 1

Source 1 More than 2000 years of history Before the Common Era (BCE) divided into centuries. When ordering time BCE, remember to count backwards to 1.

Century CE	Time period	Century CE	Time period	Century CE	Time period
1st century CE	1 to 100	8th century CE	701 to 800	15th century CE	1401 to 1500
2nd century CE	101 to 200	9th century CE	801 to 900	16th century CE	1501 to 1600
3rd century CE	201 to 300	10th century CE	901 to 1000	17th century CE	1601 to 1700
4th century CE	301 to 400	11th century CE	1001 to 1100	18th century CE	1701 to 1800
5th century CE	401 to 500	12th century CE	1101 to 1200	19th century CE	1801 to 1900
6th century CE	501 to 600	13th century CE	1201 to 1300	20th century CE	1901 to 2000
7th century CE	601 to 700	14th century CE	1301 to 1400	21st century CE	2001 to 2100

Source 2 More than 2000 years of history in the Common Era (CE) divided into centuries. When ordering time CE, remember to count forwards from 1.

Creating a timeline

Timelines are used by historians to sequence time and order important events chronologically. They help divide large sections of time into smaller periods so that events (like the births and deaths of important people, wars and discoveries) can be arranged in the correct order.

Timelines can look quite different, but they all work in the same way. There are some basic steps you need to follow when constructing timelines. You should already be familiar with creating timelines, from your work in Year 7 but Source 3 provides a simple example and some basic reminders. Follow these basic steps when creating a timeline:

Step 1 Work out the length of time you want to represent on your timeline, then divide it evenly into suitable blocks of time. A timeline showing what you did yesterday might be divided into hours, while a timeline showing key events in the development of the modern world might be divided up into thousands of years.

Step 2 To represent a huge span of time, you may need to break your timeline into sections using a jagged line. This break shows that a section of time has been left out and will ensure that your timeline will fit on the page! Just make sure no important events fall in the time you are leaving out.

Step 3 Mark specific dates onto the timeline. These dates need to be accurately plotted so that they appear in chronological order (from left to right). If an exact date is not known, the abbreviation *c.* (from the Latin word *circa*, meaning 'around') is placed in front of it (e.g. *c.* 250 BCE).

Step 4 Plot important dates and events on the timeline. Give a brief description of each event. Include pictures and captions if appropriate.

1500
Tribes of Germanic origin begin moving into the area now known as Scandinavia

***c.* 250–100**
Development of Viking writing (runes) begins

787
First Viking attack on England

1066
William of Normandy (a descendent of the Vikings) defeats King Harold at the Battle of Hastings and becomes king of England. He becomes known as William the Conqueror.

Wiliam the conquerer from Bayeux tapestry.

| 2000 BCE | 1000 BCE | 1 CE | 1000 CE | 2000 CE |

Events that took place Before the Common Era (BCE) – that is, before the birth of Christ – are positioned on the timeline in descending order (i.e. counting backwards to 1, when Christ was born).

The first year of the Common Era was 1 – there was no year zero.

Events that took place in the Common Era (CE) – that is, after the birth of Christ – are positioned in ascending order (i.e. counting forwards from 1, when Christ was born).

Apply the skill

1 Create your own timeline based around one of the following topics:

- important events that have taken place in your life so far

- events in the life of someone important in your life (e.g. a family member or close friend)

Your timeline should have at least five entries and feature at least one image (with a caption). You will need to conduct some research online to complete this task.

Using historical terms and concepts

Just like scientists, historians share a common language. They use historical terms and concepts to clarify what they are talking about and share their findings. Source 4 lists and defines some commonly used historical terms.

Term	Definition
AD	an abbreviation of the Latin *Anno Domini* – 'in the year of our Lord'; a term used for any time after the birth of Christ (i.e. any time after 1 CE); this term has now largely been replaced by CE (see entry below)
age	a period of history with specific characteristics that make it stand out from other periods (e.g. the Stone Age, the Bronze Age)
BC	an abbreviation of Before Christ, a term used for the period of history before the birth of Christ (i.e. any time before 1 CE); this term has largely been replaced by BCE (see entry below)
BCE	an abbreviation of Before the Common Era, a term used for the period of history before the birth of Christ (i.e. any time before 1 CE); this term has largely replaced BC, because it is culturally neutral
CE	an abbreviation of Common Era, a term used for any time after the birth of Christ (i.e. any time after 1 CE); this term has largely replaced AD, because it is culturally neutral
century	a period of 100 years
chronology	a record of events in the order they took place
circa	a Latin word meaning 'around' or 'approximately' (abbreviated as *c.*)
decade	a period of 10 years
era	a period of time marked by distinctive characteristics, events or circumstances (e.g. the Roman era, the Victorian era)
millennium	a period of 1000 years
prehistory	the period of history before written records
time period	a block of time in history
timeline	a sequence of related historical events shown in chronological order; a timeline is generally scaled with years marked at equal distances
year	a period of 365 days

Check your learning 1.4

Remember and understand

1 What is a timeline?
2 What century are we living in?
3 What does BCE after a date mean?

Apply and analyse

4 Arrange the following dates in chronological order.
1 CE   400 BCE   399 BCE   2013 CE   2012 BCE
5 Which centuries were the following years in?
   a 2012 BCE   d 2000 CE
   b 1 CE   e 902 BCE
   c 1921 CE   f 81 BCE

Evaluate and create

6 Choose a person of interest to you and create a timeline of their life. The person can be an important historical figure (such as Genghis Khan or Leif Ericson), a person who has made an important discovery or invention that changed history (such as Christopher Columbus or Johannes Gutenberg), or even your favourite actor or singer.
   a Your timeline should include at least six significant events. Each entry must include a date and brief description of that event.
   b You should also include images related to at least two of the entries on your timeline.
   c Present your timeline electronically or as a poster.
7 Create a rhyme to help you remember one of the following:
   • the difference between CE and BCE
   • the definitions of year, decade, century, millennium, era and age.

1.5 Use historical sources as evidence

Identifying the origin and purpose of primary and secondary sources

As explained earlier (see 'Evidence' on page 9), historians use two types of sources to gather evidence about the past:

- primary sources – objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after
- secondary sources – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation.

Understanding the origin and purpose of primary and secondary sources

Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but it is important to understand where they came from (origin) and why they were created (purpose) because they will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who made them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of that time. All sources are affected by the author's own point of view, and in some cases the author may have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or ignore certain facts. This is referred to as **bias** and is often aimed at persuading the reader to agree with the author's point of view. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate sources.

Analysing sources by asking 'who', 'what', 'when' and 'why' questions will help you identify the origin and purpose of the sources. For example:

- Who wrote, produced or made the source?
  - Is the creator's personal perspective obvious in the source?
  - Is the creator a member of a particular group, religion or organisation?
- What type of source is it?
  - Was the source created at the time of the event or afterwards?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
  - How old is the source?
  - Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
  - Is the source complete?

Source 1 The origin and purpose of these sources is different even though they are both related to the medieval period in Europe.
Source A is a primary source – a weapon (axe head) used at the Battle of Hastings in 1066.
Source B is a secondary source – a photograph taken in 2010 of men wearing chainmail and carrying shields and about to take part in a re-enactment of the Battle of Hastings.

- Why was it written or produced?
  - Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
  - Does the creator have anything to gain personally from the source?
  - What other events may have been happening at the time that might have influenced the author or source?

Locating, comparing, selecting and using information from a range of sources as evidence

By this stage of your historical inquiry, you will have located and collected a variety of different sources and types of information. Now it is time to compare and select the most relevant information that you will use as evidence to support your hypothesis. There are a number of different ways to organise large amounts of information so that you can decide quickly and easily which sources provide the most useful, relevant and reliable evidence.

Graphic organisers to help you compare, select and use information

Graphic organisers are very useful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. A source evaluation chart like Source 2 can help you do this.

RESEARCH TOPIC: 'Why was the Battle of Hastings important?'

HYPOTHESIS: That the Battle of Hastings was important for medieval Europe because it changed the course of history in England forever.

Source 1: *Battlefield Britain – medieval warfare at The Battle of Hastings*	Type of source: *Secondary source (but includes many primary sources too)*	Pros: • *good selection of primary sources like photos* • *includes lots of interviews* • *information is factually correct and detailed* Cons: • *information is a bit complicated and the language is difficult to understand properly*	Reference information: www.culture24.org.uk/history-and-heritage/military-history/pre-20th-century-conflict/tra22820
Source 2:		Pros: Cons:	Reference information:
Source 3:		Pros: Cons:	Reference information:
Source 4:		Pros: Cons:	Reference information:
Source 5:		Pros: Cons:	Reference information:

Recommended sources in order of relevance/usefulness:

1
2
3
4
5

Source 2 A source evaluation chart showing an example of how you might compare and select sources

Drawing conclusions about the usefulness of sources

A useful source, whether primary or secondary, is one that will add to your understanding of a historical inquiry. The source needs to be relevant to the topic or question asked and must also be reliable. The following are good questions to ask in order to determine the usefulness of a source:

• Is it a reliable source?
• Is there enough information and sufficient detail to help me answer the inquiry question?
• Does the information support and reinforce evidence from other sources?
• Is it balanced or does it present one point of view (bias)?
• Is it based on fact or opinion?
• Is the information current?

Separating fact from opinion

The conclusions you draw about the sources you have found will determine their usefulness. In many cases, this means separating fact from opinion. A fact is something that can be proved: when an event took place, what happened and who was involved. An opinion is based on what a person, or persons, may believe to be true. A simple way to detect whether a statement is fact or opinion is to look closely at the language used. The use of words such as 'might', 'could', 'believe', 'think' and 'suggests' all indicate that an opinion is being expressed. For example:

• Fact: The Bayeux Tapestry is an important historical source.
• Opinion: The Battle of Hastings is probably the most important battle ever fought.

Source 3 This illustration of the Battle of Hastings is from the 19th century. How useful do you think it is as a historical source?

Check your learning 1.5

Remember and understand

1 Which of the following is an example of a primary source?
   a an axe head used at the Battle of Hastings
   b a documentary film about weapons used at the Battle of Hastings
   Give a reason for your answer.
2 Provide two reasons why graphic organisers are useful tools when analysing and comparing sources.

Apply and analyse

3 Give two reasons why it is important to know the origin of a particular source of information.

4 What words may indicate that a writer is expressing an opinion rather than presenting a fact?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct an online search to locate other graphic organisers that may be useful to help you locate, compare and use information from a range of sources as evidence. Some graphic organisers of use to you may include KWL charts, fishbone diagrams and PMI charts. Once you have examined other types of graphic organisers, make an assessment of which is most useful to you.

# 1.6 Analyse different perspectives and interpretations

Identifying and describing points of view, attitudes and values in primary and secondary sources

Historical sources (both primary sources and secondary sources) reflect many different points of view, attitudes and values. This is because historical sources are created by all different types of people. These people have different personal, social, political, economic or religious points of view.

The Battle of Hastings is a good example of how different perspectives and interpretations are reflected in historical sources, such as Sources 2 and 3.

- Source 3 is a section from the Bayeux Tapestry. It shows a scene from the Battle of Hasting from the perspective of the Normans (from France).
- Source 2 is a written account from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. It tells the story of the Battle of Hasting from the perspective of the Anglo-Saxons (from England).

Source 2 An entry from The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle recounting the events of the Battle of Hastings from the perspective of the Anglo-Saxons (from England)
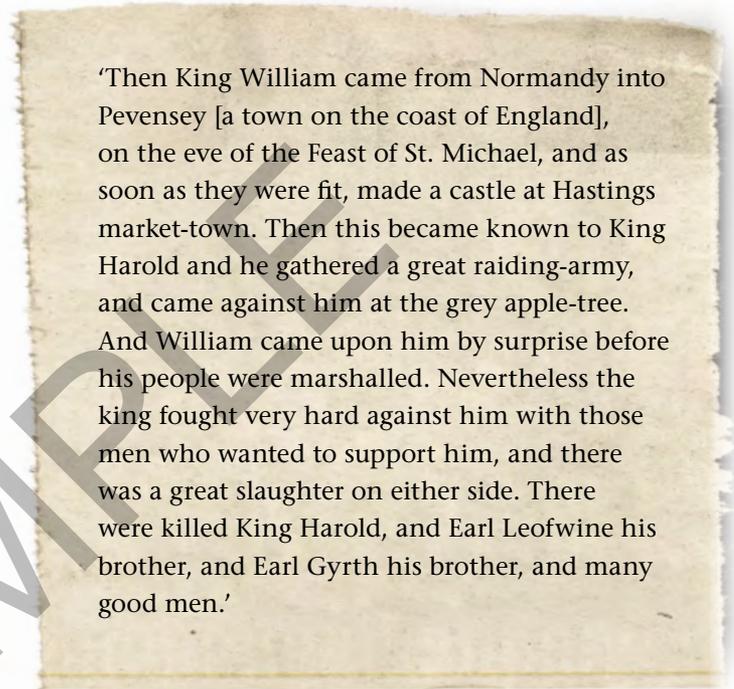
'Then King William came from Normandy into Pevensey [a town on the coast of England], on the eve of the Feast of St. Michael, and as soon as they were fit, made a castle at Hastings market-town. Then this became known to King Harold and he gathered a great raiding-army, and came against him at the grey apple-tree. And William came upon him by surprise before his people were marshalled. Nevertheless the king fought very hard against him with those men who wanted to support him, and there was a great slaughter on either side. There were killed King Harold, and Earl Leofwine his brother, and Earl Gyrth his brother, and many good men.'

Source 1 A comparison of two historical sources relating to the Battle of Hastings in 1066

The Bayeux Tapestry – a Norman source	The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle – an English source
- Most historians believe the Bayeux Tapestry was commissioned by William the Conqueror's half-brother, Bishop Odo of Bayeux. - The Tapestry provides a huge amount of detail for historians, both visually and in written accounts in Latin at the top and bottom of the cloth. - Because the Norman army won the battle, and William was crowned king, it is easier for the tapestry to present the events as fact.	- The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is the main source of English history at the time of the Battle of Hastings. - The Chronicle is a kind of calendar of national life written by English monks in a number of different places across England. - Unfortunately for the historian there are gaps in the Chronicle, and the Battle of Hastings is only mentioned briefly. - Because the English army lost the battle, and Harold Godwinson was killed, it is more difficult for English perspectives of the event to be taken as fact.

Source 3 A section of the Bayeux Tapestry recounting the events of the Battle of Hastings from the perspective of the Normans from France. Norman soldiers are shown on horseback (on the left) and Anglo-Saxon soldiers are shown on foot (on the right).

Sources 2 and 3 show how the same event can be told in many different ways depending on the perspectives of the people there. For example, the Bayeux Tapestry shows Norman and Anglo-Saxon troops prepared for battle, but Source 2 tells of how the Normans 'came upon him [King Harold] by surprise'.

It is only when we consider a range of different perspectives (from both sides) and examine all of the available sources that we can begin to form a more complete picture how the Battle of Hastings unfolded.

Check your learning 1.6

Remember and understand

1 Historical sources always reflect the perspective of their writer. Give two examples of factors that may influence a writer's point of view or perspective.

Apply and analyse

2 Look carefully at Sources 2 and 3 and answer the following questions:

a Who created Source 3? Whose perspective of the Battle of Hastings is being presented by this source?

b The stories and events of battles are more often told by the victors. How do you think this influences the version of events that are told and how do historians try to get the most accurate account of events like the Battle of Hastings?

1.7 Communicate your findings

Developing texts that use evidence from a range of sources

Historical writing requires you to describe and explain using evidence from a range of sources. You will often be required to outline the significance of a past event while providing reasons for the event and referring to relevant evidence.

Different types of sources need to be used to ensure that historical writing presents a balanced view and is supported by reliable evidence.

Writing descriptions

The purpose of descriptions is to give clear information about people, places or objects at particular moments in time. They focus on the main characteristics or features of particular people or things.

Descriptions must be well planned. Use the structure in Source 1 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Descriptions must follow a set structure, and events must be organised chronologically.

Source 1

Structure of a description	
Introduction	• Introduces the subject • States the name of the person or event • Outlines why the topic is important
Body	• Provides details about the person or event (including dates and important facts) • Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail • Quotations and descriptive words should be used where relevant
Conclusion (optional)	• Revisits the most important details and provides a concluding statement

Writing explanations

The purpose of explanations is to tell how or why something happened. They provide the reader with a greater understanding of the causes and effects of past events. Use the structure in Source 2 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Explanations

must be clear and factual. There must be supporting evidence from a variety of sources for each point made.

All historical writing needs to be acknowledged. At the end of your writing you must always include a full reference list or bibliography. This list shows your readers the range of different sources of evidence you used and where they can be found. For detailed information on this refer to the skill 'Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods', which was covered earlier.

Source 2

Structure of an explanation	
Introduction	• Clearly states the main idea or aim • Briefly outlines the reason/s why an event occurred and its effect/s
Body	• Each idea must be supported by evidence. There should also be some analysis of the evidence to explain its significance or importance. • Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. • Language should be precise and not contain emotional words. • Personal opinions (e.g. 'I' or 'my') should be avoided.
Conclusion (optional)	• Provides a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body • States a conclusion drawn from the evidence

Using a range of communication forms and digital technologies

The final stage of any historical inquiry is the presentation of your findings. This is one of the most important aspects of your inquiry because it draws together all of the sources, evidence and findings of your investigation.

There are a number of ways to effectively and impressively communicate your findings. For example:

• oral – speeches, class presentations, re-enactments, interviews and role plays
• graphic – posters, cartoons, graphic organisers and models

- written – descriptions, explanations, class newspapers, scripts, letters and diaries
- digital – audiovisual presentations, websites, films, blogs, wikis and apps.

These communication forms can add colour and life to the presentation of historical information.

Source 3 Class presentations can be an effective way to communicate your findings.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Creating an audiovisual presentation

One of the most popular ways to present the findings of a historical inquiry is to create an audiovisual presentation. To prepare and present a successful audiovisual presentation there are several steps to follow.

Step 1 Gather your research

Make sure that you have collected everything that you have found out in your historical inquiry. This will include any written research or findings, a list of sources you have used, and a range of relevant images and/or photographs.

Step 2 Plan and create your presentation

Once you have gathered your research, you will need to decide on the best way to deliver your findings. You may choose to use Microsoft PowerPoint or Prezi. Alternatively, you may like to create a website or short film to show to the class. How you will present your findings may depend on the criteria set by your teacher. It is important to check these before your presentation so that you can ensure you are meeting all criteria.

Step 3 Deliver your presentation

Regardless of the format you have chosen, there are some things to keep in mind:

- Practice makes perfect – rehearse your presentation before coming to class, especially if you are working in a group. Make sure each member of the group knows exactly what they have to do.
- Prepare for the worst – make a backup copy of your presentation in case anything unexpected occurs, such as data loss.
- Engage the audience – make eye contact, do not read from your notes, and prepare cue cards to help you remember your lines. Speak clearly and make sure your text and layout is as visually appealing as possible.
- Check for errors – make sure any audio and visual material is correct and contains no factual or spelling errors.
- Speak slowly – focus on the purpose of your presentation and do not allow yourself to be distracted.
- Finish strongly – your presentation should end on a high note!

Check your learning 1.7

Remember and understand

1 What is the purpose of a description? How is this different from the purpose of an explanation?

Apply and analyse

2 Your teacher has asked you to create a written piece about the significance of the Bayeux Tapestry. Would it be more appropriate to write a description or an explanation? Give reasons for your choice.

Evaluate and create

3 Your fellow class members have presented an audiovisual presentation on the Battle of Hastings. Your teacher has asked each member of the audience to complete a peer evaluation by creating five assessment criteria. Write these five assessment criteria in order of importance.

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