

Anthony McDonald

**How effectively can World Heritage In Young Hands support
delivery of the revised National Curriculum for Secondary Schools
in England?**

International Centre for Cultural and Heritage Studies

School of Arts and Cultures

Newcastle University

Principal Supervisor: Professor Peter Stone

Second Supervisor: Dr Aron Mazel

PhD Thesis submitted November 2013

Abstract

How effectively can World Heritage in Young Hands support delivery of the revised National Curriculum for secondary schools in England?

In 1972 UNESCO adopted the Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972 Convention); this provided a global framework for the selection, management and protection of heritage sites deemed to be of “outstanding universal value.”

Article 27 of the 1972 Convention requires States Parties to promote world heritage through educational programmes; in 1995 UNESCO convened a panel of experts charged with addressing this task. The UNESCO panel drafted a syllabus dedicated to world heritage education entitled, “World Heritage In Young Hands” (Young Hands). First published in 1998 Young Hands formed the basis of a UNESCO Schools project and was recommended to secondary schools on a global basis. Using interview data obtained from the original UNESCO panel and drawing on hitherto unexplored archive material this thesis examines the drafting of Young Hands.

Following UNESCO’s recommendations, this thesis determines the extent to which Young Hands supports teaching and learning in English secondary schools. Secondary schools in England are required to follow a centrally proscribed National Curriculum; recent revisions to the National Curriculum (N/C 2007) coupled with changes to GCSE specifications have had a marked impact on educational provision; this thesis determines the extent to which Young Hands supports these changes. Subject advisors at the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), responsible for implementing N/C 2007, were invited to comment on the extent to which Young Hands supported the revised National Curriculum. Detailed analysis of N/C 2007 programmes of study and GCSE specifications supplemented this data.

Whilst research indicated that Young Hands could support N/C 2007 one initiative, “Making Sense of Our Sites” (MSOS), sought to publish a “UK Version of Young Hands.” MSOS comprised a series of conferences showcasing educational resources developed by World

Heritage Sites (WHSs) throughout the UK; these case studies illustrated how Young Hands might be used to support N/C 2007. Just as significantly, roundtable discussions at MSOS identified major obstacles inhibiting the production of educational resources including the apathy of WHSs managers and a general lack of training in educational procedures.

Concluding this thesis, specific training in education is recommended for WHS managers; this, coupled with a recommendation that Candidate Sites comply with Article 27 prior to inscription, should ensure that Young Hands is viewed as a valuable resource by schools in England.

Contents

Abstract	i
List of Figures	ix
List of Tables	xi
Acknowledgements	xii
Abbreviations	xiv
Chapter 1: Introduction	
1.1 The Context of “World Heritage in Young Hands”	1
1.2 The Context of the Revised National Curriculum for Secondary Schools in England	2
1.3 Significance of this thesis	3
1.4 Parameters of this thesis	4
1.5 Research Questions	5
1.6 Research Aims and Objectives	5
1.7 Chapter Framework	7
Chapter 2: Research Methods	
2.1 Introduction	18
2.2 The Process of Literature Review	21
2.3 The process of Archive Research	25
2.4 The Process of Research Interview	30

2.5 The process of Triangulation	37
----------------------------------	----

Chapter 3: The aims and values of the United Nations and UNESCO

3.1 Introduction	39
3.2 The Development of the United Nations	40
3.3 The Development of UNESCO	44
3.4 The Development of the International Bureau of Education	46
3.5 The Development of Associated Schools	47
3.6 Jean Piaget and the development of cognitive constructivist theory	52
3.7 Lev Vygotsky and the practice of social constructivism	55
3.8 The 1974 Recommendation and the Project Method	57
3.9 The Delor's Report and the Project Method	60
3.10 Background to the 1972 Convention	64
3.11 Functions of the 1972 Convention	68
3.12 Implementing the 1972 Convention	71
3.13 The aims and values of Associated Schools 1993 to 1997	80
3.14 Developing the theme of "Peace" in Associated Schools 1993 to 1997	82
3.15 Developing the themes of "Human Rights" and "Democracy" in Associated Schools 1993 to 1997	85
3.16 Developing the theme of "Intercultural Learning" in Associated Schools 1993 to 1997	91
3.17 Developing the theme of "Concern for the Environment" in Associated Schools 1993 to 1997	93
3.18 Developing the theme of "Economic Development" in Associated Schools 1993 to 1997	98

Chapter 4: Drafting World Heritage in Young Hands

4.1 Introduction	103
4.2 Developing the concept of World Heritage Education at UNESCO	103
4.3 The First World Heritage Youth Forum, Bergen	107
4.4 The First European World Heritage Youth Forum	115
4.5 The drafting of Young Hands at Hvar, Croatia	123
4.6 The First African World Heritage Youth Forum	130
4.7 Establishing a training programme for Young Hands	133
4.8 Testing and Evaluation of Young Hands	140

Chapter 5: The Development of a National Curriculum in England

5.1 Introduction	145
5.2 The Plowden Report and the importance of localised curriculum development	145
5.3 The Schools Council and the importance of localised curriculum development	147
5.4 The Black Papers: the case for centralised control of the curriculum	149
5.5 DES and HMI define the parameters of the Great Debate	151
5.6 Introducing the National Curriculum for England and Wales	154
5.7 The role of the New Right in developing the National Curriculum	155
5.8 The 1988 Education Reform Act	158
5.9 The evolution of the National Curriculum	160
5.10 Background to the 2007 National Curriculum for secondary schools in England	161
5.11 The 2007 National Curriculum for England introduced 2008-2010	167

Chapter 6: Teaching the Past in English Schools

6.1 Introduction	170
6.2 Jean Piaget and the Project Method: revisiting the pioneers of constructivist theory	170
6.3 The application of constructivist theory to whole school curriculum planning: the contribution of Jerome Bruner	172
6.4 The Great Tradition of History Teaching	175
6.5 The Plowden Report: cognitive constructivism and the teaching of history	177
6.6 Coltham and Fines: social constructivism and the history curriculum	178
6.7 The Schools Council: social constructivism and the history curriculum	180
6.8 HMI: social constructivism and the history curriculum	186
6.9 History Matters: HMI revisits the Great Tradition?	188
6.10 The National Curriculum Order for History: a blend of social constructivism and the Great Tradition	191
6.11 The Evolution of National Curriculum History and a return to the grassroots of social constructivism	195

Chapter 7: Mapping Young Hands onto the National Curriculum for secondary schools in England

7.1 Introduction	200
7.2 Mapping Young Hands: the ASP (net) perspective	200
7.3 Mapping Young Hands: the perspective of the World Heritage Centre	207
7.4 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007: the perspective of the QCA	211
7.5 Introducing N/C 2007 history	213
7.6 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007 history: perceived strengths	215
7.7 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C history: perceived weaknesses	220

7.8 Introducing N/C 2007 geography	221
7.9 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C geography: perceived strengths	222
7.10 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007 geography: perceived weaknesses	227
7.11 Introducing N/C 2007 citizenship	229
7.12 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007 citizenship: perceived strengths	231
7.13 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007 citizenship: perceived weaknesses	236
7.14 The QCA perspective: concluding comments	238
 Chapter 8: Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007: examples from English World Heritage Sites	
8.1 Introduction	244
8.2 An introduction to “Making Sense of Our Sites”	244
8.3 Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: examples from Jurassic Coast WHS	246
8.4 Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: examples from the City of Bath WHS	252
8.5 Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: an example from Hadrian’s Wall WHS	255
8.6 Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: an example from the City of Liverpool WHS	257
8.7 Making Sense of Our Sites: concluding comments	260
 Chapter 9: Conclusion	
9.1 Introduction	262
9.2 Answering the research questions	262
9.3 Recommendations for future research	281
9.4 Final Conclusion	289

Bibliography	291
Appendix 1: Table of Interviewees and Personal Communications	317
Appendix 2: Interview Schedule for the UNESCO panel of experts	319
Appendix 3: Interview Schedule for the ASP (net) National Coordinator	323
Appendix 4: A synopsis of Young Hands	325
Appendix 5: Interview Schedule for QCA History	328
Appendix 6: Interview Schedule for QCA Geography	333
Appendix 7: Interview Schedule for QCA Citizenship	340
Appendix 8: Table of WHSs in England	345
Appendix 9: Interview Schedule for MSOS Education Officer 2009	347
Appendix 10: Interview Schedule for MSOS Education Officer 2010	350
Appendix 11: Attendance at MSOS Conferences 2009 and 2010	351
Appendix 12: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007	352

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: ASP (net) Digital Library (ASP net 2008a)	23
Figure 3.1: Piaget's Cognitive Stage Theory	54
Figure 3.2: Learning: The Treasure Within (Delors: 1996)	62
Figure 3.3: Stonehenge Site Management Plan 2009 (English Heritage: 2009)	73
Figure 3.4: The lakes of Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS, China	76
Figure 3.5: Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park WHS, Australia	78
Figure 3.6: Project Themes for Associated Schools 1994-2000	81
Figure 4.1: The Report of the First World Heritage Youth Forum, Bergen	110
Figure 4.2: The Report of the First European World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik	122
Figure 4.3: World Heritage Sites: A Teacher's Guide (Wheatley: 1997)	128
Figure 4.4: The Report of the First African World Heritage Youth Forum, Zimbabwe	131
Figure 4.5: World Heritage in Young Hands (UNESCO: 1998)	142
Figure 5.1: The 2007 National Curriculum for Secondary Schools in England	168
Figure 6.1: Bruner's "spiral curriculum model"	174
Figure 6.2: Outline of SCHP CSE/GCE "O" level syllabus as proposed by Schools Council	184
Figure 6.3: History 13-16: An Evaluation Study (Shemilt: 1980)	185
Figure 6.4: The "Hennessey Cone" as presented by HWG (DES 1991:4)	192
Figure 6.5: The Key Elements of History (DfE 1995: 15)	196
Figure 7.1: Project Themes for ASP (net) 2008	201
Figure 7.2: Good Practices for Quality Education (UNESCO: 2008b)	202
Figure 7.3: Our Pacific Heritage: The Future in Young Hands (UNESCO: 2004)	205

Figure 7.4: Key Concepts and Key Processes for NC 2007 history	214
Figure 7.5: Key Concepts and Key Processes for NC 2007 geography	222
Figure 7.6: GCSE Geography “A” Specification	225
Figure 7.7: Key Concepts and Key Processes for N/C 2007 citizenship	231
Figure 7.8: GCSE Citizenship Specification	235
Figure 8.1: Making Sense of Our Sites: Learning about Jurassic Coast	247
Figure 8.2: Students exploring the geology of Jurassic Coast WHS at MSOS 2009	250
Figure 9.1: The contrasting evolutionary paths of the Project Method and “enquiry based learning.”	272
Figure 9.2: The National Curriculum Handbook for Primary Schools in England	288

List of Tables

Table 1: Chapters in relation to Aims and Objectives, the principal evidence and the research methods used	13
Table 2 (a, b and c): Tables to demonstrate the research methods employed for each Objective:	
Table 2a: Aim 1	14
Table 2b: Aim 2	15
Table 2c: Aim 3	16
Table 3: How the Aims were achieved	17
Table 4: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 history	239
Table 5: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 geography	241
Table 6: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 citizenship	242
Table 7: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 English	283
Table 8: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 science	284
Table 9: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 art and design	286

Acknowledgements

Many people and organisations have assisted in the planning and execution of this thesis. I cannot emphasise enough the significance of each and every contribution and I apologise to any omissions to the list that I now present.

I would like to pay tribute to staff at Newcastle University for providing general guidance in relation to postgraduate research methodology; in particular I would like to thank academic staff and fellow students at ICCHS for their support in realising the successful completion of this thesis. I am greatly indebted to my supervisors, Aron Mazel and Peter Stone, who have patiently read and corrected numerous drafts of this thesis.

Much of the documentary evidence cited in this text is the personal property of Peter Stone (Stone Archive) and I would like to thank Peter for allowing me unrestricted access to this unique body of material. It was also thanks to Peter that I was able to contact the UNESCO panel of experts responsible for drafting the Young Hands syllabus. Whilst more than a decade had elapsed since Young Hands was first published the interview data provided by Ingunn Kvisteroy, Elisabeth Khawajkie, Breda Pavlic and Peter Stone brought this narrative into sharp relief.

At this point I should also like to thank Jens Boel, Chief Archivist at UNESCO Headquarters, for his help in tracing legislation and key publications pertinent to this thesis. Whilst very little evidence could be found specifically relating to the development of Young Hands these detailed searches did at least confirm the rarefied status of the Stone Archive. Other UNESCO staff who have contributed to this research include ASP (net) Coordinator, Sigrid Niedermayer and educational programme specialist, Livia Saldari. Staff based at the World Heritage Centre (WHC) proved equally as helpful and I am indebted to Vesna Vujicic-Lugassy and Carmella Quin for their insights regarding current implementation of the 1972 Convention and for suggesting effective curriculum mapping strategies.

The research strategy deployed in this thesis was made possible by Don Henson of the Council for British Archaeology who initiated introductions to subject advisors at the QCA; for this I am

most grateful. I would like to thank three subject advisors in particular for their detailed and candid appraisal of Young Hands: Jerome Freeman (QCA advisor for History), David Gardner (QCA advisor for Geography) and Liz Craft (QCA advisor for Citizenship).

Schemes of work demonstrating how Young Hands might be used to support teaching and learning in English secondary schools were showcased at “Making Sense of Our Sites” (MSOS) organised by Jurassic Coast WHS. I would like to thank the former ASP (net) National Coordinator, Ann Breivik, for bringing this initiative to my attention and for introducing me to the MSOS Team. MSOS provided a valuable source of evidence for this thesis and I would like to thank Anjana Ford, education officer at Jurassic Coast WHS, for proving a patient and willing interviewee and for allowing me to record conference proceedings. I am also indebted to David Weatherly, educational advisor for Dorset and Devon, who showcased schemes of work at MSOS in a most engaging and informative manner.

Finally I would also like to thank those heritage managers who either produced schemes of work for MSOS or who engaged in roundtable discussions; in particular I would like to mention: Tim Boden (education officer at Bath Preservation Trust), Ross Elliot (senior teacher at Burnside Business and Enterprise College, Wallsend) and Enid Lodge (ASP net) whose project, “Recalling the Past, Reforming the Future” proved truly inspirational.

For Benedict

Abbreviations

1972 Convention	The Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage
1974 Recommendation	The Recommendation Concerning Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace and Education Relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms
ASP (net)	Associated Schools Project
AS level	Advanced Supplementary level specifications
A2 level	Advanced level specifications
CAME	Conferences of the Allied Ministers of Education
CSE	Certificate of Secondary Education
DCSF	Department for Children, Schools and Families
DES	Department of Education and Science
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Science
EHES	English Heritage Education Service
ERA	Education Reform Act (DES: 1988)
ECM	Every Child Matters
EPQ	Extended Project Qualification
GCE "O" level	General Certificate of Education Ordinary level specifications
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education specifications
GMS	Grant Maintained Status
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Schools

HRA	Human Rights Act
HW-CET	Hadrian's Wall Community and Education Team
IBE	International Bureau of Education
ICCHS	International Centre for Culture and Heritage Studies
ICE	International Conference on Education
ICOM	International Council on Museums
ICOMOS	International Council on Monuments and Sites
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Natural Resources
LEA	Local Education Authority
LOtC	Learning Outside the Classroom
MSOS	Making Sense of Our Sites
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
N/C	National Curriculum
NCC	National Curriculum Council
NMMZ	National Museums and Monuments, Zimbabwe
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education
OUV	Outstanding Universal Value
OWHC	Organisation for World Heritage Cities
POS	Programme of Study
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
RSA	Royal Society of Arts
SATs	Standard Assessment Tests

SCAA	Schools Curriculum and Assessment Authority
SCHP	Schools Council History Project
SHP	Schools History Project
SMP	Site Management Plan
TGAT	The Group on Assessment and Testing
UN	United Nations
UNA	United Nations Association
UNCED	United Nations Convention on Environment and Development
UNCRC	United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child
UNDHR	United Nations Declaration of Human Rights
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WHC	World Heritage Centre
WHE	World Heritage Education
WHS	World Heritage Site
WHYF	World Heritage Youth Forum
Young Hands	World Heritage in Young Hands

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 The Context of “World Heritage in Young Hands”

In 1972 United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) invited signatories to the “Convention Concerning Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage,” (1972 Convention). The 1972 Convention represented a global strategy for the conservation of heritage sites deemed to be of outstanding universal value to all people (see Chapter 3.11); so important was this Convention that it received near unanimous support from Member States and remains to this day one of the United Nations’ most enduring instruments (see Chapter 7.2).

To be inscribed on the World Heritage List sites were required to meet clearly defined selection criteria as demonstrated by Articles 1 and 2 of the 1972 Convention. Once listed a “statement of outstanding universal value” (OUV) was prepared for each site based on Articles 1 and 2 above. This OUV was recorded by the World Heritage Committee and formed the basis of Site Management Plans (SMPs) submitted by all WHSs (UNESCO: 2011a). Intimately associated with the OUV was Article 27 which stated:

States Parties to this Convention shall endeavour by all appropriate means and in particular by educational and information programmes, to strengthen appreciation and respect by their peoples of the cultural and natural heritage defined in Articles 1 and 2 of the Convention.

(UNESCO 1972: Article 27)

Once inscribed WHSs were duty bound to develop educational programmes promoting the concept of world heritage. The Education Sector of UNESCO had produced general guidance material to assist in the planning of educational programmes and a network of schools affiliated to UNESCO, termed Associated Schools (ASP net), exemplified good practice (see Chapter 3.5).

Despite such support however States Parties to the 1972 Convention consistently ignored Article 27 and it was to take a further 25 years before UNESCO embraced the concept of World Heritage Education (WHE).

ASP (net) developed a range of educational projects promoting the universal values of UNESCO such as “Human Rights”, “environmental education” and “cultural and natural diversity” (see Chapter 3.12). High demand for resources targeting “cultural diversity” eventually led ASP (net) to develop the concept of WHE in conjunction with the World Heritage Centre (WHC).

The syllabus for WHE or “World Heritage in Young Hands” (Young Hands) was drafted by ASP (net) and the WHC in consultation with other agencies. An experimental version of this syllabus was published by UNESCO in 1998 with a second edition published in 2002 and introduced to more than 7500 schools worldwide (UNESCO: 2008). With Young Hands courting such international popularity UNESCO’s aim of introducing this syllabus to all secondary schools may have appeared feasible (UNESCO 2002: 11). Ten years on however New Zealand remains the only Member State to have incorporated this syllabus as part of their National Curriculum for schools (see Chapter 7.2). With New Zealand’s achievements in mind this thesis examines the extent to which Young Hands might support the revised National Curriculum for secondary schools in England (N/C 2007).

1.2 The Context of the Revised National Curriculum for Secondary Schools in England

In 2007 the curriculum for all secondary schools in England was comprehensively revised. The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) redrafted the framework of the National Curriculum and comprehensively revised all programmes of study (POSs). In tandem with these changes QCA redrafted GCSE subject criteria requiring that Awarding Bodies in England revise GCSE guidelines. Teaching these new GCSE specifications began in September 2008 with candidates sitting examinations in 2010 (see Chapter 5.11). The impact of these changes was profound; from 2008 all students attending secondary schools in England were presented with a rather different curriculum.

N/C 2007 outlined twelve subjects to be studied by all students between the ages of 11 to 14; these included the “core subjects” of maths, English and science together with “foundation subjects” such as history, citizenship and art. Students aged 14 to 16 were required to study six subjects including the “core subjects” together with four “curriculum areas”; these curriculum areas included a “humanities curriculum area” requiring that students study either history or geography (see Chapter 5.11).

Whilst the framework of the National Curriculum bore a marked resemblance to previous specifications QCA revisions to POSs were more profound. Proscribed content for all subjects was dramatically reduced and schools were now expected to develop schemes of work tailored to the needs of their students (see Chapter 5.10). Such dramatic changes to POSs created a need for exemplar materials and, with regard N/C 2007 geography, QCA turned to WHSs for support (see Chapter 7.9).

1.3 The significance of this thesis

Drawing on a rich vein of hitherto unexplored documentary material and interview data this thesis traces the development of Young Hands from its inception as a pilot project in 1993 through to its elevation to a UNESCO flagship project in 2002.

Interview data obtained from QCA subject advisors, together with detailed analysis of N/C 2007, revealed the latent potential of the Young Hands syllabus. Young Hands could provide a much needed resource for subject teachers struggling to address the burgeoning demands of the revised National Curriculum for secondary schools; at the same time Young Hands could come one step closer to realising the ambitions of UNESCO in supporting teaching and learning in all secondary schools (UNESCO 2002: 11). The prospect of Young Hands being incorporated into the curriculum of even a small percentage of England’s 3000 secondary schools could have marked implications both for ASP (net) and for the profile of WHSs. These implications may be manifest both in terms of increased membership of ASP (net) and in terms of increased dialogue between WHSs and schools.

For Young Hands to realise these ambitions however WHSs would need to provide schools with dedicated schemes of work and tailored educational resources (see Chapter 8.1). These resources would need to convey the OUV of individual WHSs and state specifically how they supported the educational objectives of N/C 2007. This thesis details attempts by WHSs to coordinate such efforts and determines the extent to which Young Hands might support teaching and learning in English secondary schools; questions are then raised regarding the priority afforded to education at WHSs throughout England.

1.4 Parameters of the thesis

The parameters of this thesis are proscribed by the three research questions below; these questions relate specifically to secondary schools in England and to WHSs in England. References to the revised National Curriculum for secondary schools (N/C 2007) relate specifically to the National Curriculum for England and bear no relation to formal educational provision either in Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland. Similarly, references to WHSs refer specifically to the 17 WHSs in England (listed in Appendix 8); no attempt has been made to assess educational provision in Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland.

The term “World Heritage Education” (WHE) refers exclusively to the Project initiated by WHC and ASP (net) as referenced above. The syllabus for WHE, entitled “Young Hands”, was published by UNESCO in 1998 and again in 2002; it is this syllabus which forms the focus of this thesis. General definitions of “World Heritage Education” such as generic educational materials produced by WHSs are not applicable.

In accordance with the aims of Young Hands (UNESCO 2002:11) this syllabus is examined in relation to the National Curriculum for secondary schools in England (DCSF/QCA: 2007). N/C 2007 details POSs for most subjects for students aged 11 to 16, there are however exceptions to this rule. N/C 2007 history and N/C 2007 geography are compulsory only until the age of 14; the syllabus for these subjects is then proscribed by GCSE specifications published by Awarding Bodies in England (see Chapter 7.4). Many WHSs in England have been inscribed with reference to their historical and/or archaeological importance and constitute “cultural heritage sites.” In

recognition of this fact, and to facilitate the mapping of Young Hands, particular attention has been paid to the teaching of history in English schools (see Chapter 6). This approach is not intended to imply that the mapping potential of Young Hands is in any way limited but rather to highlight the strengths of this syllabus as a resource for both teachers and heritage professionals.

This thesis defines the curriculum for secondary schools in England both in terms of N/C 2007 and GCSE specifications. No reference is made to other academic qualifications such as National Diplomas owing to their rather limited appeal; similarly no reference is made to the plethora of “vocational qualifications” such as BTECs and RSA Certificates owing to their specialist appeal. It should also be noted that as compulsory education in England concludes at the age of 16 “AS” and “A” level qualifications lie outside the parameters of this thesis.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions were developed based on the background information and research parameters detailed above. These research questions provide a context for the research aims and objectives which follow as well as providing a useful working framework for conclusions:

1. To what extent do the aims and values of Young Hands support the aims and values of N/C 2007?
2. To what extent does the educational approach of Young Hands support the educational approach of N/C 2007?
3. How effectively have WHSs in England supported Young Hands and N/C 2007?

1.6 Research Aims and Objectives

The research questions detailed above informed a series of research aims and objectives as follows:

Aim 1. Determine the aims, values and educational approach of Young Hands

- i. To identify the aims and values underpinning the United Nations and UNESCO
- ii. To determine the extent to which the aims and values of UNESCO are reflected in the World Heritage themes of Young Hands
- iii. To examine the educational approach promoted by UNESCO and ASP (net)
- iv. To determine the influence of the School's Council History Project (SCHP) and English Heritage Education Service (EHES) on Young Hands

Aim 2. Determine the aims, values and educational approach of N/C 2007

- i. To identify the aims and values underpinning N/C 2007
- ii. To determine the extent to which the aims and values of N/C 2007 are premised on Human Rights legislation
- iii. To determine the extent to which N/C 2007 programmes of study are rooted in constructivist approaches to education
- iv. To determine the extent to which the aims, values and educational approach of Young Hands support the aims, values and educational approach of N/C 2007

Aim 3. Identify examples illustrating how Young Hands may be used to support N/C 2007

- i. To identify which N/C 2007 programmes of study are most supportive of Young Hands

- ii. To determine the extent to which WHSs in England have realised the potential of Young Hands and N/C 2007
- iii. To identify the challenges faced by WHSs in developing resources which support both Young Hands and N/C 2007
- iv. To suggest ways in which WHSs in England may in future realise the potential of Young Hands and N/C 2007

1.7 Chapter Framework

The following paragraphs summarise the content of each of the chapters of this thesis. These paragraphs are followed by a series of tables which illustrate the relationship between each chapter and the aims and objectives of this thesis.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter One defines the context of this thesis in terms of N/C 2007 and the 1972 Convention. A brief introduction to Young Hands emphasises that this syllabus was designed to address the educational needs of both the WHC and ASP (net).

The parameters of this thesis are defined in terms of three research questions; these questions are then redefined in terms of aims and subdivided as research objectives or “actions” to be undertaken by the researcher. The aims and objectives of the thesis are then mapped onto all chapters whilst the three research questions are addressed in the concluding chapter.

Chapter 2: Research Methods

Chapter Two details the chosen research strategy for this thesis. Three methods of data collection are reviewed: literature research, archive research and research interviews.

Research results form the basis of two separate chapters of this thesis; Chapter Four, “Drafting Young Hands”, emphasises the importance of archive research and research interviewing. Archives at WHC and ASP (net) were referenced together with the “Stone Archive” housed at Newcastle University (see Chapter 2.3). Research interviews were conducted with the authors of Young Hands including former programme specialists at both WHC and ASP (net). Chapter Seven, “Mapping Young Hands onto the 2007 National Curriculum for England”, again emphasises the importance of research interview techniques. Programme specialists at both WHC and ASP (net) were interviewed before seeking the advice of curriculum specialists in England. Subject advisors from the former Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), tasked with monitoring and reform of the National Curriculum, were asked to detail specific POSs and to review Young Hands. Finally, schemes of work presented as part of the “Making Sense of Our Sites” (MSOS) initiative were reviewed together with analysis of roundtable discussions.

Chapter 3: The aims and values of the United Nations and UNESCO

Chapter Three identifies the aims and values of the United Nations and UNESCO and provides a context for the drafting of Young Hands. The aims and values detailed by the United Nations Charter and the UNESCO Constitution are analysed with emphasis being placed on the role of education as a means of communicating universal values.

The role played by ASP (net) and the International Bureau of Education (IBE) in developing constructivist approaches to education is determined and the importance of the “Project Method” is assessed. The role of ASP (net) in communicating the universal values of UNESCO is outlined whilst analysis of ASP (net) project themes shows how these universal values were translated into the four world heritage themes of Young Hands.

Chapter 4: The Drafting of Young Hands

This Chapter draws on a broad range of evidence to examine the drafting of Young Hands. Transcripts of interviews with key authors are analysed together with evidence from the Stone Archive at Newcastle University. Official publications by ASP (net) and the WHC are referenced throughout as is information obtained from “grey literature” such as emails and communiqués.

WHE was introduced as a joint project between ASP (net) and the WHC enabling Associated Schools and WHSs to address Article 27 of the 1972 Convention. Following the success of this project a UNESCO panel of experts, including Peter Stone of English Heritage Education Service (EHES), were convened to draft a dedicated educational syllabus; this syllabus was entitled “Young Hands.”

Of particular significance was the request that Stone draft an introductory chapter to Young Hands detailing the desired educational approach for WHE. ASP (net) advised that this chapter highlight the importance of the Project Method of education as detailed in “Learning: The Treasure Within” (Delors Report); Stone was familiar with the Project Method as both ASP (net) and EHES advocated constructivist approaches to education.

The UNESCO panel of experts met in Hvar, Croatia and were asked to develop a syllabus for WHE based on four world heritage themes: “World Heritage and Identity”, “World Heritage and Tourism”, “World Heritage and the Environment” and “World Heritage and a Culture of Peace.” Materials developed at Hvar were trialled at a series of World Heritage Youth Fora (WHYFs) prior to publication; consternation was expressed however at the chapter detailing educational approaches to WHE. ASP (net) schools themselves were experiencing difficulties engaging with the Project Method and a postgraduate training course was proposed to address these difficulties. Chapter Four details the efforts made to attract financial backing for this initiative prior to the publication of Young Hands.

Chapter 5: The Development of a National Curriculum in England

Chapter Five examines the circumstances surrounding the introduction of a National Curriculum for schools in England. This chapter then charts the evolution of the National Curriculum before detailing the background to N/C 2007 and questioning the extent to which this revised version of the National Curriculum represents a return to curriculum planning at local level.

Traditionally the curriculum for all schools in England had been decided on a school by school basis with decisions reflecting local needs and the availability of local resources. This approach to curriculum planning was supported by Central Government with both “Children and their Primary Schools” (Plowden Report) and the Schools Council advocating localised curriculum development. This consensus of opinion was challenged however amidst fears that school curricula lacked academic rigour and had failed to meet the demands of industry; in 1976 Prime Minister James Callaghan invited all interested parties to address these challenges. Her Majesty’s Inspectorate (HMI) and the Department for Education and Science (DES) each proposed a number of model curricula for schools before consensus was finally reached. Having achieved consensus HMI and DES were taken aback by Central Government’s introduction of the “1988 Education Reform Act” (ERA); Chapter 40 of ERA introduced a National Curriculum for schools in England and Wales. In direct opposition to recommendations by HMI and DES the curriculum for all schools was now centrally proscribed. This Chapter details the role of right wing pressure groups in orchestrating such a move and examines the evolution of the National Curriculum over a period of two decades.

Chapter 6: Teaching the past in English Schools

This chapter determines the extent to which constructivist educational theory impacted on the teaching of history in English Schools between 1960 and 2010. The work of constructivist theorists such as Piaget and Vygotsky is reviewed in relation to the Project Method of education. This review paves the way for a detailed analysis of the work of Jerome Bruner in applying constructivist theory to whole school curriculum planning. The impact of Bruner’s work on both the Schools Council History Project (SCHP) and the National Curriculum Order for History is

determined with particular attention paid to the “Key Concepts” of history and the development of a “spiral curriculum.” Finally the impact of right wing political groups in opposing constructivist approaches to education and in promoting a nationalist agenda for history is examined.

Chapter 7: Mapping Young Hands onto the Revised National Curriculum for England

This Chapter determines the most effective way of mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007. A broad range of evidence is examined from interviews with UNESCO programme specialists and QCA subject advisors to analysis of Young Hands, N/C 2007 and GCSE subject specifications.

The Chapter is divided into two sections; the first section details interviews with programme specialists at both ASP (net) and the WHC. Aspects of the 1972 Convention are reviewed together with guidance documentation published by ASP (net) and UNESCO; history, geography and citizenship were suggested as the most effective subjects for curriculum mapping. The second section details interviews conducted at QCA Offices in London; here subject advisors responsible for drafting N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship were asked to comment on the compatibility of Young Hands. The “strengths” and “weaknesses” of each subject area were determined together with the suitability of GCSE specifications.

The final section of this Chapter details attempts by WHSs to produce resources supporting Young Hands and N/C 2007; specific reference is made to the MSOS initiative organised by Jurassic Coast WHS.

Chapter 8: Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: Examples from English World Heritage Sites

This Chapter details an initiative funded by Jurassic Coast WHS, the UK National Commission for UNESCO together with Devon and Dorset Local Authorities. Originally intended as a three year initiative “Making Sense of Our Sites” (MSOS) aimed to produce a UK version of Young Hands. The success of MSOS was dependant on the ability of WHSs to produce dedicated

resources and schemes of work that supported teaching and learning in schools throughout the UK. This Chapter profiles schemes of work produced by WHSs in England as well as highlighting relevant managerial concerns.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

Chapter Nine addresses the three research questions detailed in Chapter One. Conclusions are drawn regarding the extent to which Young Hands supports the revised National Curriculum for secondary schools in England and recommendations for future research are made.

Information presented in this chapter is now summarised in a series of tables. Table 1 demonstrates the way in which the aims and objectives of the research design, as detailed in Chapter 1.6 above, relate to individual chapters of this thesis. The information presented in Table 1 is supplemented by data presented in Tables 2a, 2b and 2c; these tabulate research aims and objectives in relation to the research methods used. Finally, Table 3 demonstrates how all three research aims were achieved and signposts the relevant chapters.

Table 1: Chapters in relation to aims and objectives: principal evidence and research methods used

Chapters	Aims and Objectives	Principle Evidence	Research Methods
1. Introduction	Aim 1 (i).	Founding documents and legislative instruments of UN and UNESCO.	Literature Review
2. Research Methods	All aims and objectives.	Methodology literature.	Literature Review
3. Aims and values of the UN and UNESCO	Aim 1 (i), (ii) and (iii).	UNESCO Library; ASP (net) digital archive; founding documents and legislative instruments of UN and UNESCO; IBE Reports.	Literature Review
4. Drafting Young Hands	Aim 1 (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv).	Young Hands; Stone Archive; interviews with authors of Young Hands; grey literature.	Archive Research Research Interview
5. Developing a National Curriculum for England	Aim 2 (i), (ii) and (iii).	Past N/C specifications; N/C 2007; dedicated websites; books; journals; BEI database.	Archive Research Literature Review
6. Teaching the past in English Schools	Aim 2 (i), (ii) and (iii).	Past N/C specifications; N/C 2007 history; journals; books; OFSTED Reports.	Literature Review
7. Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007	Aim 1 (i) – (iv); Aim 2 (i) – (iv); Aim 3 (i).	Interview data from ASP (net); WHC and QCA; OFSTED Reports; GCSE Specifications; dedicated websites; Young Hands.	Research Interview Literature Review
8. Mapping Young Hands: examples from English WHSs	Aim 3 (i) and (ii).	Proceedings of MSOS; dedicated websites; SMPs	Research Interview Literature Review
9. Conclusion	All aims and objectives; emphasis on Aim 2 (iv) and Aim 3 (ii), (iii) and (iv).	All evidence from previous Chapters	All research methods

Table 2a: Table to demonstrate the research methods employed for each objective

Aim 1 : Determine the aims, values and educational approach of Young Hands

Objective	Information required	Sources of Information	Research Method
i. To identify the aims and values underpinning the UN and UNESCO.	Evidence of universal values in the founding documents and legislative instruments of the UN and UNESCO.	Founding documents and legislative instruments of the UN and UNESCO; UNESCO Library; ASP (net) digital archive; dedicated websites.	Literature Review.
ii. To determine the extent to which the aims and values of UNESCO are reflected in the four world themes of Young Hands.	The relationship between the universal values identified in Aim 1 (i) and the four world heritage themes of Young Hands.	Young Hands; Stone Archive; interviews with authors of Young Hands; founding documents and legislative instruments of the UN and UNESCO; IBE Reports.	Archive Research. Research Interview.
iii. To examine the educational approach promoted by UNESCO and ASP (net).	The importance of Jean Piaget in developing constructivist approaches to education, most notably the "Project Method."	Stone Archive; UNESCO Archive; IBE Reports; grey literature; dedicated websites.	Archive Research. Literature Review.
iv. To determine the influence of SCHP and English Heritage on Young Hands.	The influence of SCHP on the educational approach of English Heritage and the role of English Heritage in drafting Young Hands.	Young Hands; interviews with the authors of Young Hands; SCHP; English Heritage publications; grey literature; IBE Reports.	Literature Review. Research Interview.

Table 2b: Table to demonstrate the research methods employed for each objective

Aim 2: Determine the aims, values and educational approach of N/C 2007

Objective	Information required	Sources of information	Research method
i. To identify the aims and values underpinning N/C 2007.	Generic aims for Children's Services as determined by Every Child Matters and their influence on N/C 2007.	N/C 2007; interviews with QCA subject advisors; Every Child Matters.	Literature Review. Research Interview.
ii. To determine the extent to which the aims and values of N/C 2007 are premised on domestic human rights legislation.	The influence of UNCRC on Every Child Matters and its impact on N/C 2007.	N/C 2007; interviews with QCA subject advisors; QCA website; Every Child Matters; UNCRC.	Literature Review. Research Interview.
iii. To determine the extent to which N/C 2007 programmes of study are rooted in constructivist approaches to education.	Evidence for the development of "key concepts" and "enquiry based learning" in N/C 2007 programmes of study.	N/C 2007; interviews with QCA subject advisors; SCHP; past N/C specifications;	Literature Review. Research Interview.
iv. To determine the extent to which the aims, values and educational approach of Young Hands support the aims, values and educational approach of N/C 2007.	Evidence that the aims of N/C 2007 are premised on human rights legislation and that the educational approaches of N/C 2007 and Young Hands are rooted in constructivism	All interview data; Young Hands; N/C 2007; dedicated websites.	Literature Review. Research Interview.

Table 2c: Table to demonstrate the research methods employed for each objective

Aim 3: Identify case studies illustrating how Young Hands may be used to support N/C 2007

Objectives	Information required	Sources of information	Research method
i. To identify which N/C 2007 programmes of study are most supportive of Young Hands.	The ability of N/C 2007 programmes of study to support the OUV of individual WHS.	N/C 2007; Young Hands; all interview data; IBE Reports; IBE website.	Research Interview. Literature Review.
ii. To determine the extent to which WHS in England have realised the potential of Young Hands and N/C 2007.	WHS in England that have developed case studies supporting Young Hands and N/C 2007.	N/C 2007; Young Hands; interviews with MSOS Team; MSOS proceedings; dedicated websites.	Research Interview. Literature Review.
iii. To identify those challenges faced by WHS in developing resources which support Young Hands and N/C 2007.	WHS in England that have not developed case studies supporting Young Hands and N/C 2007 and the reasons for this.	Interviews with MSOS Team; MSOS proceedings.	Research Interview
iv. To suggest ways in which WHS in England might realise the potential of Young Hands and N/C 2007.	The results of Aim 3 (i), (ii) and (iii).	Interviews with MSOS Team; MSOS proceedings.	Evaluation and analysis of results from all research methods.

Table 3: How the aims were achieved

Table 3, below, shows each aim, the way in which it was achieved and signposts to the chapter where this aim was primarily addressed. This is done with the acknowledgement that there is some inevitable overlap between the aims dealt with in each of the chapters and between the research methods employed.

Table 3: Aims shown with ways in which they were achieved in the thesis

No.	Aim	Key research methods	Chapter where primarily expressed
1	Determine the aims, values and educational approach of Young Hands.	Research Interviews were conducted with the authors of Young Hands and with programme specialists at both ASP (net) and WHC. Archive research was conducted at UNESCO Archives and the Stone Archive where a range of primary sources were located. Literature Review encompassed a range of sources including Young Hands, the founding documents of the UN and UNESCO together with IBE Reports.	Chapters 3, 4, 7 and 8
2	Determine the aims, values and educational approach of N/C 2007.	Research Interviews were conducted with subject advisors at QCA. Literature Review encompassed a range of sources including N/C 2007, past N/C specifications, dedicated websites together with books and journals referenced by the BEI.	Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8
3	Identify examples illustrating how Young Hands may be used to support N/C 2007.	Research interviews were conducted with the MSOS Team and conference proceedings were noted. Literature Review encompassed Young Hands, N/C 2007, GCSE specifications, WHS Management Plans and dedicated websites.	Chapters 8 and 9

Chapter 2: Research Methods

2.1 Introduction

The three research questions presented in Chapter One define the parameters of this thesis. To determine how effectively Young Hands might prove in supporting N/C 2007 a detailed comparison is needed between these two syllabuses, the thesis' aims, as detailed in Chapter One, present a cohesive strategy for such a comparison. Key areas for comparison are the aims and values of Young Hands and N/C 2007 followed by an analysis of their educational approach; finally an attempt is made to identify schemes of work which illustrate the relationship between Young Hands and N/C 2007 (see Chapter 8.1).

Each of the aims identified in Chapter One is presented in terms of four research objectives; these objectives represent actions or "tasks" which must be addressed by the researcher. It is these research objectives which determine the qualitative nature of the research strategy as well as providing a framework for archive research and the planning of interview schedules; Cohen *et al* (2004: 76) notes:

What is required is to translate a very general research purpose or aim into specific, concrete objectives to which specific concrete answers may be given. The process moves from the general to the particular, from the abstract to the concrete. Thus the researcher breaks down each general research purpose or aim into more specific research objectives continuing the process until specific, concrete questions have been reached to which specific answers may be provided.

Research objectives indicated that a series of qualitative assessments needed to be made; these included the impact of constructivism on the educational approach of Young Hands and N/C 2007 and an assessment of the underlying aims and values of both syllabuses (see Chapter 1.6). In addition an analysis of existing schemes of work was necessary to determine how effectively

Young Hands might support N/C 2007 (see Chapter 1.6). To fulfil the requirements of these research objectives a qualitative research strategy was designed for this thesis. Specialists in the fields of heritage management and education were solicited for their views regarding compatibility between Young Hands and N/C 2007 whilst case studies presented at MSOS acted as illustrative examples (see Chapter 8.1).

Research objectives requiring that research be conducted in the field (as opposed to the laboratory) and for value judgements to be made are identified as being qualitative in nature (Cohen *et al* 2004: 137); they require the planning of an appropriate qualitative research design (Cohen *et al* 2004: 138); as Flick (2006: 14) notes, “the subject under study is the determining factor in selecting a qualitative research design... here the fields of study here are not artificial situations in the laboratory but the practices and interactions of the subject in everyday life.”

Cohen *et al* (2004: 153) concur noting that qualitative research designs offer the researcher an inherent degree of flexibility. Qualitative research designs allow the researcher to revise research objectives as new data becomes available; here research objectives detailed in Chapter 1.6 were continually revised in response to data resulting from interviews and archive research. In contrast quantitative research studies are often designed to prove or disprove given hypotheses, here research objectives offer little flexibility (Flick 2006: 16).

The decision to adopt a qualitative research design informed the choice of data collection methods. Cohen *et al* (2004: 243) advocate the use of data collection methods which are capable of capturing the value judgements and “rich narrative descriptions” so characteristic of qualitative data. Suggested data collection methods include interviews and questionnaires; these should be designed to encourage respondents to express themselves freely (see Chapter 2.4).

Again, with reference to the collection of quantitative data, Cohen *et al* (2004: 140) note that the researcher is expected to play an instrumental part in data collection. This contrasts with qualitative research designs where the role of the researcher may be far less prominent. The reason for this is clear, only by using the research instruments themselves (interview schedules, questionnaires etc) can the researcher be truly conversant with the data; it is this familiarity with

the data that enables the qualitative researcher to adapt the research design and revise research objectives as required.

It has been suggested that this degree of involvement by the researcher may mean that qualitative research designs may lack objectivity. With the researcher responsible for planning the research design, revising the research design and research objectives, designing the data collection instruments and conducting the research the resulting study may lack objectivity. In defence of such qualitative research designs Flick notes that, in contrast to qualitative studies where objectivity and replication of results must be a key aim, quantitative research relies on the validity of the data collection methods. For Flick (2006: 10) the validity of qualitative data is dependant upon:

...the recognition and analysis of different perspectives; the researcher's reflections on their research as part of the process of knowledge production; and the variety of approaches and methods.

Here validity of the data is achieved by using a number of different research methods, these may include: research interviews, questionnaires, a literature review and archive research. Having identified the appropriate research methods the researcher must provide a full account of each research method and acknowledge any limiting factors; in this thesis Chapter 2 provides a full account of all research methods employed together with a detailed analysis of all limiting factors.

Following a period of careful consideration, the following data collection methods were chosen:

- i. Literature review
- ii. Archive analysis
- iii. Interviews with selected heritage and education practitioners

In addition to the methods of data collection above a process of “triangulation”, or cross-referencing, allowed data obtained by any one research method to be compared with data obtained from another (see Chapter 2.5). Using triangulation data obtained from research

interviews could be cross-referenced with data obtained from either literature review or archive analysis; similarly data obtained from either literature review or archive analysis could be used to revise research objectives and inform the drafting of interview schedules. Using this process the researcher is able to validate data obtained by any one research method leading Flick (2006: 41) to conclude, “these approaches to data collection are complimentary rather than competitive and the use of a particular method must be laid on the research problem at hand.”

The research design of this thesis was formulated with detailed reference to the aims and objectives detailed in Chapter One. Having identified three separate data collection methods each one must be examined conceptually and contextualised in relation to this thesis; the processes of literature review, archival research, and research interviewing are now introduced and related to their role in data collection.

2.2 The Process of Literature Review

Research objectives identified in Chapter One indicated that a detailed literature review should be undertaken. A literature review enables the researcher to identify secondary sources of information and informs the overall planning of the research design (Flick 2006: 59). The literature review may be presented as a discrete chapter of the thesis or, as here; it may inform all chapters of the thesis from the identification of research questions and the planning of aims and objectives through to data analysis and suggestions for future research. An effective literature review familiarises the researcher with current research practice and enables a databank of secondary source material to be compiled; Hart (1998: 12) defines the literature review process as follows:

The selection of available documents on the topic, which contain information, ideas, dates and evidence written from a particular standpoint to fulfil certain aims or express certain views on the nature of the topic and how it is to be investigated and the effective evaluation of the documents in relation to the research being proposed.

The literature review focuses primarily, but not exclusively, on “secondary source evidence” i.e. evidence which is not contemporary with the events in question and is published at a later date. Evidence which is contemporary with the events in question is termed “primary source evidence” and is commonly associated with archive research (see Chapter 2.3).

Secondary source evidence is normally intended for public use e.g. papers submitted to journals, reference books, school text books and material published on dedicated websites. Primary source evidence, by contrast, may be intended either for public consultation e.g. newspaper articles or for private use e.g. personal letters and emails (see Chapter 2.3). The fact that evidence cited as the result of a literature review is available for public consultation means that specialist libraries and online databases can be used to great effect. Indeed Hart notes that libraries are no longer seen as mere repositories of information but now act as gateways to a mass of data that may be accessed online (Hart: 1998). Search engines of online databases can prove powerful tools in executing an effective literature search and whilst Fink notes that extra training may be required the results can prove most informative:

The selection of appropriate bibliographic or article databases, websites and other sources is important to the literature review. A bibliographic database is a collection of articles, books and reports that can provide data to answer research questions. The database is usually accessed online. The bibliographic databases of special interest in research reviews contain full reports of original studies.

(Fink 2005:5)

The efficiency of searches made using academic databases is a function of the search terms selected by the researcher, inappropriate or vague search terms will result in inappropriate or vague results. Fink suggests that the most appropriate method for the selection of search terms is to refer back to the research questions and research objectives identified in the original research design:

Search terms are the words and phrases that you can use to select appropriate articles, books and reports. You can base these search terms on the words and concepts that form your research questions and use a particular grammar and logic to perform the research.

(Fink 2005:20)

As the literature review progresses so the aims and objectives cited in the research design are regularly modified; Hart (1998: 12) notes that one goal of the literature review should be to facilitate this modification process, “It is the progressive narrowing of the topic through literature review that makes most research a practical consideration.”

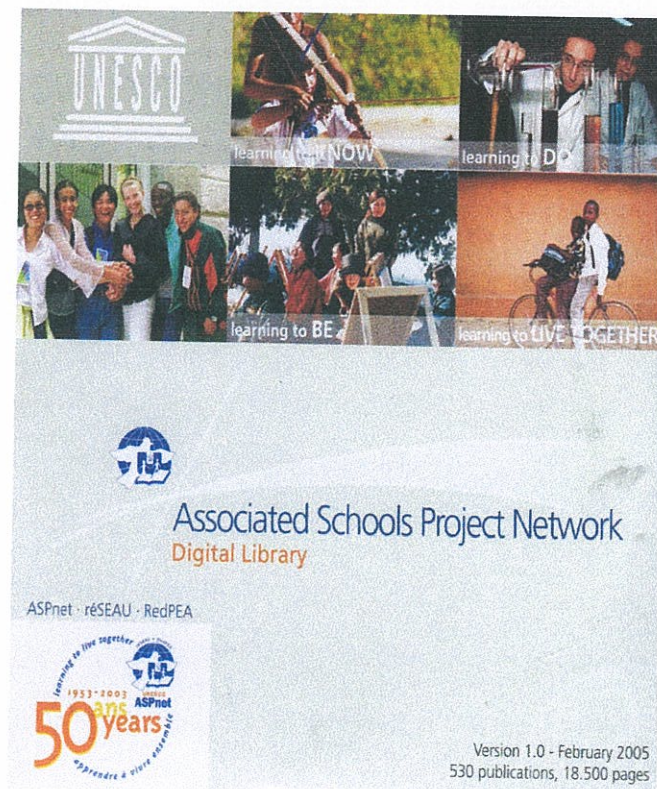


Figure 2.1 ASP (net) Digital Library (ASP net 2005a)

To address the research aims and objectives of this thesis a number of academic databases were consulted. Aims 1 and 3 required detailed information relating to UNESCO, IBE, WHC and ASP (net); as a result a number of dedicated databases and websites were consulted. The UNESCO Library (www.unesco.org/library) is available online with searches undertaken by library staff and texts available for download; similarly the IBE has developed a website which provides information on UNESCO educational policy and proceedings of the International Conference on Education (ICE) (www.ibe.unesco.org). Young Hands may be downloaded from the WHC website whilst a powerful search engine enables the researcher to access documentation relating to all 930 WHSs (www.unesco.org/whc). Finally the ASP (net) website enables information relating to all ASP (net) projects to be downloaded whilst the ASP (net) Digital Library (UNESCO: 2005a) allows access to a broad range of publications including the Delors Report and guides for ASP (net) National Coordinators (Figure 2.1).

Two academic databases were consulted to address Research Aims 2 and 3 of this thesis (see Chapter 1.6); together these databases presented a detailed account of the evolution of the National Curriculum in England including N/C 2007. The first database, entitled the “British Educational Index” (www.leeds.ac.uk/bei), was specifically designed for those engaged in educational research; the second database, entitled the “Standards Site” (www.standards.dfes.gov.uk) was designed by the DfES and the QCA for use by classroom teachers. The Standards Site enables teachers to download N/C 2007 and to view schemes of work published by the QCA and other agencies.

Judicious use of the databases and websites cited above facilitated a comprehensive literature review; as new information became available so the overall research design was refined whilst research aims and objectives were further modified. Additional to this process of refinement and modification the literature review led to the identification of key primary source documents whilst gaps in background knowledge became apparent. At this juncture the process of archive research was employed to locate and analyse all relevant primary source material. Marwick (2001: 26) emphasised the importance of a thorough literature review in identifying relevant primary source material:

It is through the secondary sources that one becomes aware of the gaps in knowledge, problems solved, suspect explanations. It is with the aid of these secondary sources and all the other resources of the profession that one begins to identify the archives in which one will commence one's research.

2.3 The process of Archive Research

A successful literature review should enable the researcher to identify archives of valuable primary source evidence; this process is key to realising the objectives of the thesis as the quality of all research is dependant on the quality of primary source evidence available (Marwick 2001: 156).

The term "primary source evidence" had, in itself, proved contentious with researchers attempting comprehensive and overtly elaborate definitions of the term; Marwick believed such attempts to be futile as sources of evidence needed to be analysed on a case by case basis (Marwick 2001: 155). Instead Marwick proposed a simple definition of primary source evidence together with a "catechism" for the analysis of such evidence:

Primary sources were created within the period studied, secondary sources are produced later by historians studying that earlier period and making use of the primary sources created within it.

(Marwick 2001:156)

The literature review detailed above had facilitated the modification of research aims and objectives; according to Tosh the outcome of any literature review should be a series of sharply focused questions or "actions" which will assist the process of archive research. Tosh terms this approach to archive research "the problem oriented approach" noting:

A specific historical question is formulated, usually prompted by the reading of the secondary authorities, and the relevant primary sources are then studied. The bearing that these sources may have on other issues is ignored whilst the researcher proceeds as directly as possible to the point where he or she can present some conclusions.

(Tosh 2006:84)

Having modified research objectives the search for relevant primary source evidence may begin. The researcher may be fortunate and find that all primary source material has been carefully catalogued and stored in an easily accessible archive; Elton notes however that this is not always the case (Elton 2006: 87) and, with regard to Young Hands, such observations proved most incisive. Elton also noted that even when primary source material had been carefully catalogued and stored the archives themselves may represent a biased or incomplete version of events; again this observation proved most apposite with regard to Young Hands:

Archives are the products of the chance survival of some documents and the corresponding chance loss or deliberate destruction of others. They are also the products of the professional activities of archivists which therefore shape the record of the past and with it the interpretations of historians. Archivists have often weeded out records they consider unimportant, while retaining those they consider to be of lasting value.

(Elton 2006: 87)

Even if an archive constitutes a comprehensive collection of evidence the very nature of primary sources may render use of the archive problematic:

There is a misapprehension that historians are claiming that primary sources contain a higher quality of written truth than secondary sources. This is manifestly not so. Primary sources are intractable, opaque and fragmentary. At best they shed light from one particular direction; usually you need a lot of them before any light is shed at all.

(Marwick 2001: 156)

Taken to extremes, problems related to differential preservation of evidence and to the intrinsic limitations of primary sources have led post-modernist historians to question the value of archive research (Jordanova 2006: 3). However, as the logical extension of this argument is that historical research is ultimately futile, Marwick's scientific approach to the validation of primary source evidence appears preferable (Marwick 2001:179).

Marwick (2001: 179) proposed a systematic and transparent method for analysis of primary source evidence; an accurate date for all primary sources must be established and the nature of the document in question must be determined i.e. a letter, a diary entry or a fax. The document's intended audience must then be established i.e. was the document intended for public viewing or private consultation. In addition Marwick (2001: 179) noted the importance of determining the vested interests of the author and in cross-checking information with data obtained from other sources. If these procedures were applied with rigour then, Marwick maintained, the validity of primary evidence could be established (Marwick 2001: 179). Primary source evidence cited in this thesis was validated according to the procedures detailed above whilst data obtained from archive analysis was cross-referenced, or "triangulated", with data obtained from literature review and research interviews (see Chapter 2.5).

To address Aim 1 of the research strategy searches were initiated at the UNESCO Archive, Paris. Here 16 boxes labelled "World Heritage Education" were located; unfortunately all contained evidence relating to the review of Young Hands undertaken by English Heritage in 2002 (see Chapter 4.7), none contained evidence relating to the drafting of Young Hands. Searches for primary source evidence were then undertaken at the WHC, Paris however interviews with programme specialists revealed that most of this material had been destroyed (Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008). Excerpts from key documents post-dating 2004 had been uploaded to the WHC website and single copies of selected publications had been stored in a holding facility on the outskirts of Paris. Access to the UNESCO holding facility was costly and programme specialists maintained that most evidence, including "grey literature", no longer existed (Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008). Further searches conducted at ASP (net) yielded no primary source evidence relating to the drafting of Young Hands but a wealth of

secondary source material, including ASP (net) Digital Library (UNESCO: 2005), was made available.

Interviews conducted with the authors of *Young Hands* revealed that this lack of primary source evidence had been expected. Breda Pavlic, former Deputy Director of the WHC, had destroyed her personal archive prior to leaving UNESCO (Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008). As former coordinator of ASP (net) Elisabeth Khawajiki had placed documents on file but confirmed that they had been destroyed (Khawajiki *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008). Finally Ingunn Kvisteroy, Deputy Director of the Norwegian Commission for UNESCO, confirmed that neither she nor the Norwegian National Commission for UNESCO held records relating to the drafting of *Young Hands* (Kvisteroy *pers. comm.* 25 November 2008).

Having scoured UNESCO Archives and eliminated possible private archives all that remained was the Stone Archive at Newcastle University. The Stone Archive housed a wealth of primary source evidence dating from the “First World Heritage Youth Forum” in Bergen (ASP net 1995) through to publication of the second edition of *Young Hands* (UNESCO: 2002). This material was compiled by Peter Stone, who joined the UNESCO panel of experts in 1995, (see Chapter 4.3) and is currently stored in box files in the Armstrong Building.

Whilst little primary source material existed relating to the establishment of WHE in 1993 this archive housed documents detailing the drafting of *Young Hands* and confirming the influence of English Heritage Education Service (EHES). Amongst documents retrieved from the Stone Archive were handbooks relating to the “First World Heritage Youth Forum” (ASP net: 1995b), the “First European World Heritage Youth Forum” (ASP net: 1996a) and the “First African World Heritage Youth Forum” (ASP net: 1996b). Accompanying these publications were a series of faxes forwarded by the ASP (net) Coordinator, Elisabeth Khawajiki, requesting that Peter Stone attend the First European WHYF in Dubrovnik and join the UNESCO panel of experts in Hvar.

A box file of documents relating to the First European WHYF contained Stone’s handwritten notes together with a typed address to delegates by the European Coordinator for WHE, Ingunn

Kvisteroy. Kvisteroy's address was accompanied by documents detailing WHE projects by Associated Schools in Egypt, Greece, Senegal and New Zealand. Faxed documents relating to these projects were also found in an adjacent box file. This neighbouring file contained documentary sources used to draft Young Hands in Hvar; included here was Stone's travel itinerary together with copies of "Learning: The Treasure Within" (Delors: 1996) and "Our Creative Diversity" (World Convention on Culture and Development: 1996). Alongside these UNESCO publications were books by English Heritage; these had been presented by Stone to the UNESCO panel of experts for reference (see Chapter 4.5). Draft chapters produced at Hvar and faxed to colleagues were also present; these included: "World Heritage and the Environment", "World Heritage and Tourism" and "World Heritage and Tourism."

The Stone Archive also contained faxes and communiqués between Stone and Kvisteroy outlining plans for a dedicated WHE training course. Details of this training course, together with requests for funding, were forwarded to UNESCO and agencies such as Rhone Poulenc and NORAD (see Chapter 4.7). A positive response, in the form of a fax from NORAD, raised hopes that funding would be made available; these hopes were dashed however when Kvisteroy, in a letter to Stone, confirmed that this offer had inexplicably been withdrawn. Documents in this box file presented a fascinating insight into the training needs of WHE teachers and revealed deep divisions regarding how these training needs should be met (see Chapter 4.7).

The Stone Archive revealed one further box file with evidence pertinent to the development of Young Hands. One copy of the experimental edition of Young Hands (UNESCO: 1998b) had been placed here together with a UNESCO press release confirming the number of copies to be published (see Chapter 4.7). Also present was a copy of the evaluation report of Young Hands published by English Heritage (Fordham and Holinshed: 2002) together with a copy of the current Young Hands syllabus.

The Stone Archive proved a valuable and unique resource in addressing the research objectives of this thesis; crucially the Stone Archive had never been subject to archiving procedures and as a result this collection represented a complete body of evidence. The survival of this archive may be contrasted with documents stored at UNESCO Archives where the process of archiving had

resulted in the destruction of notes, emails and faxes relating to Young Hands. Whilst the value of the Stone Archive was unquestionable the archive itself had never been catalogued; as a result a great deal of time was spent cataloguing source material before analysis of the evidence could begin.

The Stone Archive shed valuable light onto the process of drafting Young Hands and this evidence was used to further refine research objectives and prepare interview schedules.

2.4 The Process of Research Interview

The literature review together with archive research enabled the research objectives to be further refined. This process of refinement had an important bearing on the preparation of interview schedules as research objectives formed the basis of all interview questions, Cohen *et al* (2004: 274) notes:

General goals of the research should now be translated into more detailed and specific objectives. This is the most important step for only the formulation of these objectives will eventually produce the right kind of data necessary for satisfactory answers to the research problem....there then follows the preparation of the interview schedule itself. This involves translating the research objectives into questions that will make up the main body of the schedule.

Research objectives linked with Aim 1 indicated that the authors of Young Hands should be interviewed together with programme specialists at both ASP (net) and the WHC; similarly research objectives linked with Aim 2 required that QCA advisors, responsible for drafting N/C 2007, be interviewed. Examples of schemes of work targeting both Young Hands and N/C 2007 were needed to address research objectives associated with Aim 3; fortunately, following the start of this research programme, an initiative had been introduced by Jurassic Coast WHS in tandem with ASP (net) and the UK National Commission for UNESCO. Entitled "Making Sense

of Our Sites” (MSOS) this initiative aimed to develop a UK version of Young Hands and to compile a series of suitable case studies (see Chapter 8.1); as MSOS included all 17 WHSs in England this initiative presented an ideal vehicle for addressing the research objectives detailed in Aim 3. The education officer at Jurassic Coast WHS was formally interviewed whilst roundtable discussions at MSOS were recorded and analysed; data collated as a result of this initiative is presented in Chapters Eight and Nine.

Once the identity of interviewees had been determined, decisions could be made regarding the planning of interview schedules and the nature of the interview questions themselves (Cohen 2004: 274). Research objectives dictated that a small, yet highly select, cohort of specialists be interviewed comprising what Gillham has termed “an elite interview group” (Gillham 2005: 53). The status of these individuals posed particular challenges for the interviewer and, to a large extent, dictated the format of the interview schedule and the nature of the interview questions; Gillham (2005: 54) notes:

Such people are likely to be sophisticated subjects for interviewing. Not only do they know more than the interviewer about certain key dimensions of the topic but they will also be alert to the implications of particular questions and their answers to them. They are not naive subjects and so will not submit tamely to a series of prepared questions. It is in this respect that the interview has to be loosely structured at best. And in so far that the researcher has a pre-formed idea of what they want to find out, they might have such expectations turned on their heads because of the interviewees’ more authoritative grasp of the subject.

In response to such challenges Gillham recommends that a series of loosely structured interview schedules be prepared, as illustrated in Appendices 2-8. Whilst the use of such schedules may present a challenge to those charged with transcribing data they do allow the interviewee to expand on points as they see fit (Gillham 2005: 54). In this instance the use of loosely structured schedules enabled QCA subject advisors to illustrate their answers with detailed reference to N/C 2007 and to cite personal experiences of institutional racism (for an example see Chapter 7.10). Such schedules were used in conjunction with open-ended questions and it is this combination of

loosely structured schedules and open-ended questions that enables the interviewer to capture data of quality and depth Cohen *et al* (2004: 275) notes:

Open-ended questions have a number of advantages; they are flexible, they allow the interviewer to probe so that they may go into more depth if they so choose or to clear up any misunderstandings. They enable the interviewer to test the limits of the respondent's knowledge; they encourage cooperation and help to establish rapport.....open ended questions can also result in unexpected or unanticipated answers which may suggest hitherto unthought-of relationships or hypotheses.

Whilst acknowledging the merits these recommendations Flick notes that interviews conducted in this manner risk failing to engage with all research objectives; he suggests that schedules include a list of "prompts" which ensure the necessary information is covered. In this instance the UNESCO panel of experts responsible for drafting Young Hands were provided with a detailed list of prompts (Appendix 2); these prompts proved a necessary device given the amount of time that had elapsed since publication. QCA subject advisors were provided with a rather more elaborate prompt in the form of a synopsis of the Young Hands syllabus (Appendix 4). This document introduced the aims and values of Young Hands; emphasis was placed on the educational approach of Young Hands and all four world heritage themes were briefly outlined. This synopsis was welcomed in view of the limited time available to such elite interviewees.

Simply initiating contact with such professional elites may prove challenging and a "gatekeeper" or mutual contact is often required; the gatekeeper liaises with prospective interviewees introducing the researcher and outlining the aims of their research programme (Gillham 2005: 51). In this instance access to QCA subject advisors was arranged by Don Henson at the Council for British Archaeology; access to the UNESCO panel of experts and UNESCO programme specialists was arranged by Peter Stone at Newcastle University. Gillham (2005: 105) notes:

Elite interviewing involves talking to people who are especially knowledgeable about a particular area of research or about the context within which you are researching. They are commonly in positions of power by virtue of their experiences and understanding.

They are also part of a network of other people and institutions and may control (or facilitate) access to these.

Timetabling the requisite interviews proved a long and complex process and it was important that all data was recorded effectively; with this point in mind suitable methods of data capture were reviewed. Whilst note taking presented one of the less inhibiting forms of data capture the process could prove slow and may impede the flow of conversation (Cohen *et al* 2004:281). As interviewees were accustomed to formal interview procedures the decision was made to digitally record information and download data to an Nvivo software package for analysis. Only one interviewee expressed reservations regarding digital recording and in this instance notes were taken and later transcribed.

Every effort was made to carry out interviews on a face to face basis as this represented the most effective method of data capture (Gillham 2005: 100). Face to face interviews give interviewers the opportunity of assessing the body language of interviewees whilst interviewees are able to illustrate their answers using diagrams and excerpts from text. Unfortunately opportunities for face to face interviews may be limited owing to the demanding work schedules of interviewees; this may prove a particular problem with reference to elite interviewees (Cohen *et al* 2004: 290). In such instances interviews were carried out over the telephone using an adapted digital recording device.

Work schedules of interviewees dictated that a total of six telephone interviews were carried out; fortunately two of these interviews were with the education officer at Jurassic Coast WHS and one with the National Coordinator for ASP (net). As both interviewees were members of the MSOS Team (see Chapter 8.2) any ambiguities could be clarified on a face to face basis at MSOS Conferences; transcripts of interviews were emailed to the remaining interviewees. Gillham (2005: 103) notes the challenges associated with telephone interviewing:

Telephone interviews often form an important part of the substantive empirical content of a research project.....Telephone interviewing is extremely hard to keep going. Because interviewer and respondent have only verbal communication to go on, it requires more

concentration than a normal interview. Related to that, irrespective of the level of structure, an endurable length of time is less, usually much less than with a face to face interview. The how of telephone interviewing has much to do with overcoming these limitations.

Once interviews were concluded transcription could begin; Flick recommends that this process take place as soon as possible whilst substantive elements of each interview are still fresh in the interviewer's mind (Flick: 2006). Transcription of data proved time consuming as interview schedules had been loosely structured and all interviewees had been presented with open-ended questions; thankfully the use of prompts in many interview schedules ensured that interviewees addressed major research objectives (Appendices 2-8). Gillham recommends that lengthy transcriptions of interview data be repeatedly drafted and redrafted until a summative document is produced (Gillham: 2005); this summative document must capture the intellectual rigour of the discourse and key quotations must be available for reference however the length of the original document must be cut. Gillham (2005: 128) suggests how such a result might be achieved:

The validity of a transcript is how faithfully it renders what happened in that interview. A process of data reduction, or extracting the essence, is involved. Inevitably that means selection and interpretation.....The substantive elements of an interview are not difficult to identify. By substantive I mean those elements which are of substance. Recognising these is a process more difficult to define than carry out, and while subjective it is a relatively simple matter. Taking these substantive elements and putting them in chronological order is the essence of the task. It is more an art than a science, the art lies in selecting direct quotations that vividly reflect the actual interview: a summary but in the interviewees own words.

Following Gillham's advice summative accounts of all interviews were produced and key quotations were identified; these accounts were then forwarded to interviewees for appraisal and validation. This process provided yet another opportunity for interviewees to clarify points arising from interview and to forward supplementary information e.g. the National Coordinator

for ASP (net) reinforced her account of ASP (net) activities by forwarding the “ASP (net) Annual Report for 2008.”

Gillham (2005: 139) notes that analysis of transcribed data may be carried out either manually or, as in this thesis, by using a dedicated software package such as Nvivo. A review of how Nvivo was used to analyse one data set will help to illustrate the advantages of this approach.

Interview data had been transcribed using “Microsoft Word” and saved to a laptop computer. Whilst may be transcribed directly using Nvivo, in practice the dedicated word processor proved rather limited (Bazely and Richards: 2000:36); by contrast “Microsoft Word” offered an extensive toolkit including “Spellcheck” and “Bibliography.” Once transcribed this data could then be imported to Nvivo for analysis.

Research Aim 2 required that the researcher “Determine the aims, values and educational approach of N/C 2007”; this research aim had been translated into four research objectives (see Chapter 1.6). These research objectives informed the drafting of interview questions and were subsequently presented to QCA subject advisors (see Chapter 7.4). Transcribed data was then imported to Nvivo and designated “Data Set 3.”

Transcribed interviews with the following subject advisors constituted Data Set 3: Jerome Freeman (N/C 2007 history), David Gardner (N/C 2007 geography) and Liz Craft (N/C 2007 citizenship). Having imported data to Nvivo the coding of data could begin. The transcribed text was read carefully to identify key concepts or “nodes”; select text (sentences, paragraphs or entire sections) were then highlighted and allocated a node using the Nvivo toolkit. Nodes might prove specific to one interview, as in the case of Node 1 “N/C history SHP” below, or they may relate to all interviews (i.e. tree nodes) as in the remaining nodes listed below. All “nodes” related directly to specific interview questions (see Appendices 5 to 7) and, by extension, all nodes related to the research objectives outlined in Chapter 1.6. In total five nodes were identified for Data Set 3:

1. N/C 2007 history SHP
2. N/C 2007 values
3. N/C 2007 educational approach
4. N/C 2007 human rights
5. N/C 2007 qualification

Node 1 above related simply to the drafting of N/C 2007 history and the relationship between this POS and Schools History Project (see Chapter 7.6). The Nvivo toolkit also allowed nodes to be linked to specific documents; this particular node was linked to both N/C 2007 history and Schools History Project (SHP).

The second node related to the aims and values underpinning N/C 2007. Here the transcribed data was linked to N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship. The Nvivo toolkit also allowed memos, or notes, to be linked to transcribed data; in this instance a memo was linked to David Gardner (N/C 2007 geography) noting that this interview was conducted over the telephone (see Chapter 7.9).

Node 3 related to the educational approach of N/C 2007 and referenced the key processes of N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship. Here data was linked to notes on specific POSs and to specific DfES documentation (DfES 2006d). Similarly, Node 4 related to human rights in N/C 2007 and referenced the key concepts of N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship. As above, data was linked to POSs and to notes on key documents such as the ECM Agenda (HM Treasury: 2003). Finally, Node 5 related to the relationship between Young Hands and GCSE qualifications. Here data was linked to specific POSs, GCSE subject criteria (QCA 2007a, QCA 2007b and QCA 2007c) and GCSE subject specifications (Edexcel 2008d, Edexcel 2008e and OCR 2008b).

Analysis of transcribed data had been carried out systematically and effectively using Nvivo; the software had revealed five nodes, or concepts, pertinent to Research Aim 2 (above). Data had been coded using these five nodes and key quotations had been identified. On a number of occasions Nvivo was used to make minor modifications to transcribed texts; the software

executed these changes effectively and automatically revised quotations where required. Additional Nvivo tools were used to identify supporting documentation whilst the “memos” facility provided instant access to notes on interview procedures (time, date, location, contact details etc). Having completed analysis of the transcribed data all that remained was to “cut and paste” data from Nvivo into a first draft of Chapter Seven.

2.5 The process of Triangulation

The research aims and objectives identified in Chapter One of this thesis necessitated the use of qualitative research methods; in total three research methods were identified: literature review, archive research and research interview. Validation of research methods was achieved by detailing the role each played in the research design and by determining the relative strengths and weaknesses of each method.

The literature review was useful in providing a context for researching Young Hands and N/C 2007 however gaps were apparent in the literature and no published account of the drafting of this syllabus existed. In addition the literature review referenced only secondary source evidence and did nothing to address the need for primary source evidence. Archive research did eventually yield primary source evidence relating to the drafting of Young Hands however all documents originally lodged in the UNESCO Archives had been destroyed; the Stone Archive at Newcastle University provided the main source of primary documentation. This quest for primary source evidence led to a series of research interviews conducted in Paris and London. Whilst the interviews resulted in a wealth of evidence the procedure itself proved both expensive and time consuming; in addition a number of interviewees were not available for face to face interviews and the lack of primary source relating to the drafting of Young Hands meant that the author’s accounts were based solely on memory.

Used in isolation the inherent weaknesses of each research method become all too apparent however when data sets are combined researchers such as Fink believe they constitute a robust research design, Fink (2005: 140) notes:

Techniques such as triangulation are available to strengthen the research design. Triangulation refers to a reliance on a combination of several research methods... examples include using multiple data sources or research methods and a reliance on several perspectives or traditions of enquiry to interpret a single set of data.

Following Fink's advice this process of "triangulation" or "mutual validation" (Flick 2006: 40) has been used throughout the thesis and is most readily attested in Chapter Four and in Chapters Seven and Eight.

Chapter 3: The aims and values of the United Nations and UNESCO

3.1 Introduction

This Chapter identifies the aims and universal values of the United Nations and UNESCO as well as defining the educational approach of Young Hands. Young Hands addresses Article 27 of the 1972 Convention (see Chapter 3.11) and, as a UNESCO educational syllabus, Young Hands reflects the universal values of both the United Nations and UNESCO; these universal values are defined by the founding documents of both organisations namely, the United Nations Charter and the UNESCO Constitution.

In addition to the United Nations Charter and UNESCO Constitution the universal values of these organisations are reflected in the drafting of core instruments, the publication of key texts and the promotion of subject specific themes. These themes, together with key texts and core instruments, are examined throughout Chapter Three with emphasis placed on the actions of the United Nations and UNESCO for the period 1993 to 1998; this period being proscribed by the introduction of World Heritage Education (WHE) in 1993 and by publication of Young Hands in 1998 (see Chapter 4.7). Evidence presented in Chapter Four will indicate the extent to which these actions informed the drafting of Young Hands and were subsequently reflected in the four world heritage themes of this syllabus.

Chapter Three also details the importance of the International Bureau of Education (IBE) in determining the educational approach of UNESCO and ASP (net). The noted educational psychologist Jean Piaget was appointed Director of the IBE in 1929 and remained in post for a period of forty years; Chapter Three examines the impact of his research on the educational approach advocated by UNESCO, ASP (net) and the Young Hands syllabus.

3.2 The Development of the United Nations

The concept of a group or association of nations bound together by common aims and purposes dates back at least as far as 1918 (Birn: 1981). From 1914 until 1918 the major economic powers of the world were subsumed by global conflict. Two opposing power blocks emerged, the “Allied and Associated Powers” led by France, Britain and America and the “Axis Powers” headed by Germany (United Nations: 2010a).

America’s contribution to the war effort proved decisive and the then President of America, Woodrow Wilson, proposed a peace deal to Congress. President Wilson proposed a series of measures to secure world peace. Wilson’s “peace programme” detailed fourteen points which may form the basis of a peace settlement with Germany; point fourteen of the peace programme proposed the formation of an association of nations:

A general association of nations should be founded under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small nations alike.

(League of Nations 1918: Point 14)

Congress supported President Wilson’s proposals and in November 1918 Germany, believing peace would be based on this fourteen point plan, signed an armistice (United Nations: 2010a). In reality the proposed peace deal needed to be negotiated between all Allied Powers with Britain, France and America each maintaining their own vested interests. Negotiations took place at the Palace of Versailles with Prime Minister Lloyd George representing Britain, President Woodrow Wilson representing America and President George Clemenceau representing France (United Nations: 2010a). President Clemenceau maintained that the political interests of France would not be served by President Wilson’s fourteen point plan and the Allies proposed that a new settlement, the Treaty of Versailles, be imposed on Germany (United Nations: 2010a). The Treaty of Versailles imposed severe economic and military sanctions yet Germany had no choice but to accept; on 28 June 1919 Germany signed the Treaty of Versailles.

Whilst most of President Wilson's fourteen point plan had been rejected one element survived to be incorporated into the Treaty of Versailles; the Allies agreed to the formation of a League of Nations. Allied Nations drafted a Covenant defining the aims of the League as, "the promotion of internalised cooperation and international peace and security" (United Nations: 2010a). Further Articles detailed the creation of principle institutions such as the Secretary General and Staff (League of Nations 1918: Article 6), Social Commissions (League of Nations 1918: Article 9) and a Court of International Justice (League of Nations 1918: Article 14). Whilst internal political rivalries soon resulted in the demise of the League of Nations these principle institutions survived to provide a blueprint for the United Nations more than two decades later (Schlesinger 2003: 294).

The lack of political unity that had characterised the League of Nations and the draconian measures imposed on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles resulted in the outbreak of WWII (United Nations: 2010a). Whilst mainland Europe was again subjected to the ravages of war Britain, at first, remained a relatively safe haven; by 1941 Britain had offered sanctuary to nine governments in exile and invited them to establish offices in London (Valderrama: 1995).

On 12 June 1941 London convened a conference of all governments in exile (Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Yugoslavia and General de Gaul's Free France) together with delegates from Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. A formal declaration of intent, the "Declaration of St. James", was adopted by delegates stating:

The only true basis of enduring peace is the willing cooperation of free peoples in a world in which, relieved of menace and aggression, all may enjoy economic and social security.
(NATO 1941a: Preamble)

For the first time since the drafting of the Treaty of Versailles a multinational force had met with the specific intention of establishing peaceful international relations (United Nations: 2010b). Two months later President Theodore Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill met to

discuss principles on which peaceful international relations might be based. In August 1941 these discussions resulted in the “Declaration of Principles issued by the President of the United States and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom”, commonly termed “The Atlantic Charter” (Schlesinger 2003: 37).

In a carefully worded document the Atlantic Charter outlined the need for all nations to enjoy economic security, to offer their citizen’s a high standard of social care and for all citizens to play a full and active part in new labour markets (Atlantic Charter: Clause 5). Most importantly Clause 8 of the Charter emphasised that such benefits could only be realised by establishing peaceful relations between nations:

All nations of the world, for realistic as well as spiritual reasons, must come to the abandonment of the use of force. Since no future peace can be maintained if land, sea or air armaments continue to be employed by nations which threaten, or may threaten aggression outside of their frontiers, they believe, *pending the establishment of a wider and permanent system of general security*, that the disarmament of such nations is essential...

(Atlantic Charter 1941: Clause 8)

The Atlantic Charter had prioritised “the establishment of a wider and permanent system of general security” a phrase believed to refer to the establishment of a multinational organisation akin to the League of Nations (Schlesinger 2003: 37). Those nations that had been signatories to the “Declaration of St. James” were now invited to sign the “Atlantic Charter” along with Russia (Schlesinger 2003: 38). Further progress towards the establishment of a multinational peacekeeping force was made one year later when President Roosevelt issued the following message commemorating the signing of the Atlantic Charter:

The signatories have formed a great unity of humanity, dedicated to the realisation of that common programme of purpose and principles set forth in the Atlantic Charter through world-wide victory over their common enemies. Their faith in life, liberty, interdependence, and religious freedom and in the preservation of human rights and

justice in their own as well as in other lands has been given form and substance as the *United Nations*.

(Roosevelt reported by United Nations: 2010a)

Here, for the first time, President Roosevelt introduced the term “United Nations” as well as detailing specific universal values which would eventually be enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations (United Nations: 2010b). This communiqué received international acclaim and in 1944 President Roosevelt convened an historic meeting at Dumbarton Oaks to establish an institutional structure for this multinational organisation (Schlesinger 2003: 46). Present at Dumbarton Oaks were the five nations which would eventually form the United Nations Security Council namely: Great Britain, America, Russia, China and France (Schlesinger 2003: 47).

Meetings at Dumbarton Oaks were dominated by the American delegation who proposed an institutional structure based on that of the League of Nations (Schlesinger 2003: 47); following the League of Nations, the United Nations would comprise: a General Assembly, a Security Council, an International Court of Justice and a Secretariat. Consensus was reached and President Roosevelt stated his intent to establish a Charter for the newly formed United Nations (Schlesinger 2003: 45). Roosevelt’s death prior to the United Nations Summit failed to disrupt proceedings and incoming President, Harry Truman, presided over events (Schlesinger 2003: 73).

On 25 April 1945 President Truman convened the “United Nations Conference on International Cooperation,” in San Francisco. Delegates from 43 nations attended proceedings and a Charter was proposed which reflected the institutional framework outlined at Dumbarton Oaks (Schlesinger 2003: 114). In addition to articles defining the major institutions of the United Nations the Preamble to the Charter presented a series of universal values defining major aspirations of the organisation:

To save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and

To reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and

To establish conditions under which justice and respect for the obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and

To promote social progress and better standards of living in larger freedom.

(United Nations 1945: Preamble)

From the above, the establishment of peaceful international relations would prove a key aim of the United Nations together with a concern for basic Human Rights and the establishment of a fair judicial system (Schlesinger 2003: 260). Whilst a degree of ambiguity is inherent in the UNESCO Constitution the phrase “social progress” is believed to refer to the provision of social welfare programmes, including health and educational reforms whilst “living in larger freedom” refers to the development of democratic systems of governance (United Nations: 2010b).

3.3 The Development of UNESCO

From 1939 onwards Britain gave refuge to a total of nine European governments in exile (see Chapter 3.2). These governments established bases in London and met on a regular basis to discuss economic and political reconstruction following the cessation of hostilities (Valderrama: 1995). In 1942 the British Government convened a series of conferences entitled, “Conferences of the Allied Ministers of Education” (CAME). These conferences focused specifically on educational reconstruction following the defeat of Germany; topics presented for discussion included the building of schools, the provision of textbooks, teacher training and the procurement of scientific equipment for schools (Valderrama 1995: 19).

In 1943 CAME was presented with a report entitled “Education and the United Nations;” this report had been drafted by Britain and America in preparation for discussions at Dumbarton Oaks regarding establishment of the United Nations (see Chapter 3.2). This report recommended that an educational and cultural organisation, affiliated to the United Nations, should be established; it was suggested that CAME might provide a suitable basis for such an organisation (UNESCO 1985: 5).

CAME’s response to “Education and the United Nations” was enthusiastic and, having established the United Nations in April 1945, Member States convened in London for the “Conference for the Establishment of the United Nations Education and Culture Organisation” (UNESCO 1985: 12). Delegates from 43 Member States attended London on 16 November 1945; proceedings began with the Minister of Education for England and Wales proposing that, in addition to culture and education, this new organisation should address matters relating to science (Valderrama 1995: 22). Delegates concurred and the new organisation was confirmed as the “United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation”, or UNESCO (Valderrama 1995: 22). Having reached unanimity on a name delegates now turned to drafting a Constitution; this document should naturally mirror the aims and universal values of the United Nations Charter.

The opening lines of the UNESCO Constitution emphasised the importance of “peace” to the development of international relations, “since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed” (UNESCO 1945: Preamble). To safeguard against further conflict citizens of the United Nations were encouraged to embrace cultural diversity and practice tolerance towards those of different cultural backgrounds; citizens should be schooled in the ways of others as, “ignorance of each other’s ways and lives has been a common cause...of suspicion and mistrust between the peoples of the world” (UNESCO 1945: Preamble). The Constitution underscored the importance of democracy to the maintenance of peace and emphasised that denial of democratic rights led to insurrection, “the great and terrible war which has now ended was a war made possible by the denial of the democratic principles of dignity, equality and mutual respect” (UNESCO 1945: Preamble). Finally Human Rights were identified as providing a moral touchstone for mankind; such universal human values were

fundamental to the establishment of civilised society and to the maintenance of peace, “peace must therefore be founded, if it is not to fail, upon the intellectual and moral solidity of mankind” (UNESCO 1945: Preamble).

3.4 The Development of the International Bureau of Education

The International Bureau of Education (IBE) was founded as a private research facility in 1925 (IBE: 2011b). Originally the IBE functioned as a repository for research detailing new approaches to learning, sociological and psychological data and the construction of school curricula. In 1929 the IBE was placed under the direct control of the Government of Geneva and Professor Jean Piaget was appointed Director (IBE: 2011c). Piaget already held the post of Director of Psychology at the University of Geneva and retained these positions for the next forty years ensuring that his research findings attained global significance (UNESCO 1985: 7). Piaget’s research focused on the intellectual development of the child; he maintained that children passed through four stages of intellectual development each stage being marked by an advance in cognitive ability (IBE: 2011c). In addition Piaget proposed that traditional didactic methods of teaching were ineffective and that true learning occurred when students were encouraged to explore their environment (IBE: 2011c). This “constructivist approach” to education was reinforced at the IBE where educationalists experimented with a range of tailored educational resources; such a pioneering educational programme was of great interest to UNESCO where it appeared to be wholly supportive of Article 2 of the Constitution.

The UNESCO Constitution provided a mandate for the organisation to provide:

Fresh impulse to popular education and to the spread of culture by collaborating with Members at their request in the development of new educational activities....and by suggesting educational methods best suited to prepare the children of the world for the responsibilities of freedom.

(UNESCO 1945: Article 2)

For UNESCO the work on curriculum development carried out by the IBE reinforced these values. As a result in 1946, following the foundation of UNESCO, the IBE became a specialist institute of the UNESCO Education Sector advising on new approaches to education and the construction of new educational curricula (IBE: 2011b). From this point the work of Jean Piaget and research conducted by constructivist educators at the IBE had a profound effect on UNESCO education policy. UNESCO initiated educational guidance based on IBE research findings (see Chapter 3.8) and schools affiliated to UNESCO were encouraged to adopt the Project Method, an educational approach premised on the teachings of Jean Piaget (see Chapter 3.6).

In addition to its regular functions the IBE was responsible for organising the International Conference on Education (ICE), a meeting of Ministers of Education (IBE 2011a). Ministers proposed themes for the ICE such as “Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy” (see Chapter 3.15) or “Education for the Twenty First Century” (see Chapter 3.9); the IBE would compile relevant data and disseminate results to Member States. The Delor’s Report (Delors: 1996) was the focus of one such ICE namely, “Teaching and Learning in the Twenty First Century” (UNESCO: 2001) with results disseminated on a dedicated website entitled, “Learning To Live Together” (UNESCO: 2001).

3.5 The Development of Associated Schools

In 1946 the IBE became a specialist institute of the UNESCO Education Sector (IBE 2011b). Under guidance from the IBE the Education Sector promoted constructivist approaches to education as pioneered by Jean Piaget (see Chapter 3.6). Educationalists at the IBE developed a range of project materials for use in schools; these resources encouraged students to actively explore their environment and engage in fieldwork exercises (ASP net 1993; ASP net 2003).

In 1951 UNESCO formalised this constructivist approach to education. In total 33 schools from 15 Member States were invited to introduce a range of projects developed by the IBE (ASP net

2003: 1). Projects were based on a system of universal values associated with the United Nations and UNESCO and included the following themes: “Actions of the United Nations”, “Development of Human Rights” and “Education for International Understanding” (ASP net: 2003: 3). The introduction of project work proved popular with schools and the experiment was awarded formal recognition by UNESCO General Council:

A scheme of coordinated experimental activities in schools of Member States has been introduced. This was done to encourage the development in the aims and activities of the United Nations and its specialised agencies in the principles of the United Nations and in the Declaration of Human Rights.

(General Council 1952: Resolution 1.341 recorded by ASP net 2003: 1)

This announcement by General Council acknowledged the role of schools whose educational aims and values were closely “associated” with those of UNESCO; during the course of 1953 the term Associated School became a familiar term of reference (ASP net: 1993). The number of Associated Schools expanded rapidly and in 1957 Associated Schools Projects or “ASP (net)” launched its own dedicated journal detailing project work undertaken by schools in Member States (ASP net 2003: 4).

The greatest spur to Associated School’s popularity was however the adoption of “The Recommendation Concerning Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace and Education relating to the Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms,” (UNESCO: 1974) or “The 1974 Recommendation.” The 1974 Recommendation emphasised the role of Associated Schools in disseminating the universal aims and values of UNESCO:

Member States should take advantage of the experience of the experience of the Associated Schools which carry out, with UNESCO’s help, programmes of international education. Those concerned with Associated Schools in Member States should strengthen and renew their efforts to extend the programme to other educational institutions and work towards the general application of its results.

(UNESCO 1974: Article 23)

The 1974 Recommendation also provided schools with an expanded list of seven themes for project work. Significantly project themes now included, “the use, management and conservation of natural resources (UNESCO 1974: Article 18e) and “the preservation of the cultural heritage of mankind” (UNESCO 1974: Article 18f); it was now possible for students to actively explore the relationship between the natural and human environment as advised by “The United Nations Conference on the Human Environment” (United Nations: 1972) and the 1972 Convention (see Chapter 3.10):

- a) Equality of rights of peoples and the right of people to self determination
- b) The maintenance of peace
- c) Action to ensure the exercise and observance of Human Rights
- d) Economic growth and social development and their relation to social justice, colonialism and decolonisation
- e) The use, management and conservation of natural resources
- f) Preservation of the cultural heritage of mankind
- g) The role and methods of action of the United Nations

(United Nations 1974: Article 18)

Further impetus was given to the work of Associated Schools when the Director General of UNESCO convened a “Commission for Learning in the Twenty First Century” (Delors: 1996). The remit of the Commission was recorded as follows:

The Commission will submit a report designed to serve as an agenda for educational renewal and as guidelines for UNESCO's action in the field of education in the coming years...

(Delors 1996: 253)

The findings of this Commission were introduced to Ministers of Education at an ICE convened by the IBE in 1996 (IBE: 1996) and subsequently reviewed at an ICE entitled, "Education For All for Learning To Live Together" (IBE: 2001). Details of the Commission's findings were published in a volume entitled, "Learning: The Treasure Within" (Delors: 1996). The Delors Report informed the development of UNESCO's education policy over the ensuing years (Delors 1996: 253). Most significantly the Delors Report commended the Project Method of education as pioneered by the IBE and practised by Associated Schools; indeed a roundtable discussion of experts was convened following the 1996 ICE detailing the relevance of Piaget's research to current educational practice (IBE 1996: Annex XI).

The Associated Schools Network has grown significantly over recent years. Following publication of the Delors Report, in 1996, a mere 2900 schools had joined the network with UNESCO allocating an annual budget of just \$209,000. The ensuing decade however heralded the introduction an expansion programme for ASP (net) with UNESCO increasing the annual budget to \$600,000 for the year 2002/3; this increase ensured that ASP (net) celebrated its fiftieth anniversary in style (UNESCO 2003:12).

As a direct result of UNESCO's increase in funding the number of schools now registering with ASP (net) increased to 7,400. Associated Schools now represented a total of 170 Member States with ASP (net) noting significant educational advantages to both Industrialise and non-Industrialised nations (ASP net: 2003). Such an increase in capacity placed great pressure on the network and led ASP (net) to publish new guidelines for ASP (net) national coordinators and to clarify the structure of the network. In 2003 ASP (net) published a revised handbook for ASP (net) national coordinators clarifying the roles of the ASP (net) coordinator, regional officers, national coordinators and Associated Schools (ASP net: 2003). Based at UNESCO Headquarters, Paris the ASP (net) coordinator assumed responsibility for developing new educational materials

for organising international youth fora and teacher training workshops as well as maintaining links with Ministries of Education. The ASP (net) coordinator was supported in this role by five Regional Offices (Africa, Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and North America, Latin America and the Caribbean). Regional Offices assisted in the organisation of regional youth fora and liaised directly with ASP (net) National Coordinators.

ASP National Coordinators were responsible for liaising with Associated Schools on a national basis: they distributed educational materials, published details of forthcoming youth fora and teacher training workshops, assisted teachers in designing projects and compiled an annual report for the ASP (net) Coordinator. Performance of these tasks was certainly arduous yet National Coordinators were also expected to have a detailed knowledge of National Curricula and to liaise with Ministries of Education on a local basis; clearly rapid expansion of the network compounded these pressures (EHES 2002: 14). As for Associated Schools themselves, they were expected to apply to their National Coordinator for membership of ASP (net). Schools were asked to complete a basic application form and plan a project based on a list suggested by ASP (net); in 2003 ASP (net) promoted the following four “flagship projects” to schools:

World Heritage Education

Breaking the Silence: The Transatlantic Slave Trade

The Baltic Sea Project

The Caribbean Sea Project

Having selected their project Associated Schools were asked to plan appropriate schemes of work (SOWs) and to forward a detailed report to their National Coordinator. This report then formed the basis of a report compiled by the National Coordinator and forwarded to UNESCO Headquarters, Paris at the end of the academic year. The 2008 edition of the National Coordinator’s Handbook promoted the same four flagship projects but revised the number of Associated Schools upwards to 7,900. A total of 176 Member States now participated in ASP (net) and were regionally distributed as follows: Africa (1688 Associated Schools), Arab States (599 Associated Schools), Asia and the Pacific (1460 Associated Schools), Europe and North

America (2303 Associated Schools) and Latin America and the Caribbean (1765 Associated Schools) (ASP net: 2008: 4).

3.6 Jean Piaget and the development of cognitive constructivist theory

From its creation in 1945 education had constituted a key part of UNESCO's Mission and the importance of education was underscored by the UNESCO Constitution, "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed" (UNESCO 1945: Preamble).

In an effort to promote the role of the Education Sector UNESCO sought the support of specialists skilled in international education; the IBE provided such support and in 1946 the IBE became a specialist institution of UNESCO Education Sector (see Chapter 3.4). The Director of the IBE was Jean Piaget, a cognitive psychologist with a particular interest in the intellectual development of children (IBE: 2011c); Piaget's research was to have the most dramatic impact in determining the development of UNESCO's education strategy (Munari: 1994).

Piaget's research redefined the meaning of the learning process for educationalists and shed light upon the complex and intricate manner in which children acquired knowledge. Under strictly controlled laboratory conditions, Piaget noted how individual children developed an awareness of their environment and how, through a process of experimentation, they learned to adapt to new environments. For Piaget this process of adaptation through observation and experimentation constituted the only true learning experience for children. Piaget's hypotheses led him to question the more traditional educational approaches of the day which, he concluded, were unsuited to the developing mind:

The adult conceived of education as a mere transmission of collective social values from generation to generation; the educator concerned himself at first with the ends of education rather than with its techniques, with the finished man rather than with the child and the laws of its development. Because of this he was led, implicitly or explicitly, to

look upon the child either as a little man to be instructed, given morals, and identified as rapidly as possible with its adult models...it is from this point of view that the major part of our educational methods stems. It defines the *old or traditional* methods of education. The *new methods* are those that take account of the child's own peculiar nature and make their appeal to the laws of the individual's psychological constitution and those of his development. *Activity as against passivity.*

(Piaget 1971: 137)

Traditionally then, teachers had viewed students as “little men”, whose minds closely resembled those of their adult counterparts; all they lacked was breadth of knowledge. The role of education therefore was to inculcate “the facts” of individual disciplines; students would take careful note of these “facts”, committing them to memory before recalling them for formal examinations (see Chapter 6.4).

In contrast to traditional beliefs Piaget proposed the mind of a child was different to that of an adult and that whilst children were able to memorize factual information this was not indicative of learning. Piaget proposed that the only truly educational experiences were those which stimulated cognitive development in children (Piaget 1971: 29). Such experiences could only be acquired by allowing children to interact with their environment both inside and outside the classroom (IBE 2011c). Piaget hypothesised that the formation of “schemata” (or maps) within the child's brain allowed them to adapt and interact with their environment. As experimentation led to the acquisition of new information so this data was stored either within existing schemata, the process of “assimilation”, or within newly created schemata, the process of “accommodation” (Piaget 1971: 158). It was this process of cognitive development or “constructivism” that constituted learning for Piaget and formed the basis of the Project Method as profiled by UNESCO and the IBE (IBE 1996: Annex XI).

The Project Method was developed by Piagetian educationalists as a means of encouraging students to explore their environment and stimulate cognitive development (IBE 2011c). Students were encouraged to visit sites of scientific and cultural importance and engage in field studies (UNESCO: 1974). Students were asked to compose a number of questions that might

form the basis of site studies; students were then required to carry out a series of investigations using questionnaires, interview schedules or equipment suitable for the monitoring of pollution levels and other environmental data. Once results had been compiled students were encouraged to test alternative hypotheses before presenting an informed conclusion to their site enquiry. This educational approach was rooted in the beliefs of Piagetian educationalists and promoted through such policy documents as the 1974 Recommendation and the Delors Report (see Chapter 3.8-3.9).

Piagetian theory did however impose a number of implacable limitations on the teaching of certain subjects. Central to Piaget's hypothesis was "cognitive stage theory" (Piaget 1971: 29-33) Cognitive stage theory dictated that a child's cognitive development passed through four separate stages (Figure 3.1), each stage determined by the child's chronological age. Each stage strictly defined the cognitive abilities of the child and no child could progress beyond their chronological age; these four cognitive stages were:

Sensory motor intelligence	Birth to 2 yrs
Preoperational thought	2 to 6 yrs
Concrete operational thought	6 to 12 yrs
Formal operational thought	12 yrs +

Figure 3.1 Piaget's "Cognitive Stage Theory" based on Furth (1970: 33)

With regard to a child's schooling the last two cognitive stages, as defined by Piaget, were of particular relevance. Cognitive stage theory dictated that children of primary school age would be unable to think beyond "concrete operational level." Children thinking at concrete operational level were able to take detailed note of their surroundings, count and measure as well as observe colour and texture. These children were not however able to comprehend information which lay beyond their immediate experience i.e. they are unable to grasp abstract concepts or to formulate hypotheses based on specific observations. In addition such young children displayed little, if

any, empathy; their ability to understand the point of view of others was severely limited (Wadsworth 1978: 182). By contrast children operating at “formal operational level” did comprehend abstract information; they were able to formulate hypotheses and could display empathy (Wadsworth: 1978: 182). Piagetian educationalists did note however that the upper age limit for formal operations may be rather high and that some adults may never display the more advanced modes of thought.

Cognitive stage theory led some Piagetian educationalists to suggest that certain subjects were unsuited to primary school teaching and may even prove challenging at secondary level; history and social studies were included in this list (CACE: 1967). This belief was based on the fact that history and social studies required students to develop an understanding of abstract concepts e.g. “peace”, “war” and “poverty”; both subjects also required the application of empathetic skills (Wadsworth 1978: 183). Paradoxically this rigid adherence to cognitive stage theory presented a barrier to the teaching of universal values associated with UNESCO and the IBE. For UNESCO educational projects to prove successful some way must be found of introducing abstract concepts to younger audiences. Some educationalists believed that this could be done by reassessing constructivist theories and modifying cognitive stage theory (Ivic 1994; Marti 1996).

3.7 Lev Vygotsky and the practice of social constructivism

Unlike Piaget, who studied the behaviour of individual children under controlled conditions, Lev Vygotsky was a teacher who studied the behaviour of children in classroom settings. The IBE believed that the real world settings of Vygotsky’s research meant that his observations might be used to inform Piaget’s hypotheses (Ivic 1994: 3). In particular Vygotsky’s research on social interaction might be used to shed new light on Piaget’s cognitive stage theory; writing in the IBE Journal “Prospects” Eduardo Marti noted:

In turning from the child to the pupil it is necessary to go beyond Piaget’s constructivism, which gives account of the basic universal structures of thought, and adopt a viewpoint

which sees the pupil as a reconstructor of specific types of knowledge selected as school programme contents. The construction of knowledge in the school context requires that account be taken of a cultural and social dimension not to be found in Piaget's postulates. (Marti 1996: 471)

Like Piaget, Vygotsky acknowledged the importance of encouraging students to explore their environment. He too believed that observations and experimentation carried out by the child on their environment resulted in physical changes to the child's brain creating networks of schemata (Marti 1996: 150); for Vygotsky, as for Piaget, learning was a constructive process. In contrast to Piaget however Vygotsky believed language was of seminal importance in developing a child's cognitive processes. For Vygotsky social interaction between students and between students and their teachers was a key element of learning (Ivic 1994:476); he hypothesised that before a child attempted to "internalise" new information they tested the validity of that information verbally, he noted:

Any function in the pupil's cultural development appears twice or on two planes. First it appears on the social plane and then on the psychological plane. First it appears between people as an interpersonal category and then within the child as an intrapersonal category.....social relations or relations among people underlie all higher functions and their relationships.

(Vygotsky recorded by Wertsch 1985: 60)

For Vygotsky classrooms were places of animated discussion with social relationships playing a formative role in the child's learning; for this reason the term "social constructivism" is often applied to Vygotsky's research and is used by educationalists to distinguish Vygotsky's research from the "cognitive constructivism" of Piaget (Marti: 1996).

Whilst Vygotsky acknowledged the validity of Piaget's four operational stages (Figure 3.1) he did not believe each stage to be determined solely by chronological age. For Vygotsky social interaction in the classroom, particularly between student and teacher, could accelerate the learning process (Marti 1996: 155). Vygotsky maintained that social interaction enabled students

to comprehend abstract concepts and develop empathetic skills at an earlier age (Wertsch 1985: 71); the implication of Vygotsky's work was that the teaching of history and social studies became a possibility at primary level.

Vygotsky believed that for social constructivism to prove effective a student's learning should be "scaffolded." This process allowed for incremental increases in a child's knowledge with the intent of exceeding levels of knowledge predicted by Piaget's cognitive stage theory (Marti 1996: 152). Scaffolding techniques advocated by Vygotsky included the teacher's judicious use of questioning, the use of drama and role play and the use of writing frames (Wertsch 1985: 64). Vygotsky's untimely death meant that his research into cognitive stage theory and scaffolding techniques was never completed. It was left to fellow educationalist, Jerome Bruner, to explore the applications of scaffolding and to devise new ways of applying social constructivist theory to the development of whole school curricula (see Chapter 6.3).

3.8 The 1974 Recommendation and the Project Method

"The Recommendation Concerning Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace and Education relating to the Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms" (UNESCO: 1974), or "1974 Recommendation" was adopted by UNESCO General Conference on 19 November 1974. The 1974 Recommendation promoted the role of Associated Schools in furthering the work of UNESCO and introduced Member States to the Project Method of education pioneered by the IBE (see Chapter 3.4).

The Project Method redefined the role of the teacher in schools. Teachers acted as facilitators, providing students with educational materials and guidance on matters specific to the development of their projects (ASP net: 1995; Crayhay 1996: 64). The role of the teacher became increasingly demanding as projects were multidisciplinary in nature with students collating evidence across a range of subject disciplines such as art, history and social science (ASP net: 1993; ASP net: 1995). Article 20 of the 1974 Recommendation introduced Member States to the complexities of the Project Method:

...education planned in accordance with this Recommendation is interdisciplinary, problem-orientated with content adapted to the complexity of the issues involved in the application of human rights and in international cooperation, and in itself illustrating the ideas of reciprocal influence, mutual support and solidarity. Such programmes should be based on adequate research, experimentation and the identification of specific educational objectives.

(UNESCO 1974: Article 20)

The Project Method required that students go beyond the confines of the classroom and explore their local environment. Students needed to compile field journals, draft questionnaires and construct interview schedules. Once information had been collated students needed to identify bias in sampling procedures or detect the inherent bias of documentary evidence. Students then needed to address their research questions, drawing substantiated conclusions regarding possible courses of action (ASP net: 1993; ASP net: 1997). Finally students were required to present their findings using a variety of media and to discuss their findings with other groups or schools; Article 5 of the 1974 Recommendation reinforced these procedures:

International education should help to develop qualities, aptitudes and abilities which enable the individual to acquire a critical understanding of problems at the national and international level; to achieve understanding and explain facts, opinions and ideas; to work in a group; to accept and participate in free discussions; to observe the elementary rules of procedure applicable to any discussion; and to base value judgements and decisions on a rational analysis of the relevant facts.

(UNESCO 1974: Article 5)

Whilst the academic skills listed above were important the Project Method required they be developed in tandem with a range of practical skills or competences that could be practiced in a community setting. Such competences could be of a general nature such as team leadership, the ability to motivate individuals or to work as a valued member of a team. These competences

could equally be project specific such as the ability to act as a guide or to give advice on bullying in a community setting:

Students should become acquainted with the procedures for solving fundamental problems and to participate in the cultural life of the community and in public affairs. Wherever possible this participation should increasingly link education to action to solve problems at the local, national and international levels.

(UNESCO 1974: Article 13)

Article 13 above also emphasised the importance of “local action” and developing a sense of “local identity.” It was important for students to develop an extensive knowledge of their own communities and be secure with their own identities before engaging with wider issues. This progression from local to national through to global action reflected key principles of the 1974 Recommendation outlined in Article 4 which advocated, “Readiness on the part of the individual to participate in solving the problems of his community, his country and his world at large” (UNESCO 1974: Article 4).

The 1974 Recommendation identified a range of study themes associated with the universal values of UNESCO (UNESCO 1974: Article 18); these included “Human Rights”, “the management and conservation of natural resources” and “the preservation of cultural heritage” (see Chapter 3.5). These study themes all contributed to the key aim of the 1974 Recommendation which was the realisation of “education for international understanding,” defined as follows:

Education should bring every person to understand and assume his or her responsibilities for the maintenance of peace. It should contribute to international understanding and to the strengthening of world peace and to activities in the struggle against colonialism and neo-colonialism in all their forms and manifestations, and against all forms and manifestations, and against all forms and varieties of racialism, fascism and apartheid as well as other ideologies which breed national and racial hatred.

(UNESCO 1974: Article 6)

This quest to achieve international understanding was taken up by the Delors Report where the key pillar of education is presented as, “learning to live together” (UNESCO 1996: 95).

3.9 The Delor’s Report and the Project Method

The educational approach of UNESCO, the IBE and ASP (net) had been defined by the 1974 Recommendation however a Commission convened two decades later sought to re-examine guidance presented in this document. In 1993 The Director General of UNESCO, Federico Mayor, requested that a “Commission for Learning in the Twenty First Century” be convened. The Commission was tasked with providing specific recommendations regarding the planning of future education projects:

The Commission will submit a report designed to serve as an agenda for educational renewal and as guidelines for UNESCO’s action in the field of education in the coming years. It will be communicated to the governing bodies of UNESCO, to its Member States and National Commissions and to the governmental and non-governmental organisations which UNESCO operates.

(Delors 1996: 253)

The Commission was Chaired by former French Minister of Finance, Jacques Delors, and its findings were to be reported on a periodic basis; initial findings were presented to Ministers of Education in 1996 (IBE: 1996) whilst detailed discussions of the document were reserved for a subsequent ICE entitled “Education For All for Learning To Live Together” (IBE: 2001).

The Delors Report (Figure 3.2) built upon principles established by the 1974 Recommendation; the Delors Report advocated the Project Method of education and identified four “pillars of education” namely “learning to know”, “learning to do”, “learning to be” and “learning to live together” (Delors: 1996). The Project Method of education, as defined by the 1974

Recommendation, had encouraged students to explore their local environment, visiting sites of cultural and scientific interest and taking note of their findings (UNESCO 1974: Article 5). The Delors Report now presented these skills in terms of “learning to know” with the Commission stating, “this type of learning is less a matter of acquiring itemised, codified information than of mastering the instruments of knowledge themselves” (Delors 1996: 88).

The 1974 Recommendation had also emphasised the importance of students developing practical vocational skills (UNESCO1974: Article 13); the Delors Report now redefined these skills in terms of the second pillar of education, “learning to do.” Here students were asked to develop conservation skills or to act as guides; the development of social skills and qualities associated with leadership were also highly prized and the Commission noted:

Employers are seeking competence, a mix specific to each individual of skill in the strict sense of the word, acquired through technical knowledge and vocational training, of social behaviour, of an aptitude for teamwork and of initiative and a readiness to take risks

(Delors 1996: 89)

The third pillar of education, “learning to be” represented the student’s mastery of skills associated with both “learning to know” and “learning to do.” Through project work the student developed those skills necessary to play an active and vibrant part in their community. Such actions in turn helped to develop a sense of local identity and an awareness of local problems. In common with the 1974 Recommendation the Delors Report viewed the development of local identity as a necessary precursor to action on both a national or global scale and to addressing the fourth pillar of education, “learning to live together.”

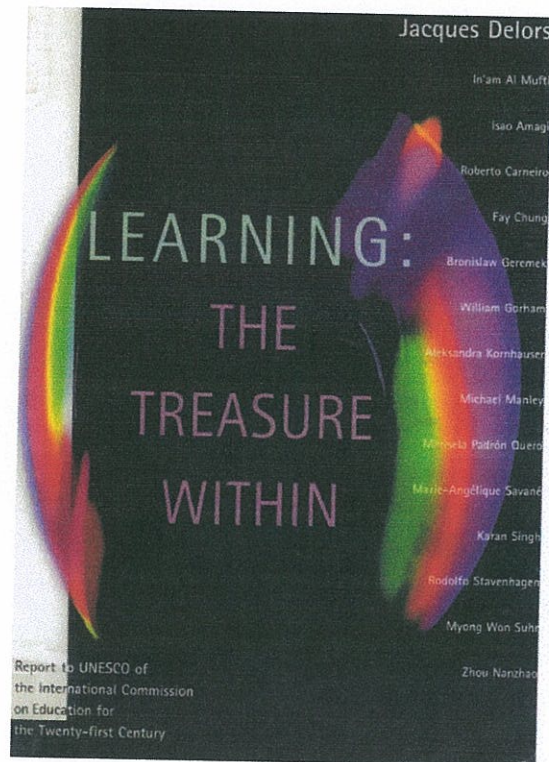


Figure 3.2 Learning: The Treasure Within (Delors: 1996)

The 1974 Recommendation had identified “education for international understanding” as a key objective of UNESCO educational projects (UNESCO: 1974). The Delors Report developed this concept identifying “learning to live together” as the fourth and most important pillar of education (Delors 1996: 95). “Learning to live together” was presented to Member States in the following manner:

By developing an understanding of others and their history, traditions and spiritual values and on this basis creating a new spirit which, guided by a recognition of our growing interdependence and a common analysis of the risks and challenges of the future, would induce people to implement common projects or to manage the inevitable conflicts in an intelligent and peaceful way. This is *learning to live together*.

(Delors 1996: 20)

From the above all educational projects must promote cultural diversity and should encourage students to explore the cultural traditions of other nations; tolerating and indeed valuing the cultural traditions of others was presented as key to maintaining peaceful international relations and addressing the concept of “learning to live together.”

Delors emphasised the importance of “learning to live together” maintaining that this pillar of education could only be addressed through the Project Method. Universal values such as “tolerance” and “respect” had to be developed through project work, Delors (1996: 60) noted:

Values in general and tolerance in particular cannot be taught in the strict sense: the desire to impose from the outside predetermined values comes down, in the end, to negating them since values only have meaning when freely chosen by the individual. At the very most therefore schools may facilitate the daily practice of tolerance by helping pupils to allow for the point of view of others and by encouraging discussion of moral dilemmas and ethical choices.

Students needed to leave the classroom environment and question social trends in a community setting. Topics such as youth unemployment, child poverty or immigration policy could be addressed with students composing their own research questions and assimilating data using questionnaires and interview schedules (ASP net: 1993; ASP net: 1998). Having completed their investigations this data could be used to inform discussions at local level and as a means of understanding social trends on an international basis.

Following an introduction to the Delors Report at the 45th Session of the ICE in 1996 (IBE: 1996) a roundtable discussion was convened to debate the relevance of Piaget’s research and the Project Method. The panel of experts concluded that the most appropriate educational approach for UNESCO and Associated Schools was still the Project Method and Piaget’s research remained of seminal value. The panel noted:

Piaget viewed children as researchers, constantly seeking new knowledge. In working with children Piaget let this search take place; the child goes as far as he can in a task

adapted to his level, guided by his successful tries and the questions and refocusing of the adult. Based on this perspective teachers need to be permanent researchers, helping students to make their own discoveries.

(IBE 1996: Annex XI)

3.10 Background to the 1972 Convention

Comparatively little documentation relating to the creation of “The Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage” (UNESCO: 1972b) has survived (Batisse and Bola 2002: 13). In response UNESCO’s Club Histoire published the personal accounts of the former Director of UNESCO’s Natural Resources Division, Michel Batisse and the former Director of UNESCO’s Cultural and Social Science Division, Gerard Bolla. These accounts, together with surviving documentation, provide a telling insight into the history of the 1972 Convention.

UNESCO’s contribution to promoting peaceful international relations specifically included, “securing the conservation and protection of the world’s inheritance of books, works of art and monuments of history and science” (UNESCO 1945: Article 1). Despite such specific aims UNESCO’s actions relating to the conservation of historic monuments were initially slow (Batisse and Bola 2002: 15); Batisse and Bola (2002: 15) noted that UNESCO lacked the necessary the expertise and could only rely on the services of the International Council of Museums (ICOM). However, despite such limitations, UNESCO was successful in adopting the “United Nations Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the event of Armed Conflict” or “The Hague Convention” (United Nations: 1954).

The 1954 Hague Convention represented an important step in the conservation of historic monuments and informed the drafting of the 1972 Convention (Batisse and Bola 2002: 15). Like the 1972 Convention State Parties to the Hague Convention were required to compile a list of cultural artefacts and to ensure protection of these artefacts in times of war; the list comprised:

movable or immovable property of great importance to the cultural history of every people, such as monuments of architecture, art or history whether religious or secular; archaeological sites; groups of buildings which, as a whole, are of historical or artistic interest; works of art; manuscripts, books and other objects of artistic, historical or archaeological interest; as well as scientific collections and important collections of books or archives.....

(United Nations 1954: Article 1)

By adopting The Hague Convention UNESCO had succeeded in galvanising Member States and had produced a list of cultural remains whose significance transcended both geographic and political boundaries (Batisse and Bola 2002: 15). The compilation of such a list may have represented a step towards the concept of “World Heritage” but UNESCO still lacked expertise with regard to the conservation of historic monuments.

The Hague Convention had received great support from Member States however an urgent appeal received later that same year stretched UNESCO’s meagre resources to the limit (UNESCO: 2011b). In 1954 UNESCO received an appeal on behalf of the Government of Egypt relating to the conservation of historic monuments in Egypt and Sudan. Egypt intended to dam the River Nile and flood an area of land once sacred to the Ancient Nubian Civilization (UNESCO: 2011b); amongst those monuments to be inundated were the Temple of Abu Simbel and temples associated with the Dynasty of Ramases II. Egypt requested help surveying these monuments and in updating archives housed at the Documentation Centre in Cairo (UNESCO: 2011b); UNESCO responded with alacrity despatching specialists based at ICOM.

As ICOM’s work progressed UNESCO received another urgent appeal, this time on behalf of the United Arab Republic; painstaking work by ICOM in Egypt and Sudan had underscored the universal value of these cultural remains and Egypt now requested:

Large scale financial, scientific and technical assistance with a view to the preservation of all artistic and historical treasures threatened with disappearance as a result of the construction of the Aswan Dam.

(UNESCO: 2011b)

These proposals went beyond UNESCO's original remit with the communiqué referring explicitly to the "transfer of temples to higher ground" (UNESCO: 2011b). Despite these challenges UNESCO's response was again proactive and in 1959 UNESCO announced "The International Campaign to save the monuments of Nubia" (UNESCO: 2011b). UNESCO canvassed Member States for funds and coordinated the efforts of numerous University Departments; results were impressive with UNESCO raising \$80 million dollars in funding (UNESCO: 2011b). The Temples of Abu Simbel and Ramases II were relocated and an area in excess of 500km was surveyed. This project reinforced the universal importance of iconic cultural remains with the Director General of UNESCO observing, "we now realise and admit that some monuments of exceptional importance belong to mankind at large no matter where they stand or to what history they belong" (UNESCO: 2011b).

The adoption of The Hague Convention and the relocation of Nubian Monuments illustrated UNESCO's interest in the conservation of cultural property yet the organisation still lacked a dedicated advisory body (Batisse and Bola 2002: 15). This problem was addressed however by the adoption of the "International Charter for the Conservation of Monuments and Sites," (ICOMOS: 1964) or the "Venice Charter". Amongst a plethora of measures the Venice Charter established the "International Council on Monuments and Sites" (ICOMOS) a body of professionals dedicated to the conservation of historic monuments. ICOMOS quickly became established as UNESCO's advisory body on historic monuments and currently advises the WHC regarding the inscription of cultural heritage sites (see Chapter 3.12).

ICOMOS had been established as UNESCO's advisory body on historic monuments however it was UNESCO's advisory body on the natural environment, the "International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources" (IUCN) which spearheaded the concept of

“World Heritage” (Batisse and Bola 2002: 17). As early as 1965 Russell Train, senior advisor to President Lyndon Johnson, had proposed:

That there be established a *Trust* for the *World Heritage* that would be responsible to the world community for the stimulation of international cooperative efforts to identify, establish, develop and manage the world’s superb *natural* and scenic areas and *historic sites* for the present and future benefit of the entire world citizenry.

(Batisse and Bola 2002: 39)

Train’s proposals failed to impress President Johnson, however Johnson’s successor, President Nixon, adopted a different view. In 1971 Nixon convened “The Council on Environmental Quality,” selecting Train as Chair (Batisse and Bola 2002: 18). As Chair Train was asked lead the US Delegation attending the “United Nations Conference on the Human Environment” in Stockholm scheduled the following year, Nixon further suggested that this Conference be used to draft a Convention in favour of a World Heritage Trust:

It would be fitting by 1972 for the Nations of the World to agree to the principle that there are certain areas of such unique worldwide value that they should be treated as part of the heritage of all mankind and recorded special recognition as part of a World Heritage Trust. I believe such an initiative can add a new direction to international cooperation.

(Nixon reported by Batisse and Bola 2002: 39)

Charged with enacting President Nixon’s agenda, Train contacted IUCN; IUCN, in collaboration with American environmental scientists, were in the process of drafting their own convention to be presented at the Stockholm Conference (Batisse and Bola 2002: 20). UNESCO had effectively been excluded from these proceedings and word of the draft convention came as alarming news (Batisse and Bola 2002: 70); if carried forward this convention would place IUCN in sole charge of World Heritage with cultural heritage unrepresented. Hurriedly a UNESCO delegation was dispatched to the United States. UNESCO maintained that that they alone were capable of drafting a suitable convention and, notwithstanding this point; the

Stockholm Conference was not the venue to propose such legislation (Batisse and Bola 2002: 70).

Despite the reservations cited above UNESCO agreed to draft a convention in favour of World Heritage – a convention which stressed parity between natural heritage and cultural heritage (Batisse and Bola 2002: 71). Appeased, the American Delegation agreed not to present their draft convention at the Stockholm Conference and UNESCO was assured, “the Stockholm Conference would not be seized by a draft convention on World Heritage and would limit itself to supporting such an undertaking” (Batisse and Bola 2002: 73).

3.11 Functions of the 1972 Convention

As a direct result of UNESCO’s intercessions the Stockholm Conference limited itself to recommending a Convention on World Heritage (United Nations 1972) The “Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage” (1972 Convention) was drafted by UNESCO in collaboration with IUCN and ICOMOS and was adopted at General Conference on 16 November 1972 (UNESCO: 1972).

“World Heritage” comprised both cultural and natural heritage with cultural heritage defined as follows:

For the purpose of this Convention, the following shall be considered as “cultural heritage.”

Monuments: architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements or structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings and combinations of features which are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;

Groups of buildings: groups of separate or connected buildings which, because of their architecture, their homogeneity or their place in the landscape, are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;

Sites: works of man or the combined works of nature and man and areas including archaeological sites which are of outstanding universal value from the historical, aesthetic, ethnological or anthropological point of view.

(UNESCO 1972: Article 1)

whilst natural heritage was defined as:

For the purposes of this Convention, the following shall be considered as “natural heritage.”

Natural features consisting of physical and biological formations or groups of such formations which are of outstanding universal value from the aesthetic or scientific point of view;

Geological and physiographical formations and precisely delineated areas which constitute the habitat of threatened species of animals and plants of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science or conservation;

Natural sites or precisely delineated natural areas of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science, conservation or natural beauty.

(UNESCO 1972: Article 2)

It should be noted that two decades later ICOMOS and IUCN recommended that a further category of “cultural landscape” be added to the definition presented above. Operational Guidelines currently define cultural landscapes in the following terms:

Cultural landscapes are cultural properties and represent the “combined works of nature and man” designated in Article 1 of the Convention. They are illustrative of the evolution

of human society and settlement over time, under the influence of the physical constraints and/or opportunities presented by their natural environment and of successive social, economic and cultural forces, both external and internal.

(UNESCO 2005: Para 47)

All properties classified under Articles 1 and 2 or recognised as “cultural landscapes” must represent “outstanding universal value” to be inscribed on the World Heritage List. No matter which criteria are selected all properties inscribed on the World Heritage List must represent “outstanding universal value.” Whilst the 1972 Convention failed to provide a definition of this term recent editions of the Operational Guidelines provide some necessary guidance:

Outstanding universal value means cultural and/or natural significance which is so exceptional as to transcend national boundaries and to be of common importance for present and future generations of all humanity. As such, the permanent protection of this heritage is of the highest importance to the international community as a whole.

(UNESCO 2005: Para 49)

Decisions as to whether a property should be inscribed on the World Heritage List are the responsibility of the “Intergovernmental Committee for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage”, commonly termed the “World Heritage Committee.” The World Heritage Committee comprises representatives from 21 State Parties together with IUCN and ICOMOS representatives (UNESCO 1972: Article 8). The process of inscription is relatively straight forward with State Parties submitting a “Tentative List” of Candidate Sites for consideration by the WHC. Selection procedures are based on the submission of provisional Site Management Plans (SMPs) together with Statements of Outstanding Universal Value (OUVs)

A further list of “World Heritage Sites in Danger” is prepared and regularly updated by the WHC; this comprises, “a list of property appearing in the World Heritage List for the conservation of which major operations are necessary and for which assistance has been requested under this Convention” (UNESCO 1972: Article 11). A fund established by the 1972 Convention provides financial resources for such operations (UNESCO 1972: Article 15).

Finally, and most significantly for this thesis, all properties inscribed on the World Heritage List are required to develop educational programmes detailing the functions of the 1972 Convention and emphasising the importance of World Heritage:

The States Parties to this Convention shall endeavour by all appropriate means, and in particular by educational and informational programmes, to strengthen appreciation and respect by their peoples of the cultural and natural heritage defined in Articles 1 and 2 of the Convention.

(UNESCO 1972: Article 27)

3.12 Implementing the 1972 Convention

The 1972 Convention constitutes an exceptionally influential instrument in the field of heritage conservation (Hall 2006: 22). In recognition of this elevated status the 1972 Convention has generated professional debate and research activity much of which is available either in print or on dedicated websites; the following section seeks to identify a number of issues related to the implementation of the 1972 Convention and to identify relevant literature.

To date 189 States have ratified the 1972 Convention and the WHC has designated a total of 962 WHSs comprising: “cultural”, “natural” and “mixed” sites (WHC 2011a). The inscription of heritage sites on the World Heritage List is not without flaws however and for the last two decades the WHC has worked with ICOMOS and IUCN to address “gaps” in this list (WHC 2011a). In 1994 ICOMOS noted that the World Heritage List exhibited a marked thematic and geographic bias; indeed 48 State Parties to the 1972 Convention were unrepresented on the World Heritage List (Leask 2006: 14). Notable “gaps” included: sub-Saharan Africa, the Near East and Middle East as well as the Pacific Region; thematically “prehistoric” and “industrial” sites were also underrepresented as were “natural” and “mixed” heritage sites (Millar 2006: 43). ICOMOS identified a number of causes for these “gaps” in the World Heritage List suggesting that one factor might be a lack of technical and managerial expertise (Leask 2006: 15).

All States Party to the 1972 Convention wishing to nominate a site for inscription are required to submit a Tentative List of sites to the WHC. An OUV must be prepared for each site placed on the Tentative List together with information relating to on-site conservation methods, site interpretation and provision of public amenities (WHC 2011a). Evidence compiled by ICOMOS indicated that the Tentative Lists submitted by Industrialised Nations were prepared by professional heritage managers; non-Industrialised Nations tended to lack this level of expertise as exemplified by their Tentative Lists. The result was that the process of designation was biased in favour of Industrialised Nations. In addition ICOMOS noted that this lack technical expertise had resulted in a number of States Party unable to submit Tentative Lists to the WHC; as a result no WHSs could be designated for these areas (Leask 2006: 10).

Acknowledging the problem, in 1994 ICOMOS launched “The Global Strategy for a Balanced, Representative and Credible World Heritage List” (ICOMOS: 1994). One key aspect of this initiative was the provision of guidance material for all heritage managers; this included publication of the “World Heritage Series” by the WHC. Covering such topics as “Managing Tourism at World Heritage Sites”, “Cultural Landscapes” and “Monitoring World Heritage” the World Heritage Series aimed to address inequalities in the World Heritage List (WHC 2011b). Unfortunately recent data supplied by the WHC has indicated that the “Global Strategy” has proved ineffectual with 32 States Party still not represented on the World Heritage List (WHC 2011a).

Despite the efforts of ICOMOS, IUCN and the WHC significant “gaps” still appear in the World Heritage List. The persistence of these “gaps” may be explained by the complex process of designation as detailed above however it has been suggested that this phenomenon may also be due to the prohibitive costs involved managing certain WHSs (Millar 2006: 43). Stonehenge WHS provides just one example of the costs involved in managing a large and complex WHS.

Stonehenge WHS was designated in 1986 under Article 1 of the 1972 Convention and has been described as a site of “iconic status” (Millar 2006: 44); nevertheless the management of this WHS has been identified by one Governmental Committee as a “national disgrace” (Shackley 2006: 85). Data provided by English Heritage, a major stake holder in Stonehenge WHS, showed

that this site attracted over 900,000 visitors in 2007 with 2000 visitors per hour expected during peak summer months (English Heritage 2008: 78). Such a large number of visitors had led to the erosion of earthworks and a number of sarsen stones had been damaged. To prevent further damage visitors were now forbidden access to Stonehenge and crowds were retained behind a roped enclosure (English Heritage 2008: 79).

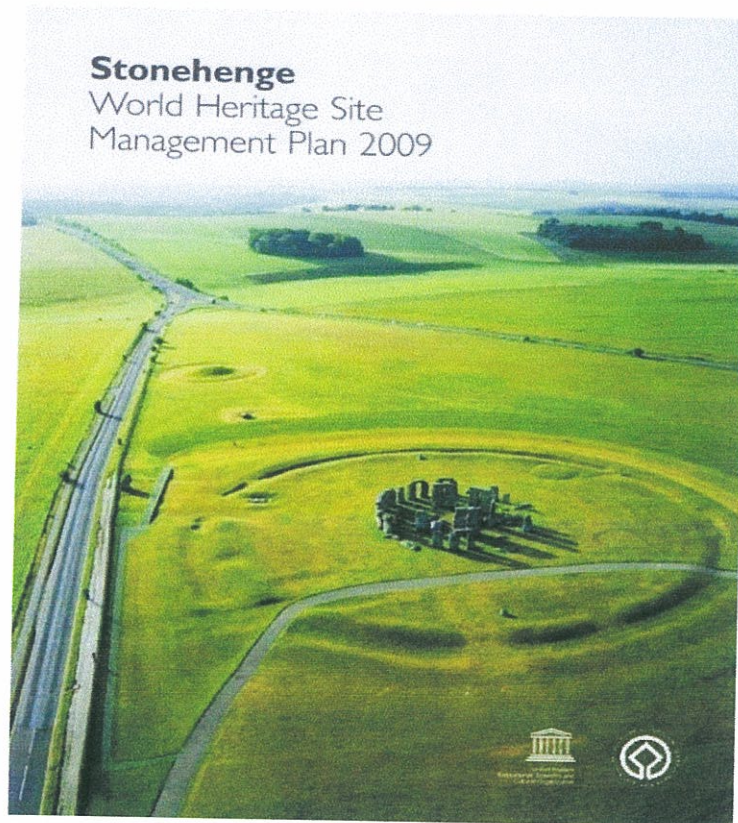


Figure 3.3 Stonehenge Site Management Plan 2009 (English Heritage: 2008)

Stonehenge WHS is bisected by two major roads as indicated on the front cover of the 2009 Stonehenge SMP (Figure 3.3). The A303 (foreground) constitutes a major access route to the West Country and traffic here is particularly congested; the A344 (background), whilst less congested passes within meters of outlying stones and cuts through “The Avenue”, a prehistoric earthwork linking Stonehenge WHS to other prehistoric monuments. Visitor facilities at Stonehenge are particularly poor with parking restricted to a rough area of gravel, toilets comprising “portaloos” and inadequate restaurant facilities (Mason and Kuo: 2006).

In 1998 English Heritage sought to address problems at Stonehenge WHS by proposing “The Stonehenge Project”; English Heritage proposed that the A303 should be concealed by a tunnel in the immediate vicinity of Stonehenge WHS and that existing visitor facilities should be removed. A modern centre for site interpretation was to be constructed one mile from the site with visitors would be transported to Stonehenge WHS via a “land train” (Millar 2006: 46).

“The Stonehenge Project” was presented to the Highways Agency in 2000 however other stakeholders fervently opposed the plans; opponents included: ICOMOS UK, the World Archaeological Congress (WAC), the Council for British Archaeology and the National Trust (Millar 2006: 46). Opponents claimed that the provision of a land train would detract from the surrounding landscape and planning permission was refused in 2004. Undeterred English Heritage revised their plans presenting a modified version of the “Stonehenge Project” in the 2009 SMP for Stonehenge WHS (English Heritage 2008: 79).

Following further consultation the modified “Stonehenge Project” was eventually granted planning permission in 2010; significantly, whilst plans to relocate visitor facilities and introduce a land train were retained, plans for a tunnel enclosing the A303 were abandoned due to the prohibitive cost (English Heritage: 2012). Key features of the Stonehenge Project now included:

- closure of the A344 and the grassing of this area
- reinstating “The Avenue” linking Stonehenge WHS to other prehistoric sites
- removal of current visitor facilities and the grassing of these areas
- construction of a centre for site interpretation and visitor facilities one mile from Stonehenge WHS
- the introduction of a land train linking these new facilities to Stonehenge WHS

After a delay of nearly 15 years the projected date for completion of the modified “Stonehenge Project” is 2014 (English Heritage: 2012); it should be remembered however that whilst this plan will cost in excess of £27 million it still falls far short of English Heritage’s original intentions (English Heritage: 2012). The landscape of Stonehenge WHS will still be dominated by the A303 with heavy traffic passing close to the site; projected costs for the construction of a tunnel, as originally intended, proved prohibitively expensive with Millar estimating costs exceeding £400 million (Millar 2006: 47).

Detailed examination of strategies employed at Stonehenge WHS has shown that site conservation can prove prohibitively expensive both in terms of time and financial provision. Whilst these costs prove challenging for Industrialised Nations they may well prove insurmountable for non-Industrialised Nations.

From the example cited above it can be seen that tourism and the provision of visitor facilities are important factors in determining the management strategy of many WHSs. Indeed the perceived benefits of tourism have proved a major motivational factor for States Party seeking the designation of WHSs (Leask 2006: 13). Acknowledging this trend “The World Commission on Culture and Development”, recommended that a significant share in the profits derived from tourism should be ceded to “host communities” i.e. those communities in receipt of tourist traffic (World Commission on Culture and Development: 1996). Young Hands reaffirmed these recommendations and identified the need for “a new type of tourism” - a form of tourism which sensitized visitors to the cultural traditions of other nations (UNESCO 2002: 110).

Profits derived from tourism at Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS in China provide one example of how “cultural tourism” may benefit host communities. The Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS was designated as a “cultural landscape” in 1992 (WHC 2011a). The Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS encompasses an area of 1320 km providing a habitat for many endangered species including the Giant Panda, the Red Panda and the Golden Monkey. Calcareous lakes to the north of this reserve also provided a breeding ground for more than 250 species of bird life. Set amidst the lakes and bamboo forests of the reserve were nine villages housing 1000 members of China’s minority Tibetan community

(Li 2006: 228). Seeking to promote the cultural and natural diversity of this area the Prefecture Government was keen to encourage tourism at Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS.



Figure 3.4 The lakes of Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS, China. Image Courtesy of the WHC

To limit the impact of tourism at this WHS only 50km of the nature reserve was open to the public with access restricted to a “sealed road” (Li 2006: 228). Despite efforts to limit the impact of tourism villagers from three villages within the reserve abandoned their homes and relocated nearer the access road (Li 2006: 229); these villagers then set up stalls selling souvenirs to visitors. Faced with the abandonment of local villages, heritage managers at Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS resolved to find a more sustainable way of generating income from tourism.

Heritage managers established a number of lodges within the grounds of the reserve; these lodges provided accommodation for tourists and were managed by the villagers themselves. Whilst these lodges generated revenue for the local community such intense commercial activity impacted on pollution levels within the reserve; alarmed heritage managers were forced to close the lodges (Li 2006: 229).

Seeking an alternative source of revenue, heritage managers at Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS then banned the use of private vehicles. From 1999 onwards the only form of transport permissible within the reserve was provided by the “Green Bus Company.” The licence for this private bus company was owned and operated by the Tibetan Villagers (Li 2006: 230). So successful was this venture that by 2003 the Green Bus Company operated a fleet of 350 vehicles and realised an annual turnover of \$12 million (Li 2006: 230). Acknowledging the profitability of this venture the Prefecture Government took over the site licence of the Green Bus Company returning a mere 20% of the operating profit to the villagers (Li 2006: 230).

In 2006 an airstrip and highway were constructed near to Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS; new accommodation was constructed *en route* together with restaurants and a shopping mall. The impact of these developments on tourist numbers was marked with 1.3 million people now visiting Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS (Li 2006: 230). Again heritage managers were concerned to ensure that local villagers profited from this increase in tourist traffic. After some negotiation the Tibetan villagers were allocated subsidised retail facilities in the new shopping mall (Li 2006: 231).

Heritage managers at Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS had demonstrated that profits derived from tourism could be channelled to benefit host communities. Tibetan villagers still practised traditional arable farming techniques however the provision of new retail outlets now provided an extra source of revenue. By responding to the needs of the tourist industry in an imaginative and pragmatic manner heritage managers had ensured that the host population benefited from increased tourist activity. Unfortunately the success exhibited by Jiuzhaigou Valley WHS cannot always be replicated at other WHSs. A review of site management at Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park WHS illustrates how increased levels of tourist activity may lead to tensions between tourists and host communities.

Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park WHS in Australia was originally inscribed on the World Heritage List under Article 1 of the 1972 Convention in 1987 (WHC 2011a); following inscription the site was redesignated as a “cultural landscape” in 1994 (WHC 2011a). The OUV for Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park WHS refers to geological features within the park including

the monolith of Uluru (Ayers Rock) itself; the unique geology of this area provides a rarefied habitat for flora and fauna (WHC 2011a). As a cultural landscape Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park WHS also constitutes an important cultural focus for Aboriginal tribes, most notably the Anangu (WHC 2011). For the Anangu Uluru-Kata Tjuta represents an important spiritual focus; geological features, ancient trails, river beds and rock art all constitute a link with the Anangu tribal past or “dreamtime”; in addition Uluru is imbued with great spiritual significance for all Aboriginal peoples (UNESCO 2004: 47).

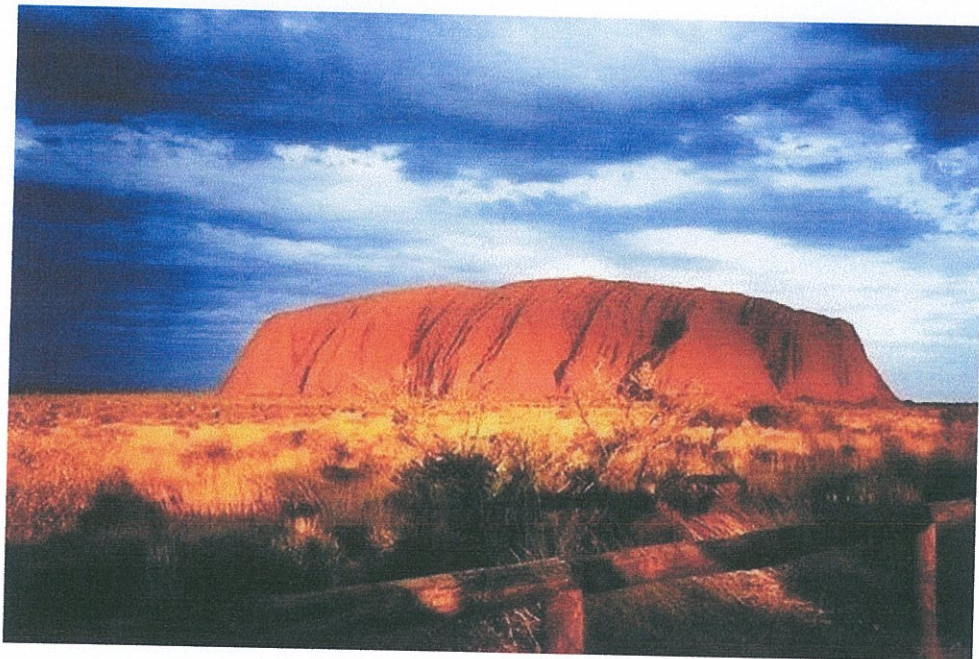


Figure 3.5 Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park WHS, Australia. Image courtesy of the WHC

Acknowledging the cultural significance of Uluru-Kata Tjuta the Australian Nature Conservation Agency resolved to manage this WHS in partnership with the Anangu (Wheatley 2007: 19). Acting in unison with the Anangu the Australian Nature Conservation Agency removed all modern constructions from the vicinity of Uluru; this included the closure of a major road and airstrip as well as demolition of an existing cafe, souvenir shops and a visitor’s centre (Wheatley 2007: 20). A new visitors’ centre was constructed in consultation with the Anangu and this was sited well away from the sacred site of Uluru; such joint projects were instrumental in promoting

the cultural identity of the Anangu and were cited as examples of good managerial practice by both UNESCO and English Heritage (UNESCO 2002: 97; Wheatly 1997: 19)

Unfortunately, whilst the initiatives cited above did promote the cultural identity of the Anangu, other initiatives aimed at servicing the tourist industry were not so successful. Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park WHS attracts more than 350,000 visitors per year (Shackley 2006: 91); whilst The Australian Nature Conservation Agency had sited tourist facilities away from sacred areas such as Uluru these sites could still be easily accessed by helicopter. Sites sacred to the Anangu were now attractions along a tourist flight path (Shackley 2006: 91).

Not content with overflying Uluru visitors insisted on climbing this sacred monolith – an activity which led to serious degradation of the site (Shackley 2006: 91). Equally as problematic was the impact of these activities on the host population. Under Anangu tribal law all sacred sites were to be approached in a respectful manner, women were forbidden from visiting many sacred areas and photography was regarded as discourteous (Shackley 2006: 92). Having tourists approach sacred sites by helicopter was unacceptable to the Anangu people and the climbing of Uluru was strictly forbidden (Shackley 2006: 92).

Clearly tourist activity at Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park WHS was the cause of tension between tourists and the host population. Whilst heritage managers had made a concerted effort to reaffirm the cultural identity of the Anangu people they had failed to modify the behaviour of tourists visiting this cultural landscape (Shackley: 2006). Visitors to Uluru-Kata Tjuta failed to appreciate the significance of this WHS to the Anangu. UNESCO believed that education could help resolve such conflicts of interest and it was with this thought in mind that Young Hands was first developed (UNESCO: 1998). Chapter 3.13 below examines the universal values which informed the educational approach of UNESCO and, more specifically, informed the drafting of the Young Hands syllabus (UNESCO: 2002).

3.13 The aims and values of Associated Schools 1993 to 1998

In 1993 the Education and Culture Sectors of UNESCO launched a series of pilot projects under the collective title, “Young People’s Participation in World Heritage Preservation and Promotion.” Member States were invited to design projects based on world heritage and submit papers at a Youth Forum the following year (see Chapter 4.2)

The success of these pilot projects led to formal requests by teachers and students for more resources to be made available. In response UNESCO invited a panel of experts drawn from the fields of heritage and education to draft a syllabus for WHE; this syllabus was entitled “World Heritage in Young Hands” (Young Hands). Following trials an experimental version of Young Hands was published by UNESCO and distributed to Associated Schools in 1998 (UNESCO: 1998). Young Hands proved popular and a slightly revised edition of Young Hands was published by UNESCO four years later (UNESCO: 2002).

The remit of ASP (net) and Associated Schools was to promote the universal values of UNESCO (UNESCO 1974: Article 6); the 1974 Recommendation presented a list of project themes that reflected these universal values (UNESCO 1974: Article 8). ASP (net) regularly advised schools regarding project themes highlighting major initiatives by the United Nations and UNESCO in support of universal values; examples included the “United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child” (United Nations: 1989), the “United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education 1995-2004” (United Nations: 1994) and the “World Decade for Cultural Development 1988-1997” (UNESCO: 1988).

Following publication of the experimental version of Young Hands (UNESCO: 1998) ASP (net) regularly promoted WHE under the banner of “Intercultural learning” (ASP net 1998); in reality however WHE, in common with other UNESCO projects, reflected a broad spectrum of universal values. For WHE these universal values were embedded in the four cross-curricular themes of Young Hands: “World Heritage and Identity”, “World Heritage and the Environment”, “World Heritage and Tourism” and “World Heritage and a Culture of Peace”

(UNESCO 1998; UNESCO: 2002). To provide a coherent understanding of these WHE themes Chapter 3 now presents a review of the universal values associated with UNESCO detailing initiatives for the period 1993 to 1998. This period spans the introduction of WHE pilot projects in 1993 and concludes with the publication of the experimental version of Young Hands (UNESCO: 1998).

The “ASP (net) Strategy and Plan of Action 1994 to 2000” (ASP net 1993: Annex IX) detailed four project themes (Figure 3.6) and provided information on relevant initiatives by the United Nations and UNESCO for the period in question:

- Project Themes for ASP (net) 1994 to 2000

 1. World Concerns and the role of the United Nations in solving them
 2. Human Rights
 3. Intercultural learning
 4. Environmental Concerns

Figure 3.6 Project Themes for Associated Schools 1994-2000 (ASP net 1993: Annex IX)

Whilst these themes reflected those detailed in the 1974 Recommendation (UNESCO: 1974) additional guidance notes identified a number of specific actions. For “World Concerns and the role of the United Nations in solving them” schools were asked to focus on “peace” as a universal value; further reference material emphasised the importance of developing, “A Culture of Peace” (ASP net 1998: 23). For the theme, “Human Rights” schools were advised to examine key legislative instruments such as the “United Nations Declaration of Human Rights” (UNDHR) and the “United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child” (UNCRC); emphasis was also placed on supporting the “United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education 1995-2004” (United Nations: 1994). For the theme “Intercultural learning” schools were asked to

celebrate the cultural identity of their own students as well as promoting the customs and cultures of other peoples; later advice issued to Associated Schools recommended that the Young Hands syllabus be used to explore this project theme (ASP net 1998: 23). The fourth theme detailed for the period 1994 to 2000 was “Environmental Concerns”; later documentation emphasised the importance of the “United Nations Convention on the Environment and Development” (UNCED) and the associated global action plan known as “Agenda 21” (ASP net 1998: 23).

3.14 Developing the theme of “Peace” in Associated Schools 1993 to 1998

Peace between nations had been established as a universal value of the United Nations in 1945; the United Nations had been founded at the end of WWII with the specific aim of establishing international peace (see Chapter 3.2); this aim was made explicit in the opening lines of the United Nations Charter where Member States were required to:

- Save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind
- Practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours
- Unite our strength to maintain international peace and security.

(United Nations 1945: Preamble)

The seminal importance of peace is emphasised again in the opening lines of the UNESCO Constitution, “That since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed” (UNESCO 1945: Preamble). Here the concept of peace is linked to that of education it is education which influences the minds of men not conflict or political machinations (Pol Droit: 2005: 57). Young people must be educated for peace.

Article 1 of the UNESCO Constitution again emphasised the importance of peace; here however peace was related to the establishment of Human Rights, “Peace must be founded, if it is not to

fail on the intellectual and moral solidity of mankind” (United Nations 1945: Article 1). The “moral solidity of mankind” was clearly defined with the adoption of the “United Nations Declaration of Human Rights” (UNDHR) in 1948; here peace was inextricably linked to the establishment of Human Rights. UNDHR noted: “Recognition of the inherent dignity and of the inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world” (United Nations 1948: Preamble).

From 1993 onwards UNESCO documents made oblique references to establishing “A Culture of Peace” whilst overt reference to this concept was made in relation to the “Declaration on the Principles of Tolerance” (UNESCO: 1995). In 1998 “A Culture of Peace” was defined more precisely with the “Proclamation of the Year 2000 as the International Year of A Culture of Peace” by the United Nations General Assembly (United Nations: 1998); later that year the Proclamation was reinforced with the development of an educational project dedicated to this theme (UNESCO: 1998b). Preparation for the “International Year of A Culture of Peace,” was completed with the adoption of the “Declaration on A Culture of Peace” (United Nations: 1999)

The Declaration defined “A Culture of Peace” as:

The set of values, attitudes and traditions, modes of behaviour and ways of life that reflect and inspire,

- a) Respect for life, for human beings and their rights
- b) Rejection of violence in all its forms
- c) Recognition of the equal rights and opportunities of women and men
- d) Recognition of the right of everyone to freedom of expression, opinion and information

- e) Attachment to the principles of democracy, freedom, justice, tolerance, solidarity, pluralism, acceptance of differences and understanding between nations, between ethnic, religious, cultural and other groups, and between individuals
- f) Commitment to a caring society which protects the rights of those who are weak through sustained, long-term action for human centred, mutually supportive development
- g) Recognition of the importance of equitably meeting the developmental and environmental needs of present and future generations.

(UNESCO 1999: Article 49)

In accordance with universal values identified by the United Nations Charter and the UNESCO Constitution “A Culture of Peace” was specifically linked to the recognition and practice of Human Rights. Democracy was of central importance in the maintenance of peace (UNESCO 1999: Article 49e) as was “tolerance” of human diversity (UNESCO 1999: Article 49e). Of particular interest was the emphasis placed on the concept of development reflected in the lines “....action for human-centred, mutually supportive human development” (UNESCO 1999: Article 49f) and “the importance of equitably meeting the developmental and environmental needs of present and future generations” (UNESCO 1999: Article 49g). These lines clearly resonated with the “Proclamation on the World Decade for Cultural Development 1988-1997” (United Nations: 1986) which detailed how societies could best utilise their cultural and natural resources to alleviate human poverty, develop Human Rights and maintain peace (see Chapter 3.17).

The “UNESCO Transdisciplinary Project: Towards A Culture of Peace” (UNESCO: 1998) detailed the most effective educational approach for peace education; here clear links were made with the Project Method of education as detailed by the 1974 Recommendation and the Delors Report (see Chapter 3.8 and 3.9). The Project stated that students should be encouraged to research contemporary moral and ethical issues and to carry out their own related research (UNESCO 1998: para 4). In addition students should be encouraged to work in groups and to develop listening and negotiation skills (UNESCO 1998: para 6). In addition the school itself

should reflect those democratic principles developed in the classroom thus emphasis was placed on the establishment of staff student committees and school councils:

The student must be at the centre as the main actor in the establishment of a culture of peace and non-violence in schools. For this reason the primary objective of the school must emphasise not only the traditional goals of the achievement of specific knowledge and skills but also the development and practice of the social relations which characterise this culture.....the education process should involve students and teachers in an active learning/teaching relationship. The principles and practices of peace and non-violence should be integrated into every aspect of the curriculum, pedagogy and activities including the very organisational and decision making structure of the educational institution. These include cooperative learning, dialogue, intercultural understanding and mediation and conflict resolution strategies.

(UNESCO 1998: para 2)

3.15 Developing the themes of “Human Rights” and “Democracy” in Associated Schools 1993 to 1998

The second project theme outlined in the “ASP (net) Strategy and Plan of Action 1994 to 2000” (ASP net 1993: Annex IX) was Human Rights. Human Rights were referenced by both the United Nations Charter and the UNESCO Constitution whilst the adoption of UNDHR (United Nations: 1948) constituted a landmark in the history of the United Nations (Pol Droit: 2005).

UNDHR helped define those universal values associated with the United Nations and formed the moral basis of all subsequent legislation. The “UNESCO Manual for Human Rights Education” (UNESCO: 1998) defined Human Rights as:

Rights which of and by themselves demonstrate universal values such as individual freedom, justice and equality for all. They are rights which express the principles and values whereby members of the human community are able to live together, settle

conflicts between individuals and regulate social life; in short they are the essential elements of “A Culture of Peace.”

(UNESCO 1998:7)

Human Rights were universal in nature applying to all peoples regardless of race, religion or nationality, “all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood (United Nations 1948: Article 1). Member States were invited to adopt UNDHR as the basis of all foreign and domestic legislation. Whilst signatories to UNDHR were not bound by its statutes (in contrast to UNCRC) UNDHR received near unanimous support imbuing this legislation with great moral authority (Pol Droit: 2005).

Human Rights constituted the moral basis of the United Nations and the Charter of the United Nations invited Member States to, “reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small” (United Nations 1945: Preamble). In addition, “promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms” (United Nations 1945: Article 1) was listed as a key purpose of the United Nations. Human Rights were similarly reinforced by the Constitution of UNESCO which identified, “the furthering of universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for human rights and fundamental freedoms” (UNESCO 1945: Preamble) as key aims.

Just as education played a seminal role in conveying the concept of peace so education was of fundamental importance in conveying the concept of Human Rights; UNDHR required:

All Member States to publicise the text of the Declaration and cause it to be disseminated, displayed, read and expounded principally in schools and other educational institutions.

(United Nations 1948: Preamble)

With specific reference to children’s rights and child education UNDHR was supported by the “United Nations Charter on Rights of the Child” or UNCRC (United Nations: 1989). Presented

as a Charter for Member States, UNCRC was endowed with legal authority not granted to UNDHR (Pol Droit 2005). UNCRC specified rights applicable to citizens aged 18 or below with all Member States invited to incorporate this Convention into domestic legislation (see Chapter 5.10).

Of particular relevance were Articles 28 and 29 of UNCRC which defined the educational entitlement of children and included the following provisions:

1. States Parties recognise the right of the child to education and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall:
 - a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all
 - b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them accessible to every child and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need.

(United Nations 1989: Article 28)

Whilst Article 28 of UNCRC specified children's rights *to* education Article 29 of UNCRC specified children's rights *through* education:

States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:

- a) The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential
- b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations

- c) The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate and for civilizations different from his or her own
- d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin
- e) The development of respect for the natural environment.

(United Nations 1989: Article 29)

The details of UNCRC Article 29 correlated closely with those of the 1974 Recommendation and specified the minimum content for all educational syllabuses; Article 29 also detailed the educational approach to be adopted by schools. UNCRC maintained that children could not be schooled in democratic principles using didactic teaching methods; democratic skills could only be nurtured through pupil-teacher interaction and structured debate, thus "the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society" (United Nations 1989: Article 29d) necessitated that schools adopt a child-centred approach to learning.

The successful development of education for Human Rights in schools was intimately linked to the introduction of the Project Method. Skills associated with the Project Method such as the ability to construct questions, the ability to evaluate evidence and the ability to engage in structured debate were of central importance to the development of democratic principles in schools (Mayer-Bisch 1995: 13). In consequence child-centred approaches to education were often referred to as "democratic methods of teaching and learning" (Mayer-Bisch 1995: 29).

For UNESCO the concepts of education and democratic practice were inextricably linked; in turn these concepts were closely associated with the development of peace and Human Rights. In recognition of this fact the 44th Session of ICE in 1995 was dedicated to "Education for Peace,

Human Rights and Democracy” (UNESCO: 1995). The IBE drafted an associated “Framework of Action” which noted:

Teaching and learning methods, forms of action and institutional policy lines have to make peace, human rights and democracy both a matter of daily practice and something that is learned. With regard to methods, the use of active methods, group work, the discussion of moral issues and personalised teaching should be encouraged. As for institutional policy lines, efficient forms of management and participation must promote the implementation of democratic school management involving teachers, pupils, parents and the local community.

(IBE 1995:20)

The IBE proposed that the principles of democratic teaching and learning should be extended beyond the classroom and applied to the management of the school itself. Students needed to be aware of problems related to their education and welfare and be involved in consultations. The identification of such problems and the discussion of possible solutions were an integral part of the learning process.

Suggestions made by the “Framework of Action” above were reflected in the Delors Report (Delors: 1996). The Delors Report identified the second pillar of education as “learning to do;” this term referred to a host of skills including those associated with democratic practice, the report noted:

The aim is not to teach precepts as rigid rules which could slide towards indoctrination but to make school a model of democratic practice so that children can understand on the basis of practical problems what their rights and duties are...learning democracy in schools could be reinforced by drawing up charters for the school community and by introducing a school’s council.

(Delors 1996: 62)

The “Framework for Action” (IBE: 1995) had addressed the development of democratic education in relation to Human Rights education, the IBE believed however that Human Rights education *per se* needed to be given a much higher profile. Their proposal was that a “Decade for Human Rights Education” be instituted; a plan of action was drafted and submitted for approval by the General Assembly of the United Nations. The plan was approved and the “Decade for Human Rights Education 1995-2004” was duly inaugurated.

In accordance with UNDHR, UNCRC and the 1974 Recommendation the “Plan of Action for the Decade of Human Rights Education 1995-2004” (IBE: 1995) defined the objectives of Human Rights education as follows:

For the purpose of the Decade, human rights education shall be defined as education to create a universal culture of human rights. Educational projects shall all develop the following knowledge, attitudes and skills:

- a) The strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms
- b) The full development of the human personality and a sense of dignity
- c) The promotion of understanding, gender equality and friendship among all nations, indigenous peoples and racial, national, ethnic, religious and linguistic groups
- d) The enabling of all persons to participate effectively in a free society
- e) The furtherance of the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

(IBE 1995: Article 2)

Most importantly this Plan of Action ensured that the educational objectives detailed above applied to all new educational projects drafted for the period 1995 to 2004 including Young Hands.

3.16 Developing the theme of “Intercultural Learning” in Associated Schools 1993 to 1998

Intercultural learning was the third project theme detailed by the “ASP (net) Strategy and Plan of Action 1994 to 2000” (ASP net 1993: Annex IX).

The theme of “intercultural learning” was central to the aims and values of the United Nations. The Associated Schools magazine was first published under the title “Intercultural Learning” whilst the 1974 Recommendation had detailed intercultural learning as an important study theme for Associated Schools (UNESCO 1974: Article 8).

Since its foundation the United Nations had emphasised the importance of human diversity and had promoted the role of education in constructing peaceful relations between nations; the opening lines of the United Nations Charter stated, “the wide diffusion of culture and the education of humanity for justice, liberty and peace are indispensable to the dignity of man and constitute a sacred duty” (United Nations 1945: Preamble). Similarly the UNESCO Constitution stated that an appreciation of the cultural differences of other nations was essential to the maintenance of peace (UNESCO 1945: Preamble). A willingness to embrace such differences and to learn from them was fundamental to the development of society whilst the rejection of such principles led invariably to conflict:

Ignorance of each others ways and lives has been a common cause, throughout the history of mankind, of that suspicion and mistrust between the peoples of the world through which their differences have all too often broken into war.

(UNESCO 1945: Preamble)

So fundamental was this need to recognise and accept the cultural identity of others that this concept was codified within both UNDHR and UNCRC. UNCRC stated that educational projects should reinforce the cultural identity of all students and foster:

respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values; for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate and for civilizations different from his or her own.

(United Nations 1989: Article 29c)

Despite such efforts it was recognised that the dynamics of globalisation had led to tension in many Member States. In recognition of the tensions caused by globalisation the Director General of UNESCO, Federico Mayor, convened a "World Commission on Culture and Development" (UNESCO: 1993). The Commission's findings were published three years later in a volume entitled, "Our Creative Diversity" (World Commission on Culture and Development: 1996).

Whilst the Commission recognised the dangers posed by the rapid expansion of culturally diverse communities they stressed the benefits that could be gained as a result of this expansion. Cultural diversity could be viewed as a valuable resource, a databank of information that could be drawn on as needed. This store of information could be used in addressing the problems of modern society (World Commission on Culture and Development 1996: 24). Creative thinking, argued the Commission, was a result of synthesising different experiences and contrasting viewpoints; these differing perspectives, if correlated correctly, constituted a well spring of creative genius. The Commission advised:

A multicultural country can reap great benefits from its pluralism but also runs the risks of cultural conflict. The basic principle should be the fostering of respect for all cultures whose values are tolerant of others. Respect goes beyond tolerance and implies a positive attitude to other people and a rejoicing in their culture. Social peace is necessary for human development; in return it requires that differences between cultures can be regarded not as something alien and unacceptable or hateful, but as experiments in ways of living together that contain valuable lessons and information for all.

(World Commission on Culture and Development 1996: 25)

3.17 Developing the theme of “Concern for the Environment” in Associated Schools 1993 to 1998

The fourth project theme detailed by the “ASP (net) Strategy and Plan of Action 1994 to 2000” (ASP net 1993: Annex IX) was “Environmental Concerns.” Whilst project themes generally displayed a remarkable degree of continuity no reference was made to environmental conservation prior to the “United Nations Conference on the Human Environment” convened in Stockholm in 1972 (United Nations: 1972). Indeed it was not until this Conference that clear philosophical links between conservation of the natural environment and protection of the human environment were established (see Chapter 3.10).

The importance of environmental education was acknowledged by the “Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment” (United Nations: 1972). Here, for the first time, emphasis was placed on the symbiotic relationship between the natural environment and the human environment; settlement patterns and modes of subsistence were primarily dictated by the natural environment. However, just as the natural environment influenced human settlement so the natural environment could be engineered by humans to their advantage; watercourses were diverted, barren land was irrigated and plant and animal species were cultivated and farmed:

Man is both the creator and moulder of his environment which gives him physical sustenance and affords him the opportunity for intellectual, moral, social and spiritual growth.....man has acquired the power to transform his environment in countless ways and on an unprecedented scale. Both aspects of man’s environment, the natural and the man made are essential to his well being and to the enjoyment of basic human rights and the right to life itself.

(United Nations 1972: Article 1)

The human environment and the natural environment were now viewed as co-dependent. Natural resources should be exploited by man to sustain strong, well ordered communities. Such

communities evolved into sophisticated societies that recognised and celebrated Human Rights. Weak, impoverished communities offered no such security and could do little to promote Human Rights. It followed that over exploitation of natural resources threatened the stability of society, basic Human Rights were jeopardized and international peace and security was undermined; in consequence the Declaration stated:

Man has a special responsibility to safeguard and wisely manage the heritage of wildlife and its habitat, which are now gravely imperilled by a combination of adverse factors. Nature conservation, including wildlife, must therefore receive importance in planning for economic development.

(United Nations 1972: Article 4)

Following the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment UNESCO invited signatories to the “Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage” (UNESCO: 1972). The 1972 Convention also emphasised the importance of conserving both the natural heritage and the cultural heritage of mankind. Later “Operational Guidelines” supporting the 1972 Convention stated:

The cultural heritage and the natural heritage are among the priceless and irreplaceable possessions, not only of each nation, but of mankind as a whole. The loss, through deterioration or disappearance, of any of these most prized possessions constitutes an impoverishment of the heritage of all the peoples in the world. Parts of that heritage, because of their exceptional qualities, can be considered to be of outstanding universal value and as such worthy of special protection against the dangers which increasingly threaten them.

(UNESCO: 1997)

Such academic interest in environmental conservation was illustrated by the requirement that environmental education be introduced to schools. Article 27 of the 1972 Convention required that Member States emphasise the importance of cultural and natural heritage through the

implementation of educational projects (UNESCO 1972: Article 27). Noting both the “Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment” (United Nations 1972) and the 1972 Convention (UNESCO: 1972) the 1974 Recommendation proposed “environmental education” as a project theme for Associated Schools (UNESCO 1974: Article 8).

The first UNESCO conference on environmental education was held at Tbilisi, Georgia, concluding with, “The Tbilisi Declaration: Final Report Intergovernmental Conference on Environmental Education” (UNESCO-UNEP: 1977). The Tbilisi Declaration defined environmental education in terms of essential “knowledge”, “attitudes” and “skills” and provided a list of guiding principles for the planning of suitable educational projects (UNESCO-UNEP 1977: Part II).

The “Guiding Principles of the Tbilisi Declaration” (UNESCO-UNEP 1977: Part II) emphasised the importance of the Project Method in introducing environmental education to schools. Students were encouraged to take part in field studies and to construct their own enquiry questions. Students identified a range of concerns relating to environmental protection; they assimilated data to investigate these problems further and presented their findings to teachers and fellow students. In common with similar projects developed by UNESCO students were encouraged to address local environmental problems before adopting a wider national or global perspective, “a particular emphasis should be placed on environmental sensitivity to the learner’s own community in early years...” (UNESCO-UNEP 1977: Part II).

In 1987 UNESCO published the findings of the Brundtland Committee in a report entitled, “Our Common Future” (World Commission on the Environment and Development: 1987). This report detailed a range of concerns confronting those charged with environmental conservation; of greatest concern was the ability to balance the developmental needs of the human population with conservation of the natural environment. The Brundtland Committee identified “sustainable development” as a means of achieving an equitable balance; this was defined as, “development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the needs of future generations to

meet their own needs” (World Commission on the Environment and Development 1987: para 60).

The concept of sustainable development was new and unfamiliar. In recognition of this fact the Brundtland Committee suggested that educational projects should be developed promoting both environmental education and sustainable development; the report concluded:

Most people base their understanding of environmental processes and development on traditional beliefs or on information provided by a conventional education. Many thus remain ignorant about ways in which they could improve traditional production practices and better protect the natural resource base. Education should therefore provide comprehensive knowledge encompassing and cutting across the social and natural sciences and the humanities thus providing insights on the interaction between natural and human resources, between development and the environment.

(World Commission on the Environment and Development 1987: para 67)

In common with documents cited above the Brundtland Committee identified education as an important means of promoting environmental concerns. With particular reference to the 1977 Tbilisi Declaration and the 1974 Recommendation, “Our Common Future” identified the need for environmental education to cut across traditional subject divides; environmental problems required the application of skills derived from a range of different disciplines.

To further these aims a research seminar was held at Lillehammer, Norway, in 1989, hosted by the Norwegian Commission for UNESCO. The resulting report entitled, “European Environmental Education for Our Common Future” (UNESCO: 1989) concurred with the recommendations of Brundtland Committee noting:

One of the most important methods identified by the seminar participants is the interdisciplinary Project Method. This should be the basic teaching method if the goals of holistic understanding and change of attitudes through participation are to be achieved. Many schools and projects have worked together to develop this method.....policy

changes should be made so that interdisciplinary, project orientated environmental education can become a permanent part of the curriculum.

(UNESCO 1989: Para 26)

Once again the Project Method had been identified as the most suitable educational approach for developing environmental education.

Whilst the ASP (net) “Strategy and Plan of Action 1994 to 2000” (ASP net: 1993) gave no guidance for schools wishing to develop projects on the theme “Concern for the Environment” later documentation specified that students should familiarise themselves with the “United Nations Conference on the Environment and Development” or UNCED (United Nations: 1992a) and “Agenda 21” (United Nations: 1992b).

Delegates at UNCED were signatories to the “Rio Declaration on the Environment and Development” (United Nations 1992a); this Declaration addressed the dichotomy first identified by the Brundtland Committee between the need for human development and the need for environmental protection. The Declaration acknowledged the importance of sustainable development, “human beings are at the centre of concerns for sustainable development. They are entitled to a healthy and productive life in harmony with nature” (United Nations 1992a: Principle 1).

Recommendations arising from UNCED were published under the collective title, “Agenda 21.” Agenda 21 stated that sustainable development should be widely promoted and that educational projects provided an ideal vehicle. Once again, with reference to the Brundtland Committee, the importance of education was emphasised:

Education should be recognised as a process by which human beings and societies can reach their fullest potential. Education is critical to promoting sustainable development and improving the capacity of people to address environmental and development issues.

Both formal and non-formal education is indispensable to changing people's attitudes so that they have the capacity to assess and address their sustainable development concerns.

(United Nations 1992b: Article 36.3)

3.18 Developing the theme of "Economic Development" in Associated Schools 1993 to 1998

Whilst "economic development" was not identified as a separate project theme for Associated Schools guidance notes made specific reference to this concept (ASP net:1993: Annex IX). Publication of "Our Common Future" (World Commission on Environment and Development: 1987) together with the "United Nations Declaration on the Environment and Development" (United Nations 1992a) and "Agenda 21" (United Nations: 1992b) had focused on balancing conservation of the natural environment alongside the economic needs of people. Further stimulation was needed however if the relationship between cultural heritage and economic development was to be fully explored. The "World Decade for Cultural Development 1988-1997" (UNESCO: 1988) aimed to redress this balance.

UNESCO responded by publishing the "Strategy and Plan of Action for the Decade of Cultural Development" (UNESCO: 1990). This Strategy stated that schools should introduce projects which promoted both cultural and natural heritage (UNESCO 1990: 11). As well as exploring themes related to conservation such as planning, natural erosion and mass tourism these projects should examine the potential of heritage sites to contribute to the economic development of Member States (UNESCO 1990:11). Cultural tourism was cited as one important way in which cultural heritage might contribute to the economic development of an area; related educational projects should, "encourage the development of cultural tourism and exchanges which safeguard and enhance existing cultures" (UNESCO1990: 11).

The concept of cultural tourism, as cited by the "Strategy and Plan of Action for the Decade of Cultural Development", had a great bearing on recommendations forwarded by the World Tourism Organisation; "The Hague Declaration on Tourism" (World Tourism Organisation:

Tourism is fast becoming the biggest industry in the world and cultural heritage provides most of its lifeblood. The burgeoning of a symbiotic relationship between the two is apparent everywhere.....

(World Commission on Culture and Development 1996: 185)

The Commission did however sound a note of caution. For the aspirations of “The Hague Declaration on Tourism” to be realised tourism needed to be regulated in an appropriate manner:

The Commission is concerned that cultural heritage does not become an exclusive commodity to serve tourism (and is degraded and despoiled in the process) but is brought into a mutually supportive relationship with it. The limits to the carrying capacity of monuments and city centres have already been pointed out by observers. And, just as excessive numbers of visitors have had deleterious effects on the state of conservation, and the social environmental fabric of many sites, so too tourism itself has been adversely affected in city centres plagued by decaying housing stock, uncontrolled traffic and air pollution.

(World Commission on Culture and Development 1996: 185)

The Commission was concerned that in the past tourism had not been appropriately regulated. The Commission noted examples where unrestrained, mass tourism had adversely affected cultural heritage sites. Simply providing the facilities needed to cater for large tourist numbers could ruin the ambience of a prized cultural site. The indiscrete location of toilets, car parks, fast food outlets and amenities for children could all detract from the desired experience. In addition the erosion of footpaths and problems caused by traffic pollution and overcrowding might mean that the potential value of a site, as a source of tourist revenue, was diminished.

The Commission expressed concern that the conservation of numerous heritage sites was effectively unregulated. The 1972 Convention defined natural and cultural sites constituting “outstanding universal value” however a focus on “standing monuments” had led to a disparity

in listing sites associated with pre-industrial societies; it was here that mass tourism posed the greatest danger:

The situation is illustrated by UNESCO's 1972 Convention. This instrument applies only to immovables and was conceived, supported and nurtured by the industrially developed societies, reflecting concern for a particular type of heritage that was highly valued in those countries. The World Heritage List reflects a framework which is not really appropriate for the kinds of heritage most common in regions where cultural energies have been concentrated in other forms of expression such as artefacts, dance or oral traditions.

(World Commission on Culture and Development 1996: 178)

To determine the positive and negative effects of tourism on cultural heritage sites UNESCO convened a roundtable panel of experts in 1996; findings were published under the title, "Culture, Tourism and Development: Crucial Issues for the XXI Century" (UNESCO: 1996). Here the concept of "carrying capacity" for cultural sites was explored:

When considering tolerable levels of cultural adaptation in a host country the concept of carrying capacity (or tipping point) is useful for describing the critical level of cultural impact that the host society can sustain. One factor effecting carrying capacity is the population size in relation to tourist flows. Another factor lies in the degree to which the host society is involved and participates in the reception of tourists, exchanges and the economic and social spin offs which will determine its degree of satisfaction or of frustration vis-a-vis the visitors.

(UNESCO 1996: 22)

From the above the contribution of cultural heritage to the economic development of Member States had fast become a matter for debate. Roundtable discussions concluded that, if properly regulated, the beneficial effects of cultural tourism far outweighed any adverse reaction; regulation must however be extended to include intangible cultural heritage. Above all the panel

of experts concurred with the “Hague Declaration on Tourism” that education should play a vital part in sensitizing young people to the concept of cultural tourism.

Chapter Three has identified the key aims and universal values which underpinned the actions of UNESCO for the period 1993 to 2000. A tentative list of these aims and values might include: promoting constructivist approaches to education, promoting peaceful international relations, reinforcing Human Rights, promoting cultural tourism and the economy of “host communities”, and promoting a concern for the natural environment. These aims and values were to be addressed by ASP (net) and incorporated into all educational projects published by UNESCO. Chapter Four now details the drafting of Young Hands demonstrating how these universal values informed the development of this syllabus.

Chapter 4: Drafting World Heritage in Young Hands

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter provides a detailed analysis of the drafting of Young Hands; emphasis is placed on the period spanning the introduction of the WHE pilot project in 1993 to publication of the experimental version of Young Hands in 1998 (UNESCO: 1998).

Using interview data obtained from the panel of experts convened to draft Young Hands and documentation retrieved from the Stone Archive (see Chapter 2.3) this Chapter identifies the key aims and values of Young Hands. The educational approach of Young Hands is analysed in detail with parallels drawn between the Project Method of education, as promoted by UNESCO, and enquiry based learning as developed by the Schools Council. Peter Stone, a member of the original UNESCO panel of experts, details the links between the Project Method of education and UK educational initiatives including the Schools Council History Project (SCHP) and curriculum development work by English Heritage Education Service (EHES).

4.2 Developing the concept of World Heritage Education at UNESCO

Breda Pavlic had held a number of high profile posts within the Culture Sector of UNESCO. Following a period of work at the WHC in Paris Pavlic was appointed Director of the Culture Sector for the Canadian National Commission for UNESCO in Quebec (Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008).

As Director of the Culture Sector in Quebec, Pavlic was required to coordinate implementation of the 1972 Convention in her region. Pavlic's duties included supervising the drafting of a Tentative List of properties for submission to the WHC (see Chapter 3.11) and monitoring site conservation work. These duties required Pavlic to convene regular regional meetings of ICOMOS and IUCN representatives (see Chapter 3.11). Pavlic noted one recurrent theme to these meetings. Experts regularly highlighted the problems they encountered in communicating

their work to a wider audience; enabling the general public to understand the importance of conservation work presented ICOMOS and IUCN with the most acute difficulties (Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008).

Pavlic suggested that the solution to these problems lay in educating the general public and that heritage education should be introduced into schools (Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008). Young people should be engaged in projects which enabled them to develop the knowledge, attitudes and skills associated with conservation work. Pavlic believed that adopting such an approach would have a most dramatic impact and she was pleased to note that her enthusiasm was shared by ICOMOS and IUCN staff in Canada.

Pavlic believed her proposals to be politically astute and that they would gain the support of the Director General of UNESCO:

The Director General, Frederico Mayor, had done a great deal to promote the role of the Culture Sector and had taken an active interest in promoting the 1972 Convention; indeed the Director General himself had helped establish the World Heritage Centre in Paris. My suggestion that WHE might be used to support Article 27 of the 1972 Convention should have proved popular.

(Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008)

In addition to promoting the 1972 Convention and the work of the WHC Pavlic's proposal had far broader appeal:

UNESCO was the lead agency for the United Nations World Decade for Cultural Development 1988-1997. UNESCO had recently convened a World Commission on Culture and Development and documents emphasising the importance of educational projects had been circulated throughout National Commissions. Whilst the World Commission was not due to publish findings for some time progress reports suggested educational projects favouring cultural diversity would be strongly recommended.

(Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008)

Pavlic faxed her proposals for a WHE project to the Director General of UNESCO, Frederico Mayor, and to the Director of WHC, Bernd von Droste. As expected Pavlic's proposals were welcomed. Von Drost acknowledged the need to address Article 27 of the 1972 Convention and Mayor was delighted by the Culture Sector's innovative response to the "Decade for Cultural Development" (UNESCO: 1990). The Director General did however sound a note of caution. Two separate commissions had recently been established namely, the "World Commission for Culture and Development" (UNESCO: 1993) and the "Commission for Learning in the XXI Century" (see Chapter 3.9). These commissions required ongoing financial support and the fiscal strategy for 1994-1996 had already been approved by UNESCO General Assembly; no money was available to fund Pavlic's educational proposals (Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008).

WHE had received verbal support but to obtain financial backing Pavlic needed to return to UNESCO Headquarters in Paris (Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008). Pavlic needed to communicate directly with both the Education Sector and WHC and would need to relinquish her position in Quebec (Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008). Pavlic's opportunity to realise these ambitions came sooner than expected. Late in 1993 Pavlic was invited to take up the post of Deputy Director of the WHC in Paris.

Elisabeth Khawajkie was ASP (net) coordinator at UNESCO, Paris. The role of ASP (net) was to promote the aims and values of UNESCO (see Chapter 3.5). ASP (net) achieved this objective through promoting the Project Method of education to Associated Schools; ASP (net) also provided guidance on project themes as well as providing a range of dedicated resources for Associated Schools. The "Decade for Cultural Development 1988-1997" had been extensively promoted and Associated Schools had been asked to respond accordingly. "Intercultural learning" had been promoted as a project theme for the period 1994 to 2000 (ASP net 1993) and schools were invited to explore this theme by studying WHSs, Khawajkie noted however:

ASP (net) encourages students to study other countries and cultures however schools had made very little mention of WHSs. It seemed to me that the time had come to work on

world heritage promotion and conservation. One day I called WHC and spoke with Breda Pavlic....

(Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008)

In 1994 Khawajkie telephoned the WHC and described her concerns regarding the use of WHSs to Pavlic; Pavlic responded by outlining her plans for WHE. Pavlic explained that a number of schools had shown an interest in her proposals but help was needed to progress matters further. Khawajkie proposed that WHE be developed as a joint enterprise between ASP (net) and the WHC. This arrangement enabled ASP (net) to draw on the knowledge of conservation experts at the WHC; matters relating to environmental conservation, the conservation of standing monuments, the functions of the WHC and the functions of the 1972 Convention could all be addressed by dedicated experts (see Chapter 3.11). Similarly WHC could draw upon the educational expertise of ASP (net) and the IBE (see Chapter 3.4-3.5). A clear educational approach was defined for WHE and a pilot project termed, “Young People’s Participation in World Heritage Preservation and Promotion” was introduced (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008).

In 1994 Khawajkie and Pavlic put together packs of information outlining the functions of the 1972 Convention and detailing conservation efforts at WHSs. These packs formed the basis of, “Young People’s Participation in World Heritage Preservation and Promotion” and were forwarded to schools that requested resources. Initially pilot projects were produced by schools in 16 Member States and Khawajkie and Pavlic arranged that, where possible, students receive practical training in conservation work (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008).

This pilot phase of WHE was an immediate success but the need for further professional expertise and private funding soon became apparent; Khawajkie suggested that the Norwegian National Commission for UNESCO might be interested in supporting WHE and contacted the Deputy Secretary General, Ingunn Kvisteroy:

Elisabeth was invited to attend the “Culture of Peace Youth Forum” that took place in Lillehammer in 1994. Here she mentioned to the Norwegian National Commission for

UNESCO, who were hosting the event, that she and Breda Pavlic were developing a WHE Project. Elisabeth further suggested that WHE could be linked most effectively to a Culture of Peace; delegates attending the meeting agreed and supported this proposal. (Kvisteroy *pers. comm.* 25 November 2008).

The Norwegian National Commission for UNESCO had supported Khawajkie's proposals for WHE and Kvisteroy now approached the Norwegian Commission's governmental funding agency, the "Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation" (NORAD). NORAD noted the potential of WHE in furthering the universal values of "peace" and "international relations" and offered their financial support (Kvisteroy *pers. comm.* 25 November 2008).

NORAD agreed to host the "First World Heritage Youth Forum" in Bergen and to fund the translation of existing educational materials. Having secured independent financial backing for WHE Khawajkie now approached Rhone-Poulenc for further funding. Rhone-Poulenc was a chemical and pharmaceutical company with an interest in promoting their own environmental credentials (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008). Collaborating with UNESCO to promote environmental education was a valuable public relations exercise for Rhone-Poulenc and they agreed to fund WHE projects in a further nine Member States; this brought the total number of Associated Schools involved in WHE to 170 (ASP net 1995: 1). In addition Rhone-Poulenc agreed to fund publication of a teacher's resource kit for WHE. Private funding had now been secured for WHE and the prospect of a dedicated resource kit raised the possibility of WHE developing as an ASP (net) project (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008).

4.3 The First World Heritage Youth Forum, Bergen

On the 24 June 1995 the "First World Heritage Youth Forum" (WHYF) was convened in Bergen by the Norwegian National Commission for UNESCO and UNESCO Headquarters. Representatives from all 25 participating Member States were present together with representatives from NORAD, Rhone-Poulenc and the Secretary General of UNESCO, Frederico Mayor (ASP net: 1995). To raise the profile of this event still further this WHYF had been timed

to coincide with the General Assembly of the “Organisation for World Heritage Cities” (OWHC); city mayors attending OWHC were invited to address the WHYF (ASP net: 1995).

The participation of OWHC delegates served a number of purposes. Discussions at OWHC had focused on addressing the aims of the “Decade for Cultural Development 1988-1997” (see Chapter 3.18). Delegates had used the OWHC General Assembly to develop strategies related to cultural tourism; the WHYF now presented OWHC with another pertinent theme, that of education:

The question of tourism was debated throughout the Forum and in special working groups. Students agreed that tourism can have a positive impact by providing foreign currency, jobs and furthering international understanding. However they were also conscious of some of the less positive or even negative aspects of tourism with regard to heritage preservation. Mass tourism can lead to deterioration, littering and the over commercialization of sites.

(ASP net 1995:4)

Students were given the opportunity to debate issues relating to cultural tourism for themselves. They noted the importance of cultural tourism to Member States and the role that young people should play in such developments:

Students suggested strongly the need for a new type of tourism, particularly cultural tourism which would enable visitors to get a better insight regarding the customs, traditions, values and heritage of a country and create a link between individual sites and universal heritage. Students felt they were well placed to introduce these new forms of tourism. During school holidays they could act as guides and provide explanations regarding the significance of the site to past generations and the relevance of the site to current generations.

(ASP net1995:11)

The “Plan of Action for the Decade on Cultural Development 1988-1997” (UNESCO: 1990) advocated that educational projects emphasise links between economic development and cultural development (UNESCO 1990: 11). Discussions at the Bergen WHYF addressed these aims and provided valuable reference material for Young Hands. “World Heritage and Tourism” was eventually developed as a cross-curricular theme for Young Hands whilst educational objectives encouraged students to act as tourist guides (UNESCO: 1998).

The presence of OWHC delegates at the Bergen WHYF also impacted on the development of another WHE theme, “World Heritage and a Culture of Peace.” Civil war had ravaged parts of Central Europe; the Nation State of Yugoslavia had been dissolved and in its place stood three culturally separate areas: Bosnia, Serbia and Croatia. Conflict had been marked by attempts at ethnic cleansing and cultural annihilation. Caught in the midst of this conflict was the World Heritage City of Dubrovnik. Appeals by the United Nations and UNESCO had done nothing to diminish the devastation inflicted on Dubrovnik and the Norwegian Minister for Culture emphasised the plight of this World Heritage City in her opening speech:

In today’s world we are faced with another reality; even sites included in UNESCO’s List of World Heritage Sites in Danger are not secure from intended damage. War is waged against people and their sites and monuments. The fate of Dubrovnik will be a sad reminder even as we enjoy this Forum. Peace is necessary if we shall secure a future for the present.

(ASP net 1995: Annex IV)

Both NORAD and the Norwegian National Commission for UNESCO had indicated their interest in developing the theme of peace in relation to WHE (Kvisteroy *pers. comm.* 25 November 2008). Appeals by Dubrovnik were obviously pertinent to this theme and an offer by the Mayor of Dubrovnik to host the “First European World Heritage Youth Forum” was eagerly accepted by delegates (ASP net 1995: 23).

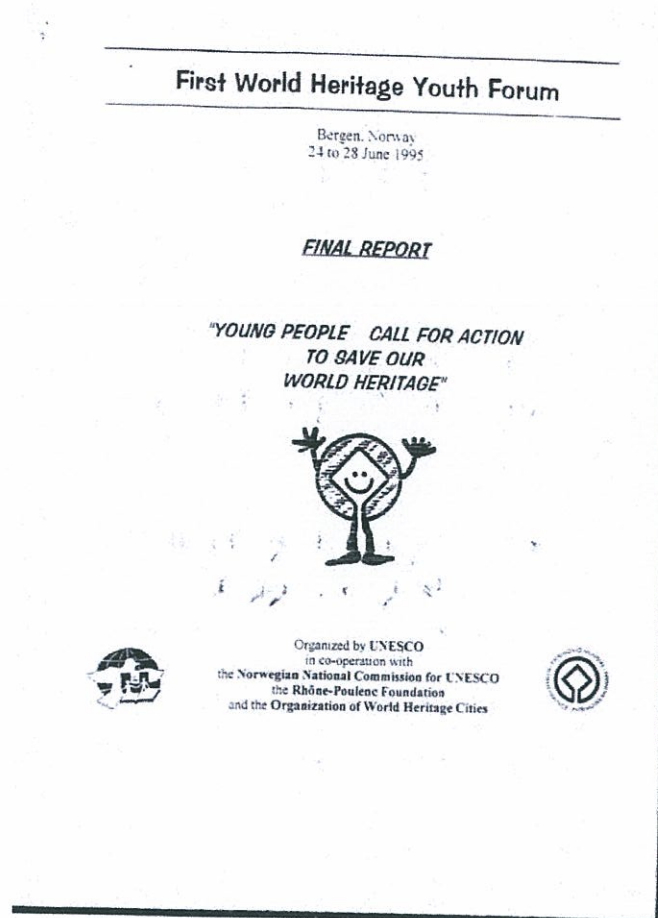


Figure 4.1 Report from the First World Heritage Youth Forum, Bergen. Source: Stone Archive.

Once keynote speeches at Bergen had been delivered and conference themes had been introduced representatives from Associated Schools were invited to detail their WHE pilot projects. These projects had been inspired by the "Decade for Cultural Development 1988-1997" (UNESCO: 1990) and had been resourced by Khawajkie and Pavlic (see Chapter 4.2). Clearly many Associated Schools had invested a great deal of time and effort developing WHE projects:

Many teachers in planning their projects organised fieldtrips to the sites, these proved to be memorable and moving moments for the students. Having studied a site in depth young people often regarded the site with renewed awe, wonder and respect. In some cases e.g. the visit to the Pyramids of Egypt young people wore period costume, listened to tales of the Egyptian Gods etc. One student from Athens who visited the Acropolis as

part of her school project described goose pimples as her appreciation of the site developed.

(ASP net 1995:8)

As ASP (net) Coordinator Khawajkie made careful note of the most inspirational projects; these could be used as illustrative examples once the format of the WHE Kit had been decided (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008). Khawajkie's examples included: "World Heritage and Identity" (Egypt), "World Heritage and Conservation" (Greece), "World Heritage and Peace" (Senegal) and "World Heritage and Nature" (New Zealand); these examples were later proposed as cross-curricular themes for Young Hands (see Chapter 4.3 below).

The most captivating WHE pilot projects all employed the Project Method of education with students visiting WHSs, carrying out fieldwork and playing an active role in conservation work (see Chapter 4.4); the Bergen Youth Forum acknowledged the popularity of this educational approach:

Teachers agreed that teaching about the past often remains too theoretical. It has to come alive for young people and be made interesting for them. New approaches in the classroom are needed as well as field visits, excursions and extra-curricular activities.

(ASP net 1995:15)

Paradoxically, despite the fact that the Project Method represented the accepted educational approach of UNESCO and ASP (net) (UNESCO 1974; Delors 1996), teachers found this educational approach to WHE challenging:

Few teachers have had formal training in the field of heritage education so there is a need to introduce this to teacher training institutions. There is also a need to organise in service teacher training workshops for practising teachers from a wide range of disciplines. Such workshops could produce educational guidelines which could aid those teachers wanting to introduce world heritage education.

(ASP net 1995:15)

Problems regarding the Project Method were not confined to the Bergen WHYF - similar problems were noted at the ensuing three WHYFs (Dubrovnik, Zimbabwe and Beijing); indeed such was the concern that appeals for further teacher training were made to UNESCO. Later records show that two of Young Hand's authors were acutely aware of these problems and had attempted to establish a teacher training course dedicated to WHE; such efforts however proved impossible to implement (see Chapter 4.7).

The quality of pilot projects produced for "Young People's Participation in World Heritage Preservation and Promotion" led to calls for further resources to be made available. In particular delegates attending the Bergen WHYF requested that UNESCO produce a dedicated educational kit. Delegates debated the contents of this kit concluding that it must provide guidance on suitable education methods. In addition, the kit must provide a syllabus for WHE as well as providing reference material suitable for use in non-industrialised Member States (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008).

Rhone-Poulenc had already offered to fund publication of educational resources for WHE and UNESCO was keen to accept this offer (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008). Khawajkie believed that many of the experts needed to draft an educational Kit for WHE could be sourced within UNESCO. As the founders of WHE Khawajkie, Pavlic and Kvisteroy would be responsible for drafting the main text. Additional support was provided by the ASP (net) National Coordinator for Norway, Gerd-Hanne Fosen and a teacher from Bulgaria, Anna Gueorguieva. Finally, Rob Roney, a teacher from New Zealand who had developed WHE pilot projects on the natural environment, joined the UNESCO panel of experts (Kvisteroy *pers. comm.* 25 November 2008).

Khawajkie was aware of the reservations expressed by teachers using the Project Method and suggested that the UNESCO panel of experts be joined by a professional in heritage education sourced from outside UNESCO; Khawajkie nominated Peter Stone from EHES:

I had known Peter for some time. Peter was working for English Heritage Education Service at the time, an organisation which I held in the highest regard. I had taken part in an English Heritage event and was extremely impressed with their educational expertise; I believed English Heritage could make a real contribution to WHE.

(Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008)

Stone accepted Khawajkie's invitation and the UNESCO panel of experts was complete. Stone's work with UNESCO during this period provided English Heritage with a number of opportunities. Stone had been asked to edit a draft text for EHES entitled, "World Heritage Sites." Still in draft format this text introduced the 1972 Convention and detailed cultural heritage sites on both a national and global basis (Figure 4.3). The invitation to join the UNESCO panel of experts gave Stone the opportunity of completing this task and Stone noted that large sections of this text could be used to inform the writing of Young Hands (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009).

Khawajkie convened a series of planning meetings immediately prior to the Dubrovnik WHYF; these meetings were held to determine the framework of Young Hands and comprised: Khawajkie, Pavlic and Kvisteroy together with a representative from Rhone-Poulenc (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008). It was during these meetings that Khawajkie came to the conclusion that the concepts associated with WHE would prove too challenging for students of primary school age (a stance she later repudiated); the WHE educational kit would then be targeted at students of secondary school age (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008). It was further determined that the WHE Kit would have a section detailing the educational approach of WHE and that the syllabus itself would comprise information on the 1972 Convention and four WHE themes: "World Heritage and Identity", "World Heritage and Tourism", "World Heritage and the Environment" and "World Heritage and A Culture of Peace." These themes had been suggested at the Bergen WHYF and reflected the universal values of both UNESCO and the United Nations (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 25 November 2008):

1. World Heritage and Identity

The theme of “World Heritage and Identity” had been proposed by Associated Schools in Egypt (UNESCO Schools: 1996c). Khawajkie had been invited to attend interim reports by the “Commission for Learning in the Twenty First Century” (UNESCO: 1993); the Commission had identified “learning to be” as one pillar of education (see Chapter 3.9). “Learning to be” involved students exploring their own heritage and gaining a sense of their own identity; only by establishing a sense of their own identity could students gain respect for the identity of others (see Chapter 3.9). Self identity was an essential facet of peace education and had been profiled by the “Declaration of Principles on Tolerance” (UNESCO: 1995). As an essential element of peace education “World Heritage and Identity” was supported by both Kvisteroy and Khawajkie and would be supported by the Norwegian National Commission for UNESCO (Kvisteroy *pers. comm.* 25 November 2008).

2. World Heritage and Tourism

World Heritage and Tourism had been suggested by Associated Schools in Morocco (Kvisteroy doc 27 May 1996). The “World Decade for Cultural Development 1988-1997: Strategy for the Implementation of the Plan of Action” (UNESCO: 1990) had highlighted the need for heritage sites to contribute to the economic development of Member States (see Chapter 3.18). In addition both the Bergen WHYF and the forthcoming Dubrovnik WHYF had both been planned to coincide with meetings of OWHC (see Chapter 4.3 above); OWHC had placed great emphasis on the development of “cultural tourism” and delegates were asked to address both WHYFs (ASP net: 2005; ASP net: 2006).

3. World Heritage and the Environment

As the 1972 Convention detailed both “cultural heritage” and “natural heritage” a cross-curricular theme on the environment was deemed mandatory by Pavlic and Khawajkie; sponsors Rhone-Poulenc also endorsed this decision (Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008). The theme

“World Heritage and the Environment” had also been developed as a series of pilot projects by Associated Schools in New Zealand under the guidance of Roney (UNESCO Schools: 1996d).

4. World Heritage and A Culture of Peace

“World Heritage and Peace” had been proposed as a theme by Associated Schools in Senegal (UNESCO Schools: 1996b) and reinforced by OHWC delegates attending the Bergen WHYF (see Chapter 4.3 above). Peace had been established as a core value of UNESCO and had been given a high profile by a recent ICE entitled, “Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy” (IBE: 1995). In addition, UNESCO had published details of a forthcoming project entitled “Towards A Culture of Peace” and a Declaration on this theme had been prepared (UNESCO: 1995).

The strategy for “Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy” (IBE: 1995) had emphasised the importance of Human Rights in maintaining world peace and this was reinforced with the introduction of the “Decade for Human Rights Education 1995 to 2004” (United Nations: 1994). This initiative recommended that all educational projects address Human Rights education, this naturally included Young Hands.

The theme, “A Culture of Peace”, was supported by Pavlic, Khawajkie and Kvisteroy with Kvisteroy noting the importance of “A Culture of Peace” to the Norwegian National Commission for UNESCO (see Chapter 4.3 above).

4.4 The First European World Heritage Youth Forum

The “First European World Heritage Youth Forum” was held in May 1996. Flying into Dubrovnik Stone observed:

In retrospect it is clear why “World Heritage and A Culture of Peace” and “World Heritage and Identity” were chosen as themes for Young Hands. Dubrovnik had not had time to recover from civil war. The airport was controlled by United Nation’s troops and

military personnel were everywhere. The city itself was devastated, the local economy had collapsed and there were few signs of regeneration. Dubrovnik had relied on tourism to generate income, now this industry was ruined and it was unclear how long it would take to recover – perhaps many years.

Many buildings in this World Heritage City lay in ruins. Historic buildings such as churches, the market square and the harbour area had been targeted deliberately by shell fire. The intention had been to destroy monuments associated with particular ethnic groups within the city. Our tour provided good material for Young Hands and “World Heritage Sites” but the scene was truly dreadful.

(Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009)

In common with the Bergen WHYF the Dubrovnik WHYF had been chosen to coincide with a meeting of OHWC; once again OHWC delegates were invited to address the Forum; Simone Bernhardt, Director of Education for the Council of Europe stated:

Heritage can no longer be equated with historic monuments worthy of preservation, it has to mean cultural heritage with a wide range of social dimensions. We have moved on from built heritage to cultural landscapes, from architectural heritage to the heritage of ideas and from historic monuments to sites of significance to the collective memory. We are discovering that heritage has an economic dimension as a creator of jobs and a social dimension as a factor for integration.

(ASP net 1996: 13)

These words brought into stark relief the plight of Dubrovnik and the importance of WHE. Here lack of education and ignorance of the cultural traditions of others had led to hatred and civil war. Buildings of cultural significance had been targeted simply because of their cultural value. Now, despite the efforts of UNESCO, the economy of Dubrovnik lay in ruins. Civil war had destroyed the most valuable economic resource of the city, its cultural heritage, and with it went the livelihood of many of its citizens (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009).

Kvisteroy had been appointed European Coordinator for “Young People’s Participation in World Heritage Preservation and Promotion” and it fell to her to announce the framework of the proposed WHE Kit. In a short address Kvisteroy described the planning meetings which had taken place immediately prior to the Dubrovnik WHYF. Young Hands, it was announced, would contain guidance on the Project Method and suggestions for suitable educational activities. Young Hands would contain resources for use in industrialised and non-industrialised Member States including a map of WHSs, laminated photographs, a copy of the 1972 Convention and a world heritage CD-ROM. (Kvisteroy *pers. comm.* 25 November 2008). Finally the four World Heritage themes for Young Hands were revealed:

UNESCO is in the process of preparing, in collaboration with experts, a multi media world heritage kit. It is designed to provide classroom teachers with information on this new concept and practical teaching suggestions. The kit will provide such topics as the World Heritage Convention, World Heritage and Identity, World Heritage and Tourism, World Heritage and the Environment etc. It will provide ideas on how to organise effective field trips to World Heritage Sites and visits to museums and other places of interest. It will also contain useful resource material for everyone ranging from low tech teaching aids such as a World Heritage Map, brief descriptions of World Heritage Sites and laminated photos to high tech material such as a CD-ROM and video. The kit is expected to be produced early in 1997 and to be distributed on an experimental basis throughout Associated Schools.

(ASP net 1996: 14)

The rest of Kvisteroy’s address presented a personal vision of what the forthcoming WHE Kit might look like. Kvisteroy entitled her WHE Kit, “The Treasury for the Discovery of World Heritage” and a subtitle was also suggested, “World Heritage Education: A New Way of Learning for the Twenty First Century” (Kvisteroy: 1996a). Apparent from this address was the powerful influence that the Delors Report had brought to bear on the planning of UNESCO projects (Delors: 1996). “Learning: The Treasure Within” identified four pillars of education: “learning to know”, “learning to do”, “learning to be” and “learning to live together” (see Chapter 3.9). Similarly Kvisteroy’s “Treasury for the Discovery of World Heritage” had two

sections; section one was entitled “A Classroom Treasury” and presented a brief list of educational resources. Section two was entitled “A Pedagogical Treasury” and listed the following objectives for WHE:

- Learning to know more about world heritage
- Learning to do more about world heritage protection
- Learning to be Patrimonito (a cartoon character symbolising WHE)
- Learning to live together

(Kvisteroy: 1996a)

In addition to the learning objectives detailed above “The Pedagogical Treasury” also outlined WHE pilot projects selected by Khawajkie at the Bergen WHYF (see Chapter 4.3). These pilot projects provided examples of how WHE should be developed and Khawajkie took this opportunity to detail these projects to delegates once again.

The first group of projects that had been selected by Khawajkie were originally presented by Associated Schools in Senegal. These schools had visited the WHS of Goree, a former slave island, and a range of projects had been developed based on “A Culture of Peace” (UNESCO Schools: 1996b). Some projects focused on the slave trade itself using historical and archaeological evidence to investigate the capture, imprisonment and deportation of slaves. Students used Goree to reflect on Human Rights legislation and the occurrence of slavery in modern day populations. Other projects focused on the interaction between Christian and Muslim groups on Goree; the island had had a history of ethnic violence and students investigated whether such tensions still existed here. Finally, one group of students focused on how educational provision on Goree might be improved whilst the remaining group studied diverse architecture on the island. In summary delegates from Senegal believed that their work supported “A Culture of Peace” and addressed the following educational objectives:

- To contribute to UNESCO's actions to preserve World Heritage Sites
 - To help young people to discover the ethical and civilizing messages of A Culture of Peace
 - To encourage young people to respect other cultures
 - To develop young people's sense of responsibility and democratic decision making
- (UNESCO Schools: 1996b)

Projects developed by Associated Schools in Senegal proved most influential in the drafting of Young Hands and "A Culture of Peace" was adopted as a WHE theme (UNESCO 2002: 148). In addition one subsection of Young Hands entitled, "World Heritage and Human Rights" specifically featured project work on Goree (UNESCO 2002: 158).

Khawajkie had also selected project work from Associated Schools in Egypt (UNESCO Schools 1996c). These schools had developed WHE pilot projects on the theme "World Heritage and Identity" and identified the following educational objectives:

- To enable young people to address their own cultural identity. To address the question, who am I?
- To enable young people to examine the values of their society and identify the roots of those values. To address the question, where have I come from?
- To enable young people to cultivate respect for the culture and environment of all people. To address the question, who are the others?

(UNESCO Schools: 1996c)

These projects enabled students to better understand their own national and cultural identity. The Delors Report had identified such goals as constituting the third pillar of education; this was

presented as an essential step towards the ultimate goal of, “learning to live together” (see Chapter 3.9). Given the seminal importance of the Delors Report it was perhaps unsurprising that “World Heritage and Identity” should be developed as a WHE theme. Teachers from Egypt noted:

Nurturing our national cultural and natural heritage helps us to shape our national identity. Our past is an important element in constructing national identity and in coping with the challenges of the future....there seems to be a growing trend of a loss of identity or of an identity crisis. There is a disintegration of moral values, family life is deteriorating and social problems are increasing (crime, violence, drugs, delinquency)

(UNESCO Schools: 1996c)

Students developed the theme of “Identity” through a range of project work: some students examined how the religion of the Pharaohs had influenced Egyptian architecture whilst others noted the influence of Islam on current architectural styles. One group of students studied the architecture of Alexandria, a city on Egypt’s Tentative List, whilst the remaining group of students studied conservation methods at the Museum of Cairo (UNESCO Schools: 1996c).

Associated Schools in New Zealand had developed project work based on the theme of “World Heritage and Nature” (UNESCO Schools: 1996d). Khawajkie had been particularly impressed by the quality of this work and had invited the designer of these projects, Rob Roney, to join the UNESCO panel of experts in drafting Young Hands (Kvisteroy *pers. comm.* 25 November 2008). Roney identified the following learning objectives for World Heritage and Nature:

- To enable students to recognize that WHSs are essential for the conservation of biodiversity and of threatened plant and animal life
- To sensitize students to the natural and cultural environment and to the interactions between people and the environment

- To develop a strong conservation ethic and responsibility for the environment at local, national and regional levels
- To encourage students to participate in environmental protection

(UNESCO Schools: 1996d)

Project work for Associated Schools in New Zealand was focused on the Te Wahipounamu National Park and Roney noted:

Te Wahipounamu National Park is a World Heritage Natural Site. It was listed due to the natural biodiversity of the area; this includes the Dinosaur Forests – landscapes which have changed little in 65 million years. This area is also important to the spiritual beliefs of the indigenous Maori people.

(UNESCO Schools: 1996d)

Students used an array of fieldwork techniques to examine the Dinosaur Forests of Te Wahipounamu. They collected samples of flora and fauna, catalogued their finds and suggested ways of managing the delicate ecosystem of the forests (UNESCO Schools: 1996d).

Some students suggested ways in which cultural tourism might be developed to benefit the indigenous Maori people. These projects examined both the positive and negative aspects of tourism. Students studied the extent to which tourism might generate much needed revenue for indigenous tribes, contrasting these benefits with the possible adverse effects on plant and animal habitats. Students were also encouraged to investigate the geology of New Zealand:

In tracing the roots of New Zealand the students travelled back over 250 million years to examine the formation of the supercontinents – in particular Gondwanaland. The students even constructed a jigsaw puzzle to analyse the movements of continents and compare their shape to those of the present day.

(UNESCO Schools: 1996d)

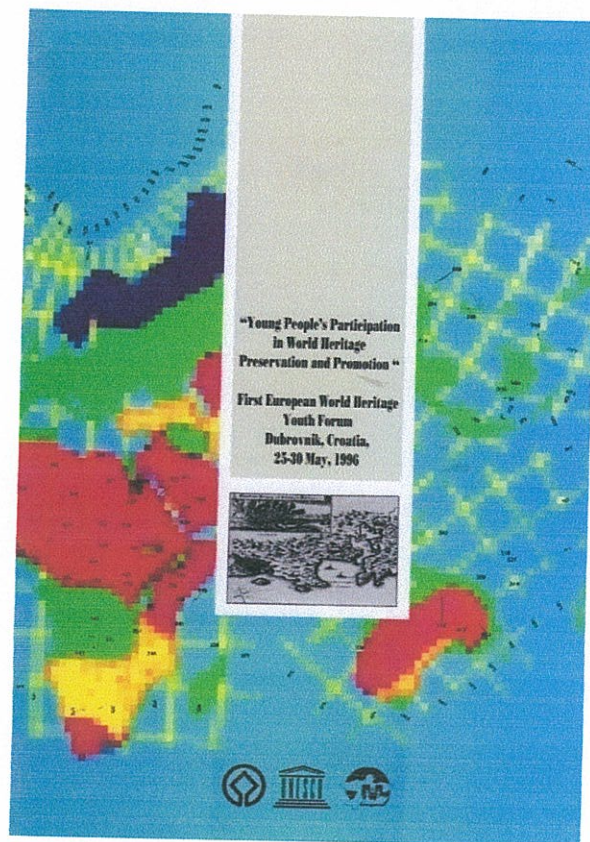


Figure 4.2 Report from the First European World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik. Source: Stone Archive.

Project work developed by Associated Schools in New Zealand proved valuable in the drafting of Young Hands. Fieldwork featuring Te Wahipounamu was incorporated into the text of Young Hands (UNESCO 2002: 136) as was the map work on Gondwanaland detailed above (UNESCO 2002: 138); in addition the learning objectives for these pilot projects had a direct bearing on those of "World Heritage and the Environment" (UNESCO 2002: 125).

Presentations by Kvisteroy and Khawajkie were well received and delegates concluded the Dubrovnik WHYF by adopting, "The Framework of Action for World Heritage Education in Europe 1996-2001" (ASP net: 1996: 20). The Framework detailed a number of recommendations including the introduction of WHE into the secondary schools of Member States. The Framework also served to highlight recurrent problems faced by Associated Schools in adopting

the Project Method of education and called on UNESCO to provide more in-service training for teachers (ASP net 1996: 20). In the short term it was hoped that these problems may be alleviated if the WHE Kit provided teachers with a chapter detailing the desired educational approach of WHE; there was however pressing need to provide a long term solution.

4.5 The drafting of Young Hands at Hvar, Croatia

On 17 July 1996, following Dubrovnik WHYF, the UNESCO panel of experts convened in Hvar, Croatia to draft Young Hands. Owing to a prior engagement Pavlic was unable to attend and so the panel comprised: Anna Gueorguieva (teacher from Bulgaria), Rob Roney (teacher from New Zealand), Gerd-Hanne Fosen (ASP National Coordinator, Norway), Peter Stone (English Heritage Education Service), Ingunn Kvisteroy (Deputy Secretary General of the Norwegian National Commission for UNESCO) and Elisabeth Khawajkie (ASP Coordinator).

Khawajkie led all sessions at Hvar and began by presenting the panel with a pack of resources prepared by herself and Pavlic; included in this pack were copies of “Our Creative Diversity” (World Commission on Culture and Development: 1996) and “Learning: The Treasure Within” (Delors: 1996). Also included were copies of the pilot projects detailed at the Dubrovnik WHYF; projects from Senegal, Egypt, New Zealand and Greece were available for reference (Pavlic *pers. comm.* 28 November 2008).

Once resources had been distributed Khawajkie acknowledged difficulties highlighted by both the Bergen and Dubrovnik WHYFs, in particular application of the Project Method of education. As ASP (net) Coordinator Khawajkie presented her understanding of the Project Method identifying four discrete phases the first of which she termed the “preparatory phase” (Khawajkie: 1996c). “The preparatory phase” involved discussions between students and teachers regarding choice of topic. Here teachers were asked to liaise with outside agencies such as museums and heritage sites so that students could take part in field studies and conservation work. Next came “the planning phase;” having clarified the choice of topic students and teachers

should identify the aims and educational objectives of their project. A provisional timetable detailing fieldwork and writing up time should be drawn up at this point (Khawajkie: 1996c). The “implementation phase” (Khawajkie: 1996c) involved designing a research strategy to address project aims and objectives. Students may be required to design a questionnaire or to produce an interview schedule for site managers; students might also conduct experiments or use scientific monitoring equipment on site. Research results could then be collated with students drawing their own conclusions and debating research findings with teachers and fellow students (Khawajkie: 1996c). The final phase was termed the “evaluation phase.” Here teachers and students identified new skills they had developed. These skills could be general in nature e.g. the use of a library database or they could be project specific e.g. conservation skills (Khawajkie 1996c).

Stone had been asked to draft the “Educational Approaches” section of Young Hands designed to help teachers in Associated Schools engage with the Project Method of education. Paradoxically however Stone was the one member of the UNESCO panel of experts not associated with either UNESCO or Associated Schools. Khawajkie had asked an expert from an outside agency to instruct Associated Schools in the use of an educational approach pioneered by UNESCO; Stone explained:

The Project Method was not exclusive to Associated Schools; indeed at one time the Project Method was popular throughout schools in England and had been advocated by the Plowden Report as early as 1967. In England however the Project Method evolved into enquiry based learning.

In England schools were encouraged to experiment with enquiry based learning. The Schools Council produced a raft of development projects including Nuffield Science, School Council Project for the Environment, School Council Humanities Project – the list was endless but amongst this list was Schools Council History Project later known as SHP. The experience I had in teaching SHP shaped my approach to heritage education and ultimately informed my drafting of the “Educational Approach” for Young Hands.

SHP adopted an “enquiry based approach” to learning and students were expected to compose enquiry questions and visit sites of historic interest. As part of the enquiry process students might conduct interviews, survey standing remains or compile field notes and sketches. Back at school this information was used to write up a detailed field report. In short “enquiry based learning” and the Project Method were so similar as to be virtually indistinguishable.

(Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009)

At this point Stone clarified his use of the term “virtually indistinguishable.” According to Stone whilst the Project Method and enquiry based learning did indeed employ the same educational approach the Project Method was rooted in the teachings of Piaget whereas enquiry based methods owed more to the work of Vygotsky and Bruner. The differences, though subtle, were important. Proponents of enquiry based learning believed that complex subjects such as history (and projects such as WHE) were suitable for students of primary school age, advocates of the Project Method however did not (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009).

Regarding Khawajkie’s request that he assist in the drafting of Young Hands, Stone explained that he had known Khawajkie since 1990 and that she had contributed to one of his publications, “The Excluded Past” (Stone and Mackenzie: 1990). Stone had maintained contact with Khawajkie and had invited her to an international seminar hosted by the University of Southampton and English Heritage (see Chapter 4.7); Khawajkie alluded to this event on interview (see Chapter 4.3). For Khawajkie, Stone was a key member of the UNESCO panel of experts.

The UNESCO panel of experts had not been asked to bring resources to Hvar; Stone however brought with him a number of English Heritage publications including: “A Teacher’s Guide to History through Role Play” (Fairclough and Redsell: 1994) and “A Teacher’s Guide to Learning from Objects” (Durbin *et al.*: 1990). In addition Stone took a draft version of “A Teacher’s Guide to World Heritage Sites” which he was editing.

In drafting the educational approach of Young Hands Stone intended to capitalise on his association with EHES. The educational approach of EHES was, “virtually indistinguishable” from that of Associated Schools (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009) and Stone reasoned that teaching activities developed by EHES would prove equally as effective for Associated Schools; these activities could be incorporated into the text of Young Hands.

The “Teacher’s Guide Series” had been produced to support the teaching of National Curriculum POSs. EHES regarded fieldtrips as an essential part of the education process and students were encouraged to examine artefacts and sites *in situ*, compose research questions and formulate hypotheses based on available evidence. This process was illustrated by “A Teacher’s Guide to Learning from Objects”; presented with a museum artefact the authors noted:

Looking, handling and exploring is the first stage in handling any artefact. From this will spring a whole host of questions and these questions will fall into different groups according to which aspect of the artefact they are concerned with. Some questions about the chair dealt with the sensory response to the object- was it soft or hard? Some questions focused on the chair’s physical character – was it large or small? Other questions related to design or decoration, and others on the people who used it or how it was made.

(Durbin *et al* 1990:12)

The text incorporated an activity sheet to help students analyse a range of museum artefacts; using this sheet students were asked to record the physical appearance of each artefact as well as determining their construction, function, design and estimated value. Stone believed that this exercise could be incorporated into the “Educational Approaches” section of Young Hands and, with permission, reproduced the same activity sheet under the title “Investigating A Museum Object” (UNESCO 2002: 27).

EHES had also emphasised the value of role play to heritage education. The publication “A Teachers Guide to History through Role Play” (Fairclough and Redsell: 1994) had examined the way drama could be used to explore issues relating to site management and the effects of mass

tourism. Role play was also used to develop research skills such as documentary analysis with students adopting the persona of an historic character and researching their lives (Fairclough and Redsell 1994: 4). Skills of a more general nature such as empathy, listening and debating could also be enhanced. Stone incorporated this work into the “Educational Approaches” section of *Young Hands* under the title “Role Play in the Classroom” (UNESCO 2002: 28).

Finally, Stone took with him the draft of “A Teacher’s Guide to World Heritage Sites” that he was editing (Figure 4.3). Originally English Heritage had planned to publish this text however Stone now saw the possibility of joint publication with UNESCO, he noted:

I was drafting *Young Hands* and working on “World Heritage Sites” at the same time. UNESCO made a tentative offer of joint publication and English Heritage approved. However, as discussions progressed, fears were expressed that the similarities between these texts was too great. In the end “World Heritage Sites” was published by English Heritage.

Whilst there was a direct correlation between *Young Hands* and “World Heritage Sites” there was one important difference. The focus for English Heritage’s work is cultural heritage; natural heritage is not part of their brief. As a result “World Heritage Sites” focused exclusively on cultural sites, no mention was made of sites inscribed for environmental reasons.

Of course the text of “World Heritage Sites” was not arranged under the same WHE themes as *Young Hands*. I made no mention of environmental evidence and “peace education” was not part of the National Curriculum. I did however describe the functions of the 1972 Convention and I explored “Identity” and “Tourism” in great detail. Elisabeth was certainly grateful that I brought this text to Hvar and it was given to the panel for reference.

(Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009)

Using the materials provided the UNESCO panel of experts began drafting Young Hands. Khawajkie and Stone worked on the educational approaches section of Young Hands and “World Heritage and Tourism” (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008). Roney began work on “World Heritage and the Environment”, basing his account on project work developed by schools in New Zealand (UNESCO Schools: 1996d). Finally other members of the UNESCO panel of experts addressed “World Heritage and Identity” and “World Heritage and A Culture of Peace” and here, once again, the influence of English Heritage was in evidence.

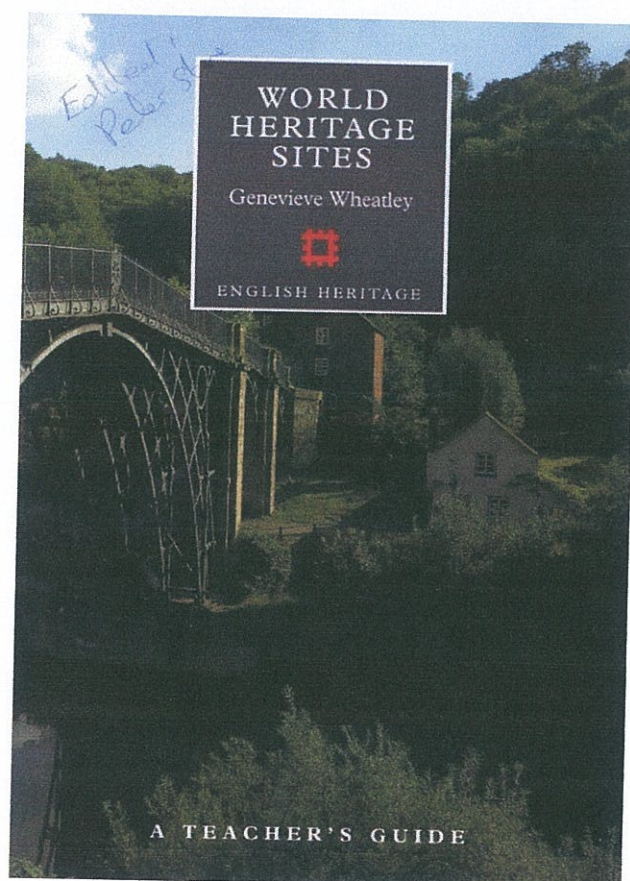


Figure 4.3 World Heritage Sites: A Teachers Guide (Wheatley: 1997)

For “World Heritage and Identity” the UNESCO panel of experts used two case studies taken from “World Heritage Sites.” Prior to the Dubrovnik WHYF Stone had been planning a heritage education training course based at Great Zimbabwe WHS (see Chapter 4.7). In “World Heritage

Sites” Wheatley, drawing on Stone’s experiences, highlighted the problems faced by the indigenous peoples of Zimbabwe in defining their own cultural heritage, Wheatley noted:

It was not until very recently that it was accepted more widely that the remains at Great Zimbabwe were the work of an indigenous population. Part of the justification for white colonial domination was that the whites had introduced civilization to this area. It had been impossible for the ruling minority to accept that a powerful indigenous society had flourished in the area long before white colonisation...such overtly racist interpretations were gradually dismantled but not without sacrifice. The Head of the Monuments Commission had been forced to resign in the 1970s following political pressure to conceal the evidence for the indigenous pedigree of the site.

(Wheatley 1997:18)

Using Wheatley’s draft text the UNESCO panel of experts cited Great Zimbabwe as an example of how the cultural identity of indigenous peoples may be masked to achieve political ends (UNESCO 2002:194). To provide a balanced perspective Wheatley had cited conservation efforts at Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park in Australia illustrating how white minority populations may work in harmony with indigenous peoples to promote their cultural identity; Wheatley noted:

The Park is situated on traditional Aboriginal lands where Aboriginal people still live and where Aboriginal languages are still spoken as the first language. Ownership of the land was returned to the local Aboriginal people in 1985 in a ceremony referred to as hand back. The Aboriginal people leased the National Park back to the Australian Nature Conservation Agency and both groups now jointly manage the site. The management of the site is guided by Aboriginal law and tradition which emphasises the right of Aboriginal people to be the custodians of their lands.

(Wheatley 1997:19)

Once again the UNESCO panel of experts incorporated this work into their draft of “World Heritage and Identity” (UNESCO 2002: 96).

The work rate at Hvar proved frenetic with drafts and redrafts of Young Hands being passed around the panel for editing and so that suitable learning objectives could be suggested. The reason for the frenetic pace soon became clear; Khawajkie explained that the next WHYF was to be held in Zimbabwe in four months time. This WHYF would provide the only opportunity to trial Young Hands before submission of a final draft to UNESCO. It was essential therefore that the panel of experts complete their drafts in good time; with that the meeting in Hvar ended.

4.6 The First African World Heritage Youth Forum

A working draft of Young Hands was prepared in time for the First African World Heritage Youth Forum in Zimbabwe. The Zimbabwe WHYF was convened at Mosi-oa-Tunya/Victoria Falls WHS on 18 September 1996 (ASP net: 1996). Mosi-oa-Tunya/Victoria Falls was inscribed as a “cultural landscape site” and as such the Zimbabwe WHYF presented the UNESCO panel of experts with a number of challenges. The Bergen and Dubrovnik WHYFs had focused exclusively on developing teaching materials for cultural WHSs; Mosi-oa-Tunya/Victoria Falls presented the opportunity of developing teaching materials for cultural *and* environmental WHSs.

The first student workshop involved students carrying out an environmental impact analysis and addressing the WHE theme of “World Heritage and the Environment.” Analyses were carried out at three separate locations: the “National Game Reserve,” the “Sewage Pond and Dumping Site”, and “Victoria Falls” (ASP net 1996: 11). One group of students, based at the National Game Reserve, analysed the density of large game animals in one area of the Reserve; another group studied the diversity of flora and fauna whilst one further group analysed the impact of human settlement on animal migration patterns (ASP net 1996: 12). Students at the “Sewage Pond and Dumping Site” studied the effect of waste disposal in discreet areas of the Reserve. They noted that whilst an increase in organic waste attracted large predatory animals e.g. alligators, there was an overall decrease in species diversity (ASP net 1996: 12). Finally students at Victoria Falls

analysed the effects of mass tourism on WHSs. Small industries had flourished as a result of increased tourism however these benefits had been at the expense of the WHS itself. Mass

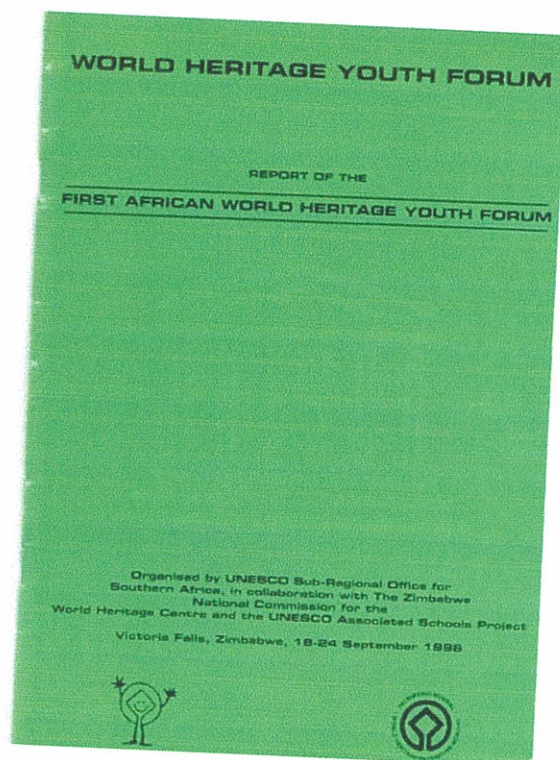


Figure 4.4 Report from the First African Youth Forum, Zimbabwe. Source: Stone Archive.

tourism had resulted in the erosion of pathways and there were problems associated with litter and waste disposal (ASP net 1996: 12).

Mosi-oa-Tunya/Victoria Falls WHS was inscribed as a cultural landscape site and the Victoria Falls WHYF placed particular emphasis on conserving the cultural identity of indigenous peoples (ASP net 1996: 51). The opening address given by the Director General of UNESCO, Frederico Mayor, emphasised the importance of intangible cultural heritage:

Heritage should not only be identified with those masterworks of nature and culture inscribed on the World Heritage List. They are but the tip of the iceberg. The heritage comprises all those legacies from the past that enrich our lives in the present and which

we hold in trust for the future. It includes in particular all the intangible expressions of our culture – music, dance, crafts and oral traditions.

(ASP net1996: 51)

The concept of intangible cultural heritage was addressed by two student workshops; one exploring the role of music and dance in African Culture, the other exploring the role of art and crafts.

Music and dance were used to explore tribal relationships with the natural environment. Music was used to express the characteristics of different animal species whilst dance was used to exhibit hunting methods. This interaction between the natural and cultural aspects of heritage was later developed as a specific learning objective for “World Heritage and the Environment” (UNESCO 2002: 125). Another workshop encouraged students to practice traditional African crafts such as woodworking whilst some students produced watercolours detailing the African landscape (ASP net 1996: 13).

The Victoria Falls WHYF had presented an opportunity of trialling resources for Young Hands. UNESCO had requested that a final draft of Young Hands be made available by August 1997 and there was now a pressing need to coordinate production of this final draft. Khawajkie proposed that the task of coordinating script writing and editing be given to Stone; this was agreed by other members of the UNESCO panel and UNESCO contracted with English Heritage to buy some of Stone’s time to coordinate and edit text. Over the next few months however, the scale of the task became apparent and Stone was unable to complete the editing of Young Hands alongside his normal work. This task was eventually carried out by Sarah Titchen, a programme specialist at WHC (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009).

Whilst the Victoria Falls WHYF had proved a success both Stone and Kvisteroy harboured grave reservations. Teachers at the Victoria Falls WHYF had once again expressed problems with the Project Method. Stone had been charged with drafting the “Educational Approaches” section of Young Hands, he was aware however that no matter how carefully he worded his script it would not obviate the need for teacher training, he noted:

Teachers from industrialised regions, such as Europe, were well versed in enquiry based learning. These teachers were familiar with their subject and had attended training courses; they however represented a privileged elite. Teachers from non-industrialised nations rarely had any training in the enquiry based approach and struggled to stay one step ahead of their students. These teachers had no knowledge of enquiry based learning or the Project Method; they relied on didactic teaching methods and rote learning.

I had carried out teacher training exercises in non-industrialised countries including Zimbabwe and I realised that teachers attending this WHYF would find the Project Method challenging. I had put a great deal of effort into the drafting of Young Hands and I was determined that WHE was for all students not just a privileged elite.

(Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009)

4.7 Establishing a training programme for Young Hands

Teachers attending WHYFs had voiced their concerns with the Project Method and requested that more training be made available. The UNESCO panel of experts had noted these requests and Stone had been asked to draft a chapter detailing educational approaches for WHE. Stone complied with these requests however both he and Kvisteroy believed this response to be inadequate (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). Stone and Kvisteroy maintained that nothing less than a dedicated training programme for WHE could solve current problems (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). Fortunately Stone had extensive experience in designing teacher training courses and he already had a suitable course in mind.

In 1992 English Heritage had been asked to design a heritage education programme for the National Museums and Monuments Office in Zimbabwe (NMMZ). Stone, together with colleagues at EHES and the University of Southampton, responded by planning a programme for five education officers and staff based in Zimbabwe. Teaching for the “Certificate in Archaeological Heritage Education and Interpretation” began in 1994 with the qualification validated by the University of Southampton (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009)

One module of this programme was entitled, “Heritage Education: theory and practice” and this constituted a basic introduction to enquiry based teaching and learning (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). Education was based mainly at Great Zimbabwe WHS with participants schooled in the design of interview schedules, the composition of questionnaires and the compilation of field journals. This work proved most constructive and was later featured in both “World Heritage Sites” and Young Hands (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). The “Certificate in Archaeological Heritage Education and Interpretation” had proved a great success and, inspired, Stone returned to the UK.

Stone was determined to build on the success of the Zimbabwe training programme and proposed that the University of Southampton develop a “Postgraduate Diploma/MA in Archaeological Heritage and Interpretation”; this postgraduate course would build on those skills introduced in the Zimbabwe training programme and would hopefully allow education officers from this region to train at a higher level (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). Parallels between WHE the proposed Diploma/MA were marked and it came no surprise when Stone later recommended this training programme for teachers developing the Young Hands syllabus (see Chapter 4.7 below).

Initial responses to the proposed “Postgraduate Diploma/MA in “Archaeological Heritage and Interpretation” were positive. The University of Southampton proposed establishing an “International Centre for Heritage Education and Interpretation” with the support of the World Archaeological Congress (WAC) and English Heritage. At a meeting between the Chairman of WAC, Michael Day and the Chairman of English Heritage, Jocelyn Stevens, plans for the funding of the Centre and the provision of student bursaries were discussed (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). It was hoped to announce these proposals at an international seminar entitled “Heritage Education and Archaeology” organised by the University of Southampton and EHES; a seminar to which both Jocelyn Stevens and the ASP (net) Coordinator, Elisabeth Khawajkie were invited.

“Heritage Education and Archaeology” had proved successful in developing international contacts within heritage education; unfortunately however English Heritage declined to support the “International Centre for Heritage Education and Interpretation” financially. No announcement was made regarding either the proposed Centre or the Postgraduate Diploma/MA. Stone was forced to seek backing for his training programme elsewhere (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009).

In 1996 Stone was offered a lecturing post at Newcastle University by the Head of Archaeology, Professor Bailey. Bailey was keen to introduce Stone’s Postgraduate Diploma/MA however Stone was strongly encouraged to secure a source of external funding (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). Stone saw the publication of *Young Hands* as the perfect opportunity to introduce the “Postgraduate Diploma/MA in Archaeological Heritage and Interpretation;” (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). Stone’s experience training education officers in Zimbabwe and his familiarity with the demands of the Project Method led him to the conviction that teachers would need specific training in WHE (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). Stone’s convictions were shared by one other member of the UNESCO panel of experts, Ingunn Kvisteroy. As Deputy Secretary General of the Norwegian Commission for UNESCO, Kvisteroy’s support was invaluable; Kvisteroy had also secured financial backing for *Young Hands* via NORAD and both Stone and Kvisteroy believed that further sponsorship might be forthcoming (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009).

Stone contacted Kvisteroy and together they drafted the “Medium Term Plan for the Development of World Heritage Education 1996-2001” (Kvisteroy and Stone: 1997); Kvisteroy drafted the following introduction:

It has become increasingly clear to those involved in the development of the Kit that its content and ideas are so new as to require significant training and follow up by those responsible for the Kit’s long term use. It is also obvious that UNSECO has neither the time nor staff at present to put the necessary initiatives into practice. It is equally obvious

that if such initiatives are not developed the production of the Kit and the pilot projects being implemented in Associated Schools will have minimal impact.

(Kvisteroy and Stone: 1997)

Kvisteroy underscored the need for dedicated teacher training in WHE and questioned UNESCO's ability to make such provisions; the solution was, according to Kvisteroy, the introduction of a centre for heritage education as previously proposed by Stone; Kvisteroy noted:

The problems outlined above would be alleviated by the creation of a UNESCO team for World Heritage Education. In addition a Centre for World Heritage Education and Interpretation should be established, such a Centre should aim at reaching the global, regional, national and school levels.

(Kvisteroy and Stone: 1997)

Having established the need for a centre for heritage education it was then left to Stone to detail the proposed postgraduate training programme and to promote Newcastle University as the ideal venue:

In collaboration with World Archaeological Congress and EHES the University of Newcastle has developed a Diploma/MA course in Heritage Education and Interpretation. The Diploma/MA would be taught by staff in the Department of Archaeology, sub-department of Museum Studies, Centre for International Studies in Education and (with a particular regard for the natural environment) the Faculty of Agriculture and Biological Sciences as well as staff of EHES.

(Kvisteroy and Stone: 1997)

Stone concluded his part of the "Medium Term Plan" by proposing that UNESCO fund bursaries at Newcastle University from 1998/9 until 2001. This request complied with the need to secure sponsorship from an external funding body; Stone noted:

It is therefore suggested that UNESCO Young Hands Project takes advantage of the very strong similarities in the aims of its project and the Newcastle/ EHES initiative and that it fund bursaries on the Diploma/MA course each year until 2001.

(Kvisteroy and Stone: 1997)

Copies of the “Medium Term Plan for the Development of Heritage Education 1996 to 2001” were forwarded to Khawajkie and UNESCO. However, whilst Khawajkie acknowledged the difficulties faced by teachers in developing WHE, she refuted the suggestion that UNESCO could not provide adequate training:

The concept of WHE was new to UNESCO and we expected to have teething problems. As the popularity of WHE grew so more national and regional Youth Fora were introduced. These Youth Fora were used for teacher training and to develop materials to supplement Young Hands. UNESCO has its own centres dedicated to teacher training and I could see no reason why UNESCO would fund other agencies to do the job.

(Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009)

Kvisteroy and Stone believed that Khawajkie had misunderstood the nature of the problem. Khawajkie proposed a “cascade method” of teacher training with teachers attending national and regional WHYFs. Having received training in heritage education these teachers would return to their schools and lead their own training sessions. The problem, as perceived by Kvisteroy and Stone, was that insufficient teachers attended WHYFs to make this model viable; in short there was a lack of teacher trainers (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). The “Diploma/MA in Heritage Education and Interpretation” was intended to train those responsible for teacher training; with this qualification in place the cascade model would prove viable; Stone remarked:

I remember repeatedly emphasising to Elisabeth why a centre for heritage education was needed. Elisabeth eventually conceded that in principle my idea was sound. She did however voice further concerns that students from developing countries, having gained postgraduate qualifications, would leave the heritage industry. She believed these

graduates would seek more lucrative posts in Government. My response was that it would be good for WHE to receive support at Government level.

(Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009)

Following Khawajkie's stance, UNESCO rejected Stone's proposals; funding requests copied to English Heritage and Rhone Poulenc proved equally as disappointing (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). Indeed it was not until Kvisteroy approached NORAD that any interest was shown in sponsoring student bursaries at Newcastle University.

NORAD spent some time deliberating Stone's suggestion however eight months after the Victoria Falls WHYF Kvisteroy faxed their recommendation:

NORAD has agreed to give ten bursaries for the biennium 1998-1999 and (surprise) 15 bursaries for the biennium 2000-2001. The budget lines for the bursaries are \$200,000 1998-1999 and \$300,000 for 2000-2001. It is however not clear at what time the contract will be formalised.

(Kvisteroy: 1997)

Elated Stone and Bailey made formal arrangements to convene the "Postgraduate Diploma/MA in Archaeological Heritage and Interpretation." By the time a second fax arrived, three weeks later, a tentative timetable had been drafted. This second fax withdrew the offer of funding and gave no further explanation (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 09). Dismayed Kvisteroy contacted NORAD but her requests for information were ignored; faced with no rational explanation for NORAD's *volte face* Stone and Kvisteroy concluded that their plans had been undermined. They believed that Khawajkie had contacted NORAD and advised that UNESCO would provide training for WHE and that all funding should be channelled accordingly (Stone *pers. comm.* 20 February 2009). Asked to respond to such allegations Khawajkie stated:

I can only comment that this was a bilateral agreement. It was a financial matter between Newcastle University and NORAD; it did not involve UNESCO and it did not involve ASP (net). In addition you can see by the fax that this is a working proposal not a

contract; there are many reasons why such a proposal might not be followed through. My reaction is that Associated Schools already provided teacher training.

(Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008)

Adoption of the 1972 Convention by UNESCO had proved a landmark in the history of conservation. States Party to the 1972 Convention were inspired to nominate sites of outstanding cultural and natural value whilst UNESCO and the WHC ensured such sites were managed appropriately (see Chapter 3.11). Paradoxically, despite widespread ratification of the 1972 Convention, Article 27 of this document was routinely ignored and educational provision at WHSs remained woefully inadequate.

For more than two decades UNESCO had failed in its duty to ensure States Party provided training and education in conservation; as a result a generation of young people grew up with an incomplete understanding of their own cultural and natural heritage. In 1994 this appalling situation was alleviated by ASP (net) and the WHC. Forced to rely, in the first instance, on private funding ASP (net) and the WHC initiated the “Young People’s Participation in World Heritage and Promotion” (see Chapter 4.2).

Such reliance on private funding did not reflect well on UNESCO’s fiscal priorities however this fledgling initiative proved successful and funds were made available for a WHE Kit. A UNESCO panel of experts was convened in 1995 and the drafting of Young Hands could begin. Drawing on the advice of teachers and students Young Hands comprised: information on the 1972 Convention, educational activities centred on four WHE themes and advice on curriculum mapping. Young Hands also presented teachers with a chapter detailing the educational approach of WHE and it was this chapter which was to prove most controversial.

The suggested educational approach of WHE was the Project Method of education requiring that students and teachers visit WHSs, design their own innovative projects, record data and present their findings in a clear and concise manner. Trials of Young Hands proved how challenging this educational approach was and repeated requests for guidance polarised the views of the UNESCO panel of experts.

Stone and Kvisteroy promoted the concept of a teacher training programme dedicated to WHE whilst Khawajkie, the ASP (net) Coordinator, maintained that UNESCO training institutions and WHYFs provided adequate guidance. Over time relationships between the UNESCO panel of experts came acrimonious and it must remain a matter of speculation whether Khawajkie played any role in NORAD's decision to withdraw funding from WHE bursaries. Subsequent testing and evaluation of Young Hands did however reveal that the need for a dedicated teacher training course was both urgent and very real.

4.8 The Testing and evaluation of Young Hands

Whilst the provision of teacher training remained a contentious issue the drafting of Young Hands continued apace. Members of the UNESCO panel of experts, including Stone, noted that Young Hands had been subject to a rather limited amount of testing and, on the ferry from Hvar, Stone had suggested to Khawajkie that an experimental version of the kit might be produced- to be tested by Associated Schools. Khawajkie liked the idea of an experimental kit and agreed to take the idea back to UNESCO. The idea was approved although the deadline for submission of a final draft version of Young Hands by 31 August 1997 remained firm. In 1998, less than one year after submission of the final draft, UNESCO announced publication of an experimental version of Young Hands:

UNESCO Director General Frederico Mayor and the Chief Executive Officer of Rhone-Poulenc, Jean-Rene Fourtou, today presented to the press the kit "World Heritage In Young Hands: To Know, Cherish and Act" which will be tested in secondary schools in close to 100 countries.

(UNESCO: 1998a)

In total 4000 copies of this experimental version of Young Hands were published, 2500 in English and 1,500 in French (UNESCO: 1998a). Copies were circulated to all Associated Schools declaring an interest and teachers were asked to complete an enclosed evaluation form

(UNESCO: 1998). An evaluation of Young Hands was requested by UNESCO in 2000 and returns of these forms constituted part of the evaluation study.

Evaluation of Young Hands was undertaken by EHES and their report was published in 2002 (Fordham and Holinshed: 2002). In addition to the 4000 evaluation forms detailed above EHES forwarded a further 156 questionnaires to Associated Schools participating in WHE and conducted interviews with teachers and students attending WHYFs for the period 2000-2001. Results of these surveys together with specific recommendations were made available to UNESCO in 2002. In summary 67% of Associated Schools participating in WHE had found Young Hands “a very useful resource”, whilst a further 32% of schools categorised Young Hands as simply as “a useful resource.” The remaining 1% of Associated Schools participating in WHE passed no comment on the effectiveness of this syllabus (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 32). Despite these encouraging results however teachers expressed their frustration at the lack of resources available for WHSs in their regions; with few dedicated resources available teachers struggled to incorporate WHE into National curricula (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 33). Teachers also expressed concern that whilst Young Hands suggested a range of classroom activities no guidance had been given on assessing student progress in these tasks or indeed of monitoring the effectiveness of WHE (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 32). EHES recommended that the publication of dedicated educational resources be prioritised and underscored the need for WHE to be incorporated into the National Curriculum of all Member States (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 6).

Teachers also perceived a bias towards the cultural traditions of industrialised societies; in Young Hands this bias was most readily exhibited in “World Heritage and Identity” and “World Heritage and a Culture of Peace” (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 40). Here, teachers believed, undue emphasise had been placed on the importance of European WHSs to the detriment of WHSs from non-industrialised nations (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 40). Whilst this occurrence may simply reflect inherent bias in the process of listing WHSs (see Chapter 3.12) EHES recommended that these cross-curricular themes be revised.

EHES had recommended the publication of dedicated educational materials for WHE and the selective revision of Young Hands; however undoubtedly the most significant recommendation was made with regard to teacher training:

National action plans submitted as part of this evaluation suggest teacher training as a means of disseminating the Project – particularly in the use of the Kit. However this training appears to have only been done by teachers attending sub-regional workshops.

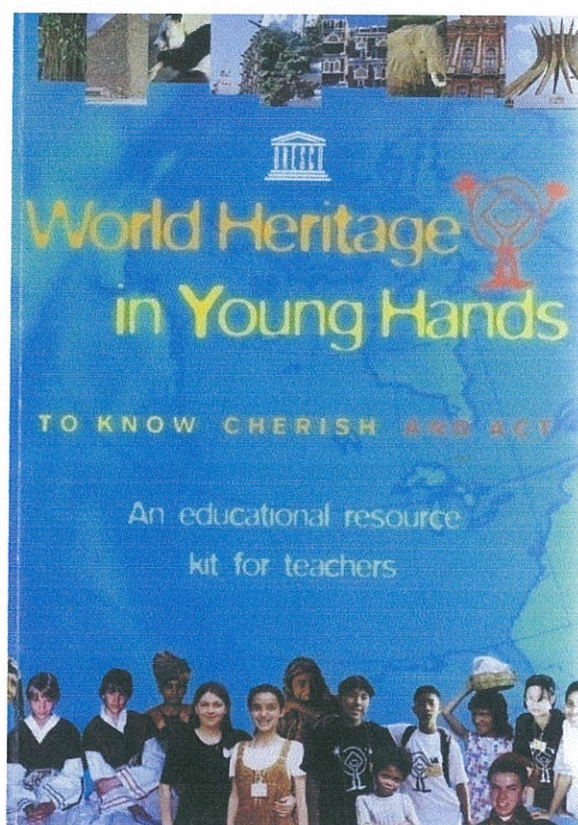


Figure 4.5 World Heritage in Young Hands (UNESCO: 1998). Source: Stone Archive.

These teachers are unlikely to have expertise in teacher training; they are probably not experts in heritage education and they may be unfamiliar with some of the concepts contained within the Kit... a small number of teachers, heritage professionals or curriculum advisors should be given adequate training to a specified standard. These will

be national key trainers. The training they are given should be comprehensive and should include the development of teacher training methods, methods of heritage education and an understanding of overall curriculum context for their own country.

(Fordham and Holinshed 2002:10)

Despite commissioning this report very few, if any, of English Heritage's recommendations were acted upon. The result was that, barring a number of illustrations and provision of a paper binding, the 2002 edition of *Young Hands* was virtually identical to the experimental version. Close inspection did however reveal one significant difference pertinent to this thesis. The experimental version of *Young Hands* acknowledged the contribution of many significant individuals, including the UNESCO panel of experts (UNESCO 1998: 19). The second edition of *Young Hands* made no such acknowledgement; as a result links to English Heritage and to the education system in England were obscured. As will be shown in Chapter Seven, it is these very links that facilitated the successful mapping of *Young Hands* onto N/C 2007 (see Chapter 7.14).

The revised edition of *Young Hands* proved popular with Associated Schools with 51,900 copies of this syllabus currently in circulation and more than 1000 schools actively participating in WHE. These 1000 Associated Schools represent a total of 130 Member States with all five ASP (net) Regional Offices supporting WHE (Africa, Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and North America). With such a broad geographic distribution of schools *Young Hands* has now been translated into 36 languages (including Chinese, Arabic, Russian and Polish) with a further five editions expected shortly.

These multilingual editions of *Young Hands* certainly provided much needed support for schools participating in WHE and it is the intention of ASP (net) that all editions will soon be available for download (UNESCO: 2011c). In addition, since publishing of the revised edition of *Young Hands* in 2002, ASP (net) and the WHC have hosted a further eighteen WHYFs providing training and support for a total of 1560 students and 1250 teachers (UNESCO: 2011c). One shared objective of these WHYFs has been that, on returning to their country of origin, teachers should "cascade" the training they have received and so train fellow professionals in the use of *Young Hands*. Based on extrapolated figures the WHC estimates that as many as one million

students and teachers may have been trained in this manner (UNESCO 2011c); it should be noted however that serious doubt has been cast on the “cascade” method of training by Stone and Kvisteroy (see Chapter 4.7) and by EHES (see Chapter 4.8 above).

Chapter Four has examined in detail the drafting and publication of the Young Hands syllabus; in particular this chapter has demonstrated the extent to which the universal values of UNESCO informed the writing process. These universal values were reflected in the four world heritage themes presented by this syllabus and include: the development of innovative approaches to education, environmental education, peace education, Human Rights education and the promotion of cultural tourism. With these universal values firmly in mind Chapter Five now details the development of the National Curriculum for schools in England. Clearly for Young Hands to support teaching and learning in English Schools some degree of synergy must be established between the aims and values of N/C 2007 and the universal values of the Young Hands syllabus.

Chapter 5: The Development of a National Curriculum in England

5.1 Introduction

This Chapter details the evolution of curriculum planning policy in England from localised development in the 1960s through to a more centralised approach to curriculum development as advocated by the Department of Education and Science (DES) and Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) in 1985. Whilst policy documents produced by DES and HMI favoured a more centralised approach to curriculum planning the imposition of a National Curriculum on schools in England and Wales was viewed as "revolutionary." Many believed the National Curriculum represented a political device designed more to secure victory for the Conservative Party at the 1987 General Election than as a serious attempt at educational reform.

Whilst specifications for the National Curriculum were revised on a number of occasions N/C 2007 may represent one of the most radical revisions to secondary school curricula to date. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) had been ratified by the UK Government in 1989 and the incoming Labour Government had introduced the Human Rights Act in 1998 (HRA); as a result all domestic legislation, including that relating to the National Curriculum, was underpinned by Human Rights legislation. The 2004 Children's Act affirmed Central Government's stance on Human Rights detailing five goals for child welfare organisations. In 2007 the QCA ensured N/C 2007 was predicated on these goals and that they were incorporated into all programmes of study (POSS).

5.2 The Plowden Report and the importance of localised curriculum development

The concept of a National Curriculum was alien to schools throughout England and the rest of Britain (Moon: 1994; Kelly: 2005); curriculum development traditionally took place at local level with schools responding to the needs of their local communities. Some schools offered a

curriculum based on practical subjects such as woodwork and domestic science whilst others offered a more academic curriculum based on subjects such as English and history (Chitty 2009: 25). Decisions regarding curriculum content were made exclusively by Head Teachers, Board of Governors and representatives from local authorities. These were the people regarded as best placed to determine the needs of the local community and the idea of imposing a centrally proscribed curriculum was regarded as highly undesirable.

The tradition of developing curricula at local level was strongly supported by research commissioned by Central Government. The “Report of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education” (Board of Education: 1931) or “Hadow Report” had emphasised the importance of addressing the needs of the local population and the prospect of students engaging in locally based educational projects was highly commended (Board of Education 1931: 93). Such views accorded well with recommendations of educationalists such as Keatinge who, twenty years earlier, had recommended that students engage in project work beyond the confines of the classroom (Keatinge: 1910).

Of all reports emphasising the importance of localised curriculum development perhaps the most significant was the “Report of the Primary Central Advisory Council for Education” (CACE: 1967), Chaired by Lady Plowden. Whilst this report, commonly referred to as the “Plowden Report,” focused exclusively on the development of curricula for primary schools its influence was such that recommendations were heeded at all levels (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 31).

The Plowden Report premised its recommendations for localised curriculum development on the work of Piaget (see Chapter 3.6) stating that students should be encouraged to actively explore their local environment and question their immediate surroundings (CACE 1967: 192); students should be encouraged to carry out fieldwork, conduct experiments and present their findings to fellow students. The Plowden Report effectively advocated that primary schools base their models of curriculum development on the Project Method as advocated by Piagetian educationalists (CACE 1967: 192). This child-centred approach to curriculum planning presented a radical alternative to traditional curricula based on didactic teaching (see Chapter 6.5); students were encouraged to actively explore their surroundings with teachers acting as

guides or facilitators. As such investigative work embraced skills common to a range of subject disciplines. The Project Method, or “enquiry based learning” as it was more commonly termed in England, naturally called into question the validity of traditional subject boundaries (CACE 1967:187). In practice therefore the Plowden Report recommended that schools base their curricula on the development of cross curricula themes rather than traditional academic disciplines noting:

The idea of flexibility has found expression in a number of practices which are designed to make good use of the interest and curiosity of children to minimise the notion of subject matter being rigidly compartmental and to allow teachers to adopt a consultative, guiding, stimulating role rather than a purely didactic one.....the oldest of these methods is the Project Method. Here the project or topic cuts across the boundaries of the subjects and is treated as its nature requires without reference to subjects as such.

(CACE 1967: 198)

5.3 The Schools Council and the importance of localised curriculum development

In 1964 Central Government recommended that the existing tripartite system of education be abolished; local authorities were asked to review the status of “grammar”, “technical” and “secondary modern schools” and to move towards a system of “comprehensive education” (Chitty 2009: 28). Comprehensive schools were to provide an education suitable for the needs of all students regardless of ability. Students of high academic ability were to be taught alongside those more accustomed to a more practical form of education and those believed to possess limited academic potential (Chitty 2009: 28). The ability of comprehensive schools to develop educational curricula suitable to all presented a serious challenge and necessitated the introduction of a new educational body, the “Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations,” commonly referred to as the “Schools Council” (Truman 1985: 11).

Control of the School’s Council Executive Committee lay decidedly with teachers; local authorities were represented as were DES and HMI but control lay with practising classroom

teachers (Kelly 2005: 167). Given the composition of the Schools Council Executive Committee support for local innovation as opposed to a centrally proscribed curriculum came as no surprise. The Schools Council believed passionately in localised development with the founding document noting:

We reaffirm the importance of the principle that the schools should have the fullest possible measure of responsibility for their own curricula and teaching methods which should be evolved by their own staff to meet the needs of their own pupils.

(Schools Council: 1964)

This refusal by the Schools Council to consider centralised control of the curriculum provoked a hostile reaction by the DES and the Schools Council was disbanded in 1985 (Plaskow 1985: 30). The School Council's stance in favour of localised curriculum development did however lead to the publication of a raft of curriculum development projects which schools were at liberty to select (Kelly 2005: 102).

The Schools Council developed projects suitable for all ages including those following CSE, GCE "O" Level and GCSE syllabuses. Projects accorded with the principles of child-centred learning as pioneered by Piagetian educationalists and all projects encouraged investigative fieldwork. Adopting an educational approach resembling that of the IBE's Project Method (see Chapter 3.5) students were encouraged to compose enquiry questions and to carry out their own fieldwork. Students kept field journals, carried out interviews and used field survey equipment (Blyth: 1976; Schools Council: 1976; Shemilt: 1980). Students were invited to use their data to test hypotheses before reaching their own substantiated conclusions. Some projects developed by the Schools Council were cross-curricular in nature e.g. "Place, Time and Society 8 to 13" (Blyth: 1976), developing concepts and skills common to a range of disciplines whilst others e.g. "Schools Council History Project" (Schools Council: 1976), commonly termed "SHP," were subject specific (for a detailed analysis of both projects see Chapter 6.7). Whatever approach was adopted the strength of the Schools Council lay undoubtedly in developing school projects as opposed to centralised curriculum planning (Truman 1985: 16).

5.4 The Black Papers: the case for centralised control of the curriculum

The Schools Council's opposition to centralised control of the curriculum became the focus of censorship from educationalists and political commentators alike (Chitty 2009: 36). Some of the most scathing remarks were attributable to papers drafted by right wing political publications including the Black Papers published between 1969 and 1977 (Cox and Dyson: 1969a; 1969b; 1970; Cox and Boyson: 1975; 1977). The Black Papers sought to condemn child centred learning practices berating schools for abandoning didactic teaching and for introducing what were perceived as "a rag bag of ill conceived projects" (Cox and Boyson 1975: 5). Claims were made that enquiry based approaches to learning had led to a decline in basic literacy and numeracy skills and dire consequences for British industry were forecast; a poorly educated workforce would not be able to compete in fiercely competitive markets (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 220).

The penultimate Black Paper proved particularly inflammatory. "The Fight for Education" (Cox and Boyson: 1975) constituted an open letter to parents beseeching them to condemn child centred learning and advocated the introduction of a National Curriculum. Cox and Boyson claimed that schools had abandoned traditional subjects in favour of cross curricular projects and that educational standards had declined as a result (Cox and Boyson 1975: 3).

Parents were informed that literacy and numeracy skills could only be taught in lessons dedicated to that purpose; these skills could not be developed through project work (Cox and Boyson 1975: 4). Cox and Boyson claimed that neglect of education had proved damaging for British industry citing a letter from the Chairman of the Centre for British Industry to the editor of the Times Educational Supplement; the letter stated that declining educational standards had led to difficulties in the recruitment of suitably trained staff (Cox and Boyson 1975).

The solution to current problems, claimed the Black Paper, was the introduction of a National Curriculum. Primary level students would focus on a core curriculum of English, maths and science whilst secondary students would study the core curriculum together with history,

geography and English Literature (Cox and Boyson 1975: 4). A national system of testing at the ages of 7, 11, 14 and 16 would ensure all schools adhered to this centrally proscribed curriculum (Cox and Boyson 1975: 4).

The “Fight for Education” would not normally have inspired serious debate yet the timing of this publication proved awkward for Central Government (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 220). Britain was in the midst of an economic crisis and Prime Minister James Callaghan was sensitive to criticism of economic policy. Claims that educational practices were injurious to Britain’s economic prospects were politically damaging and the Prime Minister was forced to act swiftly (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 220).

In 1976 Callaghan asked DES to compile an internal report detailing education in England and Wales. The report entitled, “School Education in England: Problems and Initiatives” (DES: 1976), or “The Yellow Book,” presented a scathing attack on the Schools Council for their lack of leadership in whole school curriculum planning:

The Schools Council has performed moderately in commissioning development work in particular areas of the curriculum; by this we refer to curriculum development projects....however it has scarcely begun to tackle the problems of the curriculum as a whole.

(DES 1976: 19)

In defence the Chairman of the Schools Council, Maurice Plaskow, responded stating that such planning was beyond the remit of the Schools Council (Plaskow 1985: 34); DES remained unappeased claiming that complete revision of the School’s Council Executive Committee was needed and that DES should assume control of the Schools Council (DES 1976: 25)

DES presented Callaghan with the Yellow Book prior to his address to Ruskin College, Oxford. On 18 October 1976 the Prime Minister delivered his address to an audience of teachers, politicians and trade unionists. Despite the confrontational nature of the Yellow Book the Prime Minister’s tone was conciliatory (Callaghan: 1976); he dismissed the Black Papers as right wing

propaganda and praised schools for adopting child centred learning strategies noting, “there is now widespread recognition of the need to cater for a child’s personality and to let it flower in the fullest possible way” (Callaghan 1976: 332).

Callaghan however noted concerns expressed by the Council for British Industry concluding that Britain now faced a skills deficit; he called on DES, HMI and “other interested parties” to determine whether a National Curriculum was desirable (Callaghan: 1976: 333). This debate was to dominate political discourse for the next decade and is commonly termed “The Great Debate” (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 220).

5.5 DES and HMI define the parameters of the Great Debate

In his Ruskin College speech Callaghan had proposed a truly inclusive debate on the future of education in England and Wales; in fact the Great Debate was dominated by HMI and DES with the Schools Council reluctant to engage (Lawton 1981: 167).

In 1977 DES published a consultative paper entitled “Education in Schools” (DES: 1977), here DES promoted their concept of a “core curriculum for schools” (DES 1977: 12). At primary level the core curriculum focused on literacy and numeracy with schools responsible for the remaining subjects (DES 1977: 8). At secondary level the core was expanded to include English, maths and science with schools once again responsible for remaining subjects (DES 1977: 11). Perhaps the most notable feature of this “core curriculum model” was the proposed system of monitoring and assessment; students would be tested at key stages in their educational careers and core subjects were assigned, “levels of achievement” (DES 1977: 8). Ostensibly at least the core curriculum bore comparison to the proposals of HMI detailed below; there was one notable exception however, DES did not advocate the imposition of a centralised curriculum on schools:

It would not be compatible with the duty of the Secretary of State to promote the education of the people of England and Wales...the Secretary of State will seek to establish a broad agreement with their partners in the education service on a framework for the curriculum. In their turn local authorities must coordinate the curriculum and oversee its development.

(DES 1977: 12)

HMI responded to DES proposals with publication of “Curriculum 11-16,” or “Red Book One” (DES/HMI: 1977); Red Book One focused exclusively on curriculum development in secondary schools and introduced the concept of “a common curriculum.” In contrast to the core curriculum the common curriculum guaranteed a curriculum of breadth for all students attending secondary school (DES/HMI 1977: 5). The common curriculum was conceived either in terms of traditional subjects e.g. maths, English, science, history or in terms of “cross-curricular themes”; this proposal of introducing a themed curriculum to schools was innovative and was supportive of much of the project work developed by the Schools Council (see Chapter 6.7). HMI proposed a total of eight cross-curricular themes including: “the aesthetic and creative”, “the ethical” and “the social and political” (DES/HMI 1977: 6).

Over ensuing years both DES and HMI modified their curriculum proposals; DES suggested minimum time allocations for core subjects with maths receiving 10%, English 10% and science 10-20% (DES 1980: 5). After piloting the common curriculum in schools nationwide HMI published their results under the title, “Curriculum 11-16: Towards A Statement of Entitlement,” or “Red Book Two” (DES/HMI: 1983); HMI now rebranded the common curriculum as “the entitlement curriculum” noting:

All pupils should be guaranteed a curriculum of distinctive breadth and depth to which they should be entitled irrespective of the type of school they attend or their level of ability or their special circumstances and that failure to provide such a curriculum is unacceptable.

(DES/HMI 1983: 25)

Despite these revisions to curricula proposals both HMI and DES remained adamant that schools should retain control of their curricula. The professional view remained that schools should decide how to structure their curricula and that a National Curriculum should not be imposed on schools (DES/HMI: 1983).

Seven years had passed since Callaghan addressed Ruskin College, Oxford. In that time DES and HMI had responded and outlined their recommendations for curriculum development. DES had advocated a minimalist “core curriculum” whilst HMI had advocated the holistic “entitlement curriculum.” Initially at least these curriculum models shared little common ground; as time passed however so policy differences began to ebb (Moon 1994: 252).

In 1985 DES published “Better Schools” (DES: 1985a) proposing a curriculum comprising nine subjects together with three cross-curricular themes: “understanding British society, economic awareness and the development of practical skills” (DES 1985a: para 66); clearly DES had rejected their core curriculum model in favour of HMI proposals. Indeed DES now commissioned HMI to draft guidance documents for all nine subject areas (DES 1985a: para 32). HMI fulfilled this brief producing a series of guides under the generic title; “The Curriculum Matters Series” (for a detailed analysis of “History Matters” see Chapter 6.9).

The second guide in The Curriculum Matters Series entitled, “The Curriculum from 5 to 16” (DES/HMI: 1985a) proved particularly important. Here HMI presented the entitlement curriculum in terms of the nine subject areas previously identified by DES. HMI made scant reference to the cross-curricular themes outlined in Red Books One and Two, promising they would be resurrected as the series progressed; this promise however was never fulfilled (Maw 1998: 57).

In conclusion, after nine years of development, DES and HMI had reached a consensus of opinion regarding curriculum planning. “Better Schools” now provided a blueprint for curriculum development in schools with further guidance and support available via the “Curriculum Matters Series” (DES/HMI: 1985). Most importantly however, both DES and HMI

maintained their opposition to the introduction of a National Curriculum. Schools were to use guidance documents to construct their own individualised curricula (DES 1985a: para 36).

5.6 Introducing the National Curriculum for England and Wales

In 1987, barely two years after consensus on curriculum development had been reached, a newly elected Conservative Government published “The National Curriculum 5 to 16: A Consultation Document” (DES: 1987). The central tenet of this document was that control of curriculum development now passed to Central Government:

The Government has concluded that such advantages as breadth, balance, focus on learning objectives and accountability can be guaranteed only with a national framework for the curriculum. To be effective the framework must be backed by law.....

(DES 1987: 5)

Under this proposed legislation the Secretary of State for Education, Kenneth Baker, was to assume control of curriculum development in England and Wales. Curriculum content would be centrally proscribed and reinforced by law (DES 1987: 17). Whilst Baker was keen to stress continuity with earlier proposals by DES and HMI it was clear that schools were to play no part in curriculum development (Maw 1988: 50); educationalists observed that policy documents developed by DES and HMI had been abandoned and that the imposition of a National Curriculum represented a radical departure from previous policy (Maw 1988: 58).

The proposed National Curriculum included three core subjects: maths, English and science together with seven foundation subjects: modern languages, technology, history, geography, art, music and physical education (DES 1987: 7). POSs for all subjects were to be drafted by subject working groups with drafts forwarded to a newly constituted National Curriculum Council (NCC) for approval (DES 1987: 10).

Given the revolutionary nature of the Government's proposals the consultation period for the National Curriculum was extremely short, beginning July 1987 and ending October 1987; this period proved even shorter once Parliamentary recess was factored in (Ross 2000: 25). Clearly this legislation was not intended for prolonged debate. Suggested amendments to this consultation document were swept aside and the National Curriculum was swiftly incorporated into "The Education Reform Act" or ERA (DES: 1988). Reeling at the pace of change Maw observed, "the present far reaching ERA represents a most profound rupture with the very recent policy statements from the present Government on both content and control of the curriculum" (Maw 1988: 56).

DES and HMI policy, developed over a decade, had been discarded and the advent of the 1988 ERA heralded a new age of centralised curriculum control. Central Government now proscribed the educational curriculum whilst teachers and local authorities were rendered powerless (Maw: 1988; Ross: 2000). Educationalists were left guessing as to the motives for such radical reform.

5.7 The role of the New Right in developing the National Curriculum

The Consultation Document was published shortly after the General Election of May 1987. To ensure election victory and retain power Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher had proposed a Manifesto which appealed both to the electorate and her own Conservative Party. Conservative Central Office had identified education policy as being of key interest to voters; unfortunately for the Prime Minister this was a topic set to divide Conservative Party loyalties.

Political commentators had identified two factions within the Conservative Party; these factions constituted the "New Right" of British politics (Moon 1994: 252; Bartlett *et al* 2005: 222). "Neo-Conservatives" believed in strong centralised government, in exerting a high degree of social control and promoting British values; "Neo- Liberals" on the other hand believed in minimal government control, the supremacy of market forces and in freedom of choice (Quicke 1988: 8). Ostensibly the task of uniting these factions seemed remote; in practice however these factions sought common ground even banding together to form powerful pressure groups.

The New Right published a prolific amount of material all of which was designed to have popular appeal (Moon 1994: 252; Quicke 1988: 5). The tone of such publications was often emotive and confrontational, presenting unsubstantiated claims as fact and playing on fears of covert Communist activity (Quick 1988: 10). Above all the New Right attacked enquiry based teaching methods branding them a waste of time (Hillgate 1986: 5).

New subjects, introduced by the Schools Council, such as “peace studies” and “world studies” were said to possess sinister Marxist undertones (Scruton 1986: 107; Cox and Scruton 1984) whilst sociology was condemned as a subject unfit for secondary education (Regan 1986: 12). Similarly the New Right scorned the time wasted introducing students to “global history”, “global geography” and “world religions” (Hillgate 1986: 5) imploring schools to focus on British cultural traditions (for an analysis of SCHP see Chapter 6.7). Finally, in what some might view as a parody of Conservative education policy, the New Right attacked anti-racism initiatives and the teaching of Human Rights in schools claiming these topics were rooted in subversive politics (Flew 1986: 150; Marks 1986: 211). Such confrontational and vitriolic texts enjoyed a popular readership and were regularly featured in the columns of leading newspapers (Maw 1988: 62).

One such publication by the Hillgate Group exerted dramatic influence over Conservative policy in the months preceding the 1987 General Election (Quicke 1988: 6). “Whose Schools? A Radical Manifesto” (Hillgate: 1986) presented a series of proposals for radical educational change; these proposals included:

- All schools should be released from local authority control with funding awarded by Central Government. Funding should be determined on a *per capita* basis with the most popular schools receiving greater funding

- There should be more parental choice in determining the education a child receives; schools should be required to publish examination data to assist parents in determining their choice of school
- A National Curriculum should be introduced for all schools as direct comparison can only take place if all schools follow the same curriculum.

(Hillgate 1986 13-15)

Presented in this manner the National Curriculum formed an integral part of the New Right education strategy. The National Curriculum would allow direct comparison between schools, performance in all subjects would be closely monitored via a system of national testing and the publication of test results would assist parents in their choice of school. Popular schools would receive grants from Central Government whilst less popular establishments would be forced to improve (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 227). “Whose Schools?” then turned to presenting a framework for the newly proposed National Curriculum:

We believe that a National Curriculum is essential; we believe in the values of a traditional education. The National Curriculum should have at its core reading; writing and arithmetic...foreign languages, maths, science, history and literature are of lasting value to the person that learns them. Such subjects involve a testable and coveted body of knowledge which it is the duty of any educational system to pass on from generation to generation.

(Hillgate 1986: 7)

Education strategies proposed by the Hillgate Group offered Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher the prospect of victory in the 1987 General Election; these strategies would unite Party factions and curry favour with the electorate (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 225). Neo-Conservatives would be appeased as control of funding was ceded to Central Government and the proposed National Curriculum would promote British values. Neo-Liberals delighted in the prospect of greater parental choice with the National Curriculum providing parents with a comparative tool (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 227). Seizing this opportunity the Prime Minister translated these strategies into

Conservative Party Policy. The resultant Manifesto proved popular with voters and the Conservative Party secured a resounding election victory. It now remained for the Prime Minister to fulfil her electoral promises.

5.8 The 1988 Education Reform Act

Once the consultation period for “National Curriculum 5 to 16” (DES: 1987) had passed the National Curriculum was incorporated as Chapter 40 of the 1988 ERA (DES: 1988). As a White Paper the 1988 ERA constituted an extensive piece of Government legislation which radically transformed the education system of England and Wales (Bartlet *et al* 2005: 224). Perhaps unsurprisingly the ERA bore more than a passing resemblance to policies promoted by the New Right in “Whose Schools? A Radical Manifesto”; key reforms implemented by the ERA included:

- Schools were released from local authority funding arrangements and now applied direct to Government for grant allocations. Many schools were encouraged to opt out of local authority control altogether and obtain Grant Maintained Status. These measures undermined the status of local authorities whilst bolstering the power of Central Government
- Local authorities no longer assumed sole control with regard to the allocation of school places. Parents could now express choice with regard to the school their child attended; if a school had places then, under “open enrolment,” the school must accept that child. Once again the power of local authorities was undermined
- Under Chapter 40 of ERA all state schools were to introduce the National Curriculum. The National Curriculum stated that students would sit Standard Assessment Tests (SATs) at the ages 7, 11, 14 and 16 and that results would be made available to parents. The National Curriculum thus became an important tool in allowing parents to choose “the best” school for their child.

In an effort to secure election victory the Conservative Party had adopted the education policies of the New Right. The National Curriculum was an important element of such policies as it enabled direct comparison between schools. Parents, it was claimed, were now able to make an informed choice of schooling for their child and, under “open enrolment”, secure their place. With Grant Maintained Status the most popular schools would be allocated additional funding and so expand whilst those schools returning poor results would be forced to improve.

Comparisons between the 1988 ERA and “Whose Schools?” did not end there however. The framework of the National Curriculum itself bore a marked resemblance to that proposed by the Hillgate Group. N/C 1988 (DES 1988: Chap 40) comprised ten subjects: three “core subjects” (maths, English and science) and seven “foundation subjects” (history, geography, technology, music, art, modern languages and physical education). These ten subjects, together with religious education, formed the “basic curriculum” (DES 1988: Chap 40.3). Secretary of State, Ken Baker, would convene subject working groups to draft POSs for each subject (DES 1988: Chap 40.4). These working groups would detail the knowledge, skills and understanding for their respective subjects as well as identifying ten separate “levels of attainment” for assessment purposes. A separate body, The Group on Assessment and Testing (TGAT), would design Standard Assessment Tests (SATs) for students aged 7, 11, 14 and 16. (TGAT: 1987).

The National Curriculum allowed Central Government to closely monitor what was taught in schools throughout England and Wales. Members of subject working groups were selected by Baker himself; Baker, together with a newly constituted National Curriculum Council (NCC) scrutinized the reports of all working groups noting where revisions needed to be made. The NCC then drafted Subject Orders before final approval by Baker and the Prime Minister (DES 1988: 40.4). The process was complex, elaborate and destined for failure (Moon 1994: 257).

5.9 The evolution of the National Curriculum

The true scale of the National Curriculum became apparent when N/C 1988 was introduced to primary schools in 1990. Immediately primary school teachers were faced with implementing all ten subjects and preparing seven year olds for a battery of SATs. The workload proved impossible and in 1991 teacher unions obtained a High Court Order banning SATs for that year (Chitty 2009: 130). In 1992 incoming Secretary of State, John Patten, requested that Sir Ron Dearing review N/C 1988 (Moon 1994: 257; Bartlett *et al* 2005: 228).

The Dearing Review (Dearing: 1993) found N/C 1988 to be overly proscriptive. Subject working groups operating in relative isolation had produced highly detailed POSs. Individually these POSs had merit, collectively however they proved unworkable (Dearing 1993: 3). Dearing proposed that all POSs be slimmed down with emphasis now placed on the “key elements” of each subject (Dearing 1993: 28).

In addition N/C geography and N/C history were no longer compulsory for 14 to 16 year olds and the ten “levels of attainment” proposed for N/C 1988 were reduced to eight “level descriptors” (for the impact of the Dearing Review on the teaching of history see Chapter 6.11). Most importantly from the point of view of primary school teachers SATs were now only compulsory in the three core subjects: maths, English and science (Dearing: 1993). To allow students some degree of continuity and to enable teachers to plan effectively the revised National Curriculum (N/C 1995) was introduced for a minimum period of five years during which time its effectiveness could be closely monitored (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 229).

The incoming Labour Government, under Prime Minister Tony Blair, respected the five year moratorium imposed by the Dearing Review. However in 1997 Secretary of State David Blunkett requested that an Advisory Group on Citizenship be convened under the chairmanship of Professor Bernard Crick. The Final Report of this Advisory Group, or Crick Report (Crick: 1998), noted a general sense of apathy and resentment by young people towards those exercising political power (Crick 1998:16); the report concluded that young people lacked the skills to engage in democratic debate and felt largely alienated within their local communities (Crick

1998: 14). Crick believed that young people lacked a sense of identity and that efforts should be made to identify core British values or “Britishness”; such core values might act as a rallying point for young people giving them an air of common purpose (Crick 1998: 30). In 1999, as part of a minor revision of the National Curriculum, citizenship was introduced as a non-statutory subject at primary level (DfEE 1999: iii); Blunkett further advised that a Citizenship Order be introduced at secondary level to be implemented in 2002 (DfEE 1999: iii). In keeping with other discrete changes a “light touch” approach was to be adopted (DfEE 1999: i). Secondary schools were free to timetable citizenship either as a subject in its own right or as a cross-curricular theme, perhaps inevitably many chose the latter (DfEE/QCA 1999a).

Paradoxically some of the most influential changes impacting on the National Curriculum at this time were non-statutory. The introduction of a Primary National Strategy (PNS) in 2001 followed by a Secondary National Strategy (SNS) in 2004 (DfEE 1999: ii) focused specifically on raising standards in literacy and numeracy. All teachers were asked to familiarise themselves with the “Framework for Teaching English: Years 7, 8 and 9” (DfES: 2001) whilst key vocabulary and grammar was to be reinforced across all subjects. Whilst Westbrook notes that SNS did help to raise standards of literacy in secondary schools there were a number of negative affects (Westbrook 2009: 69); DfES advocated the introduction of a “literacy hour” each day which severely impacted on the timetabling of other subjects e.g. humanities and on time available for site visits (OFSTED 2007: 28).

5.10 Background to the 2007 National Curriculum for secondary schools in England

The electoral manifesto of the incoming Labour Government had placed a premium on educational provision in the UK and Prime Minister Tony Blair’s mantra of, “education, education, education” had become a media catchphrase (Chitty 2009: 62). As Secretary of State for Education, David Blunkett convened a new body to review N/C 1995, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). The brief of the QCA was however decidedly limited and they were instructed to adopt “a light touch approach” to curriculum reform (DfEE 1999: i). The result was that N/C 1999 bore a stark resemblance to N/C 1995. The framework of N/C 1995 was

retained with near identical POSs and similar, if not identical, level descriptors (DfEE/QCA 1999a). The most marked change to the National Curriculum was the introduction of a Citizenship Order for secondary schools (DfEE/QCA 1999a: 4) however, as noted above; the light touch approach prevailed here as well.

With regard to broader domestic policy, in 1998 the Government introduced the “Human Rights Act” (HRA) incorporating the “European Convention on Human Rights” into UK domestic law (Starkey 2007: 13). HRA effectively granted legal status to UNDHR (United Nations: 1948) and complimented the ratification of UNCRC (United Nations: 1989) by the former Conservative Government in 1990 (Osler and Starkey 2005: 18). The result of such actions was that the UK Government formally acknowledged the centrality of Human Rights in determining UK domestic and foreign policy.

Educationalists believed that it was the universal values identified by Human Rights legislation that formed the most fitting basis for citizenship education in England, as opposed to the narrow, nationalistic values expressed by the Crick Report (Osler and Starkey 2005: 91).

The importance of promoting Human Rights education had long been emphasised by educationalists; research studies conducted in schools across the UK had noted a marked discrepancy in rates of exclusion and in levels of attainment of students from certain ethnic backgrounds (Osler and Starkey: 2005: 60; Chitty 2009: 187; Tomlinson 2005: 182); researchers attributed such phenomena to racial attitudes prevalent in some schools. The effects of racism on British institutions were graphically illustrated by the abuse of Black children both in schools and under the protection social services; the killing of Black student Stephen Lawrence was one extreme example (Chitty 2009: 187). Here a High Court ruling noted the negligence of child welfare organisations and schools in protecting the child’s welfare. Such failures were attributed to a culture of “institutional racism” (Macpherson: 1999). At the trial Judge Macpherson defined institutional racism as:

The collective failure of an organisation to provide an appropriate and professional service to people because of their colour, culture or ethnic origin. It can be detected in

process, attitudes and behaviour which amount to the discrimination through unwitting prejudice, ignorance and thoughtlessness and racist stereotyping which disadvantages minority ethnic people. It persists because of the failure of the organisation openly and adequately to recognise and address its existence and causes by policy, example and leadership. Without recognition and action to eliminate such racism it can prevail as part of the ethos or culture of the organisation; it is a corrosive disease.

(Macpherson 1999: para 6.34)

The High Court's damning indictment of child welfare organisations and schools prompted decisive action and in 2003 the Government published a Green Paper entitled "Every Child Matters" or ECM (HM Treasury: 2003). This consultative document sought to place the rights of children at the centre of all professional practice and child welfare organisations were required to respond accordingly. ECM defined Children's Rights in terms of five outcomes, commonly referred to as the ECM Agenda:

- Be healthy
- Be safe
- Enjoy and achieve
- Make a positive contribution
- Achieve economic wellbeing

(H.M. Treasury 2003: 14)

The ECM Agenda was approved by child welfare organisations and subsequently incorporated into law by the 2004 Children's Act (Osler and Starkey 2005: 54). Somewhat belatedly schools and other agencies were confronted with their legal obligations under the HRA, including UNCRC. Writing in the journal "Teaching Citizenship" one leading academic noted, "the current

UK Government strategy is predicated on the standards of UNCRC though this is rarely acknowledged in the official literature” (Starkey: 2007: 13).

The legal obligations of child welfare organisations naturally extended to ridding institutions of racism and respecting the cultural identity of all children (Osler and Starkey 2005: 44); these obligations, basic as they were, had a marked impact on policies implemented by DfES and the QCA. The advent of the 2004 Children’s Act required that DfES and QCA demonstrate how the ECM Agenda informed professional practice. DfES focused on promoting UNCRC in schools whilst UNICEF produced visual aids mapping the ECM Agenda onto UNCRC (UNICEF: 2004). At local level DfES supported schools in implementing the ECM Agenda through the publication of “Every Child Matters: Change for Children in Schools” (DfES: 2004d). Here DfES related the ECM Agenda to general educational practice noting ways in which individual subject areas might support the five educational outcomes. QCA took note and the decision to revise N/C 1999 was accompanied by a detailed account of how the ECM Agenda informed all new POSs (QCA: 2006a; QCA 2006b; QCA 2006c); in theory at least the ECM Agenda now underpinned educational practice in all English Schools.

In theory ECM now informed teaching and learning in English Schools; research studies however portrayed a different story. Prompted by claims that the education system in England discriminated against Black students DfES commissioned a research study entitled, “Exclusion of Black Pupils: Priority Review: Getting it. Getting it Right” (DfES: 2006c). Research findings were damning with the Priority Review concluding that the National Curriculum, as presented by schools, was “culturally unrepresentative” (DfES 2006c: 3). Researchers identified a prevailing belief that POSs ignored the history and culture of minority groups and that Black students in particular experienced feelings of marginalisation and rejection. The result was an “attainment gap” with Black students underachieving when compared to white students (DfES 2006c: 1). The Priority Review, in common with earlier studies, noted the persistence of an “exclusion gap” noting that Black students were three times more likely to be excluded from school than white students for the same offence (DfES 2006c: 1). The Priority Review concluded that the “exclusion gap” was indicative of “institutional racism” in English Schools (DfES 2006c: 26). The persistence of institutional racism in English Schools was incompatible with UNCRC and

threatened to undermine both the ECM Agenda and the 2004 Education Act; the report concluded:

Left to its own devices the educational system will conclude that Every Child Matters but that black children's failure and social exclusion is to be expected and that black children matter that little bit less.....black pupils could be empowered to fulfil their potential but this is impossible whilst the teacher's view of the person is conditioned by subconscious prejudice.

(DfES 2006c: 16)

The Priority Review had paved the way for a review of the National Curriculum; in parallel with this study the Secretary of State commissioned an independent report entitled "Teaching and Learning in 2020" (DfES: 2006d). This report, commonly referenced as "2020 Vision", was Chaired by Chief HMI Ruth Gilbert and, once again, the importance of revising the National Curriculum was emphasised (for an analysis of the impact of 2020 Vision on N/C history see Chapter 6.11).

Gilbert immediately identified the existence of an attainment gap in English Schools noting relatively low attainment rates amongst Black students. In contrast to the Priority Review however, 2020 Vision cited the National Curriculum as the cause of the problem (DfES 2006d: 18); N/C 1999 was portrayed as being overly proscriptive with teachers forced to rely on didactic teaching methods (DfES 2006d: 18). The result, claimed Gilbert, was a system of teaching and learning which excluded specific groups of students (DfES 2006d: 18). The solution proposed by 2020 Vision was a renewed emphasis on the enquiry based approach to learning with schools introducing multidisciplinary projects (DfES 2006d: 13); Gilbert observed "learners are naturally active and curious; they create their own hypotheses, ask their own questions, coach one another, set goals for themselves and monitor each others progress" (DfES 2006d: 6). Gilbert claimed that the skills promoted by enquiry based learning were those most highly prized by employers including: the ability to work with others, the ability to critically evaluate information, the ability to work independently and the ability to investigate problems and find solutions (DfES 2006d: 19). Unfortunately, according to 2020 Vision, N/C 1999 did little to promote these skills:

These skills and attitudes are important but the National Curriculum gives them relatively little weight and they are measured, recorded and reported inadequately by national tests and most public examinations. As a result they are in danger of being neglected by teachers and undervalued by pupils...

(DfES 2006d: 10)

For Gilbert, revision of the National Curriculum was a priority; schools needed to re-engage with students and enquiry based learning presented this opportunity.

Both the “Priority Review” and “2020 Vision” had confirmed the underachievement of Black students in English Schools and evidence was mounting regarding the failure of the ECM Agenda. Decisive action was needed and in 2007 DfES convened the “Diversity and Citizenship Review Group” Chaired by former Head Teacher, Sir Keith Ajegbo (DfES: 2007). The Final Report, commonly termed the “Ajegbo Report”, confirmed the poor performance and discrimination experienced by Black students in English Schools. Similarly the Ajegbo Report confirmed the presence of institutional racism in schools with teachers making little attempt to address the needs of students from minority communities (DfES 2007: 38). The Ajegbo Report confirmed that cultural diversity could not be adequately addressed through N/C 1999; a thorough revision of the National Curriculum was recommended as was the introduction of “identity and cultural diversity” as a cross-curricular theme in schools (DfES 2007: 38).

With regard to the teaching of citizenship, the Ajegbo Report noted a shift in the educational aims of the subject. Emphasis had been placed on students familiarising themselves with the British parliamentary system; however citizenship would now emphasise the importance of cultural diversity, encouraging students to explore topics related to the needs of their communities. To reinforce this message the Ajegbo Report recommended the introduction of a “fourth strand” of citizenship namely, “Identity and Diversity: Living Together in the UK” (DfES 2007: 97); similarly the Ajegbo Report recommended enquiry based learning as the most suitable pedagogical approach to the subject:

Citizenship is about empowering young people with the knowledge, understanding and aspirations to want to participate, to want to know, to want to engage with their community....the overriding aim is to develop active citizenship that is informed by relevant evidence.

(DfES 2007: 95)

Finally the Ajegbo Report advised that the “light touch approach” to citizenship, as recommended by N/C 1999, was inappropriate and that the QCA should introduce a full POS for this subject (DfES 2007: 83); in addition Awarding Bodies in England should be encouraged to offer GCSE Citizenship to schools as soon as possible (DfES 2007: 88).

5.11 The 2007 National Curriculum for England introduced 2008-2010

In 2007 QCA published the revised National Curriculum for secondary schools in England (DCSF/QCA: 2007). N/C 2007 identified three specific aims each premised on the ECM Agenda and reflecting the universal values of UNCRC; the secondary school curriculum should enable all young people to become:

- Successful learners, who enjoy learning, make progress and achieve;
- Confident individuals who are able to live safe, healthy and fulfilling lives;
- Responsible citizens who make a positive contribution to society.

(DCSF/QCA 2007: 7)

These aims informed the “importance statements” for all subjects and underpinned the new POSs drafted by QCA subject advisors.

The curriculum framework for N/C 2007 differed little from that of N/C 1999 with POSs detailed for students aged 11 to 14 in the following subject areas: art and design, citizenship,

design and technology, English, geography, history, information and communication technology (ICT), mathematics, modern foreign languages (MFL), music, physical education (PE) and science. The curriculum for students aged 14 to 16 was more focused with POSs detailed in just six subject areas: citizenship, English, information and communication technology (ICT), mathematics, physical education (PE) and science. N/C 2007 did however outline a further four “curriculum areas” for students aged 14 to 16 comprising: “arts” (art and design, music, dance, drama and media), “design and technology”, “humanities” (geography and/or history) and modern foreign languages (DCSF/QCA 2007: 9). Whilst no POSs were introduced for these curriculum areas QCA did publish revised GCSE subject criteria. These subject criteria informed the revised GCSE specifications introduced to schools in 2008 (see Chapter 7.4).

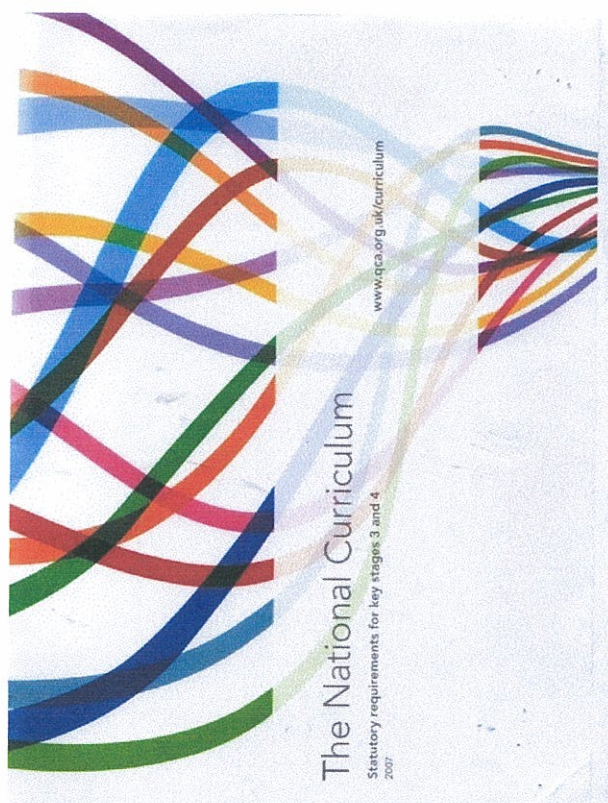


Figure 5.1 The 2007 National Curriculum Handbook for Secondary Schools in England (DCSF/QCA: 2007)

All POSs introduced by N/C 2007 comprised the following elements: an “importance statement” detailing how the ECM Agenda and the aims of N/C 2007 related to that particular subject; a list

of “Key Concepts” underpinning that particular POS, a list of “Key Processes” or subject skills underpinning that POS and, finally, a concise description of subject content (for an analysis of N/C 2007 history see Chapter 6.11).

Chapter Five traced the development of the English National Curriculum from the introduction of the 1988 ERA through to publication of N/C 2007. Despite a number of revisions the framework for the National Curriculum had remained remarkably constant with the QCA identifying similar core and foundation subjects. The most dramatic changes introduced by N/C 2007 related to the POSs for each subject; these ensured that N/C 2007 would present the most radical reform to the National Curriculum to date. The aims and objectives of N/C 2007 were premised on the ECM Agenda and reflected the universal values of Human Rights instruments, in particular UNCRC (see Chapter 5.10). In addition, all new POSs emphasised constructivist approaches to learning with skills being allocated a high profile. To reinforce these changes N/C 2007 placed renewed emphasis on fieldwork reminding teachers that skills should be developed both inside and outside the classroom.

Ostensibly at least there appears some synergy between the aims and values of N/C 2007 and the universal values of Young Hands; both are premised on Human Rights instruments, both advocate constructivist approaches to education and both emphasise the importance of fieldwork and out of class learning. Chapter Six, “Teaching the Past in English Schools”, now investigates these areas of commonality further. Sixteen of the seventeen WHSs in England (for a full list of WHSs in England see Appendix 8) have been inscribed as cultural heritage sites (see Chapter 3.11). Young Hands is an educational syllabus designed for use at WHSs and, with such a weighting in favour of cultural heritage, it is perhaps inevitable that the teaching of history (or prehistory) should prove instrumental in determining its educational potential; indeed N/C 2007 history provides the only tangible means of conveying the historical significance of England’s WHSs (see Chapter 7.14). With these points in mind Chapter Six now traces the development of historical studies in English secondary schools, emphasising the importance of constructivist approaches to teaching and learning. Key milestones in the development of the National Curriculum are revisited including the impact of the Plowden Report, the advent of the Schools Council and the introduction and evolution of N/C history.

Chapter 6: Teaching the Past in English Schools

6.1 Introduction

The preceding Chapter introduced the aims and values underpinning N/C 2007 presenting these values within their broader context and relating them to the development of Human Rights legislation in the UK. Most WHSs in England had been inscribed with reference to Article 1 of the 1972 Convention and constituted “cultural heritage sites”; as a result historical studies or “teaching the past” would play a significant role in determining whether Young Hands could support teaching and learning in schools. It is for this reason that Chapter Six now identifies the major influences which have been brought to bear on teaching the past in English Schools.

Particular attention is paid to the educational approaches adopted by history teachers over the last fifty years; from didactic methods of teaching and learning, favoured in the early 1960s, through to “enquiry based learning” as detailed in N/C 2007 history. This Chapter determines the extent to which constructivist approaches to teaching have impacted on the teaching of history in English Schools. The contribution of early constructivist thinkers (as detailed in Chapters 3.6 and 3.7) is reviewed before examining role of Jerome Bruner in the development of history syllabuses in England.

Having determined the principles of constructivist educational theory Chapter Six then traces the development of teaching the past in English Schools. The impact of the Schools Council History Project (SCHP) and the introduction of history to the National Curriculum for England and Wales constitute an important focus of this Chapter.

6.2 Jean Piaget and the Project Method: revisiting the pioneers of constructivist theory

Chapter Three examined the work of Jean Piaget, Professor of Psychology at the University of Geneva and Director of the IBE (see Chapter 3.6). Piaget believed that the most effective learning experiences were those which encouraged the child to interact with their environment.

Piagetian educationalists recommended that students be encouraged to formulate their own enquiry questions, assimilate evidence from a broad range of source material and present their findings to teachers and fellow students (see Chapter 3.6). This educational approach was termed the “Project Method” and became the recommended mode of teaching for Associated Schools and ASP (net) projects (IBE 1996: Annex XI).

Whilst the cognitive constructivist theory of Piaget offered great potential for the planning of individual school projects (see Chapter 5.2) severe limitations were placed on the planning of whole school curricula. Most notably Piaget postulated that a child’s ability to learn was dictated by their chronological age (Piaget 1971: 29-33). As the child advanced in age so they passed through four clearly defined stages of cognitive development. The last stage of cognitive development was reserved for those children aged 12 or above and was defined by “formal operational processes” (Figure 3.1). Piagetian educationalists maintained that subjects such as history and social studies were rooted in “formal operational thinking” as they required an understanding of abstract concepts; the conclusion of documents such as the Plowden Report (CACE: 1967) was that history and social studies were unsuited to students of primary school age (see Chapter 6.5).

The restrictions outlined above were tempered somewhat by the work of social psychologists such as Lev Vygotsky (see Chapter 3.7). Whilst acknowledging the validity of much of Piaget’s work Vygotsky questioned those principles underpinning cognitive stage theory (Marti 1996: 471). Vygotsky refused to accept that a child’s cognitive development was dictated solely by chronological age and postulated that social interaction with teachers and with fellow students was a determining factor. Vygotsky believed that if a child’s learning experiences were suitably “scaffolded” then that child would reach the stage of formal operational thinking at an earlier age (Ivic 1994: 476). Vygotsky showed that a child’s cognitive processes could be developed at a rate faster than that predicted by Piaget providing new experiences were introduced incrementally; for Vygotsky the teacher’s role was to regulate the introduction of new experiences, too fast and the child would feel confused, too slow and the child might become bored and disengaged (Vygotsky: 1981). Vygotsky suggested such framing techniques might

include active questioning by the teacher as well as drama and role play; his untimely death however spelt the end of further work.

6.3 The application of constructivist theory to whole school curriculum planning: the contribution of Jerome Bruner

Piaget and Vygotsky had done much to advance constructivist theories of education and the Project Method rapidly became the accepted educational approach for all ASP (net) projects including Young Hands (see Chapter 3.8).

In England the Project Method of education was promoted by a number of influential studies including the Plowden Report (see Chapter 6.5) and many schools became actively involved in project based activities. Constructivist approaches to teaching and learning did however present a number of implacable limitations including the seeming inability of younger children to exhibit empathy or understand abstract concepts; Piaget's cognitive stage theory maintained that students below the age of 12 were incapable of formal operational thought whilst those above this age exhibited only limited understanding. Whilst Vygotsky had questioned the rigidity of this model the basic principles still held true and it was left to his protégé, Jerome Bruner, to demonstrate the potential of constructivist theory to whole school curriculum planning (Gunning 1978: 12).

As a social constructivist researcher Bruner spent much time translating the works of Vygotsky. Like Vygotsky, Bruner abhorred traditional didactic forms of teaching and instead advocated the Project Method favoured by Piaget. Bruner (1960: 20) noted:

Mastery of the fundamental ideas of a field involves not only the grasping of general principles but also the development of an attitude towards learning and enquiry, towards guessing and hunches, towards the possibility of solving problems on one's own.

For Bruner, as for other constructivist writers, active learning was the key to good educational practice (Wood 1988: 38). However, whilst Piaget had questioned the inability of younger children to engage with subjects such as history and social studies, Bruner favoured Vygotsky's social constructivist approach (Wood 1988: 38). Vygotsky had shown that younger children were in fact able to comprehend abstract concepts providing work was suitably "scaffolded." Scaffolding involved the classroom teacher deconstructing the more complex elements of a subject and demonstrating those elements at concrete operational level either through structured questioning or through role play and drama (see Chapter 3.7). Using these methods young children could be introduced to abstract concepts and complex skills at a relatively young age (Bartlett *et al* 2005: 140).

Bruner believed that these principles could be applied to the planning of syllabuses for all school subjects (Gunning 1978: 12). Whilst subject syllabuses at the time were devoted to detailing subject knowledge or "the facts," Bruner proposed such syllabuses be rewritten (Wood 1988: 39). In place of subject knowledge these new syllabuses needed to identify the underlying principles of each subject, he noted:

The first and most obvious problem is how to have the basic subjects rewritten and their teaching materials revamped in such a way that the pervading and powerful ideas and attitudes relating to them are given a central role....the best minds in any particular discipline must be put to work on the task.

(Bruner 1960: 18)

For reasons identified above the teaching of history posed a significant challenge to curriculum developers and it was not until publication of "Educational Objectives for the Study of History" (Coltham and Fines: 1971) that the "pervading and powerful ideas" of history were identified.

Even the publication of Coltham and Fines' work failed to address all salient points. Educationalists questioned how these pervading and powerful ideas (or Key Concepts) might be introduced to younger students and an holistic understanding of the subject may be assured by the age of 16; in answer Bruner (1960: 33) proposed that:

The foundations of any subject may be taught to anybody at any age in some form.....to be in command of these basic ideas, to use them effectively, requires continual deepening of one's understanding of them in progressively more complex forms.

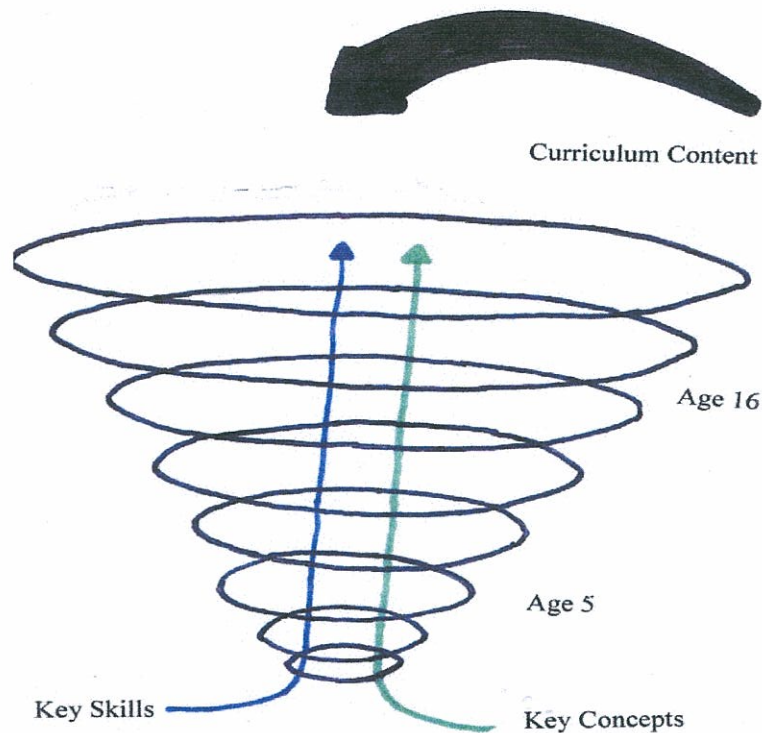


Figure 6.1 Bruner's "spiral curriculum model."

Bruner cited Vygotsky's research showing how scaffolding techniques such as classroom discussion, questioning, role play and drama might be used to introduce younger students to abstract concepts (Bruner 1960: 39). Bruner then proposed that new subject curricula be designed in such a way that Key Concepts were revisited time and again. He postulated that as familiarity with specific Key Concepts grew and as the child advanced in age so new levels of detail and refinement could be added (Bruner 1960: 52); eventually, by the age of 16, the child should display a comprehensive understanding of the subject in question. Bruner termed this model of curriculum development the "spiral curriculum" with primary school students being introduced at the bottom of the spiral. As the curriculum "spirals" upwards so the student

continually revisits specific key concepts; the expansion of swirls towards the top of the spiral is indicative of greater curriculum breadth and higher levels of sophistication (Figure 6.1).

Bruner's spiral curriculum model featured strongly in the development of history curricula from the 1970s onwards; projects developed by the Schools Council, such as SCHP, placed the spiral curriculum at forefront of their planning (Schools Council: 1976). In addition HMI published their own history curriculum detailing how the key concepts of history might be spiralled for all students between the ages of 5 to 16 (DES/HMI: 1985b: 18). Perhaps of greatest significance however was the Final Report of History Working Group (HWG) convened to draft the POS for National Curriculum History (DES 1990: 4). HWG noted that the spiral curriculum, in their opinion, was the most appropriate model for developing "historical understanding" and "historical skills;" HWG proposed that the forthcoming History Order be based on a double spiral or twin helix (see Chapter 6.10).

6.4 The Great Tradition of History Teaching

Prior to 1960 history teaching in England tended to be dominated by the Great Tradition. The Great Tradition was characterised by a specific educational approach. Teachers were well versed in the skills of didactic exposition, reading from set texts, extrapolating salient facts and illuminating the narrative with their own insights. Students sat passively listening to such narrative accounts occasionally making their own notes or copying those dictated by the teacher. Learning for these students was a matter of memorising historical facts and learning was assessed by formal examination testing factual recall (Husbands *et al* 2003: 8; Sylvester 1994: 9 and Phillips 1998: 13).

The Great Tradition of history teaching was also characterised by syllabus content. History syllabuses tended to focus on the teaching of British history. These historical accounts followed a strict chronological progression beginning with the Roman Invasion of AD 43 and ending with The Great War of 1914 (Slater 1989: 1; Phillips 1998: 13; Husbands *et al* 2003: 9). Such

syllabuses paid little heed to the development of historical skills or to topics of cultural or social significance; the focus rather was on British political history. The role of the history teacher was to provide students with an insight into the development of British parliamentary democracy and to demonstrate the innate superiority of the British people (Husbands *et al* 2003: 9; Sylvester 1994: 10). It was believed that such a syllabus might act as a unifying force, engendering a sense of common identity and patriotism in readiness for war (Phillips 1998: 13). In practice such syllabuses proved ever more restrictive with content focused not upon British history but upon the history of Southern England with other areas receiving scant attention; this aspect of the Great Tradition was skilfully parodied by Chief HMI John Slater:

Content was largely British, or rather Southern English; Celts looked in to starve, emigrate or rebel; the North to invent looms or work in mills; abroad was of interest once it was part of the Empire; foreigners were either, sensibly, allies or, rightly, defeated.

(Slater 1989: 1)

It would however be wrong to suppose that all history classrooms were dominated by the Great Tradition. Teaching and learning in English Schools was influenced by American research with Barnard (1947: 314) maintaining, “although he is an American Professor John Dewey has exercised a great influence in this country.” For Dewey the Great Tradition was synonymous with the “American elementary tradition”, both of which exhibited a dependence on didactic instruction. In a manner not dissimilar to that of Piaget (see Chapter 3.6) Dewey identified three stages of development for students of school age recommending that syllabuses be tailored according to their needs. Dewey maintained that the study of history, or “teaching the past”, provided an ideal vehicle for accessing a far broader curriculum:

The interest in history gives a more human colouring, a wider significance, to his own study of nature. His knowledge of nature lends point and accuracy to his study of history. This is the natural correlation of history and science....a deepening appreciation of social life.

(Dewey 1899: 153)

Dewey recommended that syllabuses for students aged 4 to 8 should reference basic life experiences; he proposed the study of prehistory for students in this age group citing the importance of activities such as weaving, cooking and the construction of shelters. For Dewey students aged 8 to 12 exhibited a more comprehensive understanding of their environment; these students were able to explore specific historical problems and present their findings in a logical manner. The final stage of development, according to Dewey, was reserved for students over the age of 12; only these students were capable of, “developing the body of thought, enquiry and activity” required for an understanding of political history (Dewey 1899: 115).

In England, Keatinge had advocated the teaching of historical skills at secondary level (Aldrich 1984: 212; Sylvester 1994: 12). For Keatinge interest in the subject was cultivated through the use of field studies: taking pupils to visit sites of historic interest, making field notes and examining artefacts in museum settings (Keatinge 1910: 37). Similarly the Hadow Report had recommended that primary schools adopt a skills based approach for all subjects and that students be encouraged to explore their environment, “the curriculum should be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be learned,” (Board of Education: 1931: 93). In general however such advice went unheeded and it was not until publication of the Plowden Report (CACE: 1967) that significant revision was made to primary and secondary school curricula (see Chapter 6.5 below).

6.5 The Plowden Report: cognitive constructivism and the teaching of history

In 1967 the Central Advisory Council for Education, or CACE, under the Chairmanship of Lady Plowden, published the Plowden Report (CACE: 1967). In contrast to the didactic teaching methods of the Great Tradition the Plowden Report advocated educational methods based on the work of Jean Piaget (Sylvester 1994: 14). Piaget believed that children should be encouraged to actively explore and that it was the child’s ability to interact with their environment which stimulated the learning processes (see Chapter 3.6). In recognition of Piaget’s work educationalists had developed the Project Method of education (see Chapter 3.8). The Project Method encouraged students to formulate their own enquiry questions, to gather evidence and

construct hypotheses and finally to rationally conclude their investigations presenting their findings to other students. The Plowden Report commended this educational approach to primary schools noting how such practice stimulated the imagination of students (CACE 1967:192). Piagetian educationalists had noted however that certain subjects presented difficulties for younger students, most notably history and social studies (see Chapter 3.6). Acknowledging these reservations the Plowden Report observed, “History it is said time and again is an adult subject. How then can it be studied by children without it being so simplified that it is falsified?” (CACE 1967: 226). The Report provided no answer other than to recommend revisiting this problem at some future date.

The remit of the Plowden Report had been to advise curriculum planning in primary schools throughout England and Wales; so great was the impact of this Report however that it transformed curricula planning at both primary and secondary level (see Chapter 5.2). The Plowden Report had helped promote the work of Piagetian educationalists and introduced the Project Method to schools throughout England and Wales (Sylvester 1994: 14). From this point on constructivist methods of education were to play a formative role in curriculum planning (Husbands *et al* 2003: 10; Phillips 1998: 18; Phillips 2002: 16).

6.6 Coltham and Fines: social constructivism and the history curriculum

Whilst the framework of Piaget’s cognitive stage theory remained robust social constructivists such as Vygotsky and Bruner had questioned whether progression through all four stages, or the “process of maturation”, might be accelerated (see Chapter 3.7). Vygotsky had suggested that “scaffolding” the learning of students in a classroom environment might help them attain “formal operational thought” at an earlier age. Following Vygotsky, Bruner had advised that younger students could indeed think in a formal operational manner providing, “the powerful ideas and attitudes of a subject were given a central role” (Bruner 1960: 37). In addition students must be able to revisit these powerful ideas or “Key Concepts” on a regular basis – hence Bruner’s proposal of a spiral curriculum (Bruner 1960: 52).

Coltham and Fines noted the impact that the Plowden Report had had on curriculum planning and paid tribute to constructivist approaches to education (Coltham and Fines 1971: 4). Coltham and Fines suggested that difficulties associated with the study of history, as identified by the Plowden Report, might be addressed by adopting approaches to curriculum development advocated by social constructivists such as Vygotsky and Bruner. They suggested that “scaffolding” as advocated by Vygotsky coupled with Bruner’s use of Key Concepts may provide an answer to a seemingly implacable problem:

Teachers of history in many parts of the country are now trying to formulate objectives for the study of their subject. This framework is put forward as a possible aid to them in a task which all admit to being a difficult one.

(Coltham and Fines 1971:1)

Coltham and Fines’ “framework” represented their understanding of what constituted the key concepts of historical study; educationalists had, for the first time, identified the key concepts of historical practice and this work was to have a major impact on the teaching of history in schools (Phillips 1998: 16; Phillips 2002: 16). Coltham and Fines suggested that the Key Concepts of history should read as follows:

- The ability to construct questions of historical significance
- The ability to assimilate historical information through field study, archive research and interview procedures
- The ability to validate historical sources of information and detect bias
- The ability to formulate historical hypotheses
- The use of historical information to reach informed conclusions

- The use of communication skills in relation to the study of history (with particular reference to analytical writing skills)
- The ability to empathise with people in the past

(Coltham and Fines: 1971)

Bruner had suggested that for history to be taught effectively the Key Concepts of the subject must be identified; Coltham and Fines' framework certainly fulfilled this objective. Bruner had also stated that once Key Concepts had been identified these powerful ideas would need to be "spiralled" for all age groups. It was with regard to spiralling the curriculum that Coltham and Fine's work was deemed to be lacking; the framework gave no guidance on how Key Concepts may be introduced to younger students. Equally as important no guidance was given on how to develop these concepts between the ages of 5 to 16. Many educationalists believed that the framework represented a half hearted attempt at addressing problems faced by history teachers and expressed their disappointment accordingly:

Dr Coltham's work comes near to articulating a spiral structure and to repudiating the error of seriation procedure. She implies that a given child might be capable of performing operations for some tasks with some materials long before his thinking is generally formal. One might expect that she would clutch the clear implication and recommend a use of evidence so that it may be spiralled.

(Rogers 1979: 29)

6.7 The Schools Council: social constructivism and the history curriculum

Early in 1972 the Schools Council introduced a curriculum development project which was to have a profound effect on the teaching of history throughout England and Wales (Phillips 2002: 16). "Place, Time and Society 8 – 13" (Blyth: 1975) was developed for use in both primary and middle schools under the Directorship of Joan Blyth.

In common with other School Council Projects, “Time, Place and Society 8-13” adopted an enquiry based approach to teaching and learning (see Chapter 5.3). Students from primary and middle schools were encouraged to explore their local environment, construct enquiry questions, gather data, formulate hypotheses and reach informed conclusions (Blyth 1975: 55). The Project itself was cross-curricular in nature and firmly rooted in the teaching of humanities with students exploring topics associated with, “Man in time, place and society”, (Blyth 1975: 22); these topics focused on aspects of human ingenuity ranging from “transport” and “settlement” through to “population growth” and “community diversification” (Blyth 1975: 95).

Blyth believed “Time, Place and Society 8 – 13” could best be delivered through three humanities subjects: geography, history and social studies (Blyth 1975: 27). Blyth described these subjects as being, “interrelated” or sharing areas of common ground and it was this common ground that this project sought to explore (Blyth 1975: 33); Blyth identified ten Key Concepts common to all three subjects:

- Communication skills
- Empathy
- Conflict and consensus
- Similarity and difference
- Continuity and change
- Cause and consequence

(Blyth 1975: 94)

“Place, Time and Society” proved important for two reasons; first students participating in this project were required to understand a range of abstract concepts as detailed above. This project

was designed for students attending primary and middle schools and as such brought into question assumptions based on Piaget's cognitive stage theory (see Chapter 3.6) and the recommendations of the Plowden Report (see Chapter 6.5). Through the introduction of "Place, Time and Society" Blyth had demonstrated the validity of Bruner's thesis showing that younger children could study history; what was needed was to deconstruct the subject and identify a select range of Key Concepts (Blyth 1975: 52). "Place, Time and Society 8 – 13" was to prove important for one further reason; the range of Key Concepts identified by Blyth provided the foundation of future history specifications including SCHP (Shemilt: 1980) and specifications proposed by HMI (DES/HMI: 1985b). Perhaps most importantly these same Key Concepts formed the basis of National Curriculum POSs for history including N/C 2007 history (DCSF/QCA 2007: 112). "Place, Time and Society 8 – 13" had demonstrated that history was a suitable course of study for all students, regardless of age. Such findings spurred the Schools Council to introduce a subject specific project for history less than one year later.

In September 1972 the Schools Council introduced "Schools Council History Project 13 – 16" (SCHP) under the Directorship of David Sylvester (see Chapter 5.3). Whilst Sylvester acknowledged general advances made in teaching as a result of Piagetian methods he was dismayed at the impact cognitive stage theory had had on the teaching of history in schools (Schools Council 1976: 9). Social constructivist writers had questioned the assumptions of cognitive stage theory and "Place, Time and Society 8-13" had shown that younger students were capable of engaging in historical study (Schools Council 1976: 10); more evidence was however needed.

Sylvester noted the importance of Blyth's work in identifying Key Concepts and resolved to produce a subject specific list for history (Schools Council 1976: 10). In addition Sylvester proposed that SCHP be "spiralled" in the manner proposed by Bruner:

If teachers were to adopt a methodology which reinforced pupil acquisition of ideas about history by introducing pupils to the same ideas at different stages, say 8, 11, 13 and 14 then the ability of pupils to do real history may well mature earlier.

(Schools Council 1976: 10)

Thus, with regard to SCHP, Bruner's work was identified as having, "an obvious relevance" (Schools Council 1976: 10). Whilst Sylvester experimented with a range of Key Concepts in practice it was his successor, Shemilt, who provided a definitive list of concepts for historical study. In total Shemilt identified six Key Concepts for SCHP:

- Use of evidence
- Cause and consequence
- Continuity and change
- Use of empathy

(Shemilt 1980: 28)

These Key Concepts, many bearing a marked resemblance to those proposed by Blyth, were first introduced by a unit entitled, "What is History?" (Schools Council 1976: 24); this was a unit designed for students aged 13 and provided a basic introduction to enquiry based learning. Students were presented with a series of historical case studies and were expected to assimilate data from a broad range of source material e.g. archaeological reports, documentary evidence and interview transcripts. Using these sources students then formulated their own hypotheses before reaching informed conclusions; the results of such "enquiries" were presented in the form of an essay or report (Schools Council 1976: 24).

From 14 to 16 students followed a CSE/GCE "O" level SCHP syllabus; this comprised four units each designed to develop the Key Concepts of history. By revisiting these same Key Concepts throughout the course students were able to develop subject related skills with ever increasing levels of sophistication (Schools Council 1976: 10); the study units for SCHP are presented in Figure 6.2. Building on the findings of "Time, Place and Society 8-13" SCHP once again confounded the beliefs of Piagetian educationalists leading Shemilt to conclude:

Bruner's dictum that at some level any worthwhile concept can be taught with integrity to schoolchildren appears apposite. The experimental trials clearly demonstrated that what

Bruner called, “the structure of a discipline” can, in the case of history, be taught to *all* examination stream children.

(Shemilt 1980:8)

A study in development

This course comprised, “History of Medicine.” Students studied advances in medical procedures from prehistoric to modern times. Students explored concepts such as “change and continuity” and “cause and consequence” set within a broad chronological framework.

Enquiry in depth

A number of course options were offered the most popular being “Britain 1815 – 1851” (the Industrial Revolution). Here students studied the living and working conditions of people at a time and place far removed from their own experience. They were expected to analyse a broad range of evidence e.g. documents, photographs, archaeological remains and to engage in empathetic exercises; blending factual information with historic imagination.

Studies in the modern world

A number of course options were offered including: “Rise of Communist China,” “Arab/Israeli Conflict” and “The Irish Question.” Here the relevance of history in relation to current events was explored.

History around us

This course of study was rooted in the Project Method with students practicing the skills of historical enquiry. Emphasis was placed on the use of historic monuments e.g. castles, Roman Villas and Prehistoric Barrows. Students were presented with an enquiry question and were expected to compile information using a broad range of source material e.g. interviews, questionnaires and field notes. Students then presented their findings in the form of a site report.

Figure 6.2 Outline of SCHP CSE/GCE “O” level syllabus based on Shemilt 1980.

For Shemilt, as for many educationalists, SCHP represented nothing less than “a revolution” in the teaching of history (Shemilt 1980: 38). SCHP had demonstrated that the principles of social constructivism made history accessible to all regardless of age. SCHP proved a success with schools and examination boards with SCHP soon accounting for one third of all CSE and GCE “O” level examination entries (Farmer and Knight 1995: 6). Indeed so successful was SCHP that

it survived disbanding of the Schools Council and was redesigned as GCSE Schools History Project (SHP) in 1985 (DES: 1985b). The popularity of SHP has never waned with all three Awarding Bodies in England currently offering SHP specifications and SHP candidates accounting for one third of all GCSE History candidates (see Chapter 7.6).

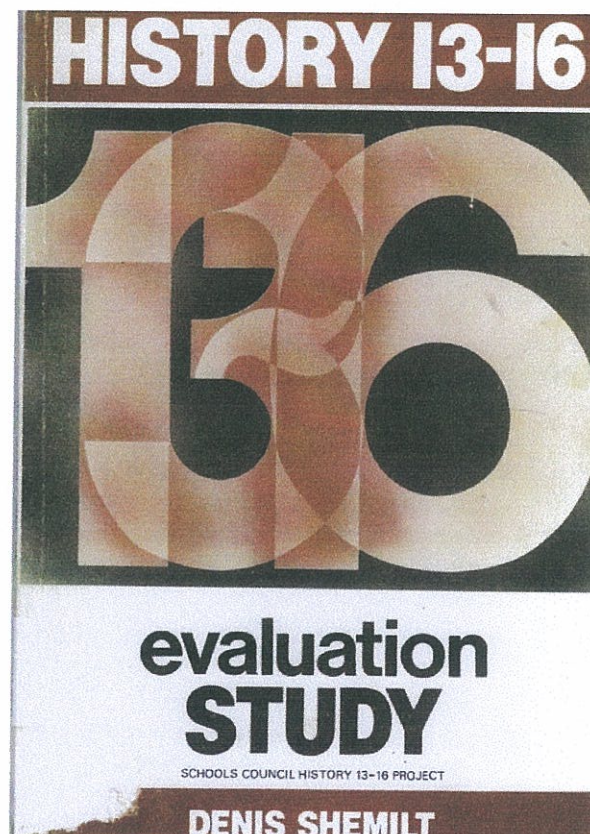


Figure 6.3 History 5-16: An Evaluation Study (Shemilt: 1980)

SHP was not however an unequivocal success and detractors pointed to the incongruity of having the Director of SCHP, Dennis Shemilt, evaluate the Project's worth. In addition the Black Papers (Cox and Boyson 1975; Cox and Boyson 1977) and publications by the New Right (Partington: 1986; Hillgate: 1986) attacked SCHP for failing to develop a sense of chronology and for failing to develop an appreciation of British culture and history (see Chapter 5.4).

6.8 HMI: social constructivism and the history curriculum

The introduction of SCHP had heralded a revolution in the teaching of history and the reaction of HMI to these developments was eagerly anticipated. Staff Inspector, John Slater, was charged with producing HMI's official policy document, "History in the Primary and Secondary Years: an HMI View" (DES/HMI: 1985b). Advocates of SHP were delighted when HMI officially acknowledged the positive impact of Schools Council Projects and constructivist teaching methods on the teaching of history (DES/HMI 1985b: 56). Slater too was inspired by Bruner's approach to curriculum development and determined that HMI should produce its own list of Key concepts for the study of history; these were as follows:

- Reference and information finding skills
- Skills in chronology
- Language and historical ideas (including cause/consequence and similarity/difference)
- Use and analysis of evidence
- Empathetic understanding
- Asking historical questions
- Synthesis and communication skills

(DES/HMI 1985b: 22)

This list clearly illustrates the impact of enquiry based learning on HMI. In addition Slater proposed that this curriculum be "spiralled" in a manner resembling SCHP; "History in the Primary and Secondary Years" presented a series of tables detailing "five levels of performance" for the Key Concepts identified above (DES/HMI 1985b: 18-26). Concepts such as "empathy" and "use of evidence" were to be introduced to students at the age of 5 and continually revisited until the age of 16 (DES/HMI 1985b: 18); as the child progressed so schemes of work were developed with greater levels of detail and sophistication. To determine rates of progression Slater suggested testing students at the ages of 8, 10, 12, 14 and 16 (DES/HMI 1985b: 20); parallels have been drawn between these proposals and the Standard Attainment Tests (SATs) imposed on history teachers by the 1988 ERA (see Chapter 6.11); crucially however these tests

were never intended as a benchmark of school performance, they were purely to determine students' understanding of the Key Concepts of history (DES/HMI 1985b: 21).

Perhaps the most significant contribution of "History in the Primary and Secondary Years" was the bearing this publication had on the drafting of GCSE History syllabuses (Phillips 1998: 20). In 1985 CSE and GCE examinations were replaced by GCSE History (DES: 1985b). DES based "assessment objectives" for the new examination on Slater's list of Key Concepts thus "the process of enquiry", "use of evidence" and "empathy" together with "cause and consequence", "change and continuity" and "similarity and difference" all constituted assessment criteria for GCSE History (DES 1985b: 1). In addition these assessment objectives (or Key Concepts) were to be "levelled" (Grades A to F) in a manner similar to that proposed by Slater (DES/HMI 1985b: 22). The new GCSE History examination thus reflected the principles of Bruner's spiral curriculum with Key Concepts introduced in simplified format (Grade F) and developed through levels of increasing sophistication until the highest level of attainment (Grade A) was reached.

By 1985 the teaching of history in English Schools had been transformed with many believing this transformation to be "revolutionary" in nature (Farmer and Knight 1995: 6). The enquiry based approach to teaching and learning had become established in history classrooms throughout England (Farmer and Knight 1995: 6). GCSE History students now explored sites of historic interest, compiling evidence using a broad range of source material and presenting their findings in the form of detailed site reports (DES: 1985b).

In 1985 DES published "Better Schools" (DES: 1985a) outlining their preferred model for curriculum development in primary and secondary schools. "Better Schools" suggested that students study a total of nine subjects, including history, and invited HMI to draft a series of subject guides (DES 1985a: para 32). HMI agreed publishing a range of guides under the generic title; "The Curriculum Matters Series" (see Chapter 5.5).

Early editions of "The Curriculum Matters Series" emphasised the importance of the Project Method or "enquiry based learning." Site visits were mandatory with students participating in field studies, interviewing resident experts or monitoring pollution levels (DES/HMI 1985a;

DES/HMI 1986a; DES/HMI 1986b). Subjects were deconstructed into a number of Key Concepts and teachers were given guidance on how to spiral these concepts for students aged 5 to 16 (DES/HMI: 1985; DES/HMI: 1986a; DES/HMI: 1986b). History teachers eagerly awaited publication of their subject specific guide; given recent HMI and DES guidance another ringing endorsement of enquiry based learning and SHP was expected (Phillips 1998: 46). The wait however for “History 5 to 16” (DES/HMI: 1988) was long and torturous, a total of more than two years. When the guide was finally published many educationalists viewed it as a rejection of constructivist approaches to education and a return to The Great Tradition of history teaching (Phillips 1998: 49).

6.9 History Matters: HMI revisits the Great Tradition?

Changes had occurred at HMI, John Slater, Staff Inspector for History and author of “History in the Primary and Secondary Years” had retired. His position had been taken by Roger Hennessey, an appointment which many saw as being politically motivated:

Roger Hennessey’s appointment came as something of a surprise both within HMI circles and amongst the teaching profession for David Sylvester, a former Director of SCHP, had been expected to succeed John Slater.

(Phillips 1998: 47)

Hennessey’s approach to curriculum development differed markedly from that of Slater. Hennessey believed that proscribed historical knowledge should play an important part in history curricula and he was an advocate of British History (Phillips 1998: 47); it was against this backdrop that “History 5 to 16” was eventually published. The new HMI guide had the stamp of Hennessey and the Secretary of State for Education all over it (Phillips 1997: 81).

Hennessey presented history as a blend of historical knowledge (or historical facts) and historical processes (the skills of an historian) and he believed these two aspects of the subject complimented each other perfectly (DES/HMI 1988: 1). For Hennessey enquiry based

approaches to teaching and learning could work alongside more traditional, content laden curricula.

The curriculum framework for “History 5 to 16” resembled that of “History in the Primary and Secondary Years” (DES/HMI: 1985b). Hennessey emphasised the importance of the enquiry based approach to education stating, “the aim of history is to understand the nature of evidence, this is done by emphasising that history is a process of enquiry” (DES/HMI 1988: 3). Hennessey then listed the Key Concepts of history, a list which effectively mirrored that of Slater and SCHP: “use of evidence”, “communication skills”, “cause and consequence”, “change and continuity” and “historical interpretation” (DES/HMI 1988: 5).

Finally Hennessey introduced an assessment procedure comparable with that of “History in the Primary and Secondary Years.” Key Concepts were divided into “levels of attainment” for students aged 7, 11 and 16 with Hennessey noting, “certain objectives need to be met by given stages; these stages are cumulative, each stage deepens and embodies previous levels of attainment” (DES/HMI 1988: 4). Ostensibly at least, HMI had chosen again to base their curriculum framework on Bruner’s spiral curriculum model.

However, to support the development of historical skills, Hennessey then proposed a defined body of historical knowledge (DES/HMI 1988: 12). It was this proscribed content which many saw as invoking the spectre of the Great Tradition (Phillips 1998: 49). Hennessey’s selection of historical knowledge was not intended simply to develop the Key Concepts of history but rather to promote the cultural heritage of Britain (DES/HMI 1988:1); the result was a document which many viewed as dangerously Anglocentric (Phillips 1998: 49). Hennessey’s list of suggested content comprised the following:

- The Romans in Britain
- The Viking Invasions of Britain
- The English Civil War

- Eighteenth Century Britain
- The Industrial Revolution in Britain
- Victorian Britain
- Edwardian Britain and The Great War
- World War II (and the Home Front)

(DES/HMI 1988:12)

Educationalists wondered at HMI's *volte face*; why should an institution which had so publically rejected the proscription of historical content now support such a move? (Phillips 1998: 46). In answer Phillips pointed to the fact that a consultation document on the National Curriculum had recently been published listing history as a "foundation subject" (see Chapter 5.6). Those within DES and HMI were acutely aware of political tensions within the ruling Conservative Party. To secure election victory Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher had acquiesced to the demands of right wing pressure groups. The Prime Minister was now expected to deliver on her election promises and introduce a National Curriculum that promoted British cultural values (for a detailed analysis of the impact of the New Right on N/C 1988 see Chapter 5.7). If history did not fulfil this remit then the subject might be dropped from the National Curriculum; it was with good reason that Phillips termed this publication "a wily political document intended as much for those outside the classroom as those within" (Phillips 1998: 48).

"History 5 to 16" had served a number of purposes. First, this document assured Conservative Politicians that history should be an integral part of the new National Curriculum; schemes of work for history could be used to promote British cultural values and were capable of assuaging the demands of right wing pressure groups (Phillips 1998: 49). HMI also believed that by retaining the basic principles of social constructivism (enquiry based learning, an emphasis on

Key Concepts and the use of a spiral curriculum) they could cultivate the support of history teachers and their representative body, the Historical Association. Events proved HMI correct; fearing for the future of history as a National Curriculum subject “History 5 to 16” received tacit approval from history teachers and this text exerted a powerful influence on the drafting of a National Curriculum Order for History (Phillips 1998: 81).

6.10 The National Curriculum Order for History: a blend of social constructivism and the Great Tradition

As noted above, the 1988 ERA required Secretary of State, Kenneth Baker, to convene subject working groups to advise on the drafting of subject orders (DES 1988: para 40.4). In January 1989 Baker convened the first meeting of the History Working Group (HWG) comprising academics together with DES and HMI observers; these observers included the author of “History 5 to 16”, Roger Hennessey (Phillips 1998: 55). Phillips notes that the term “observer”, in this instance, proved something of a misnomer, “this term hides more than it reveals; Hennessey’s views on content, particularly the need for specific selection within a chronological framework, proved highly influential” (Phillips 1998: 55).

To assist HWG all members were presented with copies of HMI publications including, “History in the Primary and Secondary Years” and Hennessey’s own “History 5 to 16” (DES 1990: ix); Phillips notes however that HWG’s Final Report reflected the latter publication rather than the former (Phillips 1998:81). Given HWG’s terms of reference the overt influence of “History 5 to 16” was not wholly unexpected; HWG were asked to blend two approaches to the teaching of history, one rooted firmly in the Great Tradition, the other reflecting the principles of enquiry based learning.

To appease the New Right of the Conservative Party HWG were asked to design a POS which focused on the teaching of British History and the acquisition of historical knowledge (for a detailed discussion of New Right policy see Chapter 5.7). DES advised:

History should help pupils understand how a free and democratic society has developed over centuries. The programmes of study should have at the core the history of Britain, the record of its past and in particular its political, constitutional and cultural heritage.....

(DES 1990: Appendix 2)

On the other hand DES acknowledged the merit of social constructivist approaches to teaching and learning advising that HWG should identify the Key Concepts of history and that Key Concepts should be developed incrementally between the ages of 5 to 16. DES further advised that all POSs should emphasise the importance of enquiry based approaches to learning:

Programmes of study should lay the foundations for the progressive development of the processes and skills of historical enquiry.....they should assist with the progressive acquisition of skills in the collection, objective analysis, interpretation, discriminating use and reporting of evidence from a variety of sources.

(DES 1990: Appendix 2)

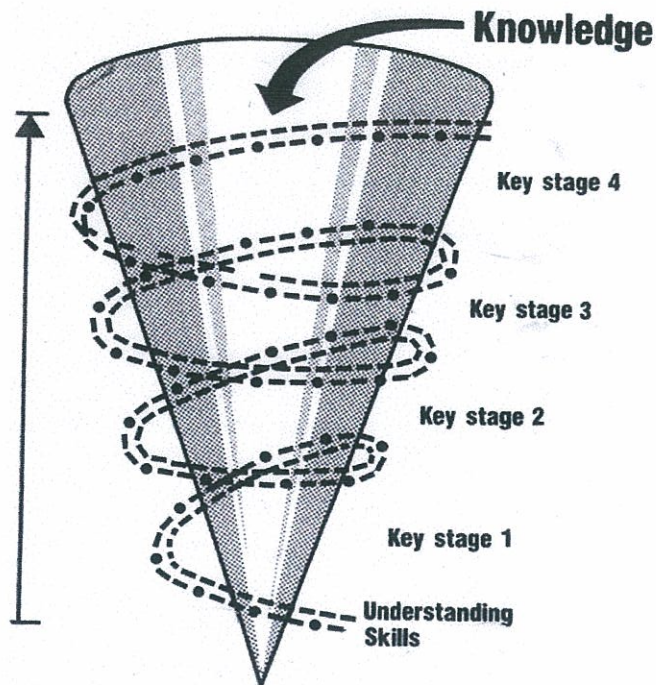


Figure 6.4 The "Hennessey Cone" as presented by HWG (DES 1990:4)

HWG proposed a model for curriculum development in history termed the “Hennessy Cone” (Figure 6.4). This twin helix traced the development of “historical understanding” (defined as the Key Concepts of history) and “historical skills” for students aged 5 to 16. As students progressed so the breadth of the curriculum increased and historical understanding and historical skills displayed ever greater levels of sophistication (DES 1990: 6). HWG’s proposals for National Curriculum History invited comparison with Bruner’s spiral curriculum model (Figure 6.1); the spiral model for curriculum development was familiar to history teachers having been applied to SCHP (Schools Council: 1976) and used by HMI (DES/HMI: 1985).

The Secretary of State and DES did however express their reservations with the “Hennessy Cone” noting that it presented no explicit reference to historical knowledge (Phillips 1998: 60). HWG’s rebuttal to such criticisms was that historical knowledge (or historical facts) could not be spiralled directly, to do so would mean identifying “simple periods of history” and progressing towards “advanced periods of history”, clearly this was an impossible task. HWG maintained that as progression in historical understanding and historical skills was dependant on the application of historical knowledge then historical knowledge was levelled, albeit indirectly (Phillips 1998: 71).

Despite this robust defence HWG’s stance regarding “historical knowledge” proved politically unpopular, not least with Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher (Phillips 1998: 78). Sensing confrontation and a challenge to the existence of history as a National Curriculum subject incoming Secretary of State, John MacGregor, revised HWG’s Final Report. MacGregor reworded “historical understanding” to read “*knowledge and understanding of history*” (Phillips 1998: 94); as Phillips notes, this revision made no difference at all to HWG proposals but it was enough to gain Prime Ministerial approval for the Final Report (Phillips 1998: 95).

HWG’s Final Report could now be forwarded to the National Curriculum Council (NCC) for the drafting of a History Order. HWG had identified a plethora of Key Concepts for history, many based on the findings of SCHP and “History 5 to 16” (DES/HMI 1985b). These concepts were incorporated into three attainment targets as follows:

1. *Knowledge and understanding of history* – including “cause and consequence”, “change and continuity”, “chronological understanding” and “empathy”
2. *Interpretations of history*- including “historical interpretation” and “historical bias”
3. *Use of historical sources*- including “comprehension of historical sources”, “interpretation of historical sources”, “detection of bias”, “assessment of source validity” and “historical questioning.”

(NCC 1991: B1-B7)

HWG had also defined a total of thirty “levels of attainment” for the attainment targets outlined above; these were now published by the National Curriculum Council (NCC). The NCC also published the POS designed by HWG which defined the “historical knowledge” to be taught by all schools in England and Wales (National Curriculum Council: 1991). In compliance with guidance issued by the Secretary of State, HWG identified statutory “core units” of historical knowledge- most focusing on British History; these core units were to become the cause of great contention with some educationalists claiming that these units represented a return to the Great Tradition of history teaching (Phillips 1998: 109). Pragmatism prevailed however; faced with the possibility of history being removed from the National Curriculum teachers approved the following units:

- The Roman Empire
- Medieval Realms
- The Making of the United Kingdom
- Expansion, Trade and Industry
- Islam and the Arabs

- The Era of World War II (added after subsequent revisions)

These units remained statutory until the introduction of N/C 2007 history with many believing the teaching of history to be notably Anglocentric (DfES 2006: 18; Watts and Grosvenor 1995: 86; QCA 2005: 20). Such an unremitting focus on the teaching of British History was eventually to lead to the alienation and exclusion of minority communities and posed a threat to the development of future education policy (see Chapter 6.11).

6.11 The Evolution of National Curriculum History and a return to the grassroots of social constructivism

The History Order (DES: 1991) was duly published and circulated to all primary and secondary schools in England and Wales. Teachers were now faced with implementing Government Policy and problems soon became apparent. Following TGAT recommendations assessment procedures for history were based on the three attainment targets identified by the NCC (“knowledge and understanding of history”, “interpretations of history” and “use of historical sources”). Each attainment target was divided into ten “levels of attainment” and, with history alone comprising thirty levels of attainment, assessment procedures were overly complex (Phillips 1998: 120).

A rolling programme of introduction meant that primary schools would be first to introduce subject orders; all of which accorded to the same unwieldy TGAT formula. The National Curriculum was unworkable and incoming Secretary of State, John Patten, was forced to order an immediate review (Phillips 1998: 119). Sir Ron Dearing, Chairman of the Schools Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA), was asked to Chair the review and findings were published in April 1993 (Dearing: 1993). The Final Report of the Dearing Review made salutary reading for historians (see Chapter 5.9); the National Curriculum was to be “slimmed down” with history and geography no longer compulsory for students over the age of 14 (Dearing: 1993). SCAA then convened a History Review Group tasked with “identifying the compulsory core of their subject” (Dearing: 1993).

The History Review Group began by deconstructing the three attainment targets for history and revisiting the Key Concepts of the subject; Key Concepts were then grouped under five “Key Elements of History” (Figure 6.5). It was hoped that by defining the Key Concepts of historical study once again the process of assessment could be simplified and that the History Order might prove workable.

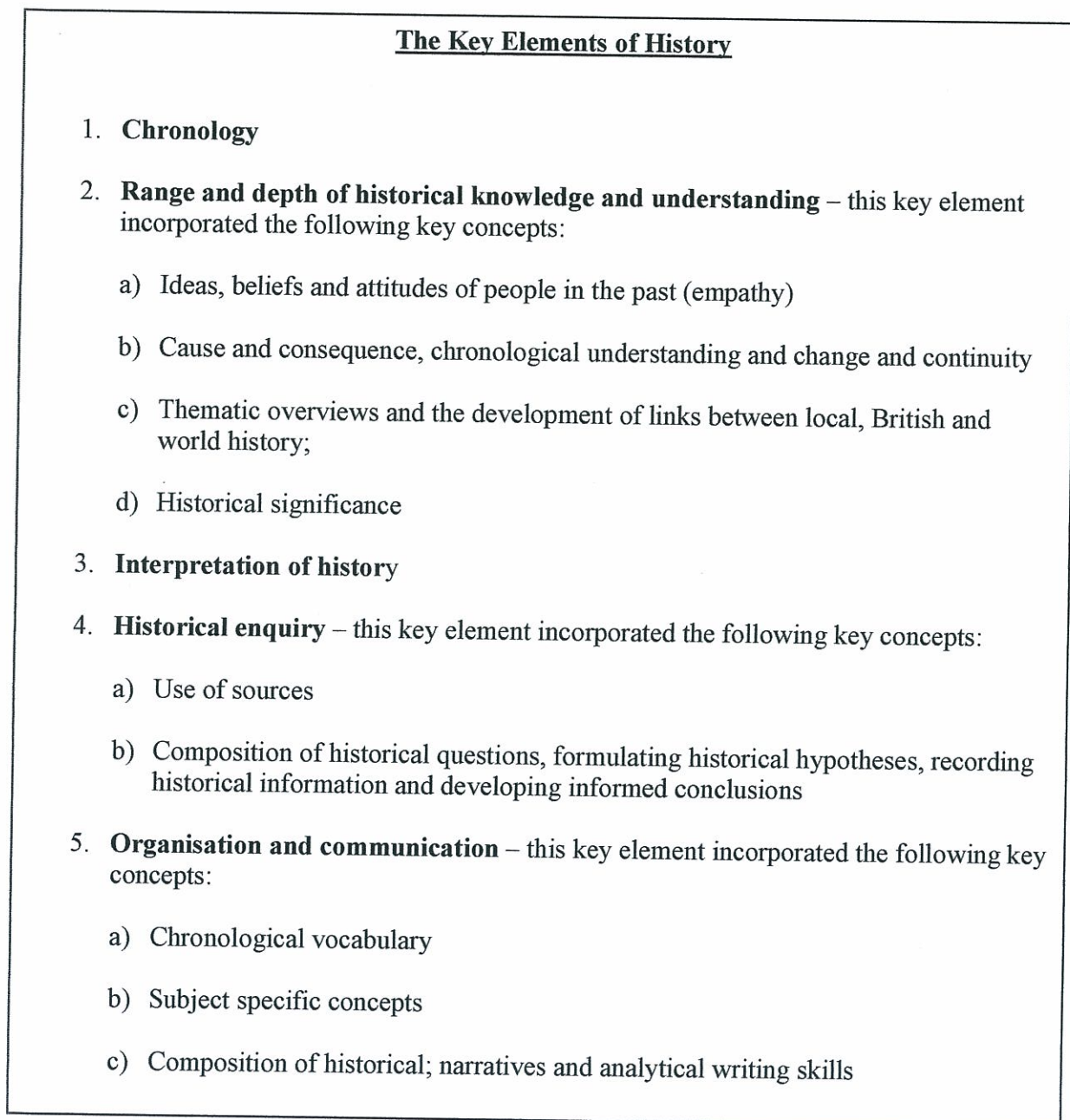


Figure 6.5 The Key Elements of History (DfE 1995: 15)

In place of thirty “levels of attainment” the History Review Group now proposed eight “level descriptors” each based on the Key Elements detailed in Figure 6.5 (DfE 1995: 15). N/C 1995 history won the approval of both Government and teachers and remained virtually unchanged until the introduction of N/C 2007 history (Phillips 2005: 34).

Despite the revisions to National Curriculum history outlined above the teaching of history remained problematic. For more than a decade educationalists had noted the existence of both an “attainment gap” and an “exclusion gap” in English Schools (see Chapter 5.10). Black students were perceived as underachieving and these phenomena were as marked in history classrooms as anywhere else (QCA: 2005; OFSTED 2007). Concerned Central Government commissioned a number of reports including that of Chief HMI, Ruth Gilbert. Gilbert’s Report, entitled “20:20 Vision” (DfES: 2006d), emphasised the importance of “personalised learning” in schools. For Gilbert “personalised learning” involved acknowledging the cultural identity of all students and engaging in enquiry based learning exercises (see Chapter 5.10). Gilbert noted that whilst National Curriculum POSs did acknowledge the importance of enquiry based learning other priorities often took precedence (DfES 2006d: 19).

For Gilbert “personalised learning” could only be achieved through a comprehensive revision of the National Curriculum and a reduction in proscribed knowledge (DfES 2006d:35). With specific regard to the teaching of history, OFSTED had reached similar conclusions. Following a four year study into the teaching of history OFSTED concluded:

The way in which many schools *interpret* the National Curriculum also means that they fail to tackle other important needs. So, for example, the curriculum is heavily based on aspects of English history. Those parts of the curriculum relating to Scotland, Wales and Ireland are very largely ignored, as are major European and world themes. Importantly too in many schools the stories of the people who have come to Britain over the centuries are ignored, even though these include the personal histories of many of the pupils

(OFSTED 2007: 24)

In accordance with the recommendations of “2020 Vision” and OFSTED the factual content of all National Curriculum POSs was reduced (see Chapter 5.11); for history this reduction in subject content was particularly marked. Core study units introduced in 1991 (see Chapter 6.9) were removed and replaced by a brief outline entitled “Range and Content” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 115). With subject content reduced in this manner overriding emphasis was now placed on “Key Concepts” and “Key Processes” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 112). With core study units now obsolete the responsibility lay with individual history departments to plan schemes of work that would make best use of resources in their locality (see Chapter 7.5). For many educationalists N/C 2007 history represented a return to the grassroots of social constructivism with Phillips noting, “it is possible to argue that the curriculum model which will exist from September 2008 is based more on an understanding (or a recognition) of the nature of history as a discipline and is less defined by the content or the subject matter” (Phillips 2008:37).

Previous Chapters had indicated that “teaching the past”, or the study of history, would have an important bearing on the ability of Young Hands to support teaching and learning in English Schools. Chapter Six has demonstrated that N/C 2007 history was predicated on the constructivist educational approach of earlier syllabuses. Syllabuses published by the Schools Council had proved particularly influential with “Time, Place and Society” (Blyth: 1975) and SCHP (Schools Council: 1976) examined in detail. Significantly for this thesis, these earlier syllabuses rejected the findings of Piagetian educationalists favouring instead a history curriculum planned in accordance with Brunerian teachings. The result was a curriculum which advocated a constructivist approach to teaching and learning but favouring “enquiry based learning” as opposed to the Project Method. The significance of these differences will be examined in Chapters Eight and Nine.

Chapters Five and Six outlined the framework of N/C 2007 and identified the educational influences brought to bear on N/C 2007 history. Chapter Seven now presents the views of education and heritage specialists regarding the use of Young Hands in English Schools. Young Hands is currently managed by both ASP (net) and the WHC at UNESCO Headquarters, Paris; programme specialists from both of these sectors were interviewed. Interviews were also

conducted at the QCA Offices in London. Here subject advisors responsible for drafting subject specific POSs were questioned regarding the educational potential of the Young Hands syllabus.

Chapter 7: Mapping Young Hands onto the National Curriculum for secondary schools in England

7.1 Introduction

Young Hands was conceived by programme specialists at ASP (net) and the WHC and is jointly managed by both institutions. Chapter Seven presents interview data collated from ASP (net) and the WHC; here programme specialists were questioned regarding strategies for mapping Young Hands onto the National Curricula of UNESCO Member States. Programme specialists suggested areas of study that might prove useful in mapping Young Hands and identified one Member State, New Zealand, where Young Hands had been incorporated into the National Curriculum.

N/C 2007 had been drafted by subject advisors at the QCA Offices in London. Here QCA advisors for history, geography and citizenship were each presented with a synopsis of Young Hands and asked to comment on the educational potential of this syllabus. Chapter Seven concludes with an analysis of this interview data.

7.2 Mapping Young Hands: the ASP (net) perspective

As noted above, Young Hands was conceived as a joint venture between ASP (net) and WHC at UNESCO Headquarters in Paris (see Chapter 4.2). To date these arrangements remain unchanged with programme specialists at ASP (net) and the WHC contributing to the development of Young Hands (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008). Due to this unique managerial structure programme specialists from both ASP (net) and the WHC were interviewed to determine how best to map Young Hands onto N/C 2007.

At UNESCO Headquarters the Coordinator for ASP (net), Sigrid Niedermayer, was interviewed together with Livia Saldari, a programme specialist with extensive experience promoting Young Hands (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008). Niedermayer and Saldari began by emphasising

the popularity of WHE and by restating the aspiration of ASP (net) that Young Hands be introduced to secondary schools in all Member States. To date this may seem a rather distant goal as Young Hands has only been introduced to the National Curriculum for schools in New Zealand (see Chapter 7.2 below).

The current edition of the “ASP (net) Guide for National Coordinators” (ASP net: 2008a) illustrates the importance ascribed to Young Hands. ASP (net) schools were invited to choose a topic from one of four themes each of which reflected the universal values of UNESCO (Figure 7.1):

<u>Themes for ASP (net) schools 2008</u>
World concerns and the role of the United Nations
Human Rights
Intercultural learning
Environmental concerns

Figure 7.1 Project Themes for ASP (net) 2008a

Young Hands was presented under the title “Intercultural Learning” with lavish illustrations of the syllabus and confirmation of its “flagship project” status (ASP net 2008a: 11). Whilst Young Hands had been accorded the privileged status of “flagship project” no specific development plan had been developed for WHE (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008); in consequence recommendations by Niedermayer and Saldari were rather general in nature and based upon the “ASP (net) Strategy and Plan of Action 2004-9” (ASP net 2008a: 4).

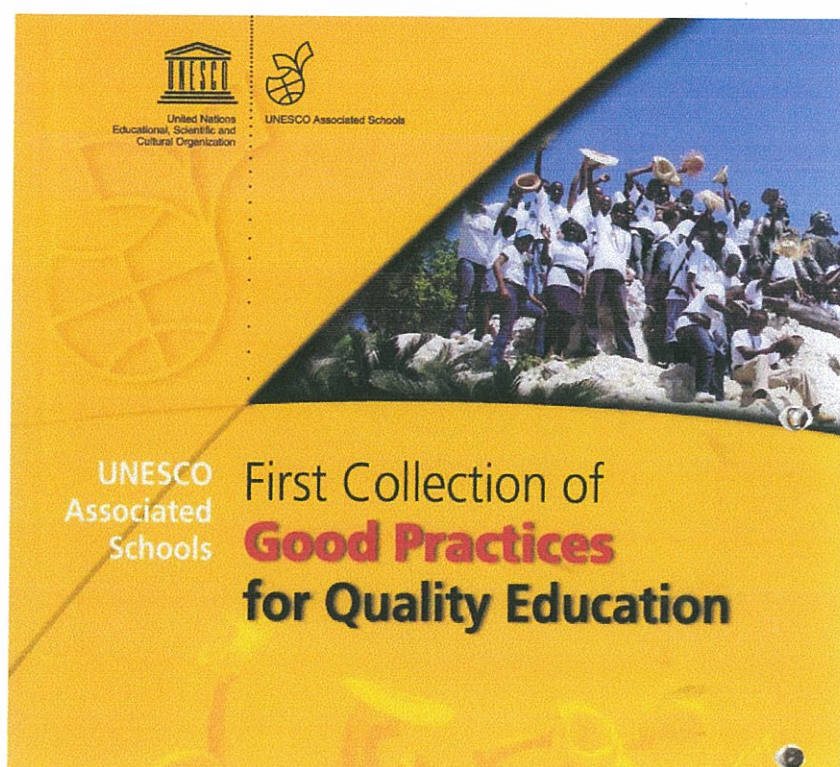


Figure 7.2 Good Practices for Quality Education (ASP net: 2008b)

Of greatest significance was the publication by ASP (net) of case studies illustrating “good educational practice” (Figure 7.2). National coordinators had been requesting just such a publication and the “Strategy and Plan of Action 2004-9” had made this a priority (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008). A detailed examination of this document revealed a number of the case studies to be based on Young Hands with students visiting WHSSs, engaging in fieldwork and presenting their findings in the form of written reports and discussion work (ASP net 2008b: 43; ASP 2008: 47); with regard to curriculum planning the Delors Report had remained the key text (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008). Interim reports of the “Commission for Learning in the Twenty First Century” had informed the drafting of Young Hands (see Chapter 4.4) and Young Hands had actually been cited as an example of “quality education” in the published Delors Report (Delors 1996: 50). Given this symbiotic relationship between Young Hands and the Delors Report Saldari welcomed the fact that “Good Practices for Quality Education” accorded Young Hands a high profile (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008).

Saldari maintained that not only was the Delors Report of fundamental importance to curriculum development it was also important for curriculum mapping (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008). The Delors Report identified four pillars of learning: “learning to know”, “learning to do”, “learning to be” and “learning to live together” (see Chapter 3.9). All UNESCO Projects embraced these four pillars of learning and the most effective educational approach for Associated Schools was the Project Method (see Chapter 3.8). Delors had maintained that “learning to live together” was the most important pillar of learning and the IBE had established a website dedicated to promoting this concept (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008). The IBE issued the following advice:

Issues in the curriculum pertinent to “learning to live together” may be taught through any subject or curricula area but are mainly concentrated in the social sciences and humanities. Principle curriculum subjects include history, geography, social studies, languages and literature.....these diverse issues and themes are also taught through a range of curricular areas; among these are moral and values education, civics and citizenship education, environmental education, development and global education and life skills.

(IBE: 2007)

The IBE advised that curriculum planners should look to history, geography and citizenship for mapping ASP (net) projects and Saldari concurred:

History, geography and citizenship are of vital importance in mapping Young Hands. The copies of World Heritage Projects that I am presenting you with were forwarded to ASP (net) from Associated Schools from all over the world: from Uzbekistan, from Greece, from Finland and from Pakistan. You will see that if history, geography and citizenship form part of the school curriculum then these subjects are used to teach Young Hands. They are not of course the only subjects, my particular interest is in media studies and I.T., they are however exceptionally important.

(Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008)

In theory then the process of mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007 appeared straightforward. In practice however Delors had warned that POSs for history, geography and citizenship might not support the concept of learning to live together (Delors 1996: 49). If the aim of a National Curriculum was to promote patriotism and identity on a purely national level then POSs for history, geography and citizenship would invariably prove introspective, focusing on issues of national concern and excluding minority groups (Delors 1996: 56). The teaching of citizenship may prove particularly problematic with POSs specifically excluding the cultural traditions of ethnic minorities and promoting the concept of one, narrowly defined, national identity (Delors 1996: 92). These were the very criticisms which had been brought to bear on previous specifications of the National Curriculum for England (see Chapter 5.10) and research was needed to see if the same were true for NC 2007. If Young Hands was to be mapped successfully onto N/C 2007 then POSs for history, geography and citizenship would need to support both the Project Method of education and “learning to live together” (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008).

Having examined the theoretical basis of mapping Young Hands Niedermayer suggested studying one example where Young Hands had been successfully introduced to the National Curriculum of a Member State (Niedermayer *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008). In 2004 Young Hands was introduced to the National Curriculum of New Zealand. The New Zealand National Commission for UNESCO published a version of Young Hands entitled, “Our Pacific Heritage: The Future in Young Hands” (UNESCO: 2004). This syllabus incorporated case studies from New Zealand, Australia, Fiji, Samoa and the Solomon Islands. “Our Pacific Heritage” (Figure 7.3) featured schemes of work for both secondary and primary school students; clearly the authors of this text had rejected the idea that WHE be restricted to secondary schools (UNESCO 2002: 11). In addition this syllabus placed emphasis on geography, citizenship and natural sciences – history played a lesser role in the suggested student activities. Niedermayer suggested

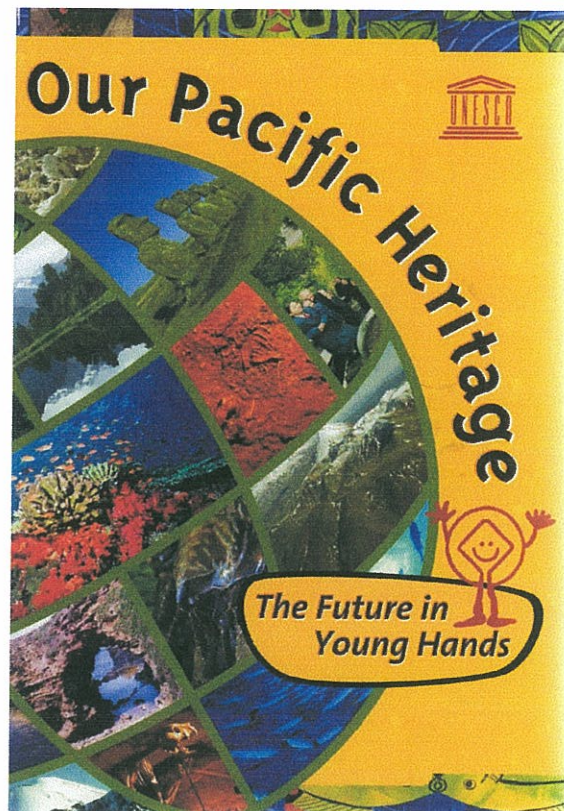


Figure 7.3 Our Pacific Heritage: The Future in Young Hands (UNESCO: 2004)

that this may have been because many WHSs featured in “Our Pacific Heritage” were inscribed as cultural landscape sites:

The syllabus focuses on the cultural inheritance of indigenous peoples; their cultural inheritance tends to be preserved through oral tradition and native crafts as opposed to documentary evidence. This does not of course negate the use of history but the authors have chosen to place greater emphasis on geography, citizenship and natural sciences. This mapping procedure allowed the authors to explore the relationship between the human environment and the natural environment. You will be focusing on WHSs in England and should find that geography, citizenship and history play a prominent role in the mapping procedure.

(Niedermayer *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008).

Analysis of “Our Pacific Heritage” had shown that inscription criteria for WHSs, together with statements of outstanding universal value (OUVs), were vitally important to the mapping procedure. If N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship were to be used for mapping Young Hands then the revised POSs must be capable of supporting the inscription criteria for WHSs and the OUVs for WHSs in England.

Publication of “Our Pacific Heritage” had proved significant for schools in the Asia and Pacific Region (see Chapter 3.5) and the New Zealand Ministry of Education, together with the New Zealand National Commission for UNESCO, expressed their desire to host a WHYF to celebrate this landmark achievement. In June 2007 students and teachers from 12 countries (including Australia, Japan, China, the Republic of Korea and Thailand) were invited to attend the “First Asia Pacific World Heritage Youth Forum” in Christchurch, New Zealand; key objectives included promotion of the 1972 Convention and the development of educational resources for “Our Pacific Heritage” (UNESCO: 2011d).

The New Zealand National Commission for UNESCO had proposed that five areas in the vicinity of Christchurch be placed on the World Heritage Tentative List (see Chapter 3.12). These areas now formed the basis of WHE enquiries for students attending the WHYF. The first group of students studied Maori cave paintings and rock art in the Timaru Region of New Zealand. Students recorded and filmed hunting scenes and depictions of mythical beasts before interviewing archaeologists at the Maori Rock Art Trust (ASP net 2008b: 43). The second group of students visited early pioneer farmsteads in the Geraldine Region of New Zealand. Here students recorded the presence of food stores, stable blocks and blacksmith’s forges before examining photographs and historic documents relating to these pioneer settlements (ASP net 2008b: 43).

Whilst the first two groups of students had addressed the WHE theme of “World Heritage and Identity” the third group of students explored the theme of “World Heritage and Tourism” (see Chapter 4.4). Students visited the native settlement of Kaikoura; once a small whaling village this settlement was now transformed into a bustling town hosting up to one million tourists per year. Key to the commercial success of Kaikoura was the diversity of marine life in evidence

close to shore. The waters of Kaikoura provided a rich habitat for rare and endangered species including: giant squid, orca, humpbacked whales and dusty dolphins (UNESCO: 2011d).

Students filmed and recorded marine life in these waters before interviewing local tour operators regarding the impact of tourism on such an ecologically sensitive area.

The fourth group of students attending the “First Asia Pacific World Heritage Youth Forum” focused their attention on the Lake Ellesmere (Te Waihora) Region of New Zealand. This area encompassed 20,000 ha and comprising a coastal lagoon and extensive wetlands. Here expansion of Maori settlements had led to drainage of the wetlands; the local ecosystem had been damaged and native flora and fauna were threatened (UNESCO: 2011d). Students addressed the theme of “World Heritage and the Environment” recording interviews with tribal elders and the New Zealand Department of Conservation before studying plans to manage these ecologically sensitive wetlands in a sustainable manner. Whilst the fourth group of students focused on the management of freshwater habitats the fifth, and final, group of students headed to the Pohatu Marine Reserve close to the Banks Peninsula. In keeping with the theme of “World Heritage and the Environment” these students prepared a presentation detailing efforts to restrict fishing quotas in this marine environment and conserve endangered species such as the white flippered penguin and Hector’s Dolphin (UNESCO: 2011d)

Publication of “Our Pacific Heritage” (UNESCO: 2004) had provided an important stimulus to the funding of the “First Asia Pacific World Heritage Youth Forum” by the New Zealand Commission for UNESCO and the New Zealand Ministry of Education. In addition it was hoped that publication of this syllabus would prove an important catalyst in the provision of dedicated resources for WHE. The site enquiries detailed above were profiled in “First Collection of Good Practices for Quality Education” (ASP net: 2008) and held to be a model for the future development of WHE projects.

7.3 Mapping Young Hands: the perspective of the World Heritage Centre

Programme specialists Vesna Vujicic-Lugassy and assistant programme specialist Carmella Quin were interviewed regarding the mapping of Young Hands. Vujicic-Lugassy and Quin began by

noting the impact of the 1972 Convention. As of 2008, 183 out of 191 UN Member States had ratified the 1972 Convention making this one of the most influential legislative instruments in the field of heritage conservation (Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008). The near universal ratification of the 1972 Convention had resulted in a tremendous workload for WHC with 830 WHSs listed and many more placed on the Tentative List (Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008). For Vujicic-Lugassy and Quin, Article 27 constituted an important part of the 1972 Convention requiring that Member States promote world heritage through educational programmes (see Chapter 3.11).

Whilst Article 27 placed an obligation on Member States to provide educational programmes the publication of Young Hands had taken more than twenty years; such a delay had resulted in a generation of young people failing to recognise the importance of world heritage conservation (Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008). Young Hands had however been introduced to more than 7500 schools worldwide and WHE was now firmly established a “flagship project” for ASP (net) (Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008).

Following publication of Young Hands numerous WHYFs had been staged; students and teachers now had the opportunity of trialling educational resources and details of the most recent events were published on the WHC website (World Heritage Centre: 2011b). Such documents clearly demonstrated the Project Method in action with students addressing a broad range of enquiry questions; evidence was compiled using data compiled from field studies and students were encouraged to present their findings in a variety of formats including film and group discussions (World Heritage Centre: 2011b). Vujicic-Lugassy and Quin confirmed however that, despite such initiatives, “Our Pacific Heritage” remained the only version of Young Hands mapped onto the National Curriculum of a Member State (Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008).

For Vujicic-Lugassy and Quin the key to mapping Young Hands lay in a close examination of the 1972 Convention (Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008). The 1972 Convention was the first instrument to combine both “cultural heritage” and “natural heritage” (see Chapter 3.11). Article 1 of the 1972 Convention presented the criteria for listing cultural heritage sites

whilst Article 2 presented the criteria for listing natural heritage sites (see Chapter 3.11). Using Articles 1 and 2 nominating parties would compose a statement of outstanding universal value (OUV) for each nominated site; the OUV constituted a unique account of a sites importance (Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008). Vujicic-Lugassy maintained that the most successful WHE projects directly addressed the OUVs of individual WHSs. If the OUV was not addressed then the project may lack focus and direction:

The listing criteria for WHSs are detailed in Articles 1 and 2 of the 1972 Convention and these form the basis of OUVs. These criteria should give a clear indication regarding which subjects are most suitable for mapping Young Hands. Article 1 places great emphasis on standing monuments, architecture and archaeological remains; the historical significance of sites is emphasised as is their anthropological or ethnographic significance. I conclude from this that history and social studies or citizenship should play a vital part in mapping Young Hands. Similarly Article 2 places great emphasis on physical geography, particular geological formations and a variety of ecosystems comprising both plants and animals. I would suggest here that geography, science and citizenship would be important to the mapping of Young Hands.

(Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008)

Despite the above Vujicic-Lugassy did note a number of caveats:

One must naturally check whether schools offer these particular subjects. Not all schools will offer geography, history or citizenship as separate subjects; for some age groups they may not be available at all. Even when subjects are available one must check individual syllabuses or POSs; academic disciplines are not universally defined and what constitutes geography or history for one Member State may not constitute geography or history in another.

(Vujicic-Lugassy *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008)

In addition Quin noted that whilst history, geography and citizenship were important other subjects should not be overlooked:

Strong links have been suggested between Young Hands and subjects such as history, geography and citizenship; these subjects are important but the potential for mapping Young Hands extends beyond these disciplines. History, geography and citizenship simply represent a starting point and Youth Fora have demonstrated that art, science and technology also have their part to play in realising the potential of Young Hands.

(Quin *pers. comm.* 10 December 2008)

Interviews conducted at ASP (net) and the WHC had indicated that for Young Hands to be mapped successfully onto N/C 2007 research should focus on N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship. However, before turning to these POSs it may be useful to reflect further on the opinions expressed by these UNESCO programme specialists and to place this data in context.

Chapter Three introduced Associated Schools indicating that 7,900 schools were currently part of this network (see Chapter); these schools had a global spread covering five administrative regions (Africa, Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and North America, together with Latin America and the Caribbean). As programme specialists had indicated, WHE had proved popular with up to 1000 Associated Schools engaged in WHE projects and forwarding information to National Coordinators; these figures had led WHE to be classified as a “UNESCO flagship project.” By contrast all maintained secondary schools in England were required to follow the National Curriculum. By 2008 N/C 2007 had been introduced to a total of 3000 secondary schools; by extension, if the same number of schools adopted WHE then the number of schools engaging with this project would increase three fold. Clearly the scale of WHE is not equal to that of N/C 2007.

UNESCO programme specialists and EHES had placed great emphasis on UNESCO’s goal of introducing WHE to the National Curriculum of each Member State. Key to achieving this goal was the provision of educational resources on a regional and national level. To date, despite the fact that 51,900 copies of Young Hands are currently in circulation, only one regional version of

Young Hands has been published. Programme advisors placed great emphasise on “Our Pacific Heritage” because it remains the only regional version of the Young Hands syllabus.

Unfortunately, despite the status of this syllabus and the introduction of “Our Pacific Heritage” to the National Curriculum for New Zealand, UNESCO was unable to provide data relating specifically to schools. For UNESCO the success of “Our Pacific Heritage” was to be measured in terms of support for the “First Asia Pacific World Heritage Youth Forum” as opposed to the academic performance of individual institutions.

Since the publication of Young Hands in 2002 UNESCO had hosted a total of 18 WHYFs including the “First Asia Pacific World Heritage Youth Forum” in New Zealand (see Chapter 7.2 above). For UNESCO programme specialists these WHYFs served a number of purposes. First, WHYFs were used to develop educational resources for WHE. Second, WHYFs were used to train teachers and trainers in WHE and it was this latter point that proved most controversial. Having attended a WHYF teachers were expected to return to school and host their own training sessions. Concern had been expressed regarding this “cascade method” of teacher training. Indeed members of the UNESCO panel of experts and EHES had advocated abandoning this model of teacher training altogether (see Chapter 4.7). For Stone, Kvisteroy and EHES the training provided by WHYFs was inadequate and the inclusion of the “First Asia Pacific World Heritage Youth Forum” in “Good Practices for Quality Education” (ASP net: 2008) would be inappropriate. What was needed was a specific training course dedicated to training teachers of WHE.

Having reviewed the recommendations of ASP (net) and the WHC it is important to examine N/C 2007 in detail and to determine how effectively Young Hands may be mapped onto N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship.

7.4 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007: the perspective of the QCA

Responsibility for development of the National Curriculum had been ceded to QCA in 1998. DCSF had initiated a comprehensive review of the National Curriculum for secondary schools

requesting that POSs be revised together with GCSE subject criteria. QCA published the revised National Curriculum for secondary schools in 2007 (DCSF/QCA: 2007); DCSF planned a rolling programme of introduction for N/C 2007 for the period 2008-2010 (DCSF/QCA 2007: 7). In addition Awarding Bodies in England were asked to respond to revised subject criteria and publish new GCSE specifications for September 2008; by 2010 new POSs and new GCSE specifications had been introduced to all secondary schools in England. Revised POSs showed a marked reduction in subject content and renewed emphasis on Key Concepts and Key Processes (see Chapter 6.11).

Chapter Five detailed how the ECM Agenda had been incorporated into law by the 2004 Children's Act. The ECM Agenda had originally been premised on UNCRC and had identified five desirable outcomes for all children; QCA adopted the ECM Agenda and translated these five outcomes into three aims for the National Curriculum. All National Curriculum subjects should encourage:

- Successful learners, who enjoy learning, make progress and achieve
- Confident individuals who are able to live safe, healthy and fulfilling lives
- Responsible citizens who make a positive contribution to society

(DCSF/QCA 2007: 7)

Whilst ECM had proved the driving force behind N/C 2007, Chapter Five detailed a number of reports which had had a strong bearing on the process of revision. The report of Chief HMI Ruth Gilbert had certainly impacted on the revision process, her emphasis on "personalised learning" and her recommendation that N/C 2007 promote skills and processes associated with enquiry based learning (DfES 2006d: 13) were heeded by QCA. POSs were comprehensively rewritten whilst Key Concepts and Key Processes now focused on field study and investigative learning.

Complimenting Gilbert's recommendations LOTC (DfES: 2006a) encouraged schools, local authorities, heritage sites and training centres to make full use of the local environment.

Proposed by DfES, the LOtC Manifesto supported both ECM and “personalised learning”; DfES emphasised the importance of community based fieldwork, visits to sites of historic and scientific interest and longer residential stays (DfES 2006a: 6). LOtC sought to reengage the interests of young people believing that LOtC could make teaching and learning a more relevant experience and improve academic performance. QCA were quick to realise the potential of this initiative and LOtC was written into POSs for N/C 2007 including N/C 2007 history and N/C 2007 geography (see Chapter 7.6 and 7.9).

Research conducted at UNESCO Headquarters had suggested that Young Hands might be mapped onto N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship. Following these findings interviews were conducted with QCA advisors for these subject areas. QCA advisors were each presented with a summative version of Young Hands (Appendix 4) and asked to determine whether Young Hands might be mapped onto their respective subject areas. The results of these interviews are detailed below.

7.5 Introducing N/C 2007 history

QCA advisor for history, Jerome Freeman, had been asked to draft N/C 2007 history as part of a general revision of the secondary National Curriculum. Freeman stressed the degree of continuity that existed between previous National Curriculum specifications and N/C 2007 history:

N/C 2007 history displays a great deal of continuity with previous specifications and history teachers should be pleased at the outcome of this process of revision. History teachers should be familiar with the Key Concepts and Key Processes detailed by N/C 2007 history and can approach the revised National Curriculum with confidence.

(Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

As described in Chapter Six, the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 history (Figure 7.4) not only reflected previous National Curriculum specifications but exhibited continuity with

history syllabuses extending as far back as “Time, Place and Society 8-13” (Blyth: 1976) and, more specifically, “Schools Council History Project 13-16” (Schools Council: 1976).

<u>Key Concepts for NC 2007 history</u>	<u>Key Processes for NC 2007 history</u>
1.1 Chronological understanding	2.1 Historical enquiry
1.2 Cultural, ethnic and religious understanding	2.2 Using evidence
1.3 Change and continuity	2.3 Communicating about the past
1.4 Cause and consequence	
1.5 Significance	
1.6 Interpretation	

Figure 7.4 Key Concepts and Key Processes for N/C 2007 history based on DCSF/QCA 2007: 112

Concepts such as “Change and continuity” (Key Concept 1.3), “Cause and consequence” (Key Concept 1.4), and “Historical interpretation” (Key Concept 1.6) had been introduced to history teachers in 1972 (see Chapter 6.7). The same was true of Key Processes such as “Historical enquiry” (Key Process 2.1) and “The use of historical evidence” (Key Process 2.2). Whilst these parallels were perfectly valid Freeman was keen to emphasise the ways in which N/C 2007 history supported the latest recommendations of Chief HMI Ruth Gilbert and the LOtC Manifesto (see Chapter 7.4). Freeman noted:

These two reports complemented each other and informed the writing of N/C 2007 history. Gilbert emphasised the importance of “personalised learning;” for me personalised learning involves students going out into the local community and carrying out their investigations. DfES actively encouraged this enquiry based approach to education and QCA fully supported the LOtC Manifesto. The focus of N/C 2007 history is enquiry based learning and introducing students to the process of historical

investigation. N/C 2007 places great emphasis on site visits and QCA has worked extensively with the heritage sector to develop this curriculum.

(Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

For Freeman, Gilbert's recommendations and the LOtC Manifesto had simply reinforced what was expected of good history teachers. Freeman emphasised that enquiry based learning had always been written into National Curriculum specifications for history. Students had always been encouraged to visit historic sites and to carry out their own investigations. Even when not explicitly stipulated all teachers were aware that National Curriculum guidelines presented the "minimum legal requirements" for their respective subjects; teachers had always been encouraged to supplement POSs as they wished. Freeman conceded however that for many history departments historical content remained the priority (Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008).

This latter point touched upon the most dramatic revision to the POS for history. The History Order of 1992 had introduced core study units for history; whilst changes had been made to National Curriculum history over the years specified content had remained remarkably consistent (see Chapter 6.10). Now, acting on the recommendations of "2020 Vision" (Gilbert: 2006), specified content had been dramatically reduced. Freeman had replaced the specified content of N/C 1999 history with a brief list of topics including: "Slave Trade", "The Holocaust" and "Human Rights" (DCSF/QCA 2007: 115). These topics were to be introduced to students as appropriate and were to constitute the basis of class projects or "enquiries" (DCSF/QCA 2007: 115). With specified content dramatically reduced, schools were responsible for developing their own dedicated schemes of work

7.6 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007 history: perceived strengths

Freeman was familiar with UNESCO and had been intrigued by the summative version of Young Hands (Appendix 4). Firstly Freeman noted the educational approach of Young Hands which he regarded as virtually indistinguishable from that of N/C 2007 history:

There are distinct parallels between the educational approach of Young Hands and the educational approach of N/C 2007 history. Young Hands is based on the Project Method of education and N/C 2007 history is premised on enquiry based methods of learning. I wrote N/C 2007 history with copies of 2020Vision and LOtC in front of me. I am a great advocate of enquiry based learning and wherever possible I wrote fieldwork and site visits into the curriculum. Just listen to the statutory content.... Key Process 2.1 Historical enquiry: pupils should be able to identify and investigate specific historical questions or issues, making and testing hypotheses; Key Process 2.2 Using evidence: pupils should be able to identify, select and use a range of historical sources, including textual, visual and oral sources, artefacts and the historic environment. Key Concept 1.6 Interpretation: understanding how historians and others form interpretations.....and in the explanatory notes...students must understand that people represent and interpret the past in many ways including reconstructions and *museum displays*. Interpretations reflect the circumstances in which they were made, the available evidence, and the intentions of those who make them including historian, film makers and *archaeologists*. Investigations and site visits are an essential part of N/C 2007 history.

(Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

Freeman saw the educational approach of Young Hands as being a key strength and he believed that this syllabus could make a valuable contribution to the teaching of N/C 2007 history:

I believe that Young Hands has great potential. A history department could take a syllabus like this and create cross curricular schemes of work which could act as an exemplar for the whole school. As Head of History I was always keen to introduce new initiatives; I found they raised the profile of the whole Department and Young Hands would do the same.

(Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

In fact a number of educational texts already based site enquiries on WHSs in England. One school text, published under the banner of Schools History Project, introduced younger students to the Key Processes of “Historical Enquiry” and “Using Evidence.” “SHP History” presented

evidence of human settlement along Hadrian's Wall WHS and developed a series of enquiry questions encouraging students to investigate the lives of civilians and military personnel in this area (Dawson and Wilson 2008: 42). Historical enquiries, as featured in this text, required students to produce detailed and often extended narratives (Dawson and Wilson 2008: 43); writing up the results of a field study or site visit could prove exceptionally demanding (OFSTED 2007: 5). It was for these reasons that history was often identified as a challenging subject and the importance of communication skills (Key Process 2.3) was emphasised by N/C 2007 history. In mitigation, the challenging nature of this subject presented an ideal opportunity for students to enhance their literacy skills, as noted by DfES (DfES: 2004c); these opportunities were later exploited by Jurassic Coast WHS (see Chapter 8.3).

Freeman had confirmed that Young Hands could make a significant contribution to the teaching of history for students aged 11 to 14. For students aged 14 to 16 the picture was complicated by the fact that the Dearing Report had made the study of history optional (see Chapter 6.11). This "downgrading" of history was almost unique to England and has impacted on student numbers. History remained however part of the mandatory "humanities curriculum area" (DCSF/QCA: 2007: 9) with over 30% of all secondary students sitting GCSE History (OFSTED 2007: 4), this translated into 23,000 examination entries every year (QCA 2005: 9). Given the popularity of this subject it was important to examine the contribution that Young Hands might make to the teaching of GCSE History (Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008).

At the same time as revising National Curriculum History Freeman was asked to revise GCSE History Criteria; to provide continuity the Key Concepts and Key Processes of GCSE History mirrored those of N/C 2007 history (QCA 2007c: 5) and GCSE marking criteria (GCSE 2007c: 7) were based on N/C 2007 history levels of attainment (Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008). GCSE History Criteria were forwarded to Awarding Bodies in England (OCR, Edexcel and AQA) and all three responded, each offering a choice of two specifications. Freeman noted:

Awarding Bodies in England offer a choice of two specifications: Modern World History and School's History Project. Of the two, Schools History Project is most appropriate for mapping Young Hands. Whilst all specifications emphasise the importance of enquiry

based learning SHP encourages students to engage in fieldwork. The controlled assessment unit for SHP, entitled History Around Us, presents students with an enquiry question. Students are required to visit an historic monument and engage in field survey work. They are then asked to write up their results and draw their own informed conclusions from their visit. This controlled assessment activity seems particularly suited to the mapping of Young Hands.

(Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

Following GCSE History Criteria, a total of 25% of all marks were allocated to “controlled assessment” or coursework (QCA 2007c: 7); this represented a significant weighting in assessment procedures. If Young Hands could be shown to support controlled assessment then this syllabus would be accorded a high profile by history teachers (Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008). Questions were then raised as to the format of “History Around Us”; would this unit be so specific as to exclude many WHSs, again Freeman offered reassurance:

Controlled assessments are new to all subjects this year including GCSE History. Whilst it is true that each Awarding Body stipulates differing levels of control my understanding is that all boards will offer a generic question; this will enable history departments to conduct fieldwork on a range of WHSs including prehistoric monuments. Levels of control refer more to the supervision of written accounts than to the enquiry question itself.

(Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

OCR had published pilot examination papers to assist schools in preparing for the new GCSEs. Close inspection of OCR’s specification for SHP confirmed Freeman’s convictions; the “History Around Us” unit presented the following enquiry question, “The site you have studied was typical of sites at the time. How far do you agree with this statement?” Candidates simply were instructed to, “use the sources you have researched, and your knowledge of the site and its

historical background to support and explain your answer” (OCR 2008b: 2). Clearly an enquiry question of this breadth presented great scope for WHSs in England and for Young Hands.

In addition to SHP Freeman suggested exploring the possibility of mapping Young Hands onto the “OCR 1938 GCSE History” specification. QCA and OCR had introduced this GCSE as a pilot specification in 2004 and it was now used in 100 schools throughout England. Whilst no new candidates could be admitted for the academic year beginning 2008, Freeman believed this specification represented the future for GCSE History:

QCA and OFSTED believe OCR 1938 represents the way forward for GCSE History. This specification offers a vocational training in history. Course units encourage students to engage in practical activities: organising museum displays, working alongside conservators etc. Students are able to see that the study of history has a practical relevance and relates directly to the world of work. Students are enthusiastic with 66% of candidates scoring grades A* to C and OCR has supported the course by publishing a range of dedicated textbooks. Young Hands places great emphasis on vocational activities and I am sure this GCSE specification would prove valuable.

(Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

In common with other History GCSE specifications OCR 1938 allocated 25% of marks to controlled assessment or “local history investigation” (OCR 2008a: 26). Details for controlled assessment followed those proposed for SHP indeed the Director of SHP, Chris Culpin, was acting as Chief Examiner. In addition to the “local history investigation” OCR 1938 offered an extensive list of vocational units that could be seen to support Young Hands. These units included: “Heritage Management and Marketing” (OCR 2008a: 38) relating to the world heritage themes of “Identity” and “Tourism”, “Multimedia in History” (OCR 2008a: 50) relating to the world heritage themes of “Identity”, “Tourism” and “Peace” whilst one further unit, “Whose History: Presenting the Past?” (OCR 2008a: 65) linked rather eloquently with the world heritage themes of “Identity” and “Tourism.”

7.7 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C history: perceived weaknesses

Whilst N/C 2007 history undoubtedly offered numerous opportunities for mapping Young Hands Freeman identified a number of barriers to this process which, whilst not insurmountable, needed to be born in mind.

The profile of history in secondary schools remained relatively low. Whilst history was compulsory for students aged 11 to 14 and was, generally, well taught it was optional for older students and there was a perception that curriculum timetables favoured core subjects as opposed to humanities subjects (OFSTED 2007: 28). The result was that time which had, in the past, been allocated for fieldtrips and enquiry based learning was now curtailed. Such developments did not bode well for the introduction of Young Hands (Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008).

For Young Hands to be introduced successfully into schools, history must be taught in an inclusive manner (see Chapter 7.2). ASP (net) promoted Young Hands under the banner of “Intercultural Learning” (see Chapter 7.2) and any attempt to devalue the cultural heritage of minority communities posed a serious threat to the universal values underpinning this syllabus. Independent research and studies conducted by DfES had uncovered evidence of institutional racism in English Schools (see Chapter 5.10) and the QCA stood accused of promoting a curriculum which alienated minority communities. Freeman responded to these allegations:

You are right to note instances of institutional racism in English Schools, such actions naturally pose a threat to the introduction of Young Hands. I would point out however that one of the prompts presented in this interview schedule was prepared by me; I drafted the following statement for the QCA in 2005 and I believe it still holds true. Too little attention is given to black and multiethnic aspects of UK history. The teaching of black history is often confined to topics about slavery and post-war immigration or to Black History Month. The effect, if inadvertent, is to undervalue the overall contribution of black and minority people to the UK’s past and to ignore their cultural, scientific and many other achievements,

(Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

Freeman maintained that the National Curriculum was not, of itself, Anglocentric; rather the fault lay with schools and individual teachers who interpreted the National Curriculum in an Anglocentric manner. The National Curriculum presented the bare minimum that needed to be taught. Clearly if schools chose to focus on the minimum requirements, and only the minimum requirements, then the curriculum would be skewed (Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008). Freeman stated that his own belief in the need for a culturally diverse history curriculum came from teaching in a culturally diverse area of the East Midlands; he did however warn that legislation was not the answer to institutionalised racism. For Freeman it would take more than legal imperatives to change the culture of certain schools (Freeman *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008).

Finally it is important to note once again the demands that history places on the literacy skills of secondary school students. Guidance notes on communication skills stated, “students are required to read complex texts, use subject specific language, compare and contrast source material and compose detailed and extended compositions” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 115). Whilst DfES published guidance on literacy and the teaching of history for younger students (DfES: 2004c) older students were poorly catered for. This paucity in resources for older students may be due to the fact that QCA History Criteria stated that GCSE History papers were not to be “tiered” (QCA 2007c: 7). Of all National Curriculum subjects only history made no allowance for students with weak literacy skills. The implication for Young Hands was clear; whereas subjects such as geography, English and mathematics are able to accommodate students with weak literacy skills history could not; as a result students who might otherwise gain a good GCSE History grade were turned away. For those planning to map Young Hands onto GCSE History, fewer candidates equated to fewer students able to use this syllabus.

7.8 Introducing N/C 2007 geography

David Gardner had been charged with revising the POS for National Curriculum geography in 2006. In contrast to Freeman, Gardner emphasised the radical nature of N/C 2007 when outlining Key Concepts and Key Processes (Figure 7.5).

<u>Key Concepts for NC 2007 geography</u>	<u>Key Processes for NC 2007 geography</u>
1.1 Place	2.1 Geographic enquiry
1.2 Space	2.2 Fieldwork and out of class learning
1.3 Scale	2.3 Graphicacy and visual literacy
1.4 Interdependence	2.4 Geographical communication
1.5 Physical and human processes	
1.6 Environmental interaction and Sustainable development	
1.7 Cultural understanding and diversity	

Figure 7.5 Key Concepts and Key Processes for NC 2007 geography based on DCSF/QCA 2007: 102

For Gardner N/C 2007 geography represented a radical and much needed departure from N/C 1999 geography; in compliance with recommendations by Chief HMI Ruth Gilbert subject content had been radically reduced. Gardner noted that teachers had, in the past, focused too much on subject content whilst ignoring the Key Concepts and Key Processes of geography. He believed this over emphasis on subject content had led to a decline in the popularity of the subject over recent years. This decline could only be addressed by emphasising once again the Key Concepts and Key Processes of the subject and by rekindling teacher's interest in enquiry based learning. N/C 2007 geography placed a premium on "personalised learning" with students now encouraged to participate in field studies and actively explore their environment.

7.9 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C geography: perceived strengths

Gardner confirmed that the ECM Agenda had played a formative role in shaping N/C 2007 geography and that the "importance statement" for geography had been premised on this document (Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008).

Gardner drew distinct parallels between the educational approach of N/C 2007 geography and that of Young Hands and emphasised the importance of enquiry based learning and visits to sites of geographic importance:

I was brought up on enquiry based learning and as a young geography teacher I organised at least three residential visits every year and numerous one day field trips. Students were expected to conduct their own enquiries, collating the necessary data and write up the results of their investigations in school. I believe too many students have become disengaged with the subject because fieldwork has been neglected; hence the importance of Young Hands. If geography departments adopted this syllabus and placed greater emphasis on fieldwork and enquiry based learning then the profile of the subject would be raised.

(Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008)

Having emphasised the importance of enquiry based learning methods Gardner cited specific instances where fieldwork had been incorporated into N/C 2007 geography:

LOtC was an exceptionally important document and I wrote fieldwork into N/C 2007 geography wherever possible. The Importance Statement clearly states that the process of geographical enquiry encourages questioning, investigations and critical thinking... fieldwork is an essential element of this process. Key Process 2.1, entitled geographic enquiry; explanatory notes clearly state the importance of fieldwork and that students must be familiar with tools such as digital cameras and environmental sensors. Key Process 2.2, entitled fieldwork and out of class learning, this clearly stipulates that students must have practical experience in using fieldwork equipment and techniques. Finally, under Curriculum Opportunities: 4a students must have personal experience of geography; 4b students must explore real and relevant contemporary contexts beyond the confines of the school and 4c students must undertake fieldwork investigations in different locations outside the classroom individually and as part of a team.

(Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008)

Recognising the challenge that this renewed emphasis on fieldwork posed to schools QCA launched the “Action Plan for Geography” (DfES: 2006b). This initiative aimed to provide schools with practical examples of how geography fieldwork should be carried out. Amongst examples of good practice showcased by QCA were case studies developed by Jurassic Coast WHS; the QCA website now depicted students sketching fossils and noting geological formations.

Linked to fieldwork and the application of practical skills came the issue of vocational relevance. For Gardner, Young Hands could play a vital role in bolstering N/C 2007 geography by showing how geography linked to specific careers e.g. archaeology, heritage management or the tourist industry:

Vocational relevance is a hobby horse of mine and I fought a number of battles with QCA and with the geography community to have vocational relevance written into N/C 2007 geography; I was warned this was aspect of learning was of greater relevance to N/C 2007 citizenship but I disagreed.....to my mind a whole generation of young people has become disengaged with the subject because they see it having little practical relevance. Young Hands can play a vital role in showing students how geography links to the world of work; I would go so far as to say that schools need this syllabus. After heated debate I underscored the vocational relevance of geography - Curriculum Opportunities 4f states that students should participate in informed responsible action in relation to geographical issues that affect them and those around them. *Young Hands would prove invaluable here.*

(Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008)

Fieldwork constituted a vital component of N/C 2007 geography and as such both Young Hands and N/C 2007 geography were able to play an important part in developing literacy skills on a whole school basis. DfES had cited how students engaged in fieldwork became proficient in the use of propositional language, communicating ideas more effectively (DfES 2004b: 6); similarly students engaged in communal tasks were better versed in subject specific language and in

sequencing concepts and ideas (DfES 2004b: 8). Such developments in oral literacy translated into improved writing skills with analytical reports and narrative accounts all benefiting (DfES 2004b: 8).

Having determined that Young Hands could be mapped effectively onto N/C 2007 geography Gardner turned his attention to GCSE Geography specifications. Whilst the study of geography is not compulsory for students aged 14 to 16 schools are required to provide “a humanities curriculum area” comprising *either* geography *or* history; in practice most schools make provision for both subjects (DCSF/QCA 2007: 9). In 2007 Gardner revised GCSE Geography Criteria in line with N/C 2007 geography (QCA 2007b). Awarding Bodies in England responded, each offering schools two specifications. In sharp contrast to GCSE History GCSE Geography papers were “tiered” (QCA 2007b: 6). Candidates with weaker literacy skills could sit “foundation tier geography” offering grades C to G whilst other candidates sat “higher tier geography” offering grades A* to D (QCA 2007b: 6). Such differentiation meant that GCSE Geography appealed to a greater range of students and hence offered greater potential for the introduction of Young Hands.

Whilst all GCSE Geography specifications offered some degree of variation all were based on the same subject criteria; with this in mind just one specification was examined to determine whether Young Hands would map onto GCSE Geography. Edexcel Geography A (Edexcel: 2008e) comprised the four units detailed in Figure 7.6,

<u>Edexcel Geography A Specification</u>	
Unit 1: Introduction to Geography	(25%)
Unit 2: Natural environment	(25%)
Unit 3: Human environment	(25%)
Unit 4: Investigating Geography	(25%)

Figure 7.6 GCSE Geography “A” Specification (Edexcel: 2008e)

The first three units detailed in Figure 7.6 were assessed by examination whilst Unit 4 constituted the “controlled assessment” exercise. In contrast to GCSE History where Young Hands related primarily to controlled assessment (see Chapter 7.6); here Young Hands could be mapped onto the entire specification. Unit 1 revisited Key Concepts and Key Processes introduced by N/C 2007 geography (Edexcel 2008e: 9). Unit 2 detailed a range of different natural environments including “coastal landscapes”, “rivers”, “estuaries”, “volcanic landscapes” and “glaciers” (Edexcel: 2008e: 17). QCA had already profiled fieldwork at Jurassic Coast WHS as part of the “Action Plan for Geography” (see Chapter 8.3); with further application other case studies could be developed for a range of natural environments.

For Unit 3 students were asked to study either “settlement change” or “the tourist industry” (Edexcel: 2008: 30). “Settlement change” presented an opportunity for students to examine a range of themes linked to prehistoric and historic settlement patterns. These themes included: “exploitation of natural resources”, “the effects of conflict and peace on human settlement” and “differences in rural and urban settlement.” Later research showed that Bath Preservation Trust had developed schemes of work demonstrating how Young Hands could address many of these themes (see Chapter 8.4). Here activities tracing pre and post Georgian settlement within the city walls were premised on Young Hands. Unit 3 profiled the tourist industry in detail including “tourist trends”, “economic impact”, “cultural impact” and “sustainable tourism.” Here resources addressing the theme of “World Heritage and Tourism” (UNESCO 2002: 102) would prove invaluable.

Unit 4, “investigating geography” comprised the controlled assessment element of Edexcel Geography A (Edexcel 2008c: 46). Students were presented with eight topics each accompanied by two enquiry questions. A broad choice of enquiries was available chosen from Units 1 to 3 including: “coasts”, “environmental geography”, “rivers” and “the tourist industry.” The educational approach detailed by Edexcel mirrored that of Young Hands with students visiting sites of marked geographic importance, assimilating a broad range of geographic evidence (including maps, documents, site photographs, field sketches, site questionnaires and interview

data) and finally presenting their findings in the form of a written site report (Edexcel 2008c: 48).

Whilst Young Hands did not have a direct bearing on all controlled assessments detailed in this specification it had relevance to most; most importantly Young Hands provided a thorough grounding in the skills necessary to master GCSE Geography (Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008).

7.10 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007 geography: perceived weaknesses

Despite Young Hands' potential to map effectively onto N/C 2007 geography Gardner, like Freeman above, tempered his enthusiasm by citing obstacles to the mapping process. One such obstacle was the ignorance or "institutionalised racism" exhibited by some schools. Gardner maintained that National Curriculum geography had never been Anglocentric however certain schools had chosen to "interpret" POSs in that manner (Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008); institutional racism was ingrained in these establishments and there was a good chance that they would reject the aims of both N/C 2007 geography and Young Hands. Gardner noted:

Institutional racism can be a problem; some schools in England do display a great deal of ignorance and a lack of understanding. Some Years ago I worked in a school in Scarborough. The area itself was quite parochial and students had no opportunity whatever to learn about other cultures. I suggested to the Head Teacher that the school should introduce a multicultural policy and make some effort to introduce cultural diversity into the curriculum. The Head Teacher was taken aback but explained that such things were not needed in his school as there were no ethnic minority students! My argument that this was the very reason a multicultural policy was needed fell on deaf ears. In my view the curriculum in this school was failing to prepare students for life in modern Britain or for the world of work.....N/C 2007 geography has introduced Cultural Understanding and Diversity as a Key Concept but this does not mean that all schools

will embrace cultural diversity. QCA produces guidance that points the way; it is for schools to make this guidance a reality.

(Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008).

Also of concern to Gardner was the level of subject knowledge exhibited by some geography teachers (Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008). OFSTED had identified grave deficiencies in the teaching of geography at primary level with some students beginning secondary school with no knowledge of the subject (OFSTED 2008a: 4). Secondary schools fared little better and OFSTED noted a disproportionate number of Heads of Geography were poorly qualified in their subject (OFSTED: 2008a: 26). No explanation was given for this lack of training and the situation was compounded by a lack of continued professional development. As a result Gardner felt compelled to express his reservations regarding the introduction of N/C 2007 geography (Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008). Previous National Curriculum specifications had presented teachers with a defined body of knowledge; teachers lacking subject expertise could rely on the use of text books and schemes of work published by QCA. N/C 2007 geography was different; teachers were required to develop their own schemes of work:

Chief HMI Ruth Gilbert recommended that geography study units be abandoned and that schools implement their own dedicated schemes of work; this was the basis of personalised learning with students carrying out geography investigations in their local communities. Young Hands could of course play a vital part in this process. The problem is that with flexibility comes responsibility. Geography teachers are now expected to design a curriculum dedicated to the needs of their students which addresses the aims of N/C 2007, the cross curricular dimensions of N/C 2007, the personal learning and thinking skills associated with N/C 2007 and the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 geography. This is a big ask and OFSTED have suggested that geography teachers may lack the necessary subject knowledge. QCA have asked David Lambert, Director of the Geography Association, to investigate. If geography teachers are found to have a poor understanding of their own subject then they have little chance of designing cross curricular schemes of work; a teacher who struggles with their own subject will not be able to grasp the Key Concepts and Key Processes of another. This of course has

repercussions for Young Hands as geography teachers may not understand how to integrate this project into the geography curriculum.

(Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008)

Closely linked to the lack of suitably qualified geography teachers was the poor provision made for geography fieldwork; if teachers were unfamiliar with the Key Concepts and Key Processes of their subject then they could not plan fieldwork effectively (Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008). Whilst N/C 1999 geography imposed a statutory duty on schools to provide fieldwork for geography students OFSTED had found that as many as two thirds of secondary schools failed to meet the required standards (OFSTED 2008a: 5). For Young Hands to prove successful secondary schools would need to take their statutory obligations seriously. To help geography teachers plan fieldwork effectively QCA had launched the “Action Plan for Geography” (DfES: 2006b); using geography enquiries developed by key sites, including Jurassic Coast WHS, QCA aimed to provide schools with models of good practice (see Chapter 8.3). The impact of this initiative was, however, still dependant on geography teachers receiving adequate training (Gardner *pers. comm.* 11 November 2008).

7.11 Introducing N/C 2007 citizenship

As noted above, in 1997 Secretary of State for Education, David Blunkett convened the Advisory Group on Citizenship chaired by Professor Bernard Crick (see Chapter 5.9). The “Final Report of the Advisory Group on Citizenship” or “Crick Report” highlighted a number of concerns. The Crick Report stated that young people in the UK felt disenfranchised and alienated from the political system (Crick 1998: 16); the Report believed that young people lacked the necessary skills to engage in democratic debate and that knowledge of key political institutions was lacking (Crick 1998: 14). Finally the Crick Report recommended that knowledge of British culture and British democratic processes should be promoted in schools and that British Identity or “Britishness” should become a rallying point for young people (Crick 1998:30).

Despite fears that the promotion of “Britishness” would lead to greater alienation amongst minority groups (Osler and Starkey 2005: 90) a model of citizenship education premised on the Crick Report was introduced in 2002 (see Chapter 5.9). Whilst citizenship education now constituted a compulsory part of the National Curriculum for students aged 11 to 16 DfES guidance stated that citizenship should be introduced with a “light touch” (DfEE 1999: i). Schools were given the option of introducing citizenship as a cross-curricular theme rather than as a subject in its own right. In addition no GCSE subject criteria were published for this subject; citizenship was compulsory for students aged 14 to 16 yet no accredited public examination was available. As a result citizenship was identified as the worst taught National Curriculum subject and revision of this POS was advised (OFSTED 2005: 3).

In 2006 DfES convened the “Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review” chaired by former Head Teacher, Sir Keith Ajegbo. The Final Report or “Ajegbo Report” (DfES: 2007) made recommendations regarding the teaching of citizenship and recommendations regarding the promotion of cultural diversity across the National Curriculum (see Chapter 5.10). The Ajegbo Report recommended that citizenship be implemented not as a cross-curricular theme but as a National Curriculum subject in its own right; secondary schools should be required to introduce projects which developed the Key Concepts and Key Processes of citizenship (DfES 2007: 11). In parallel with these proposals the Ajegbo Report recommended that GCSE Citizenship criteria be published and that GCSE Citizenship specifications be introduced (DfES 2007: 12). Finally the Ajegbo Report recommended that cultural diversity be introduced as a cross-curricular theme throughout N/C 2007 (DfES 2007: 20); this had specific implications for N/C 2007 citizenship with “Identities and diversity: living together in the UK” (Key Concept 1.3) being incorporated within the POS (DCSF/QCA 2007: 42).

<u>Key Concepts for N/C 2007 citizenship</u>	<u>Key Processes for N/C 2007 citizenship</u>
1.1 Democracy and justice	2.1 Critical thinking and enquiry
1.2 Rights and responsibilities	2.2 Advocacy and representation
1.3 Identities and diversity: living together in the UK	2.3 Taking informed and responsible action.

Figure 7.7 Key Concepts and Key Processes for N/C 2007 citizenship based on DCSF/QCA 2007: 42

QCA advisor for citizenship, Liz Craft, was responsible for drafting N/C 2007 citizenship (Figure 7.7). In addition to the Ajebo Report Craft noted the influence of Chief HMI Ruth Gilbert on the revised POS for citizenship; as a direct result of “2020 Vision”, Key Process 2.1 “Critical thinking and enquiry” had been introduced to the POS for citizenship (DCSF/QCA 2007: 44). Two further Key Processes were incorporated into N/C 2007 citizenship to underscore the active and participatory nature of this subject; first, “Advocacy and representation” (Key Process 2.2) provided students with an opportunity to develop oral literacy skills whilst “Taking informed and responsible action” (Key Process 2.3) recommended that the results of citizenship enquiries be applied in a practical manner. Craft concluded revision of the citizenship POS by publishing GCSE Citizenship criteria and forwarding these to Awarding Bodies in England. Citizenship education had undergone a radical transformation and it was important to determine what role Young Hands might play in the delivery of N/C 2007 citizenship.

7.12 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007 citizenship: perceived strengths

In common with N/C 2007 history and N/C 2007 geography marked similarities were noted between the educational approach of N/C 2007 citizenship and Young Hands (Craft *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008). The educational approach of N/C 2007 citizenship was premised on enquiry based learning with guidance notes for “Critical thinking and enquiry (Key Process 2.1) stating:

Students should use real case studies to explore citizenship issues and problems...students should interrogate evidence, develop judgements based on that evidence and explore, question and reflect on their own ideas as well as those of others.

(DCSF/QCA 2007: 44)

With regard to enquiry based learning Craft was keen to note, “Young Hands would be useful in developing the curriculum for citizenship as it would encourage schools to use the local community as a resource” (Craft *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008). Craft did note however that the proximity of WHSs would have a bearing on how Young Hands might be used:

I understand that WHSs in England have a broad geographic spread. Some WHSs such as the Tower of London and the City of Bath are located in major urban areas and could act as a local resource for many schools; similarly other WHSs are spread over a large geographic area and would have many schools on their doorstep. There are schools however that are not within easy reach of a WHS; for these schools the WHS is not a local resource and Young Hands will not be encouraging them to explore their local environment. In a sense this does not matter because N/C 2007 citizenship encourages students to explore citizenship on many levels: local, national and global. I am simply pointing out that in these circumstances Young Hands will be used to explore a different aspect of the citizenship curriculum.

(Craft *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

The “Range and Content” detailed for N/C 2007 citizenship gave some indication as to suitable citizenship enquiries, a number having direct relevance to Young Hands (DCSF/QCA 2007: 46). N/C 2007 citizenship recommended that students address political, legal and Human Rights instruments; specific examples included UNDHR and UNCRC whilst study of the Human Rights Act (HRA) was recommended as a basis for understanding legislative processes in England. A study in the development of Human Rights legislation was recommended as was the impact of individual and collective actions on local communities (DCSF/QCA 2007: 47); the importance of actions impacting on the environment was highlighted and particular emphasis was placed on

projects related to sustainable development (DCSF/QCA 2007: 44). Finally, in accordance with the recommendations of the Ajegbo Report, students were asked to study the origins and implications of cultural diversity in the UK (DCSF/QCA 2007: 47).

Given this broad range of options Craft recommended the following:

N/C 2007 citizenship places great emphasis on identity and cultural diversity; indeed the current POS provides a framework which encourages students to explore these topics in detail. I believe Young Hands would prove most useful in furthering these investigations....the focus of N/C 2007 is on exploring cultural identities i.e. "plural identities" as opposed to one singular cultural identity. I say this because political pressure was brought to bear by those who believed citizenship should promote the concept of "Britishness" and British cultural identity; QCA resisted these moves. Neither does N/C 2007 citizenship promote the concept of "global citizenship" as advocated by UNESCO; this POS simply provides a means of exploring these issues.

(Craft *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

In addition to supporting the teaching of identity and cultural diversity Craft believed Young Hands might prove useful in exploring the concept of sustainable development:

Bringing about social and political change is a key aim of N/C 2007 citizenship. On the surface World Heritage Education and social change are not natural companions; dig a little deeper however and the usefulness of this syllabus becomes apparent. Many schools have developed projects aiming to make students more aware of their environmental responsibilities. These projects emphasise the importance of sustainable development practices and Young Hands would be a great help in this regard.

(Craft *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

Young Hands had been shown to support the process of citizenship enquiry as defined by Key Process 2.1. Craft had described N/C 2007 citizenship as, “a mixture of intellectual development and practical application” (Craft *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008) and this emphasis on practical application was reflected in the remaining Key Processes. N/C 2007 citizenship highlighted two outcomes for citizenship enquiries the first of which was “Advocacy and representation” (Key Process 2.2); here students were required to, “present a convincing argument that takes account of and represents different viewpoints to try to persuade others to think again; change or support their viewpoints” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 44). The second outcome was, “Taking informed and responsible action” (Key Process 2.3); here students “negotiated, decided on and took action to try to influence others, brought about change or resisted unwanted change whilst managing time and resources appropriately” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 44); specific examples included presenting a case study to others, organising a forum to create awareness or communicating their views via a dedicated website (DCSF/QCA 2007: 44). Young Hands placed similar emphasis on practical outcomes to WHE enquiries and, bearing these points in mind, Craft outlined the subject criteria for GCSE Citizenship:

This is the first time GCSE Citizenship criteria have been published. GCSE Short Course has been offered to schools but not a full GCSE; this has had a significant impact on the status of citizenship and figures indicate that this has become the fastest growing GCSE. All students must study N/C citizenship, regardless of age, so they might as well sit the examination. Subject criteria are based directly on N/C 2007 citizenship with emphasis placed on the same Key Concepts and Key Processes. In contrast to History and Geography controlled assessment for GCSE Citizenship is worth 60% of the total mark. Awarding controlled assessment such a high percentage of the marks was a difficult decision; I did not want citizenship to be viewed as an easy subject but I did want schools to recognise that citizenship is a mixture of intellectual development and practical application.

(Craft *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

Subject criteria were forwarded to Awarding Bodies and all three subsequently published GCSE specifications; Edexcel proposed the specification outlined in Figure 7.8 below:

<u>Edexcel GCSE Citizenship</u>	
Unit 1: An introduction to citizenship	20%
Unit 2: Participating in society	30%
Unit 3: Citizenship in context	20%
Unit 4: Citizenship campaign	30%

Figure 7.8 GCSE Citizenship Specification (Edexcel: 2008d)

As with all three GCSE Citizenship specifications Edexcel awarded 60% of marks to controlled assessment (Unit 2 and Unit 4) and 40 % of marks to examination (Unit 1 and Unit 3). Whilst Young Hands could be seen to support all four units, controlled assessment appeared to offer the greatest opportunity. Enquiries focused on a total of nine topic areas, five of which had a direct relevance to Young Hands:

- Political, legal and Human Rights and freedoms in a range of contexts from local to global
- The development of, and struggle for, different kinds of rights and freedoms both in the UK and abroad
- The media
- Policies and practices for sustainable development
- Origins and implications of diversity and the changing nature of society in the UK

For Unit 2, “Participating in Society” students were asked to choose one of the nine topic areas identified in the specification; students were to compose their own enquiry question, defining a

suitable research strategy and compiling data from such sources as library databases, newspapers, interviews, questionnaires and websites (Edexcel 2008a: 36). Having assimilated the necessary information students presented their findings to “two people in positions of power or influence” and submitted a written account of their actions (Edexcel 2008a: 38). For Unit 4, “Citizenship Campaign” students were asked to address a specific issue or problem related to one of nine topic areas and to plan a series of actions (a campaign) that resulted in change (Edexcel 2008b: 117). Students were asked to submit a written account and provide evidence of their actions in the form of photographs, video footage, taped interviews and written testimonies (Edexcel 2008b: 118).

GCSE Citizenship appeared to offer great potential for mapping Young Hands however Craft proffered the following warning illustrating the complexity of this process:

A number of GCSE specifications have been developed which claim to address the learning objectives of citizenship – these include specifications developed by OCR in collaboration with QCA such as OCR 1938 History and GCSE Geography pilot; my response is perhaps they do-but not in my book! Citizenship enquiry is about the intertwining of citizenship knowledge, citizenship understanding and citizenship skills; if one part of the equation is removed what you have left may be citizenship then again it may not be.....more work needs to be done in defining how citizenship relates to subject areas such as history and geography.

(Craft *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008)

7.13 Mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007 citizenship: perceived weaknesses

Young Hands had been shown to support a number of areas of N/C 2007 citizenship. For Young Hands to prove truly effective however all subjects, including citizenship, needed be taught in an inclusive manner. Young Hands was promoted under the banner of “Intercultural Learning” and Craft had suggested that the value of this syllabus lay in promoting Key Concept 1.3 “Identities and diversity: living together in the UK” (Craft *pers. comm.* 16 December 2008). Of relevance

Craft identified a number of ways in which Young Hands might prove a valuable resource for N/C 2007 citizenship; it appeared however that the introduction of N/C 2007 citizenship itself posed a serious challenge for teachers. With teachers of citizenship facing such fundamental problems the introduction of Young Hands might be low on their list of priorities.

7.14 The QCA perspective: concluding remarks

Programme specialists at ASP (net) and the WHC had identified history, geography and citizenship as providing the most effective vehicles for mapping Young Hands onto the National Curricula of Member States. Interviews with QCA subject advisors confirmed a high level of compatibility between Young Hands and N/C 2007 for these subjects.

Particularly significant was the fact that the aims and values of N/C 2007 were compatible with those of Young Hands. The drafting of Young Hands had been informed by global Human Rights instruments introduced by the United Nations (see Chapter 3.15). Similarly the aims and values of N/C 2007 had been premised on the ECM Agenda, a document which itself was predicated on UNCRC (see Chapter 5.10).

The data derived from interviews with QCA subject advisors for N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship has been summarised in Tables 4 to 6 below. Here all four world heritage themes are mapped onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes for each subject. The presence of a “Y” symbol indicates a high level of compatibility between world heritage themes and a specific Key Concept or Key Process. Absence of a “Y” symbol indicates that no immediate relationship could be established. It should be noted however that curriculum mapping is a largely subjective exercise and that absence of a “Y” symbol in no way precludes the development of compatible schemes of work. For further reference similar tables are presented for all National Curriculum subjects in Appendix 12.

Table 4: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 history

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Chronological understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.2 Cultural, ethnic and religious diversity	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Change and continuity	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Cause and consequence	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.5 Significance	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.6 Interpretation	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Historical enquiry	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Using evidence	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Communicating about the past	Y	Y	Y	Y

A high level of compatibility had been noted between Young Hands and N/C 2007 history (Table 4); here world heritage themes supported the development of all Key Concepts and Key Processes. The educational approach of Young Hands and N/C 2007 were regarded as mutually supportive, as a result world heritage themes supported all three Key Processes: “Historical enquiry” (Key Process 2.1), “Using evidence” (Key Process 2.2) and “Communicating about the past” (Key Process 2.3).

With reference to Key Concepts, QCA history advisor, Jerome Freeman, had emphasised the ability of Young Hands to support “Cultural, ethnic and religious diversity” (Key Concept 1.2). No mention was made however of the potential for Young Hands to support “Significance” (Key Concept 1.5). N/C 2007 history had introduced this Key Concept to underscore the relevance of historical studies and students were now required to “consider the significance of events, people and developments in their historical context and in the present day” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 119). This emphasis on historical significance undoubtedly posed a challenge for history teachers and schemes of work developed by WHSs should prove extremely helpful. All WHSs were required to submit an OUV to the WHC; in the case of cultural sites the OUV was defined both in terms of historical significance and in terms of the site’s present day significance (see Chapter 3.11). As a result all schemes of work developed for Young Hands should support Key Concept 1.5.

QCA subject advisors had also noted a high level of compatibility between Young Hands and N/C 2007 geography (Table 5). World heritage themes were able to support almost all of the Key Concepts and Key Processes for this POS; here however no immediate relationship could be established between “Graphicacy and visual learning” (Key Process 2.3) and either “World Heritage and Identity” or “World Heritage and A Culture of Peace.”

As in N/C 2007 history, similarities in educational approach meant that world heritage themes could support three of the Key Processes: “Geographical enquiry” (Key Process 2.1), “Fieldwork and out of class learning” (Key Process 2.2) and “Geographical communication” (Key Process 2.4). In addition QCA geography advisor, David Gardner, emphasised the ability of Young Hands to support all Key Concepts including: “Cultural understanding and diversity” (Key Concept 1.7), “Environmental interaction and sustainable development” (Key Concept 1.6) and “Physical and human processes” (Key Concept 1.5).

Table 5: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 geography

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Place	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.2 Space	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Scale	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Interdependence	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.5 Physical and human processes	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.6 Environmental interaction and sustainable development	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.7 Cultural understanding and diversity	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Geographical enquiry	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Fieldwork and out of class learning	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Graphicacy and visual learning		Y	Y	
2.4 Geographical communication	Y	Y	Y	Y

Finally QCA subject advisors noted a high level of compatibility between Young Hands and N/C 2007 citizenship with world heritage themes supporting the majority of Key Concepts and Key Processes (Table 6). Here however no immediate relationship could be established between “Democracy and justice” (Key Concept 1.1) and either “World Heritage and Identity”, “World Heritage and Tourism” or “World Heritage and the environment.” As in N/C 2007 history and

N/C 2007 geography similarities in educational approach meant that world heritage themes could support: “Critical thinking and diversity” (Key Process 2.1), “Advocacy and representation” (Key Process 2.2) and “Taking informed and responsible action” (Key Process 2.3).

Table 6: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 citizenship

Key concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Democracy and justice				Y
1.2 Rights and responsibilities	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Identity and diversity	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Critical thinking and enquiry	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Advocacy and representation	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Taking informed and responsible action	Y	Y	Y	Y

In addition QCA citizenship advisor, Liz Craft, emphasised the ability of Young Hands to support the majority of Key Concepts including: “Rights and responsibilities” (Key Concept 1.2) and “Identity and diversity: living together in the UK” (Key Concept 1.3). With reference to Key Concept 1.3 however Craft emphasised that N/C 2007 citizenship did not favour any one form of citizenship or cultural identity. Students were free to explore global citizenship issues, as promoted by UNESCO, or to focus on issues of local or national importance.

Whilst QCA subject advisors had acknowledged that Young Hands could be mapped onto N/C 2007 a number of practical concerns had been raised. QCA advisors confirmed the findings of DfES and OFSTED that “institutional racism” posed a significant problem in some schools. The QCA acknowledged that such schools failed to provide an appropriate education and expressed

their concern that a revised National Curriculum would have negligible impact; these institutions would naturally reject any syllabus that promoted cultural diversity, including Young Hands.

One further point of concern was highlighted by both Gardner (geography) and Craft (citizenship). Enquiry based approaches to learning required teachers to have a good knowledge of their subjects; teachers needed to plan dedicated schemes of work and could not rely either on textbooks or generic schemes of work. These requirements posed a problem for teachers of geography and citizenship as OFSTED had noted poor standards of teacher training and a general lack of continued professional development (see Chapter 7.10 and 7.13). Clearly, given these circumstances, teachers would struggle not only to implement N/C 2007 but to develop the Young Hands syllabus.

Programme specialists at ASP (net) and the WHC had suggested that history, geography and citizenship would offer the most effective means of mapping Young Hands onto N/C 2007. Acting on this advice a synopsis of Young Hands had been forwarded to QCA advisors responsible for drafting N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship. These same QCA advisors had confirmed many points of commonality between Young Hands and N/C 2007. Having established the ability of Young Hands to support N/C 2007 and GCSE specifications Chapter Eight now determines the extent to which WHSs in England have supported this syllabus. Chapter Eight introduces the Making Sense of Our Sites (MSOS) initiative; the aims of MSOS were first to stimulate interest in Young Hands and second to publish a UK version of Young Hands. Chapter Eight analyses schemes of work showcased at MSOS before questioning the priority afforded to education by WHSs throughout England.

Chapter 8: Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: examples from English World Heritage Sites

8.1 Introduction

Chapter Eight determines how effectively WHSs in England have exploited the educational potential of Young Hands. The “Making Sense of Our Sites” (MSOS) initiative, introduced in 2009, aimed to publish a UK version of Young Hands. MSOS, funded by the UK Commission for UNESCO in partnership with Devon and Dorset Local Authorities and Jurassic Coast WHS, had originally been intended as a three year initiative; in reality proceedings concluded prematurely and no publication was ever produced. Delegates from WHSs across the UK, including all 17 WHSs in England, were invited to review educational provision at their sites. Roundtable discussions provided a fascinating insight into education at these WHSs whilst presentations by the MSOS Team introduced Young Hands and N/C 2007. Delegates were also invited to showcase extant schemes of work and it is these educational materials which form the basis of Chapter Eight.

8.2 An Introduction to Making Sense of Our Sites

QCA subject advisors had acknowledged that not only could Young Hands be mapped onto N/C 2007 but that this syllabus could make a significant contribution to teaching and learning in schools; it now remained to determine what efforts had been made to promote the use of Young Hands in secondary schools.

Initial contact was made with Ann Breivik at the UK National Commission for UNESCO; Breivik had been appointed National Coordinator of ASP (net) and as such was responsible for promoting Young Hands throughout the UK (Breivik *pers. comm.* 16 May 2009). In addition to her role as National Coordinator, Breivik acted as Secretary to the Culture Sector and had familiarised herself with the managerial concerns of WHSs (Breivik *pers. comm.* 16 May 2009); this dual role gave Breivik a unique perspective on the development of WHE throughout the UK.

The timing of this interview proved fortuitous as Breivik had been invited to join an initiative which aimed to produce a “UK version of Young Hands” (Breivik *pers. comm.* 16 May 2009). Breivik explained that a series of three conferences would be held for managers of WHSs in the UK; the first conference would introduce Young Hands and present case studies. Hopefully this conference would act as a catalyst with WHSs producing further case studies to be reviewed the following year. The second conference would also be used to discuss publication of the “UK version of Young Hands” before submission a final draft to UNESCO. The third, and final, conference would be used to review this publication and to make further recommendations (Breivik *pers. comm.* 16 May 2009).

This ambitious initiative was to be spearheaded by a managerial team comprising: Sam Rose (Team Leader at Jurassic Coast WHS), Anjana Ford (Education Officer at Jurassic Coast WHS), David Weatherly (Geography Advisor for Dorset Local Education Authority) and Breivik herself (Breivik *pers. comm.* 16 May 2009). The initiative was named after the newly published Education Strategy for Jurassic Coast WHS entitled, “Making Sense of Our Sites” (Jurassic Coast: 2009a) with funding provided by the UK National Commission for UNESCO, ASP (net), Devon and Dorset Local Authorities and Jurassic Coast WHS (MSOS, 21 May 2009).

Breivik explained that Ford had assumed responsibility for “Making Sense of Our Sites” (MSOS) and that Ford could provide further details. Based at Jurassic Coast WHS, Ford explained that the inspiration for MSOS came from attending a WHYF hosted by Stone in 2005 (Ford *pers. comm.* 6 October 2009). Stone had been one of the UNESCO panel of experts charged with writing Young Hands and had taken a post at Newcastle University (see Chapter 4.7). Now Director of the International Centre for Culture and Heritage Studies (ICCHS), based at Newcastle University, Stone had assumed responsibility for the 2005 WHYF. It was here that delegates from five English WHSs, including Ford herself, were addressed (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009).

Stone had highlighted the need for WHSs to develop effective education strategies and had recommended the use of Young Hands (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009). Stone had then

outlined attempts by the Hadrian's Wall Community and Education Team (HW-CET) to produce a "Hadrian's Wall Education Kit" and had highlighted a number of case studies. The Kit had been intended to herald the first stage in the production of a "UK version of Young Hands" (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009).

Unfortunately HW-CET had been plagued by managerial difficulties and the "Hadrian's Wall Education Kit" was never published (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009). Interestingly however initial drafts of this Kit indicated that HW-CET intended to map Young Hands onto the National Curriculum using N/C 1999 history, N/C 1999 geography and N/C 1999 citizenship (HW-CET: 2005). In reality it was impossible to assess the viability of this strategy as no case studies were included in these drafts. Indeed it was not until September 2010 that case studies relating to Hadrian's Wall WHS were presented for public appraisal (see Chapter 8.5 below). Whilst HW-CET may not have achieved their goal of producing a "Hadrian's Wall Education Kit" Ford regarded the 2005 WHYF as a qualified success (Ford *pers. comm.* 6 October 2009).

The Newcastle University WHYF had succeeded in promoting Young Hands to WHSs across the UK. As a direct result of this initiative Ford felt compelled to explore the potential of Young Hands to support teaching and learning in UK Schools; the introduction of a revised National Curriculum for secondary schools in England spurred her to action (Khatawa *pers. comm.* 6 October 2009). The first MSOS Conference was arranged for June 2009 and invitations were forwarded to WHSs across the UK; the venue for this event was to be Jurassic Coast WHS (Ford *pers. comm.* 6 October 2009).

8.3 Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: examples from Jurassic Coast WHS

Ford began MSOS 2009 by introducing the newly revised education strategy for Jurassic Coast WHS. Entitled "Making Sense of Our Sites: Learning about Jurassic Coast" (Figure 8.1) this document highlighted the importance of introducing effective education strategies to site management plans (SMPs) and recommended the use of Young Hands (MSOS, 21 May 2009).

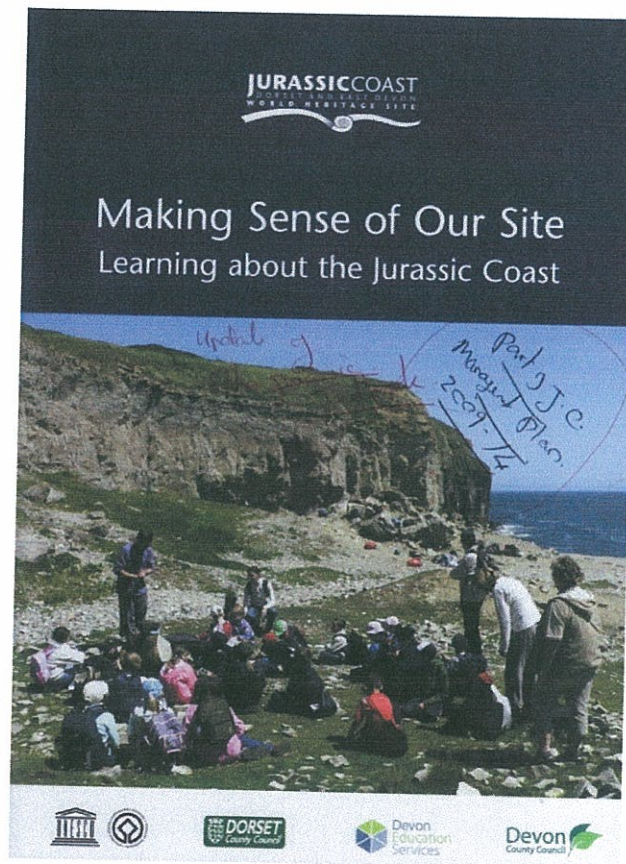


Figure 8.1 Making Sense of Our Sites: Learning about the Jurassic Coast (Jurassic Coast: 2009a).

Jurassic Coast WHS had been listed as England's only "natural" WHS in 2000; the OUV which accompanied listing criteria emphasised the geological makeup of the Jurassic Coast and emphasised the importance of this site to the study of earth sciences. Clearly the education strategy for Jurassic Coast would need to target these areas (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Initially Ford believed N/C 2007 science might prove useful in mapping Young Hands however further investigation soon proved otherwise:

I believed geology and earth sciences would form an important part of N/C 2007 science; I found however that the geography curriculum proved more appropriate. Fieldwork was a compulsory part of N/C 2007 geography and students were required to investigate geological processes such as plate tectonics and fossil formation; weathering and coastal

erosion also formed part of the geography curriculum. Having concluded that our educational resources should target N/C 2007 geography I sought the assistance of David Weatherly, Geography Advisor for East Devon.

(MSOS, 21 May 2009)

Ford also noted the potential of Jurassic Coast WHS to support the teaching of citizenship in schools:

Resources produced by Bath Preservation Trust had shown how issues such as conservation, tourism and site management related to the teaching of N/C 2007 citizenship. I concluded that resources produced by Jurassic Coast WHS should target both geography and citizenship.

(MSOS, 21 May 2009)

It remained for Ford to develop a series of case studies demonstrating how Jurassic Coast WHS might support teaching and learning in schools. These case studies could then be published on a dedicated website (MSOS, 21 May 2009).

A marked similarity between the educational approach of Young Hands and that of the National Curriculum led to publication of "Investigating the Jurassic Coast WHS: England's Great Barrier Reef" on the Jurassic Coast website (Jurassic Coast 2009b). This case study introduced students aged 11 to 14 to the Key Process of "geographic enquiry" (Figure 7.5) and supported the themes of "World Heritage and Identity" and "World Heritage and the Environment" (see Appendix 12). Adopting an enquiry based approach to learning, students were introduced to a range of fieldwork equipment including: maps, aerial photographs, field sketches, field notes and rock samples. Using photographs of key geological features students were asked to identify specific locations before determining the importance of particular sites. Having examined available evidence students were asked to suggest why Jurassic Coast might have been inscribed as a WHS.

Publication of these resources attracted the attention of professional bodies including QCA, the Geographic Association and the Royal Geographic Society (Ford *pers. comm.* 6 October 2009). Fieldwork had always been an important element of National Curriculum geography yet OFSTED had found this aspect of the subject sadly neglected (see Chapter 7.9). QCA had since introduced the “Action Plan for Geography” (DfES 2006b) in an attempt to promote the advantages of geography fieldwork and teachers were advised to look to Jurassic Coast WHS for inspiration.

Having established the importance of Jurassic Coast WHS to N/C 2007 geography Ford turned to the teaching of citizenship. In 2008 Ford and Weatherly published a scheme of work entitled, “What should happen at Pennington Point?” (Jurassic Coast: 2009b). These resources explored the theme of “World Heritage and the Environment” and addressed both N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship (see Appendix 12).

Students were presented with an area of Jurassic Coast WHS where coastal erosion had posed a severe threat to site management; subsidence was apparent in homes and local businesses, roads had collapsed and local residents lived in trepidation. Opinions differed as to what action should be taken and students were presented with an array of evidence. Problems were highlighted by columns in local newspapers and interview data; engineering firms submitted detailed reports and conservation experts presented their opinions. Students were required to evaluate this evidence and recommend a course of action to the Environmental Director for Devon (Jurassic Coast: 2009b).

This scheme of work had proved particularly popular with schools as it illustrated in a clear and concise manner how cross-curricular links might be established between subjects (Figure 8.2). Whilst the development of cross-curricular links was a requirement of N/C 2007 this aspect of curriculum planning had posed a particular problem for teachers of geography and citizenship (see Chapter 7.10 and 7.13). Local schools had acknowledged the value of these resources and both Ford and Weatherly were asked to provide continued professional development for teachers (MSOS, 21 May 2009).



Figure 8.2 Students exploring the physical geography of Jurassic Coast at MSOS 2009

“What should happen at Pennington Point?” had demonstrated how cross-curricular links might be established using Young Hands; just as importantly Weatherly now suggested that such resources be used to support whole school literacy programmes such as the Secondary National Strategy (SNS). If Ford and Weatherly were able to demonstrate that Young Hands could indeed be used to support the SNS (see Chapter 5.9) then the profile of Young Hands and Jurassic Coast WHS would be raised still further (MSOS, 21 May 2009). With this aim in mind Ford and Weatherly published “Why was the MSC Napoli such a threat to the World Heritage Coast?” (Jurassic Coast 2009b) presenting this scheme of work to MSOS delegates.

The MSC Napoli was wrecked off the Jurassic Coast WHS in 2007 spilling fuel and shedding cargo. Oil spillage in such an environmentally sensitive area constituted a major hazard and the lure of cargo washed up on local beaches caused a media sensation (MSOS, 21 May 2009). This latest case study supported both “World Heritage and the Environment” and N/C 2007 geography whilst the outcome, designing a newspaper front page, placed due emphasis on literacy skills (see Appendix 12). Groups of students aged 12 to 13 were presented with newspapers detailing the plight of the MSC Napoli. Along with written accounts students were

given a series of photographs; sequenced correctly these photographs would form a “storyboard” of events.

Students were asked to read the newspaper columns and to sequence the photographs correctly (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Weatherly then read through the accounts pointing to the use stylistic conventions such as “banner headlines”, “subheadings”, the use of “alliteration to create interest”, the use of the “present tense to create an air of immediacy” and the use of “subject specific vocabulary” (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Students discussed the extent to which journalists had presented an objective view of events before designing their own newspaper “front page” (MSOS, 21 May 2009).

Weatherly had produced a case study based on Young Hands that could be used to develop literacy skills across the curriculum. Group work and question and answer sessions had tested students’ speaking and listening skills as advocated by DfES (DfES 2004a; DfES 2004b; DfES 2004c) whilst a review of newspaper columns tested students ability to read and comprehend text. Finally the requirement that students design a newspaper front page tested their ability to comprehend a range of sources and construct their own narratives; Weatherly concluded by stressing the academic rigour of this exercise and its value to students of all ages (MSOS, 21 May 2009). The use of photographs proved particularly instructive; in this exercise photographs were used to create a visual representation of events and to aid the construction of narrative. Photographs were also used to reinforce grammatical conventions such as the correct use of paragraphs with students constructing a new paragraph for each scene (MSOS, 21 May 2009).

MSOS 2009 had clearly demonstrated the potential of Young Hands to support N/C 2007 with Jurassic Coast WHS producing schemes of work that supported teaching and learning in secondary schools. To produce a UK version of Young Hands however Ford and Weatherly would need to demonstrate that other WHSs offered the same potential. With this thought in mind Tim Boden, Education Officer for Bath Preservation Trust, was asked to address the conference.

8.4 Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: examples from the City of Bath WHS

Boden had produced resources for City of Bath WHS and was keen to explore the educational potential of Young Hands. Inspired by Jurassic Coast WHS Boden had produced resources based on Young Hands and N/C 2007 and agreed to showcase this work at MSOS (MSOS, 21 May 2009).

The Roman remains of Bath enjoyed a high media profile however the City of Bath OUV specifically emphasised the city's Georgian heritage - parks, communal gardens and Georgian terraces all received specific mention (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Boden needed to ensure that resources published by the Bath Preservation Trust promoted the Georgian identity of the city; acknowledging this remit Boden published "City Planning: Building the Georgian City" on the Bath Preservation Trust website (Bath Preservation Trust: 2009).

By introducing students to the geography and architecture of Georgian Bath "Building the Georgian City" readily supported "World Heritage and Identity" whilst addressing N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 history (see Appendix 12). Four groups of students aged 12 to 13 were presented with a map of Bath pre-dating the Georgian era (MSOS, 21 May 2009). The map was divided into quarters and detailed features such as "the city walls", "a river with port and docks", "main roads" and "an abbey" (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Groups were each assigned a quarter of the city with every student being allocated a "profession" from a choice of: "builders", "merchants", "Bath Corporation" or "entertainers" (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Each profession had its own motivation for developing the city – some required business premises, others roads and tollgates, a few favoured development of the port and docks area etc. Each group negotiated development of their area taking into account capital expenditure and topographical constraints. Groups presented their findings and the resultant plans were compared with a map of the city post-dating the Georgian era (MSOS, 21 May 2009).

Adopting the persona of an OFSTED examiner, Weatherly concluded that Boden had “introduced the theme of World Heritage and Identity in a most captivating way” (MSOS, 21 May 2009). According to Weatherly, the process of enquiry was central to all good teaching and “Building the Georgian City” had engaged the attention of all students” (MSOS, 21 May 2009). This cross-curricular activity had successfully addressed the requirements of two N/C 2007 subjects. The imaginative use of mapwork had reinforced Key Concepts associated with N/C 2007 geography namely “place”, “space” and “scale” (MSOS, 21 May 2009). In addition, by enabling students to reflect on their actions and examine their motivation, Boden had reinforced the Key Concepts of N/C 2007 history including “cause and consequence” and “change and continuity” (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Weatherly concluded that this exercise demonstrated the potential of WHSs to produce outstanding educational resources and to assist teachers in developing cross-curricular schemes of work (MSOS, 21 May 2009).

Following the success of “Building the Georgian City” the Bath Preservation Trust was tasked with designing a “World Heritage Day” for local schools and publishing these resources. Boden ensured that all activities addressed “World Heritage and Identity” and N/C 2007 citizenship (Bath Preservation Trust: 2009). One task entitled, “World Heritage in Danger” introduced students to the 1972 Convention and the work of the WHC. Students were presented with a broad range of evidence including animated films and an intranet database and asked to identify dangers facing World Heritage Cities like Bath. This enquiry, of central importance to N/C 2007 citizenship, was concluded by students taking “informed and responsible action” (Figure 7.7); students were asked to produce their own webpage highlighting the dangers faced by World Heritage Cities (Bath Preservation Trust: 2009).

Once students had been introduced to WHSs and the 1972 Convention they were asked to address the question, “Does Bath need to change?” Students were presented with a diverse range of responses and asked to assume the guise of different characters: “a young parent”, “a heritage manager”, “a homeless person”, “an unemployed person” and “the owner of a local business.” In an activity requiring the skills of “advocacy and representation” (Figure 7.7) students were asked to decide how each character might respond to the question “Does Bath need to change?” and debate how certain needs might be prioritised (Bath Preservation Trust: 2009).

Having examined the views of the local community Boden then introduced an activity entitled “Planning for the future.” Students were presented with a synopsis of the “Bath Core Strategy 2026” (Bath Corporation: 2007) which detailed challenges facing the local planning authority; these challenges included: the need for housing, the need for more shops, the need for increased public transport, the demands of the tourist industry etc. Students debated how to reconcile these demands with the need to conserve the City of Bath WHS. Students were then introduced to the “Bath Core Strategy 2026” outlining plans for “Bath Riverside Development” (Bath Corporation 2007: 128). Located outside the City of Bath WHS, “Bath Riverside Development” represented an attempt by the local planning authority to reconcile the demands of the local population with the need to conserve City of Bath WHS. Here Boden seized the opportunity for students to engage in “Informed and responsible action” (Figure 7.7); students were presented with planning grids and asked to design key features of this new development. The results then informed a whole school debate chaired by local dignitaries entitled, “Is World Heritage Sustainable?”

The first “Making Sense of Our Sites” Conference had demonstrated the way in which two WHSs had used Young Hands to support teaching and learning in schools. Delegates had been presented with a diverse range of examples all of which made skilled and imaginative use of Young Hands to showcase the educational potential of WHSs. MSOS had demonstrated that the aims and aspirations of Young Hands were compatible with those of N/C 2007 and that Young Hands could support the POSs of several National Curriculum subjects. Weatherly had drawn delegate’s attention to the potential of Young Hands in supporting N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship; in particular MSOS delegates were reminded that Young Hands had proved effective in supporting whole school literacy programmes and that this aspect of N/C 2007 should be prioritised (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Concluding proceedings Weatherly and Ford offered to advise delegates regarding the drafting of site specific education strategies and to review extant educational materials. One might have expected heritage managers who had taken the trouble to attend MSOS to respond enthusiastically to free professional consultations; in reality very few WHSs responded to this offer (Ford *pers. comm.* 6 October 2009).

8.5 Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: an example from Hadrian's Wall WHS

New Lanark WHS hosted the second MSOS Conference in September 2010. In total six English WHSs attended, together with delegates from one site placed on the Tentative List (Appendix 11). Hadrian's Wall WHS was amongst those sites presenting schemes of work with John Scott, Management Coordinator for Hadrian's Wall, detailing the site's new SMP. In 2005 Hadrian's Wall WHS had been incorporated with the "German Limes" to form the first transnational WHS entitled "Frontiers of the Roman Empire" (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

The new SMP for Hadrian's Wall reflected the site's new status and emphasised the importance of education in promoting the universal values of UNESCO (MSOS, 30 September 2010). Hadrian's Wall OUV defined the importance of this site in terms of the expansion of Rome's Empire, the organisation of Rome's military presence and the development of Roman Architecture (MSOS, 30 September 2010); for educational resources to prove effective they would need to target these specific areas (see Chapter 7.3).

In 2008 Ross Elliot, a teacher for North Tyneside LEA, proposed a scheme of work for Hadrian's Wall addressing both Young Hands and N/C 2007 (MSOS, 30 September 2010). Elliot was based at Burnside Business and Enterprise College, a short distance from Wallsend Roman Fort, and had planned a project which addressed N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 citizenship and literacy skills. Elliot's project focused on the theme of "World Heritage and Identity" (UNESCO: 2002) and was suitable for students aged 11 to 12.

To introduce "World Heritage and Identity" students were asked to reflect on their own personal identities; students were asked whether they viewed themselves primarily as sons/daughters, brothers/sisters, black/white/coloured, members of a sports team or members of a religious institution? Students recognised that they held not one but plural identities and it was this diversity which gave strength to their community (MSOS, 30 September 2010). On a sheet entitled, "My Museum" students were asked to draw artefacts which represented their plural identities, artefacts included: family photographs, sports equipment, items of clothing, I-POD's, samples of food, religious artefacts and phials of blood (MSOS, 30 September 2010); again

students were made aware of diversity within their community. Students were then asked to create a “Heritage Identity Card” on which they identified their favourite taste, touch, smell, sight and sound (MSOS, 30 September 2010). The intention was that by placing “My Museum” alongside the “Heritage Identity Card” this evidence might form a detailed identikit picture for each student (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

Having examined their own identities students visited sites along Hadrian’s Wall WHS including the Roman Forts of *Segedunum* (Wallsend) and *Arbeia* (South Shields). Armed with “Heritage Identity Cards” students were asked to take note of bathhouses, hospitals, warehouses, ports and vicus settlements and to suggest what sights, sounds and smells the Romans may have encountered. Students were then introduced to a range of artefacts recovered from these sites: storage jars from Spain, pottery from France, perfumes from North Africa and altars dedicated to Asian deities. Such artefacts indicated that Roman Society was culturally diverse; bearing these points in mind students were asked to adopt the persona of a Roman citizen and to complete a “My Museum” sheet for that individual (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

On returning to school students were asked to write a short account of life along Hadrian’s Wall WHS based on evidence from their fieldtrip. Less able students were able to use their “Heritage Identity Cards” as a writing frame with one paragraph describing tastes, another describing smells etc; accounts submitted by more able students referred to the culturally diverse nature of Roman society and questioned the stereotypes presented by more traditional text books (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

This short scheme of work enabled students to address important areas of N/C 2007; with regard to N/C 2007 history students had addressed “Cultural, ethnic and religious diversity” (Figure 7.4) and, with regard to N/C 2007 citizenship, students had addressed “Identity and diversity: living in the UK” (see Appendix 12). By approaching these Key Concepts in a constructive and imaginative manner Burnside Business and Enterprise College had also improved standards of literacy across lower school, an achievement commended by their latest OFSTED Report (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

8.6 Mapping Young Hands and N/C 2007: an example from the City of Liverpool WHS

Equally as successful was a project developed by Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City WHS; a scheme of work which clearly illustrated how Young Hands might be used to develop GCSE specifications in schools.

Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City WHS was inscribed in 2004. The OUV for Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City emphasised the role played by Liverpool as a centre for international trade and as a key driver of the Industrial Revolution (MSOS, 30 September 2010); such success was due, in part, to profits derived from Slave Trade. Liverpool's OUV confirmed the significance of the Slave Trade to the growth of the port and referenced the architectural legacy of slavery (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

As 2007 approached Liverpool City Council decided to mark the bicentenary of the abolition of the Slave Trade; education had featured strongly in the SMP for Liverpool WHS and Liverpool City Council suggested that an educational initiative might prove appropriate (MSOS, 30 September 2010). Ann Breivik, National Coordinator for ASP (net) was consulted; Breivik suggested that local secondary schools might wish to contribute to "Breaking the Silence", an ASP (net) project recently introduced to the UK (ASP net: 2008). "Breaking the Silence" examined the Slave Trade of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries and investigated the role of modern day slavery (UNESCO: 2008). This suggestion was approved and Breivik contacted Enid Lodge, Secretary of the Liverpool Branch of the United Nations Association. Lodge was working with four Associated Schools in Liverpool and welcomed the opportunity of developing a project on slavery. Lodge and Breivik secured funding from Liverpool City Council and the Heritage Lottery Fund and work began on designing a project for Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City WHS (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

The project designed by Lodge was entitled, "Recalling the Past, Reforming the Future" and was based on accounts written by a former slave, Olaudah Equiano. The project followed the journey of Equiano: his capture in Nigeria, his embarkation from Benin, his experiences sailing the "Middle Passage" and his arrival at the British colony of Virginia. Students learned that Equiano

eventually bought his freedom, set sail for England and worked for the “abolitionist cause” in London (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

This project gave students the opportunity of gaining formal academic qualifications; as students intended submitting university applications Lodge recommended that the Extended Project Qualification (EPQ), offered by AQA, would be appropriate (MSOS, 30 September 2010). The EPQ allowed students to plan their own multidisciplinary enquiries. Assessment criteria comprised generic research skills such as setting research aims and objectives, drafting a research strategy and assessing the validity of available evidence (MSOS, 30 September 2010). The EPQ was deemed the equivalent of one “AS” Level and as such should prove a great asset to students applying for a place at university (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

“Recalling the Past and Reforming the Future” required that students identify evidence for the Slave Trade in their local community. Students studied the architecture of the Port of Liverpool discovering that many buildings had been funded by slave traders (MSOS, 30 September 2010); students studied maps of the original port area detailing the berths of slaving ships and warehouses for the storage of imported goods (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

Students then visited The International Slavery Museum in Liverpool where a wealth of historical documents were held including: a copy of Equiano’s autobiography, copies of the 1807 Slave Trade Act and a copy of the 1833 Abolition of Slavery Act which banned the ownership of slaves. To enable students to see the significance of slavery and the relevance of Human Rights legislation students were presented with copies of UNDHR and UNCRC; these documents later informed the student’s work in a refugee camp in Benin (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

Having examined evidence of the Slave Trade in Liverpool students were given the opportunity of travelling to Benin and examining evidence of the Slave Trade in West Africa; for many such experiences evoked a powerful reaction. Students visited fortified enclosures in Benin where slaves were held before transportation to colonies in the West Indies and the New World (MSOS, 30 September 2010). Students visited the “Hut of Zomai” where slaves were acclimatised to conditions on board slaving vessels; they saw the “Tree of No Return” where slavers examined

“cargo” captured in Nigeria and they visited the “Gate of No Return” through which all slaves passed before being stowed in the holds of slaving vessels (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

Having examined evidence of past atrocities students were invited to film inside a refugee camp in Benin; here students witnessed the continued violation of Human Rights in Africa. The students encountered families who had been forced to leave their villages by a European Oil Company and herded into an insanitary compound. Students distributed medical supplies and educational materials before reflecting on parallels between what they had witnessed and accounts documented by Equiano two centuries earlier (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

Following their visit to Benin students visited the former British colony of Virginia, in the USA, where Equiano had documented the life of plantation slaves. Students wanted to determine whether the Human Rights of Afro-Americans were respected in the State of Virginia – had the descendants of plantation slaves managed to achieve emancipation? Initial results proved alarming with Afro-American students outlining inequalities in educational opportunities, employment and the justice system (MSOS, 30 September 2010). Clearly this sample of Virginia’s student population believed that their Human Rights were violated on a regular basis. Unfortunately, the schedule for “Recalling the Past and Reforming the Future” proved challenging and the student’s visit to Virginia could not be fully documented (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

Despite problems with scheduling the importance of this project was evident. Film footage relating to Liverpool, Benin and Virginia was edited and the film was screened in schools throughout Liverpool and in the International Museum of Slavery (MSOS, 30 September 2010). All students participating in this project were awarded high grades in the EPQ and all secured university places; “Recalling the Past and Reforming the Future” had proved an unqualified success and had played a seminal role in promoting “Breaking the Silence.” Many believed however that this project also had important implications for the development of Young Hands (MSOS, 30 September 2010). The subject matter of “Recalling the Past and Reforming the Future” accorded well with the theme “World Heritage and a Culture of Peace” (UNESCO 2002: 149).; Weatherly and Lodge concluded that this project constituted an excellent case study and

should be included in the forthcoming UK version of Young Hands (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

Despite the enthusiastic reception for this film MSOS delegates expressed a number of reservations, most notably in relation to the EPQ. Weatherly believed this project should be linked to a more popular public examination e.g. GCSE History or GCSE Citizenship (MSOS, 30 September 2010); in addition it was noted that only eight students had taken part in the filming of “Recalling the Past and Reforming the Future”; clearly future projects would need to involve a greater number of participants.

8.7 Making Sense of Our Sites: concluding comments

The aims and objectives of MSOS were far broader than the aims and objectives of this thesis. MSOS aimed to compile case studies from WHSs across the UK and to produce a “UK version of Young Hands” (MSOS, 21 May 2009). In contrast, this thesis focused on determining the extent to which Young Hands could support the National Curriculum for secondary schools in England (N/C 2007).

Chapter Eight has shown that WHSs in England could produce challenging educational projects that supported Young Hands and N/C 2007. Indeed this chapter raises a question as to why more case studies were not forwarded to the MSOS Team as requested (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

Ford had personally invited managers from all 17 WHSs in England to attend MSOS and these events had been widely advertised (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Funding was available for travel and accommodation and ASP (net) contributed towards the cost of educational materials (MSOS, 21 May 2009). In addition both Ford and Weatherly had offered to review all schemes of work and to advise on suitable education strategies (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Finally, the prospect of having schemes of work published by UNESCO should have provided the necessary catalyst for action; as Weatherly explained:

Some WHSs have informed me that they charge schools £80.00 per day for Continued Professional Development – these sums are ridiculous! Few schools are short of money and many pay up to £1000.00 per day for Continued Professional Development. Quality training involves providing teachers with the resources they can use in the classroom. Teachers need help with many aspects of N/C 2007: they need help developing schemes of work, they need help organising fieldwork, they need help implementing LOtC, they need help planning cross-curricular projects and they need help planning GCSE controlled assessments. WHSs can assist schools in so many ways, what is needed is to develop a series of case studies similar to those presented at this conference.

(MSOS, 21 May 2009)

However, despite the help offered to WHSs and the financial implications alluded to above, few WHSs rose to this challenge. Out of 17 WHSs in England only 4 submitted case studies to the MSOS Team (Ford *pers. comm.* 12 May 2011). In the unlikely event that some WHSs had developed resources but had failed to inform MSOS all 17 WHSs were contacted following the second MSOS Conference (Appendix 8); the results however remained unchanged; with these points in mind it is tempting to conclude that, regardless of Young Hands' potential, WHSs in England experienced great difficulty in producing effective educational resources.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

This thesis has drawn on a wealth of information: from data obtained from ASP (net) and the WHC at UNESCO Headquarters to data obtained from the QCA Offices and previously uncatalogued sources housed at Newcastle University. Having critically examined this evidence it now remains to draw detailed conclusions regarding the potential of Young Hands to support the National Curriculum for secondary schools in England (N/C 2007). This final chapter re-examines the main points that have been identified and analysed throughout the thesis. First detailed answers are provided to the research questions identified in Chapter One; recommendations are then made for the conduct of future research before concluding the thesis with a number of summative observations.

9.2 Answering the research questions

Chapter One identified three research questions framing the aims and objectives of this thesis. These research questions are now revisited and specific responses to these questions are provided:

- 1. To what extent do the aims and values of Young Hands support the aims and values of N/C 2007?**

In 1972 Member States of UNESCO were invited to ratify the 1972 Convention; response was outstanding and the 1972 Convention was soon established as one of the most influential instruments in the field of heritage conservation (see Chapter 3.10). Of key importance to this thesis was Article 27 requiring that States Parties promote WHE in schools and colleges (see Chapter 3.11); it is this aspect of the 1972 Convention that Young Hands sought to address.

Young Hands was introduced by ASP (net) and the WHC to raise awareness of the 1972 Convention and to promote the aims and values of UNESCO (see Chapter 3.13). Chapter Three identified the aims and values of UNESCO whilst Chapter Four illustrated how these values were incorporated into four world heritage themes: “World Heritage and Identity”, “World Heritage and Tourism”, “World Heritage and the Environment” and “World Heritage and a Culture of Peace;” (see Chapter 4.3).

The Charter of the United Nations was drafted in April 1945 with the UNESCO Constitution presented just six months later. The devastation inflicted on Member States as a result of WWII ensured that peace and the maintenance of cordial international relations featured prominently in these founding documents. Accordingly the Charter of the United Nations established as its aim, “to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war” (United Nations 1945: Preamble) and the UNESCO Constitution followed suite. The opening lines of the UNESCO Constitution presented the values of “peace” and “education” as being inextricably linked, “since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed” (UNESCO 1945: Preamble). UNESCO focused on developing the “minds of men” to achieve lasting peace; it is for this reason that educational projects, like Young Hands, were allocated a high profile and it is for this reason also that “World Heritage and a Culture of Peace” was developed as a world heritage theme (see Chapter 4.3). To maintain peaceful international relations the UNESCO Constitution recommended that educational projects promote the concept of cultural diversity noting, “ignorance of each others ways and lives has been common cause of conflict” (UNESCO 1945: Preamble). The 1972 Convention helped to promote cultural and natural diversity and Young Hands served to reinforce this message; the themes of “World Heritage and Identity” and “World Heritage and the Environment” placed particular emphasis on promoting diversity.

Finally the UNESCO Constitution underscored the importance of Human Rights education in maintaining peaceful international relations, “peace must be founded, if it is not to fail, upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind” (UNESCO 1945: Preamble). This “moral solidarity” was defined three years later with the introduction of UNDHR (United Nations: 1948) and reinforced by the introduction of UNCRC (United Nations: 1989) some four decades later.

The universal values associated with Human Rights legislation were of seminal importance to Young Hands as attested by detailed references throughout “World Heritage and a Culture of Peace” and “World Heritage and Identity” (UNESCO: 2002). The fact that the values underpinning Young Hands were so closely associated with UNCRC (United Nations: 1989) was important for a number of reasons. First, as the UK had ratified UNCRC these values underpinned all domestic legislation including the introduction of N/C 2007 (see Chapter 5.10); second, UNCRC presented a detailed agenda for the development of educational projects. The aims and values of Young Hands were inspired by both the UNESCO Constitution and by UNCRC with Article 29 stating, “educational programmes should focus on the development of the child’s personality, talents and natural and physical abilities to their fullest potential” (United Nations 1989: Article 29).

The aims and values of UNCRC were subsequently developed by the Delors Report (Delors: 1996), a document which set the agenda for all educational projects developed by UNESCO and ASP (net) (see Chapter 3.9). According to the Delors Report all educational projects, including Young Hands, must address the following aims: “learning to know”, “learning to do”, “learning to be” and “learning to live together” (see Chapter 3.9). Whilst these aims are explored in Chapter Three it is important to note that “learning to know” refers to the acquisition of general research skills, “learning to do” refers to the acquisition of practical or vocational skills, “learning to be” refers to the ability of students to explore their own identity (or identities) and that “learning to live together” refers to a student’s ability to value the identities of others. These four aims or “pillars of education” underpinned the world heritage themes of Young Hands and informed all educational objectives (UNESCO 2002: 4). Indeed so effectively did Young Hands address the aims of the Delors Report that the syllabus was cited as a prime example of quality education (Delors 1996: 50).

Having identified the aims and values of Young Hands it remains to define the aims and values of N/C 2007. UNCRC was ratified by the UK Government in 1990 requiring that all legislation, including that relating to education and child welfare provision, acknowledge the aims and values of UNCRC (see Chapter 5.10). Human Rights legislation was further strengthened by the

UK Government seven years later with the introduction of the Human Rights Act (UK: 1997); now, for the first time, child welfare organizations in the UK were required to meet specified universal standards - failings soon became apparent. In 1999 a High Court judgment found that schools and child welfare organizations in the UK were guilty of “institutional racism” (MacPherson: 1999). Such revelations had a profound effect on domestic policy and prompted the publication of a Green Paper entitled “Every Child Matters” (HM Treasury: 2003). This Green Paper proposed that schools and child welfare organizations address five specific aims ensuring that children: “be healthy”, “be safe”, “enjoy and achieve”, “make positive contributions” and “achieve economic wellbeing” (H.M. Treasury 2003: 14); these aims were supported by child welfare organizations and incorporated into the 2004 Children’s Act.

The introduction of the 2004 Children’s Act ensured that N/C 2007 would reflect the aims of the ECM Agenda and, consequently, the aims and values of UNCRC. DfES had stated its intent that all schools would support and promote the ECM Agenda (HM Treasury: 2003) and, in drafting N/C 2007, QCA detailed how revised POSs would support the five aims detailed above (QCA: 2006a; QCA: 2006b; QCA: 2006c). In practice, by time of publication, QCA had refined these initial proposals and identified three aims for N/C 2007 which reflected ECM; N/C 2007 supported the development of:

- Successful learners, who enjoy learning, make progress and achieve
- Confident learners who are able to live safe, healthy and fulfilling lives
- Responsible citizens who make a positive contribution to society

(DCSF/QCA 2007: 7)

These three aims formed the basis of all N/C 2007 POSs and were closely referenced by subject advisors at the QCA. Research conducted at the QCA indicated the extent to which the aims and values of N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship supported those of

Young Hands; particular attention was paid to “Importance Statements”, “Key Concepts and Key Processes” together with “Range and Content.”

In accordance with the aims and values of Young Hands N/C 2007 history emphasized the importance of breadth of study with students investigating “the history of their community, Britain, Europe and the rest of the world” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 111). Whilst past National Curriculum specifications for history had been accused of being narrow and introspective (see Chapter 6.10) N/C 2007 history openly encouraged students to, “investigate Britain’s relationship with the rest of the world” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 111). To reinforce these aims and values “Cultural, ethnic and religious diversity” had been incorporated as a Key Concept of N/C 2007 history (Figure 7.4). QCA advised that schemes of work must celebrate the cultural inheritance of all students; emphasis was placed on introducing a global dimension to historical study and in demonstrating that the cultural identity of an historian may influence their interpretation of events (DCSF/QCA 2007: 112) The “Range and Content” for N/C 2007 history had been dramatically reduced (see Chapter 7.5) what remained however clearly reflected the aims and values of Young Hands. Once again emphasis was placed on cultural diversity with students studying, “the impact through time of the movement and settlement of diverse people to, from and within the British Isles” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 115); students were required to develop respect both for their own culture and that of other people. More specifically students were asked to study the “Slave Trade” and the “changing nature of conflict and peace” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 116); these topics provided a context for developing an understanding of Human Rights legislation and for studying the actions of the United Nations (DCSF/QCA 2007: 116).

Young Hands was also shown to support the aims and values of N/C 2007 geography with QCA advisor, David Gardner, quoting directly from the “Importance Statement”; Gardner explained “geography inspires people to become global citizens by exploring their own place in the world” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 101). Once again, in contrast to some student’s experience of National Curriculum geography, N/C 2007 geography presented a broad and challenging POS. To reinforce this breadth of study “cultural understanding and diversity” was now identified as a Key Concept (Figure 7.6) accompanied by the following rubric, “students should appreciate the differences and similarities between people, places, environments and cultures to inform their

understanding of other societies” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 103). Finally the “Range and Content” of N/C 2007 geography ensured that students developed an understanding of people’s symbiotic relationship with the environment – a key message of both the 1972 Convention and Young Hands. N/C 2007 geography required that students study, “physical geography, physical processes and natural landscapes” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 106) in tandem with, “human geography, the built and managed environment and human processes” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 106); the interface between physical and human geography also constituted a key area of study with students examining “the interactions between people and their environments including causes and consequences and how to plan and manage future impact” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 106). In summary Gardner believed that the aims and values of Young Hands complemented those of N/C 2007 geography.

Finally, Young Hands was shown to support the aims and values of N/C 2007 citizenship; the “Importance Statement” declared that citizenship, “addresses issues relating to social justice, human rights, community cohesion and global interdependence and encourages students to challenge injustice, inequalities and discrimination” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 41). In response to the Ajegbo Report (DfES: 2007) one Key Concept reinforcing the importance of cultural diversity was incorporated within this POS; “Identities and diversity: living together in the UK” stated “students should appreciate that identities are complex, can change over time and are informed by different understandings of what it means to be a citizen of the UK” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 43). N/C 2007 citizenship, in contrast to previous National Curriculum specifications, encouraged students to explore their diverse cultural, racial and religious identities in a community setting. The aims and values of Young Hands were also reflected in the “Range and Content” of N/C 2007 citizenship with Human Rights constituting an important area of study; familiarization with UNDHR, UNCRC and HRA was specifically recommended (DCSF/QCA 2007: 46). Providing a context for Human Rights legislation, knowledge of the United Nations was mandatory with emphasis placed on international peace keeping and the importance of peace to international development, “students should be familiar with challenges facing the global community including international agreements and conflict and debates about inequalities, sustainability and the use of the world’s resources” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 47). Finally N/C 2007 citizenship acknowledged the importance of environmental studies and sustainable development both to the

maintenance of Human Rights and to international peace keeping efforts with students required to “study policy and practices for sustainable development” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 47).

In conclusion one can clearly state that the aims and values of Young Hands do indeed support the aims and values of N/C 2007.

2. To what extent does the educational approach of Young Hands support the educational approach of N/C 2007?

The Delors Report defined the aims and educational approach of all UNESCO projects and was cited by the authors of Young Hands and in the opening paragraphs of this text as constituting a major influence on the drafting process (UNESCO 2002: 4). The IBE was responsible for commissioning the Delors Report; this Institute was affiliated to UNESCO and had been directed for many years by the renowned psychologist Jean Piaget (see Chapter 3.4). The Delors Report maintained that all UNESCO projects should address four aims or “pillars of education” these were identified as: “learning to know”, “learning to do”, “learning to be” and “learning to live together” (Delors 1996: 86). Whilst “learning to know” and “learning to do” were dependant on the acquisition of specific knowledge and skills “learning to be” and “learning to live together” were dependant upon the transmission of specific attitudes and values (see Chapter 3.9). The Delors Report noted that as traditional methods of education were unsuited to the transmission of attitudes and values “learning to be” and “learning to live together” required a new approach to education (Delors 1996: 60). This new educational approach was rooted in the cognitive constructivist philosophy of Piaget and encouraged students to explore their environment and conduct their own field observations (see Chapter 3.6).

Presentation of the Delors Report was accompanied by roundtable discussions to determine the effectiveness of Piaget’s constructivist philosophy (UNESCO 1996: Annex XI). Whilst constructivist approaches to teaching and learning may have been new to some schools they were not new to UNESCO nor, as demonstrated by Chapter Six, were they new to curriculum planners in the UK (see Chapter 6.3). The educational approach advocated by the Delors Report was in

fact the Project Method, adopted by ASP (net) in the 1960s and codified by the 1974 Recommendation (see Chapter 3.8).

Chapter Four records a briefing given by the then ASP (net) coordinator, Elisabeth Khawajkie, informing the authors of *Young Hands*; here Khawajkie outlined the importance of the Project Method to the assembled UNESCO panel of experts. Khawajkie maintained that students should construct enquiry questions, plan appropriate research strategies, familiarise themselves with the skills of field work and engage in self evaluation exercises (see Chapter 4.5). Paying close attention was Peter Stone, seconded from EHES to advise on the drafting of *Young Hands*. Whilst Stone had extensive experience in heritage education he had never worked in collaboration with ASP (net) nor had he worked for UNESCO; surely it would have been more appropriate for an ASP (net) programme specialist to draft the “Educational Approaches” of *Young Hands*? Equally as puzzling were the resources Stone intended using, these included titles from the “Teachers Guide Series” published by English Heritage specifically to support the National Curriculum for England and Wales (see Chapter 4.5). Chapters Five and Six solved this conundrum by revealing that constructivist approaches to education, as pioneered by Piaget, formed the basis not only of the Project Method but also the National Curriculum for England and Wales (see Chapters 5.10, 6.2 and 6.3).

Turning to the educational approach of N/C 2007 the Green Paper, “Every Child Matters” (HM Treasury: 2003) proposed that all students should: “be healthy”, “be safe”, “enjoy and achieve”, “make positive contributions” and “achieve economic wellbeing.” Chapter Five detailed how this Green Paper gained the approval of child welfare professionals and was incorporated into the 2004 Children’s Act (see Chapter 5.10); as a result the aims of ECM became statutory. Problems were immediately apparent; research published by DCSF, OFSTED and QCA indicated disproportionately high exclusion figures for Black students (see Chapter 5.10). Embarrassed by these public revelations a report was commissioned to investigate these failings. The report, entitled “2020 Vision” (DfES: 2006d), recommended that schools place greater emphasis on enquiry based methods of learning. Schools, it was claimed, placed too much emphasis on the acquisition of subject knowledge and had failed to develop the skills of enquiry i.e. questioning, fieldwork techniques and the composition of research hypotheses (see Chapter

5.10). Gilbert maintained that enquiry based learning constituted a more inclusive and “personalised” approach to education. Students should be encouraged to leave the confines of the classroom and engage with their local community; in this way students would learn to value their own cultural identity and that of others (DfES 2006d: 13).

Noting the research findings above, QCA published N/C 2007 (DCSF/QCA: 2007). Whilst the QCA emphasised continuity with previous National Curriculum specifications certain changes proved dramatic. The framework of the National Curriculum had been retained with twelve subjects for students aged 11 to 14 and six subjects for students aged 14 to 16 together with six “areas of experience” (see Chapter 5.11). Individual POSs had been subject to the most extensive revision and Chapter Seven detailed those changes with specific reference to N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship (see Chapter 7.5, 7.8 and 7.11). Here “Range and Content” was dramatically reduced with far greater emphasis placed on the “Key Concepts” and “Key Processes” of each subject. Schools were now expected to develop their own schemes of work, tailoring subject content to the needs of their students. POSs emphasised “Key Concepts” and “Key Processes” and these pointed to the desired educational approach of N/C 2007. Key Processes listed for N/C 2007 history included “historical enquiry” and “use of evidence” (Figure 7.4), those listed for N/C 2007 geography included “geographic enquiry” together with “fieldwork and out of class learning” (Figure 7.5), whilst those for N/C 2007 citizenship included “critical thinking and enquiry” (Figure 7.7). In Chapter Seven QCA subject advisors rightly pointed to similar “Key Concepts” and “Key Processes” in past National Curriculum specifications and Chapter Six demonstrated that enquiry based learning had always been part of National Curriculum POSs. The change introduced by N/C 2007 was one of emphasis; with subject content largely removed schools now needed to develop their own “enquiries” and to ensure that students developed skills associated with enquiry based learning.

Whilst it is possible to state therefore that the educational approach of Young Hands does indeed support the educational approach of N/C 2007 it is wise to sound a note of caution – the Project Method and “enquiry based learning” were similar but they were not the same. As noted by Stone (see Chapter 4.5) the Project Method and enquiry based learning may appear identical yet they are underpinned by different philosophical constructs. Both Young Hands and N/C 2007

were rooted in constructivist educational theory and as such both owe a debt of gratitude to the work of Piaget (see Chapter 3.6). Chapter Six maintained that the National Curriculum for schools in England had always acknowledged constructivist approaches to education (see Chapter 6.10); it was for this reason that Stone was able to draw on resources created specifically to support teaching and learning in English Schools. Yet the educational approach of Young Hands and the educational approach of N/C 2007 were not identical. Chapter Three demonstrated that the Project Method was premised on cognitive constructivist theory as proposed by Piaget. Referencing “cognitive stage theory” Piagetian educationalists maintained that younger students were incapable of “formal operational thought” and hence were incapable of understanding abstract concepts such as “peace”, “war”, “democracy” and “tyranny.” As a result subjects such as history and social studies would, according to Piagetian educationalists, prove too complex (see Chapter 3.6).

In contrast Chapter Six demonstrated how the Schools Council challenged “cognitive stage theory” introducing subjects such as history and social studies into primary schools (see Chapter 6.7). The Schools Council developed “enquiry based learning”, an educational approach owing more to the work of Vygotsky and Bruner than to Piaget. Brunerian educationalists maintained that if the “Key Concepts” of subjects such as history and social studies were clearly defined then these subjects could be taught to all students regardless of age (see Chapter 6.3). As students matured so the school curriculum increased in breadth and Key Concepts could be developed in ever more sophisticated ways; this “spiralling” of the curriculum was practised by the Schools Council and later became a trademark of the National Curriculum for England and Wales (Figure 6.4).

The contrasting evolutionary paths of the Project Method and “enquiry based learning” are traced by Figure 9.1 below. Both educational approaches were rooted in Piagetian constructivist theory; the Project Method however was developed by the IBE and promoted through ASP (net). Acknowledging the value of ASP (net) projects, UNESCO then recommended the Project Method to all schools codifying this educational approach in the 1974 Recommendation and the Delors Report (see Chapter 3.9). The Delors Report then acted as a guide for all UNESCO projects, including Young Hands.

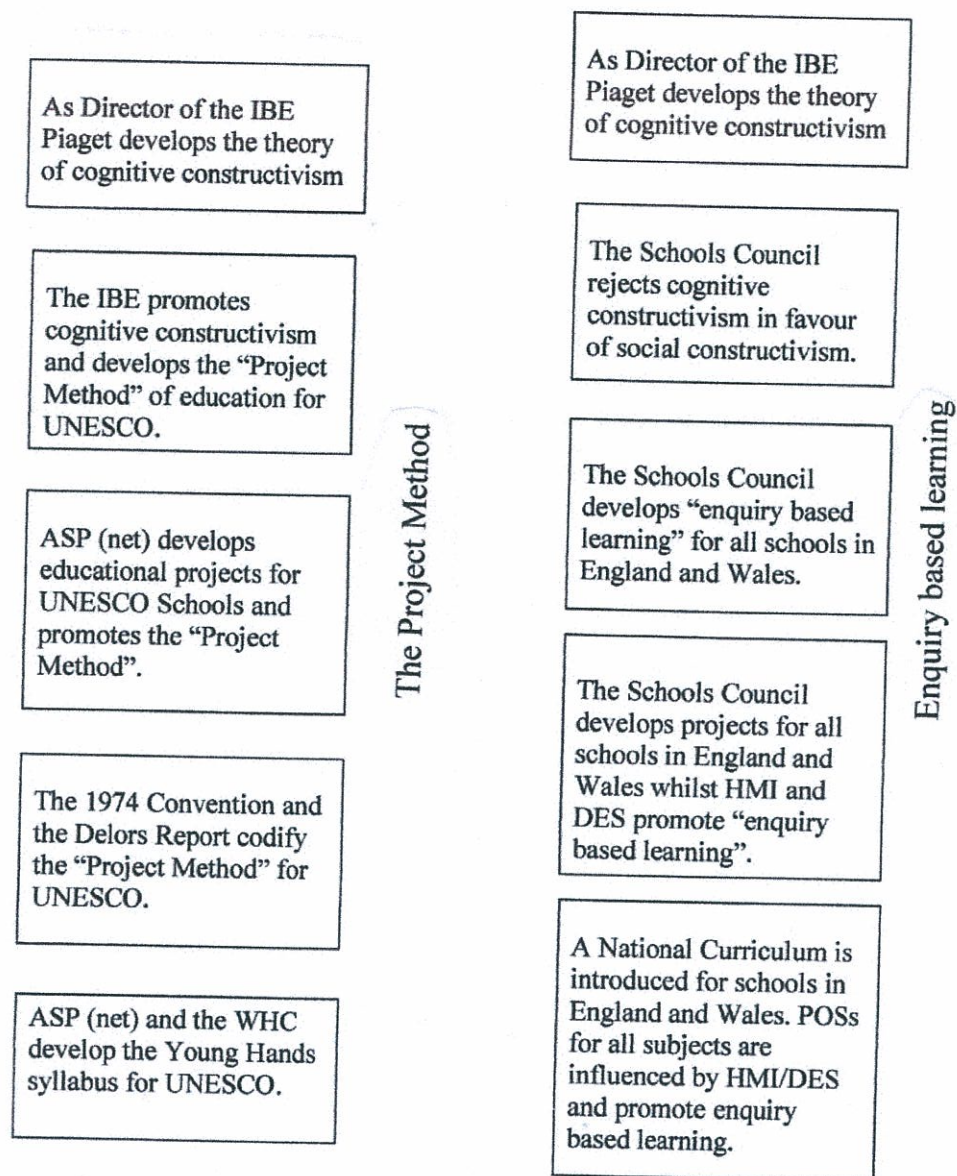


Figure 9.1 The contrasting evolutionary paths of the Project Method and "enquiry based learning."

Seeking an educational approach appropriate for all age groups, the Schools Council rejected the Project Method and developed "enquiry based learning" (see Chapter 6.7). Projects published by the School Council influenced the work of HMI and impacted on DES policy decisions (see Chapter 6.7). Following the 1988 ERA, all National Curriculum specifications introduced for

schools in England and Wales acknowledged “enquiry based learning” with N/C 2007 specifically premised on this educational approach (see Chapter 6.11).

3. How effectively have World Heritage Sites in England supported Young Hands and N/C 2007?

The 1972 Convention was received enthusiastically by Member States and quickly became established as a powerful instrument for heritage conservation. The inscription of a heritage site may have bestowed benefits in terms of increased tourist revenue but inclusion on the World Heritage List also conferred important responsibilities; the provision of dedicated educational materials, as detailed by Article 27, was one such responsibility.

Despite such stipulations WHSs consistently failed in their duty to provide educational resources and it was not until the introduction of WHE that any headway was made (see Chapter 4.2). UNESCO published a dedicated syllabus for WHE, entitled Young Hands, and WHE quickly became established as an ASP (net) flagship project (see Chapter 4.2); so popular did WHE become that UNESCO recommended that all secondary schools adopt Young Hands (UNESCO 2002: 11).

Young Hands had been premised on the recommendations of the Delors Report which identified four aims, or pillars of education: “learning to know”, “learning to do”, “learning to be” and “learning to live together” (Delors: 1996). Whilst “learning to know” and “learning to do” could be taught in a traditional manner through a broad range of subjects the remaining “pillars of education” were different. “Learning to be” and “learning to live together” were dependent on students acquiring particular attitudes and values: attitudes towards their own cultural identity and attitudes towards the cultural identity of others (see Chapter 3.9). Delors maintained that the Project Method was the most suitable educational approach for promoting values education. The IBE, who commissioned the Delors Report, concurred recommending that “learning to live together” be promoted through humanities and social science subjects such as history, geography and citizenship (IBE: 2007).

Whilst the IBE recommended mapping ASP (net) programmes onto humanities and social science subjects it was acknowledged that this strategy presented its own inherent dangers (Delors 1996: 56). Only POSs that encouraged an open and “global approach” to teaching and learning could be used for mapping the concepts of “learning to be” and “learning to live together”; POSs which encouraged an insular or nationalistic approach to education would prove most unsuitable (see Chapter 7.2). Acting on this guidance Chapter Seven determined the degree of compatibility between Young Hands and N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship; subject advisors at QCA concluded that Young Hands supported these POSs and related GCSE specifications (see Chapter 7.14).

The publication of Young Hands provided an ideal opportunity for all WHSs to fulfil their obligations under Article 27 of the 1972 Convention. Young Hands had provided a model syllabus for WHE and it was for WHSs to adapt this syllabus and ensure that it addressed the needs of local schools; used in this manner Young Hands might one day realise UNESCO’s goal of integration within the curricula of all secondary schools (UNESCO 2002: 11). The development of Young Hands was however dependant on the ability of WHSs to produce dedicated educational materials. Chapter Seven revealed that to date only New Zealand had managed to produce a national version of Young Hands and integrate this within the country’s National Curriculum (see Chapter 7.2).

Undaunted by the challenges ahead two attempts had been made to produce a UK version of Young Hands: the first attempt was spearheaded by Peter Stone at Newcastle University, the second attempt was by the Education Officer at Jurassic Coast WHS, Anjana Ford (see Chapter 8.2). Newcastle University’s bid to produce a UK version of Young Hands had proved somewhat disappointing, a similar bid by Jurassic Coast WHS however showed more promise. “Making Sense of Our Sites” (MSOS) was funded by the UK National Commission for UNESCO, Devon and Dorset Local Authorities and Jurassic Coast WHS. MSOS comprised a series of three conferences aiming to publicise Young Hands and produce a UK version of this syllabus (MSOS, 21 May 2009). Efforts were thwarted however when, after a period of two years, few WHSs had attempted to produced educational materials (Ford *pers. comm.* 12 May 2011). With specific regard to WHSs in England only four sites developed resources relating to Young Hands

and N/C 2007; these resources were showcased at MSOS and reviewed in Chapter Seven. One additional WHS, Maritime Greenwich WHS, had attempted to develop Young Hands within an informal educational framework however later enquiries revealed that neither this site, nor any of the remaining 12 WHSs, had made any attempt to address N/C 2007 (see Chapter 8.7).

After a period of nearly two years, despite repeated offers of support, WHSs in England had still fallen far short of addressing Article 27 of the 1972 Convention. Whilst funding was withdrawn from MSOS in 2011 this initiative had at least revealed the difficulties faced by WHSs in attempting to produce dedicated educational materials.

Many WHSs, such as Saltaire WHS, had no dedicated education officer (MSOS, 30 September 2010). With no dedicated education officer in place WHSs were unable to address the specific requirements of either Young Hands or N/C 2007 (MSOS, 30 September 2010). In place of dedicated resources these WHSs presented students with generic worksheets hoping they would suffice (MSOS, 21 May 2009). The result, predictably, was that visitors to these sites remained unaware of the significance of the term “World Heritage Site” (MSOS, 21 May 2009).

Comparison with resources detailed in Chapter Eight illustrates the inadequacy of such generic materials. Resources profiled in Chapter Eight were specifically designed to address the OUV of individual WHSs; the significance of WHS designation was made apparent and educational enquiries were structured according to the OUV of individual WHSs. Crucially, as well as exploring the physical aspects of individual WHSs, students were introduced to the universal aims and values of WHE and Young Hands (see Chapter 8.3 to 8.6).

MSOS delegates believed that the presence of a dedicated education officer raised the profile of education on site; conversely lack of a dedicated education officer resulted in education being allocated a low level of priority (MSOS, 30 September 2010). This low level of priority could be manifest in many ways with some delegates noting scant reference to education in SMPs and little or no reference to either Young Hands or to the National Curriculum (MSOS, 30 September 2010). Delegates noted that SMPs informed the agenda of managerial meetings; if SMPs neglected education on site then managerial meetings would do likewise (MSOS, 30 September 2010). The result was a “downward spiral” with education becoming an ever more marginalised

topic for discussion. Ford confirmed this “sense of apathy” citing her recent attendance at a Local Authority World Heritage Forum (LAWHF) hosted by ICOMOS UK. Having decided on a theme for the 2012 Cultural Olympiad, “Conservation and Young People”, LAWHF delegates debated how best to promote this concept. For Ford the publication of educational resources provided an obvious solution and she waited for the topic of education to be raised (Ford *pers. comm.* 12 May 2011); Ford’s wait however proved interminable and Ford herself was forced to table this proposal. Once tabled the publication of educational resources received enthusiastic backing but for Ford this incident represented yet another example of how marginalised the concept of heritage education actually was (Ford *pers. comm.* 12 May 2011).

Roundtable discussions at MSOS had highlighted the problems of larger sites in addressing the educational needs of numerous stakeholders. One such site was Maritime Greenwich WHS where Andrea Cunningham outlined the challenge of drafting an education strategy for such an “unwieldy beast.” Initial attempts to address the educational requirements of stakeholders had resulted in a strategy that lacked both cohesion and rational (MSOS, 30 September 2010). Despite efforts to utilise educational resources produced prior to 2009 the decision was made to start afresh. A new education strategy was produced for 2010; this strategy developed a clear rationale for education at Maritime Greenwich WHS and rejected the competing educational agendas of stakeholders (MSOS, 30 September 2010). Cunningham described how this bold move had reaped dividends and Maritime Greenwich WHS now felt confident in developing resources for Young Hands; unfortunately, whilst Cunningham and her colleagues had produced resources based on the theme of “World Heritage and Identity”, they had made a deliberate decision not to address N/C 2007. Instead these resources focused on informal educational provision. As a result of this decision resources produced by Maritime Greenwich WHS lie outside the parameters of this thesis (MSOS, 30 September 2010).

From the discussions above it is tempting to conclude that WHSs in England have adopted a rather apathetic approach to education with many showing little or no interest in either Young Hands or N/C 2007. One should remember however that schemes of work cited in Chapter Eight, whilst few in number, serve to indicate the true educational potential of WHSs. These examples explicitly addressed the OUV of their respective sites and communicated the aims and values of

Young Hands in a most articulate manner. In addition, attendance figures provided by MSOS indicated certain WHSs were represented at both conferences and that some WHSs fielded as many as three delegates; such figures indicated a high level of commitment albeit from a small number of WHSs in England. Among these notable examples was Saltaire WHS represented at both MSOS conferences and fielding three delegates in 2010 (Appendix 11). Unfortunately, despite these efforts, Saltaire WHS was unable to submit a case study for MSOS (Ford *pers. comm.* 12 May 2011). Whilst MSOS had stimulated interest in education at Saltaire WHS there were no resources to draw on; instead efforts had been focused on establishing a “voluntary education group” in the hope that an education strategy might be drafted at some later stage (Ford *pers. comm.* 12 May 2011). Also exhibiting a high level of commitment was the Candidate Site of Jarrow-Wearmouth. Again this site was represented at both MSOS conferences and presented a fascinating scheme of work demonstrating how Young Hands might be used to support education in primary schools (MSOS, 31 September 2010). Whilst this case study lies outside the parameters of this thesis it certainly points the way for future research and as such is detailed later in this chapter (see Chapter 9.3).

Whilst it is difficult to isolate any one reason for the failure of WHSs in England to support Young Hands and N/C 2007 the Evaluation Report for World Heritage Education (Fordham and Holinshed 2002), published in 2002, serves to highlight a number of concerns.

In common with other ASP (net) projects World Heritage Education (WHE) was dependant upon a “top-down” mode of delivery. Young Hands had been designed by a UNESCO panel of experts and published by UNESCO Headquarters, Paris. International and Regional WHYFs, together with teacher training workshops, were organised by UNESCO Headquarters and Regional Offices. Having attended training workshops teachers were then expected to return to their schools and train their peers in WHE (see Chapter 4.7). According to the WHE Evaluation Report this “cascade system” of professional training presented numerous difficulties: the training workshops themselves did not provide enough time for teacher training (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 9) whilst teachers attending these workshops had little or no experience in training fellow professionals. Problems were compounded by the fact that the educational

approach of WHE was complex and teachers repeatedly voiced their need for further training (see Chapter 4.7).

The WHE Evaluation Report also raised concerns regarding the training and competency of some National Coordinators. To establish WHE in schools and encourage development of Young Hands National Coordinators needed a working knowledge of National Curricula and the ability to represent ASP (net) at Ministerial level (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 6); to promote WHE effectively National Coordinators also needed to liaise with national heritage organisations. Research indicated that, in general, National Coordinators were unable to address these goals effectively. Compounding these problems the Evaluation Report maintained that monitoring procedures for WHE “lacked rigour” (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 6). Schools participating in WHE were required to submit a detailed report to their National Coordinator, many of these reports however lacked detail or were incomplete (Fordham and Holinshed 2002: 10).

Clearly the Evaluation Report had identified a number of key weaknesses in the delivery of WHE. To address these concerns one could turn to the organisation which had been asked to compile this Evaluation Report, namely EHES.

In his most recent publication the former director of EHES, Mike Corbishley, identified a number of heritage organisations in England that specialised in delivering heritage education, these included the National Trust, the Council for British Archaeology and the Young Archaeologist Club (Corbishley 2011: 86). According to Corbishley however EHES was unique in that it exercised a national remit for heritage education; in addition EHES placed great emphasis on formal educational provision and supported schools in the teaching of National Curriculum subjects. These points were particularly pertinent to WHE as UNESCO intended that all secondary school students should study this project (see Chapter 1.1). It should also be remembered that one of the authors of Young Hands, Peter Stone, was an EHES education officer and that material from EHES publications had been incorporated into the text this syllabus (see Chapter 4.5). EHES had, therefore, an informed and unique perspective on the ability of ASP (net) to deliver WHE.

EHES had been established by the National Heritage Act of 1983 and had established a different approach to the delivery of heritage education. In contrast to ASP (net), EHES employed 11 education officers dedicated to heritage education. These education officers were regionally based and highly skilled. All education officers were experienced classroom teachers with detailed knowledge of the national curriculum for England; in addition all education officers were specifically trained in heritage education and all were experienced teacher trainers. Again in contrast to ASP (net), EHES education officers regularly visited schools and trained classroom teachers in heritage education; EHES recognised that the educational approach of heritage education could prove problematic especially if one relied solely on the “cascade method” of professional training.

The Evaluation Report compiled by EHES criticised many ASP (net) National Coordinators for not establishing links with heritage organisations and Ministries of Education. By contrast EHES was in contact with numerous heritage organisations and had established strong links with both DfES and the QCA. Indeed EHES produced many publications to support teachers in delivering the National Curriculum and in planning SOWs. These publications included “Heritage Learning” which was distributed free of charge to schools. Heritage Learning showcased heritage education projects undertaken by schools and profiled educational facilities available at heritage sites throughout England. EHES also produced the “Heritage Guide Series” which demonstrated how the historic environment might be used to support National Curriculum subjects. Titles in this series included “Geography and the Historic Environment” and “Citizenship and the Historic Environment” as well as key texts used by the UNESCO panel of experts in drafting Young Hands (see Chapter 4.5).

In determining the effectiveness of EHES policy Corbishley cites the dramatic increase in visitor numbers for English Heritage sites for the period 1984 to 2001. In 1984, with EHES just one year old, Corbishley cites 25,000 visitors to English Heritage sites; by 2001 this figure had risen dramatically to 405,000 visitors (Corbishley 2011: 97).

Clearly, from the above, the EHES system of heritage education differed markedly from that provided by ASP (net). In particular EHES highlighted the need for teachers to be adequately

trained in heritage education. Training should be the remit of dedicated WHE officers who should be deployed on a national basis. These WHE officers would themselves be trained at a dedicated facility such as that proposed by Kvisteroy and Stone (see Chapter 4.7); suitable qualifications for WHE officers would offer modules in constructivist approaches to education and provide opportunities to develop Young Hands. Once in place WHE officers would be able to support ASP (net) coordinators in liaising with Ministries of Education and national heritage organisations.

WHE activities could be profiled, as now, on the WHC website however another useful point of access may be the journals of National Curriculum subject associations. All National Curriculum subjects in England are represented by their own subject associations; each subject association publishes its own dedicated journal featuring articles on GCSE specifications, textbooks, and resources. Journals such as “Teaching History”, “Teaching Geography” and “Teaching Citizenship” enjoy a wide readership and are commonly available through schools, universities and teacher training institutes. Despite the obvious popularity of these publications WHE has yet to feature in any subject association journal; ASP (net) must address this important omission if WHE is to gain a credible foothold in English secondary schools.

WHE would be all the more appealing to schools (and WHSs) if a ready means of assessing the impact of projects were made available. Corbishley used the increase in visitor numbers to English Heritage Sites as an index of success for EHES policy (Corbishley 2011: 97). It should be noted however that the N/C 2007 provides a far more accurate index of educational attainment.

N/C 2007 details “Attainment Targets” for all National Curriculum subjects. Attainment Targets present teachers with a convenient method of measuring student progress throughout the academic year. Attainment targets are levelled according to chronological age with levels 1 to 3 corresponding with students of primary school age whilst levels 4 to 8 correspond with students of secondary school age. Attainment Targets comprise a simple statement of attainment and indicate the level of proficiency that should be attained by students of a certain age; these statements are based on the Key Concepts and Key Processes for each subject. As students

progress in their studies and their understanding of Key Concepts and Key Processes grows so the Attainment Targets indicate increasing levels of sophistication. With regard to secondary education a student aged 11/12 should attaining a level 4 in their studies, a student aged 12/13 should attain a level 5 whilst a student aged 13/14 should attain a level 5. Levels 6 to 8 are generally reserved for students aged 14 to 16 and sitting GCSE examinations. GCSE specifications generally provide their own mark schemes based on N/C 2007 Attainment Targets to assist teachers in grading examination papers and controlled assessments. Bearing these points in mind levels 6 to 8 should correspond to GCSE grades A, B and C (with A* corresponding to a statement of "Exceptional Performance").

Attainment Targets then present teachers with an effective means of measuring student attainment in particular subjects (or across a range of subjects). Similarly Attainment Targets can be used to judge the educational merit of particular projects or SOWs. If students aged 11/12, engaged in a WHE project, were to attain level 5 in N/C 2007 history or N/C 2007 citizenship then these results would be deemed educationally significant – students following a SOW based on Young Hands would have exceeded all reasonable expectations. Unfortunately, whilst Chapter Eight profiled SOWs based on N/C 2007, student's work and corresponding National Curriculum levels were unavailable. Publication of such results in subject association journals might prove significant in the attempt to introduce WHE to secondary schools.

9.3 Recommendations for future research

In determining how effective Young Hands might prove in supporting N/C 2007 this thesis has focused primarily on three subject areas: history, geography and citizenship. This research strategy was based on evidence obtained from a broad range of sources including the IBE website and interviews with ASP (net) and WHC programme specialists. In summary history, geography and citizenship were believed best able to communicate the aims and values of UNESCO and Young Hands; in addition these were believed to be the subjects best able to support Articles 1 and 2 of the 1972 Convention and articulate the OUVs of individual WHSs. In support of such claims schemes of work cited in Chapter Eight focused primarily on N/C 2007

history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship whilst other POSs were not represented (see Chapter 8.7).

In fact N/C 2007 detailed a total of twelve POSs for students aged 11 to 14 together with six POSs and four “curriculum areas” for students aged 14 to 16 (see Chapter 5.11). Whilst other POSs may not communicate the aims and values of Young Hands as effectively as those detailed in Chapter Eight, all are predicated on the ECM Agenda and UNCRC and all support enquiry based learning (see Chapter 5.10). In addition all N/C 2007 POSs were designed so that links between subjects could readily be established.

The curriculum mapping exercises cited in Chapter Eight focused on N/C 2007 history, N/C 2007 geography and N/C 2007 citizenship however further research indicated that Young Hands could prove effective in supporting other POSs. Ford and Weatherly had shown that Young Hands could support cross-curricular literacy programmes (see Chapter 8.3) yet no scheme of work had been developed for Young Hands and N/C 2007 English. This was an unfortunate omission as Table 7 below clearly indicates a high level of compatibility between Young Hands and N/C 2007 English.

A further review of “Why was the MSC Napoli such a threat to the World Heritage Coast?” (see Chapter 8.3) shows that this scheme of work supports the Key Concepts of “Competence” (Key Concept 1.1) and “Critical understanding” (Key Concept 1.4). In addition, by utilizing a broad range of source material and by encouraging group discussion, this scheme of work supports all three Key Processes; students address “Speaking and listening” (Key Process 2.1), “Reading” (Key Process 2.2) and “Writing” (Key Process 2.3). In summary, the development of schemes of work that support Young Hands and N/C 2007 English would prove most rewarding.

Table 7 Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 English

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Competence	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.2 Creativity	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Cultural understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Critical understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Speaking and listening	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y

In addition to N/C 2007 English, Young Hands demonstrated a high level of compatibility with N/C 2007 science (Table 8). Again no dedicated schemes of work have been developed for N/C 2007 science but a review of “What should happen at Pennington Point?” gives some indication of mapping potential. This scheme of work required students to visit an area of Jurassic Coast WHS where coastal erosion had caused subsidence. As a result local roads and a housing development were under threat (see Chapter 8.3). Students conducted their own fieldwork and examined site reports prepared by professional bodies.

Analysis indicated that this scheme of work could be adapted to address the requirements of N/C 2007 science. N/C 2007 science specifically requires that students study “Environment, Earth and the universe”; here students learn “that human activity and natural processes can lead to changes in the environment” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 211). Fieldwork and personal observation

constitute a major focus of “Scientific thinking” (Key Concept 1.1) and students must “critically analyse and evaluate evidence from observations and experiments” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 208). Complimenting Key Concept 1.1 the development of “Practical and enquiry skills” (Key Process 2.1) requires that students, “plan and carry out practical investigative activities both individually and in groups” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 209).

Table 8 Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 science

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Scientific thinking			Y	
1.2 Applications and implications of science			Y	
1.3 Cultural understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Collaboration	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Practical and enquiry skills	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Critical understanding of evidence	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Communication	Y	Y	Y	Y

UNESCO programme specialists also suggested that Young Hands might support N/C 2007 art and design (Saldari *pers. comm.* 9 December 2008). Students attending the Bergen WHYF in 1995 had designed a cartoon character named “Patrimonito” or “Young Heritage Guardian.” In 2002 ASP (net) and WHC introduced an annual competition for WHE students; students were invited to submit a colourful storyboard depicting a visit by Patrimonito to a WHS in their

locality. Students were asked to base their stories on one of the four World Heritage themes and present Patrimonito with a suitable challenge.

All challenges were associated with the managerial concerns experienced by WHSs including: the poaching of gorillas and hippopotami at Virunga National Park WHS, the effects of mass tourism at Old Havana WHS and the introduction of non-native species to The New Zealand Sub-Antarctic Islands WHS (UNESCO: 2008). Having identified a challenge for Patrimonito this character then presents a solution; to date suggested solutions have included: training local tribes in wildlife conservation, providing guidance for local tour operators and the sustainable development of natural habitats (UNESCO: 2008). UNESCO has funded the production of a series of animated films based on the best storyboards and these are forwarded to all Associated Schools.

Analysis showed that the drafting of storyboards and the production of animated films was directly applicable to N/C 2007 art and design (Table 9). This POS specifically encouraged students to use a broad range of media, “the study of art, craft and design should include the exploration of media, processes and techniques in 2D, 3D and new technologies” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 21).

The drafting of storyboards certainly encouraged “Creativity” (Key Concept 1.1) with curriculum guidance recommending, “the production of imaginative images, artefacts and other outcomes that are both original and of value” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 18). These schemes of work would also support “Critical understanding” (Key Concept 1.4) which required that students “engage with ideas, images and artefacts and identify how values and meanings are conveyed” (DCSF/QCA 2007: 19) as well as Key Process 2.1, “Explore and create.”

Table 9 Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 art and design

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Creativity	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.2 Competence				
1.3 Cultural understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Critical understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Explore and create	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Understand and evaluate				

In conclusion, the ability of Young Hands to support N/C 2007 is not defined solely in terms of POSs for history, geography and citizenship. The development of carefully targeted resources would enable Young Hands to support a far broader curriculum and it is to be hoped that future research might spur such developments.

This thesis has focused on determining how effectively Young Hands supports the National Curriculum for secondary schools in England (N/C 2007). The stated aim of UNESCO was that Young Hands be incorporated into the curriculum of all secondary schools (UNESCO 2002: 11); no mention was ever made of primary schools. Having addressed the relevance of Young Hands to the secondary school curriculum now might be an appropriate time to question UNESCO's focus on the secondary school sector and examine the implications for future research.

Chapter Three demonstrated that the educational approach of Young Hands was premised on the Project Method; this educational approach was common to all ASP (net) projects and promoted

by UNESCO and the IBE. The origins of the Project Method lay in the cognitive constructivist theories of Piaget; central to Piaget's work was the concept of "cognitive stage theory" (see Chapter 3.6). Cognitive stage theory decreed students of primary school age to be incapable of understanding abstract concepts; hence history and social studies were regarded as unsuited to the primary school curriculum. Following this rational Khawajkie, the former ASP (net) coordinator, determined Young Hands to be unsuited for use in primary schools (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008). Not all agreed with this stance however; Stone, a member of the UNESCO panel of experts, maintained that Young Hands was eminently suited for use in primary schools (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009). Unlike Khawajkie, Stone was versed in the teachings of social constructivists such as Bruner and was familiar with the work of the Schools Council (see Chapter 4.5). Stone maintained that younger students were indeed capable of understanding abstract concepts providing information was suitably presented. For Stone, Young Hands constituted a valuable resource for both secondary schools and primary schools (Stone *pers. comm.* 15 January 2009). Now, one decade after the publication of Young Hands, Khawajkie concurred with Stone's original assessment agreeing that Young Hands was indeed suitable for use in primary schools (Khawajkie *pers. comm.* 11 December 2008).

Pre-empting Khawajkie's *volte face*, publication of "Our Pacific Heritage" (UNESCO: 2004) ensured that Young Hands was introduced to both primary and secondary schools in New Zealand. Similarly Jarrow-Wearmouth Candidate Site had developed a scheme of work highlighting the potential of Young Hands for students of primary school age; this scheme of work was subsequently presented as a case study for MSOS (MSOS, 31 September 2010). Jarrow-Wearmouth organised a summer school in association with Jarrow Park Primary School; here students as young as six were encouraged to explore the Anglo-Saxon Heritage of their area. Working in teams the students engraved stone tablets, carved and assembled items of furniture and moulded Anglo-Saxon pottery. These artefacts were exhibited for MSOS delegates whilst teachers explained how such activities had promoted a pride in local heritage. Following this summer school Jarrow-Wearmouth promoted the world heritage theme of "World Heritage and Identity" still further by staging an exhibition entitled "Bede the Educator" (MSOS, 31 September 2010).

Whilst the work of Jarrow-Wearmouth was greeted with enthusiasm no attempt had been made to link these activities to the National Curriculum for primary schools (N/C 1999 primary); this omission presents a further opportunity for investigation and it is recommended that future research focuses on how effectively Young Hands supports N/C 1999 primary (Figure 9.1). The framework of N/C 1999 primary (DfEE/QCA 1999b) resembles that of N/C 2007. N/C 1999 primary comprises three core subjects: English, maths and science and a total of seven foundation subjects: design and technology, information and communication studies, history, geography, art and design, music and physical education. Crucially for the mapping of Young Hands however citizenship is classified as a “non-statutory subject” and as such has no dedicated POS (DfEE/QCA 1999b: 16).

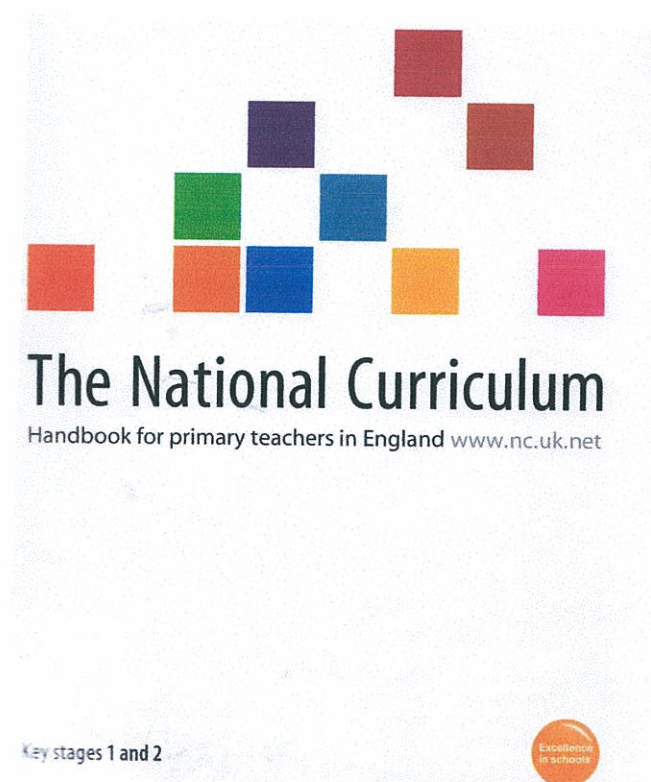


Figure 9. 2 The National Curriculum Handbook for Primary Schools in England (DfEE/QCA 1999b)

N/C 1999 history (primary) does however share many points of commonality with N/C 2007 history; the POS in this instance comprises five Key Elements: “Chronological understanding” (Key Element 1.1), “Knowledge and understanding of events, people and changes in the past” (Key Element 1.2), “Historical interpretation” (Key Element 1.3), “Historical enquiry” (Key Element 1.4) and “Organisation and communication” (Key Element 1.5). Of particular significance here is the recommended educational approach of N/C 1999 history (primary) as indicated by Key Element 1.4; enquiry based learning underpins the study of history at both primary level and secondary level and guidance notes emphasise the importance of history fieldwork recommending, “the study of a range of sources including artefacts, historic buildings and museums” (DfEE/QCA 1999b: 104).

N/C 1999 geography (primary) may also offer an important vehicle for mapping Young Hands onto the National Curriculum for schools in England. N/C 1999 geography (primary) comprises four Key Elements: “Geographical enquiry and skills” (Key Element 1.1), “Knowledge and understanding of places” (Key Element 1.2), “Knowledge and understanding of patterns and processes” (Key Element 1.3) and “Knowledge and understanding of environmental change and sustainable development” (Key Element 1.4). As in N/C 1999 history (primary), enquiry based learning underpins N/C 1999 geography (primary) as attested by Key Element 1.1 whilst guidance notes again emphasise the importance of fieldwork and developing skills outside the classroom environment (DfEE/QCA 1999b: 112).

9.4 Final Conclusion

Two decades after the introduction of the 1972 Convention Peter Stone, co-author of Young Hands, described “education” and “heritage” as inhabiting two separate universes (Stone 2004: 2); the “education universe” was large, exhibiting great mass and gravitational pull whilst the “heritage universe” was diminutive both in size and stature. Most significantly the “education universe” and “heritage universe” travelled parallel trajectories, destined never to meet.

For Stone and other heritage professionals this dichotomy between “education” and “heritage” was an anathema; the 1972 Convention represented one of the UNESCO’s most enduring

instruments and, embedded within its text, was the requirement that States Parties to the 1972 Convention promote heritage education (UNESCO 1972: Article 27). The validity of Stone's analogy was due simply to the fact that States Parties had habitually ignored Article 27. UNESCO was responsible for this state of affairs and the response, two decades later, had been the drafting of Young Hands (UNESCO: 2002).

Young Hands presented schools and WHSs with a syllabus for WHE and represented a concerted effort by UNESCO to address Article 27 of the 1972 Convention. Whilst Young Hands was generally well received the success of this syllabus was dependant on the development of educational resources at national level (Fordham and Holinshed: 2002); ASP (net) archive and the WHC website bear witness to the fact that certain States Parties were more assiduous in this respect than others. Regrettably the response of the UK Government to Article 27 of the 1972 Convention, or indeed to Young Hands, remained decidedly apathetic (MSOS, 30 September 2010); MSOS did however provided a key opportunity for WHSs in England and the rest of the UK to produce dedicated educational resources. Funded in part by the UK Commission for UNESCO and Jurassic Coast WHS, MSOS provided training and support for WHSs willing to address their obligations under the 1972 Convention.

This thesis clearly demonstrates the potential of Young Hands to support teaching and learning in secondary schools however, despite the findings cited above, the response of WHSs in England has remained unacceptably poor (Ford *pers. comm.* 12 May 2011) . With funding withdrawn and MSOS prematurely concluded WHSs remain unable to respond to the demands of Young Hands or to their obligations under Article 27 of the 1972 Convention (Ford *pers. comm.* 12 May 2011); one can only conclude that Stone's analogy still holds true and that "education" and "heritage" do indeed inhabit separate universes.

Bibliography

Aldrich, R.E. (1984) *New History: An Historical Perspective*. In Dickinson, A.K., Lee, P.J. and Rogers, P.J. (eds) *Learning History*. London: Heinemann Educational.

André, Y. (1998) *World and Territory: History and Geography for Learning To Live Together*. *Prospects* XXVIII (2): 203-207.

ASP (net) (1993) *The Associated Schools Project: A Review of its Expansion and Development-International Symposium on the Occasion of the 40th Anniversary of the Associated Schools Project: Annex IX Strategy and Plan of Action 1994-2000*. Paris: UNESCO.
Available at <http://127.0.0.1:1027/gsd1?e=d-Ounescoasp--00-0-0-0101stt>

ASP (net) (1995a) *Fifty Years for Education*. Paris: UNESCO.

ASP (net) (1995b) *First World Heritage Youth Forum, Bergen, Norway 24-28 June 1995*. Bergen: UNESCO.

ASP (net) (1996a) *First African World Heritage Youth Forum, Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe 18-24 September 1996*. Harare: UNESCO.

ASP (net) (1996b) *First European World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik, Croatia 25-30 May 1996*. Zagreb: UNESCO.

ASP (net) (1997) *First Asia-Pacific World Heritage Youth Forum, Beijing, China 15-21 September 1997*. Bangkok: UNESCO.

ASP (net) (1998) *Key Tools for National Coordinators of the Associated Schools Project Network*. Paris: UNESCO.

ASP (net) (2003) *Historical Review 1953-2003*. Paris: UNESCO.

ASP (net) (2004) *Strategy and Plan of Action 2004-2009: Quality Education in Practice*. Paris: UNESCO.

- ASP (net) (2005a) *Associated Schools Project Network: Digital Library*. UNESCO: Paris.
- ASP (net) (2005b) *The Practice of Citizenship Pedagogical Kit*. Available at <http://portal.unesco.org/education/en> [Accessed 5 August 2007]
- ASP (net) (2008a) *Guide for National Coordinators*. Paris: UNESCO.
- ASP (net) (2008b) *First Collection of Good Practices for Quality Education*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Bailey, G. (undated) *unpublished letter to E. Khawajkie*.
- Bailly, A. (1998) Education for New Forms of Citizenship through History and Geography: A Theoretical Approach. *Prospects* XXVIII (2) 196-201.
- Bayeley, P. and Richards, L. (2000) *The Nvivo Qualitative Project Book*. London: SAGE.
- Barnard, H. (1947) *A History of English Education since 1760*. London: University of London Press.
- Bartlett, S., Burton, D. and Peim, N. (2005) *Introduction to Education Studies*. 6th ed. London: SAGE.
- Bath Preservation Trust (2009) *Bath Preservation Trust: Learning* [Internet]. Available from <http://www.bptlearning.org.uk/index> [Accessed 5 October 2009].
- Bath Corporation (2007) *Bath Core Strategy 2026* [Internet]. Available from <http://www.bathnes.gov.uk/corestrategy> [Accessed 5 October 2009].
- Batho, R. (2009) The Secondary National Strategy in England In: Capel, S., Leask, M., and Turner, T. (eds) *Learning to Teach in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience*. 5th ed. London: Routledge.

- Batisse, M. and Bolla, G. (2005) *The Invention of World Heritage*. Paris: Association des Anciens Fonctionnaires de l'UNESCO (AAFU), Club Histoire. (History Papers 2).
- Binde, J. (1998) What Education for the Twenty-First Century? *Prospects* XXVIII (2) 391-403.
- Birn, D. S. (1981) *The League of Nations Union 1918-1939*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Blyth, A. (1975) *Curriculum Planning in History, Geography and Social Science*. Bristol: Collins.
- Board of Education (1931) *Primary Education* (Hadow Report). London: HMSO.
- Bourdillon, H. (ed) (1994) *Teaching History*. London: Routledge.
- Brooks, V., Abbott, I., and Bills, L. (eds) (2004) *Preparing to teach in Secondary Schools: A Student Teacher's Guide to Professional issues in Secondary Education*. Berkshire: OUP.
- Bruner, J. S. (1960) *The Process of Education*. Harvard: Vintage Books.
- Bruner, J. S. (1966) *Towards a Theory of Instruction*. New York: Norton.
- Butt, G. (2009) The National Curriculum for England In: Capel, S., Leask, M., and Turner, T. (eds) *Learning to Teach in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience*. 5th ed. London: Routledge.
- Callaghan, J. (1976) The Prime Minister's Ruskin Speech. *Education* (22 October 1976): 332-333.
- Capel, S., Leask, M., and Turner, T. (eds) (2009) *Learning to Teach in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience*. 5th ed. London: Routledge.
- CACE (1967) *Children and their Primary Schools: A Report* (Plowden Report). London: HMSO

- Chitty, C. (2009) *Education Policy in Britain*. 2nd ed. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K. (2004) *Research Methods in Education*. 5th ed. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Coltham, J. and Fines, J. (1971) *Educational Objectives for the study of History: A suggested Framework*. London: Historical Association.
- Cox, C.B. and Boyson, R. (eds) (1975) *Black Paper 1975: The Fight for Education*. London: Dent.
- Cox, C.B. and Boyson, R. (eds) (1977) *Black Paper 1977*. London: Maurice Temple Smith.
- Cox, C. B. and Dyson, A.E. (eds) (1969) *Fight for Education: A Black Paper*. London: Critical Quarterly Society.
- Cox, C. B. And Dyson, A.E. (eds) (1969) *Black Paper Two: The Crisis in Education*. London: Critical Quarterly Society.
- Cox C.B. and Dyson, A.E. (eds) (1970) *Black Paper Three: Goodbye Mr Short*. London: Critical Quarterly Society.
- Cox, C. and Scruton, R. (1984) *Peace Studies: A Critical Survey*. Institute for European Defence and Strategic Studies: London.
- Crayhay, M. (1996) Piaget, The Mechanisms of Development and Social Learning. Learning to Think or Learning to Memorise? A Constructivist Reformulation of an old Dilemma. *Prospects* XXVI (1): 55-83.
- Crick, B (1998) *Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools: Final Report of the Advisory Group on Citizenship*. London: QCA.
- Davies, L., Harber, C., and Schweisfurth (2003) *Report of the Global Review of the UNESCO Associated Schools Project: Results, Recommendations and Conclusions*. Paris: UNESCO.

- Davison, J. and Dowson, J. (eds) (2009) *Learning to Teach English in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience*. 3rd ed. London: Routledge.
- Dawson, I. and Wilson, M. (2008) *SHP History Year 7*. London: Hodder Education.
- DCSF/QCA (2007) *The National Curriculum: Statutory Requirements for Key Stages 3 and 4*. London: HMSO.
- Dearing, R. (1993) *The National Curriculum and its Assessment: Final Report*. London: SCAA.
- Delors, J. (1996) *Learning: The Treasure Within. Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century*. Paris: UNESCO. Available at <http://www.unesco.org/delors>
- DES (1976) *School Education in England: Problems and Initiatives (Yellow Book)*. London: HMSO.
- DES (1977) *Education in Schools: A Consultative Document*. Cmnd 6869. London: HMSO.
- DES (1980) *A Framework for the School Curriculum*. London: HMSO.
- DES (1985a) *Better Schools*, Cmnd 9469. London: HMSO.
- DES (1985b) *GCSE: The National Criteria: History*. London: HMSO.
- DES (1987) *The National Curriculum 5-16: A Consultation Document*. London: HMSO.
- DES (1988) *The Education Reform Act*. London: HMSO.
- DES (1990) *The National Curriculum History Working Group: Final Report*. London: HMSO.
- DES (1991) *History in the National Curriculum (England)*. London: HMSO.

- DES/HMI (1977) *Curriculum 11-16* (Red Book One). London: HMSO.
- DES/HMI (1983) *Curriculum 11-16: Towards A Statement of Entitlement: Curricular Reappraisal in Action* (Red Book Two). London: HMSO.
- DES/HMI (1985a) *The Curriculum from 5-16*. London: HMSO.
- DES/HMI (1985b) *History in the Primary and Secondary Years: An HMI View*. London: HMSO.
- DES/HMI (1986a) *English from 5-16*. London: HMSO.
- DES/HMI (1986b) *Geography from 5-16*. London: HMSO.
- DES/HMI (1988) *History from 5-16*. London: HMSO.
- Dewey, J. (1899) *The School and Society*. In Dewey, J. (ed) *The child and the curriculum and the school and society*. Chicago: University Press.
- DfE (1995) *The History Order*. London: DfE
- DfEE (1997) *Excellence in Schools*. Cmnd 3681. London: HMSO.
- DfEE (1999) *Review of the National Curriculum in England: Secretary of States Proposals*. London: HMSO.
- DfEE (2001) *Framework for Teaching English: Years 7, 8 and 9* (Key Stage 3 Literacy Strategy). London: DfEE.
- DfEE/QCA (1999a) *The National Curriculum for England: Handbook for Secondary School Teachers in England, Key Stages 3-4*. London: HMSO.

DfEE/QCA (1999b) *The National Curriculum for England: Handbook for Primary School Teachers in England, Key Stages 1-2*. London: HMSO.

DfEE/QCA (1999c) *National Curriculum for England: Citizenship*. London: DfEE.

DfES (2004a) *Key Stage 3 National Strategy: Literacy in Citizenship*. London: DfES.

DfES (2004b) *Key Stage 3 National Strategy: Literacy in Geography*. London: DfES.

DfES (2004c) *Key Stage 3 National Strategy: Literacy and Learning in History*. London: DfES.

DfES (2004d) *Every Child Matters: Change for Children in Schools* [DfES/1089/2004] London: DfES. Available at <http://www.teachernet.gov.uk/publications>

DfES (2006a) *Learning Outside the Classroom Manifesto* [DfES 04232-2006] London: DfES. Available at <http://www.teachernet.gov.uk/teachingandlearning/resourcematerials/outsideclassroom/>

DfES (2006b) *The Action Plan for Geography*. London: DfES. Available at www.geographyteachingtoday.org.uk/fieldwork/

DfES (2006c) *Exclusion of Black pupils: Priority Review: Getting it. Getting it Right*. London: DfES.

DfES (2006d) *2020 Vision: Report of the Teaching and Learning in 2020 Review Group* [Ref: 04255-2006DOM-EN]. Available at <http://www.teachernet.gov.uk/publications>

DfES (2007) *Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review: Final Report (Ajegbo Report)*. London: DfES. Available at <http://www.education.gov.uk/publications>

Dickinson, A.K., Lee, P.J. and Rogers, P.J. (eds) (1984) *Learning History*. London: Heinemann Educational.

Durbin, G., Morris, S., and Wilkinson, S. (1990) *Learning from Objects: A Teacher's Guide*. London: English Heritage.

Edexcel (2008a) *Edexcel GCSE Citizenship Studies: Unit 2 Participating in Society*. Paper No. 5CS02/01.

Edexcel (2008b) *Edexcel GCSE Citizenship Studies: Unit 4 Citizenship Campaign*. Paper No. 5CS04/01.

Edexcel (2008c) *Edexcel GCSE Geography A: Unit 4 Investigating Geography*. Paper No. 5GA04/01.

Edexcel (2008d) *Edexcel GCSE Specification in Citizenship Studies* (2CS01). Available at <http://www.edexcel.com/gcse2009>

Edexcel (2008e) *Edexcel GCSE Specification in Geography A* (2GA01). Available at <http://www.edexcel.com/gcse2009>

Elton, G. R. (2006) *The Practice of History*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

English Heritage (2008) *Stonehenge World Heritage Site Management Plan*. Available at <http://www.english.heritage.org.uk>

English Heritage (2012) *Stonehenge Improvements: Work Starts on Site*. [Internet]. Available from <http://www.english-heritage.org.uk/about/news/stonehenge-improvements> [Accessed 2 October 2012].

Fairclough, J. (1994) *A Teacher's Guide to History through Role Play*. London: English Heritage.

Farmer, A. and Knight, P (1995) *Active History in Key Stages 3 and 4*. London: David Fulton Publishers.

Ferras, R. (1998) What not to teach in Geography Lessons. *Prospects* XXVIII (2) 314-325.

Fink, A. (2005) *Conducting Research Literature Reviews*. London: SAGE

- Flick, U. (2006) *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*. 3rd ed. London: SAGE.
- Flew, A. (1986) Education against Racism. In: O’Keeffe, D. (ed) *The Wayward Curriculum: A Cause for Parental Concern*. London: Social Affairs Unit.
- Fordham, J. and Holinshed, E. (2002) (unpublished) *UNESCO Special Project, “Young People’s Participation in World Heritage Preservation and Promotion.” Evaluation Report* (January 2002).
- Furth, H.G. (1970) *Piaget for Teachers*. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice-Hall.
- Gearon, L. (2003) *The Human Rights Handbook: A Global Perspective for Education*. Stoke on Trent: Trentham Books Ltd.
- Gearon, L. (2010) *Learning to Teach Citizenship in the Secondary School*. 2nd ed. London: Routledge.
- Gillham, B. (2005) *Research Interviewing: the range of techniques*. Berkshire: OUP.
- Graham, D. (1993) *A Lesson for Us All: The Making of the National Curriculum*. London: Routledge.
- Graves, N. (1998) Geographical Education and Ideology in England and Wales. *Prospects* XXVIII (2) 265-269.
- Gunning, D. (1978) *The Teaching of History*. London: Croom Helm.
- Hall, C. (2006) Implementing the World Heritage Convention. In: Leask, A. and Fyall, A. (eds) *Managing World Heritage*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Hart, C. (1998) *Doing a Literature Review*. London: SAGE.
- Haydn, T., Arthur, J., Hunt, M., and Stephen, A. (2008) *Learning to Teach History in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience*. 3rd ed. Oxon: RoutledgeFalmer.

Henson, S. Stone, P. and Corbishley, M. (eds) (2004) *Education and the Historic Environment*. London: Routledge.

Hillgate Group (1986) *Whose Schools? A Radical Manifesto*. London: Hillgate Group.

HM Treasury (2003) *Every Child Matters*, Cmnd 5860. London: HMSO.

Husbands, C., Kitson, A., and Pendry, A. (2003) *Understanding History Teaching: Teaching and Learning about the Past in Secondary Schools*. Berkshire: OUP.

HW-CET (2005) (unpublished) *Hadrian's Wall Education Kit* (Draft). Newcastle University: HW-CET.

IBE (1995) *Declaration and Integrated Framework of Action on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy*. 44th Session of the International Conference on Education. Geneva: UNESCO.

IBE (1996) *Strengthening the role of Teachers in a Changing World*. 45th Session of the International Conference on Education. Geneva: UNESCO.

IBE (2001) *Education For All For Learning To Live Together: Contents and Learning Strategies-Problems and Solutions*. 46th Session of the International Conference on Education. Geneva: UNESCO.

IBE (1997) What Education for What Citizenship? *Educational Innovation and Information* Issue No. 93.

IBE (1998) Learning To Live Together Through the Teaching of History and Geography. *Educational Innovation and Information* Issue No. 95.

IBE (2007) *Learning to Live Together-What to Teach and How?* [Internet]. Available from <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/learning/teach.htm> [Accessed 28 September 2007].

IBE (2011a) *History of IBE* [Internet] Available from <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/en/about-the-ibe/who-we-are/history> [Accessed 23 September 2011].

IBE (2011b) *Historical Note by Pedro Rossello* [Internet] Available from http://www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Pu [Accessed 23 September 2011].

IBE (2011c) *Jean Piaget* [Internet] Available from <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/en/about-the-ibe/who-we-are/history/ibe-directors> [Accessed 2 December 2011].

ICOMOS (1964) *International Charter for the Conservation and Restoration of Monuments and Sites* (Venice Charter). 2nd International Congress of Architects and Technicians of Historic Monuments, Venice 25-31 May 1964, Venice. Available at http://www.icomos.org/venice_charter.html

Ivic, I. (1994) Lev S. Vygotsky (1896-1934) *Prospects* XXIV (3/4): 471-485.

Jordanova, L. (2006) *History in Practice*. London: Hodder Arnold.

Jurassic Coast (2009a) *Making Sense Of Our Sites: Learning about the Jurassic Coast* [Internet]. Available from <http://jurassiccoast.com/downloads/Education> [Accessed 5 October 2009]

Jurassic Coast (2009b) *Educational Resources* [Internet]. Available from <http://jurassiccoast.com/373/catagory/download-resources> [Accessed 5 October 2009]

Keatinge, M. (1910) *Studies in the Teaching of History*. London: Black.

Kelly, A.V. (2005) *The Curriculum: Theory and Practice*. London: SAGE

Khawajkie, E. (1996a) *unpublished fax to P. Stone*, 5 June.

Khawajkie, E. (1996b) *unpublished fax to P. Stone*, 27 June.

Khawajkie, E. (1996c) *unpublished address to UNESCO panel of experts*, Hvar, Croatia, 17 July.

- Khawajkie, E. (1996d) *unpublished fax to P. Stone*, 2 August.
- Kitson, A. (2004) The National Strategy for Key Stage 3 In: Brooks, V., Abbott, I., and Bills, L. (eds) *Preparing to teach in Secondary Schools: A Student Teacher's Guide to Professional issues in Secondary Education*. Berkshire: OUP.
- Kvisteroy, I. (1996a) *unpublished address to delegates attending the First World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik, Croatia*, 27 May.
- Kvisteroy, I (1996b) *unpublished fax to P. Stone*, 16 December.
- Kvisteroy, I (1996c) *unpublished fax to P. Stone*, 16 December.
- Kvisteroy, I. (1997) *unpublished fax to P. Stone*, 18 June.
- Kvisteroy, I. and Stone, P. (1997) *unpublished document addressed to NORAD*, 28 April.
- Lambert, D. and Balderstone, D. (2010) *Learning to Teach Geography in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience*. London: Routledge.
- Lawton, D (1981) The Schools Council and the Curriculum. In *Education Policy Bulletin* Vol.9 No. 2: pp 167-172.
- Lawton, D and Chitty, C. (1988) (eds) *The National Curriculum*, Bedford Way Papers 33, London: University of London Institute of Education.
- Leask, A. (2006) World Heritage Site designation. In: Leask, A. and Fyall, A. (eds) *Managing World Heritage*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Li, F. (2006) Tourism, Development, Empowerment and the Tibetan Minority: Jiuzhaigou National Nature Reserve, China. In: Leask, A. and Fyall, A. (eds) *Managing World Heritage*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

- Lloyd-Evans, G. (1986) Education: Fashionable Concepts. In: O'Keeffe, D. (ed) *The Wayward Curriculum: A Cause for Parental Concern*. Social Affairs Unit: London.
- MacPherson, W. (1999) *The Stephen Lawrence Enquiry*, CM 4262. London: HMSO.
- Marti, E. (1996) Piaget and Social Aspects of Knowledge. Piaget and School Education: A Socio-Cultural Challenge. *Prospects* XXVI (1): 141-158.
- Marks, J. (1986) Educational Policies on Race. In: O'Keeffe, D. (ed) *The Wayward Curriculum: A Cause for Parental Concern*. Social Affairs Unit: London.
- Marwick, A (2001) *The New Nature of History*. 3rd ed. Basingstoke: Palgrave.
- Mason, P. and Kuo, I. (2006) Visitor Management at Stonehenge UK. In: Leask, A. and Fyall, A. (eds) *Managing World Heritage*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Maw, J. (1988) National Curriculum Policy: Coherence and Progression In: Lawton, D and Chitty, C (eds) *The National Curriculum*, Bedford Way Papers 33, London: University of London Institute of Education.
- Mayer-Bisch (1995) *Culture of Democracy: A Challenge for Schools*. Paris: UNESCO
- Millar, S. (2006) Stakeholders and Community Participants. In: Leask, A. and Fyall, A. (eds) *Managing World Heritage*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Ministry of Justice/British Institute for Human Rights (2008) *Right Here, Right Now-Teaching Citizenship through Human Rights: A Resource for Key Stage 3 Teachers*. London: MOJ/BIHR.
- Moon, B. (1994) The National Curriculum: Origins, Context and Implementation In: Moon, B. and Mayes, A.S. (eds) *Teaching and Learning in the Secondary School*. London: Routledge.
- Moon, B. and Mayes, A.S. (eds) (1994) *Teaching and Learning in the Secondary School*. London: Routledge.

- Muller, U., Carpendale, J. and Smith, L. (2009) *The Cambridge Companion to Piaget*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Munars, A (1994) Jean Piaget 1896-1980. *Prospects* XXIV (1/2): 311-327.
- National Curriculum Council (1991) *History: Non-Statutory Guidance*. London: HMSO.
- NATO (1941a) Declaration of St. James [Internet]. Available from <http://www.un.org/en/aboutun/saint-james> [Accessed 30 September 2008].
- NATO (1941b) *Declaration of Principles issued by the President of the United States and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (The Atlantic Charter)* [Internet]. Available from <http://www.nato.int/docu/basic/b410814a.htm> [Accessed 30 September 2008].
- Newcastle University (2005) (unpublished) *Report on the World Heritage Education Forum held in Newcastle 6-11 April 2005*. Newcastle University.
- O'Keeffe, D. (ed) (1986) *The Wayward Curriculum: A Cause for Parental Concern*. Social Affairs Unit: London.
- OCR (2008a) *GCSE History (Pilot 1938)*. Available at <http://www.ocr.org.uk>
- OCR (2008b) *GCSE History A (Schools History Project J415) History Around Us: Specimen Controlled Assessment*. Available at <http://www.ocr.org.uk>
- OCR (2008c) *GCSE History A (Schools History Project J415)*. Available at <http://www.ocr.org.uk>
- OFSTED (2005) *Citizenship in Secondary Schools: evidence from OFSTED Inspectors (2003-4)* Available at <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk>
- OFSTED (2006) *Towards Consensus: Citizenship in Secondary Schools*. Report No. HMI 2666 Available at <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk>

OFSTED (2007) *History in the Balance: History in English Schools 2003-2007*. Report No. HMI 070043. Available at <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk>

OFSTED (2008a) *Geography in Schools: Changing Practice*. Report No. HMI 070044. Available at <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk>

OFSTED (2008b) *Learning Outside the Classroom: How Far Should We Go?* Report No. HMI 070219. Available at <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk>

OFSTED (2010) *Citizenship established? Citizenship in schools 2006-9*. Report No. HMI 090159. Available at <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk>

OFSTED (2011a) *History for all: History in English schools 2007-10*. Report No. HMI 090223. Available at <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk>

OFSTED (2011b) *Geography: Learning to make a world of difference*. Report No. HMI 090224. Available at <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk>

Osler, A. (2000) *Citizenship and Democracy in Schools: Diversity, Identity, Equality*. Stoke on Trent: Trentham.

Osler, A. and Morrison, M. (2000) *Inspecting Schools for Race Equality*. Stoke on Trent: Trentham Books.

Osler, A. and Starkey, H. (2005) *Changing Citizenship: Democracy and Inclusion in Education*. Berkshire: OUP.

Palmer, F. (1986) *Anti-racism: An Assault on Education and Value*. London: Sherwood.

Partington, G. (1980) *The Idea of an Historical Education*. Berkshire: NFER Publishing.

Partington, G. (1986) History Re-written to ideological fashion. In: *The Wayward Curriculum: A Cause for Parental Concern*. Social Affairs Unit: London.

- Perers, M. (1997) *unpublished fax to P. Stone*, 5 March.
- Phillips, I. (2008) *Teaching History: Developing as a Reflective Secondary Teacher*. London: SAGE.
- Phillips, R. (1998) *History Teaching, Nationhood and the State: A Study in Educational Politics*. London: Cassell.
- Phillips, R. (2002) *Reflective Teaching of History 11-18*. London: Continuum.
- Piaget, J. (1932) *The Moral Judgement of the Child*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner.
- Piaget, J. (1971) *Science of Education and the Psychology of the Child*. Harlow: Longman
- Pigozzi, M. J. (2006) A UNESCO View of Global Citizenship Education. *Educational Review* 58 (1) 1-4.
- Plaskow, M. (1985) *Life and Death of the Schools Council*. London: Falmer Press.
- Pol-Droit, R. (2005) *Humanity in the Making: Overview of the Intellectual History of UNESCO 1945-2005*. Paris: UNESCO.
- QCA (2005) *History: 2004/5 Annual Report on Curriculum and Assessment*. London: QCA.
- QCA (2006a) *National Curriculum, History, personal development and Every Child Matters* [online]. Available at <http://curriculum.qca.org.uk/subjects/history/History> [Accessed 6 December 2006].
- QCA (2006b) *National Curriculum, Geography, personal development and Every Child Matters* [online]. Available at <http://curriculum.qca.org.uk/subjects/history/History> [Accessed 6 December 2006].

QCA (2006c) *National Curriculum, Citizenship, personal development and Every Child Matters* [online]. Available at <http://curriculum.qca.org.uk/subjects/history/History> [Accessed 6 December 2006].

QCA (2007a) *GCSE Subject Criteria for Citizenship Studies* (QCA/07/3443) London: QCA

QCA (2007b) *GCSE Subject Criteria for Geography* (QCA/07/3452) London: QCA

QCA (2007c) *GCSE Subject Criteria for History*. London: QCA.

QCA (2007d) *The Global Dimension in Action: A Curriculum Planning Guide for Schools*. London: QCA.

QCA/DCSF (2007) *The National Curriculum: Statutory Requirements for Key Stages 3 and 4*. London: QCA/DCSF. Available at <http://www.qca.org.uk/curriculum> [Accessed 5 October 2007].

Quicke, J. (1988) The New Right and Education. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 26 (1) 5-20.

Reimers, F. (2006) Citizenship, Identity and Education: Examining the Public Purposes of Schools in an age of Globalisation. *Prospects* XXXVI (3) 275-293.

Regan, D. (1986) Sociology and Politics: Unsuitable Subjects for School. In: O'Keeffe, D. (ed) *The Wayward Curriculum: A Cause for Parental Concern*. Social Affairs Unit: London.

Rogers, P.J. (1984) *The New History: Theory into Practice*. Historical Association No. 44. London: Historical Association.

Rouissi, M. (2002) Learning To Live Together: An integral part of Citizenship Education. *Prospects* XXXII (1) 83-86.

Ross, A (2000) *Curriculum: Construction and Critique*. London: Falmer Press.

- Shackley, M. (2006) Visitor Management at World Heritage Sites. In: Leask, A. and Fyall, A. (eds) *Managing World Heritage*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Schlesinger, S.C. (2003) *Act of Creation: The Founding of the United Nations*. Boulder CO: Westview Press.
- Schools Council 13-16 Project (1976) *A New Look at History*. Edinburgh: Holmes MacDougall.
- Schweisfurth, M. (2005) Learning To Live Together: A Review of UNESCO's Associated Schools Project Network. *International Review of Education* 51 (1) 219-235.
- Scruton, R. (1986) Peace Studies: No True Subject. In: O'Keeffe, D. (ed) *The Wayward Curriculum: A Cause for Parental Concern*. Social Affairs Unit: London.
- Shemilt, D. (1980) *History 13-16 Evaluation Study: Schools Council History 13-16 Project*. Edinburgh: Holmes MacDougall.
- Shivlock, K. (2004) The National Literacy Strategy In: Brooks, V., Abbott, I., and Bills, L. (eds) *Preparing to teach in Secondary Schools: A Student Teacher's Guide to Professional issues in Secondary Education*. Berkshire: OUP.
- Sinclair, M. (2004) *Learning To Live Together: Building Skills, Values and Attitudes for the Twenty-First Century*. Geneva: IBE.
- Slater, J. (1989) *The Politics of History Teaching: A Humanity Dehumanized?* Institute of Education, Special Professorial Lecture. London: Institute of Education.
- Starkey, H. (2007) Teaching and Learning about Human Rights. *Teaching Citizenship* No. 18 (Summer 2007): 10-14.
- Stone, P. (1990) (unpublished) *Teaching the Past, with special reference to Prehistory, in English Primary Education*, PhD, University of Southampton.
- Stone, P. (1996a) *unpublished notes relating to the First World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik, Croatia, 27-28 May*.

- Stone, P. (1996b) *unpublished letter to E. Khawajkie*, 10 June.
- Stone, P. (1996c) *unpublished notes relating to the meeting of the UNESCO panel of experts*, Hvar, Croatia, 18 July.
- Stone, P. (1996d) *unpublished letter to I. Kvisteroy*, 9 August.
- Stone, P. (1996e) *unpublished memorandum to M. Corbishley*, 12 August.
- Stone, P. (1996f) *unpublished letter to E. Khawajkie*, 19 August.
- Stone, P. (1996g) *unpublished fax to I. Kvisteroy*, 27 November.
- Stone, P. (1996h) *unpublished fax to I. Kvisteroy*, 2 December.
- Stone, P. (1997) *unpublished fax to I. Kvisteroy*, 11 February.
- Stone, P. (2004) Education and the Historic Environment in the Twenty First Century. In Henson, S. Stone, P. and Corbishley, M. (eds) *Education and the Historic Environment*. London: Routledge.
- Stone, P. and Mackenzie, R. (1990) *The Excluded Past: Archaeology in Education*. London: Unwin Hyman.
- Stone, P. and Molyneaux, B. (1994) *The Presented Past: Heritage, Museums and Education*. London: Routledge.
- Stone, P. and Planel, P. (1999) *The Constructed Past: Experimental Archaeology, Education and the Public*. London: Routledge.
- Sylvester, D. (1994) Change and Continuity in History Teaching 1900-1993. In Bourdillon, H. *Teaching History*. London: Routledge.

- TGAT (1987) *Report of the Task Group on Assessment and Testing*. London: DES
- Tosh, J. (2006) *The Pursuit of History*. 4th ed. London: Pearson Longman.
- Truman, P. (1985) Valediction or Obituary? A Critical Assessment of the Contribution of the Schools Council to Curriculum Development in this country in *Curriculum* (8) 1985 10-16.
- Twoemy Fosnot, C. (1996) *Constructivism: Theory, Perspectives and Practice*. New York: Teacher's College Press.
- UK Government (2007) *The Consolidated 3rd and 4th Periodic Report to UN Committee on the Rights of the Child*. Available at http://www.ofmdmni.gov.uk/uk_uncrc-2.pdf
- UNESCO (1945) *The UNESCO Constitution*. Available at <http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php>
- UNESCO (1952) *Seventh Session of the UNESCO General Council*. [online]. Available at <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0011/001145/114587e>
- UNESCO (1972) *Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage* [online]. Available at <http://whc.unesco.org/archive/convention-en.pdf>
- UNESCO (1974) *Recommendation Concerning Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace and Education Relating to the Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms*. Paris: General Council of UNESCO [online]. Available at http://www.lawphil.net/international/treaties/conv_nonum_1974.html
- UNESCO-UNEP (1977) *The Tbilisi Declaration: Final Report Intergovernmental Conference on Environmental Education*. Organized by UNESCO in cooperation with UNEP Tbilisi, USSR 14-26 October 1977, Paris. [online] Available at <http://www.gdrc.org/uem/ee/tbilisi.html>
- UNESCO (1985) UNESCO 1945: Birth of an Ideal. *The Courier* October 1985.

UNESCO (1989) *European Environmental Education for Our Common Future*. European Regional Seminar, Lillehammer 7-12 May 1989. Available at

UNESCO (1990) *World Decade for Cultural Development 1998-1997: Strategy for the Implementation of the Plan of Action*. Available at <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0008/000852> [Accessed 5 December 2011]

UNESCO (1993) *Establishment of the World Commission on Culture and Development*. Paris: UNESCO General Conference [online]. Available at <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0009/000957/>

UNESCO (1995) *Declaration of Principles on Tolerance*. Paris: UNESCO General Conference [online]. Available at <http://www.unesco.org/cpp>

UNESCO (1996a) *Proceedings of a Roundtable: Culture, Tourism, Development: Crucial Issues for the XXI Century*, Paris 26-27 June 1996 [online]. Available at <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0010/c01085/108>

UNESCO (1996b) *unpublished agenda for the First European World Heritage Youth Forum*, Dubrovnik, Croatia, 25-31 May.

UNESCO (1997a) *unpublished fax to P. Stone*, 7 August.

UNESCO (1997b) *unpublished Our World Heritage: To Know, Love and Act. (Draft)*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (1998a) *unpublished press release*, 4 June.

UNESCO (1998b) *World Heritage in Young Hands: To Know, Cherish and Act. An Educational Resource Kit for Teachers*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (1998c) *All Human Beings: A Manual for Human Rights Education*. Paris: UNESCO

UNESCO (1998d) *UNESCO's Transdisciplinary Project, "Towards A Culture of Peace."* Available at <http://www.unesco.org/cpp/uk> [Accessed 28 March 2009]

UNESCO Schools (1996a) *unpublished presentation to delegates attending the First European World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik, Croatia, 25-31 May.*

UNESCO Schools (1996b) *unpublished presentation to the First European World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik, Croatia by Associated Schools in Senegal, 27 May.*

UNESCO Schools (1996c) *unpublished presentation to the First European World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik, Croatia by Associated Schools in Egypt, 27 May.*

UNESCO Schools (1996d) *unpublished presentation to the First European World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik, Croatia by Associated Schools in New Zealand, 27 May.*

UNESCO Schools (1996e) *unpublished presentation to the First European World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik, Croatia by Associated Schools in Greece, 27 May.*

UNESCO Schools (1996f) *unpublished presentation to the First European World Heritage Youth Forum, Dubrovnik, Croatia by Associated Schools in Bulgaria, 27 May.*

United Nations (1945) *The Charter of the United Nations* [online]. Available at <http://www.un.org/en/documents/charter/intro>

United Nations (1948) *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. New York: General Assembly of the United Nations.

United Nations (1954) *Convention for the Protection of Cultural Property in the Event of Armed Conflict* [Online]. Available at http://www.unesco.org.uk/convention_for_the_protection

United Nations (1972) *Declaration of the United Nations Conference on Human Environment*. Stockholm: General Assembly of the United Nations [online]. Available at <http://www.unep.org/Documents.Multilingual/Default.Print.asp?>

United Nations (1986) *Declaration on the Right to Development*, Resolution 41/128. New York: General Assembly of the United Nations.

United Nations (1986) *Proclamation of the World Decade for Cultural Development*. Paris: General Assembly of the United Nations [online]. Available at <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/41/a41r187.htm>

United Nations (1989) *Convention on the Rights of the Child*. New York: General Assembly of the United Nations. Available at <http://www2.ohcr.org/english/law/pdf>

United Nations (1992a) *Rio Declaration on Environment and Development*. Paris: General Assembly of the United Nations [online]. Available at <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/conf151/aconf15126-1annex1.htm>

United Nations (1992b) *Rio Earth Summit: Agenda 21, The United Nations Programme of Action*, Rio de Janeiro, 3rd-14th June 1992 [online]. Available at <http://www.un.org/esa/dsd/agenda21>

United Nations (1994) *Resolution on the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education 1995-2004*. Paris: General Assembly of the United Nations [online]. Available at <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/49/a49r184.htm>

United Nations (1998) *Proclamation of the Year 2000 as the International Year for A Culture of Peace*. Paris: General Assembly of the United Nations [online]. Available at <http://www.unesco.org/cpp/uk/>

United Nations (1999) *Declaration on A Culture of Peace*. Paris: General Assembly of the United Nations [online]. Available at <http://www.un-documents.net/a53r243a.htm>

United Nations (2010a) *History of the United Nations* [Internet]. Available from <http://www.un.org/en/aboutun/history> [Accessed 1 March 2010].

United Nations (2010b) *History of the Charter of the United Nations* [Internet]. Available from <http://www.un.org/en/aboutun/charter/history/> [Accessed 4 March 2010].

UNICEF (2004) *Every Child Matters: The Five Outcomes and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC)* (Code 32016) Available <http://www.unicef.org.uk/tz> [Accessed 28 September 2009]

- Valderrama, F. (1995) *A History of UNESCO*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Wadsworth, B.J. (1978) *Piaget for the Classroom Teacher*. London: Longman.
- Watts, R. and Grosvenor, I (1995) *Crossing the Key Stages of History: Effective History Teaching 5-16 and Beyond*. London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Weil, P. (2002) *The Art of Living in Peace: Guide to Education for A Culture of Peace*. UNESCO: Paris.
- Wertsch, J.V. (1985) *Vygotsky and the Social Formation of the Mind*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Westbrook, J. (2009) The Secondary National Strategy In: Davison, J. and Dowson, J. (eds) *Learning to Teach English in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience*. 3rd ed. London: Routledge.
- Wheatley, G. (2007) *World Heritage Sites: A Teacher's Guide*. London: English Heritage.
- Wood, D. (1988) *How children think and learn*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- World Commission on Culture and Development (1996) *Our Creative Diversity: A Report of the World Commission on Culture and Development*. Paris: UNESCO. Available at <http://www.unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0010/001055/105586e.pdf>
- World Commission on Environment and Development (1987) *Our Common Future: A Report of the World Commission on the Environment and Development*. Oxford: OUP. Available at <http://www.un-documents.net/wced-ocf.htm>
- World Heritage Centre (2011a) *The List*. Available at: <http://www.whc.unesco.org/en/list>
- World Heritage Centre (2011b) *Youth Fora*. Available at: <http://www.whc.unesco.org/en/activities>

World Tourism Organisation (1989) *The Hague Declaration on Tourism*. The Hague, 14 April 1993 [online]. Available at <http://www.mnua.hu/pdf/world-organisation>

Tomlinson, S. (2005) *Education in a Post-Welfare Society*. 2nd ed. Maidenhead: OUP.

Wright, C. (1994) Black Children's Experience of the Education System In: Moon, B. and Mayes, A.S. (eds) *Teaching and Learning in the Secondary School*. London: Routledge

Appendix 1: Table of Interviewees and Personal Communications

Name	Position/Reason for communication	Date and circumstances of communication
Ann Breivik	National Coordinator for ASP (net) and member of MSOS Team.	• 16 May 2009 recorded interview via telephone.
Tom Boden	MSOS Delegate representing City of Bath WHS	• 20-22 May 2009: informal communication MSOS.
Liz Craft	QCA advisor for Citizenship.	• 12 Nov 2008: communication via email. • 16 Dec 2008: recorded interview, London.
Ross Elliot	MSOS Delegate representing Hadrian's Wall WHS	• 29-31 Sep 2010: informal communication MSOS.
Jerome Freeman	QCA advisor for History.	• 7 Nov 2008: communication via email. • 16 Dec 2008: recorded interview, London.
Anjana Ford	Education Officer for Jurassic Coast WHS and member of MSOS Team.	• 20-22 May 2009: informal communication MSOS. • 29-31 Sep 2010: informal communication MSOS. • 6 Oct 2009: recorded interview via telephone. • 12 May 2011: recorded interview via telephone.
David Gardner	QCA advisor for Geography.	• 11 Nov 2008: communication via email. • 1 Dec 2008: recorded interview via telephone.
Elizabeth Khawajkie	Former ASP (net) Coordinator and co-author of Young Hands.	• 31 Oct-8 Nov: communication via email. • 11 Dec 2008: recorded interview, Paris.

Ingunn Kvisteroy	Deputy Secretary General of the Norwegian National Commission for UNESCO and co-author of Young Hands.	• 12 Nov 2008: communication via email. • 25 Nov 2008: recorded interview via telephone.
Enid Lodge	MSOS Delegate representing City of Liverpool WHS.	• 29-31 Sep 2010: informal communication MSOS.
Craig McHugh	MSOS Delegate representing Saltaire WHS.	• 20-22 May 2009: informal communication MSOS. • 29-31 Sep 2010: informal communication MSOS.
Sigrid Niedermayer	ASP (net) coordinator	• 9 Dec 2008: recorded interview, Paris.
Breda Pavlic	Former Deputy Director of WHC and co-author of Young Hands.	• 24 Oct-25 Nov: communication via email. • 28 Nov 2008: recorded interview via telephone.
Carmella Quin	Assistant Programme Specialist at WHC.	• 10 Dec 2008: recorded interview, Paris.
Livia Saldari	Programme Specialist at ASP (net).	• 30 Oct- 23 Nov: communication via email. • 9 Dec 2008: recorded interview, Paris.
Peter Stone	Director of ICCHS and co-author of Young Hands	• 15 Jan 2009: recorded interview, Newcastle upon Tyne.
Vesna Vujicic-Lugassy	Programme Specialist at WHC	• 10 Dec 2008: recorded interview, Paris.
David Weatherly	Geography Advisor for Dorset LEA and member of MSOS Team.	• 20-22 May 2009: informal communication MSOS. • 29-31 Sep 2010: informal communication MSOS.

Appendix 2: Interview Schedule for the UNESCO panel of experts

Determine the historical context of WHE

1. Detail the events leading from the proposal of a WHE syllabus at UNESCO to the drafting of the first WHE specification.
2. Which specific UN/UNESCO programmes or actions would have had a direct bearing on the design of the WHE syllabus at this time?

Determine the educational context of WHE

3. WHE addresses five themes: World Heritage Convention, World Heritage and Identity, World Heritage and Tourism, World Heritage and the Environment and World Heritage and a Culture of Peace. Which agency/individual suggested these five study themes?
4. What rationale exists for the choice of these five study themes?

Determine the pedagogical context of WHE

5. WHSs are, “a testimony to peace, human rights and democracy” (2002:149). How do the educational activities outlined by WHE support these aims?

6. How can democratic learning methods and active participation in local/ national projects enhance the learning experience of students?
7. In summary, in what ways does the WHE syllabus correlate with the concept of *quality education* as determined by UNESCO?

Determine how WHE may support national curricula

8. The International Bureau of Education has suggested that UNESCO educational programmes may be most effectively addressed through subjects such as history, geography and citizenship/personal and social education. Cross curricular themes such as global studies and education for sustainable development may also support such programmes. To what extent would you agree that such curricula areas are important to the delivery of WHE?
9. What essential knowledge, attitudes and skills should history curricula incorporate to address the concept of learning to live together effectively?
10. What essential knowledge, attitudes and skills should geography curricula incorporate to address the concept of learning to live together effectively?
11. What essential knowledge, attitudes and skills should citizenship curricula incorporate to address the concept of learning to live together effectively?
12. Can you outline a number of examples where Member States have addressed WHE effectively?

Determine the social and political context of WHE

13. Are the educational aims/objectives of Member States always conducive to the introduction of UNESCO educational programmes such as WHE?
14. Are the history, geography and citizenship curricula of Member States always supportive of the aims and objectives of UNESCO programmes such as WHE? If not, what ideological barriers may be encountered?

Determine the organisational context of WHE

15. Originally what plans were made to introduce WHE to schools in England?
16. Currently WHE is a UNESCO cross-sector initiative supported by both the culture sector in the guise of the World Heritage Centre and the education sector? Did the education sector always play such a supportive role in WHE?

Additional Q's for Peter Stone

Determine the educational potential of WHE for the English National Curriculum 2000 Specification.

1. To what extent does the pedagogical approach outlined in WHE reflect pedagogical practices advocated by HMI, Schools Council and DES in the 1970' and 1980's?

2. To what extent does the pedagogical approach outlined in WHE reflect pedagogical practices advocated by English Heritage prior to 2004?
3. To what extent do the WHE thematic units reflect the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values identified by HMI, Schools Council and, to some extent, DES as essential to a school's curriculum?
4. To what extent do the WHE thematic units reflect the aims and objectives of National Curriculum specifications? If they do not, why not?

Appendix 3: Interview Schedule for ASP (net) National Coordinator

1. The post of ASP National Coordinator was funded by CEWC until 2007. This post is now funded by Central Government (DfID) how significant do you consider this change to be?
2. In your Annual Report for 2008 how many Associated Schools are there in England and what proportion of these are secondary schools?
3. On Annual Report forms, how effectively did Associated Schools in England believe they had been supported in implementing UNESCO programmes? Has UNESCO UK identified any areas for improvement?
4. Do you believe that the education sector in England has been slow to embrace the aims and objectives of Associated Schools?
5. Has UNESCO UK reviewed the 2008 National Curriculum specification for England and identified clear opportunities for addressing Associated School's Programmes such as World Heritage Education? If so how is this information being disseminated? If not is it UNESCO UK's intention to do so?

6.

The profile of any school would be enhanced by adopting World Heritage Education and it could be used to develop schemes of work for the local area. Humanities departments would certainly benefit from such an initiative and the enquiry based approach could be used as an exemplar of good teaching practice throughout the school (Jerome Freeman QCA 16/12/2008 personal correspondence).

How should UNESCO UK respond to the new opportunities offered by the introduction of the 2008 National Curriculum? What might be the significance of these changes for World Heritage Education?

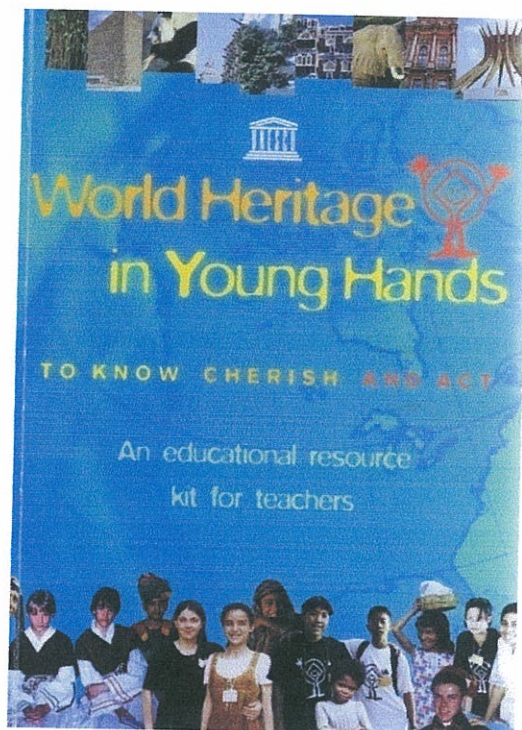
7. Some Associated Schools in England have addressed World Heritage Education. Which institutions or organisations would you identify as being instrumental to this process?

Prompts:

- Jurassic Coast
- Newcastle University
- City of Bath

8. How can UNESCO UK best support those World Heritage Sites wanting to develop educational materials that address World Heritage Education/ World Heritage In Young Hands?

Appendix 4: A synopsis of Young Hands



World Heritage in Young Hands (UNESCO: 2002)

This syllabus may be downloaded at <http://www.unesco.org/whc>

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, or UNESCO, was formed in 1945 and produces a range of educational projects for schools on a global basis. UNESCO educational projects promote the aims and values of the United Nations, these include: peace, Human Rights, cultural and natural diversity, democracy and sustainable development.

The educational syllabus “World Heritage in Young Hands”, or “Young Hands”, was first published in 1998 and subsequently republished in 2002. Young Hands promotes the aims and values of UNESCO and, more specifically, knowledge of sites listed under “The Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage “(UNESCO:1972). England has 17 “World Heritage Sites” (WHSs) differing greatly in geographic context (urban/rural WHSs) and in geological/historical setting; visitors may study the geological

processes which lead to the formation of fossils at Jurassic Coast WHS or gain insight into the harsh realities of life in Roman Britain along Hadrian's Wall WHS. The dynamics of England's Industrial Revolution may be witnessed at Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City WHS or Ironbridge Gorge WHS whilst Stonehenge WHS offers visitors the chance to reflect on the mysteries of prehistory.

All WHSs must provide educational resources and UNESCO recommends that these resources are based on the Young Hands syllabus. UNESCO intends that Young Hands be introduced to all students of secondary school age and it is with this aim in mind that your observations are requested.

Aims/values of Young Hands

Peace, Human Rights, cultural and natural diversity, democracy, sustainable development.

Educational approach of Young Hands

Young Hands promotes "enquiry based learning", students are required to:

- a. Visit WHSs
- b. Identify a key problem or enquiry question
- c. Determine a suitable research strategy
- d. Carry out relevant fieldwork e.g. keeping a field journal, compiling a photographic record, field sketches, monitoring pollution levels, interview key personnel

- e. Analyse the results of fieldwork and reach an informed conclusion
- f. Present results to fellow students using a variety of formats e.g. a written essay, a dedicated website, a short film, a public debate

Young Hands: World Heritage Themes

Young Hands promotes the aims and values of UNESCO and the 1972 Convention through the following World Heritage Themes:

- a. **World Heritage and Identity:** students are encouraged to explore their own national and cultural identity and to explore the national and cultural identity of others;
- b. **World Heritage and Tourism:** this theme explores the importance of cultural tourism to local economies and encourages students to examine both the positive and negative effects of mass tourism;
- c. **World Heritage and the Environment:** students investigate the relationship between natural and human environments as well as studying the importance of maintaining a diverse ecosystem;
- d. **World Heritage and Peace:** by studying key human rights instruments such as the “United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child” (UNCRC) students learn to appreciate the cultural identity of others. Students are also introduced to the skills of conflict resolution through democratic discussion and teamwork.

Appendix 5: Interview Schedule for QCA History

1. A brief summary of the World Heritage Education syllabus (entitled World Heritage in Young Hands) is provided. To what extent would you agree that WHE may be used to support the delivery of history in schools?

Prompts:

- a) The importance of fieldwork and enquiry based learning.
- b) Developing enquiry based skills e.g. formulation of enquiry questions, developing fieldwork skills to collate evidence, testing assumptions and hypotheses, detection of bias in source evidence, reaching informed conclusions.
- c) Developing social skills e.g. team working, developing leadership skills, negotiation skills.
- d) Students appreciate the uniqueness of cultural and natural sites in England and develop a respect for those of other cultures. They are encouraged to develop a global identity.
- e) Students develop an appreciation for the interdependence between natural and cultural aspects of sites.
- f) Students appreciate the links between heritage sites and the heritage industry.
- g) Vocational training introduces students to the positive and negative aspect of the tourism industry.
- h) Students develop conservation skills and develop an appreciation of sustainable development.

- i) Students are introduced to heritage in relation to human rights legislation. They learn respect for the cultural traditions of others and importance of teamwork.
 - j) Students learn the importance of sustainable development in maintaining cultural diversity and biodiversity.
- 2) “Our aim has been to increase flexibility. The new curriculum builds on the best of the past by maintaining the discipline of subjects, but at the same time offering greater opportunities for personalised learning, addressing the major challenges that face society and equipping young people with the skills for life and work in the 21st Century “(QCA press release 12 July 2007).

How does this statement relate to the new history KS3 Curriculum?

- 3) Sir Keith Ajegbo noted in “Diversity and Citizenship” (DfES: 2007) that most schools in England do not comply with the “Race Relations Amendment Act” (RRAA: 2000) and promote race relations. Only two thirds of schools fulfil their minimum statutory duty under RRAA of developing a race relations policy (DfES 2007:34)

Source for Question 3

Sir Keith Ajegbo, the author of a report on an inquiry into how to promote British values in schools, spoke out about the shocking statistic that black Afro-Caribbean boys were three times more likely to be permanently excluded from school than white youngsters.... The Afro-Caribbean boys and white boys might have done the same thing but the Afro-Caribbean is excluded. This still happens in schools and it might be to do with institutional racism. This needs to be looked at. I’m not in any way suggesting that schools are overtly racist but it could be built into the sub-conscious of the school... (The Independent 30 October 2007: Schools told to root out institutional racism.)

Is institutional racism a barrier to promoting cultural diversity in English Schools?

- 4) How would you define the problems currently faced by history teachers in delivering the history curriculum?

Prompts:

- a) Teacher training at primary level;
 - b) Subject leadership secondary level;
 - c) Continued professional development;
 - d) Humanities allocated low subject status by senior managers;
 - e) Lack of curriculum time;
 - f) Schools prioritising Standard Assessment Tests;
 - g) Introduction of literacy and numeracy strategies;
 - h) Introduction of secondary national strategy with suggested three part lesson plan;
 - i) Students are unaware of the vocational relevance of the subject.
- 5) From the sources cited below how could the history curriculum in some schools have developed in this manner? What actions have QCA taken to support schools in making their teaching of history more inclusive?

Source 1 for Question 5.

The way in which many schools interpret the National Curriculum also means that they fail to tackle other important needs.... the curriculum is heavily based on aspects of English history. Those parts of the curriculum relating to Scotland, Wales and Ireland are very largely ignored, as are major European and World themes...in many schools the stories of the people who have come to Britain over the centuries are ignored, even though these include the personal histories of some of the pupils (OFSTED 2007: History in the Balance).

Source 2 for Question 5

Too little attention is given to the black and multiethnic aspects of UK history. The teaching of black history is often confined to topics about slavery and post-war immigration or to Black History Month. The effect, if inadvertent, is to undervalue the overall contribution of black and minority ethnic people to the UK's past and to ignore their cultural, scientific and many other achievements (QCA 2005).

- 6) The citizenship curriculum at KS3 and KS4 will now incorporate a study of modern British history, "Identity and Diversity: Living Together in the UK". The aim is to identify a range of common British values, or "Britishness," and instil a sense of community cohesion. Does current research not show that such history teaching will simply promote the history of the dominant cultural grouping and ignore the contribution of minorities?
- 7) Recent studies have noted that GCSE, AS and A2 specifications in England have a rather narrow focus (History Association 2005 Curriculum Development Project and OFSTED 2007). Many periods of history are marginalised or simply not represented. It has been suggested that close links between awarding bodies and publishing houses, the practice of retaining examiners as textbook authors and the use of experts from such textbooks as

historical source material for GCSE papers have culminated in the narrowing of history syllabuses. Comment please.

- 8) What changes were made to history GCSE subject criteria in 2007? Why was controlled assessment introduced and what effect has this had on specifications offered by Awarding Bodies e.g. OCR pilot syllabus?
- 9) What contribution should “Learning Outside the Classroom” (LOtC) make to raising the profile of history in the school curriculum.

Appendix 6: Interview Schedule for QCA Geography

N/C Geography

1. A brief summary of the World Heritage Education syllabus (entitled World Heritage in Young Hands) is provided. To what extent would you agree that WHE may be used to support the delivery of Geography in schools?

Prompts:

- a) The importance of fieldwork and enquiry based learning.
- b) Developing enquiry based skills e.g. formulation of enquiry questions, developing fieldwork skills to collate evidence, testing assumptions and hypotheses, detection of bias in source evidence, reaching informed conclusions.
- c) Developing social skills e.g. team working, developing leadership skills, negotiation skills.
- d) Students appreciate the uniqueness of cultural and natural sites in England and develop a respect for those of other cultures. They are encouraged to develop a global identity.
- e) Students develop an appreciation for the interdependence between natural and cultural aspects of sites.
- f) Students appreciate the links between heritage sites and the heritage industry.
- g) Vocational training introduces students to the positive and negative aspect of the tourism industry.

- h) Students develop conservation skills and develop an appreciation of sustainable development.
 - i) Students are introduced to heritage in relation to human rights legislation. They learn respect for the cultural traditions of others and importance of teamwork.
 - j) Students learn the importance of sustainable development in maintaining cultural diversity and biodiversity.
2. "Our aim has been to increase flexibility. The new curriculum builds on the best of the past by maintaining the discipline of subjects, but at the same time offering greater opportunities for personalised learning, addressing the major challenges that face society and equipping young people with the skills for life and work in the 21st Century." (QCA press release 12 July 2007).
- How does this statement relate to the new geography KS3 Curriculum?
3. "Sir Keith Ajegbo, the author of a report on an inquiry into how to promote British values in schools, spoke out about the shocking statistic that black Afro-Caribbean boys were three times more likely to be permanently excluded from school than white youngsters.... The Afro-Caribbean boys and white boys might have done the same thing but the Afro-Caribbean is excluded. This still happens in schools and it might be to do with institutional racism. This needs to be looked at. I'm not in any way suggesting that schools are overtly racist but it could be built into the sub-conscious of the school..." (The Independent 30 October 2007: Schools told to root out institutional racism.)

In addition to the above Sir Keith Ajegbo noted in "Diversity and Citizenship" (DfES: 2007) that most schools in England do not comply with the "Race Relations Amendment Act" (RRAA: 2000) and promote race relations. Only two thirds of schools fulfil their minimum statutory duty under RRAA of developing a race relations policy (DfES 2007:34)

Is institutional racism a barrier to promoting cultural diversity in English Schools?

4. How would you define the problems currently faced by geography teachers in delivering the geography curriculum?

Prompts:

- a) Teacher training at primary level;
 - b) Subject leadership secondary level;
 - c) Continued professional development;
 - d) Humanities allocated low subject status by senior managers;
 - e) Lack of curriculum time;
 - f) Schools prioritising Standard Assessment Tests;
 - g) Introduction of literacy and numeracy strategies;
 - h) Introduction of secondary national strategy with suggested three part lesson plan;
 - i) Students are unaware of the vocational relevance of the subject.
5. OFSTED estimate that many primary schools and two thirds of secondary schools do not meet the minimum standards for fieldwork provision (OFSTED 2008: Changing Practice). Why do schools not address this need with greater effect? Should development of

fieldwork skills have been incorporated within the statements of attainment for the new geography specification?

6. What changes were made to geography subject criteria in 2007? Why was controlled assessment introduced and what effect has this had on specifications offered by awarding bodies e.g. OCR pilot syllabus?
7. What contribution should *Learning Outside the Classroom* make to raising the profile of fieldwork in relation to geography.

The Global Dimension and Sustainable Development

1. In what ways does the Global Dimension and Sustainable Development relate to other cross-curricular dimensions such as Identity and Cultural Diversity, Community Participation and Creativity and Critical Thinking.
2. A brief summary of the World Heritage Education syllabus (entitled World Heritage in Young Hands) is provided. To what extent would you agree that WHE may be used to support the delivery of the Global Dimension and Sustainable Development in schools?

Prompts:

- a) The importance of fieldwork and enquiry based learning.
- b) Developing enquiry based skills e.g. formulation of enquiry questions, developing fieldwork skills to collate evidence, testing assumptions and hypotheses, detection of bias in source evidence, reaching informed conclusions.

- c) Developing social skills e.g. team working, developing leadership skills, negotiation skills.
 - d) Students appreciate the uniqueness of cultural and natural sites in England and develop a respect for those of other cultures. They are encouraged to develop a global identity.
 - e) Students develop an appreciation for the interdependence between natural and cultural aspects of sites.
 - f) Students appreciate the links between heritage sites and the heritage industry.
 - g) Vocational training introduces students to the positive and negative aspect of the tourism industry.
 - h) Students develop conservation skills and develop an appreciation of sustainable development.
 - i) Students are introduced to heritage in relation to human rights legislation. They learn respect for the cultural traditions of others and importance of teamwork.
 - j) Students learn the importance of sustainable development in maintaining cultural diversity and biodiversity.
3. Developing the Global Dimension (DfES: 2005) identifies conflict resolution as a key concept of the Global Dimension. UNESCO's research has shown that educational curricula which promote "national identity" may well alienate minority cultures and be a source of conflict (see source below). The citizenship curriculum at KS3 and KS4 will now incorporate a study of modern British history, "Identity and Diversity: Living Together in the UK". The aim is to identify a range of common British values, or

Britishness, and instil a sense of community cohesion. Is it wrong for National Curriculum citizenship to promote the concept of “Britishness?”

Source for Question 3

The way in which many schools interpret the National Curriculum also means that they fail to tackle other important needs.... the curriculum is heavily based on aspects of English history. Those parts of the curriculum relating to Scotland, Wales and Ireland are very largely ignored, as are major European and World themes...in many schools the stories of the people who have come to Britain over the centuries are ignored, even though these include the personal histories of some of the pupils (OFSTED 2007).

4. Developing the Global Dimension (DfES 2005) identifies human rights and global citizenship as key concepts of the Global Dimension. Global human values are defined by both the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights and the United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child. The moral and legal authority of these human rights instruments is universally acknowledged and the UK is a signatory to both. Should national curriculum citizenship not be predicated on global citizenship rather than seeking to define a national identity?
5. Sir Keith Ajegbo noted in “Diversity and Citizenship” (DfES: 2007) that most schools in England do not comply with the “Race Relations Amendment Act” (RRAA: 2000) and promote race relations. Only two thirds of schools fulfil their minimum statutory duty under RRAA of developing a race relations policy (DfES 2007:34)

Source for Question 5

Sir Keith Ajegbo, the author of a report on an inquiry into how to promote British values in schools, spoke out about the shocking statistic that black Afro-Caribbean boys were three times more likely to be permanently excluded from school than white youngsters.... The Afro-Caribbean boys and white boys might have done the same thing but the Afro-Caribbean is excluded. This still happens in schools and it might be to do with institutional racism. This needs to be looked at. I'm not in any way suggesting that schools are overtly racist but it could be built into the sub-conscious of the school... (The Independent 30 October 2007: Schools told to root out institutional racism.)

Is institutional racism a barrier to promoting cultural diversity in English Schools?

6. Developing the Global Dimension (DfES: 2005) identifies Sustainable Development as a key concept of the Global Dimension. OFSTED note, "Most of the schools visited had limited knowledge of sustainability or of related initiatives. Work on sustainability tended to be piecemeal and uncoordinated, often confined to extra-curricular activities and special events rather than being an integral part of the curriculum" (OFSTED 2008: Schools and Sustainability). World Heritage Education emphasises the need to preserve cultural and natural diversity. Students are encouraged to take part in local conservation projects. Students study the impact of tourism on World Heritage Sites, their enquiries may indicate the benefits of tourism to local communities e.g. foreign currency and renewed infrastructure, this they then balance against the dangers posed by mass tourism. Could World Heritage Education support the National Curriculum in addressing the Global Dimension and Sustainable Development?

Appendix 7: Interview Schedule for OCA Citizenship

1. A brief summary of the World Heritage Education syllabus (entitled World Heritage in Young Hands) is provided. To what extent would you agree that WHE may be used to support the delivery of citizenship in schools?

Prompts

- a) The importance of fieldwork and enquiry based learning.
- b) Developing enquiry based skills e.g. formulation of enquiry questions, developing fieldwork skills to collate evidence, testing assumptions and hypotheses, detection of bias in source evidence, reaching informed conclusions.
- c) Developing social skills e.g. team working, developing leadership skills, negotiation skills.
- d) Students appreciate the uniqueness of cultural and natural sites in England and develop a respect for those of other cultures. They are encouraged to develop a global identity.
- e) Students develop an appreciation for the interdependence between natural and cultural aspects of sites.
- f) Students appreciate the links between heritage sites and the heritage industry.
- g) Vocational training introduces students to the positive and negative aspect of the tourism industry.

- h) Students develop conservation skills and develop an appreciation of sustainable development.
 - i) Students are introduced to heritage in relation to human rights legislation. They learn respect for the cultural traditions of others and importance of teamwork.
 - j) Students learn the importance of sustainable development in maintaining cultural diversity and biodiversity.
2. "Our aim has been to increase flexibility. The new curriculum builds on the best of the past by maintaining the discipline of subjects, but at the same time offering greater opportunities for personalised learning, addressing the major challenges that face society and equipping young people with the skills for life and work in the 21st Century." (QCA press release 12 July 2007)

How does this statement relate to the new citizenship KS3 Curriculum?

- 3) Sir Keith Ajegbo noted in "Diversity and Citizenship" (DfES: 2007) that most schools in England do not comply with the "Race Relations Amendment Act" (RRAA: 2000) and promote race relations. Only two thirds of schools fulfil their minimum statutory duty under RRAA of developing a race relations policy (DfES 2007:34)

Sir Keith Ajebo, the author of a report on an inquiry into how to promote British values in schools, spoke out about the shocking statistic that black Afro-Caribbean boys were three times more likely to be permanently excluded from school than white youngsters.... The Afro-Caribbean boys and white boys might have done the same thing but the Afro-Caribbean is excluded. This still happens in schools and it might be to do with institutional racism. This needs to be looked at. I'm not in any way suggesting that schools are overtly racist but it could be built into the sub-conscious of the school..." (The Independent 30 October 2007: Schools told to root out institutional racism.)

Is institutional racism a barrier to promoting cultural diversity in English Schools?

- 4) Racism is an affront to human rights and undermines democratic processes. Should anti-racist education have been included in the citizenship curriculum?
- 5) How would you define the problems currently faced by citizenship teachers in delivering the citizenship curriculum?

Prompts:

- a) Teacher training at primary level;
- b) Subject leadership secondary level;

- c) Continued professional development;
 - d) Humanities allocated low subject status by senior managers;
 - e) Lack of curriculum time;
 - f) Schools prioritising Standard Assessment Tests;
 - g) Introduction of literacy and numeracy strategies;
 - h) Introduction of secondary national strategy with suggested three part lesson plan;
 - i) Students are unaware of the vocational relevance of the subject.
- 6) The citizenship curriculum at KS3 and KS4 will now incorporate a study of modern British history, "Identity and Diversity: Living Together in the UK". The aim is to identify a range of common British values, or "Britishness" and instil a sense of community cohesion. Does current research not show that such history teaching will simply promote the history of the dominant cultural grouping and ignore the contribution of minorities? For example see source below:

Source for Question 6:

The way in which many schools interpret the National Curriculum also means that they fail to tackle other important needs.... the curriculum is heavily based on aspects of English history. Those parts of the curriculum relating to Scotland, Wales and Ireland are very largely ignored, as are major European and World themes...in many schools the stories of the people who have come to Britain over the centuries are ignored, even though these include the personal histories of some of the pupils (OFSTED 2007).

- 7) UNESCO and the United Nations promote the concept of global citizenship and promote global values. Such global human values are defined by the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights and the United Nations Convention on Rights of the Child. The moral and legal authority of these human rights instruments is universally acknowledged and the UK is a signatory to both. Would UNDHR provide a better standard for human values in modern Britain rather than embarking on a quest to define Britishness?
- 8) What changes were made to citizenship GCSE subject criteria in 2007? What effect will the introduction of full GCSE status have to the teaching of citizenship in secondary schools?
- 9) What contribution should Learning Outside the Classroom (LOtC) make to raising the profile of citizenship in the school curriculum.

Appendix 8: Table of WHSs in England

Name of WHS	Date of inscription	Contact
Durham Castle and Cathedral.	1986	Seif el Rashidi Seif-el-rashidi@durham.ac.uk
Ironbridge Gorge.	1986	Maureen McGregor education@ironbridge.co.uk
Stonehenge, Avebury and Associated Sites.	1986	Isabelle Bedu isabelle.bedu@english.heritage.co.uk
Studley Royal Park including ruins of Fountains Abbey.	1986	York Consultancy Hub yne.customerenquiries@nationaltrust.org.uk
Blenheim Palace.	1987	education @bleinheimpalace.com
City of Bath.	1987	Tom Boden tomboden@bptrust.org.uk
Frontiers of the Roman World: Hadrian's Wall.	1987	Nigel Mills nigel.mills@hadrianswallheritage.co.uk
Westminster Palace, Westminster Abbey and St. Margaret's Church.	1987	rayton@westminster.gov.uk
Canterbury Cathedral, St. Augustine's Abbey and St. Martin's Church.	1988	Alison Hurst hursta@canterburycathedral.org.uk
Tower of London.	1988	Emilie Rowland www.hrp.org.uk/TowerOfLondon/education
Maritime Greenwich.	1997	Geoffrey Belcher geoffrey.belcher@greenwich.gov.uk

Derwent Valley Mills.	2001	Laura Simpson laura.Simpson2@derby.gov.uk
Dorset and East Devon Coast (Jurassic Coast).	2001	Anjana Ford a.k.ford@dorsetcc.gov.uk
Saltaire.	2001	Craig McHugh craig.mchugh@bradford.gov.uk
Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew.	2003	Gail Bromley g.bromley@kew.org.uk
Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City.	2004	John Hinchliffe john.hinchliffe@liverpool.gov.uk
Cornwall and West Devon Mining Landscape.	2006	dboden@cornwall.gov.uk

Appendix 9: Interview Schedule for MSOS Education Officer 2009

1. Making Sense of Our Sites (MSOS) forms part of a series of conferences funded by UNESCO UK and ASP (net) culminating in 2011. What do these conferences hope to achieve?
2. How effectively do World Heritage Sites (WHS) in England address both World Heritage In Young Hands (Young Hands) and the 2007 Secondary National Curriculum for England (N/C 2007)?
3. What benefits would there be for both WHS and schools if WHS placed greater emphasis on education in their development plans? How might WHS be encouraged to achieve this aim?
4. Young Hands was specifically designed for use in secondary schools; future research may focus on the ability of Young Hands to meet the demands of the primary curriculum in England. Would this be an important focus for future research?
5. With regard to the framework of the 2007 Secondary NC; A number of cross-curricular areas have been identified as underpinning all subject areas of the curriculum, they include:
 - a) The National Literacy Strategy;
 - b) Cross-curricular Dimensions e.g. Identity and cultural diversity, Community participation, Global dimension and sustainable development;
 - c) Personal learning and thinking skills (PLTS) e.g. Team working, Independent enquiry and Reflective learning.

d) Learning Outside the Classroom (LOtC).

To what extent do you believe that *Young Hands* can support these and other cross-curricular areas of the Secondary NC?

- 6) The 2008 National Curriculum specification for England identifies the process of enquiry as being a key concept for many subjects notably: history, geography, citizenship and science. To what extent does the pedagogical style outlined by Young Hands support enquiry based learning?
- 7) The International Bureau of Education (IBE) has identified the following subject areas as being of key importance to the delivery of UNESCO educational projects: history, geography and citizenship. To what extent can programmes of study for these subjects support Young Hands? To what extent can the programme of study for English now support Young Hands?
- 8) The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) revised GCSE subject criteria in 2007. Revised GCSE subject specifications were introduced by Awarding Bodies (OCR, EDEXCEL and AQA) in 2008. To what extent can Young Hands support these new GCSE specifications for history, geography, citizenship, humanities and travel and tourism? What impact, if any, has the introduction of controlled assessment had on the potential of WHS to address GCSE specifications?
- 9) Sector Skills Councils (SSC's) are introducing a number of National Diplomas aimed at providing an alternative to GCSE courses. These include a "Diploma in Environmental and Land Based Studies" and a "Diploma in Humanities and Social Sciences." To what extent can Young Hands support these new National Diplomas?

10) WHS delegates attending the “Making Sense Of Our Sites Conference” (MSOS) were asked to design educational resources which prioritised the “Outstanding Universal Values” (OUVs) of their particular sites; these resources were to be articulated in terms of the N/C 2007 and Young Hands. To what extent have WHSs been able to achieve this aim?

Appendix 10: Interview Schedule for MSOS Education Officer 2010

1. What was the feedback from the Making Sense of Our Sites Conference in New Lanark?
2. Which sites submitted schemes of work? (Saltaire / Craig McHugh)
3. Do site management plans now emphasise the importance of education?
4. Why do sites not place greater emphasis on education / Young Hands?

Review

5. Attendance at Making Sense of Our Sites (MSOS) 2009 Lyme Regis.....
6. Attendance at Making Sense of Our Sites 2010 New Lanark.....
7. Contacts for WHS in England.....
8. Check publication date of The Jurassic Textbook

Appendix 11: Attendance at MSOS Conferences 2009 and 2010

Conference attendance 2009

Dorset and East Devon Coast

Hadrian's Wall

Stonehenge, Avebury and associated sites

City of Bath

Saltaire

Royal Botanic Gdns Kew

Canterbury Cathedral, St. Augustine's Abbey and St. Martin's Church

Cornwall and West Devon Mining Landscape

Conference attendance 2010

Dorset and East Devon Coast

Hadrian's Wall

Saltaire

Maritime Greenwich

Derwent Valley Mills

Appendix 12: Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007

For Appendix 12 the four world heritage themes are mapped onto Key Concepts and Key Processes for all National Curriculum subjects. The presence of a “Y” symbol indicates a high level of compatibility between world heritage themes and a Key Concept or Key Process. Absence of a “Y” symbol indicates that no immediate relationship could be established. It should be noted however that this exercise is largely subjective and that absence of absence of a “Y” symbol does not preclude the development of compatible schemes of work.

12a) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 art and design

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Creativity	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.2 Competence				
1.3 Cultural understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Critical understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Explore and create	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Understand and evaluate				

12b) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 citizenship

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Democracy and justice				Y
1.2 Rights and responsibilities	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Identity and diversity	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Critical thinking and enquiry	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Advocacy and representation	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Taking informed and responsible action	Y	Y	Y	Y

12c) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 design and technology

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Designing and making				
1.2 Cultural understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Creativity	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Critical evaluation				
2a) generate, develop, model and communicate ideas in a range of ways using appropriate strategies				
2b) respond creatively to briefs, developing their own proposals and producing specifications				
2c) apply their own knowledge and understanding of a range of materials, ingredients etc.				
2d) use their understanding of others' designing to inform their own				
2e) plan and organize activities and then shape, form, mix, assemble and finish materials				
2f) evaluate which hand and machine tools, equipment and CAD facilities are appropriate				
2g) solve technical problems				

12d) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 English

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Competence	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.2 Creativity	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Cultural understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Critical understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Speaking and listening	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y

12e) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 geography

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Place	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.2 Space	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Scale	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Interdependence	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.5 Physical and human processes	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.6 Environmental interaction and sustainable development	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.7 Cultural understanding and diversity	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Geographical enquiry	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Fieldwork and out of class learning	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Graphicacy and visual learning		Y	Y	
2.4 Geographical communication	Y	Y	Y	Y

12f) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 history

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Chronological understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.2 Cultural, ethnic and religious diversity	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Change and continuity	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Cause and consequence	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.5 Significance	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.6 Interpretation	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Historical enquiry	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Using evidence	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Communicating about the past	Y	Y	Y	Y

12g) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 Information and computing technology (ICT)

Key Concept and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Capability				
1.2 Communication and collaboration	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.3 Exploring ideas and manipulating information	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Impact of technology				
1.5 Critical evaluation	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Finding information	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Developing ideas	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Communicating information	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.4 Evaluating	Y	Y	Y	Y

12h) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 mathematics

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Competence				
1.2 Creativity				
1.3 Applications and implications of mathematics		Y		
1.4 Critical understanding		Y		
2.1 Representing		Y		
2.2 Analyzing		Y		
2.3 Interpreting and evaluating		Y		
2.4 Communicating and reflecting		Y		

12i) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 modern foreign languages

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Linguistic competence				
1.2 Knowledge about a language				
1.3 Creativity				
1.4 Intercultural understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Develop language learning strategies				
2.2 Develop language skills				

12j) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 music

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Integration of practice				
1.2 Cultural understanding				
1.3 Critical understanding				
1.4 Creativity				
1.5 Communication				
2.1 Performing, composing and listening				
2.2 Reviewing and evaluating				

12k) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 physical education

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Competence				
1.2 Performance				
1.3 Creativity				
1.4 Healthy active lifestyles				
2.1 Developing skills in physical activity				
2.2 Making and applying decisions				
2.3 Developing physical and mental activity				
2.4 Evaluating and improving				
2.5 Making informed choices about healthy active lifestyles				

12l) Mapping Young Hands onto the Key Concepts and Key Processes of N/C 2007 science

Key Concepts and Key Processes	World Heritage and Identity	World Heritage and Tourism	World Heritage and Environment	World Heritage and Peace
1.1 Scientific thinking			Y	
1.2 Applications and implications of science			Y	
1.3 Cultural understanding	Y	Y	Y	Y
1.4 Collaboration	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.1 Practical and enquiry skills	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.2 Critical understanding of evidence	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.3 Communication	Y	Y	Y	Y