



Module 2 : Investigating family history

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Section 1: Investigating family histories

Key Focus Question: How can you structure small-group activities in your classroom to develop collaborative working and build self-confidence?

Keywords: family; history; confidence; investigation; small-group work; discussion

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this section, you will have:

- structured your activities to help pupils understand themselves and their relationships with other family members;
- used small-group discussions to build pupils' self-confidence as they investigate their family histories.

Introduction

Good teaching often starts by encouraging pupils to explore situations that they are already familiar with. In terms of history, this means using their own lives, and the lives of their immediate families, as a source of investigation. The skills used to explore this familiar history can then be used in the study of broader historical questions.

All of us have a history, which starts from the moment we are born. This will include all our experiences and all the people we interact with.

In this section, you start by exploring your pupils' immediate family situations and their roles and responsibilities within the family. You will also look at the wider context of the extended family. As you work in this area, you will have to be sensitive to different backgrounds and family or other structures that your pupils live in.

1. Working in groups to discuss families

When investigating the family, it is useful to first explore pupils' understanding of what a family is and show them the diversity among families. Celebrating such diversity helps pupils feel better about themselves when they realise how different families can be. **Case Study 1** and **Activity 1** explore different ways to do this.

In the case study, the teacher encourages his pupils to work in small groups (see **Key Resource: Using group work in your classroom**) and to remember the rules that they have agreed for small-group discussions.

Case Study 1: Using group work to explore my own family

Mr Nguzo is a social studies teacher at Muhimu Primary School in Tanzania. He wants his pupils in Standard 3 to learn about families and the roles of different family members.

He organises groups of not more than six; he puts pupils together who do not usually work with each other.

In the groups, pupils take it in turns to answer the following questions, which he has written on the board.

- What is your name?
- Who are your father and mother? What are their names?
- Who are your grandfathers and grandmothers? What are their names?
- How many sisters and brothers do you have? What are their names? Are they older or younger than you?
- How many cousins do you have? What are their names?

During the discussion, Mr Nguzo goes to each group to check that all the pupils are being given a chance to contribute. After 10 to 15 minutes, he asks the groups to share with the whole class what they have found out about different families: What were the similarities between the families? What were the differences? (For younger or less confident pupils, he would have to ask more structured questions, e.g. 'Who had the most brothers?')

Then he asks the groups to consider this question:

- What makes someone your sister, your brother, your aunt, etc.?

After 10 minutes, one member of each group presents their answers to question 6 to the class. Mr Nguzo prepares a large, basic kinship chart to help focus the discussion (see **Resource 1: Kinship chart**).

Mr Nguzo and the pupils note that although there are words in their language that express cousin, uncle and aunt, these relations are normally referred to as brother or sister; grandfather, father are usually simply father; grandmother, mother are similarly simply mother. There is a distinction between the uncles and aunts from the mother's side and those from the father's side. Mr Nguzo realises that teaching pupils about the relationships within families can be confusing for younger pupils.

Activity 1 : Who am I?

Before the lesson, prepare a kinship chart as a handout (see **Resource 1**).

Ask the pupils to work in groups of three or four. One pupil volunteers to list all the people they know in their family and fill in the details on a kinship chart. (You may wish to select which pupil is chosen.)

Pupils might want to draw pictures of their relatives on the chart.

Share these charts with the class.

Discuss the variation in families and emphasise how good this variety is.

At the end of the lesson, display the kinship charts on the wall of the classroom.

2. Modelling making a timeline

When studying past events, it is important to help pupils understand the passage of time and how things change from generation to generation.

Developing the ways that young pupils look at their family histories will help them link events together as well as put them in sequence. **Resource 2: Another kinship chart** provides a family tree that will help pupils see relationships between family members, e.g. their cousin is their mother's or father's sister's or brother's child.

Case Study 2: Family histories

Alice Kankindi plans to teach about family relations over time with her Primary 5 pupils.

She cuts a series of pictures from magazines of people of different ages, doing different things, e.g. at a wedding, a school prize day, and writes numbers on the back of each picture. She tells her pupils that the photographs represent different events in one person's life and asks her pupils, in groups of six, to sequence the photos in terms of the age of the person. She gives them 15 minutes to discuss the order and then asks each group to feed back. She asks why they chose the order they did and lists the clues they found in the pictures to help them order the events. They discuss the key events shown in the pictures and Mrs Kankindi tells the pupils they have made a 'timeline' of life.

Activity 2: Pupils creating their own timeline

Resource 3: My timeline can be a starting point for your class to do their own timeline.

First, discuss the importance of knowing one's own origins and members of one's family.

Explain what a timeline is.

Model (demonstrate) the making of a timeline yourself (you don't have to use your own life – you could do a realistic one based anonymously on someone you know). Modelling is an excellent way of supporting pupils to learn a new skill/behaviour. Draw this timeline on the board and talk through what you are doing, or have one prepared on a large roll of paper. Remember to use a suitable scale – a year should be represented by a particular length. (When your pupils come to do their timelines, they could use 5 cm or the length of a hand if they don't have rulers.)

Ask pupils to write down key things they remember about their lives and also give them time to ask their parents/carers about when they first walked etc.

Ask them to record any other information they want to include on their timeline.

Support them as they make their timelines. You could encourage them to write in the main events that have happened to them personally, and in a different colour (or in brackets under the line) the main events that happened to their wider family (e.g. older sister went to college, father bought a field etc.).

Display their timelines in the classroom.

Pupils who finish quickly could be asked to imagine and draw a timeline of their future. What will be the main events when they are 20, 25, 40 etc.?

3. Helping pupils explore their past

Helping pupils to develop their understanding of past and present takes time, and involves giving them a range of activities where they have to observe, ask questions and make judgements about what they find out.

How can they develop skills to help them think about how things change over time? **Case Study 3** and the **Key Activity** use the wider environment to extend your pupils' understanding of time passing and things changing.

Case Study 3: Visiting an older citizen

Mr Nkubito, Mrs Rutebuka and Miss Nakure planned their social studies together. They did not all do the same topic at the same time, but it helped them to share ideas.

They all read **KeyResource: Using the local community/environment as a resource**. They planned to take their classes to visit an older member of the community to talk to them about how the village has changed since they were a child. They decided to organise the classes into groups and each group would prepare questions to ask the elder. Each group would have a different area to think about such as games they played, food they ate, houses they lived in etc.

Key Activity: Using different sources to investigate family life in the past

Do a brainstorm with your class. Ask them to consider how they could investigate the ways in which life for their families has changed in the village/community over time. What sources could they use to find out about this?

They are likely to come up with ideas such as: using their own observations and memories to think about what has changed in their own lifetime; asking their parents; talking to other older people; talking to people in authority (such as the chief); looking at older maps; using a museum (if there is one); reading from books about the area etc.

Ask the pupils to gather stories from their own families about how life has changed for them over the last few generations. What was everyday life like for their grandparents and great grandparents? What are the family stories from previous times? Does the family have any old newspapers, photos, letters, etc. that help show what life used to be like?

Pupils could share their stories with each other in class and use them as a basis for presentations – these could include pictures of what they think

Resource 1: Kinship chart

Teacher resource for planning or adapting to use with pupils

A kinship chart shows how each person is related or connected to the others and their family or community. Different cultures have different ways of describing relatives.

Below is a simple kinship chart for Rwanda.

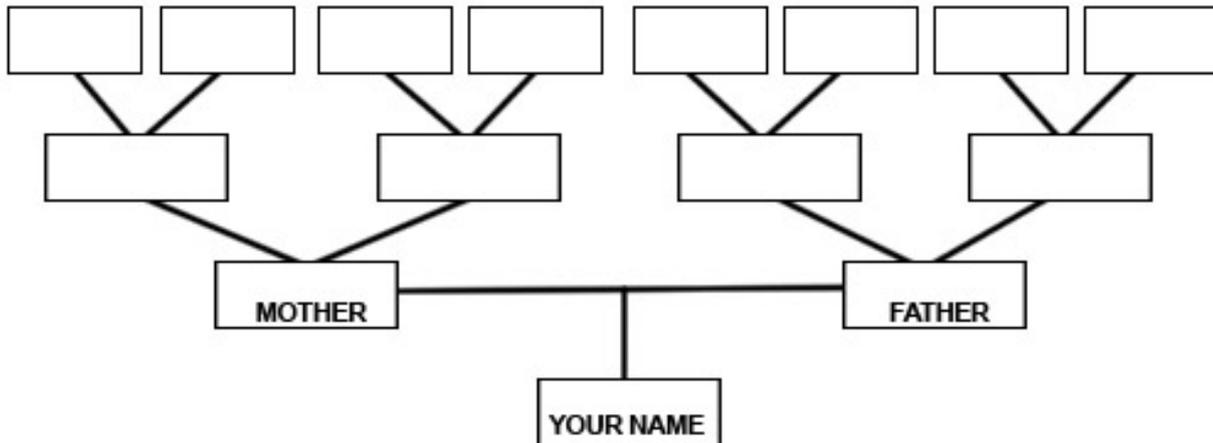
<p>Me</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>My Parents</p> <p>Father _____</p> <p>Mother _____</p>	<p>My Grandparents</p> <p>Grandfather _____</p> <p>Grandmother _____</p>
<p>My Brothers/ Sisters</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>Mother _____</p>	<p>Grandfather _____</p> <p>Grandmother _____</p>

Resource 2: Another kinship chart

 Teacher resource for planning or adapting to use with pupils

FAMILY KINSHIP CHART

NAME:



Resource 3: My timeline

Teacher resource for planning or adapting to use with pupils

Date	1988		1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Event	Born	1 st steps	1 st words	First memory	Sister born			Started school	Went to clinic for stitches		Brother born	
Year	0		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

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Section 2: Investigating how we used to live

Key Focus Question: How can you develop your pupil's thinking skills in history, using oral and written sources?

Keywords: evidence; history; thinking skills; interviews; questions; investigations

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this section, you will have:

- used oral history and documents to develop pupils' thinking skills in history;;
- planned and carried out activities that help pupils gather and use oral evidence to find out about past events.;

Introduction

When we study history as part of social studies, we place a great deal of importance on the sources of evidence that can tell us something about the past.

There are two important ways of gathering evidence about the past – finding and analysing documents that record what happened and using oral history. Oral history is the gathering of people's stories about particular events. We can also look at objects, pictures and buildings from the past to find out more.

In this section, you will encourage your pupils to investigate documents and conduct oral interviews in order to help build their understanding of their own past. It is important to encourage pupils to ask questions and listen to each other's ideas, so they develop skills in assessing evidence and drawing conclusions.

1. Gathering oral histories

Teaching history does not only involve facts about historical events, but also the development of pupils' historical skills. As a teacher, you need give your pupils the opportunity to develop and practise these skills. The kinds of events you explore with your pupils will depend on their ages. With younger children, you will also take more of a lead in helping them find out and understand what happened.

In this part, pupils will conduct oral interviews with an older family member or another member of the community. The aim of the interview is to find out how different their own lifestyles and interests are, compared with those of people in the past. By showing pupils how to conduct an oral interview, you can help develop important skills – being able to see the value of oral history and being able to listen. (Read **Resource 1: Oral history** now to find out more about this valuable resource.)

Case Study 1 shows how one teacher introduced her pupils to the idea of using oral history to find out about the past. Read this before trying **Activity 1** with your class.

Case Study 1: Family oral histories

Every person has a history. Mrs Eunice Shikongo, a Grade 5 teacher at Sheetheni School on the outskirts of Windhoek in Namibia, wants her pupils to explore their own family histories by interviewing one family member.

First, she discusses what oral evidence is, by encouraging pupils to share things they have learned from their grandparents. She asks them: 'Has what you have learned been written down?' Most agree that things learned in this way are not written, but passed on by word of mouth. Mrs Shikongo then explains that, by conducting an interview, pupils will collect oral

evidence about what the past was like and will find out what a valuable source of evidence this can be.

She helps them compile a list of interesting questions to use to interview their family members (see **Resource 2: Possible interview questions**). The pupils then add their own questions to the list before carrying out these interviews at home.

The next day, they share their findings with the rest of their class. Mrs Shikongo summarises their findings on the board under the heading 'Then'. Next, she asks them to answer the same questions about their own lives, and summarises this information under the heading 'Now'. She asks them to think about how their lives are different from the lives of their family members in the past. She then asks the pupils, in pairs, to compare 'Then' and 'Now'. Younger pupils write two/three sentences using words from the board. Older pupils write a short paragraph.

Activity 1: Oral interviews about childhood

First organise your pupils into pairs. Then tell them to think of some questions they can ask an older person about his/her childhood. Give the pupils time to think up their questions and tell them how long they have to do this task – maybe two or three days. If you have younger pupils, you could work together to make up three or four questions they could remember and ask at home.

When they have asked the questions at home, ask the pupils to share their information with their partners.

Then ask each pair of pupils to join with another pair and share what they have found out.

Now ask each group of four to complete a table to show how life has changed.

Older person	Me
I would travel to market by donkey	I travel to market by bus

Discuss with the whole class how life has changed since their parents and/or grandparents or other older people were children. Pose questions that encourage them to reflect on why such changes have taken place. (**Key Resource: Using questioning to promote**

thinking can help you think of the kinds of questions you need to ask to stimulate pupils. You could note some of these down before the lesson to remind you at this stage.)

Make a list of the key changes on the board.

2. Investigating a historical event

As well as using oral histories to find out about life in the past, you can use written records with your pupils.

In this section, we look at how different sets of records can help pupils build up their understanding of the past. In **Activity 2** and the **Key Activity**, pupils explore written records of past events and conduct oral interviews with community members. How you organise and gather resources together is part of your role and advice is given on how you might do this.

Case Study 2: Using written records to explore past events

Mr Kagabo is a teacher of Primary 6 at Nyundo Primary School in Kanama, Western Province. The anniversary of World War I is coming up and he wants his pupils to think about the events that led up to the war and their consequences.

He sends his class to the library where they read up on the events. Two local newspapers, *Imvaho Nshya* and *The New Times*, have just published supplements about the war and he reads extracts from these to his pupils to stimulate their interest. These articles contain profiles of the lives of some of the people who were involved. He divides his class into groups and asks each group to take one of these people and to research and then write a profile of that person on a poster, for display in the school hall. The poster must include how they were involved and what has happened to them since.

Mr Kagabo's pupils then plan to present their findings to the whole school. Their posters are displayed around the hall and some of the pupils speak at the assembly.

Resource 3: World War I in Rwanda gives some background information.

Activity 2: Researching important dates in history

This activity is built on a visit to a museum, in this case the National Museum in Butare, but you could use a more local site. (If it is not possible for you to visit a museum, you could collect together some newspaper articles, pictures and books to help your pupils find out for themselves about an event.)

Decide on a particular historical event that you wish your pupils to investigate during the visit to the museum (or in class if you have the resources), e.g. the role missions played in the Ruzagayura famine (1943–1944) (see **Resource 4: The Ruzagayura famine**). It is important that you focus the attention of your pupils on a particular event, especially if they are visiting a museum covering many years of the past.

Divide the class into groups, giving each a different issue or aspect of the historical event to focus upon.

Discuss what kinds of questions they might need to find the answers to as they read and look at the exhibitions (if at museum) or materials (if in school).

Back in class, ask the pupils in their groups to write up their findings on large posters. Display these in the classroom or school hall for all to see.

3. Thinking critically about evidence

This part is intended to extend your ideas of how to help pupils use oral history as a resource for finding out about the past. You will encourage them to think critically about the validity and reliability of such evidence, and to compare oral testimonies of a historical event with written evidence of the same event. Investigating the similarities and differences in the two types of evidence provides an exciting learning opportunity for pupils.

Case Study 3: Collecting oral testimonies

Mrs Nikuze teaches social studies to Primary 6 at a small school just outside Nyanza. Many of the families have older members who remember the Ruzagayura famine of the 1940s. **Resource 4** gives some background information. Mrs Nikuze has invited two people to come to the school to speak about their experiences. (See **Key Resource: Using the local community/environment as a resource** as this will help you plan and organise such a visit.) They will come on consecutive days.

Mrs Nikuze warns her class that these two people are now very old, and that an older person's memory is not always very good. Before the guests arrive, the pupils prepare some questions that they want to ask the visitors. Over two days, the visitors come and tell their stories. The pupils listen carefully and ask them questions.

In the next lesson, Mrs Nikuze and the class discuss the similarities and differences between the two accounts. They think about why the two visitors have different views on the events.

Mrs Nikuze lists the key points that came out of their stories and also explains that while these oral histories may give pupils some understanding of the Ruzagayura famine, they may not always be accurate, and the stories that different people tell may vary considerably.

Mrs Nikuze believes her class learned a valuable lesson in the uses and problems of gathering oral evidence of history.

Key Activity: Comparing oral interviews and written texts

With your pupils, identify an important historical event (such as a local feud or uprising) that took place in your area in the past. If you can, find a short written text about it. **Resource 4** gives one example you could use if you cannot find another event.

In preparing this activity, you need to gain an understanding for yourself (as a teacher) about what people in your community know about the uprising or event in question. These 'memories' are the oral stories that have been passed down from person to person. Identify some key people who your pupils could talk to at home or could come into school.

Send your pupils out in groups to interview these older people. Ask the pupils to record ten key points made by each interviewee. (Make sure that pupils only go in groups and that they are safe at all times.)

Back in class, ask your pupils to feed back their key findings.

Ask each group to design a poster of the event, including the key events and using some of the visitor's comments to give a feeling of what it was like to be there.

Display these in class.

Discuss with your pupils whether they think they have enough clear evidence about what happened from the people they spoke to. If not, how could they find out more?

Resource 1: Oral history

Background information / subject knowledge for teacher

Introduction

We all have stories to tell, stories about our lives and special events that have taken place. We give our experiences an order and organise such memories into stories. These stories could, if collected together with other people's memories of the same event, allow us to build up a clearer picture of what actually happened.

Your local community will be a rich source for exploring what happened at a particular event or what it was like to live there 20 years ago. Your pupils could investigate the Nigerian Civil or Biafran War or some other more local event.

What is oral history?

Oral history is not folklore, gossip, hearsay or rumour, but the real history of people told from their perspectives, as they remember it. It involves the systematic collection of living people's stories of their own experiences. These everyday memories have historical importance. They help us understand what life is like. If we do not collect and preserve those memories, then one day they will disappear forever.

Your stories and the stories of the people around you are unique and can provide valuable information. Because we only live for so many years we can only go back one lifetime. This makes many historians anxious that they may lose valuable data and perspectives on events. Gathering these stories helps your pupils develop a sense of their own identities and how they fit into the story of their home area.

How do you collect people's stories?

When you have decided what event or activity you want to find out about, you need to find people who were involved and ask if they are willing to tell you their stories. Contact them to arrange a time of day and tell them what you want to talk about and what you will do.

You need to record what your interviewee says. You can do this by taking notes by hand or possibly by tape recording or video recording. Having collected your information or evidence, it is important to compare and contrast different people's views of the same event, so that you can identify the facts from the interpretations that different people put on the same event. You could ask your pupils, in groups, to interview different people and then to write a summary of their findings to share with the rest of the class. These could be made into a book about your class's investigation into a particular event.

Taken from: <http://www.dohistory.org>

Resource 2: Possible interview questions

Teacher resource for planning or adapting to use with pupils

Below are some questions to use with a visitor to find out about an event in the past or how they used to do things in the past. Areas you could explore include:

- growing food;
- traditional dress;
- traditional healing;
- building houses;
- education.

These three sets of starter questions will help you support your pupils in thinking of their own questions.

(1) Historical events

- What historical events took place when you were young?
- What did you wear when you went to a party or a wedding?
- Which event do you remember most?
- What do you remember about it?
- What happened? Tell me the story as you remember it.
- Who else was with you?
- Could I speak to them about this still?

(2) Games

- What games did you play when you were a child?
- How did you play these games?
- Who taught you to play these games?
- When did you play them?
- Where did you play them?
- What other activities did you enjoy?

(3) Growing food

- What vegetables and fruit did you grow?
- How did you grow them?
- Where did you grow them?
- What tools did you use?
- What did vegetables cost at the time?
- Where did you buy them? Which ones did you buy?
- What else did you eat that you liked?
- Do you still eat these foods?

Resource 3: World War I in Rwanda

Background information / subject knowledge for teacher

World War I did not only take place in Europe but also in colonised countries of Africa and Asia. Rwanda, which was a German Protectorate from the end of the 19th century, became a battlefield between Germans and Belgians. Belgium wished to stay neutral as it was in Europe since 1830 because it was not prepared to be engaged in a war. It feared to lose its prestige in Africa. Germany also feared to start fighting in Africa as most of its colonies were scattered colonies and therefore not easy to defend once encircled by enemies.

Causes of the conflict

The conflict was the result of serious tensions between European countries since the 19th century. As some of these countries had colonies in Africa and Asia, the conflict extended there as well. The involvement of the Rwandan royal court in the war was due to a request from the Germans. Most combatants, called Indugaruga, came from Indengabaganizi and Iziruguru troops. Moreover, King Yuhi V Musinga had heard that the Belgians had confiscated a lot of cattle and was hoping to regain lost territory of Bufumbira, Rucuro, Bwishya and the whole Ijwilsland. Since the 19th century, Belgium had been eager to have a territory from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. It entered in the conflict to have a region to exchange at the end of the war, in order to have a large opening on the Atlantic Ocean.

Sequence of events

The beginning of hostilities was when a German officer from Kigoma came to the other border of Tanganyika Lake to find out whether Belgian intentions related to war or peace. He was arrested and he interpreted this as a provocative reaction, which he reported when he escaped. Belgians troops did not attack immediately. It took a year of preparation, as some of them had gone to help Allies in other African countries.

When the Belgians attacked in December 1915, German forces were divided into three groups. The first one, commanded by Captain Wintgens, protected the northeast of Kivu Lake. The second, led by Major von Langen, had to defend Rusizi River and had its branches at Usumbura, Kigoma and Ujiji. The last one, led by Captain Godovius, had to stop British troops from entering from Ugandan territory. These German troops had the advantage of mastery of the region.

The Belgian troops were commanded in the north by Colonel Molitor and fought face-to-face with Wintgens' troops. In the south, there was Lieutenant-Colonel Olsen. Belgian troops attacked not only from Belgian Congo but also crossed through Ugandan territory to surprise the Germans in Kigali by 9 May 1916. This capture of Kigali made the situation serious for the Germans as Kigali was their focal point for communication. Wintgens left Bugoyi Region to avoid being encircled by Belgians and came to Nyanza, the royal capital. This was occupied by Belgian troops on 19 May 1916. The Germans had left two white flags raised at the palace in order not to be attacked by the Belgians. The Germans withdrew through the south of Rwanda and their departure surprised Rwandans in general and King Yuhi Musinga in particular. The king lost his collaborators and defenders of his regime against the rebellions in the northern regions of Rwanda.

Consequences of the war

During this crisis, Rwanda was affected by the Rumanura famine, which started in Bugoyi. During the war, troops stayed for a few years in this region and the population was obliged to offer its crops to German troops. It had also to work for them. As the region was the breadbasket of Rwanda, the greater part of the country was also affected. During this time, a lot of rain fell, further hampering food production and thereby increasing hunger. Nyundo Mission estimated that around 20,000 people had died out of the 100,000 people who lived there. Others left the region to escape from working for the German army. During their withdrawal, German troops destroyed the crops. As Belgian troops were

many in number, large numbers of cows were slaughtered for meat. Some of the people recruited to carry Belgian luggage died due to tiredness and hunger.

Missionary activity had virtually ceased by the beginning of 1916. The peasants were mobilised for portage. At Rwaza, since the White Fathers could no longer pay teachers, the schools emptied. Many catechists continued working on half pay and numbers of children attending catechism fell from 119 to 82.

After the departure of the Germans, the Catholic stations again became the principal actors in the colonial system. The Belgian commanders could turn to no one but to the White Fathers for advice. After World War I, the Germans were replaced by the Belgians as the colonial masters of Rwanda. Belgium expected to stay in a good relationship with the Allies. This became complicated when Britain wanted to take Belgian-conquered territories. Belgium was not invited to influence directly the Versailles Treaty which ended World War I, but her Foreign Minister (Orts) and the British foreign minister (Milner) decided on the fate of Rwanda. The country lost its eastern part (Gisaka and Mubali) between 1919 and 1923, which was added to British territories.

The Belgian colonial period was characterised by change in Rwanda in political, economic, social and cultural domains.

Taken from: F.Nahimana: Le blanc est arrivé, le roi est parti. Une facette de l'histoire du Rwanda contemporain (1894-1931), Kigali, 1987.

B.Paternostre de la Mairie: Le Rwanda. Son effort de développement, antécédents historiques et conquête de la révolution rwandaise, 2eme édition, Kigali, Editions Rwandaises, Bruxelles, Editions de Boeck, 1983.

Resource 4: The Ruzagayura famine – 1943-1944

Introduction

The Ruzagayura famine of 1943-44 was a major famine which occurred during the time when Rwanda was colonised by Belgium. It occurred during the Second World War and the affects were made worse by the attempts of the colonial authorities to send agricultural produce and livestock to the Belgian Congo, as part of the Allied war effort.

The famine began around October 1943 and ended in December 1944. It covered almost all of Rwanda, with the exception of the territory of Shangugu. This territory in the southwest of the country has a microclimate that protected it from the drought that was experienced elsewhere.

The drought caused considerable damage and suffering. Corpses littered the roads and countryside, and starving, emaciated people roamed the hills in search of food. People had to eat wild plants, the roots of banana trees or ferns, or fruits of acacias, none of which was very nutritious. To survive, some people exchanged their possessions for food. The famine led to a large number of deaths and a huge migration of people from Rwanda to neighbouring Belgian Congo and British Uganda.

Causes

The famine was caused by a number of factors, both natural and man-made:

- Successive periods of drought in September and October 1942, April and May 1943, and October 1943.
- During 1943 potatoes, sweet potatoes and beans were destroyed by fungus such as mildew and Rhizoctonia, and the bean seed fly.

- The war meant that crops and animals were required as food for the Belgian army in Congo, extra workers in the tin mines in the Congo, and British forces stationed in Uganda and Tanganyika. Food was therefore taken out of Rwanda, just when it was needed to feed the population.

Effects

There were more and more criticisms of the war effort from Rwandan civilians, the missionaries, local leaders and the King of Rwanda, Mutara III Rudahigwa. The Christian missionaries began to transport food to a supply point in Bujumbura, so it could be given to Rwandan civilians. The King of Rwanda also sent help to the affected region and eventually the colonial administration helped. People began protesting against the mandatory provision of food and livestock to mining companies.

Although people in the Congo and the Belgian Government, in exile in London, were aware of the famine and the devastating effects, the Belgian people were not. Belgium was occupied by the Germany Army at the time, and across Europe, the main focus was on trying to defeat Hitler.

Further Reading

Singiza, D. (2012) *Ruzagayura, une famine au Rwanda au Coeur de Second Conflit mondial*, IHOES [online]. Available at http://www.ihoes.be/publications_en_ligne.php?action=lire&id=104&ordre=numero (Accessed 2008).

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Section 3: Using different forms of evidence in history

Key Focus Question: How can you use mind mapping and fieldwork to develop historical skills?

Keywords: historical skills; mind mapping; fieldwork; investigations; history; maps

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this section, you will have:

- used pictorial maps to help pupils see the importance of the natural environment in human settlement patterns (see also **Module 1, Section 2**);
- used small-group investigations, including fieldwork, to develop pupils' understanding of early African societies

Introduction

In addition to looking at oral and written evidence, your pupils can also learn about the past from other sources, for example maps.

In this section, you will structure lessons and activities that will help pupils understand the factors that led to the emergence of strong African kingdoms in the past. It provides you with insight into the kinds of evidence and resources you can use.

It covers:

- using maps and other documents to examine factors in the natural environment that influenced the nature of the settlement and the kingdom;
- exploring the role of pastoral and agricultural practices in shaping African lifestyles and culture;

exposing pupils to the material evidence that remains in and around settlements, which will help them examine how the past is reconstructed.

1. Thinking about the location of settlements

By looking at the local environment and the physical layout of the land, it is possible to think about why a community settled in a certain place.

Great Zimbabwe provides a good example. It is important that as a social studies teacher you understand a case like this, as it gives you the skills to relate these ideas to a number of different ancient African kingdoms and to your local setting. Using fieldwork, such as actual trips to a site, allows pupils to see for themselves why one place was chosen for settlement and why some developments survived longer than others.

Most settlements are where they are because the environment provides some kind of resource, such as water or trees, and/or the site provides protection from the elements and, in earlier times, from enemies. Villages and towns are often found near a stream or wood to provide water and wood for shelter and to burn for heat and cooking. By looking closely at your school's local environment or your pupils' home environment, whichever is easier, you can help them to begin to understand how settlements developed.

Maps from earlier times will show how a site has changed over time (this can build on the time walk activity from **Module 2, Section 1**).

Case Study 1: Investigating heritage sites

Ms Sekai Chiwamdamera teaches a Grade 6 class at a primary school in Musvingo in Zimbabwe. Her school is near the heritage site of Great Zimbabwe. She knows that many of her pupils pass by this magnificent site of stone-walled enclosures on their way to school. But she wonders whether they know why it is there. Ms Sekai wants to help her pupils realise that the landscape and its natural resources played an important part in people's decision to settle in Great Zimbabwe.

She begins her lesson by explaining how Great Zimbabwe was a powerful African kingdom that existed between 1300 and 1450 (see **Resource 1: Great Zimbabwe**). She asks the pupils to consider why the rulers of this kingdom chose to settle in the Zimbabwe Plateau rather than anywhere else in Africa. A map is her key resource for this discussion (see **Resource 2: Pictorial map of Great Zimbabwe**). One by one, she points out the

presence of gold, ivory, tsetse fly, water supply and access to trade routes on the map; she asks her pupils to suggest how each of these led people to establish the settlement where they did. As her pupils suggest answers, Ms Sekai draws a mind map on the board (see **Key Resource: Using mind maps and brainstorming to explore ideas**). Ms Sekai is pleased at the level of discussion and thinking that has taken place.

Activity 1: Using a map to gain information about Great Zimbabwe

Before the lesson, copy the map and questions from **Resource 2** onto the chalkboard or have copies ready for each group.

First, explain what a key represents on a map. Then divide the class into groups and ask each group to analyse the key relating to the map of Great Zimbabwe. Agree what each item on the key represents.

Ask your pupils why they think the people first settled here. You could use the questions in **Resource 2** to help them start their discussion.

As they work, go around the groups and support where necessary by asking helpful questions.

After 15 minutes, ask each group to list their ideas.

Next, ask them to rank their ideas in order of importance.

Write down their ideas on the chalkboard.

Finally, ask pupils to vote on which they think are the three most important factors.

With younger children, you could look at local features and ask them to think why people settled here.

2. Using mind maps to structure thinking about the past

In the past, cattle were always viewed as an important resource, and many farmers and communities still view cattle this way.

The purpose of **Activity 2** is for pupils to investigate the traditional role of cattle in African societies using the local community as a source of information. They will then determine how much African farming societies have changed.

Case Study 2 and **Activity 2** use mind mapping and a template to help pupils think about the task as they work together in groups to share ideas.

Case Study 2: Farming in Eastern Province

There are many farmers living in Kiramuruzi area, Eastern Province of Rwanda, and many of the pupils in the school are children of farmers. Jane Mukamuzoni wants to investigate with her class how important cattle were to the lifestyle and culture of the early African farmers who settled in Rwanda. She also wants her pupils to think about the extent to

which African farming societies have changed. She plans to use the local community as a resource of information.

Mukamusoni begins her lesson by explaining the important role of cattle in early African societies. Using and guiding the ideas of the pupils, she draws a mind map on the chalkboard that highlights the importance of cattle, and what cattle were used for. (See **Key Resource: Using mind maps and brainstorming to explore ideas** and **Resource 3: A mind map about keeping cattle** to help you question your pupils.) The class discuss these ideas.

In the next lesson, in small groups with a responsible adult, the pupils go out to interview local farmers. Mukamusoni has talked with them beforehand to see who is willing to talk with her pupils.

The pupils had two simple questions to ask local farmers:

- 1 Why are cattle important to you?
- 2 What are the main uses of cattle?

Back in class, they share their findings and Mukamusoni lists their answers on the chalkboard. They discuss what has changed over the years.

Activity 2: Farming old and new

Before the lesson, read **Resource 4: Cattle in traditional Rwandese society**

Explain to pupils why cattle were important to Rwandans.

Ask them, in groups, to list reasons why people used to keep cattle.

For homework, ask them to find out from older members of the community how keeping cattle has changed.

In the next lesson, ask the groups to copy and then fill out the template in **Resource 5: The role of cattle – past and present** to record their ideas.

Share each group's answers with the whole class and display the templates on the wall for several days so pupils can revisit the ideas.

3. Fieldwork to investigate local history

One way to reconstruct how societies in the past lived is to analyse buildings, artefacts, sculptures and symbols found on sites from a long time ago.

In this part, pupils go on a field trip to a place of historical interest. If this is not realistic for your class, it is possible to do a similar kind of task in the classroom by using a range of documents, photographs and artefacts. Pupils can start to understand how to investigate these and fill in some of the gaps for themselves about what used to happen.

Case Study 3: Organising a field trip

Alice Kankindi has already explored with her Primary 5 pupils that precolonial Rwanda was a powerful political kingdom with a strong ruler called umwami (the king). Now she wants

them to think about how we know this. As her school is near Nyanza, she organises a field trip. She wants the pupils to explore the buildings and artefacts, and think about how historians used this evidence to construct the kingdom's history.

At the site, the pupils take notes about what the buildings look like. They also describe and draw some of the artefacts and symbols that can be found in and around each of these buildings. Both at Nyanza and back in class Kankindi ensures that the less academically able pupils are put in groups that will support them with their observations and writing.

Back at school, they discuss all the things they saw and list these on the chalkboard. Kankindi asks them to organise their findings under headings for the different types of building they have seen. The pupils then discuss what they think the different buildings were used for, based on what they looked like and the artefacts and sculptures that were found there. Kankindi helps fill in the gaps by explaining aspects of the Rwandese culture and the meaning of some of the sculptures and artefacts. The ideas are displayed and other classes are invited to see the work.

See **Key resource: Using the local community/environment as a resource.**

Key Activity: Exploring local history

Before you start this activity, gather together as much information as you can about the local community as it used to be. You may have newspaper articles, notes of talks with older members of the community, names of people who would be happy to talk to your pupils.

Organise your class into groups. Explain that they are going to find out about the history of the village using a range of resources. Each group could focus on one small aspect, for example the local shop, or church, or school.

Look at the resources you have, if any, before going to talk to people.

Give the groups time to prepare their questions and then arrange a day for them to go out to ask about their area.

On return to school, each group decides how to present their findings to the class.

Share the findings.

You could make their work into a book about the history of your local area.

Resource 1: Great Zimbabwe

Background information / subject knowledge for teacher

Great Zimbabwe, or 'houses of stone', is the name given to hundreds of great stone ruins spread out over a 500 sq km (200 sq mi) area within the modern-day country of Zimbabwe, which itself is named after the ruins.



The ruins can be broken down into three distinct architectural groups. They are known as the Hill Complex, the Valley Complex and the famous Great Enclosure. Over 300 structures have been located so far in the Great Enclosure. The types of stone structures found on the site give an indication of the status of the citizenry. Structures that were more elaborate were built for the kings and situated further away from the centre of the city. It is thought that this was done in order to escape sleeping sickness.

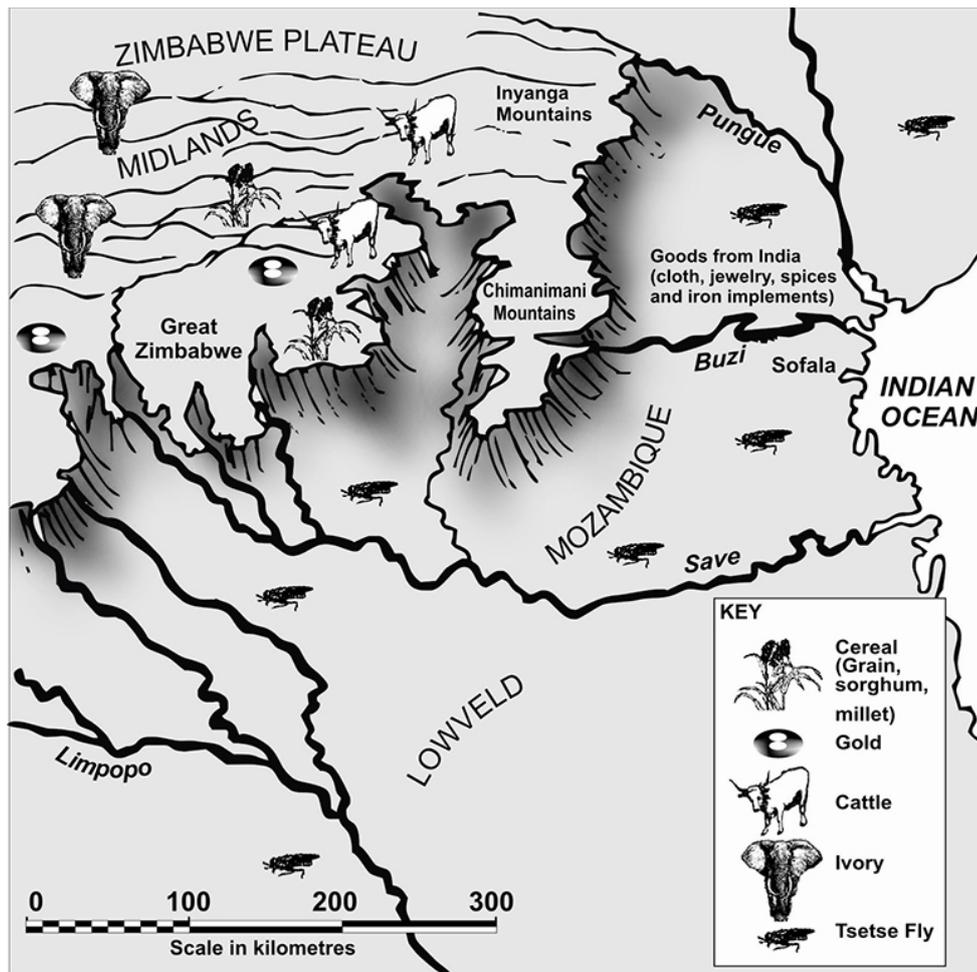
What little evidence exists suggests that Great Zimbabwe also became a centre for trading, with artefacts suggesting that the city formed part of a trade network extending as far as China. Chinese pottery shards, coins from Arabia, glass beads and other non-local items have been excavated at Zimbabwe.

Nobody knows for sure why the site was eventually abandoned. Perhaps it was due to drought, perhaps due to disease or it simply could be that the decline in the gold trade forced the people who inhabited Great Zimbabwe to look elsewhere.

The ruins of Great Zimbabwe have been a UNESCO World Heritage Site since 1986. More information can be found at https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Great_Zimbabwe

Resource 2: Pictorial map of Great Zimbabwe

 **Teacher resource for planning or adapting to use with pupils**

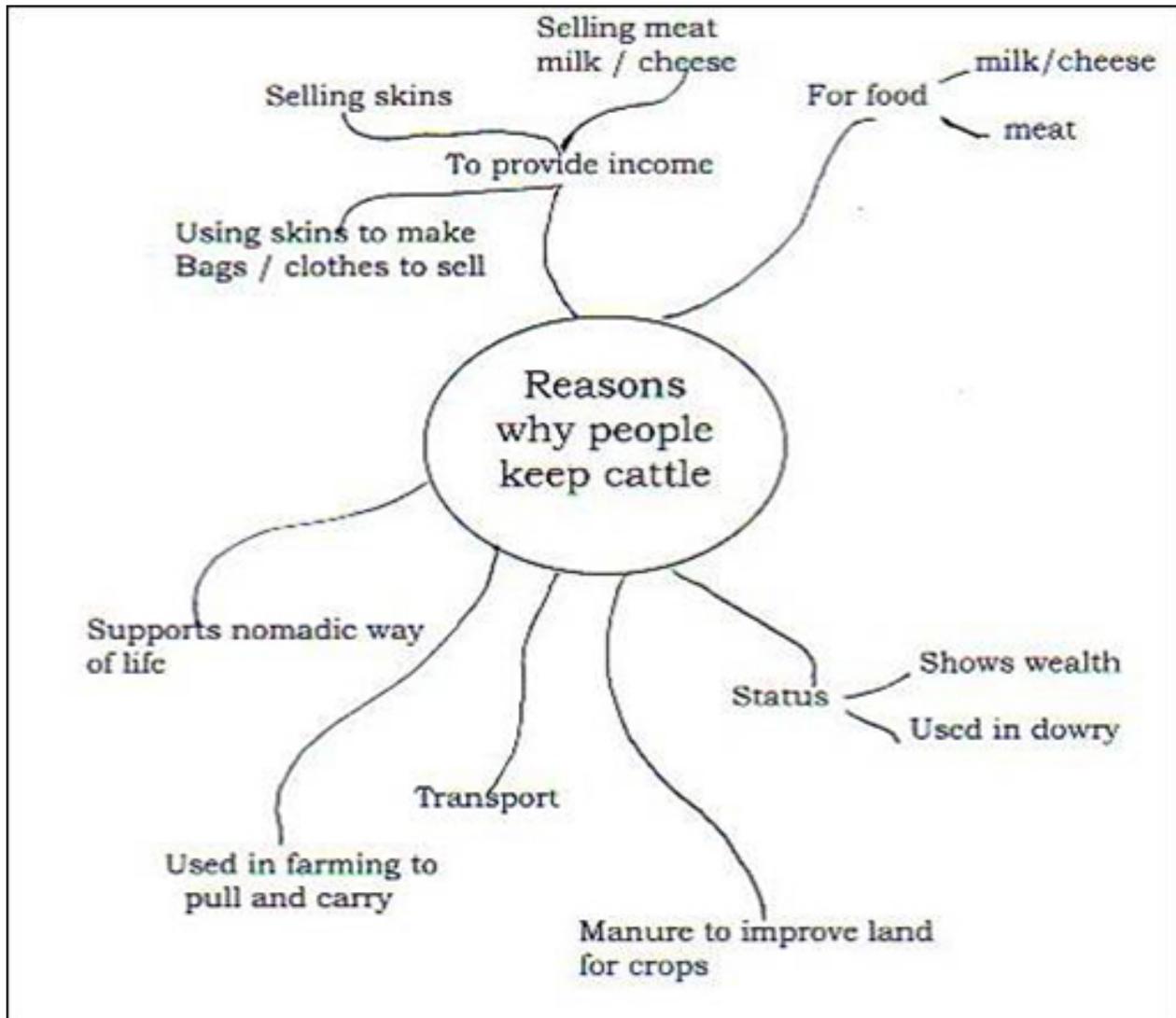


- 1 Find Great Zimbabwe.
- 2 Find the Zimbabwe Plateau. Why do you think the founders of Great Zimbabwe decided to build the settlement on a plateau?
- 3 What natural resources were found in and around the region of Great Zimbabwe?
- 4 Why were these resources important?
- 5 What other environmental factors may have contributed to the people's decision to settle on the Zimbabwe Plateau?

Taken from: Dyer, C., Nisbet, J., Friedman, M., Johannesson, B., Jacobs, M., Roberts, B. & Seleti, Y. (2005). *Looking into the Past: Source-based History for Grade 10*. Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

Resource 3: A mind map about keeping cattle

 Teacher resource for planning or adapting to use with pupils



Resource 4: Cattle in traditional Rwandese society

📌 Background information / subject knowledge for teacher

Cattle played a major role in Rwandese traditional life. Together with hoes, cattle were used in exchange for expensive tools.

Cow products

Rwandans who did not own cattle would work in exchange for milk and other milk products, such as butter. Milk was also exchanged for products such as honey or bracelets.

Cow hides were worn by old people while small pieces of horns were used to clean hides used to make clothes. The horns were also used by traditional medicinemen and in the making of pipes or ornaments. Some hair from the cattle tail was used in the making of jewelry to wear on arms and legs.

Cow dung was used not only as manure but also to cover some utensils, for example baskets.

How did one get a cow?

A person in Rwandese society had a number of ways of getting cows:

Impahano were cows bought for oneself. People got them from agricultural products or hoes made by ancient Rwandans exchanged for cattle. Many people got cows this way. Another way of getting a cow was to keep it for a friend. After this cow had produced a calf, the keeper benefited from its milk by sharing it with its original owner. The cow owner had the right to have the milk four times per week and the keeper two times. A good keeper had the chance to be given one cow.

When a cow owner had problems such as lack of food, or needing to arrange a child's wedding ceremonies, and did not want to sell his cow, he could pawn it to a friend. The latter gave him goats or other small animals. Then, the cow owner had to pay after this cow produced a calf. This helped many people to have their own cows. Another means of obtaining a cow was to be a client of a cow owner. This was called ubuhake and this institution was mainly found in the centre, south and eastern parts of Rwanda. The people without cows had to perform some duties to the cow owner. The latter had to protect his clients against injustice. There were no fixed days to work in exchange for a cow in this manner. It could be after one month, two months or one year. If someone was not satisfied with his patron, he had the right to leave the patron and look for another one. Only the king of Rwanda was a client to nobody.

When a boy wanted to marry, he had to give dowry. This was a sign of love between two families. In most cases, people paid cows or hoes. Thus Rwandans got cows during the marriage ceremony. The boy's family could later get another cow from the family-in-law. This was called indongoranyo.

Children could have cows from their parents as inheritance. When a parent took his children to their grandparents, the children could be given cows by their grandfather. These animals then belonged to the children. People also gave cows to their friends or used to get them from the battlefield as spoils. If someone lost his cows due to disease, he was given others by his friends or clients (inshumbushanyo). In the same way, when someone was dispossessed by his patron, he got cattle from his friends.

Cattle owners had a particular way of shaving their children in a style called igisage after weaning. At this time, the child got a cow. A child who buried his parent was to receive one cow called inkuracyobo. Lastly, a member of any family who accompanied a bride would get an animal like a goat or a cow.

What were the cattle owners' lives like?

Ancient cattle owners in Rwanda engaged in some supplementary farming, along with animal breeding. Beans, sorghum and other grains were their main crops. Milk, drunk fresh and as buttermilk, was their staple food, and meat was not regularly consumed. The cattle were in general herded by the men, although the women helped with milking the cows. The women also made butter and cheese and some of them traded at the markets. Among ancient Rwandans, wealth was measured by the size of a family's herds.

Before the Belgian reform in the 1920s, every village had a chief of pastures. This person was obliged to collect all taxes related to cows, such as milk and hides, and send them to the royal palace. The king advisers' – abiru – performed ceremonies in order to protect cattle against diseases.

Ankole



provided by Dr Alberto Zorloni, DVM

Also known as: Ankole Longhorn Varieties: Bahema, Bashi, Kigezi, Watusi

The Ankole cattle are distributed from Lake Mobutu to Lake Tanganyika in eastern Africa. The original animals were thought to have been brought to northern Uganda by Hamitic tribes sometime between the 13th and 15th centuries. The Ankole's susceptibility to the tsetse fly forced the tribes and their cattle further south. The Hima or Bahima tribe settled on the shores of Lake Victoria in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. The Watusi or Tutsi tribe continued to Rwanda and Burundi with their cattle, some of which have spread to the lake districts of Zaire. Selection in all the tribes is based on horn size.

The purer Ankole cattle have a medium-long head, a short neck with a deep dewlap and a narrow chest. The hump is cervico-thoracic, small and barely visible on the cow. Although the small-uddered Ankole cows yield meagre amounts of milk, milking is an important ritual in some tribes. Bloodletting is a common practice. A few tribes use the cattle for work; none use them for meat. In general, the animals are highly prized as status symbols, for ceremonial functions and not for their productivity.

There are three main strains of this breed:



1. Bahema strain: found in Northern Kivu, near Edward and AminLakes.

2. Bashi strain: found in Southern Kivu, around Lake Kivu.

3. Tutsi strain: found in Burundi, near the northern part of TanganyikaLake.

The Kigezi strain reported by Mason (1995) is less common.

The size of horns are smaller in the Bahema and the largest horns are found in the Tutsi strain. The color of the Ankole varies but the Tutsi strain is predominately red.

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Dr Alberto Zorloni, Ethiopia

Genus Bos: Cattle Breeds of the World, 1985, MSO-AGVET (Merck & Co., Inc.), Rahway, N.J.

Mason, I.L. 1996. A World Dictionary of Livestock Breeds, Types and Varieties. Fourth Edition. C.A.B International. 273 pp.

Photographs

R. E. McDowell, Professor Emeritus of International Animal Science, Cornell University, and provided by Paul O. Brackelsberg, Professor of Animal Science, IowaStateUniversity

Dr Alberto Zorloni, Ethiopia

Text taken from: S.Ndekezi, P.C.Nyetera, A.Nyagahene, Ubuhashyi bw'Abanyarwanda bo hambere, Kigali, Reji y'Icapiro ry'Amashuri, 1987.

Images taken from: www.ansi.okstate.edu

Resource 5: The role of cattle - past and present

Pupil use

The role of cattle in the past	The role of cattle today
Cattle were important for:	Cattle are important for:

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Section 4: understanding timelines

Key Focus Question: How can you use timelines and other sources to develop understanding of cause and effect?

Keywords: timelines; historical change; chronology; history; historical sources; debate

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this section, you will have:

- used timelines to represent historical change over time;
- helped pupils to identify the key events in a particular historical process;
- encouraged pupils to view history not just as a series of dates to be learned but as a process to be investigated;
- used a variety of sources to help pupils see that one event may have many causes.

Introduction

When developing an understanding of time past and passing, it is important to be able to sequence events into the order in which they happened.

Pupils often struggle with the concept of time. In this section, you will first help your pupils to divide time into periods that are more manageable and then, once they are able to do this, think about the order of events and why this is important. (With young pupils, this might be as simple as helping them order how they do certain tasks, leading on to more complex activities as their understanding grows.) You will then help your pupils identify the most important events in a particular passage of time. This can lead, with older pupils, into an analysis of cause and effect, and the understanding that there is usually more than one cause of an event.

1. Building a timeline

Investigating a particular period in history, and trying to sequence events in the order in which they happened, will help pupils begin to see the links between events and some of the possible causes. Understanding the causes of change in our countries and societies may help us to live our lives better.

The purpose of this part is to explore how using timelines in history can be a useful way to divide time into more manageable 'bits', so that we know which 'bit' or period we are dealing with. This is particularly important when we are teaching history, because it is crucial that pupils understand the idea of change over time.

From an early age, pupils need help to sort and order events. As they grow and experience life, they can revisit activities like these ones, using more complex sequences and events.

(**Section 1** in this module used timelines to explore family history. You might find it helpful to look at that section if you have not done so already, particularly if you are working with younger pupils.)

Case Study 1: Ordering events

Ms Tetha Rugenza, who teaches history at a small school in Rwanda, wants to show her Grade 4 class how to divide up time into smaller periods. In order to do this, she plans a lesson where she and her pupils explore how to construct a timeline and divide it into periods.

Ms Rugenza decides to use the example of Rwanda. She draws a timeline on the board of the history of Rwanda. To help pupils understand the concept of periods, she divides the

history of Rwanda into the pre-colonial, the colonial and the independence period. To give a sense of how long each of these periods is, she draws each period to scale.

She writes a list of important events, together with the date on which they took place, on separate pieces of paper and displays these on a table. Each event, she tells the class, falls into a particular period. She asks her pupils to work out which events fall into which period and in which order, doing a couple of examples herself. She calls out one event at a time and allows a pupil to come and stick it next to the appropriate place on the timeline. The rest of the class check that it has been put in the correct place. Through discussion, she helps the pupils if they are not sure where an event should go. She asks them if they can think of any other national events that should be placed on the timeline and adds them as appropriate.

Activity 1: Drawing timelines

Tell the class that they are going to make a timeline of the school year together.

Start the lesson by asking your pupils to write down the most important events that have taken place in school during the year.

Ask them to give each event a date if they can, or to find this out.

Ask pupils to order these events from the beginning to the end of the school year.

Help pupils to decide on how big they want their timelines to be and to create a scale accordingly.

Ask pupils to mark out each month correctly in terms of their chosen scale and to write down the event dates on the left-hand side of the timeline – starting at the bottom of their timeline with the past, and working up to the present at the top.

On the right-hand side of the timeline, ask pupils to write a short description of the appropriate event next to each date.

Display the timelines for all to see.

(If you do not have enough resources for this to be done individually then it can be done in groups of up to five pupils.)

Discuss as a whole class whether there are some school events that could happen at any time of the year. Are there some that have to happen at a particular time? Why? (End-of-year exams, for example – why can't they happen at the start of the year?)

2. Introducing the concept of chronology

The study of time and the order in which events took place over time is called chronology. This part explores how you can help pupils understand this sequencing of events, the relationship between the order events happen and the outcomes. In using these activities with pupils, you will realise the importance this has on their understanding of the past.

Case Study 2: Ordering events

Mrs Alice Kankindi wants to show her Primary 5 pupils how chronology affects their understanding of events. She writes the following sentences on the chalkboard:

- A body of a man lies on the floor in the room.
- A man is arrested for murder.
- Two men go into the room.
- A man leaves the room.
- A man screams.

She asks the pupils to rearrange these sentences into an order that makes sense and to provide a reason for why they think the sentences should go in that particular order. Mrs Kankindi uses this exercise to show how important it is to place events in a logical order.

However, she also wants pupils to begin to see the connections between events, and how one event influences another. She tells the class about the events in Rwanda since independence from Belgian rule to the present democratic rule. (See **Resource 1: Some important historical events since independence.**) Using some of these events, she and her pupils construct a timeline on the chalkboard. She has selected a short section of **Resource 1** so that her pupils are not confused by too much information. She cuts these events up into strips and asks her pupils to put them in date order. She asks her pupils if they can identify the most important events that changed the course of Rwandan history.

Mrs Kankindi is pleased that her pupils are beginning to see chronology as the first step in explaining why things happen.

Activity 2: Identifying key events

Give pupils, individually or in groups, a copy of a story from a local newspaper; or you could read the story to them and ask them to make notes as they listen; or you could copy the story onto the chalkboard for pupils to read. Choose the story for its interest and the sequence of events it contains.

Ask pupils to:

- read through the story;
- underline what they think are the important events that took place;
- using the events that they have underlined, create a timeline. Remind them about the importance of listing the events in order;
- mark on their timeline the event they believe is the key event;
- explain below the timeline why they have chosen that particular event as most important. In other words, how did that event cause later events?

share their answers and, by discussion, agree the key event and then discuss whether or not this key event was the only cause of later events.

3. Comparing African histories

Timelines can help us compare the similarities and differences in a series of events for different people, or different groups, or different countries.

For example, if your pupils drew timelines for themselves, there would be some events the same (starting school) and others different (birth of baby brother or sister for example).

Using timelines to compare the history of a variety of African countries during the time of moving to independence can help your pupils see common themes but also differences between their experiences.

Case Study 3: Examining the passage of different African countries to independence

Mrs Kankindi organised her class to work in groups to make a comparative multiple timeline that helped them to learn about the experiences of their own and other countries' journey towards independence.

For each country that she chose she made a long strip of paper (she did this by sticking A4 pieces of paper together, one piece equalling five years). See **Resource 2: African timelines template**.

This would enable the groups, when finished, to place one under another to allow for easy comparison.

With her own books, and books and other materials borrowed from a colleague in a secondary school, the groups carried out their own guided research to find out the major events for each chosen country and then wrote each event in at the correct time on the chart. (For younger classes you could provide the events and dates yourself to help them construct the timeline.) **Resource 3: Key events in the move to independence** provides examples of some key dates and also suggests websites where further information can be found if necessary.

Mrs Kankindi made the timeline for 'World events' as an example (World War II, independence for India, first flight in space, the Cold War, Vietnam War, the invention of the Internet, Invasion of Iraq etc.).

She made sure that each 'country' wrote 'Independence' in the appropriate time spot in another colour.

When all the groups had finished, she asked them to line up their timelines one under the other neatly. This enabled easy comparison between the countries.

Key Activity: Comparing the African experience

Follow the activity carried out in **Case Study 3**.

When the timelines have been completed, let each group introduce their country and talk through their timeline.

Prepare a series of questions for the class to answer, for example:

- What are the major events on the timelines?

- What similarities can you see between the experiences of different African countries?
- What are the major differences?
- Which countries were the first to gain independence and which were the last?
- Which countries have suffered most from internal wars since independence?
- What major events are soon to happen (e.g. South Africa hosting the World Cup in 2010)?

(This sort of work can easily be extended. Groups can carry on researching their designated countries to find out more about them: languages spoken; major industries; agriculture; cities and towns etc. They could draw maps of their countries and label them. There are many possibilities.)

Resource 1: Some important historical events since independence

🔍 Background information / subject knowledge for teacher

Date	Event
1 July 1962	Independence Day.
1963–1968	Crystallisation of social conflicts due to Tutsi attacks from their exile mainly in Burundi, followed by persecution and killings of Tutsi in Rwanda.
1965	Since this date, <i>Parti du mouvement de l'émancipation hutu</i> (PARMEHUTU), one of the four main political parties since the late 1950s, monopolise the power and evict other parties from the political arena.
February–March 1973	Social crisis in Rwanda. Tutsi excluded from schools and civil service. Some killed and others flee the country.
5 July 1973	Military coup in Rwanda. Major General Juvenal Habyarimana becomes head of state. Some politicians, including the former president, jailed and some later die in prison.
5 July 1975	<i>The Mouvement Révolutionnaire National pour le Développement</i> (MRND) created and is the only political party to exercise power in Rwanda till the 1990s.
1975–1985	Economic development is realised and some infrastructure scattered in the country. Increasing corruption in president's circle. Tutsi continued to be excluded from political life and some people from the north are favoured by the regime.

Date	Event
1978	Reform of the education system. Primary education becomes eight years instead of six, with the last two years focusing on vocational skills.

17 November and 24 December 1978	Referendum on a new constitution and the election of the president of the republic, Juvenal Habyarimana, who stood as the only candidate.
1986–1990	<p>Economic crisis due to the fall of coffee prices on the international market. Famines in the southern and western regions of Rwanda. Many financial and political scandals (killing of political opponents, illegal trafficking of gorillas, drugs, etc.)</p> <p>The refugee problem is strongly presented to the regime in as much as economic conditions were deteriorating in neighbouring countries and Rwandese in exile were considered as scapegoats. Refugees insisted upon coming back and Habyarimana's regime refused.</p>
1990–1994	<p>Attack of Rwanda by Rwandese Patriotic Front (RPF-Inkotanyi) from Uganda (1 October 1994). Internal opponents also insisting upon democratisation of the regime. Revenge killings on Hutu and Tutsi accused to be accomplices of RPF-Inkotanyi.</p> <p>Restoration of multipartism.</p>
4 August 1993	Peace agreement of Arusha (Tanzania) between RPF-Inkotanyi and Rwandan government. This agreement defined the sharing of power between different political actors.
6 April 1994	Crash of President Habyarimana's plane on his trip from Dar-es-Salaam. He was with President Cyprian Ntaryamira of Burundi.
7 April 1994	Beginning of the Tutsi genocide. Some Hutu opponents are also killed.

Date	Event
9 April 1994	Dr Theodore Sindikubwabo becomes president of the republic and Jean Kambanda, prime minister of the government, auto-proclaimed as abatabazi (liberators).
4 July 1994	Capture of Kigali by RPF-Inkotanyi and the dispersion of the Rwandese army forces.
19 July 1994	<p>Swearing-in of a new government in Kigali. Pasteur Bizimungu becomes president, Paul Kagame appointed vice-president and minister of defence and Faustin Twagiramungu prime minister.</p> <p>Many Rwandans flee the country to neighbouring countries. They become a source of insecurity and diplomatic tensions in the region.</p>
8 November 1994	The Security Council of the United Nations puts into place the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR) to judge people who committed the 1994 genocide and other crimes against humanity.
1995 - 1996	Ex-Rwandese army forces continue making incursions into Rwanda and information circulates that preparations are taking place for an attack on refugees in Zaire (currently Democratic Republic of Congo) to Rwanda.
18 October – 17 May 1997	First Rwanda military campaign to Zaire in support of the AFDL (<i>Alliance des Forces Démocratique pour la Libération du Congo</i>) led by Laurent Désiré Kabila in order to put an end to the refugee camps in Zaire.

2 August 1998–
October 2002

Second Rwandan intervention in Democratic Republic of Congo as Kabila distances himself from Rwandans and approaches ex-Rwandese army forces and Interahamwe. There are many anti-Tutsi and anti-Rwandan declarations in the Democratic Republic of Congo and some Rwandans who have acquired Congolese nationality start fleeing the country. Rwanda withdraws its troops after South African mediation.

Date**Event**

17 April 2000	Paul Kagame elected president by parliament to replace Pasteur Bizimungu who has resigned.
12 October 2000	The Transitional National Assembly votes a law establishing gacaca jurisdictions. This modernised traditional justice was to reveal the truth about the Tutsi genocide and to help in releasing innocent prisoners. This is to facilitate the reconciliation process.
2001	Beginning of decentralisation policy to give good services to the population and to improve the well-being of Rwandese.
31 December 2001	A new anthem is composed and a new flag raised at Amahoro Stadium and in all districts as well. A new emblem and a new motto of the Republic of Rwanda are inaugurated in replacement of those proclaimed in 1962 on Independence Day.
25 August 2003	A new constitution is voted by referendum on 26 May 2003. President Kagame elected by universal suffrage as president of republic with more than 95% of the votes.
2 October 2003	Elections of members of parliament by universal suffrage. Those in favour of the FPR get the majority and 49% of members of parliament are female.
6 April 2007	Release of Pasteur Bizimungu who had been jailed since April 2002 due to President Kagame's pardon.
25 July 2007	Abolition of the death penalty.

Resource 2: African timelines template

 **Teacher resource for planning or adapting to use with pupils**

Date	Nigeria	Ghana	Sudan	Kenya	Rwanda	South Africa	World events
1950							
1955		Ind (57)	Ind (57)				
1960	Ind (63)			Ind (63)	Ind (62)		
1965							
1970							
1975							
1980							
1985							
1990							
1995							
2000							

2005

2010

Resource 3: Key events in the move to independence

📌 Background information / subject knowledge for teacher

- 1957 Ghana becomes first independent black state in Africa under Kwame Nkrumah through Gandhi-inspired rallies, boycotts and strikes, forcing the British to transfer power over the former colony of the Gold Coast.
- 1958 Chinua Achebe (Nigeria): *Things Fall Apart*, written in 'African English', examines Western civilisation's threat to traditional values and reaches a large, diverse international audience.
- 1958 All-African People's Conference: Resolution on Imperialism and Colonialism, Accra, 5–13 December 1958
- 1954–1962 French colonies (Francophone Africa) oppose continued French rule despite concessions, though many eager to maintain economic and cultural ties to France – except in Algeria, with a white settler population of 1 million. Bitterly vicious civil war in Algeria ensues until independence is gained in 1962, six years after Morocco and Tunisia had received independence.
- 1958 White (Dutch-descent) Afrikaners officially gain independence from Great Britain in South Africa.
- 1964 Nelson Mandela, on trial for sabotage with other ANC leaders before the Pretoria Supreme Court, delivers his eloquent and courageous 'Speech from the Dock' before he is imprisoned for the next 25 years in the notorious South African prison Robben Island.
- 1960–1961 Zaire (formerly Belgian Congo, the richest European colony in Africa) becomes independent from Belgium in 1960. Then, in Elisabethville (now Lubumbashi), 'charismatic nationalist Patrice Lumumba was ... martyred in 1961, with the connivance of the [US] Central Intelligence Agency and a 30-year-old Congolese colonel who would soon become president of the country, Joseph Desiré Mobutu.' (Bill Berkeley, 'Zaire: An African Horror Story', *The Atlantic Monthly*, August 1993; rpt. *Atlantic Online*)
- 1962 Algeria (of Arab and Berber peoples) wins independence from France; over 900,000 white settlers leave the newly independent nation.
- 1963 Multi-ethnic Kenya (East Africa) declares independence from the British.
- 1963 Charter of the Organisation of African Unity, 25 May 1963.
- mid-60s Most former European colonies in Africa gain independence and European colonial era effectively ends. However, Western economic and cultural dominance, and African leaders' and parties' corruption intensify the multiple problems facing the new nations.
- 1965 Rhodesia: Unilateral Declaration of Independence Documents.
- 1966 Bechuanaland gains independence and becomes Botswana.
- 1970s Portugal loses African colonies, including Angola and Mozambique.

1976	Cheikh Anta Diop (Senegal, 1923–1986), one of the great African intellectuals of the 20 th century, publishes the influential and controversial book, <i>The African Origin of Civilization</i> , his project to ‘identify the distortions [about African history] we have learned and correct them for future generations’.
1980	Zimbabwe (formerly Southern Rhodesia) gains independence from large white settler population after years of hostilities.
1970s–1980s	Police state of South African white minority rulers hardens to maintain blatantly racist and inequitable system of <i>apartheid</i> , resulting in violence, hostilities, strikes, massacres headlined worldwide.
1986	Nigerian poet/dramatist/writer Wole Soyinka awarded the 1986 Nobel Prize in Literature.
1988	Egyptian novelist and short story writer Nabuib Mahfouz awarded the 1988 Nobel Prize in Literature, the first prizewinning writer with Arabic as his native tongue.
1994	The Hutus massacre up to a million Tutsis in Rwanda; then fearing reprisals from the new Tutsi government, more than a million Hutu refugees fled Rwanda in a panicked mass migration that captured the world’s attention. 500,000 of Hutu refugees streamed back into Rwanda to escape fighting in Zaire.
1996	
2001	After 38 years in existence, the Organisation for African Unity (OAU: http://www.oau-oua.org/) is replaced by the African Union.

Taken from: [www.http://www.africanhistory.about.com](http://www.africanhistory.about.com)

Timeline – African countries in order of independence

Country	Colonial name	Colonial power	Independence date	First head of state
Ethiopia	establishment as the Kingdom of Aksum		1st century BC	Menelik I
Liberia	Commonwealth of Liberia	American Colonization Society	26 July 1847	Joseph Jenkins Roberts
Libya	Libya	Italy	24 December 1951	Idris
Egypt	Egypt	Britain	1922/1936/1953	n/a
Sudan	Sudan	Britain	1 January 1956	Ismail al-Azhari
Tunisia	Tunisia	France	20 March 1956	Muhammad VIII al-Amin
Morocco	Morocco	France	7 April 1956	Mohammed V
Ghana	Gold Coast	Britain	6 March 1957	Kwame Nkrumah
Guinea	French West Africa	France	2 October 1958	Sékou Touré
Cameroon	Cameroun	France, Britain	1 January 1960	Ahmadou Ahidjo
Togo	French Togoland	France	27 April 1960	Sylvanus Olympio
Mali	French West Africa	France	20 June 1960	Modibo Keita
Senegal	French West Africa	France	20 June 1960	Léopold Senghor

Madagascar	Malagasy Protectorate	France	26 June 1960	Philibert Tsiranana
DR Congo	Belgian Congo	Belgium	30 June 1960	Patrice Lumumba
Somalia	Italian Somaliland, British Somaliland	Italy, Britain	1 July 1960	Aden Abdullah Osman Daar
Benin	French West Africa	France	1 August 1960	Hubert Maga
Niger	French West Africa	France	3 August 1960	Hamani Diori
Burkina Faso	French West Africa	France	5 August 1960	Maurice Yaméogo
Côte d'Ivoire	Côte d'Ivoire	France	7 August 1960	Félix Houphouët-Boigny
Chad	French Equatorial Africa	France	11 August 1960	François Tombalbaye
Central African Republic	French Equatorial Africa	France	13 August 1960	David Dacko
Congo	French Equatorial Africa	France	15 August 1960	Fulbert Youlou
Gabon	French Equatorial Africa	France	17 August 1960	Léon M'ba
Nigeria	Nigeria	Britain	1 October 1960	Nnamdi Azikiwe
Mauritania	French West Africa	France	28 November 1960	Moktar Ould Daddah
Sierra Leone	Sierra Leone	Britain	27 April 1961	Milton Margai
Tanzania	Tanganyika	Britain	9 December 1961	Julius Nyerere
Rwanda	Ruanda-Urundi	Belgium	1 July 1962	Grégoire Kayibanda
Burundi	Ruanda-Urundi	Belgium	1 July 1962	Mwambutsa IV
Algeria	Algeria	France	3 July 1962	Ahmed Ben Bella
Uganda	British East Africa	Britain	9 October 1962	Milton Obote
Kenya	British East Africa	Britain	12 December 1963	Jomo Kenyatta
Malawi	Nyasaland	Britain	6 July 1964	Hastings Kamuzu Banda
Zambia	Northern Rhodesia	Britain	24 October 1964	Kenneth Kaunda
Gambia	Gambia	Britain	18 February 1965	Dawda Kairaba Jawara

Botswana	Bechuanaland	Britain	30 September 1966	Seretse Khama
Lesotho	Basutoland	Britain	4 October 1966	Leabua Jonathan
Mauritius		Britain	12 March 1968	
Swaziland	Swaziland	Britain	6 September 1968	Sobhuza II
Equatorial Guinea	Spanish Guinea	Spain	12 October 1968	Francisco Macías Nguema
Guinea-Bissau	Portuguese Guinea	Portugal	24 September 1973	Luis Cabral
Mozambique	Portuguese East Africa	Portugal	25 June 1975	Samora Machel
Cape Verde		Portugal	5 July 1975	
Comoros		France	6 July 1975	
São Tomé and Príncipe		Portugal	12 July 1975	
Angola	Angola	Portugal	11 November 1975	Agostinho Neto
Seychelles		Britain	29 June 1976	
Djibouti	French Somaliland	France	27 June 1977	Hassan Gouled Aptidon
Zimbabwe	Southern Rhodesia	Britain	18 April 1980	Robert Mugabe
Namibia	South West Africa	South Africa	21 March 1990	Sam Nujoma
Eritrea	Eritrea	Ethiopia	24 May 1993	Isaias Afewerki
South Africa	South Africa	South Africa (apartheid)	27 April 1994	Nelson Mandela
Sahrawi Republic 1	Spanish Sahara	Spain	27 February 1976	El-Ouali Mustapha Sayed

Taken from: <http://en.wikipedia.org>

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Section 5: Using artefacts to explore the past

Key Focus Question: How can you use artefacts and other evidence to explore local and national history?

Keywords: artefacts; evidence; group working; local history; environment; questioning

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this section, you will have:

- used artefacts to help pupils raise questions about and understand the past;
- developed lessons that allow pupils to think about their national history in relation to their own identities;
- involved local experts and the environment in your lessons to stimulate pupils' interest in local history.

Introduction

Understanding who you are and having good self-esteem is enhanced if you have a strong sense of your identity and can see your place in the bigger pattern of life. Studying what happened in the past can contribute to this. Through the activities in this section, you will encourage your pupils to think about history as it relates to them. Using group work, inviting visitors into the classroom and using practical hands-on activities to investigate artefacts will allow your pupils to share ideas and develop their historical skills.

1. Discussing artefacts in small groups

Handling artefacts or looking at pictures of them provides a means for you to draw attention to both the factual aspects of history and the interpretation involved. Something that will help you in this work is collecting resources as and when you can. Often it is possible to find old utensils and artefacts from the home and in markets.

This part will help you to plan tasks for your pupils to think about how things that we use in our everyday lives have changed over time. For example, by looking at what we use for cooking now and what we used in the past, we can begin to think about how people used to live. We can compare utensils and, from this, speculate about what it would have been like to live in the past and use such artefacts. This will stimulate pupils' thinking about themselves and their place in the local community and its history.

Case Study 1: Finding out about objects

Mr Ndomba, a Standard 5 history teacher in Mbinga township, Tanzania, has decided to use artefacts used in farming in his lesson to stimulate pupils' interest and encourage them to think historically.

He organises the class into groups, giving each group an actual artefact or a picture of one. He asks the groups to look closely at their object or picture and to write as much as they can about it by just looking at it. His pupils do well, as they like discussion, and it is clear to Mr Ndomba that they are interested and enjoying speculating about their artefacts. (See **Key Resource: Using group work in your classroom.**)

After a few minutes, he asks each group to swap its picture or artefact with that of the next group and do the same exercise again. When they finish, he asks the two groups to join and share their views of the two pictures or artefacts. What do they think the artefact

ts are? What are they made of? What are they used for? How are they made? They agree on five key points to write about each artefact with one group doing one and the other group the second. Mr Ndoma puts the artefacts on the table with their five key points and makes a display for all to look at for a few days.

At the end of the week, he asks each group to write what they are certain they can say about the object on one side of a piece of paper and on the other side they write things they are not sure about, including any questions. For him, it is not so important that there is agreement on what the object is, but that there is lively, well-argued debate on what it might be used for and how old it might be.

Activity 1: Being a history detective using artefacts

Read **Resource 1: Using artefacts in the classroom** before you start.

Ask your class to bring in any traditional objects that they have at home. Tell them that you want the object to be as old as possible, perhaps used by their grandparents or before. But remind them they have to look after it carefully so it is not damaged. Have a table ready to display them on when the pupils bring them in the next day.

Explain to your pupils that they are going to be like detectives and piece together as much information and evidence as they can about their objects.

Ask them, in pairs, to look at all the artefacts and try to name each one and make a list of them in their books. Just by looking and holding, ask them to note what they think each is made of, how it is made and what it might be used for. You could devise a sheet for them to use.

As a whole class, look at each artefact in turn and discuss the different ideas. Agree which idea is most popular and ask the person who brought the object in what they know about it. Or send them home with some questions to ask and bring answers back to share with the class the next day.

2. Welcoming visitors to enhance the curriculum

One of the purposes of teaching history to your pupils is to allow them to understand and discover their own and their community's identity. As a social studies teacher, even of primary school children, you should always be looking for interesting ways of helping pupils understand this past, their history. Considering how local customs, everyday tasks and the objects used for them have changed helps build this identity.

Case Study 2: Investigating traditional dress

Mrs Uwera has asked two older members of the local community to come to class in their traditional dress and talk about what has changed about traditional dress since they were young.

Before the visit, Mrs Uwera reads **Key Resource: Using the local community/ environment as a resource** and, with her class, prepares for the visit. Once the date and time have been agreed, the pupils devise some questions to ask the visitors about what has changed over time.

On the day of the visit, the classroom is organised and the welcome party goes to meet the visitors. The class is excited but shy with the visitors. However, the visitors are so pleased to come and talk that everyone soon relaxes and there is much discussion about the dress they are wearing and the importance of each piece. The visitors also brought some traditional clothes that belonged to their parents for the children to see.

After the visitors have left, Mrs Uwera asks her pupils what they had learned that they did not know before, and she is surprised and pleased by what they remembered and liked about the event.

Activity 2: Exploring traditional crafts

This activity aims to put in place a frame that you, as a teacher, can use to conduct a classroom discussion about any aspect of social studies or history. In this case, we are looking at local artefacts and their traditional use.

Arrange for your class to visit a local craftsman or ask them to come to school to talk with your pupils about their craft now and how it used to be.

Before the visit, you will need to organise the date and time and what you want to talk about, so the visitor can prepare what to bring.

Next, with your class, decide what kinds of things they want to know and what questions they would like to ask about the artefacts that the visitor might show them or they might see on their visit. Maybe the visitor could demonstrate their craft for the class.

On the day, discuss with your class the need to be respectful and welcoming to the adults so that everyone will enjoy the visit.

In the next lesson, discuss their findings and ask pupils, in groups of four, to choose one item, draw it and write what they can about it from memory and the notes they took. (See **Key Resource: Using group work in your classroom.**)

Ask your pupils to put their work on the wall for all to read and see.

You may be able to organise a craft lesson with the visitor, so your pupils can try the particular crafts.

(Resource 2: Poster for the National Museum shows a number of Rwandese artefacts. Do your pupils know what they are all used for? What do they notice about the way in which they are made?)

3. Interpreting evidence from artefacts

History is always about balancing subjective claims (peoples' personal accounts and opinions) against objective (independent) evidence. When exploring artefacts, rather than oral or written evidence, the same balancing applies. There are definite things that can be said about a pot for example, i.e. its shape, what it is made of etc. Something like 'what it was used for' can only be speculation, based on what we use such pots for now. By looking at the pot carefully, consulting old drawings and paintings and talking to others, we can build up a more certain picture of how it was used.

This part explores ways of helping pupils question their thinking and understanding about artefacts.

Case Study 3: Interpreting historical events using a range of documents as artefacts

Mrs Uwera decides to use a book about the suppression of ubuhake (clientship) in Rwanda that happened in 1954. She plans to use the book *De la féodalité à la démocratie*. She chooses a range of paragraphs from the book. After studying them carefully, Mrs Uwera realises that they are based on subjective evidence, and thinks that it would be a good idea to compare them to more objective historical evidence in the lesson. Therefore, Mrs Uwera gathers a range of documents and books written by historians that examine the role of the King Mutara Rudahigwa in the suppression of ubuhake and the readiness of his subjects to become clients. She makes a summary of the key ideas to use in class.

First, she asks each group to read the chosen paragraphs from *De la féodalité à la démocratie* and then asks them to look at her chart of key events and thoughts by respected historians. Do they see any similarities or differences in these accounts of the same event? They discuss whether the subjective accounts in the book can be supported by the objective historical evidence put forward by historians. They agree that both give insights. The book is people's perceptions and can vary according to their beliefs, but the chart just has facts.

At the end, Mrs Uwera summarises for her class the difference between subjective and objective evidence when looking at the past.

Key Activity: Displaying some of our history

Ask your class to bring in any old items they have in their homes, such as traditional dress, old cooking utensils, woodwork, masks, bead and craftwork, pots etc.

Remember that for your pupils, things that are only 20 or 30 years old will seem very old. The important part of the exercise is for them to gather evidence about the artefact and, by looking at lots of old objects, to develop some idea of how to make sense of life in the past. If you can, make sure you have also collected some items, so that you can give to those who are unable to bring in anything.

Ask your pupils, in pairs, to produce a sheet (see **Resource 3: My artefact**) to display with the artefact.

When the display is complete, ask other classes to visit your exhibition. You could even ask parents and the local community to come to see the exhibits. You may find out more from your visitors about some of your artefacts.

Resource 1: Using artefacts in the classroom

Background information / subject knowledge for teacher

The opportunity to handle actual artefacts is a unique experience. For some reason that no one is quite sure of, the act of touching an object, which obviously has its own history and story, inspires everyone. Pupils will inevitably be curious about the artefacts and this will naturally lead to good discussion.

Handling an artefact allows pupils to use their senses, develop questioning and problem-solving skills, strengthen their understanding of a period, and empathise with people from the past.

What is the purpose of an artefact handling session?

Artefact handling sessions can be used to:

- motivate pupils at the start of a new topic;
- attract and hold the attention of pupils;
- deepen their understanding of a topic they are studying;
- lead to an in-depth study within a broader unit of work;
- act as a bridge between several different subjects or units of study;
- assess pupils' developing understanding at the end of a lesson.

What questions should I ask during an artefact handling session?

The type of question you ask will depend on what you are using the artefacts for. The questions below should help you get the most out of using the artefacts.

Questions about the physical characteristics of an object

What does it look, feel, smell and sound like?

How big is it?

What shape is it?

What colour is it?

How heavy is it?

Does it have any marks that show us how it was made, used and cared for?

What is it made of?

Is it mass-produced or unique?

Is it complete or part of an object?

Is it in good condition or worn/used?

Has it been altered, adapted, repaired or changed?

Questions about the design and construction of an object

What materials is it made of?

Why were these materials chosen?

Could different materials have been used?

Is it attractive to look at?

When and where might it have been made?

Was it made by hand or machine?

Who might have made it?

Is it made in one piece or made up of different parts?

Can it be taken apart?

How is it put together?

How might the object work?

Is it decorated or plain?

Are there any marks/images on the object?

What do these tell us about the people who made the object or owned the object, and about the period we are studying?

Questions about the importance and value of an object

What difference did the object make to people's lives?

How important was the object to: the people who made it; the people who used it or owned it; people today?

What does the object tell us about the people who owned it?

Is it mass-produced, rare or unique?

Is the object financially/sentimentally/culturally/historically valuable?

In what way is the object important today?

Questions about the function of an object

What is it?

Why was it made?

How might it have been used?

Who might have used it?

What skills were needed to use it?

What would it have been like to use it?

Where might it have been used?

Might it have been used with other objects?

Has its use changed?

Teaching with objects – some approaches

Many of the approaches detailed below can also be used when interrogating documents, prints and paintings with pupils.

Visual stimulus

Objects can be used to stimulate discussion at the beginning of a lesson. The same objects can be used to recap what pupils have learned and to see if any of their ideas and understandings have changed in the course of the lesson.

Historical inquiry

A selection of objects can be used by pupils for an exercise in historical inquiry – obtaining information from sources. Allow time for pupils to look at the object carefully before exploring some of the following questions:

- What is it made of?
- What tools or techniques were needed to make it?
- Who might have made it?

- Did making it require specialist skills?
- Is it decorated? How?
- Who might have used it?
- What was it used for?
- Did it have a practical function, or was it used in other ways?
- How large or heavy is it?
- Is it a valuable or rare object?

Drawing comparisons and relating objects to each other

Use two objects or images side by side and ask pupils to draw comparisons, exploring the similarities and differences. Use groups of objects and talk about the relationships between them.

Representations and interpretation

Some artefacts may show evidence of a particular viewpoint or bias. Who created the object and for what purpose? Is it an item of propaganda? Does it tell the whole story? What doesn't it tell?

Other activities using objects include

Prediction activities – show pupils an object and ask them to work out which period of history it relates to.

Case study – pupils can use a single object or group of objects to build up a case study, for example, life in West Africa before the slave trade.

Groupings – pupils can group objects into sets that have particular things in common (such as the materials they are made from, the country they originated from, how they were used). Pupils can consider how to curate a museum display by grouping objects in different ways.

Caption or label writing – pupils can write their own captions or exhibition labels, either from a modern viewpoint or as if they were writing at the time the object was made.

Emotional intelligence – pupils can list adjectives that describe how they feel about an object, demonstrating empathy as well as understanding.

Creative responses – pupils can respond to an object through creative writing, drama or art.

Which subjects can benefit from using artefacts?

Learning from objects is beneficial to subjects across the curriculum:

- History: sense of chronology, empathy and key skills.
- Science: properties of materials, observation, comparing, classification and questioning skills.
- English: asking and answering questions, contextual materials.
- Drama: stimulus materials, developing empathy.
- Art and Design: stimulus materials, contextual materials, still-life drawing.

Resource 2: Poster for the National Museum

 **Teacher resource for planning or adapting to use with pupils**

MUSÉE NATIONAL DU RWANDA

The National Museum of Rwanda was inaugurated on September 18, 1989 and opened its doors to the public on September 19. Located in the town of Butare, approximately 126 kilometers from the International Airport of Kigali, the National Museum of Rwanda is considered the best museum in Central Africa.

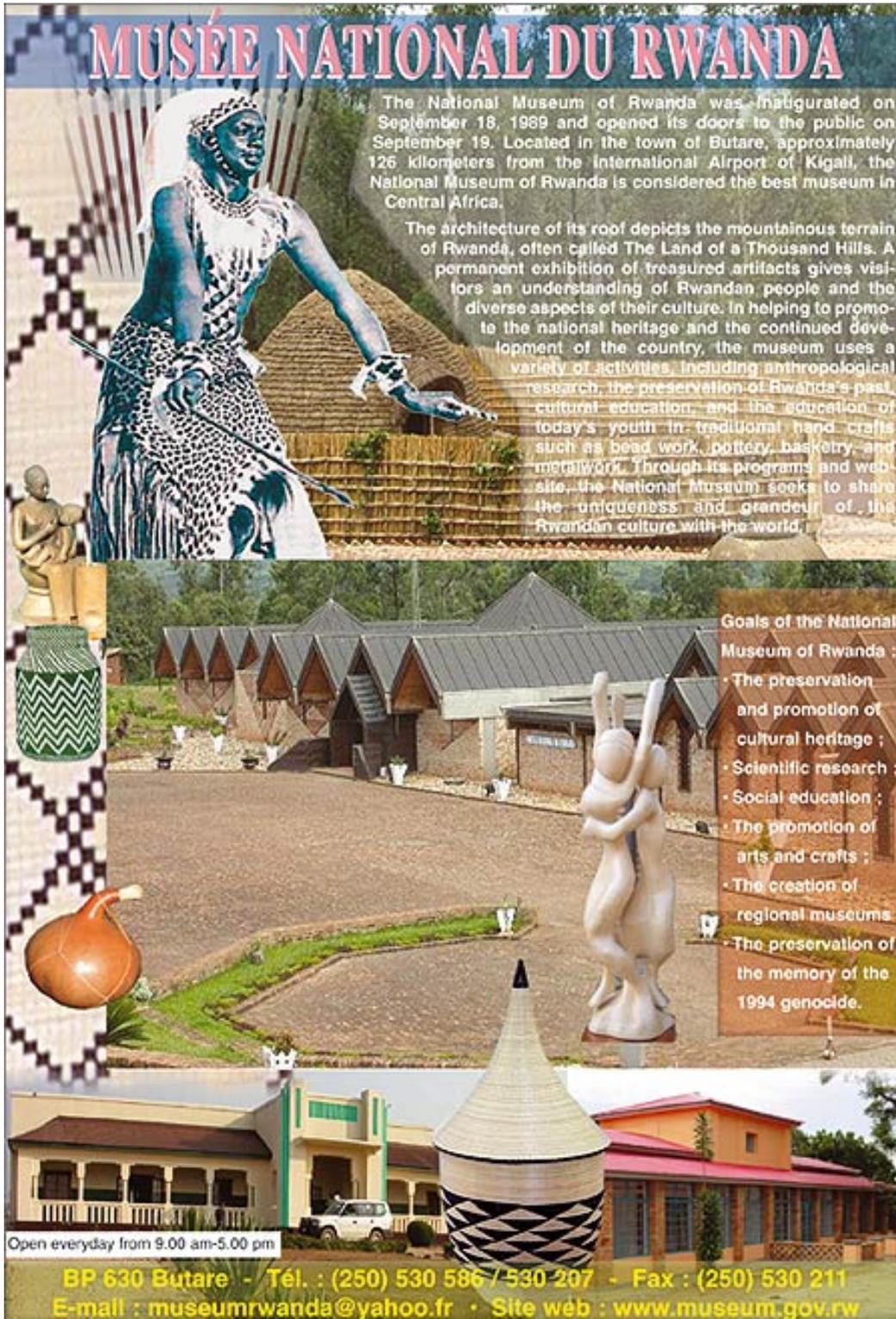
The architecture of its roof depicts the mountainous terrain of Rwanda, often called The Land of a Thousand Hills. A permanent exhibition of treasured artifacts gives visitors an understanding of Rwandan people and the diverse aspects of their culture. In helping to promote the national heritage and the continued development of the country, the museum uses a variety of activities, including anthropological research, the preservation of Rwanda's past, cultural education, and the education of today's youth in traditional hand crafts such as bead work, pottery, basketry, and metalwork. Through its programs and web site, the National Museum seeks to share the uniqueness and grandeur of the Rwandan culture with the world.

Goals of the National Museum of Rwanda :

- The preservation and promotion of cultural heritage ;
- Scientific research ;
- Social education ;
- The promotion of arts and crafts ;
- The creation of regional museums ;
- The preservation of the memory of the 1994 genocide.

Open everyday from 9.00 am-5.00 pm

BP 630 Butare - Tél. : (250) 530 586 / 530 207 - Fax : (250) 530 211
E-mail : museumrwanda@yahoo.fr · Site web : www.museum.gov.rw



Taken from: www.museum.gov.rw

Resource 3: My artefact

✎ Pupil use

Pupil's name: _____

My artefact is a:

This artefact is made from:

This artefact was used for:

This is how this artefact was used:

This is how old the artefact might be:

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