Social and Spiritual Development Strand
Social Science

Unit 3: Transition and Change

Module 3.1: Skills for Investigating Change

Lecturer Support Material
Acknowledgements

Materials written and compiled by Sue Lauer.

In consultation with:

Francis Mahap – Madang Teachers’ College.

Layout and diagrams supported by Nick Lauer.

Date: 28 March 2002
Unit outline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit 3</th>
<th>Transition and Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Skills for Investigating Change (Core)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Independence (Core)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>PNG History – an Overview (Optional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Power, Control and Change (Optional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>PNG at War (Optional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Technological Change (Optional)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>Pre-history and Archaeology (Optional)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Icons

- 📘: Read or research
- ✒️: Write or summarise
- 📚: Activity or discussion
- 💡: Suggestions for lecturers
# Table of contents

**Module 3.1: Skills for Investigating Change**

- Objectives ................................................................. 1
- Teaching Module 3.1: Skills for Investigating Change .................. 1

**Module 3.1: Content** .................................................. 3

- Topic 1: Understanding history ............................................. 3
  - What is History? .......................................................... 3
- Topic 2: Measuring time ........................................................ 4
  - Dating ........................................................................... 4
  - Measuring time ............................................................... 4
  - Timelines ...................................................................... 6
  - The calendar .................................................................. 7
- Topic 3: Recounting the past .................................................. 10
  - Oral history .................................................................. 10
- Topic 4: Using sources ........................................................ 11
  - Bias in sources ............................................................... 11
  - Primary sources ............................................................ 12
  - Secondary sources ......................................................... 16
- Topic 5: Being an History detective ....................................... 19
- Topic 6: Genealogy ........................................................... 21

References ........................................................................ 22
Module 3.1: Skills for Investigating Change

To understand that people’s actions and values are shaped by their understanding and interpretation of the past, students need to be able to locate, analyse and use historical information from a wide variety of written, oral, and multi-media resources.

Objectives

At the completion of this module students will be able to:

- Interpret and use historical sources
- Construct, use and/or interpret time lines and methods of dating
- Understand the contexts in which change occurs
- Recognise and interpret various aspects of the past
- Recognise and discuss cause, effect and consequences and solve problems
- Think logically, identify and discuss issues from a range of perspectives
- Conduct historical investigations

Teaching Module 3.1: Skills for Investigating Change

- It is important to read through the module first, to decide what materials you will use, and what tasks and activities you will set for the students. It is also important to see how this module fits within the complete unit.
- The material is written as a resource for the teaching of this module.
- Do not expect students to work through the total module alone. There may be too much material and they will need assistance in determining the tasks required.
- Many of the activities have a number of questions to discuss and tasks to do. They are included to provide some ideas and stimulus, not necessarily to complete every part of each activity.
- The activities provide a focus for learning, and some may be suitable for developing into assessment tasks, but the activities are not written to be used as the assessment program.
- The Lecturer Support Material is the same as the Student Support Material, with additional notes included in the text boxes.
- Materials included as an appendix are included as additional information for lecturers. These may be photocopied for students where appropriate.
- Assessment tasks should be developed at unit level, recognising the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes across this module and others which make up the unit.
Often history is only recorded from a male perspective, with stories of male achievement in war, exploration, government and development. The role of women is ignored or forgotten. This module provides an opportunity to examine gender roles in class discussions and research activities in each of the sections. It is important also that participants selected for interviews, surveys and as guest speakers are both male and female so that students are aware of different perspectives.

The strategies and activities outlined below may be substituted for any included in the module. The main emphasis in the teaching of each topic is to include a range of activities and to develop skills which will be useful for beginning teachers in their own classrooms.

- Record oral histories and/or cultural stories
- Produce a file on artefacts of significance in your region
- Conduct an archaeological dig in the college grounds
- Visit an archaeological site
- Examine primary and secondary sources
- Visit a cemetery
- Explore the local area to record changes and development
- Study the place names of an area to see how they reflect history
- View historical videos or documentary programs
- Compile a history of the college

This module provides many opportunities for the application of key skills such as interpreting sources, recording historical data and studying artefacts. It is important that students come to see history as the ‘reason’ why things are the way they are.
Module 3.1: Content

**Topic 1: Understanding history**

This module is designed to provide students with the skills to study and interpret the past and the changes that have occurred over time. Students should be encouraged to present findings in a variety of ways – time lines, concept maps, drawings, flow charts, diagrams, photographs, maps, comparison charts, consequence charts, reports, profiles.

What is History?

History is the study of humanity. In its widest sense history is the study of everything that men and women have thought, said and done since earliest human life existed on the face of the earth. What we know today is just fragments of the past activities of the early humans on earth. Therefore studying history is like putting together a jigsaw puzzle when we don’t have all the pieces. Our studies are even made more selective by our own culture and interests. An **historian** is a scientist who studies part of the story of humanity and within this part looks at the way of life, development, ideas, changes, the results of these changes and how our lives have been shaped by those who lived in the past.

The earliest human-like creatures probably appeared on earth about 3.5 million years ago. Today all people belong to the same species called Homo sapiens (thinking man). No one is really sure when this modern human being first walked the earth, but the people who lived 50,000 years ago were much the same physically as us. When you consider that man has lived on the earth for so many thousands of years, you can now see that it is a big task to look at all of human history. To make the task easier, historians have divided history into three periods as - prehistory, written history and oral history or tradition.

**Prehistory** is referred to by historians and archaeologists as the period where there were no written records of human activities.

Because of its isolation, writing came to Papua New Guinea very late in the last century. Written records came with the Europeans as they came into our shores very recently. Written records concerning the islands of New Guinea started in the first half of the 16th century when Spanish and Portuguese ocean travellers occasionally passed by the shores of New Guinea or were ship wrecked on them. They made brief comments on what they saw and mapped some parts of the coast. Because New Guinea was not on a regular European trade route, the island of New Guinea was largely left alone up until the 1800’s when New Guinea became strategically important to Australia. However, most, if not all written records were produced by foreigners looking at a new culture.
Topic 2: Measuring time

Dating

Most things in our lives are measured in some way. Your height is measured in metres and centimetres, your weight in kilograms and grams, your money in kina and toea. Time is also measured and so, therefore, is history.

We measure immediate time in seconds. A woman running the 100 metres will be thinking of breaking the tape within seconds, tenths and hundredths of seconds from the start. A man running the 3000 metres will finish it in minutes, seconds, tenths and hundredths of seconds. A man running a Marathon will finish in hours, minutes, seconds, tenths and hundredths of seconds. The longer the race the longer the time, and the greater the divisions of time. It is the same with history, the further back in time we go, the more ways there are of measuring the time or naming periods of it. The usual measurement for historical time is in years.

If we study the life of humans, the length of time that they have been on the earth is very long, approximately 1.6 million years. Such a figure is extremely difficult to understand. We have no idea how long 1600 000 years is. To help a little, historians have divided up this vast time into smaller sections. Until recent times each section took the name of the basic material used during that particular period of history. For example, the Stone Age is so called because at that time tools and weapons were made from flint and stones; the Bronze Age, because early humans had by then discovered the process of making bronze.

In more recent history, the historian often refers to the century during which an event happened as well as the actual year. For example, you may read, or be told, that plantations were established in the 19th century. However, you may say that they were established in the 1870s.
Why are the 1870s in the 19th century? This is very easy to explain. Most people in Western countries start the measurement of time from the year Christ was born, we call this year AD 1. The initials AD stand for the Latin words Anno Domini meaning ‘In the year of our Lord’. Dates before the birth of Christ are followed by the letters BC which simply mean ‘before Christ’.

You can see in the table that the years AD 1 to AD 99 are called the 1st century, because it is the first 100 years. The years from AD 100 to AD 199 are the 2nd century, and so on.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Range</th>
<th>Century</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AD 1 - AD 99</td>
<td>1st century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AD 100 - AD 199</td>
<td>2nd century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AD 300 - AD 399</td>
<td>4th century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AD 800 - AD 899</td>
<td>9th century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AD 1300 - AD 1399</td>
<td>14th century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AD 1800 - AD 1899</td>
<td>19th century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AD 1900 - AD 1999</td>
<td>20th century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AD 2000 - AD 2099</td>
<td>21st century</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So you see that a year beginning 16 hundred and something is in the 17th century and something beginning 19 hundred and something is in the 20th century: the number of the century is always one more than the 'hundred' number of the year.

Some historians refer to periods of history, for example, Roman times. These names are given to cover a number of years or in some cases centuries. They can give the reader an immediate idea as to the time in history being discussed and can be used as an aid to put historical years into some sort of order. Sometimes historical periods are given the name of the ruling royal family of that time.

### Summary

- All historical time is measured –usually in years.
- Different lengths of historical time have different names e.g. 10 years = a decade. 100 years = one century 1000 years = one millennium,
- In Britain, centuries are often named after the ruling royal family of the time.
- A large number of centuries are often referred to as an Age. However, an Age can also be used to describe a single century or less e.g. the Elizabethan Age (1558 - 1603).
- All years, in most European countries, are measured from the year 1.
- All years before 1 have the letters BC (before Christ) after them.
- All years after 1 have the letters AD (Anno Domini) before them.
Measuring time

When ancient peoples began to measure time, they based their measurement on:

- changes from day to night
- the time between full moons
- the seasons

These three lengths of time became the basis for days, months, and years. Later, people developed time units that were shorter than the day. The Babylonians used sundials to divide the time from sunrise to sunset into 12 parts, which came to be called hours. By the 1700's, clocks had become accurate enough to tell time in units that were shorter than an hour. The hour was divided into 60 minutes, and each minute was divided into 60 seconds. Time units that are shorter than a second, or longer than a year, increase or decrease by units of 10. Seconds can be divided into tenths or hundredths. A period of 10 years is a decade, and a 100-year period is a century.

The measurement standard for time is the atomic clock. Some of these clocks measure time so accurately that they will not gain or lose more than a second in over 300 years. An atomic clock measures time by counting the number of vibrations made by atoms of the element caesium.

Timelines

The construction and interpretation of timelines is an essential skill. There are many styles of timelines which can be used.

A timeline is a picture that shows lines with dates and events on it. The line may cover a time period of several thousand years or it may cover just one day. A timeline helps us see how events are related to each other. To read a timeline we must study the titles and labels. The labels help us find out when an event happened. Events are always listed in chronological order, that is, the order in which they happen.
The calendar

The calendar is a system of measuring and recording the passage of time. A major scientific advance was made when people realized that nature furnishes a regular sequence of seasons. The seasons governed their lives, determined their needs, and controlled the supply of their natural foods. They needed a calendar so they could prepare for winter before it came.

3.1 Activity 1

Collect examples of village calendars. What are they based on? Have they changed?

Before the invention of the clock, people had to rely on nature's timekeepers—the sun, the moon, and the stars. The daily apparent rotation of the sun provided the simplest and most obvious unit, the solar day. The seasons roughly indicated the length of another simple unit, the solar year. Early people were not aware of the fundamental cause of the seasons, the earth's revolution around the sun. However, it was easy to see the changing position and shape of the moon. As a result, most ancient calendars used the interval between successive full moons, the lunar month, as an intermediate measure of time. The month bridged the gap between the solar day and the solar year.
Most people in the Western World use the Gregorian calendar, worked out in the 1580’s by Pope Gregory XIII. It has 12 months, 11 of them with 30 or 31 days. The other month, February, normally has 28 days. Every fourth year, called a leap year, it has 29 days. However, even this calendar is not quite exact enough. In century years that cannot be divided by 400, such as 1700, 1800, and 1900, the extra day in February must be dropped. The century year 1600 was a leap year, and the year 2000 will be one.

The church calendar is regulated partly by the sun and partly by the moon. Immovable feasts include Christmas and such feasts as the Nativity of the Blessed Virgin. They are based on the solar calendar. Such days as Ash Wednesday, Palm Sunday, and Easter are called movable feasts, because their dates vary from year to year, according to the phases of the moon.

The Hebrew calendar, according to tradition, was supposed to have started with the Creation, at a moment 3,760 years and 3 months before the beginning of the Christian era. To find the year in the Hebrew calendar, we must add 3,760 to the date in the Gregorian calendar. The Islamic calendar begins with Muhammad’s flight from Mecca to Medina. This flight, called the Hegira, took place in A.D. 622 by the Gregorian calendar. The year is much shorter than the solar year, with only 354 days. As a result, the Islamic New Year moves backward through the seasons. The Chinese calendar begins in 2637 B.C., the year in which the legendary Emperor Huangdi supposedly invented it. This calendar designates years in cycles of 60. For example, 2000 is the 17th year in the 78th cycle. The years in each cycle are designated by a word combination formed from two series of terms, one of which involves the name of any 12 animals. These animals, in the order they appear in the cycle, are the rat, ox, tiger, hare, dragon, snake, horse, sheep, monkey, rooster, dog, and pig. The appropriate animal name is assigned to each year. The year 2000 in the Chinese calendar is the year of the dragon. Each of these calendars consists of 12 months of 29 or 30 days.

The earliest known Roman calendar consisted of 10 months and a year of 304 days. The Romans seem to have ignored the remaining 60 days, which fell in the middle of winter. The
10 months were called Martius, Aprilis, Maius, Junius, Quintilis, Sextilis, September, October, November, and December. Romulus, the legendary first ruler of Rome, is supposed to have introduced this calendar in about 738 B.C. According to tradition, the Roman ruler Numa Pompilius added January and February to the calendar. This made the Roman year 355 days long.

By the time of Julius Caesar, the accumulated error caused by the incorrect length of the Roman year -- and by the occasional failure to add extra days at the proper times -- had made the calendar about three months ahead of the seasons. In 46 B.C., Caesar ordered the Romans to disregard the moon in calculating their calendars. He divided the year into 12 months of 31 and 30 days alternately, except for February, which had only 29 days. Every fourth year, it would have 30 days. He also moved the beginning of the year from March 1 to January 1. The Julian calendar was widely used for more than 1,500 years.

The Gregorian calendar was designed to correct the errors of the Julian calendar. In 1582, on the advice of astronomers, Pope Gregory XIII corrected the difference between sun and calendar by ordering 10 days dropped from October, the month with fewest Roman Catholic holy days. The day that would have been Oct. 5, 1582, became October 15. This procedure restored the next equinox to its proper date. To correct the Julian calendar's error regularly, the pope decreed that February would have an extra day in century years that could be divided by 400, such as 1600 and 2000, but not in others, such as 1700, 1800, and 1900. The Roman Catholic nations of Europe adopted the Gregorian calendar almost immediately. Various German states kept the Julian calendar until 1700. Great Britain and the American Colonies changed to the Gregorian calendar in 1752. Russia did not adopt it until 1918, and Turkey changed to it in 1927.

3.1 Activity 2

Draw up a 12 square grid to represent the months of the year and record what you can recall occurred in each of those months in your life last year. In a different colour, record any significant local, national or international events which occurred in each month.

Each student state the date of their birthday, then as a class, draw up a chart containing the twelve months of the year and the birth dates for each month in chronological order.
Topic 3: Recounting the past

Oral history

Oral recounts of past events are called oral history in historical research. They are a useful way of gaining information about the past. An oral history is a recount rather than an interview. The person giving the oral history generally gives the information that they wish to share. It is important to understand that the person giving information about an event may have a distinctive interpretation of what happened. Chronological sequencing in very important in recounts.

The study of oral history allows us to examine why people, events and particular days are important to us, our families and communities. Through oral history people recall and relate the familiar practices, traditions and original stories associated with significant days celebrated and family events and activities. Oral history helps us examine the similarities and differences between the sequence of events in our lives and the sequences of events in the lives of others and to draw connections between them.

3.1 Activity 3

Individually construct recounts of a recent college event. Record students' oral presentations of their recounts. Were they different? Why?

Invite some parents or grandparents to talk to the class about significant events in their lives. Ask if their oral histories can be taped for later reference.

Jointly construct timelines sequencing the major events that each person spoke about. Compare and discuss similarities and differences between the timelines. Were there any common events/experiences? Did these relate to events that were happening in PNG or the world at the time?

Listen to the tape recording of one of the oral histories. List aspects of life that the person mentioned in their talk, eg work, home, food, activities, technology, local, businesses. Using the categories construct a retrieval chart to record aspects of past and present life. On the retrieval chart, record the visitors' recollections of the past and include present-day information about similar aspects.

Discuss any folk stories or traditional tales that are told in students' families. List some of the stories. Are some stories unique to particular families in the community?

Some stories have been passed down from generation to generation. Explain why these stories are still told.
**Topic 4: Using sources**

You have written a diary and you have put parts of that diary into a history project at school. You have used a **primary source** of information. You were the person who wrote the diary and nobody else was involved. However, if you found another book in which extracts from someone else's diary had been described and, after putting it into your own words, you used this information in your history project, you would have used a **secondary source** of information, because someone else was involved before you. Whoever wrote the book from which you gathered your information, has already completed all the hard work extracting the facts from the diary. You are in fact taking notes from their work and not the diary, you are gaining the information **second hand**.

![Diagram of primary and secondary sources]

**Using sources - From: Parsons: History 1**

**Bias in sources**

Imagine you are a great fan of a particular band. You are asked to write about your favourite band as an assignment. Being a fan, you will naturally write down all the good things about them; why they are good, their good sound, their fashionable clothes etc. Anyone reading your account would therefore have a very biased description of this group, because you may not have mentioned their bad habits and the way they treat their fans. If anyone used your work to write a similar account of their own, they would be influenced by what you have written, and consequently will not write a 'balanced' account, giving both the good and the bad points about the group. Source material may be biased and the historian has to be careful when s/he uses any source. When using primary sources it is useful, where possible, to know who wrote it or who took a particular photograph etc, so that you are aware of any possible **bias**.

---

**3.1 Activity 4**

*Divide the class into four or five groups and have one group role play an incident involving conflict. Get each of the remaining groups to record what happened eg who was involved, what they did, what the incident was about. Compare each report for different interpretations of the event*
Collect newspaper clippings from different papers all dealing with the same event. Examine the clippings and make a list of differences in the reports. These could involve dates, times, who said what, who did what, who is accused or blamed.

Collect newspaper clippings that quote opposing speakers (politicians) on the same issue eg the Prime Minister and Leader of the Opposition describing election results or the government’s policy on a national issue. Identify the differences between their claims. Explain why each would have a different interpretation

Primary sources

Primary sources can either be documents or objects from the past. Anything that is a direct witness from the past time is a primary source. The finds of archaeologists are therefore primary sources because they contain the original information from the past. Most primary sources are what historians call ‘unwitting testimonies’. This means that people who wrote or made them did not do so with an intention that historians would use this information in the future.

The historian has many sources available to study, but some can be more useful than others. If s/he uses information that does not come from books i.e. that which s/he has gathered from the surroundings or from original documents or letters or carvings, s/he is using what are called primary sources. These are the sources of information which are in their original form, they are first hand. Primary sources include

- Letters diaries/memoirs (A person's personal memories written down)
- Photographs
- Autobiographies (A story or history of a person actually written by that person)
- Log books, church/parish records (Contains the baptisms, marriages and deaths within a parish)
- Carved inscriptions on monuments, tombstones etc
- Maps
- Lists
- Financial accounts (Showing how people spent and earned their money)
- Any original documents
- Archaeological evidence - Pottery, coins, statues, tools, skeletons, buildings, sites of buildings etc
- Place names (Can give good clues about the original site or settlement)

Photographs

Photographs are primary sources. The information a photographer sets out to show in a photograph i.e. the main subject matter, is called the witting testimony.
The information provided in a photograph which is not necessarily the main subject matter, is called the *unwitting testimony*. Both witting and unwitting testimony is very useful to the historian. An historian needs to examine photographs very carefully in order to extract all the information. Photographic evidence can be just as important as written evidence.

![Mission school pupils, 1890s - From: Moore et al (1984) Colonial Intrusion](image)

![Community school pupils, 1990s - From: Paradise No 138](image)

3.1 Activity 5

*Examine the two photographs. What is the witting testimony (subject) of each photograph? What is the unwitting testimony? For clues examine, clothing, background, and setting.*

*Write a paragraph describing the differences in schooling in the 1880’s and 1990’s using evidence from the photographs.*
Diaries
Diaries are a primary source. Diaries can give the historian two types of information - a description of an actual event, e.g. Samuel Pepys and the Great Fire, and a description of everyday life at the time of writing. The second type of information is just as, and often more, important than the first. However, a diary entry is only one person’s view of an event. Usually it is not meant to be read by anyone other than the writer. Because they are so personal, diaries are often biased.

3.1 Activity 6

Keep a record of your main activities each hour in a 12 hour time period. Compare your record with others in your group. As a group, construct a new chart recording the most common activities carried out in a typical day.

Each day for one week, record the main activities of the day and your thoughts about or reactions to people and actions during the week. At the end of the week, discuss entries with the class (but not very personal matters). Were there any different versions of the same events or activities?

Artefacts
Artefacts are any object made by humans for their use. By examining artefacts, we are able to gain an insight into the technology and lifestyles of people from particular cultural groups or other times. Artefacts are primary sources.

Artfacts – From: The Artefacts and Crafts of PNG

Artefacts – From: The Artefacts and Crafts of PNG
A modern example

If a man came into your house and emptied the contents of his pocket on your table and they included a box of matches, a golf-tee, a ring pull, and a shop docket, what could you say about him? Look at the articles again. Individually they tell you very little, but if you take them together, you can build up a reasonable picture of the man's lifestyle. For instance, a golf-tee immediately tells you that he probably plays golf; the box of matches may suggest that our character is a smoker, but because he has not put a packet of cigarettes on the table we cannot say that this is definite -it may mean that he needs them for lighting a fire or stove at home. The ring pull tells us he drinks from a can but we don’t know if he drinks soft drink or beer. He also visits the shops. If we examine the docket more fully we will have a better idea about his habits from what he bought.

Historians have to use artefacts and articles in the same way. The historian needs to examine an article and work out its use and its age by looking at other clues, either documents or reference books, or certain marks on the artefact itself, in order to place it in its approximate place in history.

All articles that you see around you, like people and places, have a history of their own. Everything has been developed for a certain purpose, even if it was only meant to look pretty on a shelf. Unfortunately, artefacts break. Those that do, and those that are no longer of any use or out-of-date or unfashionable are simply thrown away. This is not a new practice; people have been throwing away unwanted possessions for thousands of years. As soon as an improved 'up-to-date' stone axe head was introduced, the old one was thrown away. These piles or pits of discarded articles, if found, can provide the historian with clues to what people used, wore, fought with or ate in the past. How else would we know that early man used stone weapons or ate meat, if their rubbish piles containing stone implements and animal bones had not been found in different parts of the world.

The person who does this digging into the past and who carefully examines and lists all the articles that are found is called an archaeologist. An archaeologist was once described as a person who makes a scientific study of other people's rubbish, and basically, that is what they often do. They make sure that all artefacts that are removed from the ground are carefully catalogued and keep a record of exactly where they were found for future reference.

When handling and examining articles archaeologists ask questions such as

1. What is it?
2. What is it made of?
3. How big is it?
4. How old is it?
5. What was it used for?
6. Who might have used it?
7. Is it genuine?

Museums

Artefacts are stored in museums. In recent years there has been a move away from museums with static artefacts in glass cases, to those where the articles, often too large to fit into any museum building, are kept in their original condition. These open-air museums can contain not
only artefacts, but also complete houses and shops and even small factories. Everything in the building would be as authentic as possible, and if you visit a museum 'community' such as this, you would be stepping back into the past. Some keen enthusiasts actually dress up in the correct costume and take on the role of butcher or householder or carpenter, and bring the museum to life.

There are three broad categories of museum.

- **Local museums**: those which deal entirely with all aspects of community life in the local area.
- **Specialist museums**: those concentrating on all matters concerned with one particular subject area.
- **Open-air museums**: containing larger artefacts including buildings and which recreate working and living conditions of the past, including transport.

### Summary

- Artefacts, like people and places, have their own history.
- Artefacts can provide the historian with clues about the way of life in the past.
- A person who digs up, labels, catalogues and examines articles from the past is called an archaeologist.
- Coins are a useful aid to dating levels of excavation on an archaeological dig.
- Most historical artefacts are kept in museums.

---

**3.1 Activity 7**

*Organise a visit to a museum to see artefacts on display. During the visit, examine the types of items and how they are presented.*

*Bring in artefacts and discuss ways in which the artefacts might be arranged and displayed, eg according to age, according to different aspects of lifestyle/purpose. Collect information about the artefacts and use it to write museum place cards for the artefacts.*

*Discuss the things from our time that may be artefacts in the future.*

---

**Secondary sources**

Primary sources of information are those in their original or *prime* form. Secondary sources are different. They are simply sources which provide the historian with the facts second-hand. It is useful to use first-hand sources because it provides the historian with original clues to work from. The possible problem with using second-hand or secondary material (and in some
cases primary material) is that the historian may be influenced by the first writer's opinion or bias.

**Example**

Jane finds an old letter in a box at home. She reads it and because it interests her, she writes down the information contained in it in her own words. Sally needs such a letter to help her with her history homework and asks Jane if she may use it. Jane decides not to let Sally use the original letter because she does not want it to get lost, but she does allow her to use her own copy. Remember, although the information contained in this copy is the same as in the letter, it is not in the same words. Jane could have changed the original meaning very slightly in some way by not writing it down exactly. By borrowing Jane's copy, Sally is now receiving the information from the letter second-hand. This copy is a secondary source of information because it is not in its original or prime condition.

The simple diagram below may help you understand the two examples a little more.
**History books**

Many of the textbooks you are likely to come across at will be secondary sources. The authors have researched from the original material and documents (primary sources) and have interpreted and rewritten the information contained in them in a way the reader will understand. When you use the information they have already gathered, you are using it second-hand. Authors, of course, use secondary as well as primary material. They also read around the subject and see what other people have found out about the subject before them. Usually you will find a list of these sources in the back of a textbook or sometimes in the front where it says acknowledgements.

**Other secondary sources**

Other secondary sources include: journals, articles, newspapers and biographies (the life history of a person written by someone else). All these examples have information in them which has been gathered from primary and other secondary sources and which you are reading second-hand.

**Newspapers**

Newspapers are cheap sources of historical information. Local newspapers are very useful if you are researching an historical topic dealing with your local area. While researching this topic, you may find additional facts about the general history of your local area. Newspaper articles can be biased, so it is always useful to use another source of information to make sure the details contained in the article are correct. Newspaper reports are very useful for providing you with a starting point for further investigation. The headlines provide a summary of what has taken place and they highlight some of the important events. Reporters supply us with atmosphere and background.
**Topic 5: Being an History detective**

People and characters are very important to the history of any country or civilization.

The historian needs to extract information about people and characters from a variety of sources – written material, photographs, drawings, paintings. Photographs can be more accurate than paintings but paintings can provide us with useful background knowledge. Often a written passage can give the historian more facts than a picture and can provide a wider description of events at the time.

**Example**

If you had been born into a poor family in the 1840s and 50s in England, your life would have been very different. Firstly, you would not have attended school and if you had lived in a coal-mining area, you may have been like the children in the example. It is a simplified extract from a government report on the working conditions of children in 1842. (Children’s Employment Commission. Report on the Mines.)

*The practice of employing children aged only six or seven is very common. The children go down the pit with the men at 4.00 a.m. and remain in the pit for between eleven and twelve hours each day. The child’s work is to open and shut the doors of the galleries when the coal trucks pass. For this job a child is trained to sit by itself in a dark passage for the twelve hours he or she is at the mine.*

This extract tells us a great deal about the life of these children. Imagine what it must have been like for them sitting in a damp, dark mine shaft for up to twelve hours, just opening doors.

If you, as an historian, read this report in full, you would get a clear picture of what life was like for these children, not only in the mines, but also outside. For instance, if in winter children went to the mine at 4.00 a.m. and returned at 4.00 p.m. they would spend the whole day in darkness. How do you think this would affect their health? Sunlight provides us with vitamin D; a lack of sun and, therefore, a lack of this vitamin can lead to a disease called Rickets where the bones become bent and malformed. This was quite common in the 18th and 19th centuries.

We can look at photographs, drawings and written descriptions of working people. On the face of it, they describe only the type of work these people were doing at that time in history, but they can also inform us about the social conditions i.e. what life was like for both the rich and poor. The jobs themselves can provide us with clues to the past: why did they need rat-catchers and water-carriers? By looking at more than one source of information, it is possible to answer a simple question about life at the time. For example, by comparing wages with the price of wheat, we can work out if labourers were able to afford the staple foods, and we can link working conditions to health.
A detective needs to search for, and identify clues. S/he needs to be able to put the evidence collected into a correct order or sequence and use it to help solve a mystery or bring someone to trial. The historian also needs to be a detective. S/he needs to be observant and look closely at surroundings for certain things which may provide clues which either answer, or raise questions. Some of these clues are obvious and easy to find, some require more searching and some you may look at every day without seeing them. You can be so used to looking at a particular statue or monument or street name that you never think about taking a closer look and finding out its significance.

3.1 Activity 8

A good historical exercise is to go for a walk in your local area, or your nearest town or village, and just look around you. Take a camera with you, if you have one, and photograph or sketch anything you consider historical. Remember you are looking out for dates, plaques, statues, and anything else which will provide historical information.

Clues to the origins of an area can be easily found. For example – how did the local village or town get its name? Examine the names of streets, villages, creeks, and rivers in your area or another place you are studying. How many names are based on local languages? How many come from other languages? Identify the meanings of the words (or parts of the word) and see if there are any patterns in the names chosen. Identify any people whose names have been used for places. Why were they important enough to have something named after them?
**Topic 6: Genealogy**

Genealogy is the study of family origins based on records of important events in the lives of individuals and their ancestors and families. People engage in genealogical research for various reasons. Some people search for their family roots out of curiosity. Others hope to establish a legal right to inherit property. In addition, some individuals search for parents or children whose identity has been lost to the family through divorce or adoption.

A person begins genealogical research by recording his or her name on a family tree and then the names of his or her parents, grandparents, great-grandparents, and so on. The tree is expanded by completing a family group record for each ancestral couple and their children. Each person on the family tree is identified by dates and places of birth, marriage, and death. The best records for establishing the identity of family members are vital records, such as birth certificates, marriage licences, and death certificates. These records are kept by government departments or church officials in the area where the family lived. It also may be necessary to search relationship records to place a person in the correct family. These records include census records, land records, probate records, and church surveys.

Genealogical research begins in the home, where there may be copies of vital records and relationship records. Information may also be obtained from family letters, family Bibles, newspaper clippings, obituaries, and printed family histories.

### 3.1 Activity 9

*Use the library to research different ways a family tree can be drawn. Draw up your own family tree going back as many generations as you can.*

*Construct your own glossary by finding the meaning of each of these terms as used in this module.*

- Age
- Anno domini
- Archaeologist
- Artefact
- BC
- Bias
- Calendar
- Century
- Chronological order
- Decade
- Historian
- Millennium
- Period
- Prehistory
- Primary Source
- Secondary source
- Unwitting testimony
- Witting testimony
References

Lonely Planet (1998). *Papua New Guinea*


*Paradise* No 138: March-April 2000.


*The Artefacts and Crafts of PNG* (1988.)