



# TEACHING HISTORY AND SOCIAL STUDIES FOR MULTICULTURAL EUROPE

Edited by:

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This book is one of the outputs of the project, entitled 'Training Social Studies and History Educators for Multicultural Europe' which is being undertaken in the framework of the EU Promotion of the Civil Society Dialogue Programme between Turkey and the EU. It is intended to fill a knowledge gap in terms of social studies and history teaching in the context of innovative pedagogy and multicultural values. Our guiding principles when writing this book were identifying new approaches to history and social studies education where they are needed in Turkey, the UK and elsewhere. In fact this book along with other project materials aims to make a contribution to the successful implementation of the new social studies and history curriculum. The project products are hoped to be useful in terms of facilitating the change process initiated by the Ministry of Education in the field of history and social studies education in Turkey. Respecting human rights, participatory democracy, multiculturalism, social justice, protecting the environment and cultural heritage, reducing discrimination in terms of gender and race are some of the values that our history and social studies teachers and student teachers should learn how to teach. The book targets lecturers in history and social studies education departments, trainee teachers and history and social studies teachers. However, other interested parties, such as the Ministry of Education, policy makers, curriculum developers, textbook writers, parents and the wider society could also benefit from the theoretical issues raised in this book.



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(in alphabetical order)

**Semih AKTEKİN  
Penelope HARNETT  
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Dean SMART**

*horf*

*Eğitim Yayıncılığı*

## TEACHING HISTORY AND SOCIAL STUDIES FOR MULTICULTURAL EUROPE

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# INTRODUCTION

*Semih Aktekin\* and Mustafa Öztürk\*\**

Turkey began accession negotiations with the European Union (EU) in September 2005. However, when we observe the current debates about Turkey's accession process to the EU, there is a strong opposition to Turkey's possible membership emerging both in Turkey and the EU. One of the most important reasons for such opposition for both sides appears to be concerned with cultural identity that has been created through historical contexts. For some, since European identity is thought to be based on Judeo-Christian heritage, Turkey which historically represented a 'Muslim other' for Europe is considered as a deterrent to the development of European identity. Similarly, as Prof. Saydam explains in his chapter in this book, many Turks still consider the relationship with Europe through the conditions just after World War I particularly in the context of the Sevres Treaty in which Ottoman territories were shared among Allies. Therefore, the relationship between Turkey and the EU is significantly affected by how Europe has defined and constructed Turks historically and vice versa.

Most European societies today could be considered as multicultural societies. There has been a large influx of immigrants as guest workers or asylum seekers into western European countries since World War II. In central and eastern Europe, most countries have traditionally had a heterogeneous, multicultural population. Similarly, Turkey has gone through several transformations not only to meet the Copenhagen criteria, but ever since its establishment in 1923, to become a secular, democratic and modern country. In addition to that, Turkey has started to become a multicultural society as an increasing number of foreigners choose to buy property in Turkey and come to Turkey as guest workers or asylum seekers. In this context, what is needed is to reconsider the justifications of historical enmity which arguably result from selective reading of history between societies in the light of a new thinking of what brings us together today. The major role in such change falls upon our education systems, and particularly on history and social studies education.

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As a result of Turkey's candidacy to the EU, Turkey has been placed in a situation to implement fundamental transformation regarding its economic and legislative structures including its education system. The issues of multiculturalism, diversity, participatory democracy and civil dialogue become key factors for a sustainable relationship between Turkey and the EU. History is one of the main subjects where the relationships between Turkey and the EU may be examined. The history curricula in most European countries include a stipulation that the learning and teaching of history has to reflect the situation and the time people are living in. Educating people for a multicultural society is an important aspect of this aim. Young people are part of a global society and have to understand and cope with diversity. In such a context, one of the main tasks of history and social studies teaching should be to meet the needs of multicultural societies.

Although the use of a historic perspective has been crucial for our peaceful well-being on this planet, today in Turkey, its use and understanding by students and teachers is not at a satisfactory level. As Dr. Aktekin explains in detail in his chapter on "Turkish History Education" in this book, some writers have commented particularly on the history curriculum and textbooks and state that it is traditionally superficial, ethnocentric and too detailed which has led students to memorise, rather than understand. Turkish history education has usually been criticized for having a mainly nationalist and ethnocentric structure. Teacher training institutions and in-service courses for teachers also do not address how to teach about multiculturalism, sensitive and controversial issues in history and social studies lessons. However, history and social studies education in Turkey has been undergoing a process of educational innovation for some time now. A new social studies (for pupils up to 14 years old) and history curricula (for students between 14-18 years old) have started to be implemented since 2005 and 2008 respectively. These curricula changes are usually considered to be necessary as the world and Turkey is changing rapidly as a result of global processes. Then, schools and universities (and teacher training institutions) should respond to these changes by adopting a universal approach by teaching social studies and history from a wider perspective. However, although the new curricula cover many recent international developments in the field, they have problems in terms of the implementation. Most of the school teachers are not sure about the theoretical underpinnings of the curricula which are based on constructivism and how to apply the theory into their practice. Teachers (and student teachers) are the most important key to educational change and they are at the heart of any successful innovation in schools. Thus, as many writers have already discussed, there is an urgent need for in-service training (for both teachers and

teacher educators) which re-considers our history and social studies education to promote civil dialogue, democracy and multiculturalism in theory and practice in Turkey. On this account, we, as educators, should aim to evaluate and look for ways to re-conceptualise the history and social studies education and teacher education programmes of Turkey (and of elsewhere) to allow a different/critical understanding of the EU/Turkey and allow students to become critical citizens who can judge events based on rational judgement and critical thinking rather than prejudices.

In such a context, this book is one of the outputs of the project, entitled 'Training Social Studies and History Educators for Multicultural Europe' which is being undertaken in the framework of the EU Promotion of the Civil Society Dialogue Programme between Turkey and the EU and supported by the EU. This project aims to offer support and guidance for school history and social studies programmes and pre- and in-service teacher training programmes in respect to the needs of multicultural and sustainable societies by bringing the main developments within these subjects in the world with particular attention to Turkey and EU relationships and identity politics. The Project is coordinated by Erciyes University, Faculty of Education, Fatih Faculty of Education from Karadeniz Technical University, and the University of West of England, Bristol (UK) are the partners of the Project. The European Association of History Educators (EUROCLIO) has contributed as an associated partner. Teaching methods in history lessons in Turkey have been similar to methods of the 'great tradition' in Britain for many years. In this tradition history teachers' roles were didactically active; they gave the main facts of historical knowledge, putting notes on a blackboard for students to copy or reading textbooks around the class. After prolonged debates during the 1970s and 1980s this 'great tradition' has changed and now the 'new history' approach is popular in UK schools. The New history lays less emphasis on content and more on the process of learning. The New History approach from the UK is the most frequent example which Turkish academics refer to. The New History approach is considered as a valuable experience to overcome the problems of Turkish history education. Dr. Dean Smart, Dr. Penelope Harnett and Dr. Ian Phillips from the UK have written on different aspects of history education in the UK and their chapters will be very beneficial for Turkish readers. Also the director of EUROCLIO Joke van der Leeuw Roord presents recent crucial developments in history education in Europe.

More particularly the project attempted to conceptualise innovative modules in pre-service programmes of history and social studies teacher education in relation to the European dimension. It also organised in-service training in order to strengthen innovation, critical awareness, pedagogic

content knowledge and the professionalization of history and social studies educators. These activities were organised under the following titles by both local and international experts and delivered by the project team:

1. New interpretations of the subject matter, with a special focus on twentieth-century history.
2. Innovative teaching approaches which enhance the effectiveness of the learning and teaching of history.
3. Working with new and modern history and social studies textbooks.
4. Teaching history in a multicultural society.
5. Teaching history which balances local, regional, national, European and global perspectives.
6. Multi-perspective and controversial issues in history teaching.
7. Introducing gender, human rights, sustainable development and the environment in history education.
8. The use of information and communication technology in history education.
9. Curriculum and textbook development.

During this in-service training, innovative teaching materials have also been developed and implemented (these materials will be published as a teachers' resource book which is going to be another important project output). These materials focus on multi-perspectivity in history and social studies education with an emphasis on the awareness of stereotypical thinking. Teachers and student teachers participated in workshops and in training sessions. During those sessions they learned new developments in the field from national and international experts. At the same time they expressed their views on the issue and discussed how their needs may be met.

Furthermore, study visits to England, the Netherlands and Turkey were carried out and they involved networking between the members of partner institutions, exchanging ideas, visits to local schools and local authorities. Good practices in different countries were evaluated and have been made use of. But most importantly, they provided in-sights for all parties on the pre- and in-service teacher training which the partner institutions offer especially concerning multicultural issues. People involved with the project also participated in international training conferences involving different aspects of history education. They attended HTEN, the History Teacher Education Network 2009 annual conference in Birmingham and HEIRNET, the History Educators' International Research Network annual conference in Northern Ireland in 2009. The research process and data were presented at the HEIRNET 2009 International Conference. These conferences were useful

in that lecturers from KTU, Erciyes, UWE and from many European countries and elsewhere met at these conferences and shared experiences. The project team also visited the headquarters of EUROCLIO (The European Association of History Teachers). By attending these events the Turkish participants became familiar with international organizations such as HTEN, HEIRNET and EUROCLIO. Participation at the HTEN and HEIRNET conferences and the study visit to EUROCLIO strengthened the network of activities from other professionals and NGOs from Europe.

As for the book you hold now, it is intended to fill a knowledge gap in terms of social studies and history teaching in the context of innovative pedagogy and multicultural values. In fact this book along with other project materials aims to make a contribution to the successful implementation of the new social studies and history curriculum. The project products are hoped to be useful in terms of facilitating the change process initiated by the Ministry of Education in the field of history and social studies education. Respecting human rights, participatory democracy, multiculturalism, social justice, protecting the environment and cultural heritage, reducing discrimination in terms of gender and race are some of the values that our history and social studies teachers and student teachers should learn how to teach. The book targets lecturers in history and social studies education departments, trainee teachers and history and social studies teachers. However, other interested parties, such as the Ministry of Education, policy makers, curriculum developers, textbook writers, parents and the wider society could also benefit from the theoretical issues raised in this book.

Our guiding principles when writing this book were identifying new approaches to history and social studies education where they are needed in Turkey, the UK and elsewhere. New approaches to history, and history and social studies education claim that history teaching should aim on bridging gaps, taking into account differences between sexes and ages, between ethnic, linguistic and religious identities, between rich and poor, between urban and rural communities and between diverging world-views in society. Thus, multiperspectivity is fundamental to the subject of history. The past has to be systematically studied from different points of view. According to new approaches there is not one truth in history; however there are honest and truthful studies and interpretations based on the scholarly rules of the subject with the effort to approach the truth as near as possible. In history there is a wide variety of events and issues, which address citizenship and civil responsibility. Modern history education sees it as a vital aim to develop among young people a sense of civil responsibility and a passion for active involvement in society. As Joke van der Leeuw Roord stresses in her chapter the study of

history and school history shares a universal methodology. Historical studies include a clear historical question, the critical use of empirical evidence, an historical perspective of interpretation, keeping in mind the knowledge, mentalities and values of the respective period and a discussion about the relevance and impact for the present. A set of organising concepts are the basis for each study: change and continuity; similarity and difference; cause and consequence; time/chronology and fact and opinion. History teaching should focus on the development of curiosity and the spirit of inquiry, the ability to think independently and resistance to being manipulated.

### **Concluding Remarks**

Education is an important aspect of socialisation. It involves the acquisition of knowledge and the learning of skills. It also helps to shape beliefs and moral values. In this context, history and social studies have an important part to play in the socialisation process of pupils and it is an important topic in the national curriculum in many countries. In this respect, this book re-considers our history and social education to promote civil dialogue, democracy, multiculturalism and innovative methodology that address such features as multi-perspectivity, sensitive issues, critical thinking and objectivity. The writers of the chapters are experts in social studies or history education and bring perspectives from Turkey, the UK and the Netherlands. Although they all might have different views on certain things, what is common for them is the need for educating future history and social studies teachers with knowledge, skills and values of multicultural Europe. We hope that this book will be used by lecturers, teachers and students from many different universities for many years and the results of the project will reach a wider society, thus extending the project's outcomes for action.

# TURKEY-EU RELATIONS

*Coşkun TOPAL\**

## Introduction

In the aftermath of the World War II (WWII), Europeans focused on establishing mechanisms for cooperation in an attempt to prevent the devastating consequences of another war. As a first step, France, Western Germany, Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg established the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) by signing the Paris Agreement in 1951. In 1957, the same countries signed the Rome Treaty which established the European Economic Community (EEC) and European Atomic Agency (EAA) (Borchardt, 1993:5).

Economic integration has become an important component of the EU integration process. Turkey whose efforts at modernization were modelled on the West opted to become a member of Western organisations during the Republican era. Towards this end, Turkey applied for EEC membership on 31 July 1959. Within this chapter, Part I will cover the signing of the Ankara Treaty, Part II will cover the implementation of the Additional Protocol and Part III will cover the period stretching from Turkey's application for full membership in 1987 to the of period membership of the Customs Union in 1996 and briefly look at at the decisions taken at the 2002 Copenhagen Summit with regard to Turkey and Part IV covers the post- Copenhagen Treaty developments (Çalış, 2006:79).

## I. Signing of the Ankara Agreement

Asia, the Middle East and the West have all played unique roles in shaping the direction of Turkey's foreign policy. Asiatic characteristics of feudalism and nomadic life styles influence many aspects of life (Tezcan, 2002:19). The Middle Eastern aspect is dominated mainly by Islamic elements. Efforts to put pressures on Muslims living in other parts of the world cause reactions amongst the Turkish public opinion. The Western influence has the most decisive influence in Turkey. Turkey is the only Muslim state in the world

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implementing a policy of secularization. The Turkish elites started the Westernization process nearly 100 years earlier (1839) than the elites of the colonized countries (Oran, 2006; Çalış, 2006:141). Eventually the Ottoman Empire was admitted to the European Concert at the Paris Conference, 1856. (Ünal, 2007:25)

The Turkish Republic was established following the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire and many characteristics of the Republic were inherited from the Empire. In a similar fashion to the Ottoman Empire which was able to utilize the Balance of Powers to its benefit, Turkey was able to benefit from a status quo oriented and a balanced foreign policy approach.

The Republic of Turkey founded after the World War I (WWI) accepted the Western model for secularization. This status quo oriented approach of Turkey rejecting irredentist policies can be summarized in the words of Atatürk 'peace at home, peace in the world' while Turkey pursued a pro-Western policy it strived towards a balance between West and its opponents (Gönlübol-Kürkçüoğlu, 1985: 462; Oran, 2006).

Turkey maintained its policy of Westernisation after WWII. Subsequently, during the Cold War period Turkey established a close alliance with the West and became a founding member of the United Nations (UN), a member of North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), the Council of Europe, Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and Western European Union (WEU). The main elements of Turkey's foreign policy in terms of freedom, democracy and human rights overlap with that of its European partners. (Kürkçüoğlu, 1978: 213-247; Bozkurt-Ozcan-Koktas, 2004:344)

Economic development was an important reason behind Turkish modernization movement. Turkey saw establishing economic relations with Europe as a natural extension of its political relations with Western Europe. In addition to the expectations based on the belief that EEC membership would boost the economic development process, another main reason why Turkey applied for associate membership on 31 July 1959 was due to its desire not to be left behind Greece (Uysal, 2001:140-153). After consultations with Turkey, the Ankara Association Agreement was signed between Turkey and the member states on the 12 September 1963 (Karluk, 1996:392; Bozkurt-Ozcan-Koktas, 2004:344; Uysal, 2001:140-153).

The Ankara Agreement was aimed at narrowing the gap between the economy of Turkey and that of EEC member states in an attempt to prepare Turkey for eventual membership. The Article 28 of the agreement stipulated that when Turkey fulfilled all the conditions, the issue of membership would

be reviewed by the member states. The Ankara Agreement envisaged three phases for Turkey-EEC Association (Avrupa Birliği El Kitabı, 1995:11; Bozkurt-Ozcan-Koktas, 2004:348-351; Uysal, 2001:140-153):

1) Preparatory Period: During this period the Community fulfilled its unilateral responsibilities towards Turkey and tried to prepare Turkey for Customs Union until 1972. The easing of the import conditions from Turkey on certain agricultural products and the first Protocol led to an increase in the share of Turkey's trade with the Community during 1964-1972.

2) Transition Period: This period which started in 1973 aimed at establishing a Customs Union for industrial products. Apart from some exceptions, the EU banned all customs taxes and restrictions on Turkish industrial products and it was envisaged that Turkey would gradually lift customs duties on industrial products originating from the Community within a period of 12 years. This period was set to 22 years for sensitive products that were subject to protection.

3) Final Period: This period was defined by Article 5 of the Agreement as the period of customs union between Turkey and the Community and envisaged the coordination of economic policies between the parties.

The power to manage the partnership regime was given to the Association Council by the Ankara Agreement.

## **II. Enforcement of Additional Protocol and Transition Period**

While Turkey did not undertake any responsibility during the transition period, during the debates on the approval of the Additional Protocol paving the way for the Preparatory period, The Justice Party and the Republican Confidence Party voted in favour while the Republican People's Party and the Democrat Party voted against the Protocol arguing that Turkey was not in a position to fulfill its obligations under the Protocol (Uysal, 2001: 140-153).

The first section of Additional Protocol included articles (Art 2-35) which related to the free movement of goods while the second section (Art 36-42) entitled the `free movement of people and services` covered issues such as the right of free movement of workers and the right of settlement and transportation. The protocol included a section on the `convergence of economic policies` and focused on community aquis related to competition and taxation and mentioned the method by which Turkey would comply with the relevant aquis (Uysal, 2001: 140-153).

Following the launch of Transition Period, Turkey experienced some problems owing to the establishment of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) and enlargement. The generalized preferential tariff policy allowing

developing countries to export to the community without customs taxes and restrictions on agricultural exports also had a negative impact on the Turkish economy.

This situation led to criticisms from the the Turkish governments that Turkey's obligations concerning industrial products increased while its advantages in agricultural products declined. Some argued that the Community's Mediterranean Policy which allowed custom free trade with the Community and provided some privileges for agricultural products had the effect of reducing Turkey's competitiveness in agricultural products. Moreover, the free movement of workers which was envisaged to take place between 1976 and 1986 did not take place as it was planned. The unemployment which accompanied the economic crisis after the 1974 oil crisis had also stopped the employment of foreign workers. The problem acquired a new dimension when Western Germany, France and the Benelux countries started to ask for visas from Turkish citizens (Uysal, 2001: 140-153)

The economic decline in Turkey led to fears that Turkey would not be able to fulfill its obligations and there were demands from the 12 March government in Turkey to amend the requirements in favour of Turkey during the transition period. (Uysal, 2001: 140-153)

The negative economic conditions had a negative impact on relations between and the Community and two political parties that formed the coalition, namely the Nationalist Movement Party (MHP) and the National Salvation Party (MSP) who objected to the Community on political grounds (Bozkurt, 1992:37). The religiously oriented MSP perceived the Community as a Zionist organisation established by Masons and Christians and expressed its preference for an "Islamic Common Market"(Uysal, 2001: 140-153; Bozkurt, 1992:37).

Anti western feelings in Turkey were on the rise following the Cuban missile crisis, Johnson's letter and the developments regarding Cyprus. However there were concerns that Turkey's competitiveness would be negatively affected from the membership applications of Greece, Spain and Portugal. Moreover, the Iranian Revolution and the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan which changed regional balances and caused internal political instability led the minority government's Justice Party to ask for the speeding up of the transition period. This was partly to get the support of the west at a time when a military intervention was foreseen. Meanwhile the constitutional order of Turkey was interrupted with the military coup that took place on 12 September 1980 and a new problematic era started in Turkey's relations with the Community( Uysal, 2001: 140-153; Çayhan ve Ateşoğlu, 1996:101).

The decision of the National Security Council to ban all political parties and the orders for the execution of trade union leaders in Turkey led the Commission to advise the suspension of financial aid to Turkey until the human rights and democratic freedoms came back into effect. Following these developments a new era dominated by political decisions and expectations was opened between Turkey and the Community (Uysal, 2001: 140-153; Eralp, 1996:47; Çayhan ve Ateşoğlu, 1996:103).

### **III. Full Membership Application and Customs Union**

The Motherland Party (ANAP) government under the leadership of Turgut Özal applied for full membership on 14 April 1987. The application was based on Article 237 of the Treaty of Rome's stipulations that "any European state may apply to become a member of the Community" rather than the Ankara Agreement and Additional Protocol. (Uysal, 2001: 140-153).

The Commission in a report dated the 17 December 1989 rejected the application on the grounds of human rights and criticisms related to the Cyprus problem. The Council of Ministers adopted the Commission's decisions on 5 February 1990. (Uysal, 2001: 140-153; Çayhan ve Ateşoğlu, 1996:104). In the aftermath of these developments, the Commission was asked to work on a co-operation package with Turkey in order to stop Turkey turning its back on the Community and to improve relations. Within this framework, it was planned to establish a Customs Union in industrial products in 1995 and to gradually lift the custom taxes on agricultural products and textiles. Among other things, the cooperation envisaged the implementation of the 4<sup>th</sup> Financial Protocol and the relaunch of financial cooperation and political dialogue. With the enforcement of the Customs Union on 1 January 1996, the final phase of the Ankara Agreement came into effect. The Association's decision numbered 1/95 set out the provisions for the implementation of the Customs Union. The first part includes provisions related to the "free movement of goods", while the second part covers "agricultural products. The third part covers the "Custom Provisions" and the fourth part is entitled "Approximation of Laws". (Uysal, 2001: 140-153; Çayhan ve Ateşoğlu, 1996:132; Eralp, 1996:55).

While Turkey undertook obligations almost on an equal level with that of a full member, it is the only state which entered into the Customs Union without full membership. Even though Turkey is not part of the decision making mechanisms on many issues (customs, preferential trade with third countries, decisions and embargoes), it has to comply with the decisions of the EU on these matters (Uysal, 2001: 140-153; Manisalı, 1998:44).

.The applications of Central and Eastern European states for membership

following their transition to market economies in the early 1990s led to debates regarding the widening and extension of the EU. During this period several decisions were taken at EU summits with regard to Turkey (Somuncuoğlu, 2002:41):

- Maastricht Summit (9-10 Decemeber 1991): Three preconditions were emphasized for membership: The applicant country must be European, have a democratic regime and respect human rights.

- Lisbon summit (25-27 June 1992): The applications of Cyprus, Malta and Turkey were assessed and Turkey's right for full membership based on the Ankara Agreement was emphasized.

- Copenhagen Summit (21-22 June 1993): This summit mentioned that central and eastern European states could become members as soon as they had completed the political and economic requirements. The Copenhagen criteria were announced and a decision was taken that cooperation with Turkey would be based on the Customs Union.

- Cannes Summit (26-27 June 1995): For the first time non EU states were invited. With regard to Turkey only the issue of the completion of the Customs Union was mentioned.

- Dublin Summit (13-14 December 1996): Central and Eastern European states, Cyprus and Malta were invited to this meeting. The Aegean question was mentioned for the first time. The summit also pointed out the need to improve human rights standards.

- Luxembourg Summit (12-13 December 1997): The three main issues taken by the Summit were : EU's policies in the new century and the reforms that should be undertaken by the EU, enlargement and the financial framework to be used for the 2000-2006 period. Compliance with the Copenhagen Criteria became a basic condition of EU membership in the forthcoming period (Bozkurt-Ozcan-Koktas, 2004:369-370; Çalış, 2006:331-360; DTM, 1999:246).

A decision was taken during the Summit to launch membership negotiations with the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and the Greek Cypriot Administration in April 1998. It was also decided to establish closer relations with the second group of states Bulgaria, Romania, Lithuania and Latvia within the association agreements (Uysal, 2001: 140-153; Barchard, 1998:1). Paragraph 31-36 of the Summit declaration covered Turkey. The Summit has significance for Turkey-EU relations as it refers to Article 28 of the Ankara Agreement. For the first time a Summit had declared that Turkey's membership application would be reviewed following the fulfillment of its obligations under the Ankara Agreement. Turkey was also invited to the European Council meeting together with other applicants. It

was seen that Turkey-EU relations would proceed on the basis of the Ankara Agreement rather than on the basis of Turkey's application in 1987. However Turkey interpreted this as discrimination and refused to attend the European conferences. The EU had asked for the improvement of the human rights situation, respect for minorities, settlement of disputes with Greece through the International Court of Justice (ICJ) and the settlement of the Cyprus issue on the basis of UN decisions (Uysal, 2001: 140-153).

At the Summit, the negotiation timetable for all the applicant countries was announced except that of Turkey. It was envisaged that central and eastern European states together with Cyprus and Malta were to be full members. It is not difficult to discern that only Turkey's application was made subject to the Copenhagen criteria (Somuncuoğlu, 2002:49).

In the aftermath of the December 1997 Council Summit decisions, the Commission started to submit reports to the Council and the Parliament on a regular basis. The reports on Turkey are mostly follow up reports based on previous reports on Turkey. In its report, the Commission;

- Briefly explain the relations between the EU and Turkey.
- Analyses Turkey's position in terms of political criteria for membership.
- Analyses Turkey's position in terms of economic criteria for membership.
- Reviews Turkey's ability to undertake its obligations for membership.

([http://projeler.meb.gov.tr/pkm1/dokumanlar/duzenli\\_ilerleme\\_raporlari/2007ilerlemeraporu\\_tr\\_.pdf](http://projeler.meb.gov.tr/pkm1/dokumanlar/duzenli_ilerleme_raporlari/2007ilerlemeraporu_tr_.pdf) ).

At the Cardiff Summit held on 15-16 June 1998, paragraph 68 of the Presidency's declaration covers Turkey. It calls for a European strategy for Turkey and calls upon Turkey to continue with the approximation of its laws with the EU *acquis* (Bozkurt-Ozcan-Koktas, 2004:371).

Turkey submitted a document entitled "Strategy for the Development of Relations between Turkey and the EU" to the Commission on 22 July 1998. The Commission included Turkey in its first regular report prepared for the 12 candidate states (4 November 1998). The second regular report announced on October 1999 assessed the latest developments in Turkey in terms of the Copenhagen criteria. The report mentioned deficiencies in the field of human rights and the protection of minorities, the continuing practice of torture and repression of the right of expression. While the report mentioned that Turkey was in a more favourable position in economic terms, it pointed out the condition that once Turkey had acquired all elements of a market economy,

provided macro economic stability and implemented legal and structural reforms, it would be able to cope with competitive pressures and market forces within the EU (Avrupa Birliği El Kitabı, 1995:107; Somuncuoğlu, 2002:49-58).

#### **IV. Developments in the Aftermath of the Copenhagen Summit (Dec 2002)**

At the Copenhagen Summit (December 2002), it was decided to start accession negotiations without delay if Turkey fulfilled the Copenhagen criteria. Also the current participation strategy that related to supporting Turkey on the path to EU membership was indicated. The commission was invited to intensify the process of the review of legislations. It also declared that the EU- Turkey Customs Union would be extended and deepened. Financial aid to Turkey would be significantly increased in the pre-accession process (<http://www.mfa.gov.tr/turkiye-ab-iliskileri.tr.mfa>).

After the Helsinki Summit in 1999, Turkey implemented important political reforms in the field of human rights and fundamental freedoms and also made legal and administrative reforms. Particularly the Turkish Penal Code became close to EU standards with all relevant changes in legislation on the limits of freedom of thought and expression. (Tezcan, 2002:147; T.C. Avrupa Birliği Genel Sekreterliği, 2007).

In December 2002, in accordance with the results of the Copenhagen Summit, the EU Commission prepared the report and recommendation and released the "Effect Assesment Study" that includes the possible effects of Turkey's EU membership in the future. In the Comission's report, Turkey's adaptation process for the EU was considered comprehensively and it was recommended that the negotiations should be started with Turkey by pointing out that the criteria have been adequately performed. In addition to this, the Comission could apply to suspend the negotiations in case of permanent and serious violations of democracy, human rights, respect of fundamental rights and freedom. Otherwise for the duration of the negotiation, the Council would oversee whether the conformity and implementation of the statute would progress smoothly, and would identify the criteria concerning the temporary closing (and in case of the necessity) opening of each debated title. The Negotiation is an uncertain process and it is impossible to foresee and estimate its results. (Ünal, 2005: 33-34; Tezcan, 2002:147).

In the Effect Assesment Study, it is expressed that the EU membership of Turkey will contribute to issues such as law, internal affairs, economy, budget, internal market, agriculture and fishing industry within the whole the Union. Consequently, at the December 17th 2004 Brussels Summit of the

EU Presidents and Prime Ministers which was important for the relationship of Turkey and the EU, it was determined that the membership negotiations with Turkey would be started on October 13th 2005. After the summit, the EU Commission was employed to prepare two main documents named the "Framework of the Negotiations Document" and the "Declaration on Political and Cultural Dialogue (Civil Society Dialogue)". On June 29th 2005 the Commission published the declaration, "Civil Society Dialogue Between Applicant Countries and the EU", to remove mutual preconceived opinions and the lack of information between Turkey and EU Countries. The aims of the Civil Society dialogue are the development of collaborative opportunities in Turkey and in EU Countries by means of non-governmental organisations, universities and mass media institutions, to contribute to the integration of Turkey within EU programmes ([http://www.abgs.gov.tr/files/AB\\_Iliskileri/Tur\\_En\\_Realitons/NegotiatingFrameowrk/Negotiating\\_Frameowrk\\_Full.pdf](http://www.abgs.gov.tr/files/AB_Iliskileri/Tur_En_Realitons/NegotiatingFrameowrk/Negotiating_Frameowrk_Full.pdf) ).

It was decided to start the accession negotiations with Turkey following the approval of the Framework of the Negotiations Document by the EU Foreign Ministers on 3 October 2006. At the Inter governmental Conference dated 12 June 2006, de facto negotiations were started and the first negotiation session was entitled "Science and Research" (<http://www.mfa.gov.tr/turkiye-ab-iliskileri.tr.mfa> ).

In the decision dated 29 November 2006, the EU Commission recommended not to open the negotiations to the Intergovernmental Conference on articles which include policy issues relating to Turkey's relationship with the Cyprus Republic and 8 other issues ("Free Movement of Goods", "Business establishment Right and Employment Offer liberty", "Financial Duties", "Agriculture and Rural Country Development", "Fishing Industry", "Transmission Policy", "Customs Union" and "External Relations"). Other issues and articles would continue to be open to discussion but not to close any session temporarily till verification of Commission that Turkey completed the obligations, expressing that Turkey not to put into practice the Additional Protocol to Ankara Treaty.

The Commission's suggestion was approved at the Summit of the EU Presidents and Prime Ministers dated 14-15 December 2006. At the same time, with the assumption of the Germany presidency, after January 2007 the accession negotiations accelerated again and negotiations opened on the issue "Industrial and Enterprise Policy" at the Inter-governmental Conference dated 29 March 2007. Also in the term of the Portuguese presidency, negotiations were started on Trans-Europe Networks and the Conservation of the

Consumer and Welfare at the Inter-governmental Conference, organized on December 19th 2007. Decisions which were taken by Foreign Ministers of the EU Countries and were approved by the Presidents and Prime Ministers on December 10th during negotiations, emphasized the loyalty of the EU to the expansion process which also includes Turkey, though returning to the 2006 and 2007 Expansion Strategy Documents. In 2008, the Progress Report stated that Turkey performed the negotiations on 8 issues. The taxation issue was opened to negotiation at the inter-governmental conference in Brussels on June 30th 2009. Consequently, in the negotiation process which continued until the beginning from October 2005, 11 titles of 35 were opened to negotiation. The negotiations on Science and Research issues were temporarily closed during the sessions on Enterprise and Industry Policy, Statistic, Financial Control, Trans-Europe Networks, Conservation of the Consumer and Welfare, Intellectual ownership Law, Enterprise Law, Knowledge society and Mass Media, Free Movement of Monetary Fund and Taxation (<http://www.mfa.gov.tr/turkiye-ab-iliskileri.tr.mfa>; Çalış, 2006:473).

### **Conclusion**

Significant changes have taken place in the world in both political and economic affairs since 1963, the date of the signing of the Ankara Agreement which constituted the main reference point in Turkey-EU relations. Changes such as the membership of 10 Central and Eastern European states following the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the transition of the former Eastern block countries to a market economy have had a profound impact on Turkey-EU relations.

Once Turkey speeded up its efforts to comply with the Copenhagen criteria since 2002, Turkey-EU relations which experienced fluctuations for many years moved to a more solid ground with the introduction of a time-table for negotiations. Since 1 July 2009 Sweden assumed the rotating Presidency of the EU. It is a well known fact that Sweden as a leading member of the pro-Enlargement camp has been lending open support to Turkey.

Sweden is of the view that the behaviour of those countries blocking Turkey's membership after agreeing to the opening of accession negotiations with Turkey constitutes inconsistency. In line with this view, Cecilia Malstorm, Sweden's minister responsible for EU affairs declared that the dialogue between Ankara was going well and stated that they were ready to launch negotiations on the Environment Chapter. It is important for Turkey, which has negotiated 11 Chapters so far to start negotiations on an Environment Chapter (Star Gazetesi, 4 Sept.2009).

Meanwhile The JD (AK Party) Party which gained the respect of its neighbours due to the launch of accession negotiations with the EU has built upon the regional policy inherited from the past and considered this policy among one of the most important successes of the government.

The policy of having no or zero problems with the neighbours pursued by President Abdullah Gul and Prime Minister R. Tayyip Erdogan is associated with the Foreign Minister Ahmet Davudoglu and aims to reverse the former policy thinking of finding scapegoats for internal problems through an active foreign policy. In addition to mediating between Syria and Israel, Turkey made an important contribution to regional peace by supporting a trilateral process with Pakistan and Afghanistan; helped to resolve the Presidential election crisis of Lebanon in 2008; promoted the Caucasus' Stability and Cooperation Platform and contributed to the EU mission in the Balkans and NATO's mission in Afghanistan at the military and command level.

Turkey has also become an observer in the Gulf Cooperation Council and African Union and became the President of the 57- member Organisation of the Islamic Conference (OIC) in its first democratic elections. Turkey's goal oriented efforts reached its peak when 151 countries voted for Turkey's election as a non permanent member of the UN Security Council for 2009-2010 .

Taking into consideration the upcoming Presidency of Spain in January 2010 and its positive attitude vis a vis Turkey, the forthcoming era points to a period characterised by mutual gains. Notwithstanding this, the real decisive factor in Turkey-EU relations is whether Turkey will undertake concrete steps as a sign of its commitment to the EU process and whether the EU will be able to proceed on the principle of *pacta sunt servanda* and work on a fair and objective basis (Kutlay, 2009: <http://www.usakgundem.com>).

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# HISTORY EDUCATION IN TURKEY

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The aim of this chapter is to give a general description of the Turkish educational system and discuss the place of history education in it. In order to understand the Turkish educational system I will outline the historical context, then the main themes in the history curriculum; the content and methods of history lessons in Turkish schools; the problems related to teaching history and recent developments in the history curriculum in Turkey will then be introduced.

## 1. Historical background

After the First World War, the Ottoman Empire was divided into many parts and many small states were established in its lands. The Republic of Turkey, as a modern nation state, was founded in 1923, after a national struggle against foreign powers and the Allied forces of First World War: the British, French, Italian and Greek forces by the Turks. Mustafa Kemal Atatürk was the leader of that National War of Independence (Mango, 1999). He founded the modern Republic of Turkey, replacing the existing Ottoman Islamic Theocracy. The main aim of Ataturk was to modernise society and all institutions. 'The term modernisation as applied to Turkey refers to the process of transforming Ottoman Islamic institutions, concepts and a way of life into those of a secular, constitutional republic' (Kazamias, 1966:17). This process encompassed several aspects of change such as in government institutions, in the bureaucracy, in education, in political ideologies, and in the culture of society (Kazamias, 1966). Education was an important component of the new republic because Ataturk realised that the essence of modernity lay in the minds of people

(Szyliowicz, 1973). In order to realise his ideals and modernise society Ataturk gave education great importance. The Republic of Turkey was a new state and there was a need for new principles of education that were to develop the Turkish nation (Akyuz, 1998). Although education was to play a vital role, the existing educational system was in a poor condition.

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The Ottoman society was multi-national and it was influenced by religious ideology. The structure inherited from the Ottoman Empire was limited for nation-building and development; physical facilities and human resources were inadequate, the content and aim of education was incompatible to the new state (Szyliowicz, 1973). During Ataturk's period a lot of radical reforms were made in education, and from the beginning the Turkish Educational System was regulated on the basis of:

- The constitution of the Turkish Republic
- The opinions and views of Mustafa Kemal Ataturk on education
- Laws regulating training and education
- Government programmes and development plans  
([http://www.meb.gov.tr/Stats/apk2002ing/apage29\\_48.htm](http://www.meb.gov.tr/Stats/apk2002ing/apage29_48.htm)).

To reform education a lot of laws have subsequently been established and I will outline some of these which reflect the general ideology and aims of the state. The first constitution of the Turkish Republic placed all education under the supervision and control of the state. On March 3, 1924 the *Tevhidi Tedrisat Kanunu* (The Law of Unification of Education) was published. It was the first radical legislation in the field of education and it provided that all educational institutions be placed under the control of the Ministry of National Education. With this Law, instruction was united, and the 'single school' system was adopted by closing religious schools and eliminating religious teaching from public schools (Seber, 1998; Akyuz, 1999). Secularisation was one of the basic principles of Ataturk's ideology (Berkes, 1998). In the secularisation process, Ataturk forced the removal of the caliphate, abolished the religious courts, introduced Western law codes, abolished the powerful religious orders and madrasas (religious schools) and transferred the religious endowments and their incomes to the Ministry of National Education (Szyliowicz, 1973; Berkes, 1998). Secularisation also eliminated religious instruction from the curriculum of the modern schools and no religious subjects were taught in urban schools. Secularism was applied to foreign and missionary schools as well as to Turkish schools and no religious instruction was permitted in these institutions (Szyliowicz, 1973; Akar, 1996).

The Basic Law of National Education no. 1739 of 1973 as amended by Law no.2842 of 18 June 1989 covers general and special objectives and basic principles of the Turkish National Education System. According to this law the general objective of the Turkish National Education encompasses the following:

a) To train all members of the Turkish Nation as citizens who believe in principles and reforms of Ataturk and Ataturk's concept of nationalism as expressed in the Constitution; who endorse, protect and develop the national,

moral, humanitarian, spiritual and cultural values of the Turkish Nation; who care for and relentlessly promote their families, country and nation; who are aware of their duties and responsibilities towards the republic of Turkey which is based on a respect for human rights and the basic principles enshrined in the Preamble to its Constitution and which is a democratic and secular state of law.

b) To raise individuals so that they have a character which is balanced physically, mentally, ethically, spiritually and emotionally and who are capable of reasoning freely and rationally, have a wide perspective of the world, respect human rights, value individuality and entrepreneurship and feel responsible towards society and who are constructive, creative and industrious;

c) To enable them to gain the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for their future lives and for the acquisition of a profession which would ensure their own prosperity and contribute to that of the country by developing their interests, talents and capabilities (DGPI, 1998).

Thus the overall objective of the Turkish national education is to raise the level of prosperity of the Turkish society and to support and accelerate economic, cultural and social development in national unity, and make the Turkish nation a positive, well esteemed, creative and distinguished member of the modern world ([http://www.meb.gov.tr/Stats/apk2002ing/apage29\\_48.htm](http://www.meb.gov.tr/Stats/apk2002ing/apage29_48.htm)).

Since the beginning of the Republic, all important policy and administrative decisions about education, such as the appointment of teachers and administrators, the selection of textbooks and the selection of subjects for the curriculum, have been made by the Ministry of National Education (Akyuz, 1989). Even today a national curriculum is followed in every school and all educational activities in schools are controlled by the Ministry of National Education (Cakiroglu and Cakiroglu, 2003).

By looking at historical and other official documents one can see that from the beginning the main aim of Turkish education is to rebuild national awareness, promote citizenship and patriotism (Kaplan, 1999). History is the subject most affected by that approach. History lessons have been used as a tool of 'nation building' (Millas, 1998, p.131) and to give pupils pride in being Turkish. As Yavuz (1993) pointed out during the nineteenth century nationalism was a process involving either the politicisation of existing categories of identity or the creation of new ones in Europe:

*In this process culture is politicised, new myths are invented, and language is standardised with the aim of creating a nation-state.*

*Nationalism, therefore, may be said to transform the community's existing cultural consciousness into a political one, and to invent new cultural components as it strives for the congruence of politics and culture (Yavuz, 1993, p.178).*

In Turkey history lessons have been the main tools to enhance that process. As mentioned earlier the Ottoman Empire was a multi-national, multi-faith society and the new Republic aimed to change that structure towards a national society. To modernise and develop a national identity in the young generation, the content of history lessons was prepared with a nationalist approach and since then this approach has been reflected in history teaching. The 1930s witnessed a restructuring of the history curriculum and textbooks on the basis of a newly formulated official history thesis, namely the Turkish history thesis (Behar, 1992; Kaya et al, 2001), 'built on the idea that Turks had contributed to civilisation long before they had been incorporated into the Ottoman Empire. They had originated an urban civilisation in Central Asia from which many other civilisations had sprung' (Mardin, 1993, p.366). The thesis argued that ancestors of the Turks had created a high culture in Central Asia throughout the pre-historic ages. After the Last Ice Age, the climate of Central Asia deteriorated and the Turks were forced to emigrate all over the world. These emigrants brought their high culture with them and eventually created the well-known civilisations of antiquity such as those of Mesopotamia, Egypt, India and China (Kaya et al, 2001, p.160). The thesis claimed that the earliest civilisations had been created by the Turks and the Turks were the first civilised nation of the world (Behar 1992; Copeaux, 1998 and 2003; Kaya et al, 2001). The aim of this thesis was to show that Anatolia has been a Turkish homeland since antiquity and all early Anatolian civilisations of Hittites, Phrygians, Lydians, Greeks etc, were Turkish civilisations. The thesis implied that since all Antique civilisations of the world had been created by Turks, the modern western civilisations also owed much to the Turks and there is no reason to exclude the Turks from the west (Kaya et al, 2001; Copeaux, 2003). The history curriculum kept this approach with few changes until the mid-1970s. Since the 1970s Islamic history has been added to the content (Copeaux, 1998; Kaya et al, 2001). Although the Turkish Republic is a secular state, 'the Turkish nationalism in its formative period lay in its synthesis of Islam and nationalism' (Yavuz, 1993, p.175) and the emphasis given to Islamic history might be seen to be the reflection of that synthesis.

## **2. The criticism on History Education in Turkey**

Debates about history education as well as general education have been on the agenda of Turkish educationalists for many years. The educational policy

of Turkey has been criticised for both ideological and practical reasons. To discuss the situation of history education in Turkey a seminar was organised by the Association of Philosophy in 1975. Several well-known intellectuals and academics from different fields and universities discussed the current situation of historiography from different perspectives during three days. One theme of the discussions was the problems and solutions of history education in primary and secondary schools in Turkey. The History Foundation had arranged a large number of meetings, symposia, workshops and panel discussions, including 'History Education and Textbooks', 'History Education and the 'Other' in History', and 'New Approaches in Historiography and Museology: Globalisation and Localisation'. The History Foundation organised a workshop on The Reconstructing of History Education in December 2000 and many teachers, academics and officials from the Ministry of Education attended this meeting. The main speakers introduced the main trends in history education from other countries and suggested that similar approaches should be considered in the Turkish context. A survey of the literature reveals that the main problems have not changed in Turkey for many years.

## **2.1. Problems of history education in Turkey**

The problems of history education in Turkey mentioned in the literature are mainly about the content of the subject and the methodology of the lessons.

### **2.1.1. Problems relating to content**

In the literature the most common discussion topic is the content of the history syllabus and the main features of history textbooks (Özbaran, 1998a; Aydın, 2001; Kabapınar, 2003a). Since textbooks are the only resource used in history lessons, their content and structure are crucial.

#### **2.1.1.1. Nationalist and ethnocentric approach**

It has been argued that the main feature of history lessons since the beginning of the Republic has been nationalist and ethnocentric (Millas, 1998; Copeaux, 1998; Behar, 1998). Ethnocentrism is defined as:

*The attitude of a group which consists of attributing to itself a central position compared to other groups, valuing positively its achievements and characteristics, adopting a projective type behaviour towards out groups and interpreting the outgroup's behaviour through the in-groups mode of thinking. (Preiswerk, R., and Perrot, D., 1978, cited in Maw, 1994, p.10)*

One should notice that national and nationalistic history are different and

criticism of an ethnocentric approach does not mean underestimating the importance of national history. This issue has been argued in many European Community history conferences and two concepts have been differentiated:

*'National' history studies and evaluates the evidence of a nation's past. 'Nationalistic' history, often concerned with political and diplomatic achievement and military victories, is essentially celebratory. The former can be concerned with examining values; the latter is almost inevitably concerned with transmitting them. Nationalistic history is to do less with examining cause than with attributing blame, conferring approval and demanding loyalty (Slater, 1995:33).*

In these terms it has been argued that the main feature of Turkish history teaching is 'nationalistic' rather than 'national' (Özbaran, 1998b; Aydın, 2001). Through history lessons, children have been expected to learn how to be a good citizen and understand Turkish history (Demircioğlu, 1999). In all textbooks, in first pages there is a Turkish flag, a picture of Atatürk and the national anthem. At the end of the textbooks there is a political map of Turkey as well as a political map of the Turkish World (Kaya et al, 2001). Üçyiğit (1977) is critical of the ethnocentric approach of Turkish textbooks which exaggerate the contribution of Turks in world history. Tuncay (1977) also argued that history textbooks are full of dogmatic and exaggerated information in favour of the Turkish nation. Both claimed that this approach does not help the young generation to learn to be critical and learn to analyse different topics (Tuncay, 1977; Üçyiğit 1977).

#### **2.1.1.2. No balance between world, national and local history**

By looking at all secondary school history textbooks, Millas (1998) has found that only 5% of the content of textbooks are about world and European history. The other 95% are about Turkish history. Kabapınar (1998a) found this ratio to be 10% and 90% respectively. In textbooks, there were two units on European history but they are placed between Ottoman history units and Europe is introduced as a completely separate entity. Ottoman history is not given as a part of European history (Kaya et al, 2001).

#### **2.1.1.3. Lack of contemporary history**

Until 2008 History lessons in Turkey covered a period between pre-history until the Second World War and stop there. The unit on the Second World War was short and the main events after the Second World War were not covered. Students did not have a chance to learn contemporary political, economic or other events in history lessons.

#### **2.1.1.4. Too much emphasis on political and military history**

Üçyiğit (1977) claimed that textbooks were more focused on political history rather than cultural, economic and social history. Apart from Ottoman history, textbooks focus more on political history rather than their cultural, economic and social results, and until recent curriculum changes the emphasis was on political and military events. Yetkin (1998:180) had shown in his research that approximately 14% of one textbook was questions, maps, pictures, tables and reading resources. 62% was about military and political events, and culture, art, science, economic life, public life in the remainder. Until 1993 political history accounted for more than eighty per cent of the content in Ottoman period history textbooks. After that date socio-economic history became dominant at least for Ottoman history units. However, this socio-economic history is strictly static and lacks a comparative approach (Kaya et al, 2001).

#### **2.1.1.5. Repetition of the same topics**

The Turkish educational system is based on a system in which pupils are taught the same topics in greater depth in each stage. For example the same history topics are taught in primary, secondary and high school, but in each stage the details and amount of information are extended (Kabapınar, 1998a), and Tuncay (1977) criticised this repetition of topics. Although it can be claimed that it will enable students to understand the topics better, if it is considered that teachers have to finish a lot of topics in a limited time it is difficult to see the benefit of the repetition of the same topics over the years (Tuncay, 1977).

#### **2.1.1.6. Detailed knowledge**

History textbooks contain very detailed and unnecessary information. Kabapınar (1998a) counts in one Lise 1 (year 9) history textbook 110 different state, khanate and region names, while in 50 pages of one textbook there are 57 historical war and conquest names.

### **2.1.2. Problems relating to teaching methods**

#### **2.1.2.1. Passive learning**

Turkish teaching methods have traditionally been didactic and students take a passive role in their lessons, listening to their teacher and copying his/her sentences from the blackboard into their notebooks. Kabapınar (1998b:142) points out that Turkish history textbooks seem to be used by pupils for the acquisition of basic facts and ideas, and they do not include written and pictorial sources which might encourage enquiry. Kaya et al (2001:177) also

claim that 'As the main objective of the books is conceived as indoctrination of the students, there exists no space for creativity.' The great majority of the questions in the textbooks aim to measure the memorising capability of students. Students are expected to repeat the information or interpretation stated in the books. There are very few examples which encourage the students to compare and analyse different source materials (Kaya et al, 2001). However the new Turkish history curriculum is based on a constructivist approach and asks teachers to apply active learning methods in their classroom.

#### **2.1.2.2. Memorisation and rote learning**

Memorisation and dictation have been the favourite methods of educating Turkish secondary school history teachers for many years, and memorisation/rote learning remain a major problem in Turkish history education, with Üçyiğit (1977) arguing that the structure of textbooks and the educational system leads pupils to focus on memorisation.

Teaching methods in history lessons in Turkey have been similar to methods of the 'great tradition' of Britain (Sylvester, 1994). In this tradition the history teacher's role was didactically active; they gave main facts of historical knowledge, putting notes on a blackboard for students to copy or read textbooks around the class. The pupil's role was passive; they copied notes from a blackboard or used textbooks to make their own notes (Sylvester, 1994). After prolonged debates during the 1970s and 1980s this 'great tradition' has changed and now the 'new history' approach is popular in UK schools. 'The *New history* lays less emphasis on content and more on the process of learning ... The approach of the *New History* is what is popularly called the Enquiry Method' (Jones, 1973:14 cited in Aldrich, 1984:210).

### **3. Suggestions to improve history education in Turkey**

In the literature all suggestions to improve history education in Turkey are similar since the 1975 Philosophy Association meeting, and scholars and authors have identified the same problems and same solutions over the years since the event. Basically the solutions are the opposite to the problems: all the scholars who have examined the problems first, then gave their suggestions. During the 1975 conference Ucyigit (1977) suggested that pupils should be taught to be tolerant of different cultures and nations and history teachers should be trained accordingly. Ucyigit (1977) suggested that training high quality teachers might help to solve most problems. After comparing his history teacher training in Turkey and the UK Demircioglu (1999) also suggested that the curriculum of history teacher education departments should be restructured

to educate effective, creative and dynamic student teachers. Tuncay (1977) suggested that history lessons should provide alternative approaches to students in order to give them the ability to become analytical and critical. In the History Foundation meeting on 'The reconstruction of history education', Özalp (2000) mentioned the necessity of teaching national history rather than nationalist history, striking a balance between local, national and world history, giving more emphasis to cultural, social and economic history than political history, trying to give students the ability to think analytically and look at events from different viewpoints, reducing bias about other nations in order to give the younger generation a more positive approach and be able to contribute to world peace. At the same meeting Tekeli (2000) used the 'new history' approach from the UK to evaluate and make suggestions to improve Turkish history education. He summarised all the main debates from Bourdillon's (1994) book to introduce the Turkish audience to the main themes in British history education. He argued that the current situation in Turkey is similar to the old, traditional model of the UK. He argued that all activities in schools and history textbooks should be reconsidered in the light of main international developments in this area. He went on to argue that respecting human rights, participatory democracy, protecting the environment, reducing discrimination based on gender and race are some of the values that are becoming very popular in the global era and all nations should respect those values. He also suggested that students should be more active learners and their participation should be encouraged, and that using information technology and encouraging a more tolerant approach without any bias against other nations were vital. The *New History* approach from the UK is the most referred to as a good example by Turkish academics (Köstüklü, 1997; Kabapınar, 1998; Demircioğlu, 1999; Dilek, 1999 and 2001; Aslan, 2000; Tekeli, 2000; Aktekin, 2001, 2003 and 2004; Özbaran, 2002). The *New History* approach is considered as a valuable experience to overcome the problems of Turkish history education. However while advocating the '*new history*' approach within the Turkish context Tekeli(2000) had some doubts about its likely success. He argued that the main aim of history teaching in Turkey is creating a secular national state and some officials might be suspicious that the new history approach might weaken the secular and nationalist side of the nation state, and suggested that these concerns were amongst the main obstacles to change in the current educational system (Tekeli, 2000).

#### **4. Recent Developments in history education in Turkey**

By considering these criticisms and international developments in the field of history and social studies education the Ministry of National Education in

Turkey decided to make radical changes in education. A new Social Studies and History curriculum was introduced in Turkey, reflecting many of the most recent international developments in the field. The new approach is based on a constructivist approach and encourages the use of active teaching and learning methods. Respecting human rights, participatory democracy, multiperspectivity, local history, protecting the environment and cultural heritage, reducing discrimination of gender and race, the place of women in history and tolerance are some of the values and concepts that are addressed in new history and social studies curriculum (MEB 2005, 2007,2008). The aims of teaching history in the new Turkish History Curriculum are:

1. To make students aware of the importance of Ataturk's principals and revolutions in the Republic of Turkey's political, social, cultural and economical development; to make pupils willing to preserve secular, democratic, national and modern values.
2. To provide with historical awareness about past, today and future
3. To make students understand the main periods and facts that forms Turkish culture and to encourage students to be responsible in preservation and development of their cultural heritage.
4. To make pupils understand the importance of preserving national identity and the process of forming a national identity as well as the factors contribute to the forming of a national identity.
5. To make pupils aware of the importance of national unity by forming connections between past and future.
6. To make pupils aware of the nations and civilizations that lived through history.
7. To make pupils aware of the place of Turkish nation in the development of world civilization and culture as well as its contribution to humanity.
8. To resolve students' curiosity about the cultural world around them.
9. To make students aware that history is not all about politics but it also contains economic, social and cultural aspects.
10. To gain students necessary skills to use methods and concept of the science of history efficiently when making historical research.
11. To provide students opportunities to analyze political, social, cultural and economical interaction between different cultures, periods and places and make conclusions for modern world.
12. To make students understand the importance of basic values such as peace, tolerance, democracy and human rights and make them sensitive in preserving such values.
13. To make students be able to interact with other cultures while maintaining their bonds with their own culture.

14. To gain students qualities of diligence, scientific and aesthetic values through making historical researches on cultural heritage.
15. To gain students the ability of using Turkish language efficiently in written and oral communication (translated by the author from MEB,2007 and 2008)

#### **4.1. Content of the history textbooks**

In this section I will explain the content of history textbooks at secondary level. In Turkey, all textbooks are approved by the Ministry of National Education and their content must follow the regulations of the Ministry. Although there are different textbooks published by different companies, the content pages of the textbooks are all the same. There are only a few differences in details and in some pictures in the textbooks. By looking at the content of the subject one can better understand current debates on history education. Until 1998 compulsory education was five years in Turkey. After five years compulsory primary education, there were six years optional secondary education: three years junior and three years high secondary school. In 1998 compulsory education was increased to 8 years. Junior secondary education had been added to primary education. With this change, separate history and geography courses were merged into a single subject entitled 'Social Knowledge' in years 6 and 7 (Kaya et al., 2001). In the current system, history teaching begins in year 4 within the Social Knowledge course. Up to year 8 there is no separate history subject. In years 4, 5, 6 and 7, history is a part of the Social Knowledge subject. During this subject students are taught about different social subjects such as politics, history, geography, economics, sociology and citizenship topics by following a standard textbook. In year 8 instead of Social Knowledge there is a special subject: the Revolutionary History of the Turkish Republic and the Principles of Ataturk. In that subject pupils learn about the life of Ataturk and his importance in Turkish history: his basic principles, especially nationalism and secularism are taught during that course. In the current educational system in Turkey, after eight years basic compulsory education, secondary education is voluntary. Secondary education is four years and history is a core subject in year 9, 10 and 11 and it is optional in year 12. The content of those lessons is similar but more extended than in primary school.

##### **4.1.1. The content of Year 9 history**

In year 9, students have 2 hours of history lessons every week. The topics of year 9 are mainly about the history of the Turks before the Ottoman period. After an introductory unit about history students basically learn about Turkish history. The units of year 9 can be seen in the Table 1.

**Table 1.** The History Units in Year 9

UNIT	Content	Time Allocated (hours)	Percentage (%)
Introduction to history	Definition of history and methods of historical research, the relation of history to other scientific departments are the main topic of this unit.	14	20
Birth of Civilization and First Civilizations		10	14
First Turkish Nations	Under that title the migration of Turks from Central Asia to other part of the world and especially Anatolia is taught. Uighur Turks, Huns, and other Turkish states are the topics of that unit.	12	18
History of Islam and Islamic Civilization (Up to 13 <sup>th</sup> century)	This unit is about the birth of Islam and expansion of Islamic culture. The life of Prophet Mohammed and first Islamic states, Islamic culture and civilisation are the main topics of this unit.	10	16
Turk-Islam Nations (10 <sup>th</sup> -13 <sup>th</sup> centuries)	This unit is about the reasons for the Turkish conversion into Islam and the Turkish contribution to Islamic civilisation. Also the first Muslim Turkish states (Karahanolilar, Gazneliler, and Great Seljuk Empire) and their culture and civilisation are taught in some depth.	12	18
History of Turkey (11 <sup>th</sup> - 13 <sup>th</sup> centuries)	This unit is the about Turkish settlement in Anatolia. It starts from the Malazgirt War in 1071 and teaches about the first Turkish states in Anatolia and their social, cultural and economic life. The history of the Mamluks, Eyyubis, Mongols, Baburs, and Harzemshahs are the topics of this unit.	14	14
TOTALS		72	100

#### 4.1.2. The content of the Year 10 history

In year 10 all students have two hours of history lessons per week. The content of year 10 is mainly about Ottoman History. This topic is the main subject of history lessons and taught in different units.

**Table 2.** The History Units in Year 10

UNIT	Content	Time Allocated (hours)	Percentage (%)
From Principality to State (1300-1453)	The root of Ottoman Turks, their relations with Rums, and political and social situation in that era are the main topics.	12	17
Worldwide Power : Ottoman Empire (1453-1600)	The political and military events of the Ottoman Empire from 15 <sup>th</sup> century to 19 <sup>th</sup> centuries are taught during these units in depth.	18	25
Years of Pursuit (XVII. Century)	Political and economical developments in the 17 <sup>th</sup> century	12	15
Diplomacy and Change (XVIII. Century)	The political and military events of the Ottoman Empire in 18 <sup>th</sup> century.	11	15
The Longest Century (1800-1922)	The political and military events of the Ottoman Empire from 19 <sup>th</sup> century to 20 <sup>th</sup> centuries are taught during these units in depth.	11	28
TOTALS		72	100

#### 4.1.3. The Content of Year 11 History

In Year 11 there is a special history subject. In Year 11 all secondary school students study 'The Revolutionary History of Turkey and the Principles of Ataturk' for two hours per week. In primary education, during the first seven years, the life and principles of Ataturk is taught as part of the Social Knowledge subject. As mentioned earlier, in Year 8, 'The Revolutionary History of Turkey and the Principles of Ataturk' is a separate school subject. The topics of the subject start from the end of the Ottoman Empire and focus

on Ataturk's life from his childhood until the end of his life in 1938. This subject aims to teach about Ataturk's contribution to Turkish history and spread his ideology amongst the younger generation. In fact, Ataturk's life and principles are taught to pupils in all stages of their education in Turkey. This subject is also compulsory in higher education.

#### 4.1.4. The content of year 12 history

In year 12 students who attend Social Studies and Turkish and Math departments have 2 hours of Modern Turkish and World History subject per week. This subject is new one and it is optional. One of the main criticisms of Turkish history education was that there was not enough contemporary history in the curriculum. Since 2008 Modern Turkish and World history has been taught in schools but only Social Studies and Turkish-Maths departments offer this subject. Students who attend Science and Foreign Language departments don't take this subject and they have no chance to learn contemporary history.

**Table 3.** The History Units in Year 12

UNIT	Time Allocated (hours)	Percentage (%)
World at the beginning of the 20 <sup>th</sup> century	28	19
Second World War	20	14
Cold War	28	20
Detention Period and After	32	22
Globalizing World	36	25
TOTALS =	144	100

Even though the new history curriculum reflects modern approaches in the field, it still has some shortcomings and problems in terms of how far more modern ideas are being implemented, and most school teachers remain unsure about how to make best use of the new curriculum. Recent studies (Ceylan, 2009) indicates that the traditional methods are still in use in many schools and it is clear that it will take some time to engage teachers fully with the requirements of the new curriculum.

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## THE CENTURY THAT CANNOT BE LEARNED: TEACHING OF XXth CENTURY IN TURKEY

*Abdullah Saydam\**

### **Introduction: Stocktaking**

A survey carried out with 88 history and social studies teachers and 515 history and social studies student teachers towards the end of 2008 and the beginning of 2009 showed that those who oppose Turkey's membership to the EU are more than of those in favour. According to this survey, while 65 per cent of teachers are against Turkey's membership to the EU, an even higher rate of the student teachers (83 per cent) objects to Turkey's membership of the EU. Such figures are remarkable as public support for Turkey's membership to the EU has never been lower than 50 per cent. The teachers' and student teachers' attitudes towards the membership are understandable because this is after all a political issue. It is natural to show one's choice according to one's political stance. Such choices do not necessarily reflect public opinion and State's policies.

However, what is interesting is not the above mentioned finding. The teachers and student teachers were also asked other remarkable questions: "Do you think that European history should be given space in the curriculum?" and "Do you think that you should learn/teach about the European history in your classes?"

74 and 67 per cent of history and social studies teachers and 71 per cent of both history and social studies student teachers said "no" to this question respectively. This answer is obviously rather meaningful in that those who are against Turkey's membership to the EU appear also not willing to learn or to teach about European history in their classes. However, these two are not the same thing. Having a negative perspective concerning the EU on the grounds of political choice is one thing and not wanting to learn or to teach about European history in the class is another thing. Two things seem to be mixed up. In so doing, what should be taught in the class which is a matter

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of curriculum development, a process based on academic/scientific efforts, is considered to be the same as the relationship between Turkey and the EU, which is subject to manipulation by daily politics and events. It is seen that the majority of the teachers and student teachers who took part in this study think that if European history is taught in the class, this serves positively towards Turkey's membership process of the EU.

This judgement is further confirmed by some other findings of the survey. When asked whether "world history should be taught more in the class", 65 and 85 per cent of the teachers and student teachers respectively answered positively. When the geography of Turkey and political, economic, and socio-cultural developments of the last few centuries are taken into account, there would be no world history to be taught in the Turkish context if European history (including Russia) is excluded. It is obvious that the political developments occurring in such places as Japan and China which are geographically distant to Turkey were also affected by European states. The conclusion that could be drawn from the preceding argument is that the teachers and student teachers who took part in the survey do not have clear views about Europe.

The reasons for this confusion could be summarised in a couple of points: Firstly, the history and social studies curricula in Turkey traditionally omitted the political-military and social-economic developments after the 1945 era. Almost all teachers who took part in the survey did not learn about the events that shaped today's world during their school (and university) education. As for student teachers, it could be said that they covered such issues very limitedly during their courses in the university. When the word/concept "Europe" is uttered, what comes to the minds of most Turkish history and social studies teachers and student teachers is that: invasions took place in Turkey following the Mondros treaty (30 October 1918) that ended World War I for the Ottomans; Treaty of Sevres (10 August 1920) that was signed to secure/stabilise the invasions; and finally the events of the Turkish Independence Movement which took place between 1920-1923. These events are usually considered to be the reason why "Europe" could not be seen sympathetically by the eyes of the Turks. In a sense, the developments of the 2000s are considered in the context/shadow of the events dating back 80 years ago. The prominent problem lies in the question "how could we today live together with the enemy of those times?" A meaningful pause happens when these teachers and student teachers are confronted with the fact that Mustafa Kemal Atatürk had peace negotiations with and hosted Venizolos, the Greek Prime Minister of the time, against whom he fought as a commander not long ago, in Ankara when the pains of war were still fresh. However, when they

are told about the developments have happened in the aftermath of World War II; Turkey's unity in destiny with West Europe against the USSR's expansionism; cooperation under the NATO umbrella; Cold War years, and the developments happening in Turkey and Europe in these times, usually more moderate perspectives start to emerge regarding the place of Europe in the curriculum and what happened in history between Turkey and Europe.

Another important point emerging from the survey findings is related to the scientific/educational problems resulting from the fact that until recently modern times (after 1945) certain aspects were not covered in the history and social studies curricula of Turkey. Today's people do not know the stories of domestic and international events of 10, 20 or 40 years ago. The memory of a teacher or student teacher did not want to be filled with the events from after 1945, or in fact after 1938. For this reason, the teachers and student teachers cannot help but evaluate the developments of the 2000s with the viewpoints of the 1920s. Those who prefer to place Turkey in the geography of Europe in such areas as sports, music, fashion, and cinema act differently when it comes to politics, the independence of the country, mutual inspection, and cooperation of states. However, Turkey has already been exercising the relationship with other states based on cooperation, mutual control and dependence by being a member of NATO for more than half century. Turkey also recognises the jurisdiction of the European Court of Human Rights as higher than its own jurisdiction since 1989. Many Turkish citizens have already been seeking their rights through this court. Moreover, Turkish governments have been adapting Turkey's domestic legislation and institutions in parallel with EU legislation and institutions even though not being a member state for many years. But since these details are not well known by the teachers and student teachers, they oppose the teaching of XXth Century European history while objecting to EU membership.

In fact, such problems concerned with the understanding of "the other" are not endemic to Turkey. There also exist different perspectives and sensitivities in recounting historical events in other countries in Europe. For this reason, the Ministers' Committee of the European Commission, recognising the significance of history in order to regulate the relations between the societies that it contains, felt a need to propose some suggestions regarding the teaching of history in the 21st century. Sub-units of the Council have developed various projects in the context of the proposal. These projects aim to achieve the following: re-interpretation of history teaching, examination of the contents of the curricula, the issue of how history should be taught for a more democratic and participatory Europe with a particular attention to the XX th Century history, examinations and re-writing of the textbooks (Pinkel, 2000).

### **Topics of XXth Century in History Curricula**

Although the history curriculum in Turkey has been subject to changes over time, the changes have been usually limited to how to recount/teach better “Turkish History Theory”. The matter of what should be emphasised has changed according to the ideological stance of political parties that hold the Ministry of National Education, namely Kemalist, socialist, nationalist or conservative. Having said this, there has been no significantly different approach in the teaching of XXth century history in essence. History starts to be taught in year 4 of primary schools through a subject called Social Studies (in some other times there was National History, National Geography and Citizenship lessons instead of Social Studies) which is compulsory and has 4 hours of credit per week. In secondary schools, history is taught from year 9 to year 12, only compulsory to all students in year 9 and 10. It has two hours of credit per week.

When we look at the distribution and proportion of the topics of the history curriculum, which started to be taught in all secondary schools from 1982-1983, the last topic to be taught in secondary schools was World War II (see Table 1). The share of the causes and effects of World War II was 5 per cent in the beginning. The changes took place in 1991-2 and resulted in the delivery of all content through only year 9 and 10. While the units stayed as the same, the proportions of the topics were changed. However, in addition to compulsory history lessons, new selective lessons, General Turkish History 1, 2 and 3; Ottoman History 1 and 2; and History of Islam were introduced. With this new curriculum, the unit entitled World War II had a share of 3 per cent.

**Table-1.** Topics and distribution of units in secondary school history lessons in Turkey (1982-1983)

Year	No of hours per week	Name of the units	Proportion (%)
IX	2	Introduction to history	8
		Motherland of Turks (place of origin) and migrations	5
		First civilisations of Asia and Egypt	20
		Aegean and Roman Civilisations	5
		Turkish States founded before Islam	25
		Culture and civilisation in Turkish States founded before Islam	12
		History of Islam	25
X	2	Turk's conversion to Islam and first Turkish-Islamic states	21
		Europe in Middle Age	7
		History of Turkey	29
		Other States Founded in Central Asia and Near East	8
		Ottoman State (from beginning till the era of Conqueror Mehmet II.)	35
XI	2	Ottoman Empire (till XVII. Century)	25
		Europe in XV. and XVI. Centuries	7
		Ottoman Empire and Europe in XVII. and XVIII. Centuries	28
		Ottoman Empire and Europe from XIX. Century to the end of World War II.	35
		World War II	5

Since the history of XXth Century does not only consist of World War II, the Turkish history curricula have the problem of being out dated. Having had a long school education, students enter their lives without knowing the historical backgrounds of the events affecting the times they have been living through. For example, someone who had been to school in the 1990s and went on to live in the 2000s did not have any education concerning the polarised world of the Cold War era, so would not necessarily know how the conflict between West and East in 1960s and 1980s shaped the world politics, economics, cultural and intellectual life, cinema or sports. Likewise, if the young person

did not know of such events as the Cuban crises, U-2 crises, protests of 1968, Soviet expansionism in Africa and the Middle East, the conflict between the USSR and China, the boycott of the Moscow Olympics by the USA and its allies, the invasion of Afghanistan by the Soviets, and the revolution led by Khomeini in Iran. These are historical events which effect current events. A person who does not know about 1979 Iranian Coup/insurrection resulting in the USA-Iran crises would have difficulty in understanding the conflict between Iran and Western countries and why mutual mistrust exists.

When Turkey's case is particularly considered in respect to the above argument, not only issues of foreign politics, but also domestic issues which were omitted from the curricula, have made it hard for students to place today's events on the historical platform which would provide rich insights for the present. The domestic issues/events, which have happened after 1938, have not traditionally been mentioned in history classes in Turkey. Therefore, students complete their education without knowing what happened within the country after Mustafa Kemal Atatürk's death; just to name some the characteristics of one party rule in Turkey, its political, social and economic policies and opposition movements to one-party-rule; the introduction of troublesome multi party life in 1946; the first free general election that took place in 1950 and the change of government in the country; the governments of the Democratic Party during 1950s and its end with a military coup; efforts for a new democracy; the reflections of 1968 events in Turkey; military intervention of the 12<sup>th</sup> March 1971; Cyprus issue; left wing-right wing clashes across the country; the military coup of 1980 and its still continuing effects, and efforts to join the EU. Students are not taught about the above mentioned events before they start their university education. In universities only those studying certain degrees, (so a limited number of students), have opportunity to get to know about these issues in a scientific way.

An illustrative example of how the history curriculum fails could be observed in the responses of some students when asked about Adnan Menderes. Adnan Menderes is a figure that is talked much about in the media or daily politics. Many roads or parks are named after him. He used to be the prime minister of Turkey between 1950 and 1960 until his execution that took place after military coup in 1960. Some students consider Adnan Menderes as one of the Ottoman Sultans. Likewise, some students consider Kenan Evren, who was the commander of the military coup which took place in 1980, as Atatürk's companion in arms. Young people in Turkey today are being governed by the constitution prepared by the Military Council chaired by Kenan Evren. Although the constitution has been subject to some changes ever since its commencement in 1982, legislation, state administrations and

institutional organisations all result from this constitution, so it is very evident in Turkish people's lives.

Therefore, history curricula in Turkey have not traditionally prepared students for life, leaving gaps between the present time and 50-60 years ago. A student studying in the secondary school in 2009 will enter adulthood in 2015 and will have responsibility in public or private institutions by 2020s and 2030s. However, the events of the 2020s and 2030s are more likely to have been shaped by the events of the 1990s and 2000s rather than the 1940s. For this reason, a history curriculum that aims to prepare young people for life has to focus more on the developments of the 1990s rather than 1940s. A young person would not understand how Germany, Britain and France came together under the umbrella of the EU by making a union if the curriculum stops in 1940s. Of course the causes affecting today's events are also affected by the older events. Particularly beliefs, ideas, values, cultural norms, concepts and words belong to yesterday rather than today. The words in use today were produced tens of years ago. The number of words which newly emerge in one's lifetime is limited. Thus, the value of teaching the history of distant times should not be diminished. However, when the aim of social studies lessons in primary schools and history lessons in secondary schools is considered as providing students with a general historical awareness and culture and preparing them for life, then history teaching should be as much as in the context of recent history (contemporary and modern times history) so that students would have a realistic perceptions concerning the times and the world they live in.

Any empty space is filled by something else in the nature. This is true for the human mind too. People find ways to learn about any issue which they are not taught in formal educational organisations, from their social environment. This is what happens in Turkey: people have access to the information through their parents, relatives, friends, community they belong to, books and newspapers they read, radio and TV and finally the Internet. Particularly the Internet makes it very easy to access the vast amount of information quickly across world. However, an important pitfall of such a situation is something to do with the quality of the information provided because websites are not usually scrutinised scientifically. They can be partial, incorrect, inadequate or misleading, but could be treated as reliable information. When contemporary history is taught through scientific methods, students could at least develop basic criteria to assess the quality of their informal learning. Without this, they would find themselves in the middle of disinformation and this is what happens in Turkey today. Too many manipulations have been exercised in relation to contemporary Turkish history leaving people confused about what

really happened. This situation is evidence to show that the history curricula do not adequately prepare children for life. The question then needs to be asked; why recent history has been omitted for years although there has been an obvious problem.

The curriculum for each subject that is taught in Turkish schools is determined by the Educational Board which serves under the Ministry of Education. When the propositions of the board are endorsed by the minister who is a politician, then it starts to be implemented. Political polarisation between people is something which quite easily happens and effects daily politics in Turkey. For this reason, political parties have a hidden compromise in not involving schools, mosques and barracks with the daily politics. How to get schools out of politics then? Since contemporary developments/events have usually been sensitive, controversial and troublesome, according to general compromise, the best solution was found by not including the events after Atatürk's death in 1938. Political parties were so sensitive about this that the textbooks did not cover, for example the date of the Bosphorus Bridge or the name of the prime minister when Turkish troops took over Northern Cyprus. Such information, if it had been given, was considered to be promoting policies of one political party therefore bringing politics into the schools. Because of this reason, the politicians stop the history curricula in 1938. Apart from a few weak criticisms, this was widely accepted by academicians, teachers, media, and educators, because the events post 1938 are considered as sensitive and troublesome issues that need to be censored.

### **An exceptional Lesson: The History of Revolution of Turkish Republic**

Starting from 1981, the Ministry of Education introduced a new lesson named as Innovation History of Turkish Republic. This lesson was to be taught in year 9, 10 and 11. Although it covers the history of XXth Century, it contains an era that is considered to be special for Turkish State. The aim of the lesson is to teach students the political and militaristic developments leading to the foundation of the Turkish Republic, social and state reforms brought by Atatürk and the principles Atatürk that led way to reforms.

The distribution and propositions of units in year 9 to 11 are given in Table 2.

**Table 2.**

Class	No of hour per week	The name of the unit
IX	1	Ottoman Empire in the Beginning of the XXth Century
		The State of Ottoman Empire at the end of World War I
		The Life of Mustafa Kemal
X	1	The Independence War
XI	2	Republic Era
		Turkish Army and National Defence
		Foreign Policy of Turkish Republic
		Atatürkçülük-The Principals that Turkish Reform Based on and The Qualities of Turkish Reform
		The Death of Atatürk and the Selection of İsmet İnönü'as the President
World War II and its aftermath		

A shortened version of this lesson is taught in primary schools in the 8th grade as a compulsory lesson. The name is slightly different from the secondary version: "The History of Reforms of the Turkish Republic and Atatürk". Although in the beginning, World War II was not covered in the curriculum, from the 2000-1 semester, a new unit, "World War II and Turkey" was added to the curriculum. The sub-headings of the unit were as follows: a) The opinions of Atatürk before the World War II, b) Causes and effects of World War II, c) Turkey's policy in World War II. In the revision which took place in January 2009, the name of the unit was changed to "Turkey after Atatürk: World War II and its aftermath". Therefore, the events between 1945 and 2000 could find a place in the curriculum.

The aim of this lesson, as would be understood from the name of it, is to teach students formally the foundation process of Turkish Republic, new reforms and the political, economic, social changes which took place in Turkey within the framework provided by the State.

### **What Should be Included in History Curricula?**

The amount of historical knowledge to be given to varied age groups has been an issue that almost all history educators gave some thought to. In this respect, two main questions arise: Why and how much should we teach history (and social studies)? How should we teach History and social studies?

The same question, in fact, could be asked for every subject. There are also debates about why and how much we should teach maths or physics. However, these questions have a special meaning when asked in the case of history in Turkey just like in many other countries. The reason for this is that what happened in the past is mostly not considered to be a subject of historical science in Turkey. The interpretation, representation and recounting of some historical events might usually indicate one's religious-philosophical perspectives or one's political affiliations. While recounting an event dating back to 100 years, the language historians use could be used to situate them into one or another ideological camp. Then history is not widely considered to be a field of scientific research, but an area of beliefs and values. As a result of this, someone who lived in the past or an event which occurred in the past could easily become a matter of controversy. Such situations naturally affect the people who prepare history curricula: they tend to find issues that will not potentially cause controversy in the classroom, or do not give teachers opportunities to reflect their ideological/philosophical views to students through sensitive issues. But how is such a curriculum developed?

Every moment mankind lives through could be considered as history. What is lived today is a continuum of what was lived yesterday, last month, last year or within the last ten years. The words, concepts, proverbs, stories and legends we use today are the values of the past. For this reason, history is said to be the memory of the nations. We evaluate and judge today with this memory. When we carry out an evaluation concerning a matter of today, the criteria we use is based on knowledge, concepts and values that were produced in the past. Then it is impossible to understand today without taking the past into account. We should not forget that we learn history for ourselves not for the people of the past. Past people played their roles and passed away from the world. The problems they were faced, the methods they used to solve these problems, their achievements and failures are sources of inspiration and information for today's people. This is the very reason that history is worth studying and historical events are worth researching.

If we learn history for ourselves, in order to gain maximum benefit from this effort, students should be taught about the events as accurately as possible, therefore giving them opportunities to draw relevant conclusions. If the causes of an historical event are not presented truly, it is impossible to understand why it really occurred and in turn, it is impossible to understand its effects. Such a situation would limit the benefit that would be gained through history learning. When looked from this point of view, recounting false, fictional, arbitrary history would not change the truth but it would impair students and society at large. If a state changes the history arbitrarily,

it turns the knowledge system of the society up side down. This leads people to draw wrong conclusions from the wrong knowledge.

Totalitarian regimes usually change history in false and arbitrary ways. Such regimes use the science of history as a tool to shape the society with respect to certain political attitudes and ideas. This prevents the society from having a healthy social structure. However, it is impossible to use the science of history as a tool for brainwashing and indoctrination in democratic societies.

On the other hand, explaining and understanding what happened in history objectively, is to show loyalty to the memories of those people who had roles in the past. Political choices should not prevent us from understanding and teaching history as it really happened. Historical events are all about the political, economic, social and military choices of people of that time. These choices firstly are concerned with the era it happened, and depending on its effects they might interest other generations too. Future generations do not have to make the same decisions that their ancestors made. However, knowing history makes people learn lessons from common pains and failures of the past and lead them not to do wrongdoings again. For example, if people did not have the lessons of the Fascist/Nazis movement, those societies that were at war against each other long before, could not come together under the organisation called the European Union which is based on democracy, human rights and mutual dependence. The grandchildren of those, who were trying to protect and extent the national borders, are today giving decisions that make the borders that once were thought to be sacred not very meaningful anymore. Would those people who were living after the World War II imagine that one day people could cross the border between Germany and Belgium and France easily? What today makes this possible? What made this possible are the decisions of today's people who find past people's decisions, choices and dreams untenable. Those people who came together to share a common destiny in the context of the European Union have also decided to understand their histories in a way that they could share and further clinch this ideal. The controversies in history have been scrutinised critically so they do not allow historical controversies to cast a shadow over today. They decided that what are needed most are not controversies but compromises and mutual dependence. Therefore, when past events were taught, a tendency to understand the other and empathise with the other led to a strong sense of compromise and peace between societies.

Looking at the history curricula from such a perspective in Turkey has recently started. The membership negotiation process between Turkey

and the EU started a fundamental change both in administrative staff and society, in fact consolidating the change. "Turkish History Theory" has been hegemonic in Turkish history teaching for a long time. The main principles of this theory are based on a perception that all countries were enemies of Turkey and they continually make allies with each other to divide Turkey. When a conflict between Turkey and a European country emerges, the first thing to be reminded of was of the Ottomans' collapse so stressing that the main policy of foreign countries was to write Turkey off from the map. Therefore, a new generation was brought up with a view that today's representatives of those countries that contributed to the fall of the Ottomans still pursue the same ideal. "The Treaty of Sevres is being resurrected" was the slogan used to understand every disagreement which involved European powers. What is meaningful today is that those who oppose Turkey's membership to the EU in Turkey still justify their views using this slogan. This viewpoint acted as a barrier to Turkey in its international politics despite the fact that it is actively engaged with various European organisations and NATO.

But history does not have such a duty. While it is supposed to be a tool to open us new horizons, on the contrary, it has shaped politics for a long time. Other countries were approached with a sense of untrustworthiness and question marks. In other words, historical events became fetters tied on the feet of Turkish politicians. People who have gone through such history education inevitably developed biases towards others in their sub-consciousness. Politicians, even if they did not believe in something, pretended to believe it through the fear of reaction expected from society.

We observe here also of the fact that the science of history is interpreted very narrowly. History is not only about conflicts, adversaries and wars; it is much more about all the deeds of humankind without exception. For this reason, we talk about the history of law, economy, religion, science and sports as much as political history. Conflicts and wars are not ordinary but exceptional human activities. Humankind might have had wars in every five or ten years but they produced, consumed, sold and bought things, told stories, married, divorced, committed a crime etc. in every minute.

While a society was carrying out these activities, they had a continuing cooperation and interaction with other societies. The name of "America" in an ordinary Turkish person's mind firstly meant "a type of cloth" rather than a political power. There are regional globalisations that could be considered as miniature examples of today's globalisation process in history. For this reason, telling about one nation in history means telling about other nations as well. For example, how can the very popular topic of the Dardanelle War in Turkey

be taught without taking Great Britain, France and Russia into account? Could this war be explained without considering people gathered from colonies and brought to Gallipoli to fight? Could the use of new technologies in Turkey be understood without knowing about Birmingham's industrialists and James Watt's inventions? In sum, what is needed from history teaching is to bring societies together through a common past rather than a separating past. The responsibility of history is to research more about common values; and in turn, the responsibility of history education is to provide true and useful perspectives to people in terms of a common past. Another aim of the history curriculum should be of being a medium to understand today. To understand today begins with understanding the events that affect today mostly. Then this question arises: to what extent should we cover the recent (or most recent) events? What would be the proportions of old and recent events in the curriculum? When we have to make a choice, what would be our selection criteria?

The answers to the above questions could be summarised as follows: it is to the extent of what we want youngsters to remember after five or ten years following their graduation from the secondary school. Such histories as population, economy, culture, art, media, science and technology, daily life and sports should be covered in addition to political-military history. When the aim is to understand today, the history of XXth Century emerges as a necessity to be covered. XIXth and XVIIIth Centuries then have respectively secondary and even less significance in terms of understanding today. Undoubtedly these eras will have to be taught, but it should be in a way to only meet the needs of primary and secondary school pupils.

However, in such situation we then have a problem that teachers find it hard to teach about recent events. There might be chaotic atmosphere in the classroom when the events of ten-fifteen years ago are taught. This might be so because students might have learned about the events differently from their families or even a member of their families might have been involved in the events. But in spite of such risks, we should not give up teaching about the recent events. This is not a problem only Turkey has because as Stradling (2003: 82-90) asserts every country has their own sensitive issues.

On the other hand if recent sensitive and controversial issues are learned outside school there might be more harm. Scrutiny of recent events in the classroom is more valuable than information that students might bring into classroom if it is not scientifically produced. Young people have a right to learn about events that affect the times they live in. The State has a responsibility to prepare students for life and if it does not live up to these expectations then this might be considered as violating human rights.

The traditional methods used in history teaching have been questioned for a long time in Europe. With the collapse of the Soviet Union, debates regarding the aims, content and pedagogy of history education got more intense. Minorities, women, workers, neighbouring countries and recent events started to occupy larger parts of the history curricula. The history curricula of many countries were changed by bringing recent events into the curriculum. For example, the history curricula of Germany, France and England used to cover events till 1936, 1939 and 1945 respectively. But things changed in the 1970s and in many countries the curriculum started to cover events dating back only ten or fifteen years ago. At present more than half of the history curricula of most of Western countries contain events of XXth Century.

### **A Positive Attempt: Contemporary Turk and World History**

We drew attention above that one of the significant shortcomings of the Turkish history curricula is that European and world history were not covered adequately. When we think that for the last two hundred years Turkey has been so connected with Europe; that Turkey has been one of the European countries since 1856; and that Turkey has been involved in almost all organisations constituted within Europe after World War II, to understand Turkey in XXth Century, there is a need to cover more European and world history in history lessons. Otherwise people will have a limited perspective through which to evaluate today's and the future's political, economic and cultural issues. In fact, the majority of those who oppose Turkey's membership to the EU in Turkey do not know much about Europe and consider the relationship between the two from a 1920s perspective.

Turkey was under the influence of West Europe and the USA during the years of Cold War. Every aspect of life from politics to education and cinema to technology was shaped by this influence. It has been so intensive that today those who oppose the EU in Turkey have an attitude that Turkey should keep cooperating with Europe in areas such as sports (e.g. European football cups), cinema, and fashion. Such irony in attitudes indicates that the issue is not known very well. The most important responsibility in this respect falls upon the shoulders of social studies and history teachers and in turn those who prepare the curricula of social studies and history. The beginning of accession negotiations between Turkey and the EU is a sign that the relationship between the two will be durable. Every public administrative institution has already constituted units in order to adapt itself to the EU's legislation. It is not only because of Turkey's relations with the EU, but also because of the Globalisation process, Europe and the world will occupy more area in the

future lives of students. Therefore, Europe and the world need to be learned well by Turkish students.

Educators in Turkey have criticised more the lack of European and world dimensions in history education. The standards that attempt to develop such skills as critical thinking, empathy (to understand others) and multiperspectivity and see history as a tool not to separate but merge people which developed in Europe, have started to be noticed in Turkey. In this context, the Ministry of Education introduced a new lesson, “Contemporary Turkish and World History” to overcome the shortage mentioned above. Although this is a very positive initiative, it is still inadequate because it is only taught in year 12 and only to students who opt to study Social Sciences Learning Area in secondary schools. The number of students opt to study this area is very limited. It is not right to teach the events before 1945 to every student while teaching after-1945-events to a few. Besides, when the curriculum of this lesson is scrutinised, as can be seen in Table 3, usually foreign policy issues are included in the curriculum to prevent politics from getting into classroom (Birinci, 2008, 16). All world history topics appear to be purposely related to Turkey. Likewise, the textbook and teacher manual of this book written by History Foundation also did not give much significance to the domestic developments (Alpkaya, 2004; Kahyaoğlu, v.d., 2007). But students should first and foremost be taught about the social, economic and political developments of Turkey.

**Table-3.** Units and Proportions of Contemporary Turkish and World History

Year	No of hours per week	Name of the unit	Topics	Proportion (%)
XII	4	The World in the Beginning of XX the Century	Paris Peace Treaty The treaties after World War I and new borders The policies of the USA after World War I USSR. The foundation and resurgence of Soviets Basmacı Movement: The resistance against Bolsheviks in Turkistan Sharing of Middle East. The independence of the states ruled under English and French mandate Development in Japan and Meiji Reforms Economic depression of 1929 and dark Thursday Hyper inflation in Germany Community of Akvam (Cemiyet-i Akvam): Turkey in between 1923-1938	19

		World War II	<p>Re-emergence of Germany                      Seeds of war implanted by peace                      Sides of the war and treaties of alliance                      The start and spread of World War II                      Actors of the war                      Steps of the war                      Barbarossa Campaign                      Attack of Pearl Harbour                      Conferences leading to peace                      Foreign policy of Turkey during World War II                      Political, social, cultural and economic developments occurring in Turkey during the World War II</p>	14
		Cold War era	<p>Cold war                      Iron curtain countries                      Berlin Crises/Depression (1948)                      NATO and Warsaw pact                      Development of Europe                      Schuman Plan:                      Borders draws by scale                      Balfour Declaration                      New order- New States                      Third world countries                      African Union Organisation                      Korean war - Turkish soldiers in Korea                      European Council                      Political, social, cultural and economic developments occurred in Turkey during the cold war era                      Democratic Party                      Adnan Menderes</p>	20
		Detente era and aftermath	<p>Architects of detente (the easing of tensions between nations)                      Beijing visit                      Helsinki Final Bill                      Sports and politics                      Third bloc                      Islam Conference Organisation                      Cyprus Peace Campaign                      New Turkish state</p>	22
		Globalising world	<p>Glasnost / Perestroika                      Gorbachev                      Independent Turkish states                      Alma-Ata Declaration                      From two Germanys to one state                      Road from Economic Union to European Union                      European Union                      From Skopje to Kosovo                      Palestine Liberation Organisation                      Cinema awards                      World cups</p>	25

The existence of such a curriculum should make us hopeful for the future. The following words taken from the objectives of the curriculum indicate that the minds of those in a position to affect the Turkish education system are being transformed (Birinci, et al, 2008, 6):

“To investigate, in a globalised world, political, social, cultural and economic events in their multi dimensions and complexity through different viewpoints. To allow students to gain skills to respond and project the needs of changing demands of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century”

### **Conclusion and Implications**

The works undertaken to develop new history curricula by increasing the quality with modern perspectives and methods were completed in 2009. This is quite an important improvement. We undoubtedly cannot reach quick solutions for the problems by changing a curriculum immediately. Thousands of history teachers need to go through in-service training and learn to embrace this curriculum’s requirements.

The topics of 20th Century should be included in the curriculum of general and compulsory history lessons that all students go through. These topics should be proportionally 60-70 per cent of all content. The time span should be brought to 1990 even 2000.

The curriculum should not only cover impartial issues which are usually related to foreign policy and on which political parties and groups have consensus on, but also, and even more, it should cover the events affecting people’s daily lives directly. Students are better prepared for life if they are taught about issues taken from every parts of life such as politics, state governance, educational systems, economic structures, cultural life, art, fashion, cinema and globalisation.

We should not be afraid of teaching students about domestic developments and government’s policies. We should not treat students as “children” any more but treat them as “young adults” and trust them. Besides we should not forget that students gather information about those issues through different media, most notably ICT technologies, and they do talk and debate about the issues among themselves. It is certain that learning about these in the classroom through a genuine environment provided by teachers or textbook would be preferred to the sources that could be not controlled in terms of their reliability and genuineness.

Teachers should not impose their “rights” and “opinions” onto students while teaching about sensitive issues. They should provide them with data/information that is accepted by everyone. Students could reach their own

“right answers” through further critical readings. The duty of the teachers is not to brainwash but prepare students for life. For this reason, students should know what happened during their parents’ generation so that they can comprehend the reflections of it into today’s life.

History is not something which consists of a series of events created by only Turkish people. To understand a historical event requires understanding of all sides of the event. Events should be taught through principles of multiperspectivity and multiculturalism. Topics should be covered to include from near to distant pasts and from the most influential to the least influential issues. Therefore, the place of the UK in the curriculum should not be the same with of Mexico as Turkey’s relations with the UK is much denser than with of Mexico.

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# ACTIVE LEARNING IN HISTORY AND SOCIAL STUDIES

*Cevdet KIRPIK\**

### Introduction

A teacher goes into the classroom, takes registration and writes about the objectives of the lesson on the classroom board. Having done a quick recap, either her/himself or one volunteer student or a student who has been assigned before starts explaining about the topic that is to be covered that day. The teacher asks some questions towards the end of the lesson and gets some answers. And the lesson is completed. The materials used in such lesson almost always are textbook, university examinations books and sometimes maps. Although rarely, a documentary or film related to the topic could also be watched.

Today, a history lesson in secondary school level is generally carried out this way in Turkey. Such features as the teacher's pedagogic content knowledge in history, her/his teaching skills and personal commitment, the school's physical capacity and the attitudes of school management team could result in a little different teaching practice than what is depicted above.

In such a system we can ask many questions about effectiveness: to what extent are students are motivated to learn? To what extent are, and how many, students active in the lesson? To what extent is learning ensured? Which high level thinking skills do the students gain? What are the satisfaction levels of teachers and students? We could ask more questions like these, but The more these types of questions are asked, the more it becomes obvious that teachers and students alike have problems in terms of what takes place in the classrooms.

The most prominent issues that educators persistently pursue are undoubtedly related to learning, relating to how learning takes place and make it better in the future. For example: What teaching principles and methods should teachers adopt in order to provide a successful learning environment for students? The debates and development concerning these issues have been continuously on the agenda of educators; they were debated in the

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past and are still being debated today. In fact such debates have led the way to questioning the quality of education of subject areas such as history and geography education, and raise how an effective history and social studies learning can be ensured? Which learning approaches, teaching methods and techniques provide us with learning that is easy, effective, persistent and fun? This paper will argue that active learning approach offers us opportunities to ensure the effective teaching of history and social studies.

### **Active learning**

Teachers obviously cannot do the act of learning on behalf of students, and students should be engaged actively with the learning process if we want them to understand the lesson. For this reason active learning is meaningful learning. Some authors use the expression of 'deep learning' or 'meaningful learning' as opposed to 'shallow learning' where very little understanding takes place. Active learning provides students with meaningful learning by allowing them to take more responsibility in their own learning (Allen-Taylor-Turner, 2005:258). Such active learning takes place when students take responsibility in carrying out activities. Those who are in favour of this approach assert that the key to successful learning lies in the emergence of pupil personal interests and a developing sense of ownership and belonging. Active learning is described as interacting with materials, people, ideas and concepts (Allen-Taylor-Turner, 2005:261) and may require reading, writing, listening and talking or engaging with such tools and materials as paint and wood. Active learning is a learning process through which students are given opportunities to take responsibility, make decisions and self-regulate themselves. They are forced to use their mental skills, to take decisions in aspects of how and to what extent the learning will take place, how motivation will be established, from where and whom help will be sought and provided, when such help will be asked and the objectives of learning process (Açıköz, 2004: 17–18).

What emerges when we look at the definitions related to active learning is a student centred teaching-learning process. This points out an opposite situation than traditional behaviorist approach where students are rather passive. Active learning has become popular in the education systems of many countries as a result of criticisms of behaviourism, and was part of the emerging response to cognitive approaches and, thus, constructivism. It may be useful to look at the differences between cognitive approaches and behaviourist approaches: 'Behaviourism is an approach that was influential until 1970s. The goal of behaviourist approaches is to examine observable behaviours and the causes of these behaviours and to focus only on observable reactions and

the stimulus that cause these reactions. The theoretical underpinning is that behaviours can be controlled and shaped if we understand the link between stimulus and reaction' (Açıkgöz, 2004:78). Furthermore this school of thought argues that since human behaviour is determined and controlled by the environment, if we create a proper environment, children can be moulded and steered as wished. In essence people not believed to be not self-determining in terms of how they act.

However, this approach started to lose its influence in 1970s firstly criticised on the grounds that the behaviours of learners could not be shaped as wished, and secondly on the grounds that learning that is a very complex process cannot be explained by a simple stimulus-reaction link. Finally, since the findings resulted from experiments conducted with animals critics questioned the transferability of this research data to human learning. The decline of behaviourism led to cognitive approaches, with an interest in the thought or mental dimensions of learning. Cognitivists try to explain the structure of knowledge; the ways it is acquired and understood; the ways it is recalled and the ways it is utilised in problem solving situations. In this approach the learner is believed to learn about something in an environment where s/he is active; and therefore could control and construct her/his own learning (Açıkgöz, 2004:78-83).

In considering the transition from behaviourism to cognitive approaches we also have to consider constructivism because 'the theoretical underpinnings of active learning are based on both constructivism as well as the cognitive sciences'. Both approaches show an interest more in learning than teaching processes, with active learning a product of attempts to put theories of constructivism and cognitive science into practice. 'According to constructivism, knowledge is not considered to be out there to be received through communication channels. On the contrary, the knowledge is produced and constructed by the learner her/himself. For this reason constructs are personal'. Constructivism requires students to construct knowledge themselves and to engage with the process. It also involves a variety of activities, sharing ideas and formative assessment (Açıkgöz, 2004: 59-61, 65). Although emerged as a reaction to behaviourism, active learning does not totally deny the methods of behaviourism, but involves a number of dimensions which be discussed in the following sections.

### **Active Learning and Motivation**

The lesson's objectives should be clear to both teacher and pupils if active learning is to be realised. Students are usually motivated when the knowledge

given in the school is related to their future. Put differently, if students believe that school prepares them for life after school, then they become motivated to learn. No matter what the content and characteristics of any lesson, what is important is whether that lesson meets the needs of students. Students' objectives should overlap with what is offered to them in the classes. Too much focus on knowledge in schools might not actively harm young people but it does cause problems such as a developing negative attitude towards 'learning' problems with engagement and motivation and memorisation, prioritisation and recall. Students may even start developing some misbehaviour (Allen-Taylor-Turner, 2005:261).

Thus what is taught in schools: knowledge and skills, values and aptitudes should also be useful for students *throughout* their lives. The issue of relevance and significance becomes key in history and social studies classes. For example: What might students get out of learning about a series of events thousands of years ago? How relevant is the material and concepts offered, how valid are the skills and values involved? To ensure effectiveness, first of all the of Abdullah Saydam, so covering issues of the recent past more than distant past. But the greatest responsibility is for teachers to relate what is learned to 'real life' and young people's lives and needs. Teachers could show engage pupils by implementing active learning methods and techniques, by telling students how learning certain concepts and skills will be useful for them for the rest of their lives. Techniques such as the analysis of cause and effect; considering different perspectives through group work, the preparation of posters, case studies, problem solving activities and brain storming could all link what is learned in history and social studies to 'real life' therefore lead a higher motivation in students. By implementing the above mentioned active learning techniques what is aimed is not only to gain necessary knowledge about an event, but also to provide students with appropriate learning habits and with skills of problem solving which is to be used in complex real life situations.

### **Active Learning Methods and Techniques**

Allowing students to take control of their own learning by actively participating in learning process is the principal difference that distinguishes between active learning and traditional learning approaches. There are a number of benefits in implementing history and social studies lessons based on more active learning than traditional methods of lecturing and question-answer. In order to realise such lessons, teachers must provide students with a very rich content. This could be achieved through providing students with materials rich in breadth and scope as well as a variety of learning activities. It

is important to get to know those active learning activities that save students from a boring, authoritative, and heavily disciplined atmosphere and create a learning environment that is fun and in which learning is easy.

Some of the techniques that could be considered in the framework of active learning could be stated as follows: snowball, fish bowl, buzzing, writing poetry, mental maps, concept maps, creative groups, learning through research, role playing, case study, panel, debate groups, forum, card sorting, brain storming, explanatory learning, educational games, problem solving and decision making activities (Açıkgöz, 2004: 127-169).

### **Active Learning and Group Work**

One important element of active learning is cooperative learning which focuses on group work: 'Cooperative learning is a learning process that could be simply considered as students working in small groups and helping each other in their learning'. What lies in the beneath of grouping is the thought that students gain more through group work than they do individual/independent work (Açıkgöz, 2004: 172). Of course like any other method, if group work is not organised well, it does not contribute much to student's progression possibly because students will be reluctant to take part in group work; the domination of the group by some students; or an inappropriate layout of the class act all may act as barriers to an effective session. However, if such barriers are overcome and if students are motivated well, group work prevents students from being passive receivers. When implemented well, group work is a perfect mean to achieve learning objectives.

Teachers should bear some points in mind to obtain efficiency through group work. First and foremost, the lesson should be carefully planned by considering every phase, with a clear lesson plan to give a clear role to students in order for them to carry out their tasks adequately. Tasks should be organised allowing cooperative work and opportunities for students to do 'hands-on activities', to think, to feel, and to interact. These mental activities shape students' understanding (Curtis-Bardwell, 1994:172-173), but it is important that students have adequate prior knowledge about the topic in order to tackle the task itself. While the teacher should take gender, ability and peer groups into consideration when forming groups, they must also give some thought about the nature and share of work within the groups. The materials should also comply with the principles of good group work. The most important issue of group works is, however, to have a final product that represents the efforts of the group, for example presenting the group's decisions to peers to the whole class.

As stated earlier teachers should give responsibility to the students and allow them take responsibility of their own learning during the group work.

In this respect five main elements of group work are:

1. Positive cooperation-solidarity,
2. Face to face interaction,
3. Individual responsibility,
4. Interpersonal communication and small group skills,
5. Group progression and development.

Such active learning techniques as envoys, snowball, rainbow and jigsaw could effectively be used in history teaching (Haydin, Arthur, Hunt, Stephen, 2008:80–82):

**Active Learning Strategy 1: Envoys:** The decisions of a group could be told to other groups by a member of the group in ‘envoys’ technique. The envoy then learns about other group’s decisions and brings the news to his/her own group. Such envoys could effectively be used in history and social studies lessons particularly for controversial issues. For example, the following questions could be discussed within groups: ‘Do you think that Abdulhamid II deserved to be dethroned by the incident of March 31<sup>st</sup>?’ and ‘Do you think that II. Monarchy era was useful or harmful to Ottoman State?’

### **Active Learning Strategy 2: The Jigsaw Activity**

The ‘jigsaw activity’ (Johnson, 2003:30-31). Is a process where different groups are given or collect information and have to share this to get one or more overall narrative or interpretations. For example a class consisting of 25 students is arranged into five groups of five students each. To evaluate different perspectives about the defeat of the Ottomans in World War I, each group is assigned with a focus such as ‘women, soldiers, farmers, traders, and bureaucrats’. Each group then does a research about the issue with respect to their assigned social group. Group members preferably could be asked to carry out their research individually. Then findings of each group member are presented within the group. Then new groups consisting of one student from previously organised each group is formed. In these new groups then there are representatives of different social groups such as military persons and farmers etc. share their perspectives about the defeat of Ottomans. Such cooperation leads to the development of individual responsibility, communication and the development of group spirit. The teacher would take a role in the introduction to the lesson, providing resources and in the evaluation of the lesson.

In addition to these, what is required from the history and social studies lessons is to cover some other educational activities which provide students

with knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. In fact, these activities are usually a part of the above mentioned techniques and help those techniques to be more functional.

Other active techniques can include:

- creating slogans;
- applications to the real life;
- finding out hidden thoughts;
- 'under the surface';
- making inferences;
- preparation of advertisements;
- empathising with teacher;
- creating a painting/visual;
- writing a story;
- writing a caption or dialogue for a picture;
- classification of sources;
- having an order;
- puzzles;
- keeping a lesson or learning journal;
- finding a title for a text; or picture;
- self-assessment;
- re-writing and summarising or simplifying text;
- preparing posters;
- writing a letter;
- conducting interviews;
- preparing a newspaper account of front page;
- making a field trip and perhaps a display afterwards;
- making a concept map;
- making list of what skills or concepts was learned in a session or activity;
- using analogy and metaphors;
- writing a song;
- using active, problem solving based work sheets;
- empathy activities;
- predicting and completion of story;
- staging a mock press conference or trial;
- and making of various graphs (Açıkgöz, 2004: 85–113).

Both history and social studies lessons have a rich content base as for implementing/realising active learning principles. Having students to create slogans would result in fun, creative and lasting learning experiences for them. When the above mentioned techniques and other learning activities are known and applied by teachers, there will be a significant difference from

traditional approach in terms of teaching social studies and history in the class. Teachers equipped with a rich knowledge of different techniques and methods can plan and organise an appropriate learning environment based on specifications of the curriculum and students' levels and prior learnings (Davison-Leask, 2005:79).

### **Active Learning Strategy 3: Slogan Making**

Students could be asked:

'If you were Sadrazam (equivalent of prime minister) during Tanzimat era, what slogan would you use to protect the State from emerging nationalist movements?'

Or they could be asked:

'If you were a journalist who is in favour of national uprising during the Independence War, what kind of heading (caption) and article would you write in your newspaper to support Mustafa Kemal and his friends?'

### **Active Learning Strategy 4: Card Sorting Activities**

**Sequencing and Sorting Cards-** The causes of World War II could be written on cards, and students within groups could be asked to sort those cards according to their sequence of events, or the same cards used to consider significance and cards placed in order of importance by pupils.

If students are given opportunities to engage with the lesson by reading, writing, discussing and listening, then we can ensure a deep and meaningful learning for them. In this respect, when constructing the lesson plan, teachers should pay attention to include activities which caters for the principles of the theory of 'multiple intelligences' (Gardner, 2004). By doing so, teachers could also keep students motivations high.

### **Active Learning Strategy 5: Letters Home**

This is an exercise developing empathy, and it is important that pupils understand that they cannot actually '*know*' what it was really like in the past, but that we can use reliable information to speculate about impact on real people of historical events. For example, an activity which consists of letter exchanges between a soldier at war and his mother could be very interesting for students. Some pupils could write letters in the role of soldiers writing to their mothers and other could write letters to their soldier sons. While on the one hand empathy is ensured, on the other hand the skills of writing based on historical facts and associated mental activities are developed.

Active learning does not mean that students are engaged heavily with many tasks (Allen-Taylor-Turner, 2005:262-63). For instance, if students are copying what is written on the board or slides into their notebooks or they are lecturing certain topics throughout the whole class time, we cannot say that active learning is taking place. Teacher could do an introduction to the lesson by doing re-cap, introducing the objectives of the lesson and tasks of the students. Then, teacher could show a film, do a 'brain storming activity', and may ask questions when necessary. Students then could work with work sheets and through them could classify and list concepts, make concept and mental maps. It should be remembered that these activities should conform to curriculum requirements in terms of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes.

### **Active Learning Strategy 6 Using Text Sources**

Co-operative learning is more appropriate when a problem solving and project-based activity is carried out. For example, students could work towards validity and reliability of an account/event by comparing and contrasting different sources in respect to the same event. Every group then could present their findings to the class (Zevin, 2007:58).

### **Active Learning Strategy 7. Using Images**

By using visual materials to increase interaction between students could also catch students' interests. These visuals could be of pictures, posters, artefacts, PowerPoint presentations, or smart boards. Visuals are important tools that contribute to active learning because they focus attention on certain points, make recalling easier, and make the topic more meaningful. Various maps and graphs could be utilised to interpret statistics and explain concepts. By using PowerPoint, one part of a picture could be hidden and student could be asked to make deductive comments about the remainder of the picture. Similarly, they could be asked to complete a text which is left uncompleted on a PowerPoint slide. Moreover, students could do their presentations through such visuals (Allen-Taylor-Turner, 2005:273-274). Those schools that have adequate ICT infrastructure can do Internet-based lesson to stimulate students even further with the vast amount of resources available on the Internet.

Photographs are also important visual materials that support learning. Students could inspect photographs showing fashion, entertainment, family life, technology, transportation, street life, war scenes, strikes, and the role of women from different times in history. Students then analyse change and continuity by comparing pictures taken in different eras and question the reasons for these. Photographs could be analysed from different ways by

asking questions such as: 'When this was taken?'; 'What time of the day could this be taken?'; 'Where this could be taken?' Students could give their degree of assertion of these questions through a likert scale of 1 to 5. If they are pretty sure of answer they could mark 5, if pretty unsure they could mark 1. Some questions will offer more value than others, and pupils should be led to think about how questions can build on each other to lead to more sophisticated learning.

Just like pictures, cartoons could also be effective materials. As primary sources, cartoons are usually interesting for students and they help us to understand what people thought of, how they thought of and the perspectives of people in the past (Stradling, 2003:92–94, 99–100). Both pictures and cartoons could be analysed through group works. Group work is also very important in developing student' skills and ability to empathise, respect for difference and for multi-perspectivity.

### **Active Learning and Teachers**

The backbone of the active learning is teachers: although they *seem less involved* compared to traditional approaches, more responsibility and commitment is required from them, but the results are worth the extra effort and professionalism. Active learning does not undermine teachers but changes their roles, with teachers engaged with every phase of learning process from planning to assessment. They are to encourage students; create opportunities for them; give feedback and expect high achievements from them. Since active learning develops skills of self-learning and problem solving, students should be given a solid basis in terms of certain skills and academic rigour which requires planned interventions from teachers. Active learning is useful for teachers as much as it is for students. Since students work individually and in groups, teachers are better placed in terms of carrying out assessments and feedbacks. Furthermore, teachers find more opportunities to respond individual needs of students (Allen-Taylor-Turner, 2005:261).

If not carried out properly, even the best strategies would fail. Maybe the best strategies are the ones that put into practice easily and effectively. For this reason, teachers' perspectives concerning active learning are very important. On this account, although basic principles and theoretical underpinnings of active learning are well constructed, it is important to consider teachers' attitudes towards active learning in Turkey. In the context of the project which is mentioned in the Introduction Chapter, there have been a series of workshops carried out based on the principles of active learning. Having completed the workshops, an evaluative research was conducted with teachers by the means

of a survey and a number of interviews to find out teachers' perspectives with regard to active learning. Constructivist and active learning approaches have started to be implemented in primary schools of Turkey for some time now. But since teachers were educated and trained in line with behaviourist approach, this has brought problems in implementation of constructivist approaches in the classrooms. Some teachers find it very difficult to adapt this new system so they tend to keep to their teaching habits which largely based upon traditional approaches. Secondary history teaching is often still carried out in the context of 'traditional teaching'. In such circumstances, teachers' attitudes towards active learning gain a special importance.

Firstly it should be stated that the overwhelming majority of teachers believe that history or social studies lessons should be done through innovative methods rather than traditional methods (while 87.1% of the teachers strongly agree, 12.9% of teachers agree with the statement). They also asserted that if these innovative methods are used, the objectives of the curriculum in terms of skills and knowledge would be achieved (90% believes it strongly). Moreover, all of them (74% being strongly) believe that innovative methods would help us to relate issues to the real life situations.

Although teachers usually strongly believe the merits of active and innovative methods in teaching history and social studies, they have slightly different intentions and thoughts in terms of implementing active learning approach in their own classes. While 45 respondents or 16% stated that they strongly consider applying innovative methods in their classes (exemplars of such lessons are given them through the workshops), 35 respondents or 48% and 19 or 35% stated that they are considering and have intention to apply those methods in their classes respectively. 45% of the teachers who participated in the workshops also stated that they immediately started using what they experienced in the workshops in their practice. 5% (35) of them showed an interest saying that they have intentions/plans to apply those methods, while 50% (19), do not have any plan to apply them for now.

Those teachers who already started applying above mentioned methods wrote about their impressions and provided feedback about their new practice. All of them stated that they had a very positive response from students. One teachers wrote that 'I started using the methods from the very beginning...I could see a stark difference. The achievement rate of students is increased. Students' contentment is also noticeably increased'.

Similar feedback was provided by other teachers too. Another example is that 'I applied what I learned in these workshops. My students loved these lessons. Their achievement is also increased'. Commenting on the same issue,

another teacher also stated that 'I implemented what I learned in my class and will carry on doing it. I had positive feedbacks from my students. Lessons became more enjoyable and easy to comprehend. To learn about active learning actively in the workshops enabled me to better my practice and make use of workshops effectively'.

There were also comments with regard to techniques and activities used in the workshops and how they use them in their practice: 'I think that brain storming could be used practically for all topics. This is now a technique that I use most. I will use mental maps and competition activities next year'.

Understandably there are also teachers who have hesitations concerning implementing active learning in their classes. They do not object the active learning in principle but bring out some concerns in terms of viability of this approach in Turkish context. For them conditions in Turkey act as barrier to implement such approach in Turkey. In this respect, while 32.2% (6.4%) of them support it strongly of the teachers believe that Turkey has appropriate conditions to apply active learning, 38.7% of them stated that it is partly possible to do so. Almost one third of the teachers by 28, 9% (9 or 6% of them strongly disbelieve) also do not believe that conditions in Turkey yet allow active learning.

Teachers revealed why they are pessimistic about the application of active learning in history and social studies classes: the main reason for their pessimism stems from the conditions they have in schools. What is meant by school conditions are usually centered on explanations about crowded classes, lack of materials and low levels of student ability. While one teacher in this respect stated that 'active learning is applicable provided that class level and cohort is appropriate', another one said that 'I could implement active learning to the extent that school conditions allow me'. Teachers usually stressed inappropriateness of school conditions rather than inappropriateness of active learning. The following words of a teacher clearly indicate this notion: 'What we experienced in these workshops are well thought and prepared methods. If they are applied in the classroom they could be really productive but I think that it is not possible to do such lesson in schools where we even cannot obtain basic materials'.

To implement active learning in schools effectively and adequately, many factors should conform to the demands of such education. A wide range of factors such as school leadership, teachers' competence, supply of materials, the number of students, and layout of classrooms should conform to requirements of active learning. However, teachers' attitudes and competence concerning with the active learning is the most important factor because many activities

such as brain storming, writing of letter, story, poetry or press conference do not require extra finance or materials. On the other hand though, it is obvious that it is not possible to implement every active learning technique in crowded classrooms.

It is useful to stress the position of traditional methods in respect to active learning. The idea of that students would learn everything themselves is a misleading one. Teachers' primary responsibility / task is to have their students learn (Leask-Moorhouse, 2005:8). Teachers should take needs and objectives into account. While encouraging and supporting students when they do the right things, teachers should correct students if they do wrong. In this stage students are in need of listening to their teachers (Allen-Taylor-Turner, 2005:261). Since teachers have higher levels of knowledge and skills than students, they are required to explain some complex concepts or issues when necessary by intervening the activities. While teachers sometimes explain specific issues that are needed by students, other times the explanation could result from teachers' professional judgment. For these reasons, lecturing/ explaining things that are usually considered in the context of traditional approach could not be thought as something outside of active learning, since when used appropriately it is also an important technique in active learning.

### **Active Learning and Students**

At the heart of active learning lie students because they experience the learning process by doing it first-hand. They are not the receivers who accept and take in everything transmitted to them. On the contrary, they take in the knowledge by re-constructing and re-processing it. For students there are a number of advantages of active learning. First and foremost they usually get enhanced personal enjoyment and satisfaction out of their learning experience compared to traditional methodologies and rote learning. Then they have opportunities to interact and work with their peers within teams, they are enabled to access a wide degree of class participation in tasks, and may also see the value of co-operative learning rather than competitive learning: hands-on learning requires co-operation between students, and the emphasis is placed upon thinking though discussing with peers and especially with the teacher (Allen-Taylor-Turner, 2005:261).

Greater participation of students in their learning process and the realisation of learning based upon experiences means more hands-on learning, and it is known that those students who learn through hands-on activities achieve more highly than those who learn by traditional approaches. Besides, students prefer hands-on activities as they are more motivated in such activities

(Sundem, M.M, Dikiewicz, 2008:4). As for hands-on activities, students could be asked to read, write and work with maps through work sheets. Students have different preferences for learning such as reading, writing, drawing and acting. Classroom activities should include and harmonise visual materials, numeric data, concepts and primary sources. These activities then could be organised into tasks that small group of students attempt to achieve. Small groups are more productive and effective than large groups (Davies, Lynch, Davies, 2007:1–4).

The main criticism brought to traditional methods in teaching history and social studies is that it leads students to have reduced memorisation skills, because active learning takes time and less ground is covered than in didactic, lecture style, lessons. Almost all teachers believe that active learning prevents students from memorising as much information, but the same teachers feel that *understanding* and transferability of skills are enhanced greatly; and that learning to learn independently is very important. This notion was stressed by a teacher as follows: ‘The best side of active learning is to engage students with finding/constructing knowledge rather than memorising’. Another teacher commented on the easy and fun nature of active learning, saying that ‘active learning supports a fun, hands-on and participative learning and prevents students from clichés and memorising. It keeps students’ motivation high and allows teacher to reach every student. It allows us to see different perspectives’.

Therefore, instead of students who isolate themselves and achieve a surface learning because of traditional teaching methods, a student who is taught using active learning is active in every phase and dimension of the class. One teacher who shares this view said that ‘instead of traditional, habitual, monolithic methods, we should use interesting, attention gathering, participative methods’. Another one asserted that ‘to me the most useful side of active learning is to help solving common problems through group work’.

### **Assessment**

Assessment in a learning environment in which students are at the centre of active participation in classroom activities is multi-dimensional assessment. Since active learning emphasises activity-based learning, assessment should be designed to reflect the process and achievements of students during these activities. It is, of course, not necessary to measure everything, nor to assess things about which we already have a secure and recent understanding of the level of pupil skills and knowledge. Creative assessment techniques are needed for active learning. By these alternative methods, what is aimed is

to see the achievements of students after activities, to encourage further achievements, to help students recognise their achievements and strengths and identify developmental targets and extend their achievement; feedback to students, to teachers themselves and to parents about students' progression and how to support them in further development are also desirable.

Some of the techniques that could be used in history and social studies lessons could be summarised as follows:

- observation forms;
- self-assessment forms;
- group evaluation forms;
- attitude scales;
- concept maps;
- performance evaluation;
- portfolios;
- rubric scales;
- multiple choice tests;
- research sheets;
- projects;
- interviews;
- discussions;
- demonstration;
- anecdotes and
- open-ended questions.

On many occasions students might not even know they are being assessed, and not all of any class need be assessed, provided a balance is provided over time and teachers *and* pupils have a good grasp of their performance and targets.

### **Conclusions and Implications**

The road from behaviourist approach to constructivism and active learning reflects a contemporary transformation in teaching and learning process. Constructivism, popular since the 1970s, is now accepted widely and has been changing the nature of teaching ever since. Although a great range of materials are available to plan a lesson in history and social studies in the context of active learning, the access to these materials requires some effort, and teachers must work to provide these materials. However, this should not be used as an excuse not to implement an active learning approach in lessons. Those teachers who embrace the philosophy and principles of active learning can still actively engage their students despite limited materials and with minimum costs.

When constructing curricula, developers should take active learning requirements into account. Even if the curriculum is constructed conforming to active learning principles, we still have two important issues: textbooks and teachers. The writing and design of textbooks are important as many teachers in Turkey tend to follow what is in their textbook. However, an individual teachers' approach to active learning is even more important. In order to ease teachers' transformation from behaviourist approaches to constructivist and active learning approaches, they should go through effective in-service training. In the workshops provided to history and social studies teachers in the context of project clearly showed that teachers are open to innovative learning and teaching methods and do not find it difficult to adapt these new methods and techniques Once they are demonstrated in a conducive atmosphere and in a supportive professional context.

The responsibility to provide students with learning experiences, which helps to bring out their abilities and qualities, supports them to realise themselves, and does not see students as empty containers, falls upon every educational stakeholder from the central ministry to local educational authorities, school management, teachers, learners and parents. What is immediately needed to be paid attention is to re-organise learning in schools to cater for active learning environment, starting with classroom layout; the number of students in classes; supplies of materials; and copying facilities- the immediate problems that need to be resolved.

It is also important to remind ourselves that active learning does not totally remove or ignore traditional , but provides a wider skills base for teachers and in fact may cause traditional approaches to be used more effectively. Under this approach the teacher has a role in every stage of the lesson from planning to organise learning within the classroom and assessment.

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## THE HISTORY CURRICULUM IN ENGLAND AND WALES

*Dean Smart\**

### England and Wales: Similar, but separate.

People outside of the UK are often surprised to find that the four territories that make up Great Britain and Northern Ireland each have their own schooling systems and curriculum structures. The UK has a parliament to govern the whole group of nations, and Wales has a National Assembly- its own elected government which shapes its domestic affairs within the Principality. Both England and Wales have Local Authorities ( LAs) which control state schooling under a joint national examination system for 16 and 18 year olds, and under two similar, but not identical National Curriculum structures. England and Wales, and to a lesser extent Northern Ireland have some similarities, but devolved government means a separate set of curriculum orders exist for each part of the UK. This chapter will deal with the curriculum in England and Wales.

i. Information about the national education systems in England and Wales

### Types of State School in England and Wales

Pupil's Age		National Curriculum Year
3	<b>Playgroups for the under 4s Then Nursery School</b>	
4		R
5	Infant School	3
7	Primary School	6
9		Middle School
11	Secondary Schools Which might be called: A City Academy, Comprehensive, High or Grammar, Secondary Modern, Upper or Specialist school, and which might go to age 16 or age 18 +	9
13		Upper School
16		11
18		13

\* University of the West of England, Bristol, the UK

The statutory age for starting school is 5 years old, although many children begin school in the year before their 5<sup>th</sup> birthday. Pupils currently in secondary schools may choose to end their schooling aged 16, or continue to study in a school or college up to the age of eighteen. National policy change means that younger pupils will continue in some form of education or training until they are eighteen. Colleges would usually also serve adults learners, and might offer study up to foundation degree level.

**Post-16 Provision could be in a School or Further Education College, and could include some technical education with an employer**

Although there is a national structure for state schools the nature of school type varies a great deal, and recent governments have encouraged diversity in the range of schools available. The types of school in any local district vary between each local authority (LA) and considerable variety can exist within one authority.

### **The National Curriculum**

The National Curriculum was introduced to ensure conformity between schools and help raise standards. Pupils in state schools study a centrally designed curriculum from age 5 to 14 for most subjects, and after this follow a range of examination courses, which are tested at age 16, when pupils can choose to stay on at school until age 17 or 18, or can seek employment or a place in a college to study further.

In 2007 a review of the curriculum created the current, fourth version of the National Curriculum. This was introduced after consultation and represents a reduced amount of specified content and bureaucracy. In 2000 the third version of the National Curriculum introduced a new subject for secondary schools in England: Citizenship. This subject was not included in the Curriculum in Wales

### **The Subjects of the National Curriculum:**

<b>Subject</b>	<b>Key Stage 1 Ages 5-7</b>	<b>Key Stage 2 Ages 7-11</b>	<b>Key Stage 3 Ages 11-14</b>	<b>Key Stage 4 Ages 14-16 (GCSE years*)</b>
Art and Design	√	√	√	
Citizenship			√	√
Design and Technology	√	√	√	

English (includes Drama)	√	√	√	√
Geography	√	√	√	
History	√	√	√	
ICT (Computers)	√	√	√	√
Mathematics	√	√	√	√
Modern Foreign Languages			√	
Music	√	√	√	
Physical Education	√	√	√	√
Science	√	√	√	√

(Access to foreign language teaching to be an entitlement for all primary school pupils by 2010.) Citizenship, Personal, Social and Health Education is non statutory for primary aged children, although the English government provides guidance on these subjects.

\* GCSE: General Certificate of Secondary Education

Outside of the National Curriculum, but which must be studied by all pupils in state schools at all ages is: Religious Education- this is a study of world religions and ethics rather than religious instruction, and at examination level would include the need to have studied at least two major world religions, usually more. Schools usually also offer a programme of personal, social and health education or PSHE.

In Wales pupils are also taught Welsh, and a very small but growing number of schools there teach their entire curriculum (except foreign languages and English) in Welsh.

### **The Structure of the National Curriculum in England and Wales**

The National Curriculum Orders are divided into four parts, for the stages of education followed by most schools: early years, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary.

The English curriculum is monitored and managed by the QDCA, or Qualifications and Curriculum Development Authority. In England schools are inspected by an independent inspectorate called Ofsted (Office for Standards in Education). In Wales the curriculum is monitored by ACACC, or Qualifications, Curriculum and Assessment Authority. In Wales schools are inspected by an inspectorate called Estyn. The aim of inspections is to judge quality standards of schools and teaching and promote high quality achievement. Inspection reports in England are published on the internet.

National Curriculum Key Stage	National Curriculum 'Years'	Pupil Age
Foundation Stage 1	R (reception)	4-5
	1	5-6
	2	6-7
2	3	7-8
	4	8-9
	5	9-10
	6	10-11
3	7	11-12
	8	12-13
	9	13-14
4	10	14-15
	11	15-16

Further study is outside of the National Curriculum, but is usually known as 'Year 12' (ages 16-17) and 'Year 13' (ages 17-18). In some more traditional schools this is still called the 'Sixth Form': Lower Sixth (Year 12) and Upper Sixth (Year 13).

### **Assessment within the National Curriculum:**

In England, over the last two decades, pupils have national tests called Standard Assessment Tasks (SATs) aged 7, 11, and 14. These tasks involve some teacher assessment and examination papers which every child in a state school must complete on certain days. These tasks measure attainment against the National Curriculum Levels (descriptions of skills/abilities defined within the National Curriculum document). In England the results are published as totals for each school and local authority in 'League Tables'.

In Wales a decision in 2004 stopped the public publication of school's assessment results, and inspections, although schools are told how they have done. The burden of assessment on pupils in Wales has been reduced. In England the KS1 and KS3 tests were ceased from 2008. There is ongoing debate about the value of KS2 SATs and about League Tables

### **Key Skills**

The whole curriculum is intended to promote clear values, and transferable skills which will be of use to a learner throughout their life:

1. Communication
2. Application of number

3. Information technology
4. Working with others
5. Improving own learning and performance
6. Problem solving

Schools should also teach 'Thinking Skills' to promote 'learning how to learn'.

### **Tell Me More:**

The general statement of aims and purposes of the whole English curriculum can be found at

<http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/aims/index.aspx>

The National Curriculum (for England) can be viewed at:

<http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/subjects/index.aspx>

Examples of Case Studies of pupil work and teacher devised tasks in English schools can be found at [http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/case\\_studies/casestudieslibrary/index.aspx?fldKeyword1=History](http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/case_studies/casestudieslibrary/index.aspx?fldKeyword1=History)

The regulating body for the National Curriculum (England): The QCDA has a website at:

<http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/>

### **i. A Briefing on the History Curriculum in England: Ages 5-14**

The current History National Curriculum Orders for England say pupils must study History from the start of their schooling until they are 14, when they can opt to continue with examination level work, or they can drop the subject. About 40% of pupils continue with History up to exam level, and others 'drop' the subject- even though Ofsted inspectors say the subject is consistently the best taught subject nationally

At primary school 'The Rose Review' is moving primary age range curriculum more towards cross subject work

The Attainment Target (or description of the key skills and competences for Primary school history has five key elements or strands:

- chronological understanding;
- knowledge and understanding of events, people & changes in the past;
- historical interpretation;
- historical enquiry;
- organisation and communication.

Teachers have nine levels at which they can grade pupils achievement in

History, Levels one (lowest) through to eight plus 'exceptional performance' (highest.) At the end of each Key Stage schools must report on pupils' achievement.

**The aims of history education** (taken from the National Curriculum document):

The study of History should provide the opportunity for pupils to:

- learn about the past in Britain and the wider world;
- consider how the past influences the present;
- find out about what past societies were like, how these societies organised themselves, and what beliefs and cultures influenced people's actions;
- develop a chronological framework;
- see the diversity of human experience and understand more about themselves as individuals and members of society;
- reflect on their personal choices, attitudes and values;
- use evidence, weigh it up and reach their own conclusions;
- research, sift through evidence and argue a point of view.

### **Foundation Stage Curriculum**

The Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS) builds a coherent approach to care and learning from birth to 5 years. The EYFS is organised into six areas of learning and development:

- Personal, social and emotional development
- Communication, language and literacy
- Problem solving, numeracy and reasoning
- Knowledge and understanding of the world
- Physical development
- Creative development

At foundation stage, history falls within 'Knowledge and understanding of the world'. There is no specific historical learning but children might:

- show curiosity about their surroundings
- investigate objects, materials and places
- ask questions about why things happen
- use everyday technology, including ICT
- Work in foundation stage is useful for later study in history and in other subjects, for example, science and ICT.

This area of learning gives children opportunities to explore and discover the environment, people and places significant in their lives (Source Early Years Foundation Stage Curriculum).

Many early years teachers base their teaching around the children's own history and that of their families. They also provide children with a range of experiences to help them differentiate the past from the present.

### **Key Stages 1 and 2**

#### **At Key Stage 1 pupils aged 5-7 study:**

'Pupils learn about people's lives and lifestyles. They find out about significant men, women, children and events from the recent and more distant past, including those from both Britain and the wider world. They listen and respond to stories and use sources of information to help them ask and answer questions. They learn how the past is different from the present.'

Pupils should be taught the following areas of study:

- a) changes in their own lives and the way of life of their family or others around them
- b) the way of life of people in the more distant past who lived in the local area or elsewhere in Britain
- c) the lives of significant men, women and children drawn from the history of Britain and the wider world [ for example, artists, engineers, explorers, inventors, pioneers, rulers, saints, scientists ]
- d) past events from the history of Britain and the wider world [ for example, events such as the Gunpowder Plot, the Olympic Games, other events that are commemorated].

(Source: History National Curriculum (England))

#### **At Key Stage 2 pupils aged 7-11 should:**

'learn about significant people, events and places from both the recent and more distant past. They learn about change and continuity in their own area, in Britain and in other parts of the world. They look at history in a variety of ways, for example from political, economic, technological and scientific, social, religious, cultural or aesthetic perspectives. They use different sources of information to help them investigate the past both in depth and in overview, using dates and historical vocabulary to describe events, people and developments. They also learn that the past can be represented and interpreted in different ways.'

(Source: History National Curriculum (England))

#### **The History Study Units at Key Stage Two (pupil ages 7-11):**

Pupils should be taught (a):

- a local history study,

- three British history studies,
- a European history study and
- a world history study.

b) aspects of the histories of England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales, where appropriate, and about the history of Britain in its European and wider world context, in these periods.

**Units:**

- 1. Romans, Anglo-Saxons and Vikings in Britain**
- 2. Britain and the wider world in Tudor times (1485-1603)**
- 3. Victorian Britain (1837-1900) or Britain since 1930** (The impact of the Second World War or social and technological changes since 1930.)
- 4. A European history study:** Ancient Greece and its influence.
- 5. A world history study:** *selected from:* Ancient Egypt, Ancient Sumer, the Assyrian Empire, the Indus Valley, the Maya, Benin, or the Aztecs.

**Changes:**

The 'Rose Review' of the Primary Curriculum reported in the academic year 2008-2009 and recommended a move towards more integration of subjects. If implemented this would make an important difference to KS1 and 2 teaching and potentially to pupils' skills and knowledge on entry to secondary schools.

**'The Rose Report' (Independent Review of the Primary Curriculum)**

[http://publications.teachernet.gov.uk/eOrderingDownload/Primary\\_curriculum-report.pdf](http://publications.teachernet.gov.uk/eOrderingDownload/Primary_curriculum-report.pdf)

**The Cambridge Primary Review** was produced separately and critiques current approaches and trends in primary education- the document is available online at-

<http://primaryreview.org.uk/index.html>

**Key Stage Three (Pupils aged 11-14)**

**I Structuring the Curriculum in England**

Earlier versions of the curriculum for 11 – 14 year olds asked schools to ensure that young people 'learn about significant individuals and events in the history of Britain from the Middle Ages to the twentieth century and key aspects of European and world history..' Source: History National Curriculum (England)

This led schools to structure their curriculum around six required units of study:

HSU1 Britain 1066 – 1500

HSU2 Britain 1500 – 1750

HSU3 Britain 1750 – 1900

HSU4 A world study after 1900

HSU5 A European study before 1900

HSU6 A world study before 1900

### **Tell Me More:**

The National Curriculum Online website will give you the Programme of Study for each Key Stage (England) go to: <http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/> (national Curriculum home pages) and select the age range, then subjects and the History pages or for Secondary age range go direct to <http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/index.aspx>

Or History <http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/subjects/history/index.aspx>

Examples of pupil work and teacher devised tasks can be found at <http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/assessment/nc-in-action/index.aspx> and type in History in the search box

### **ii. The History Curriculum in Wales: Ages 5-14**

The Curriculum in Wales is set by the Qualifications, Curriculum and Assessment Authority (for Wales) which is a unit of the Welsh Assembly Government (ACCAC to use the Welsh abbreviation). The nature of the entire curriculum in Wales is shaped by the concept of 'Curriculum Cymreig' - the idea that the unique national identity and ethos of Wales, and its people, should be at the centre of topics studied.

#### **Curriculum Cymreig**

Pupils should be given opportunities, where appropriate, in their study of history to develop and apply knowledge and understanding of the cultural, economic, environmental, historical and linguistic characteristics of Wales.

#### **Communication Skills**

Pupils should be given opportunities, where appropriate, in their study of history to develop and apply their skills of speaking, listening, reading, writing and expressing ideas through a variety of media.

#### **Mathematical Skills**

Pupils should be given opportunities, where appropriate, in their study

of history to develop and apply their knowledge and skills of number, shape, space, measures and handling data.

### **Information Technology Skills**

Pupils should be given opportunities, where appropriate, in their study of history to develop and apply their IT skills to obtain, prepare, process and present information and to communicate ideas with increasing independence.

### **Problem-Solving Skills**

Pupils should be given opportunities, where appropriate, in their study of history to develop and apply their skills of asking appropriate questions, making predictions and coming to informed decisions.

### **Creative Skills**

Pupils should be given opportunities, where appropriate, in their study of history to develop and apply their creative skills, in particular the development and expression of ideas and imagination.

### **Personal and Social Education**

Pupils should be given opportunities, where appropriate, in their study of history to develop and apply the attitudes, values, skills, knowledge and understanding relating to Personal and Social Education.

## **iii. The National Examination System in England and Wales**

### **Nationally Set Criteria for Examinations**

There is a government agency which determines the rules for national examinations.

In the past this has been known as:

- School Curriculum and Assessment Authority (SCAA);
- National Curriculum Council (NCC)
- Qualifications and Assessment Authority (QCA) and most recently and currently the:

Qualifications and Curriculum Development Agency (QCDA) from 2009  
<http://www.qcda.gov.uk/>

The QCDA lays out subject criteria which all examinations in each subject must meet.

‘History should encourage students to:

- acquire and effectively communicate knowledge and understanding of selected periods of history;
- develop their understanding of historical terms and concepts;
- explore the significance of events, individuals, issues and societies in history;
- understand the nature of historical evidence and the methods used by historians in analysis and evaluation;
- develop their understanding of how the past has been interpreted and represented;
- develop their understanding of the nature of historical study, for example, that history is concerned with judgements based on available evidence and that historical judgements may be provisional;
- develop their interest in and enthusiasm for history. ‘

Source: QCDA Subject Criteria for History at GCSE

### **The Examination Boards**

There are three examination boards based in England

AQA <http://www.aqa.org.uk>

EdExcel <http://www.edexcel.org.uk/>

OCR <http://www.ocr.org.uk>

Wales has its own examination board:

The Welsh Board <http://www.wjec.co.uk/>

Schools in England and Wales can register their pupils for examinations at 16, 17 and 18 with any of the four boards for England and Wales.

### **History Examinations aged 14-16: The GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education)**

#### **AIMS**

All specifications must give students opportunities to:

- i. acquire knowledge and understanding of selected periods and/or aspects of history, exploring the significance of historical events, people, changes and issues;
- ii. use historical sources critically in their context, recording significant information and reaching conclusions;
- iii. develop understanding of how the past has been represented and interpreted;
- iv. organise and communicate their knowledge and understanding of history;

v. draw conclusions and appreciate that historical judgements are liable to reassessment in the light of new or reinterpreted evidence.

### **Rules for Content Choice**

A specification must require the study of:

- I. the key events, people, changes and issues in the period(s) or topic(s) specified;
- II. the key features and characteristics of the periods, societies or situations specified and, where appropriate, the social, cultural, religious and ethnic diversity of the societies studied and the experiences of men and women in these societies;
- III. an element of British history and/or the history of England, Scotland, Ireland or Wales, building on the knowledge, skills and understanding acquired at Key Stage 3 History on at least two different scales, such as local, national, European,
- IV. international, global history in at least two different ways, such as in depth, in outline, thematically;
- V. history from at least two perspectives, for example political, economic, social, technological, scientific, religious and cultural.
- VI. history through a range of sources of information, including ICT, appropriate to the period, such as written and visual sources, artefacts, music, oral accounts, and buildings and sites.

### **Study of History must include work to develop the Key Skills**

- application of number
- communication
- information technology
- improving own learning and performance
- problem solving
- working with others.

### **Assessment:**

Assessment must require candidates to demonstrate their ability to:

1. recall, select, organise and deploy knowledge of the specification content to communicate it through description, analysis and explanation of:
  - the events, people, changes and issues studied;
  - the key features and characteristics of the periods, societies or situations studied;
2. use historical sources critically in their context, by comprehending, analysing, evaluating and interpreting them;

3. comprehend, analyse, and evaluate, in relation to the historical context, how and why historical events, people, situations and changes have been interpreted and represented in different ways.

### **What is studied at GCSE (14-16 level)?**

The English Boards offer three choices for schools to offer: Modern World (Twentieth Century) History; and the Schools History Project and a pilot project from OCR only, with a limited number of schools following the specification which includes Dark Ages and medieval history as options in an innovative scheme.

British Social and Economic History (era of the agricultural and industrial revolutions onwards) has now been phased out

The Welsh examination board has two choices: Aspects of Welsh/English and World history

or Aspects in 19<sup>th</sup> Century and 20<sup>th</sup> Century Welsh/English and World History

### **After 16?**

Young people in England entering Y7 of secondary schools from the 2008-9 academic year onwards will be required to continue in some form of education until they are 18.

This does *not* mean that all will be in school. Some will work part of the week and have day release or college courses. It is anticipated that the majority will continue formal education in a range of courses including diploma and more traditional A-S/A level courses.

### **History at Post-16 level: the Advanced Supplementary (A-S) Level, and the Advanced (A) Level**

These statements are drawn from the 'Subject Criteria' published for the study of History at A-S and A level. New specifications were launched for first study in 2009-10 and first examination after that.

### **Knowledge, Understanding and Skills**

AS and A level specifications should require students to study:

- significant events, individuals and issues;
- a range of historical perspectives, for example cultural, economic, political;
- developments affecting different groups within the societies studied.

- study the history of more than one country or state;
- study a substantial element of British history and/or the history of England, Scotland, Ireland or Wales. This requirement does not apply to specifications in Ancient History;
- study change over a period of time sufficient to demonstrate understanding of the process of change, its causes and consequences, both long-term (at least 100 years) and short term;
- demonstrate breadth of historical knowledge and understanding by making links and drawing comparisons between different aspects of the period, society, theme or topic studied.

To demonstrate Knowledge and Understanding students should:

- demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the historical themes, topics and periods studied;
- assess the significance in their historical context of events, individuals, ideas, attitudes and beliefs and the ways in which they influenced behaviour and action;
- analyse historical interpretations of topics, individuals, issues or themes;
- analyse, evaluate and use historical sources in their historical context;
- demonstrate their understanding of key historical terms and concepts.

**Students should develop these Skills- an ability to**

- analyse, evaluate, interpret and use historical sources of different kinds appropriate to the period(s) covered in the specification;
- use a range of historical concepts in appropriate ways, for example in presenting a case, argument or account;
- communicate clear, concise and logical arguments substantiated by relevant evidence.
- investigate specific historical questions, problems or issues.
- use historical sources, accounts, arguments and interpretations to explain analyse and synthesise and to make judgements.

**Teaching and Learning must include the Key Skills of:**

Communication

Information Technology

Improving Own Learning and Performance

Working with Others

Problem Solving

### **What is Studied?**

Almost anything from History- as Examination Boards offer broadly based specifications from which schools can choose the options to suit their teachers and pupils- some of the material must be from British History, and Modern History including units on the rise of the Fascist dictators (Mussolini, Hitler) and Communism (Lenin, Stalin) are very popular.

### **Tell me more:**

Examination Board Websites:

AQA	<a href="http://www.aqa.org.uk">http://www.aqa.org.uk</a>
EdExcel	<a href="http://www.edexcel.org.uk/">http://www.edexcel.org.uk/</a>
OCR	<a href="http://www.ocr.org.uk">http://www.ocr.org.uk</a>
The Welsh Board	<a href="http://www.wjec.co.uk/">http://www.wjec.co.uk/</a>
QDCA Website	<a href="http://www.qcda.org.uk/">http://www.qcda.org.uk/</a>

### **iv. The Future? Likely changes / challenges over the next 5-10 years**

A new type of secondary school was introduced nine years ago: 'Academies', and the government has been encouraging schools to convert to academy status. City Academies are not required to follow the National Curriculum, although its content may well influence what they do within their curriculum time and planning documents/assessment strategies.

### **11-18+ Level**

The influence of nearly thirty years of innovations such as the Schools History Project, with a very clear and strong skills and concepts base, and the development of the National Curriculum with its closely defined rationale, and national definitions of subject criteria has placed History teachers in a strong position for reflection.

The inspection system shows that History is usually very well taught, but the case is now being made that there should be clearer progression between study up to age 14 and beyond. Some argue that a stronger vocational element would help young people, their families and wider society see History as more relevant, and would increase the numbers opting to study the subject at examination and degree level.

### **11-14 Level (Key Stage 3 of the National Curriculum)**

The current version of the National Curriculum is version four and was introduced from 2007. Some schools, especially those seeing to innovate, or

those under performance pressure, squeeze Key Stage Three into two years of schooling instead of three to allow longer for studying qualifications or for other activities to be introduced.

Some start GCSE (or other qualifications or experiences) in Y9, thus squeezing Key Stage 3 into two (or even 1) year(s).

There are no formal plans to have a two year KS3 for all schools, and the QCA makes clear that study of the National Curriculum is still a statutory requirement.

There has been a move in some schools to introduce a skills based curriculum, especially for Y7, and in some cases for Y7 and Y8. This might follow the programmes of 'Learning to Learn'; 'Building Learning Power'; 'Habits of Mind' or 'Learning Habits' courses. Ofsted are showing a concern that some such course lack coherence and progression strategies are weak. Where such courses exist the schools are not exempt from their statutory duties

#### **14-16 Level (GCSE Examination Level)**

Plans are currently being made to introduce a pilot 'hybrid' GCSE with a strong vocational element. This pilot might begin in 2006, and is already attracting a strong interest. It will be controlled by QCA working with one or more examination boards- the QCA Website will carry details of progress, and there is sure to be strong press and media interest. There is also a plan to introduce a Diploma to replace GCSE, and more details of this are expected over the next school year.

#### **The Diploma in Humanities and Social Studies**

A series of diplomas have been introduced, and the QCDA plan is to introduce a diploma in Humanities and Social Studies. A pdf file of further information on the draft plans is at <http://www.humanitiesdiploma.co.uk/files/Line%20Of%20Learning%20Statement%20Statement%200.pdf> The following is drawn from this document -

Generic learning - Assessment is as follows:

- Functional skills are assessed discretely.
- Personal, learning and thinking skills (PLTS) are assessed through the principal learning and reported on the Diploma transcript.
- The project is a standalone, single unit qualification, which is internally assessed using the awarding body marking scheme.
- Work experience (usually linked to a line of learning) is a minimum of 10 days and reported on the Diploma transcript.

This Diploma will engage and excite 14-19 year olds through the study of the dilemmas, challenges and opportunities to make a difference, facing individuals and society at a time of rapid social, economic and environmental change. Learners will develop the questioning attitude, curiosity and information literacy that are so relevant and valued today.

Learners completing these Diplomas will be activists, forces for change, explainers, listeners and advocates. They will enquire and research, uncover and explore options and they will debate possibilities. They will be numerate, literate and ICT capable and understand the world in a way few other qualifications allow them to do. The transferable employability skills they acquire will be applicable in every walk of life and will open doors to potentially every sector of industry and almost any organisation. They will be communicators, team workers, future leaders and managers and be equipped with an understanding of peoples' attitudes, values and beliefs.

This Diploma is founded on the strengths and traditions of an extended family of humanities and social academic disciplines, which share a focus on the study of people, the environment they live and work in and society. The development of this Diploma has drawn on a range of disciplines, some of which are familiar to learners from previous key stages in the stages in the statutory curriculum (citizenship, English literature and language, geography, history and religious education). Within the diploma these familiar disciplines are further enriched by other disciplines from the humanities and social sciences, including archeology, classics, classical civilisation, economics, government and politics, law, philosophy, psychology, sociology and world development.

The unique nature of the Diploma is that it offers an integrated learning experience, giving learners the opportunity to see the links between 'subject' and how real life issues or questions can only be meaningfully engaged with by drawing on knowledge and understanding from across the humanities and social sciences. Learners will have the opportunity to develop skills in one area and apply them in other subject disciplines. For example, skills in the critical analysis of textual sources may be learned in the context of historical studies and then applied or adapted to the review of evidence presented to support a policy development or to the critique of an editorial article.

Subject-specialist teachers will want to work creatively not just with other teachers and tutors in schools and colleges but also in partnership with higher education, employers, parents and other stakeholders, such as local community and religious leaders, health and social services, youth and justice experts, theatre and arts specialists, historians, archaeologists, museums and

galleries, to provide inspiring teaching and learning. The work experience and project elements of the Diploma offer valuable opportunities to capitalise on these local and national resources.

Content:

The topics have been developed based on a number of themes. The four designing themes that underpin the thinking of the principal learning are:

- the individual in society
- people and change
- people, land and environments
- people and power.

Adding breadth and depth

Alongside the principal and generic learning in the Diploma, breadth and depth can be added to learning through:

- a) additional and specialist learning (ASL)
- b) the Diploma project
- c) work experience and work-related learning.

a) ASL

The ASL will provide opportunities for learners to specialise in any particular discipline, not just within the humanities and social footprint but also beyond it. This may be through vocationally oriented qualifications or specific GCSEs, AS or A levels, such as history or geography. There is an ongoing research programme to explore how ASL might support various progression routes.

b) The Diploma project

At each level of the Diploma, learners are required to complete a project. This encourages in-depth study, develops generic skills and involves the learner in applying what they learn to a real-life context. The project work should be designed to develop and evidence the skills learners will need for further study or employment, providing opportunities for them to work individually and as part of a team as they hone their skills and make links to outside workplaces.

c) Work experience and work-related learning

There will be many opportunities in this Diploma for learners to apply their learning in work experience and work-related learning - applying subject disciplines to work problems and developing work skills and knowledge.

The work experience element of the Diploma (a minimum of 10 days) should be carefully planned and structured, however, so that it relates to the content of the qualification at the appropriate level:

### **17-18+ Level (A-S and A Level)**

Debate has taken place over a number of years about the value of A Levels. Recent change divided the traditional GCE A level course into two parts: A1 and A2 or A-S (Advanced Supplementary) and A (Advanced) level. This meant that a large number of young people study four or five subjects during the year they are aged 16-17 instead of the traditional three subjects. It is hoped that this will broaden young people's choices and skills. In Scotland there has been a tradition of studying several subjects as part of their 'Highers' system, and this is a successful and well regarded model. It has meant more assessment (and stress?) for young people studying A levels and their teachers, but it has also meant the numbers studying History aged 17 and 18 has risen.

The A level examination of Summer 2009 first awarded an A\* grade at A level.

New specifications designed to streamline the system were introduced in 2009, for first examination thereafter, i.e. from 2010

There are vocational qualifications available for 14-18 year olds, but these have not proved as popular as traditionally focused exams. Various Governments have discussed the possibility of larger scale reform at 16-18 level, perhaps introducing a Baccalaureate system, and pilots for this reform are being developed, but radical change is unlikely in the short term since any attempt at change causes a strong reaction from conservative educationalists, the media and the business community.

In Wales the 'Welsh Bac' is already underway. In England a small number of schools follow the baccalaureate system either entirely, or as an option at Post-16 level- for example at the Ridings International Academy at Winterbourne in South Gloucestershire.

### **v. Web links and Publications which might be of Interest**

(Addresses and descriptions provided by the History team at the QCA)

- **National Curriculum Online**

<http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/subjects/history/index.aspx>

National Curriculum Online provides direct links, using key words, to the QCA/DfES schemes of work and other on-line resources relevant to each part of the programme of study. The history home page also provides access to all other web based history support material produced by QCA.

Early Years Foundation Stage Curriculum

Available from [www.qcda.gov.uk](http://www.qcda.gov.uk)

- **Case Studies (Exemplification of interesting projects and activities)**

[http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/case\\_studies/casestudieslibrary/index.aspx?fldKeyword1=History](http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-3-and-4/case_studies/casestudieslibrary/index.aspx?fldKeyword1=History)

NC in action uses pupils' work to exemplify the national curriculum in key stages 1 and 3. It contains materials selected from SCAA's *Exemplification* and *Expectations* booklets. The site can also be accessed through the history home page of National Curriculum online. New materials will be added to the site as they become available.

- **Respect for All**

<http://www.qcda.gov.uk/6753.aspx>

(pages being updated- go to QCDA homepage and search using title if link fails)

This website includes exemplification materials on good practice in multi-cultural and anti-racist education. The website has information for teachers on challenging stereotypes and introducing critical perspectives into the discussion of diversity and anti-racist and multicultural education in the classroom.

- **Education for sustainable development**

<http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-1-and-2/learning-across-the-curriculum/education-for-sustainable-development/index.aspx>

The ESD web site includes information on: what education for sustainable development is about; requirements and opportunities for ESD across all subjects in the national curriculum; case studies of developing practice in ESD across the full range of subjects and contexts; and guidance on, and case studies of, the management of school development of ESD.

- **Schemes of work for history (Key stages 1,2 and 3)**

[www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes](http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes)

The history schemes of work (details under QCA History publications) are on the DfES Standards web site.

- **A scheme of work for Key Stages 3 and 4: Citizenship**

[www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes](http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes)

The citizenship schemes of work for key stages 3 and 4 (details under QCA publications) are on the DfES Standards web site. The key stage 3 scheme of work includes a subject leaflet *Opportunities for developing citizenship through history at key stage 3*, which has been written to provide a starting point for schools to discuss the links between citizenship and history.

<http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes2/citizenship/?view=Subject+leaflets>

Further information and guidance to support the teaching of citizenship in all the key stages is also available at [www.dfes.gov.uk/citizenship](http://www.dfes.gov.uk/citizenship).

- **Creativity Across the Curriculum**

QCA worked with primary and secondary teachers to identify opportunities to extend develop creativity through history.

<http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-1-and-2/learning-across-the-curriculum/creativity/howcanheadsandmanagerspromotecreativity/index.aspx>

Guidance on recognising and promoting creativity in the classroom along with history specific case studies for primary and secondary teachers will soon be available on <http://curriculum.qcda.gov.uk/key-stages-1-and-2/learning-across-the-curriculum/creativity/index.aspx>.

- **Information for parents about the History National Curriculum**  
(*The Learning Journey*)

Information about what history is all about in each key stage, with some useful teaching tips for parents

[http://www.dfes.gov.uk/parents/learnjourn/index\\_ks1.cfm?ver=graph&subject=hi](http://www.dfes.gov.uk/parents/learnjourn/index_ks1.cfm?ver=graph&subject=hi)

- One leaflet on – *People in the Past* has been produced for key stage 1 history. Three leaflets – on *the Romans, the Tudors and the Victorians* have been produced for key stage 2 history. These are on the DCSF Parents' web site <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/parents/discover/index.cfm>

- **History Publications**

(Most items are available to download free from the sites given. They can also be ordered from QCDA, but additional costs may be charged for postage outside the UK)

- **A scheme of work for Key Stages 1 and 2: History.**

(QCA/DfES/SEU, 1998)

The materials in this optional exemplar scheme of work illustrate how long-term and medium-term plans can be devised for work in history in key stages 1 and 2. The scheme comprises 20 units, a mixture of 'short', 'medium', 'long' and 'continuous' units. The materials also show how 16 of the units might be put together into key stage plans

for key stages 1 and 2. The scheme of work shows how history might be taught to groups of children attaining levels broadly appropriate for their age. The scheme now includes an update, comprising four new units and a teacher's guide.

(Available FREE to download online at [www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes](http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes))

Printed version: Order Code: QCA/98/252. Price £16.00

- **A scheme of work for Key Stage 3: History. (QCA/DfES/SEU, 2000 VERSION 3)**

The materials in this optional exemplar scheme of work illustrate how long-term and medium-term plans can be devised for work in history in key stage 3. The scheme comprises 22 units, a mixture of 'short', 'medium', 'long' and 'continuous' units and a teacher's guide. The scheme of work shows how history might be taught to pupils broadly attaining levels 3-7. (Order Code: QCA/00/448. Price £20.00)

(Also available FREE online at [www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes](http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes))

### **Citizenship Publications**

A scheme of work for key stage 3 citizenship. DfES/QCA 2001. (Order code: QCA/01/776 Price £25)

A scheme of work for key stage 4 citizenship. DfES/QCA 2002. (Order code: QCA/02/853 Price £25)

### **The Curriculum for Northern Ireland:**

Council for the Curriculum, Examinations & Assessment (CCEA) <http://www.ccea.org.uk/>

### **The Curriculum for Scotland:**

<http://www.ltscotland.org.uk/>

Scotland's new Curriculum for Excellence aims to achieve a transformation in education in Scotland by providing a coherent, enriched and more flexible curriculum from 3 to 18, firmly focused on the needs of the child and young person.

Examples of experiences and outcomes are available via this link.

## THE HISTORY CURRICULUM IN ENGLAND: CONTESTED NARRATIVES

*Dean Smart\* and Penelope Harnett\*\**

This chapter will explore the contested nature of the history curriculum in England and Wales in recent years, looking at the role of central government and special interest groups in shaping schooling, and will consider the importance of history education in a multiethnic, multi-faith society.

### I. The Origins of History Education in Schools

A national, and initially fairly loosely regulated, system of Education in England and Wales developed from the 1830s, with the first government grants for primary school buildings paid in 1833, and compulsory education up to the end of primary schooling from the 1870s. During the twentieth century compulsory secondary education was gradually extended to young people aged fourteen, fifteen, and then sixteen. It is currently planned that by 2013 young people will remain in either education or training until they are seventeen years old, rising to a school leaving age of eighteen by 2015. Throughout much of the history of state education the study of history has been seen as an essential, and mostly unquestioned, element of schooling, principally aiming to transmit a sense of national identity and provide examples of great men and great deeds to inspire the young (Marsden 2001). The first version of the National Curriculum (DES 1991) suggests that school History should:

‘help pupils develop a sense of identity through learning about the development of Britain, Europe and the world’

The Purposes of School History,  
Non Statutory Guidance Page B1, Section 1.0, part 1.3,  
National Curriculum, (DES 1991)

The belief that history *teaches* identity is not new, from the very beginning of state primary education, for example, one of the three reading books that

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young people were using at any point was required to have an historical theme. However, it is a view that has often been left unquestioned.

For much of the history of education in England the design of the classroom curriculum was left largely to the professional judgement of teachers, with some guidance as to content and pedagogy offered through the publications of the Board of Education, local government authorities and teacher's associations. Traditionally the teaching of history in English schools relied on textbooks which were content heavy, British history centred, and focused on what a later critic described as the story of 'dead white men.' For a long period teachers largely replicated what they had themselves studied, and an unproblematised approach to teaching and learning dominated education. Rote learning of key dates and events, a chronological approach and the breaking down of history into key periods based on royal houses was largely unquestioned and a received information centred curriculum model continued unchanged and unchallenged for decades. In the period after the Second World War a range of social reforms and hardships brought many previously unchallenged assumptions into question. University education expanded and greater demands were placed on schools to produce a dynamic, skills rich range of potential workers and innovators who would serve the needs of society and a post-imperial, post-war, economy. 'Traditional subjects' were no longer automatically assured curriculum time and a freer attitude in society brought expectations of greater choice of subjects studied in the last years of compulsory education. History continued to offer a Anglo-centric political, military and socio-economic focus, looking at Britain from 1714-1918. History was not perceived to be forward looking or relevant to many young people and less and less young people studied the subject when they reached the age at which they could 'drop' history.

### **History in Danger, 'The New History' and a Period of Contestation: 1960s and 1970s**

Rapid changes in society and working patterns during the later twentieth century led to further pressure on the curriculum to adapt to 'modern needs' and offer a relevant and technologically focused approach to schooling, especially at Secondary school level. Skills and competencies became fashionable, and knowledge and recall of *facts* for their own sake were questioned, as was the nature of historical truth. The existing very traditional and factual recall model of history education led to even more young people opting out of the study of history at age 14. In 1968 an article was published in the Historical Association's journal *History* which was entitled *History in Danger* (Price 1968) which launched a debate about the value and nature of

History in schools and raised concerns about the potential impact on society of a generation lacking in a mature understanding of history. The debate generated considerable interest in the history education community, and a range of interesting responses followed.

At the same time the idea of refining the notion of subject disciplines was underway, with Coltham and Fines' (1971) *Educational Objectives for the Study of History*, which provide a taxonomy for learning in history. Debate about the nature of History led to proposals to radically overhaul subject teaching in schools and organisations such as the Schools Council, and the Nuffield Foundation engaged with interesting and radical projects to reconceptualise subject learning and school examinations. The emergence of what was later christened the 'New History' blended a skills and concepts based approach to history, and focused on different understanding the dimensions of history- local, national, international, depth and overview studies rather than memorisations or depth of recall.

The driving force of the 'New History' in its early years was the *Schools History 13-16 Curriculum Project* (SHP), which was introduced in the 1970s, and focused on the methodology of the historian, the application of historical processes, critical evidence use, and skills and concepts development more than simple knowledge retention. The SHP continues today as an organisation dedicated to strengthening history teaching and learning, and as the originator/parent of a popular history examination syllabus studied by a little under half of 14-16 year olds who study history at examination level.

Phillips (1998:18-21) suggests although the SHP's initial impact was limited, it significantly influenced how history was taught in schools. A period of reinvigoration followed the introduction of SHP, with a highly contested, at times very public and bruising debate about how far skills should be privileged over knowledge, and how well young people can genuinely engage with historical methods in a meaningful and valid way. During the debate some aspects of the skills debate were especially heavily contested, for example the use of empathy was questioned by traditionalists on the grounds that it was a-historical, and could lead to counter-factual history. Phillips (1996, 1998) reviews this period of schism in the history community, and notes how a blend of knowledge and emphasis on skills developed in British history education- despite ongoing criticism from conservatives and the right wing press who also queried whether the 'national story' was under threat and claimed a generation would be unable to recount key dates, events and names in British history.

### **Regulation, and Further Contestation: the 1980s and 1990s**

During the mid 1980s government mistrust of teachers led to increasing regulation of initial training, the curriculum and the examination system, resulting in a dramatic increase in the level of power held centrally by the Secretary of State for Education. A set of 'National Subject Criteria' were introduced to define history at examination level in 1985, followed by the new GCSE examination in 1986 accompanied by a centrally imposed set of national aims and objectives for the study of History at secondary school examination level. The same government then introduced a National Curriculum (DES 1988), ostensibly to ensure that all young people in state schools received a basic entitlement and a high quality education.

In particular the debate about what constituted History was the subject of heated and prolonged debate (Crawford, 1995; and Phillips, 1997, 1998, 2002) and often polarised positioning. The government appointed 'History Working Group' (DES 1989; 1990a & b) found itself at the centre of a power struggle between politicians, key stakeholders, the media, and lobby groups (Phillips 1998). Having packed the Working Group with people expected to deliver a more traditional approach to history as a subject there was some surprise amongst leading ruling Conservative party politicians, who clearly favoured a 'traditionalist' interpretation of History as a corpus of knowledge (Thatcher 1993), when the new History National Curriculum placed a heavy emphasis on skills and concepts and did not very closely specify exact content to be covered in schools. Direct intervention from the Secretary of State for Education and the Prime Minister bolstered the focus on Anglo-centric content, a proposed a regime of testable content knowledge, and compulsory history lessons to the age of sixteen.

Spiralling costs and increasing concerns about centralisation, increased bureaucracy and manageability resulted in a reduction in intended regulation and control, with history (and geography, art and music all becoming optional after the age of fourteen. The final version of the National Curriculum to be introduced featured less specified content, no national testing for the optional subjects, but a requirement to report to Whitehall on pupil performance against a nine stage national performance scale for pupils aged 14. Despite the continuing clear emphasis on historical skills the emergent *History Orders* (DES 1991) created a curriculum model of school History mainly as the narration of the 'national story' in which incomers are mentioned, and are successfully assimilated: a continuation of ethnocentrism from earlier curriculum models. This translated into a History National Curriculum dominated by British History Study units, and although the titles of the study units in the current

curriculum have changed with each version of the National Curriculum, the focus on English history remained. Today secondary schools are introducing the fourth version of the National Curriculum for History, and primary schools are undergoing review of their curriculum offer, as will be explored in the following section.

## **II. The History Curriculum in Primary Schools.**

The advent of the history National Curriculum was generally welcomed by most history practitioners in primary schools. It meant that all children from the age of 5-11 now had a statutory right to learn history and this was important. Prior to the National Curriculum children's learning in history had been quite patchy and some children, particularly very young children received little history teaching at all.

A survey by Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI) who visited a range of primary and infant schools noted some good examples of history teaching, particularly where it was focused on the locality, but they also described many instances where history was poorly planned with little account being taken of progression in children's experiences and very little engagement with historical enquiries using a range of different sources of evidence. In many schools children's only experience of learning history was through watching television programmes (DES. 1989).

The introduction of the history National Curriculum in 1991 was thus an important milestone in ensuring that all children from the age of 5 had an entitlement to learning in history( DES, 1991).

The history National Curriculum identified progression in key historical skills and concepts, such as chronology; causation; change and continuity; source analysis; historical interpretations, and also specific historical knowledge. The identification of particular content to be taught at different ages was designed to ensure that there was continuity and no repetition in children's experiences for children from 5- 16 years old. Children aged 5-7 years olds ( Key Stage 1) learned about local, personal and family histories together with learning about significant people and events. Teachers were required to teach them about the ways of life of men, women and children living in a period of time before living memory.

At Key Stage 2 ( ages 7-11 ) children were introduced to a broad range of historical knowledge covering key periods of British history from 1AD to 1066, in a unit called Invaders and Settlers; the Tudor and Stuart period 1485- 1715 and a choice between studying the Victorians 1837-1901 or Britain since the 1930s. Children were also expected to study Ancient Greece and

the voyages of exploration in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Alongside these study units, the history National Curriculum also included a choice of thematic units such as food and farming; ships and seafarers; land transport; writing and printing; houses and places of worship and domestic life, families and childhood.

These units were designed to introduce children to developments over longer periods of time, and reflected the prevailing primary pedagogy where children were taught through topics rather than single subject approaches. There was also a local history study unit and a choice of units from non-European history to be included within children's experiences.

It was clear from the very beginning of implementation that there was too much content in the history National Curriculum and consultations on its possible reduction began soon after teachers began to implement it in their classrooms.

Although there have been reductions in the content of the history National Curriculum for primary aged children, most notably in 1995 when the thematic units were removed, the core components comprising British, local, European and world history have remained remarkably similar over the past twenty years for both Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2 children (DfEE & QCA, 1999). Given the investment in training and resources in the early years of the implementation of the National Curriculum, the government was unwilling to make dramatic changes. The focus on the development of key skills and concepts has also remained consistent and since there have been few changes, most primary teachers are now very familiar with the requirements of the history National Curriculum.

The introduction of the National Curriculum in primary schools created several challenges for teachers in primary schools, many of which have continued to be unresolved. The next section will discuss some of these challenges.

Primary teachers' subject knowledge of history is very variable. When the history National Curriculum was first introduced, many primary school teachers were very unfamiliar with the historical knowledge to be learned. They had not studied the periods of history which they were expected to teach at school, nor had they received much training in teaching history during their teacher training studies at university.

There was thus a tremendous need to train teachers to teach the history curriculum; to update them in terms of their historical knowledge, but also in ways in which to develop historical enquiries and encourage the development of historical skills and concepts. Many training courses were organised for

primary teachers in the early 1990s to develop their skills in history teaching and learning. These courses were organised alongside other subject courses for teachers, since the National Curriculum introduced a total of nine subjects for primary teachers. Teachers were expected to teach all these nine subjects and to become familiar with both the subject knowledge and key skills and concepts associated with them.

Not only was primary teachers' history subject knowledge often weak, but teachers also had little experience of teaching history skills and developing historical enquiries in the classroom using a range of historical sources of information. Whilst some training was provided, many teachers adopted a transmission approach to learning, encouraging children to complete worksheets and copy out what they had read from history books.

Teachers' subject knowledge in history remains a perennial problem. In their inspections in the 1990s HMI were referring to this constantly. More recent inspections too, still indicate that teachers' knowledge of the subject needs more support and is effecting children's attainment. A further concern is that children at the end of the primary years do not have a sense of chronology and how the different historical topics which they have studied link together (OfSTED, 2007).

The National Curriculum introduced a subject-based curriculum into primary schools. This was a change from teachers' previous experience, since prior to the National Curriculum most primary teachers had not taught specific subjects other than maths and English separately, and had planned their teaching through topics. Topics could be a number of subjects clustered together within a common theme or topic which would be planned by the teacher. Some examples of popular topics such as Ourselves or Light and Dark would seek to draw on different subject areas to provide children with a holistic learning experience.

When the National Curriculum was first introduced primary teachers tried to link the new statutory requirements with their existing plans for organising the curriculum within a topic approach. This was very difficult since primary teachers were trying to include not only history, but also other subjects within their existing topics. After 1995, teachers' planning became more focused on a single subject and teachers began to plan their work from history schemes of work which were developed by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA and DfEE, 1998). Although the schemes of work were only meant to provide guidance, many teachers adopted them completely, since they felt this would ensure that they would receive good reports for doing this when their schools were inspected. This led to a narrowing of the curriculum in

many primary schools and government policies from the early 2000s onwards have been encouraging teachers to plan more creatively.

A policy entitled, *Excellence and Enjoyment* published in 2003 encouraged schools, 'to take a fresh look at their curriculum, their timetable and the organisation of the school day and week, and think actively how they would like to develop and enrich the experience they offer their children' (DfES 2003, 12). More recently, planning in many primary schools has returned to thematic and topic approaches and current proposals for a primary curriculum for 2010 group history, geography and social understanding as a cluster of subjects to be studied together (Rose, 2009).

History, alongside other subjects such as geography, art, music, design technology and PE has always been regarded as less important than the three core subjects of the primary curriculum, maths, English and science. Most space is allocated to these three subjects within the timetable. English and maths dominate the learning during the morning in most primary schools, and this was particularly the case for several years following the introduction of National Literacy and National Numeracy Strategies in 1998 and 1999 (DfEE, 1998, DfEE, 1999). Consequently history has to compete with many other subjects for time on the timetable during the afternoon lessons.

However, history is still taught on a much more regular basis in primary schools than before the National Curriculum. Primary teachers continue to find planning historical enquiries difficult. They also are uncertain about planning for progression and what progress in historical understanding looks like for young children. The current National Curriculum provide levels of attainment to record children's progress, but these levels are rarely used by primary teachers who tend to report on children's enjoyment of the subject, rather than their progress in the acquisition of historical skills and knowledge ( OfSTED, 2007). Unlike maths, English and science there are no statutory requirements for assessing children's progress in history.

A further consequence of the introduction of the history National Curriculum has been the proliferation of a range of resources for learning and teaching history. There was very little available when the National Curriculum was first introduced and publishers produced a whole range of new children's books and teaching manuals to support teachers ( Harnett, 2003). Since the content of the curriculum has remained relatively stable, schools have built up their own collections of resources to support their teaching.

The history National Curriculum requires children to work from a range of sources of information (artefacts, pictures, maps, documents etc) and parents and grandparents have been encouraged to provide such material for schools

to build up their own museums (Barnsdale-Paddock and Harnett, 2002). It is also common for family members and members of the local community to go into school and talk to the children about their memories of past ways of life and what it was like in the locality in former times. In addition, there has been a growing trade in the production of replica artefacts, so that young children can now handle a copy of an Ancient Greek vase, try lighting a Roman oil lamp or practise their reading using a Tudor horn book from the sixteenth century.

The history National Curriculum also requires children to visit historic sites and buildings and this has resulted in museums, art galleries and historic sites providing a range of resources for learning and also guidance for teachers on how to use their collections. Many sites encourage historical re-enactments where children are encouraged to dress up in costume and act out different roles of people living in the past. Drama and role play is also an effective learning strategy in schools. For example many schools create their own nineteenth century classroom and children take on the roles of former pupils (Sands, 2004). In early years classrooms, the play area may be turned into a medieval castle and children encouraged to take on the different roles of people who lived there (Harnett, 1998). Such approaches are enjoyed by the children and are often their most memorable experiences of learning history in primary schools.

When the history National Curriculum was first introduced, there were concerns by some historians that children at Key Stage 1 would find history too hard. Some early years' practitioners also argued that history was too difficult since it was too abstract a subject and that children needed to start with concrete learning experiences from the environment close to them. However, experience of teaching children 5-7 years over the past 20 years has demonstrated that children are excited by history and are capable of asking and answering questions about the past. The Early Years Foundation Stage Curriculum for children from birth to 5 years now suggests a range of activities to develop very young children's historical understanding within an area of learning and development entitled, 'Knowledge and Understanding of the World' (QCA, 2008).

At the time of writing (2009) the curriculum in primary schools is under review. Six areas of learning rather than particular subjects are recommended and history is grouped within historical, geographical and social understanding. The suggested curriculum is much less prescriptive with no identification of specific periods of history to be studied. The importance of interlinking historical, geographical and social understanding however is

clearly emphasised in the suggested essential knowledge. 'Children should build secure knowledge of the following:

- a. How the present has been shaped by the past, through developing a sense of chronology, exploring change and continuity over time, and understanding why things happened
- b. How and why places and environments develop, how they can be sustained and how they may change in the future
- c. How identities develop, what we have in common, what makes us different and how we organise ourselves and make decisions within communities
- d. How people, communities and places are connected and can be interdependent' (Rose, 2009).

The next few years will thus see further changes occurring within the primary curriculum. Children's learning in history and the extent to which they enjoy it, will be very much dependant on how teachers interpret these requirements within their planning and classroom practice.

### **III. The History Curriculum in Secondary Schools**

Initially, during the consultation phases, and then in the early stages of the introduction of the National Curriculum for History (DES 1991) secondary school teachers were concerned about the possibility of having a very traditionalist and turgid curriculum to introduce. To the surprise of many, including the Prime Minister, at least according to her memoirs, the skills *and* knowledge based focus of the new curriculum was a well balanced pathway between the traditional and 'new' history approaches and drew on best practice from both. The government's initial intention had been that history would be a compulsory subject to the age of sixteen, but it became clear that the new curriculum was overloaded and an amendment was made to make the study of history become optional after the age of fourteen. A curriculum review initiated almost immediately after the introduction of the first version of the National Curriculum, led by Sir Ron (later Lord) Dearing led to a much slimmed second version of the curriculum, with greater teacher control over planning but within a regulatory framework where schools were frequently inspected and could face strong criticism if considered to be underperforming.

The first three versions of the National Curriculum document for History set one structure for historical study for pupils from the age of five to fourteen, with five key strands at the heart of the curriculum: chronology; causation; change and continuity; source use; historical interpretations, and historical

knowledge and understanding and a ten level scale for assessing performance. Young people at lower secondary level (Key Stage 3) were required to cover four key periods of British history: Britain 1066-1500; 1500-1750; 1750-1900 and the Era of the Second World War (later changed to a study of the Twentieth Century) as well as a unit based on a turning point in European history and a non-European study, provided that this was not one of the topics offered in the Primary curriculum. The history National Curriculum orders suggested a blend of thematic, depth and overview units, with some coverage of local, national and international/world history, and attention to building on prior study and preparation for further study at GCSE level and beyond.

Revisions to the lower school curriculum (Key Stage Three, the curriculum for 1-14 year olds,) took place in 1995, 1999 and 2007, with each handing more flexibility to teachers, but have largely left a structure in which schools have followed a chronological approach and in which British, and in particular English history was been favoured. Secondary teachers tend to have a very strong sense of subject identity as typically a teacher has a specialist subject for which they were initially trained and further subsidiary subjects which they subsequently also teach at lower school level. The close definition of key skills and concepts has therefore served to strengthen subject identity and teacher planning, assessment and the application of active learning methods.

During the 1960s the introduction of an examination syllabus for 14-16 year olds that offered modern world history as an alternative to traditional political and economic history had proved popular, and in the 1970s the introduction of the School History Project thematic study of history had also helped revitalise the subject in many schools. The SHP approach was to prove very influential, bringing a focus on using historical sources, analysis and interpretation that was radically different to earlier approaches. The teaching of history skills and the development of historical enquiries using a variety of historical sources has been a core expectation for history teachers since the 1970s, and was at the heart of the National Curriculum. Secondary history teachers are therefore familiar with the structure and demands of the history curriculum, although the ongoing challenge has always been to find enough curriculum time to cover content, concepts and skills adequately.

Most secondary school history lessons are taught by specialists, and therefore subject knowledge tends to be sound for new teachers since all have an initial degree in History, and a post-graduate qualification in education, and good for those with more experience.

Recent research by Haydn and Harris (2009) stresses pupils belief that the role of the teacher is crucial. 'Unsurprisingly, pupils like teachers who are

'fun' and 'enthusiastic', but they also consider how teachers talk to them as important. This includes both teachers' ability to explain things and how they address pupils' (Haydn and Harris 2009)

The focus of in-service training for secondary teachers in the early years of the introduction of the National Curriculum was therefore not related to developing subject knowledge, but related to assessment or 'levelling' and developing a common understanding about pupil performance. More recently, national initiatives have focused on support for literacy skills, and cross-curricular working, although history teachers have found it difficult to get time out of school, and rarely get opportunities to engage with subject specific training for history. The initial version of the curriculum was overloaded with content, with the curriculum orders listing content outlines that were almost impossible to deliver. Later versions of the curriculum slimmed the content requirement, and gave teachers more autonomy, although some schools have been slower than others to take up the opportunity to vary the curriculum which they offer and break away from a very chronological and traditional focus.

After 1995 the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) developed a series of 'model schemes of work' for secondary schools as well as for primaries. Best practice saw these as exemplars for department discussions and staff development, while some schools adopted the materials as if they represented an official canon, which was not the intention at all. The 1999 and 2007 versions of the curriculum attempted to break away from a sense of a single model of curriculum design or delivery, and encouraged more creative and innovative approaches, with the most recent curriculum design seeking cross-curricular linkage in order to broaden and deepen learning. Accompanying this push towards greater diversity has been a policy of encouraging classroom based research and reflective practice, with the QCA publishing a range of case studies of good practice to encourage the development of locally designed responses to a national outline curriculum model. This presents challenges for resource producers and publishers: in the early versions of the history National Curriculum a core content was required, even if only in outline blocks of history, but later versions have been more open ended in what can be studied, and little close prescription of content.

Indeed in some ways the lack of prescription and open ended nature of the curriculum orders can be both a blessing and a curse. It allows creativity or continuity; it encourages innovation or stifles it; and it means that great variety can exist but that national comparisons can be difficult depending on your viewpoint. An area that also faces related challenges is the production of

educational resources. The textbook market in the UK is entirely unregulated by government and operates as a free market in which individual heads of the History Department decide which textbooks and other resources to purchase. This has led to a wide range of textbooks being available, but there is a risk that as greater diversity is encouraged less titles will be produced since anticipated sales cannot be guaranteed, and thus the profit margin needed by private concerns cannot be secured.

Despite the change to the level of prescription as the National Curriculum has been redrafted there has been some continuity. History teachers are expected to address the histories of Great Britain and Ireland, yet they continue to teach a southern English focused curriculum. All versions of the secondary history orders encourage the use of a variety of historical sources: for example music and sound, artefacts and objects, and learning outside the classroom at historic sites, museums, and art galleries. The nature and range of these sites and the educational programmes and resources available to support their use in the UK is very strong, and larger sites usually have educational provision and activities at a modest cost or free of charge. Online guidance for teachers, risk assessments for visits and materials for educators and young people are also readily available, with some heritage organisations leading the European field in their provision.

#### **IV. History Education in a Multiethnic Britain**

##### **Ethnicity in England**

Throughout most of British history the size of the visible ethnic minority communities in Britain has been small, and the general population has a restricted sense of the historical facts of migration and population movements as long term trends. None the less historically Britain has been the focus of almost continuous immigration and emigration,

with periods of more intense movement, and an acceleration of incomers post-1945 from the countries of the Britain's former empire and the Commonwealth in response to decolonisation; interethnic violence in the Indian sub-continent and Africa; and post-World War II labour shortages. Restrictions on immigration from the 1970s, and then the opening up of the UK borders to European Union citizens have changed the nature of migration to the UK.

In 2001, as the following table shows the ethnic make up of the then population of England was-

<b>Ethnic groups as a percentage of the English population</b> (ethnic groups as defined by Office of National Statistics, UK Government)	<b>% of England</b>
White British	86.99
White Other	2.66
Asian	4.57
Mixed	1.31
White Irish	1.27
Black Caribbean	1.14
Black African	0.97
Chinese	0.45
Other	0.44

Source: Office of National Statistics. 2001 Census Online

In 2001 less than 10% of the English population was of what constitutes 'ethnic minority' origin in the UK, with 93% of the population classed as 'white' and 7% from visible ethnic minorities. Changing patterns of migration, alterations to the European Economic Community and the inclusion of several 'new' countries, the fluid nature of the global economy, and other issues may make the figures for the 2011 census somewhat different.

### **Dealing with Diversity**

A growing ethnic minority population brings many benefits and challenges to any education system, and change over time has helped focus policy makers minds on how to 'deal with diversity' and respond to competing demands for resources whilst promoting good community relations, inclusion, tolerance, and civic harmony. For these, and other reasons social inclusion and the promotion of good relations between different communities have been high on all government's agendas over the last twenty to thirty years.

All versions of the National Curriculum for History have signalled the desirability of acknowledging that Britain has been a multicultural country since pre-Roman times, and that the UK is made up of multiple communities and four national majorities: the English, Scottish, Welsh and Irish - both in order to give a balanced account of the past, and also for reasons of social cohesion and as a counter step to growing racism across Europe and xenophobic attitudes and exclusionary politics.

In the most recent versions of the National Curriculum the QCA has set out explicit aims and values for the secondary school curriculum, including the desire to acknowledge and celebrate diversity and promote tolerance,

inclusion and achievement (QCA 2007), with a spotlight being placed on diversity within and across the curriculum in the latest version of the National Curriculum for England.

### **The Achievement Challenge**

Part of the motivation for inclusive history teaching is the considerable body of research which demonstrates that some ethnic minority groups in Britain do well educationally, whilst others are more likely to experience social, economic and education disadvantage compared to members of the ethnic majority or Caucasian communities. (Home Office 2005). Where achievement and the benefits of a stable society are not shared there is a risk of exclusion, alienation and disengagement from the democratic process, and a break down in social cohesion. Gilborn and Gipps (1995) show that many young people in Britain feel excluded from the education system, and in history lessons we would do well to remember Kurstjens (2002:39) reminder that History is usually constructed and written by intellectual and urban male elites, writing from the viewpoint of history's 'winners', and omitting narratives which are discordant with their national or world view.

The Macpherson Report (1999), completed after the notorious mishandling of the Police investigation a racist murder of a bright young man from London's African-Caribbean community, stresses the importance of teaching for inclusion and the promotion of tolerance and mutual understanding, and suggested amending the National Curriculum to require schools to teach about the multiethnic nature of Britain:

'...aimed at valuing cultural diversity and preventing racism, in order better to reflect the needs of a diverse society.'

(Macpherson, 1999, Ch47:Pt 67)

Following on from this the current National Curriculum (DfEE 1999/DCSF 2007) renews its emphasis on social cohesion, instructing that:

'Pupils should be taught... about the social, cultural, religious and ethnic diversity of the societies studied, both in Britain and the wider world.'

(DfEE: 1999:20)

Curriculum policy therefore places a strong emphasis on inclusive, tolerant and multi-ethnic approaches to a study of the past.

Despite this practice has not kept pace with policy: Freeman (2004), writing from the perspective of the national History officer for England at the QCA, indicates that

‘too many schools have yet to adequately tackle issues of diversity through history or to appreciate its relevance to pupils’ lives,’

Smart (2005) shows that mainstream publishers have been relatively slow to respond to these calls, although there has sometimes been a good response from the heritage sector (historic sites, museums, art galleries and other cultural endeavours) to the call for change. While textbooks shape between 75-90% of instructional time (Johnson 1999:115) and teacher/pupil confidence in textbooks remains high (Keele 2001, 2002) there is a danger that history will be mis-represented as a wholly or mainly ‘white’ narrative. History textbooks in England tend to be pedagogically strong, generally well produced and graphically attractive and ‘values neutral’/well intention ed, but fail to include inclusive and more broadly based narratives. They continue to anchor and gallery ethnic minorities to particular historical narratives and a continuing Anglo-centric version of the past. The occasional, almost accidental, presence in textbook images of minorities in Britain cannot be allowed to continue as it is historically incorrect and socially undesirable. As a result, in 2007-2008 the *TEACH Report* on teaching emotive and controversial history was commissioned to look at teacher concerns and reservations, and made recommendations about overcoming these; and the 2008 *Ajegbo Report* continued to call for inclusive narratives and an acknowledgement of the diverse nature of Britain over time. Both conclude that there is much still to do to create fully inclusive history teaching,

### **Conclusions**

The changing nature of society, schooling and Europe will all continue to present challenges for educators. For many teachers, especially those from outside of the conurbations, their contact with ethnic diversity and their awareness of non-European histories and perspectives may be limited, and their confidence restricted. Careful development of teacher subject knowledge and pedagogic skills are required to address any shortfall and to enrich the curriculum, to continue to enable teachers to set the pace in innovation and to address social justice issues.

Other, deeper personal-professional rifts are also possible: teaching about diversity may challenge teachers’ deeply held existing beliefs and also those of their pupils. It can raise sensitive issues in the classroom and be potentially controversial. Traille (2007) shows that sense of identity, self-worth, and of the ethnic ‘*other*’ does take place in the classroom. None the less- we should expect that teaching is challenging, requires exceptional levels of professionalism and deep-seated reflection- teachers shape the future by addressing the past, and they help us understand ourselves and others in equal measure.

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# TEACHING SENSITIVE AND CONTROVERSIAL HISTORY

*Ian Phillips\**

## Introduction

This chapter focuses on possibly a unique aspect of history as a school subject: – subject matter or content which could be described as sensitive or controversial. The focus for these particular ‘histories’ could for example confront pupils with some of the worst examples of inhumanity, in the United Kingdom this often involves teaching about the Holocaust or the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade. Whilst the horror of these episodes of history has an almost universal element of fascination, there is a risk that teaching about the Holocaust or Slavery becomes nothing more than a catalogue of atrocities. Teachers need to be clear about their objectives. Why are they teaching these topics and what do they hope their pupils will gain from lessons about the Holocaust or the Slave Trade.

History can be controversial in other ways and another focus of this chapter explores, from a British perspective, how the diverse and changing nature of society requires history teachers to approach topics such as the Crusades or the history of Islam from a more informed and sympathetic perspective.

Finally the chapter considers the role of the teacher in delivering this sensitive or controversial history. This is more complex and draws from the experience of history teachers working in multi cultural settings and from teachers in Northern Ireland who have worked with the problem of teaching contested and controversial histories.

## Why History Is Different From Other Subjects

One of the greatest problems all history teachers face is trying to prove to others how important or relevant their subject is. It might be seen as less important, other vocational subjects might be thought to be more relevant to working and living in the modern world. Others might see it as a backward looking subject which simply dwells on issues that are either no longer relevant or are perhaps, best forgotten. One thing history teachers have to be

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very good at therefore is being able to justify their role, status and position in the school curriculum. In the UK this is a discussion which history teachers from Universities to Primary Schools are still having. In 2007 the Head of the Curriculum and Qualifications Authority (the government agency concerned with curriculum development) Mick Waters, was trying to 'sell' the new curriculum to teachers, and to the wider world outside education, his vision of a 21<sup>st</sup> century curriculum was one where subjects might be less important but where schools would need to demonstrate that they were preparing children for the new century. He came up with these headlines which outlined what a modern curriculum should do:

- address difficult issues
- affect the person and society
- not shrink from controversy.
- deal with emotions and relationships.
- help young people face fears
- see things from different view points.
- be diverse

Usually this kind of rhetoric is forgotten immediately after it is delivered but these bullet points have become embedded in official documents as part of the overall aims and objectives of the current school curriculum in England. It is possible to take these ideas and turn them into a short paragraph which explains exactly why history deserves its place in a modern curriculum

"History is a subject which can **address difficult issues** which **affect** the individual **person and society** as a whole. History is a subject which should **not shrink from controversy**. Some topics such as the Holocaust or the slave trade **deal with emotions and relationships**. If history is taught well it can **help young people face fears** and develop a more informed and deeper understanding. Significantly history can also help young people to **see things from different view points**. Society today is very different and it is more important than ever before that young people have a real understanding of the **diverse** society we now live in."

Immediately history become a relevant subject. History can focus, legitimately, on controversial issues, it can help young people make sense of a complex and challenging world and equip them with the intellectual tools to examine contradictory points of view in a balanced and dispassionate way. This itself may seem a difficult and a controversial issue, it suggests that the responsibilities of history teachers are more wide ranging than simply helping pupils to understand the events of the past. That somehow their teaching of

particular topics, or the very way that they teach might be considered to be dangerous, partisan and very political. Clearly an important aspect of dealing with emotive or sensitive issues is the role of the teacher but first it might be a good idea to try and define what might be meant by emotive or sensitive or controversial history.

In March 2007 the Historical Association produced a report for the Department for Education and Schools (DfES) with the appropriately enigmatic acronym *TEACH: A Report from The Historical Association on the Challenges and Opportunities for Teaching Emotive and Controversial History* 3–19. (<http://www.dcsf.gov.uk/research/data/uploadfiles/RW100.pdf>)<sup>1</sup> The report is well worth reading and provides a number of case studies which illustrate how history teachers in a range of schools in England tackle some of these issues. The Teach Report's definition of emotive and controversial history is not necessarily comprehensive and takes a very particular perspective.

The study of history can be emotive and controversial where there is actual or perceived unfairness to people by another individual or group in the past. This may also be the case where there are disparities between what is taught in school history, family/community histories and other histories. Such issues and disparities create a strong resonance with students in particular educational settings. (HA, 2007: 3)

Several things become clear on reading the report; it highlights why and how some history might be considered difficult to teach. The report's definition, however, is also limiting, and again this can be picked up in terms of the nature of the historical topics which are the focus of discussion. Issues are emotive and controversial when students are forced to confront brutality, inhumanity and injustice: obvious examples are the Holocaust and the trans-Atlantic slave trade. History becomes emotive and controversial when past events have a resonance with current problems faced by society, such as racism, terrorism and Islamophobia. Some topics, such as the Holocaust or the Atlantic Slave Trade might be challenging because children are forced to confront examples of human brutality and this, understandably can be upsetting and distressing. There are other issues which are less easy to address where the subject matter is controversial because it links to contemporary social problems or challenges contemporary views and ideas. In the UK terrorism has, and still is a difficult and a controversial topic. In the 1980s and 1990s pupils following the Schools History Project GCSE course were able to follow a modern studies unit which examined the historical roots of contemporary issues. Whilst it was possible to study China, or the growth of

the European Union the majority of schools chose more controversial topics: the roots of the Arab – Israeli dispute or the Troubles in N Ireland. With both of these modules, Chris Culpin, the director of the SHP found himself under frequent attack from the right wing press having to defend teaching children about terrorism or for using IRA propaganda.

In recent years the SHP has introduced other history modules which are equally controversial. One course has a very specific focus on Terrorism and enables history teachers, and their pupils to examine in an objective way a topic which has real relevance to the modern world. Despite trying to answer childrens' questions and help them to develop an informed understanding of the nature and causes of terrorism the SHP still finds itself under attack from the same conservative press for filling children's minds with Al Quaida propaganda<sup>2</sup> The criticism directed at the former Director of the Schools History Project, Chris Culpin, is interesting for a number of reasons. The Daily Mail is an influential right wing or conservative newspaper; it has inflexible ideas about what topics should be taught to English pupils in English secondary schools and it is not surprising that British History and British heroes feature strongly. Teaching about al Qaida is seen one level as being unpatriotic but on another level reveals much about the attitudes of the Daily Mail which is convinced that some / most / all history teachers are left wing and probably subversive. It is highly probable that such conservative views of history and of history teachers are typical of many societies, in the UK much of the anger is relatively restrained, in part because 'our' history is relatively uncontested or uncontroversial. We are quite used to revisionist historians challenging national myths as this article demonstrates:

The Battle of Britain was not won by the RAF but by the Royal Navy, military historians have concluded, provoking outrage among the war's surviving fighter Challenging the "myth" that Spitfires and Hurricanes held off the German invaders in 1940, the monthly magazine History Today has concluded that it was the might of the Navy that stood between Britain and Nazi occupation.

Daily Telegraph 24 August 2006<sup>3</sup>

The newspaper article had picked up a story from a respected academic journal History Today which had critically examined the role of the Royal Navy in the period of the Battle of Britain. The article made a good story, there were a number of letters to the paper and then the story disappeared. In other nations where history is still controversial, is still contested the threat to historical objectivity and by implication the threat to the historian's freedom to research to think and to write are threatened as this article demonstrates:

Eminent British historian Orlando Figes yesterday accused the Russian authorities of trying to 'rehabilitate the Stalinist regime' after armed police seized an entire archive last week detailing repression in the Soviet Union. Figes, professor of history at Birkbeck, a London University college, condemned the raid on Memorial, a Russian human rights organisation. He said that the police had also taken material used in his latest book, *The Whisperers*, which details family life in Stalin's Russia.

The Observer 7 December 2008<sup>4</sup>

Even where history is less controversial, where particular standpoints are not contested history teachers are still faced with problems which other subject teachers While mathematics teachers might be expected to demonstrate how and where their Programme of Study might coincidentally, accidentally or in a totally contrived manner address all society' problems, you can see where the difficulties lie for you as history teachers. The TEACH report was accompanied by a short piece in the *Guardian* which best sums up one of the elements identified by the authors of the report as problematic. The article was headlined 'Schools drop Holocaust lessons' and went on to discuss how the sensitivities, or prejudices, of local communities might affect the way that schools dealt with some topics in the history curriculum. A link to this article can be found on the companion website. It would be worth downloading and reading this article as a starting point for your thoughts on this topic

### **Barriers to Teaching: Subject Knowledge and Teacher Confidence**

In the U.K. there are a number of sensitive and controversial subjects which have been part of the curriculum since 2000, however the latest changes to the history curriculum introduced from 2008 have meant that there is far more emphasis on content which might be considered sensitive or controversial, for example the Holocaust, aspects of Islamic history – the Crusades in particular and Black History. In the UK teaching Islamic history is clearly complex and challenging, especially in a post 9/11 world. In some parts of the UK where there is a large Muslim population, teachers might feel uncomfortable or ill prepared to teach about Islam, equally they might feel that they do not want to offend or upset the wider community by teaching about Islam in: 'the wrong way'. Some of these issues were highlighted in *The Teach Report*<sup>5</sup> (Teaching Emotive And Controversial History) published by the Historical Association in 2007. Some newspapers reported the publication of the report which identified some of these problems in the following way: 'Schools drop Holocaust lessons' and explained how the sensitivities, or prejudices, of local communities might affect the way that schools dealt with some topics in the history curriculum. In

these circumstances it is clear that one of the first problems is the confidence of history teachers to tackle such controversial topics.

Instead of simply stating that history teachers should feel confident to teach controversial issues, it might be worth considering what history teachers hope to get out of such teaching controversial issues, or approaching history in a controversial way. The professional journal *Teaching History* devoted an entire edition to the challenges and the opportunities facing teachers who try to teach sensitive or controversial issues. The 'Diversity and Divisions' issue of *Teaching History* is a valuable starting point for exploring some of these issues which focus on the nature and the integrity of the historical enquiry or activity. Teaching Islamic history in the UK can be complex and an article by Nicholas Kinloch<sup>6</sup> contains a timely health warning: 'The understandable attempts – made by many schools in the days and weeks after 11 September – to give students a crash course in Middle Eastern current affairs risked presenting Islam simply as that which opposes and is opposed by, the West' (Kinloch, 2005: 26) In some respects this illustrates both the opportunities that history offers for helping pupils to make sense of their contemporary world. At the same time it demonstrates how simplistic explanations might sometimes raise even more challenges. There are clearly different challenges in different schools. In almost exclusively white areas history teachers could well be faced with challenging stereotypical views which might be Islamophobic, racist or both. In schools with significant numbers of Muslim students the issues might relate to feelings of isolation or persecution. There might also be an issue which was raised in the *Guardian* article, where one school deciding not to teach the Crusades because it conflicted with the view of events presented by a local mosque. This is a challenge and history teachers might rightly feel apprehensive about tackling such a difficult area, but such issues can be taught in a very direct way. From the same *Teaching History* issue, Alison Stephen<sup>7</sup> (2005), who teaches at Abraham Moss School in Manchester, describes how she teaches the Arab–Israeli conflict in Year 11. Abraham Moss School is ethnically very diverse and, significantly, 60 per cent of the school population is Muslim. The department's approach to teaching history emphasizes the importance of the students' own roots and traditions, but also aims to develop their students' understanding of the opinions and beliefs of others (Stephen, 2005: 5). Conventional wisdom might suggest that studying the Arab–Israeli dispute in the current climate is decidedly risky, however, a number of comments by students referred to in Stephen's article provide useful anecdotal evidence: for example;

'the crisis is still going on today ... you need to know the background before talking about it in the future'

and

‘I now feel confident to join in a conversation about the conflict’.  
(Stephen, 2005: 5)

The comments are valuable, demonstrating as they do the ability of good history teaching to empower students, who felt that their history lessons were enabling them to develop their own understanding of issues which had a relevance to them. This article also demonstrates that the perceptions of adults and students can sometimes differ in ways which are unexpected. Conventional wisdom would identify the influx of Jewish immigrants to Palestine in the 1930s as a factor in the rise of hostility between the different communities; however, Alison Stephen’s observation is valuable:

‘I encountered some interesting attitudes. For example, there was shock at the Arab fears about Jewish immigration. Most students saw immigration as a positive thing, and found it hard to understand Arab fears of possible economic or political threats’ (Stephen, 2005: 6).

It might be hard to understand what was going on in these lessons about the Arab–Israeli conflict but perhaps another article in the same issue of *Teaching History* has something to offer in the way of explanations. Over a number of years Alan McCully has been researching the differing attitudes of young people in Northern Ireland to the Troubles. Community history is partisan and Catholic and Protestant communities in N Ireland have very different histories, but it is the attitude to school history which might be relevant to what was happening in a multi-ethnic school in Manchester: The majority of students also demonstrated an awareness that the history they encountered in popular representations, especially in the community, was often partial and fragmented, and frequently politically motivated. In contrast school history was almost universally recognised as different, more comprehensive, objective and multi-perspective. Students valued school history and consciously and explicitly expected it to provide a more balanced alternative to community influences. Particularly they sought formal study that related directly to an increased understanding of contemporary issues. (Kitson and McCully, 2005: 32) The significance of some of these issues will be considered later because there is another side to the equation. Kitson and McCully’s article goes beyond examining students’ opinions and attempts to identify how students have come to express their views in such a forthright way. It is down to teaching – or to a particular kind of teaching. The article identifies a range of attitudes among history teachers which they characterize as avoiders, containers and risk-takers<sup>8</sup> (Table 1.2)

**Table 1.2** The Avoider The Container The Risk Taker (Kitson and McCully 2005)

<b>Avoiders</b>	<b>Containers</b>	<b>Risk-takers</b>
Avoids teaching topics that might be controversial	Controversial issues are taught, but contained through the historical process	Fully embraces the social utility of history teaching
Purpose of teaching history is to make pupils better at history	Pupils not encouraged actively to engage in the root of the controversy	Consciously links past and present
Does not agree that history teachers have a wider contribution to make	Might teach parallel topics that are not too close to home	Seizes opportunities to tackle controversial issues
		Not afraid to push the boundaries

This classification is exceptionally useful if you are considering teaching a controversial topic like Islamic history. You might initially feel that such a topic is difficult to teach or too controversial to tackle but if you read the summary of students' views from Northern Ireland with the ideas in Figure 10.1 you might understand how and why Alison Stephen was able to tackle such a controversial topic in inner-city Manchester.

These issues, real and perceived, are undoubtedly barriers to effective teaching but they are not necessarily insurmountable and in the following discussion it might be useful to consider how some of the points under consideration link to these barriers to effective teaching. Kinloch's article, referred to earlier, begins by considering the wisdom of using Islamic history as a lens to understand current events in the Middle East. The remainder of the article appears to dwell on obstacles which experienced history teachers are likely to encounter. While Kinloch is ultimately optimistic in his exploration of Islamic historiography there is one huge caveat in the discussion which could cast a degree of uncertainty in the minds of teachers about the 'correct' way to approach Islamic history. Western teachers ought to feel confident that they can undertake the teaching of Islamic history; they need only bring to it the same respect that they would bring to any form of historical enquiry, and a willingness to obtain guidance, where necessary, from Muslim authorities as well as Western ones. They need confidence in themselves as teachers; they have the expertise to help their students make sense of this aspect of the past. (Kinloch, 2005: 28) Equally, history teachers might make too much of the perceived difficulties of understanding Islamic historiography and are perhaps either worrying unduly or being oversensitive. History written from different perspectives is important, but this observation by Carole Hillenbrand

is important in restoring a sense of balance: It is vital to avoid viewing Islamic history exclusively from the western perspective. Even Orientalists (have) often been rightly criticised in the past for having a colonialist agenda and for being unable to represent the views of the indigenous peoples of the Middle East. Thus it might be argued that the writing of the Islamic view of the Crusades should be left on the whole to Muslim scholars themselves. This is, of course a reasonable point of view but it is a sad fact that the best Muslim historians have, as it happens, specialised in other areas.<sup>9</sup> (Hillenbrand, 2006: 4)

The alternative perspectives are out there and they are accessible. The other significant barrier to the effective teaching of Islamic history is uncertainty or unfamiliarity with the subject matter itself. There are a number of preconceptions or misconceptions which are worth exploring. One of these is the assumption that Islamic history inevitably means a study of the Crusades. In some schools it is the case that the only Islamic history students might undertake is tangential or coincidental to a study of the Crusades. This without doubt reinforces the idea that the history curriculum is Eurocentric and the emphasis is on the impact of the Western crusading armies on the Muslim inhabitants of the Middle East. Another difficulty is the accessibility of suitable resources. Again this is not an insurmountable problem but the QCA Scheme of Work for the topic is decidedly thin. The suggested activities might be placed firmly in the 'worthy but dull' category.

A new text by Byrom, Counsell and Riley in the Longman Pearson series might provide some useful ideas. The example referred to in the Kinloch article is also useful in that it demonstrates the scope and range of Islamic history: the Ottoman Empire played a significant part in European history certainly from the fifteenth through to the twentieth centuries, but again we tend to view it from a series of Western perspectives, from the Bulgarian atrocities to the 'Sick Man of Europe'. It is quite reasonable to argue that one popular view – a Western interpretation of the Crusades – was a product of a growing antipathy to the Ottoman Empire combined with a romantic Gothic view of the Crusaders. The illustrations of Gustave Doré might be said to typify this mid-nineteenth-century attitude, available on the companion website, [www.sagepub.co.uk/secondary](http://www.sagepub.co.uk/secondary). It is not the purpose of this chapter to offer advice on how to teach particular topics but to help you reflect on issues of principle which ought to influence your approach to teaching. Again it might be useful to revisit the Kitson and McCully article (2005). One key to the effective teaching of controversial topics was the sense of relevance to students and their developing sense of identity but the important factor is the willingness of teachers to be risk-takers. In the context of teaching Islamic history, perhaps the risk comes from challenging perceptions. We also tend to like our history neat and tidy; divided up, compartmentalized. History begins

and ends at determined points; 1485 to 1603 for example. Our histories are also histories of regions and areas. But history is not always well behaved and it is the fuzziness, the blurred edges, which offer opportunities to challenge our preconceptions and the way we might package the history we present to students. A typical history of the Crusades might, then, make assumptions about 'the Holy Land' just as we make assumptions about the Middle East today. It was then, what is now Islamic. The truth is clearly different; Damascus was, and still is, home to one of the oldest Christian communities in the world. Society in the Middle East was very diverse. Muslims, Jews and Christians lived together in a state of reasonable toleration. Even more unusual is the fact that the different Christian churches more or less tolerated each other, but then the Roman Catholics were not represented at the end of the eleventh century. This level of complexity still exists as the following press release, concerning the visit of the Archbishop of Canterbury to the Middle East in October 2007 demonstrates:

"In Syria and Lebanon the Archbishop spent time with other Church leaders, including the Patriarchs of Antioch and All the East for the Greek Orthodox, HB Ignatius IV, the Syrian Orthodox, HH Zakka I, the Maronites, HB Cardinal Sfeir, and the Melkite Greek Catholics, HB Gregorios III, as well as the Armenian Catholicos of Cilicia, HH Aram I. These encounters enabled the Archbishop and those accompanying him, to develop a deeper understanding of the challenges facing these communities."  
([www.archbishopofcanterbury.org/releases/071005a.htm](http://www.archbishopofcanterbury.org/releases/071005a.htm))

## ENDNOTES

- 1 *TEACH: A Report from The Historical Association on the Challenges and Opportunities for Teaching Emotive and Controversial History* 3–19
- 2 <http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-433776/14-year-olds-studying-al-Qaeda-propaganda-school.html>
- 3 <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/1527068/Battle-of-Britain-was-won-at-sea-Discuss.html>
- 4 <http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2008/dec/07/russian-police-seize-archive-repression>
- 5
- 6 Kinloch, N. (2005) 'A need to know: Islamic history and the school curriculum', *Teaching History*, 120: 25–31.
- 7 Stephen, A. (2005) 'Why can't they just live together happily Miss? Unravelling the complexities of the Arab-Israeli conflict at GCSE', *Teaching History*, 120: 5–10.
- 8 Kitson, A. and McCully, A. (2005) "'You hear about it for real in school.' Avoiding, containing and risk-taking in the history classroom', *Teaching History*, 120: 32–7.
- 9 Hillenbrand, C. (2006) *The Crusades: Islamic Perspectives*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

# EDUCATION FOR INCLUSION, AWARENESS AND TOLERANCE: KEY THEMES FOR RELEVANCE AND SIGNIFICANCE

*Joke van der Leeuw-Roord\**

## **The Educational Role of School History**

In 2008 the Dutch Expertise Centre for Public Education wrote on its website ‘Schools have an important role in the transfer of the general values of the rule of law, the democracy and citizenship. Preferably carried out in the existing subjects History and Civics Education’ This sentence brings us right in the heart of the matter as it decides that the history we teach in schools is connected to the upbringing of young people and therefore should not deny its task to address universal values, humanistic dispositions and democratic competencies. I know that for many historians this statement is an uncomfortable truth, as they are afraid for instrumentalisation of the past or even worse for misuse of the past for ideological reasons. Unfortunately history and history education in Europe and beyond offer plenty examples how justified this fear is<sup>1</sup>. However history educators know that they are part of the educational system and that education has to be relevant for young people. In school young people do not study the past to find out what exactly happened, school subject has to start with the basic question about its purpose. History in the school curriculum shares in Europe a vast range of meaningful aims and objectives. The EUROCLIO inquiries of 2003, 2006 and 2009 show that the primary aims for the learning and teaching of history in Europe are everywhere more or less the same: education for democracy and citizenship, making pupil understand the world they live in, enhancing critical thinking skills but also developing a sense of national belonging to the nation state<sup>2</sup>.

## **Responsible Professional Force**

Recognizing that history is a powerful mobilizing force in societies, EUROCLIO, the European Association of History Educators Associations, the organisation I lead, promotes the sound use of history education towards

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building and deepening of democratic societies and therefore tries to *connect across boundaries of countries, ethnicities and religions*. Its members explore together ways to implement these universal values, humanistic dispositions and democratic competencies, in order to give meaning to education for good citizenship and reconciliation. Since its foundation in 1993 EUROCLIO has placed balanced history at the centre of education of responsible national and global citizens, of fostering international understanding, respect and cooperation. The overall aim of EUROCLIO is to promote and support the development of history education so that it strengthens peace, stability, democracy and critical thinking. EUROCLIO strives to shift the history and civics education in Europe towards inclusion of multiple perspectives, innovation, critical thinking.

EUROCLIO affirms that the past does not stop at borders and that history education has a great impact on how people look at the world around them. In the view of EUROCLIO there is a special responsibility for the teaching and learning of history, as history is the most politicised branch in education. School History therefore demands responsible all-rounded professionals and therefore EUROCLIO has been bringing together historians and history educators from Europe together to discuss and practice an all-inclusive study of the past.

EUROCLIO views history as the most structured channel for developing historical awareness of societies, thus contributing to their advancement in a constructive manner. It propagates an approach to history education that reinforces democratic values, competences and dispositions. The subject enhances mutual respect, tolerance and anti-extremist education. It poses questions that initiate debate. To put these ideas into practice, EUROCLIO has since 1993, organized across Europe more than 30 international conferences, hundreds of local seminars and workshops and carried out many long-term projects.

### **Innovative Methodology**

The policy of EUROCLIO complies with the many national and international debates about the purpose of modern history education. The traditional function of school history is regularly questioned since it so often functioned as weapon in struggles within and between nations and states. The Cypriot History education expert Dr Chara Makriyianni, asked in 2007 during the International Conference *Human Rights Education: Lessons from History* in Bled, Slovenia, the Europe wide audience some important questions about the purpose of the school subject<sup>3</sup>. Should history teaching ask students

to comply to an account or to question accounts, to obediently recount the 'official' interpretation or to construct their own interpretations through disciplined argument and debate or to conform to a particular perspective or to come to grips with multi-perspectivity? Should school History teach students how to sympathize or to empathize? History education specialists and history educators in Europe and beyond, will tend more generally to comply with the second options in the sentences, however this does not mean that the majority also practice these attitudes. However politicians and media in most European countries have great difficulties to accept this critical responsibility of school history.

Dr Chara Makriyianni also looked into the tasks of the subject: should school history give knowledge about the past, make students understand what historical thinking means, develop students understanding of roles, responsibilities, rights, opportunities and duties of individuals and groups in past and present societies, enhance students democratic attitudes and skills and promote engagement, action and involvement in society or increase acceptance among students for diversity in society she asked. In this case than within modern history education all requirements should be fulfilled.

The question is in how far these approaches are really implemented in school history. The EUROCLIO Questionnaire 2006 asked the respondents to reflect on the importance of particular concepts and competencies for their curriculum. Develop chronological awareness and able to place events in chronological order came out as the two most important followed by develop understanding of change and continuity and ability to analyze, evaluate and use historical sources in their historical context. However to be able to recall historical knowledge accurately was considered still slightly more important than to distinguish facts from opinions and to assess historical significance and to handle conflicting interpretations. The least importance was given to awareness of the present day historiographical debates

### **Values and Dispositions**

The College for Education South Florida, catches the work of history educators very well when it writes that 'all professions are characterized by the common attributes of shared knowledge, skills, and dispositions'<sup>4</sup>. Teaching is a craft because it reflects both science and art practiced in pursuit of excellence.'... The statement reflects as well the task for the profession, the teacher as well as the student when it writes that 'the basic premise of the Social Science (Education) program is that the student is responsible for demonstrating the knowledge, skills, and disposition'.

This statement points at an important but tricky aspect of social studies and history education as these subjects do not only have to transfer knowledge and skills but also have to transmit certain values and to develop special dispositions among their students, which are beneficial for society<sup>5</sup>. The subjects social studies and history have as no other subjects a direct relation with politics, ideology and the needs of present day societies. The concerns which regularly determine debates about new history curricula are issues such as *globalisation, devolution, the decreasing sense of national identity, the growing role of the international Islam and the lack of integration of minority communities*.

In the last years these subjects were in Europe related with a many fold of societal objectives. In the Former communist countries *Education for Democracy* came high on the agenda<sup>6</sup>. Many countries in Western Europe, with large migration, such as France, Great Britain and the Netherlands the subjects had suddenly to understand their role in *Community Cohesion, Appreciation of Diversity and Building Tolerance*.<sup>7</sup> In the post conflict areas such as Bosnia, Georgia and Macedonia *Reconciliation and Appreciation of Diversity* are placed high on the agenda. In almost all European countries addressing equality, human rights, gender and sustainable development and environment have entered the school curricula, and have also, like in Turkey, given special tasks for the social studies and history curricula. However it might be questioned if these concerns of European politicians are also educators concerns and how comfortable history educators are with these demands, or even better how often they are consulted if they are willing and able to transmit such values and to develop these particular dispositions<sup>8</sup>. The EUROCLIO questionnaire in 2009 revealed that the influence of history teachers in Europe on these decisions is rather small<sup>9</sup>. And the question if the present competence of educators and the quality of existing teaching materials are appropriate to achieve these goals is hardly posed let alone answered.

The EUROCLIO method concludes that history and history teaching are confronted with a manifold of human values, attitudes and dispositions. Talking with young generations about the past therefore means addressing positive issues like democracy, tolerance, respect for human rights, mutual understanding, solidarity, freedom, courage, equal opportunities, responsibility but also love and friendship. However it can also not avoid reflecting on negative concepts such as stereotyping, prejudice, bias, xenophobia, racism, violence. The organisation worked with partner organisations in several national and regional projects to develop supportive teaching strategies and materials to address these issues.<sup>10</sup> In history there is a wide variety of events, processes and phenomena, which address citizenship and *Civil Responsibility* and the organisation recognises a vital role for history educators to develop

among young people this sense of civil responsibility and a passion for active involvement in society<sup>11</sup>.

### Exclusive History

Teaching European history appears to be very exclusive. Within the national history, the perspective of the national majority group is dominant in history education. Martin notices in his article *European history and French old habits* that for France 'it would be absolutely impossible to imagine a curriculum, which would be dedicated to the teaching of the history of Brittany or the Basque country'<sup>12</sup>. At the same time he says, 'there is no place for Jews in Europe before the genocide during World War II. But even women or gender history do not play a role; French history education is national French political history'. Some countries, like Britain are still very much struggling with the task to develop a curriculum where the historical world is bigger as well as smaller than the nation state. Jones points out in her contribution *Sharing the bed with an elephant: teaching history in Wales* that this task is quite a pressing challenge for Britain, where the history, culture and language of England has for centuries dominated the other countries of the British Isles<sup>13</sup>. However the EUROCLIO Conference in 2004 in Cardiff showed that the history curriculum in Wales itself had great difficulty to liaise itself to a bigger issue, the other Britain let alone Europe hardly existed.<sup>14</sup> The school history is still focusing on many important men representing the majority culture, very few women and no minority communities<sup>15</sup>.

In some countries like Rumania and Latvia A separate curriculum subject the history of minorities is introduced. Such approach does not really contribute to inclusive learning, as it does not reinforce the learning about each other and the history and culture of the majority group is the only school history for the majority. However such separate *history of minorities* subject in Rumania acknowledges at least diversity in the learning and teaching of history. In Latvia the new flexible curriculum likewise offers opportunities to study the history of the ethnic origins in Russian, Polish, Lithuanian, Ukrainian, Estonian, and Byelorussian speaking schools.

In England the starting point for planning a school curriculum has become the requirement that it meets the specific needs of new arrivals and that it 'establish pupils' entitlement 'irrespective of social background, culture, race, gender, differences in ability and disabilities'.<sup>16</sup> Within the History curriculum it is required to 'provide opportunities for pupils newly arrived in England to develop a stronger sense of their own identity and their place in the world. It can help them to make sense of how the past has impacted

on the present both at a personal level and in the sense of how the place they now live has developed. History can also help new arrivals to England develop a greater understanding of culture, institutions and the history of England'. The present curriculum guidance 'shows how teachers can modify, as necessary, the national curriculum programmes of study to provide pupils with relevant and appropriately challenging work at each key stage'.<sup>17</sup> On the website of QCA there is a variety of guidelines and activities as examples of good practice<sup>18</sup>.

The EUROCLIO method points out that School history should aim at *mutual inclusiveness*, bridging gaps, taking into account differences between sexes and ages, between ethnic, linguistic and religious identities, between rich and poor, between urban and rural communities and between diverging world-views in society<sup>19</sup>. This interpretation of inclusion goes much wider than the traditional approach as it comprises not only ethnic and religious communities but also age, gender and points of view. Several EUROCLIO projects in Albania, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Macedonia, Russia, Serbia and Ukraine have addressed these issues<sup>20</sup>.

However good source material appropriate for classroom practice on minority communities is difficult to acquire and history education often falls short of high quality academic studies related to minority history. How difficult this problem of absence of sources is sometimes to solve demonstrates the following example. In the project *Fostering History and Citizenship Education in Romania* the project management asked an expert from Yat Vashem in Israel to stimulate the project participants to include Romanian/Jewish historical sources in their textbook under development. To the dismay of the audience, the expert only brought materials from Poland. Even in this well supplied Israeli resource centre, the requested resources were not always easy accessible.

And therefore, despite all good intentions, in the Ukrainian textbook *Ukraine 1901-1938, The Period seen through the Eyes of an Individual*, the history of the large Jewish population of that period in Ukraine was hardly mentioned<sup>21</sup>. The history of the Roma population, a people living in almost all Central and Eastern European countries, is almost absent in any history textbook or publication. An exception was the EUROCLIO Teacher Resource Book *Change and Continuity in Everyday Life in Albania, Bulgaria and Macedonia 1945-2000*<sup>22</sup>. Each of the participating countries had the task to present the minority communities within their countries. This was a certainly a sensitive issue, as their governments, and especially the Bulgarian one, have difficulties to acknowledge minority status for certain population groups. But with one

exception related to the Macedonian community in Bulgaria, all minority communities found their place.

Inclusive history education means that on a national level, in Europe and beyond, working with *multiperspectivity* and *multiple narratives* are indispensable. This approach is for the young people's study and understanding of the past fundamental as it offers insights in the representations of different and opposite players, addresses different reconstructions and alternative interpretations and deals with conclusions we can draw from the respective experience in the past for the present. Obviously, we may therefore derive different images of the same past<sup>23</sup>. The keyword here becomes *Complexity*, as such accounts of the past become complex, based on multi layered narratives and interpretations. This leads of course that history education cannot avoid *Controversy* and *Sensitivity*, which should be addressed with diligence and confidence, without denial or omission of certain facts. However wide European and beyond evidence shows how difficult these topics are for politicians and historians, and even more for school history. The section history in the news on the EUROCLIO website gives evidence how on an almost daily basis societies struggle with controversial pasts. Many of these topics are related to big issues, which address fundamental moral questions such as the holocaust, crimes against humanity, genocide, discrimination, colonialism, slavery, collaboration and equality. There is not one European country, where not at least one of these issues is agonizingly impacting discussions about the past. To my opinion teaching inclusion means that it will not always be able to show a common past to all students, however it can help pupils understand the common reality of the present and at it best to prepare them for a common/shared destiny.

### **Gender**

A specific element of inclusion in history is the focus on diversity in role of women and men. Women are absent in the regular curricula and textbooks. The EUROCLIO Questionnaires of 2003, 2004 and 2005 had questions related to gender in school history. And the results showed that gender is still an underdeveloped aspect. The concept gender came out in 2003 as the least growing approach of school history since 1989<sup>24</sup>. In 2004 and 2005 the inquiry showed the women and gender history was assessed as the least important topic for teaching with a European dimension < 7%<sup>25</sup>. Just to compare democracy and human rights had scores of more than 25%<sup>26</sup>. In the Netherlands the newly introduced canon of Dutch history and culture, mentioned explicitly 4 women against 16 men<sup>27</sup>. And even the newly, jointly published experimental French/German school textbook on the History of

Europe and the World since, which has been designed for common use in upper secondary education in both countries, has not been able to avoid this lack of gender outlook on the past<sup>28</sup>. Only two women feature in the biographies of important persons since 1945: Angela Merkel and Margaret Thatcher. The French authors were not able to come forward with one female compatriot outstanding enough to be especially mentioned in this part of the book. EUROCLIO targets on better representation of women. The change of spotlight from hardcore political and military history to a more multi-dimensional approach facilitates the inclusion of alternative narratives. The Ukrainian textbook *Ukraine 1901-1938, The Period seen through the Eyes of an Individual* included to the publishers surprise so many examples of gender perspectives that he immediately concluded that the book was written by female authors. A conclusion that proved to be totally false, as all authors were in fact men- due to not having a balanced author team- an oversight when the group was formed<sup>29</sup>.

### **New Turkish Curricula**

The new Turkish social studies curriculum has also complied to the described approaches for transmitting values and developing responsible dispositions, as it writes for instance in unit: *I am Learning Social Sciences*, objective 5 that students defend that solutions that envisaged to deal with a problem should be based on the rights, responsibilities and liberties and in Objective 6 that students will be aware that Social studies contribute to be an active citizen of the Turkish Republic. In the unit: *Power, Administration and the Society* the objective 3 says that students would argue that people have right to live, protection of body, freedom of religion and freedom of thinking in democratic societies. And finally in the unit *Global Connections*, objective 4 states that based on historical documents, students analyse the development process of human rights and 5 that students should interpret the cases illustrating the position of women in the Turkish history in relation to development of women rights. In the same unit it is required that students should be developed to have responsibility in protecting and developing cultural heritage and that students gain understanding of the importance of cooperation between countries concerning natural hazards and environmental problems.

The general aims of history as subject also reflect the moral obligations of the subject. Aim 12 asks to make students aware of the importance of the basic values such as Peace, Tolerance, Mutual Understanding, Democracy and Human rights and make them be sensitive to protect and develop those

values. And 14 even gives the task to make students gain the values of hard working, scientific thinking, art loving and aesthetic by doing historical research on concrete or non-concrete heritage of culture and civilizations. The basic approach of history curriculum requests as point 7 the development of students in terms of spiritual, ethical, social and cultural aspects, in 8 to educate students as individuals who knows their rights and use them at the same time who knows their responsibilities and in 9 to make students be sensitive against social problems.

In the last year of history education the special aims of modern world and Turkish history subject require teachers to take care that students will be 'able to analyse the complexities and multiple dimension of political, social, cultural and economic events in a global world and to improve the students 'skills, which are necessary to meet the developing and changing needs of the 21st century and to have vision to make healthy comments/develop ideas about the future' and for Modern Turkish and World History in the unit : Globalising World, objective 10 states that students should learn to 'understand the problems that emerge as a result of developments in the world and the need for finding solutions to those problems'.

However stating all these requirements in a curriculum is only the beginning, the implementation process is a much more demanding process. In most European countries the effects of curriculum changes for the financial and human resources are grossly underestimated. As a result reform implementation programmes have generally not achieved the expected results, and a lot of blame was put on teachers not willing to change<sup>30</sup>.

### **Historical Significance**

In the last years Historical Significance has become a key issue for school history. Peter Seixas wrote already in 1994 in *Students' Understanding of Historical Significance* that "[a] historical phenomenon becomes significant if and only if members of a contemporary community can draw relationships between it and other historical phenomena and ultimately to themselves" The crucial question he then poses is "Which phenomena do students see as significant?"<sup>31</sup>. Unfortunately there is too little academic research is carried out to have wide insight in the answers to this question. Seixas has himself carried out a very small study, based on fourteen tenth grade students attending a middle class school in Canada. Von Borries in Germany has looked into these questions for Europe and about Europe and also the Dutch Maria Grever carried out research among Dutch national and migrant students about their historical interest. Their results give evidence of various issues. Seixas

research revealed that students choose topics where large number of people that were affected by each and the long-term effects of these events today. Von Borries outcomes showed a particular interest of young people for modern/contemporary history<sup>32</sup>. This conclusion was also confirmed by Grever. However she also concluded that..<sup>33</sup> The volume 125 of *Teaching History* gives a variety of explanations and suggestions on historical significance as does the QCA Explanatory note<sup>34</sup>.

### **New Curriculum Thinking**

The above mentioned manifold new requirements for innovative school history education and the issue of significance, have impacted curriculum thinking. The Council of Europe project *Teaching about European Twentieth Century History*, commissioned Dr Robert Stradling to publish a handbook about this topic.<sup>35</sup> For this publication he used experience he had acquired in his work as senior consultant for history for the Council of Europe and impute from the expertise networks of the Council of Europe and EUROCLIO. One of the issues which was at length discussed, was how to translate new curriculum requirements in a more engaging curriculum model. Bearing in mind the students preference for modern history, this example presenting the traditional programme of study on the history of the Twentieth Century, as it is taught in many European countries against an alternative list of themes<sup>36</sup>.

<b>Traditional Themes 20th Century history</b>	<b>Innovative Themes 20<sup>th</sup> Century history</b>
Origins of the First World War	Technological and scientific developments
World War I	Social change in the lives of ordinary people
Russian Revolution	Changing roles of women in society
The re-structuring of Europe in 1918	The emergence of mass culture and youth culture
The rise of Totalitarianism: Communism, Nationalism Socialism and Fascism	The distinctive cultural and artistic movements
Economic Depression	Industrialisation and the emergence of post-industrial societies
The collapse of International Peace	Urbanisation
World War II: the People's War	Transport and communications
Re-structuring Europe in 1945	Population movements
The Cold War era: NATO and the Warsaw Pact	The changing situation of national and other minorities in Europe

De-colonisation	Conflict and cooperation
Post-1945 political and economic co-operation	Nationalist movements
The European Community	Totalitarianism and Liberal Democracy
Glasnost and Perestroika	Human Rights
The break-up of the Soviet Union	
The emerging independent democracies of central and eastern Europe	

In the new list of themes, developed in 2008 there is, as you can see, space for all traditional topics; however these topics are placed in a broader perspective, addressing new curriculum thinking. However this list also shows how fast curriculum/textbook choices become (out) dated<sup>37</sup>. In 2009 themes such as environmentalism and energy dependency, the rise in global communication, globalisation and the ascend of Islam self-awareness should be inserted.

In 2009 not only the traditional choice of topics is outdated but also the dominant focus on textbooks. There is a clear request the creation of flexible and interactive multimedia tools respecting diversity and addressing history in a multi-perspective manner. In order to achieve such an idea on a European level EUROCLIO has mid 2009 acquired the 3 year project *Exploring European History and Heritage. Helping Educators in Secondary Schools to Teach about European History and Heritage from Multiple Perspectives*. In this project it will develop, test and implement an online tool to learn about European history and heritage, tailor made for use in secondary education. The tool will consist of a freely accessible data-base with educational material that is searchable by theme, period and location and is presented in teaching units for one lesson. The material will be designed in such a way, that it is complementary to the history, heritage and geography education curricula and motivates a new generation to learn about Europe. Unique about the tool will be the option to make inter and intra state comparisons and see European history and heritage from multiple perspectives. The themes for the units are 'Turning Points in European History', 'Colonialism', 'Industry and mentality', 'Migration', 'Globalization', and 'Daily Life'.

This new pan-European challenge is targeting exactly the sort of themes which allow furthering the work on history Education for Inclusion and diversity. The new Turkish social studies and history curricula offer plenty

of opportunities to actively implement this new comparative tool. The educational materials, based on innovative methodology which are foreseen in the new EUROCLIO project *A Key to Europe, Innovative Methodology in Turkish School History* will also hopefully find their way to this new way of addressing the European past. I hope that Turkish history educators are seeking this opportunity as a next step into the European integration.

### **Conclusion**

History education in Europe and beyond is also in 2009 firmly related to educational and political agenda. The current priorities stated are related to issues of inclusion, diversity, human rights and environment and sustainable development. History education in Europe through new content choice as well as through innovative methodology clearly reflects these priorities. However Gender issues still do not have the attention it should have, neither among politicians nor among history curriculum designers, textbook authors, and teachers.

## ENDNOTES

- 1 Antoon de Baets, *Responsible History*(2009) Balkan books, Oil and Fire etc
- 2 The EUROCLIO website contains the major results of the EURCOIO questionnaires since 1998 as PowerPoint presentations in graphs and maps has [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com\\_docman/Itemid,402/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com_docman/Itemid,402/)
- 3 Her full presentation in Bled on: [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com\\_docman/Itemid,402/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com_docman/Itemid,402/)
- 4 Unit: Individual and the Society: College for Education South Florida; <http://www.coedu.usf.edu/main/departments/seced/SocialS/SSEhome.html>
- 5 EUROCLIO questionnaire in 2009 lists the current priorities [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com\\_docman/Itemid,402/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com_docman/Itemid,402/)
- 6 Boytsov *History for Today and Tomorrow*, Georg Eckert Examples;For past EUROCLIO projects with focus on these topics [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com\\_docman/Itemid,241/vb](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com_docman/Itemid,241/vb)
- 7 *The Future of Britishness*: Speech by Gordon Brown to the Fabian Society: January 14 2006. Fabian Society Press Release; Canon and National Museum for History debates in the Netherlands.
- 8 James Fitzgerald, *History in the Curriculum: Debate on Aims and Values* (1983) <http://www.jstor.org/pss/2505217>;
- 9 [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com\\_docman/Itemid,402/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com_docman/Itemid,402/)
- 10 vb
- 11 Weer euroclio method
- 12 Martin in *European history and French old habits () in* Joke van der Leeuw-Roord, (ed) *History for Today and Tomorrow. What does Europe mean for school history?* The second volume of the series *Shaping European History* (Germany 2001)
- 13 Jones in *Sharing the bed with an elephant: teaching history in Wales ()*Martin in *European history and French old habits () in History for Today and Tomorrow*
- 14 bulletin Wales
- 15 Jan Bank en Piet de Rooy, 'Een canon van het Nederlandse verleden. Wat iedereen móet weten van de vaderlandse geschiedenis', NRC Handelsblad, 30 oktober 2004 gave a clear example of this approach, but also the Dutch curriculum for upper secondary Education, designed in 2001, shows similar tendencies.
- 16 The QCA website gives interesting suggestions related to the concept inclusion [http://www.qca.org.uk/qca\\_7277.aspx](http://www.qca.org.uk/qca_7277.aspx)
- 17 [http://www.qca.org.uk/qca\\_7341.aspx](http://www.qca.org.uk/qca_7341.aspx)
- 18 [http://www.qca.org.uk/qca\\_7964.aspx](http://www.qca.org.uk/qca_7964.aspx)
- 19 vb
- 20 Euroclio In the second projects in Estonia, Latvia, Macedonia and Russia inclusion became the particular focus of these projects, just as in the newly acquired EUROCLIO project *European Dialogues, a Cultural Rainbow for the Future* with Bulgaria.
- 21 [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com\\_docman/Itemid,241/gid,173/task,cat\\_view/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com_docman/Itemid,241/gid,173/task,cat_view/)

- 22 <http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/Publications/Teaching-Materials/>
- 23 Euroclio methodology
- 24 History Changes, (27)
- 25
- 26
- 27 <http://entoen.nu/informatie.aspx?id=10>
- 28 Histoire/Geschichte, Europa und die welt seit 1945. Leipzig (2006). See: [www.histoiregeschichte.com](http://www.histoiregeschichte.com).
- 29 1. Learning by Experience: 15 Years of EUROCLIO Joke van der Leeuw-Roord, EUROCLIO Executive Director and Clio Stronk, EUROCLIO staff member [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index2.php?option=com\\_docman&task=doc\\_view&gid=76&Itemid=401](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index2.php?option=com_docman&task=doc_view&gid=76&Itemid=401)
- 30 vb
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- 35 Stradling, R. (2001) *Teaching 20th-century European History*, Strasbourg
- 36 Stradling, R. ibidem (22) [http://www.coe.int/T/E/Cultural Co-operation/education/History Teaching/](http://www.coe.int/T/E/Cultural%20Co-operation/education/History%20Teaching/)
- 37 Joke en anderen in standards book

# A BALANCING ACT: BLENDING LOCAL, REGIONAL, NATIONAL, EUROPEAN AND GLOBAL CONTEXTS

*Penelope Harnett\**

## Introduction

On Wednesday 24th April 1963 a young Jamaican, living in Bristol called Guy Reid Bailey was eagerly awaiting a job interview with Bristol Omnibus Company (BOC). His youth worker, Paul Stephenson who was also black, had rung up the BOC earlier to confirm that Guy had the correct qualifications and arranged the interview for him. But Paul wanted to know whether the fact that Guy was black would make any difference to his employment prospects, so he rang the BOC again to tell them that Guy was from Jamaica. The BOC promptly cancelled the interview. BOC would not employ black staff on the buses. The cancellation was widely publicized in the local and national press. A boycott of Bristol buses was organized; white Bristolians, members of the African- Caribbean community, students and others walked or chose other forms of transport to travel across the city. Protest marches were held and local and national politicians became involved. Negotiations continued with the BOC and in August 1963 the company BOC finally agreed to employ black staff. Raghbir Singh was the first coloured conductor appointed in September (Bristol City Council: 2007).

This story may be looked at from a variety of perspectives. It is the personal story of a young man wanting employment; the story of how people in a city took a stand against racial discrimination. It contrasts with the experiences of black people elsewhere in the UK at that time where in cities such as Birmingham and London, they regularly found employment on the buses. The story is also the story of one individual who like many others at the time was experiencing discrimination and whose experiences were finding voice in anti discrimination movements across the world, including the civil rights movements in the US.

A brief incident in one man's life – but within this story the relationship between local, regional, national and global history is all clearly exemplified.

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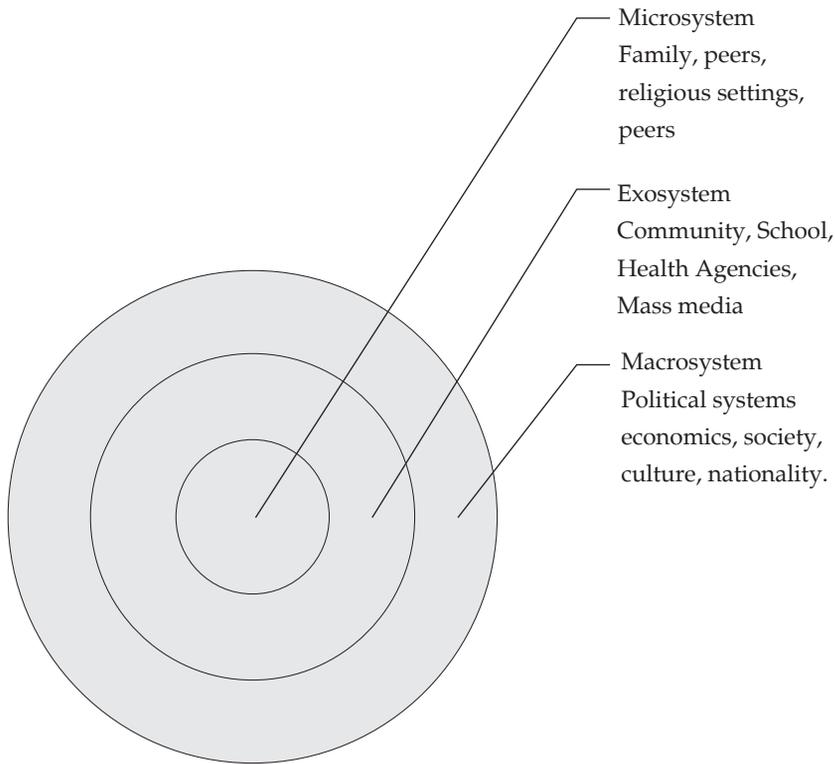
In terms of history, this incident provides the historian with opportunities to 'contextualize, to generalize and to particularize simultaneously' (Ethington 2007:469) and as this is undertaken, a fuller understanding of the event and the past is generated. In this way, a single event occurring over a several months may be contextualized within a larger time span, encompassing different areas of the world.

### **Why is a range of contexts important?**

In this chapter it is argued that consideration of a range of contexts is vital for preparing children to be citizens in the twenty first century in an increasingly globalised world. Global access to the internet and the increasing use of mobile phones opens up a range of possibilities for action and also infinite sources of knowledge and information. Children and young people are presented with a bewildering amount of information and history may provide opportunities to develop children's thinking and analytical skills to question what they see. It is important that we take a critical look at how the world is represented to our children in schools and encourage children to challenge some of the stereotypes presented to them in the media. In terms of history, this may be in analyzing films – the characterization of native Americans in cowboy and Indians films or asking children who was discovering whom in the voyages of 'discovery' of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

It is important for children to interrogate a variety of different perspectives. In encouraging children to move out beyond their familiar experiences, opportunities arise to challenge taken for granted assumptions about the world. Children learn to position themselves within wider contexts and also to see networks of interdependencies with others. Through learning about different people and different pasts, children may become more aware of social diversity and through this awareness may be encouraged to respect different beliefs and values. Utilising a breadth of examples from history throughout the world provides opportunities to reflect on how past societies have resolved conflict and to consider possible solutions for the present (DfEE, 2000).

The developmental psychologist Bronfenbrenner expresses the networks established between child, family and the wider community within his Ecological Systems Theory which may also provide a useful lens for viewing the inter-relationship between different historical contexts. As illustrated in the diagram below the 'layers' of concentric circles represent the different communities which children engage with and which open up more widely as they grow older and have more experience of the world.



**Figure 1** – Ecological Systems Theory adapted from Bronfenbrenner: 1979

Bronfenbrenner argues that, 'development never takes place in a vacuum; it is always embedded and expressed through behaviour in a particular environmental context' (Bronfenbrenner 1979: 27). He explains that development occurs as the 'growing person acquires a more extended differentiated, and valid conception of the ecological environment'. In terms of history education, we might see these layers as representing children's developing understanding of different historical contexts and the acquisition of a breadth of historical knowledge.

There is thus a good rationale for incorporating a range of historical contexts to enrich children's understanding of history. However, as the title implies – it is a question of balance – to what extent should these different contexts be included within the curriculum?

### **How does policy support a range of contexts?**

Recognition of the importance of interrogating a range of historical dimensions is evident in different official policy documents. For example,

the English history national curriculum for Key Stage 2 (children aged 7-11 years) was predicated on learning local, national, European and world history through the statutory requirements to teach particular units of study. This has been the practice in English schools for nearly the past twenty years – with Ancient Greece being the European unit adopted and Ancient Egypt the most popular world civilization selected from a choice which includes the Indus Valley, the Maya, the Aztecs, Benin, Ancient Sumer and the Assyrian Empire. Within the British history study units there is a requirement for children to learn the histories of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. However, fulfillment of this requirement has been limited (DfEE, 1999). There are fewer resources which focus on the Scottish, Welsh and Irish perspectives, although recent resources from the Ireland in Schools project illustrating the networks of relationships between England and Ireland and their mutual interdependency are beginning to be used more widely in English schools (<http://issresource.org>)

There are similar challenges in studying British history at Key Stage 3 (11-14 years). Different aspects of British, European and world history are identified with the programme of study and the importance of linking local with regional, national and global history illustrated. For example, the study of the development of trade, colonization, industrialization and technology and the British Empire includes the effects on the UK and also a ‘focus on the British Empire and its effect both on Britain and on the regions it colonized, as well as its legacy in the contemporary world (eg. in Africa, the Middle East and India) (QCA 2008: 6).

There is no separate local history unit in the Turkish history and social studies curriculum but in different part of the Turkish curriculum policy makers ask teachers to use local historical sources in their classes. For instance in the explanations section of the New Social Studies and History Curriculum, teachers are asked to organize visits to museums, historic places, monuments and ruins around the school (MEB, 2005 and 2007). The curriculum expects that after those visits students will be able to imagine about past events. The official documents consider local historic places as useful tools for creative studies and active student learning. The curriculum also emphasised that the historic ruins and monuments are important not only as a historic document but also they are important national sources/values/assets and students should learn that it is a national duty to preserve and protect them. In the curriculum there is no clear implication that the local history has global connections. The official documents generally reflect the idea of seeing local history only as an illustration of national history (Aktekin, 2004).

The Council of Europe has instigated a number of projects to promote studying history in diverse contexts and through multi-perspective approaches in the past decade. *Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the twentieth century* focuses on understanding forces, movements and events which shaped the twentieth history to enable children to understand contemporary Europe. Encouragement to adopt a comparative perspective and set events from individual countries into a broader European and global context is promoted in *The European Dimension in history teaching*. Finally the project entitled, 'The image of the other' is designed to promote approaches to teaching and learning history that reflect the cultural and religious diversity of European society. [www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/historyteaching/Projects](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/historyteaching/Projects))

### **Beginning with myself and my family**

In England there is a popular television programme entitled, Who do you think you are? Where well known celebrities trace their families' histories. It can involve celebrities traveling across the UK and beyond, to other countries and continents as they seek to find their roots. The popularity of this programme is evident of the interest which most people have in knowing something of their families' pasts. From an early age children are interested in listening to stories about themselves. 'Tell me what I did when I was little' are frequent requests from young children and so parents and friends begin to construct stories about their earlier lives. As these stories are repeated, they begin to acquire some reality and status of their own, so that they become part of the accepted history of the child within the family. Narratives which people construct about themselves and their families are described by Bruner as 'longitudinal versions of Self' where narrators not only recount stories but also seek to justify and explain them within a wider context (1990: 120-121).

Consequently storying about oneself and one's family can provide a stimulus for exploring different historical contexts and for very young children serve as starting points for developing their awareness of the past. For very young children the past is generally undifferentiated; 'once upon a time stories' are stories which do not happen now – but they may be far back in time with the dinosaurs or in more recent times in learning about their grandparents' experiences. However, what is important for young children is the realization that they also have a past; that their lives have changed in many ways since they were born (Cooper: 2002) Looking at baby clothes and artifacts provides opportunities to talk about changes in their own lives and also to explain how these changes have occurred and what their consequences are. So a child recalling being pushed around in her pram may identify how her body has become bigger and stronger which enables her to walk and run and now engage in a much greater range of activities.

As young children talk about their earlier life they begin to appreciate their own unique identity as well as those things which they share in common with other children in their class and community. Appreciation of different life styles and values is developed as they compare and contrast experiences; for example – all children may celebrate their birthdays but do they all celebrate in the same way? Children may have different favourite toys; grandparents and family members living in different parts of the country and the world. The theme of family and community provides a fundamental way for very young children to begin to develop their historical understanding and their place with a variety of contexts.

Family histories offer opportunities for linking different places across time and also for exploring key concepts such as identity, human rights and an understanding of diversity and different beliefs and values. Claire (2005) analyses timelines created by students which illustrate how family histories were affected by overarching events such as the World Wars, patterns of migration, economic development and participation in social movements. She cites examples such as Isabel who was able to record her background 'from slavery in Trinidad to primary teacher in England in 300 years', and Greg whose 'family was affected by the Irish famine, who has Pakistani, Guyanan, Portuguese ancestry as well as white English'. Greg had connections with both Islam and Christianity which he claimed, 'gave him greater respect and tolerance' and he was 'also aware personally of the way the Welfare State impacted on lives'. These instances reveal how individual histories may provide insights into wider historical themes and also how the 'present is always there in everyone's past'. Claire concludes that such histories may contribute towards a greater sensitivity to others' history and experiences and rejection of stereotypes (Claire 2005; 16-17).

### **What can we learn from the local environment?**

The locality provides a rich source for historical study although its value has often been underrated with school curricula focusing on national and international histories. Evidence of the past and former ways of life may be found in streets, different buildings, memorials and monuments, landscapes and cityscapes. It is all readily accessible and available for study. The locality has been shaped by different people, communities and events. Studying local history enables us to question our environment and to develop our own understandings of the locality and the everyday places which we see. It provides opportunities for field work and enquiry based approaches to learning history and is an area which engages children's interests. Different approaches may include: studying development/change over a long period of time;

or a more in-depth analysis over a limited time span. On the other hand enquiries may also investigate local communities' involvement in a particular event, probably of national consequence, or exemplify developments which have had wider impact, such as the example cited at the beginning of this chapter.

Local history provides opportunities for learning outside the classroom; visiting museums and historic buildings or through walking a trail along particular streets and pathways and observing different features within the environment. It enables children to utilize a range of sources of information in their locality, to synthesise them and to draw some conclusions about their locality's past. Research for *Every Experience Matters* indicates that learning experiences outside the classroom are often the most memorable for young people and may benefit children's learning; emotional well-being; physical experiences and promote positive responses to their environment ( Malone: 2008). Well planned historical field work may therefore make an important contribution to children's learning,

### **Local history and community learning**

For children, studying local history may promote opportunities to involve all members of the family in their learning. Children can re-visit places in the locality which they have visited or learned about at school with members of their family, and family members and older members of the community may provide additional sources of information for their work. Wedgwood (2009: 286) puts the case strongly for local history as she describes the development of community museums in redundant cotton mill villages in North Carolina, USA. 'Smaller local histories and rivalries may be of more importance to people's self image than larger national events. The big events are learned about at school, at one remove, but the small events are part of our own ancestors' daily lives: they happened to *my* family and I have ownership of that – which immediately gives me some control and empowerment. People may need the comfort of small, localized identities'.

Studying local and regional history may help to explain the everyday histories which surround children and this may be of particular importance in regions which have experienced recent conflict. Barton and McCully (2005) discuss how children in Northern Ireland looked to schools and history textbooks to provide them with an understanding of national history and alternative perspectives on the recent past to the stories told them by their families and by members of their local communities. They also note however, that children draw selectively on the formal curriculum within

school to support their developing identification with the histories of their communities.

### **Local history and the wider content**

Local history also provides opportunities to explore in more depth historical events, and large scale trends and developments. For example, Brown and Woodcock (2009:5) use enquiries linked to a local war memorial to encourage children to think critically on 'how far does the local experience support claims for WW1 being the 'Great War'? Studying the life of the Victorian engineer, Brunel may act as a starting point for investigating the effects of nineteenth century industrialization and improved communications on people's lives (Harnett: 2004).

Local history reflects developments both within and beyond the locality. Industrialisation and the growth of big cities in the nineteenth century required the provision of raw materials which linked factories with places across the world. Similarly in seeking markets for their goods, industrialists shipped their manufactured goods to all corners of the globe. There was a steady movement of goods across the world. One example of how trade impacted on local, national and global history may be seen in the development of the trade in enslaved Africans; manufactured goods sent from England were traded for people in West Africa; ships were built and fitted out to engage in the trade; the transport of people across the Atlantic and their sale provided profits which could be invested in estates in the Caribbean; further profits from the export of Caribbean sugar and rum to England enriched English business communities and provided capital for future investments. It was a market operating on a global scale; livelihoods were dependent on it and fortunes made. At each stage of the trade, there are individual stories and experiences which effected the locality and local communities.

As people travelled around the world, so they brought back souvenirs and mementoes of their travels. English gardens blossomed in the nineteenth century with the cultivation of new plants sent back from different parts of the world; furniture, household ornaments and architecture were all influenced by contacts with different cultures and ways of life.

Researching who lived in the locality over a period of time may also provide opportunities for studying national and global links. Movements of people to and within the locality can be traced in the United Kingdom through census data taken every ten years, which amongst other data also record people's place of birth [www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/census](http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/census) Alternatively, websites such as [www.movinghere.org.uk](http://www.movinghere.org.uk) provides stories of people who have settled in various communities within the UK.

### Challenges in teaching national histories

Creating the balance between studying national and other histories remains a challenge. The extent to which national history should be studied has been hotly contested in England ( Phillips: 1998 ) and recent policy in England is tending to view the role of history as contributing towards social cohesion and a recognition of a diverse but shared culture (DfES:2007 ). Recommendations from the *Curriculum Review, Diversity and Citizenship* advocate that pupils should learn through the school curriculum to:

- \* explore the origins of the UK and how different cultures have created the United Kingdom;
- \* explore the representations of different racial, ethnic, cultural and religious groups in the UK and the world:
- \* explore the consequences of racial and religious intolerance and discrimination

The Review also notes that ‘to make this notion of a diverse UK real for pupils, work needs to be done in the local community to harness **the local context**, stretching out from there to national and global issues’ (DfES 2007; 23-25).

This is a very different view to the more traditional approaches to learning national history which have been and continue to remain dominant in many countries today. In countries which have seen recent conflict or who have gained independence, the urge to teach a unified national story may be strong. Carras ( 2002: 13) argues that, ‘Since the nation represents such an important focus on identity in our region (South eastern Europe), and indeed in most of today’s world, it would be both undesirable and unrealistic to try to deprive it of its place as the centre of the history curriculum’. However Carras does go on to suggest ways in which a balance might be created which would include questioning stereotypes, promoting cultural history, including local and regional histories and considering major themes in the study of history such as the history of citizenship or the rule of law.

### The contribution of a global perspective

So far the chapter has argued for the potential of including a global perspective to enrich understanding of other history contexts. There may however, be a justification for teaching global history in its own right. Otherwise as Cajani (2002) argues children may end up with a deformed view of history, ‘a great body – Europe – to which all other parts of the world are attached, like stumps, only in so far as their histories are related to the history of Europe (page 26). Approaches to global history may include the exploration

of different themes eg; democracy, citizenship, human rights or food, farming, technology and trade. It could involve studying different aspects of history; political, social, cultural, economic, religious and so forth.

Although it has its origins in the 1960s, Bruner's social studies programme MACOS – Man: A Course of Study still has relevance for contemporary curriculum planning. His original programme was a multi-disciplinary approach to the curriculum based on behavioural sciences which was underpinned by three key questions:

What is uniquely human about human beings?

How did they get that way?

How could they be made more so? (Bruner 1966:74).

Whilst this curriculum project did not specifically engage with history, it does provide some insights which might guide an approach to historical study and which could structure the creation and development of a global history curriculum. The questions may serve as a basis for extending children's awareness of similarities and differences within human experience over time and also contribute to developing a collective consciousness of human endeavours.

### **Developing a pedagogy to embrace different historical contexts**

One of the key challenges to teaching a variety of historical perspectives lies with teachers and the range of pedagogical content knowledge which they possess (Shulman: 1986). Continuing professional development needs to update teachers with recent historical interpretations and also to provide examples of pedagogical approaches in the classroom. Teachers' own beliefs and values unconsciously influence their work and may perpetuate particular forms of knowledge. In terms of world history, teachers may adopt particular western standpoints. Said (1978) argues that western historians make sweeping generalizations and create stereotypes which cross cultural and national boundaries when they write about the 'other' in non European history. Whether one agrees or not with Said's conclusions, his work is a useful reminder how values unconsciously slip into our ways of viewing the world. As I write this chapter, I am also acutely aware that my thoughts are influenced by my own experiences of living in England and one of the purposes of this book is to share experiences and opinions with colleagues elsewhere in the world.

An awareness of different historical perspectives is important. In discussing the historiography of the British Empire Cannadine contrasts traditional approaches which often separated the history of the Empire from the history

of the British nation and more recent scholars who 'tend to disregard Britain' and focus on the history of their own nation and community. Cannadine advocates a more balanced approach since 'Britain was very much a part of the empire, just as the rest of the empire was very much part of Britain' and thus Britain and its empire has to be seen as 'an entire interactive system' (Cannadine 2001: xvii).

Viewing history as an 'interactive' system might provide a useful organizing tool for planning a history curriculum which takes into account a range of historical contexts. Account too needs to be taken of children's views and starting points. Cooper's (2000) research with children in England, Romania, Holland and Greece reminds us of the range of information which children have about the world and the serendipity way in which it is acquired.

### **Identifying starting points to engage children's interests.**

Finding starting points to engage children's history interest and provide them with experiences which they can relate to are important considerations. Recent work with children (5-11 years) from a range of ethnic backgrounds using the collections at the British Empire and Commonwealth museum in Bristol illustrate how this may be achieved. One group of children focused on the life styles of people living in different parts of the Empire and contrasted their lives and experiences. As they made comparisons, children were able to develop their awareness of key features of human societies – the need for food, shelter and safety and how different communities organized themselves. Another group of children studied the experiences of the Pilgrim Fathers sailing across the Atlantic from England and settling to a new life in America. Their interest in the story was engaged as they were asked to think about how they might feel in a similar situation. Other children looked at the experience of racism encountered by early immigrants to Bristol from the Caribbean. They related it to their own daily experiences and recognized that despite anti discrimination and racist legislation, racial prejudice still remained. The museum visit acted as a stimulus to children's engagement which they were able to develop further through their work in the classroom (Harnett: 2006).

Pedagogical approaches need to take into account resources and ways in which children may be supported in identifying, explaining and synthesizing different interpretations to draw their own conclusions. Riley (2000: 8) stresses the importance of generating enquiries which capture children's interest and imagination and permit them to grasp an aspect of historical thinking, concept or process. Children's active engagement within historical investigations is important with careful facilitation of their learning by teachers. For

teachers, their roles require them to observe carefully and evaluate children's developing understandings and to consider when are the most appropriate times to intervene to extend children's learning or to support them in their work.

### **Concluding remarks**

Decisions on organizing the curriculum rest with national governments and also with teachers in schools. Some of the examples in this chapter may provide teachers with ideas for exploring different contexts with their pupils and help them create productive links. Varied ways of organizing curricula experiences to include:

- in- depth studies of particular events and periods of time;
- overviews of key periods of history;
- thematic approaches to studying the past eg; farming; technology; culture
- comparisons across periods of time or place
- analysis of concepts eg; democracy; human rights

may all combine to provide children with a balance of historical perspectives taking into account local, national and global dimensions. In addition, well planned enquiries which require children to conduct investigations and draw conclusions from a range of sources of evidence will ensure that the century's citizens will approach the future with critical and analytical skills.

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# BEYOND THE DOORSTEP: THE NATURE OF HISTORY TEACHING ACROSS EUROPE

*Joke van der Leeuw-Roord\**

It is long since I entered Groningen University in the Netherlands to study history. I remember that my decision to study history was very much determined by the wish to know all about the past. I was curious and eager to learn about everything and everybody. My first two tutorials on medieval history had an enduring impact on the rest of my life as historian and history educator. We started to discuss the end of the Roman Empire, and were asked to read an article, where the author argued that the supremacy of the Romans had disappeared by the devastating effects on the Roman elite of lead poisoning caused by the leaden water pipes and leaden saucepans. His argumentation sounded very plausible and we now fully understood the cause of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.

However the second tutorial made us again visit the topic and we were given another article. Here, the author gave a different explanation for the Fall of this Empire: the other European peoples had, at a certain point in time, gained strength enough to attack with success the Empire. We were surprised to find out that there were such dissimilar interpretations for the same process. And what I further noticed was that during the discussions about this article, the last theory had far more difficulty to be accepted as plausible by the group than the first one.

That day I realized that I had learned two important lessons: the first one was that there is not such a thing as one true narrative about the past. The second lesson came out as even more important: I learned that the first story you learn, places very deep impressions, and that variants of that story or even very different stories have great difficulty to be later accepted as also possible valid. I translated these early lessons into an important concern for history education: if young people in school receive narratives from a simple, single and national perspective, it will be at a later stage very hard to open their minds for other interpretations or perspectives<sup>1</sup>. This understanding became

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a main thread for my work in history education, firstly in the Netherlands and later in Europe.

This article therefore I would like to explore the question what is school history means in Europe. It addresses issues as the organisation of school history, the aims and content of history curricula, the balance in focus between national and European history, the understanding of the concept Europe in school history, the role of politicians and the past and present challenges.

### **Organisation of school history in Europe**

Compulsory history education starts almost everywhere in Europe with age-group 9, and in a few countries earlier<sup>2</sup>. In most countries history is obligatory till the end of compulsory education, generally with age-group 15<sup>3</sup>. In England/UK history is only compulsory till 14<sup>4</sup>. History is in many countries also compulsory in upper secondary education, however there is a tendency in decrease of time allocated to the subject or even to make the subject optional<sup>5</sup>

The organization of history curricula in Europe could in the late Twentieth Century generally be divided in two, rather different conventions. The first approach, more or less generally applied in North Western Europe, offered open history curricula, where textbook authors, schools and teachers were rather free to design their own programmes<sup>6</sup>. Other countries, among them France and all Post-Communist countries, had more to very strict prescribed programmes of study, with regularly, even for each lesson, in detail described what to teach. In the last 20 years this general picture has undergone changes, resulting in stricter curricula in the first region and more open in the latter, however the differences are far from bridged<sup>7</sup> Even more, a country as England made in this period a full loop when it narrowed down its open history curriculum to a rather prescriptive National Curriculum in 1988. With each revision of this curriculum the character became more open. The in 2008 newly introduced history curriculum for year groups 5 till 14 almost restores the approach of before 1989<sup>8</sup>

### **Reform**

In the early Ninety Nineties, there was a massive drive among the political elites, scholars and practitioners in East and West to change practice in school history. After the *Fall of the Wall*, this wish for this change was in Central and Eastern Europe in the first place focused on writing and rewriting (recent) history, especially the national history<sup>9</sup>. The focus in the Soviet education had been the denationalisation of the different peoples living in the Soviet Union

and school practice was aimed at the creation of a disciplined, politically aware and active citizen-internationalist<sup>10</sup>. In reaction, the new born nations in the Post Soviet space felt an immediate urge to redefine and write down their national pasts and to disseminate this narrative as widely as possible among its historians, history teachers, students as well as among the general public<sup>11</sup>. Although the other post communist countries were spared the denationalization efforts of the Soviets, their national histories had followed the same Marxist historical approach. History and history education had therefore in the eyes of the scholars in the first place to be freed from socialist /communist jargon and terminology<sup>12</sup>.

In Western Europe, however, the concern about the practice in history education was expressed amongst educationalists<sup>13</sup>. They signalled that school education had to be adapted to the requirements of the Twenty First Century. This change was certainly relevant for school history, as most children were not particularly keen on the subject<sup>14</sup>. There was a clear need to innovate itself, in order to make it a meaningful subject for young people in the Twenty First Century.

Finally, motives for reform could be noticed in Western Europe, when in 1992, with the Maastricht Treaty, the narrow focus of the (restricted) European Union educational policy on vocational education was, somewhat, widened into a desire to enhance the European dimension in (history) education. The European Union initiated in the early nineteen nineties a hype of articles, debates and activities concerning the idea of a European dimension in general education. Whereas in the same time the Council of Europe, looking at the New Europe after the changes of 1989/1991, emphasised the urgent need of European co-operation in the field of history education. In several countries curriculum reforms reflected these new requirement of widening the European perspective<sup>15</sup>

These movements resulted in the late last century, everywhere in Europe, in a wave of curriculum debates and in substantial reforms in history curricula<sup>16</sup>. In order to have some insight in this process of change EUROCLIO, the European Association of History Educators, has since 1997 organised each year an inquiry into the trends in history education in Europe<sup>17</sup>. The 2003 questionnaire aimed to describe the state of history education in Europe in 2003 with questions about the organisation of the curriculum, the aims and objectives of the (national) history curricula, the discussions over the emphasis on knowledge or competencies and on chronological order or thematic approach. The inquiry also aimed to sketch and visualise the process of change since 1989. Its results are a useful resource for understanding

current trends, problems and debates in school history. The results of the 2003 EUROCLIO questionnaire demonstrated that the new programmes of study were introducing often new content as well as a stronger emphasis on skills.

### **Aims and objectives for the learning and teaching of history**

In 2003 and 2006 EUROCLIO questionnaires looked into aims and objectives for the learning and teaching of history. The results showed that the aims for the subject in Europe are surprisingly similar but also that in a period of three years shifts in approach could be noticed. In 2003, almost all history curricula in Europe aimed *at development of citizenry and democracy*, closely followed by the objective *to make pupils understand the world they live in*. Also *enhancing critical learning skills* and *raising awareness for cultural heritage* were frequently mentioned. In 2003 *Strengthening national identity and patriotism* and *reinforcing labour market skills* were considered least important.

However in 2006 this picture had changed. *Enhancing national identity* together with *becoming aware of the historical continuity of their nation* and *strengthening patriotism* and even *strengthening readiness to sacrifice, if necessary, for their nation* received by far the first place. Other aims such as *promoting citizenry and democracy*; *making pupils understand the world they live in* and *appreciating shared aspects of cultural heritage* were still mentioned but certainly received a lower profile. And this was also the case with *enhancing critical thinking* and *developing a multi-perspective approach to historical events*. *To become aware of the on-going nature of historical research and debate* was hardly mentioned at all. The little importance of Europe became also clear as aims such as *the development of a European citizenship* mean, *promoting European integration*; *broaden their knowledge and awareness of Europe* or *becoming aware of the different meanings of 'Europe'* were hardly ever required.

However there was a striking difference between the frequency of an aim mentioned in the European curricula, and the appreciation of its importance. Despite the fact *enhancing national identity* was mentioned far more often, *enhancing critical thinking* and *becoming aware of the on-going nature of historical research* were far more appreciated (mean 2.32 against 2.87 and even 4.50. This came out as even stronger related to the European dimension related aims (means of 4.33 4.67 and 4.50)

### **Content**

The structures of history curricula in Europe have remained rather constant, and most topics in school history curricula show remarkable longevity. Their

interpretation and focus has been subordinated to ideological change in the way they are presented, but elements in the history curricula, introduced in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, are still present today, allowing for these ideological changes. I would like to give two examples: in the EUROCLIO Balkan project *Understanding a Shared Past, Learning for the Future (2000-2003)*, it came out that many topics in the history curricula of Albania, Bulgaria and Macedonia, introduced in the 19<sup>th</sup> century were still present in the communist and post communist curricula. And in 2007 the head of the Turkish Curriculum Committee Prof. Dr Mustafa Safran reflected on the international topics in the Turkish upper secondary history curriculum, "Discoveries, Renaissance, Enlightenment, France Revolution and Industrial Revolution", which had entered the curriculum in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, when under French influence the Ottoman leadership started to build an educational system.

Only with the beginning of the school year in September 2006 the famous 19<sup>th</sup> century story about secret Greek Orthodox classes during the Ottoman period was abolished, despite the fact that academic historians in Greece long ago proved that the Ottoman had generally allowed education. And also the story of the Danish king wearing a yellow (David) star during the war, survived against negative evidence. Pupils and students like such stories. Myths and good stories have a long life in school history.

However there is some change. Since the late Ninety Eighties the emphasis on recent and contemporary history has grown as well as the role for school history on strengthening European consciousness, human rights and civil society through the teaching of history and civics<sup>18</sup>. We can observe how regional and temporal the choices of some more recent topics are, and how provisional the interpretations of certain relatively recent events were and remain. In Spanish history education World War II has as little prominence as Balkan history in England. Topics like Korea and Vietnam, popular in the 1970s and 1980s, hardly feature anymore. However some not earlier discussed white spots such as national crimes against humanity, colonialism and slavery, have slowly entered the curricula. There is also more emphasis on everyday life history and the Islamic world but gender issues still struggle for recognition

### **Methodology**

This process of change has taken place certainly as much on the methodological level<sup>19</sup>. The ways and approaches of the learning and teaching of history are changing.

A teaching and learning of history which aims to develop pupils' critical

thinking and their capacity for individual inquiry is certainly the most important methodological development in school history throughout Europe, together with a growing emphasis on the development of abilities and skills in history teaching and enable personal attitudes and evaluation of historical processes and facts.

Working with sources, different interpretations and concepts such as multiperspectivity have appeared in history curricula and school history practice in most European countries<sup>20</sup>. The understanding of the concept historical interpretation for school history was in the late Twentieth Century in many countries unknown. However also in 2009, the concept interpretation is not generally applied in school history in Europe. In countries like Macedonia, Belarus and Ukraine, there is still a strong believe among historians that through careful research an objective historical truth can be discovered. In such approaches authorised versions of well-known academics or even a state-approved account are considered to be the true school (national) story/narrative of the past.

A real multi-perspective approach is in most European countries also in 2009 hardly implemented<sup>21</sup>. For many textbook authors and teachers it is hard to translate this idea in classroom practice, not seldom as good historical evidence is absent.

Unfortunately changes in the history curricula are not seldom only theoretical, and in reality far from implemented<sup>22</sup>. Publishers and educational authorities regularly do not understand the full consequence of the new curriculum requirements and offer far to little financial and human resources to implement the required reforms. Despite that fact that school history should foster critical thinking, students are still internalising the traditional interpretations' of their teachers and societies. Robert Stradling, as a long time Council of Europe expert on history, has reflected on a wide variety of themes related to the innovation of the learning and teaching of history in Europe. He writes that 'the scope for introducing major curriculum changes depends on a political will, the existing official guidelines and syllabuses, the degree of autonomy which individual teachers have to decide what they teach and how they teach it, and the material resources available to support curriculum change'<sup>23</sup>.

### **Debates in Society**

The increasing (history) curriculum debates since the late 1980s, and -in several countries- also the introduction of national history examinations, made the selection of well-balanced content more challenging and led to a sharp confrontation between theory and practice in Europe and beyond<sup>24</sup>. It became

clear that writing a (history) curriculum that includes everything considered to be important, relevant and useful, is impossible. The time allocated to history in the national or school timetables is increasingly limited, and not all historical topics are suitable for pupils and students of all ages and levels. As Sue Bennett, former School History Curriculum Expert in QCA, London and former EUROCLIO President used to say 'the problem with curriculum selection is not what to put in, but what to leave out'. As the new curricula were written, it became clear that official selection was inevitable. And with this insight the concern about the lack of (survey) knowledge among pupils and students grew.

In 2009 the professionals may almost commonly agree that good history teaching is not just high-quality story telling about the past and excellent history learning is not simply memorizing the many facts in these stories. However for many others in society this truth is far from acknowledged. The increasing focus on learning and teaching has led to heated debates between those, who see the main purpose of school history as teaching students about important events and developments and those who think the main purpose is to facilitate the learning of historical skills and understanding. This debate flares up in most countries once new curriculum proposals for history are discussed.

The current national curriculum debates regularly position the traditional a survey chronological knowledge against the practice to offer a selection of historical themes<sup>25</sup>. However, what is considered as the traditional chronological survey of historical knowledge, is in fact often nothing more than the traditionalist's selection of historical topics: a mono-perspective narrative with many important men, few women, no minority communities, much politics, lack of ordinary people, some elite culture, not too much emphasis on colonial history and, in fact, excluding most parts of the world<sup>26</sup>.

A special problem is the debate until which moment in time history is considered history. In several European countries curricula and textbooks stop at a certain point in time, as a certain contemporary period is not considered history but politics and only perhaps suitable for civic education. The argument mostly used is that academic historians cannot study the period in depth, not in the least place due to the fact that the contemporary archives are not open for research purposes<sup>27</sup>. In Scotland therefore the term modern studies is introduced, for the period after 1945. This issue becomes even more problematic in Post-Conflict countries such as Bosnia, Croatia, Georgia and Serbia or in countries with tense internal relations such as Estonia, Macedonia and Latvia. The local historians generally refuse to contribute to

writing about these recent problems. However with these refusal they deny their responsibility to help society to handle these traumas. As a result the young generations in such countries are educated about these events by the emotional narratives of family, politicians, and media.

In 2009 the same topics as in the late 20<sup>th</sup> Century are still featuring in many curriculum debates and give evidence that many of the issues are still undecided.<sup>28</sup> The results from earlier questionnaires may differ from the present picture as high-speed change was and still seems to be a significant feature of European history curriculum development since 1989.

### **National History**

The trend in the early Nineteen Nineties to strengthen the European dimension did not bring abundant results. Unfortunately there is hardly any academic evidence about the proportions of national and world history as academic cross-border comparative surveys on teaching history in Europe hardly do exist<sup>29</sup>. The EUROCLIO annual inquiries modestly try to fill this gap. The answers related to the proportions of national and world history seem to indicate that since 2000 the focus on national history in Europe is increasing<sup>30</sup>. It looks that Europe gradually lost its momentum, and in 2009 the European spirit among politicians and many others in society is on a low tide. In 2007 teaching national history features high on the agenda in many European countries.

Politicians, historians and media all over Europe and beyond, repeatedly complain that the general public has a lack of national historical knowledge. In a growing group of countries politicians insist to increase the amount of national history in the curriculum or to change the national narrative in school history in such way that the victim hood, the heroic epochs and dominant ethnic communities and religious denominations are given prominent emphasis. It is interesting to notice how such national politicians acknowledge the need for developing a national (inclusive) identity as tool for internal cohesion but how they at the same time deny school history a role in the creation of a sense of European belonging<sup>31</sup>.

History Education in Europe and beyond has always been a national political instrument. The subject is -to smaller or larger extends- always used by national power elites to justify the present. These more or less official national narratives are building around *mirrors of pride and pain*. That means that these stories are in the first place centered on the suffering of the nations, followed by those events and persons which were reasons for national pride. Events or persons in the past, which caused agony and suffering among

people at home or beyond, are generally neglected or downplayed. Histories of those areas which did not connect to the nations' narratives receive hardly any space at all. Most children will leave school with a picture of the past which might be biased and which is certainly, also in Europe, ethno-centric. They carry this representation of the past into their future life and in their turn pass it on to later generations.

This traditional approach is often also revealed in the chronological choices, made in the curriculum. Greece, Italy or Portugal, for example, like to emphasize those periods in the national past, such as antiquity, renaissance and the discoveries, which place their cultures in a more profitable light than the teaching about the more recent, Twenty Century, past. Many Post Communist countries after 1989 have also the attitude to avoid teaching about the recent national pasts, and look for those topics in the national past which emphasized the nation's glory and victim hood. The new nationhood urged historians to find examples of earlier nationhood. However for some countries this was very difficult or even impossible. Slovaks had to go back to the short lived Moravian Empire in 10<sup>th</sup> century, vague Medieval Empires in Balkan received great prominence and the Cozaks became the nucleus of the Ukrainian people. Unfortunately for Estonia such early nationhood was even not possible, however it build its national narrative on suppression by Crusader knights, German nobility, Russians and Soviets.

This national curriculum is, except for a few attempts, hardly under discussion in Europe. A curriculum from a truly global perspective is - as far as I have seen- hardly implemented in Europe. Many argue that in order to make students understand the world they live in it is better to start near by, and start with local and national history<sup>32</sup> This argument is not based on any specific evidence, but based on a practical and traditional point of view. Maria onderzoek<sup>33</sup> believe that other approaches are possible, but for many specialists in Europe, history curricula based on a national perspective are the most logical choice

### **History and History and history education are Politics**

National history is closely related to the national political debates. History education is even today very political and therefore almost everyday hot news somewhere in the world. The EUROCLIO website [www.euroclio.eu](http://www.euroclio.eu) offers an array of examples<sup>34</sup>.

I would like to give some recent examples of this situation. In Croatia veterans of the recent Yugoslav wars claim, with approval of certain politicians and media, that they should teach the history of these wars in school. They

disagreed with the new school history materials, which were produced on request of the Ministry of Education, after a ten year moratorium on the history of Eastern Slavonia. And together with others they forced the books to be withdrawn<sup>35</sup>. In Georgia the new government after the Rose revolution introduced a new curriculum, trying to denationalise and multi-culturalise history education. However this new curriculum, which integrates national and world history meets with much resistance, from historians, politicians and history educators as they fear that the history of Georgia should lose its prominence. This division in a course on national and a course on European or world history is applied in many, mostly Eastern European countries, which might, as the Rumanian historian Capita puts it be 'an essential problem as these two different narratives are developed at the same time with hardly any connections' <sup>36</sup>.

And also within the European Union, the importance of teaching national history is re-evaluated. In Latvia the international curriculum for school history, in place since 1995, is in 2005 changed into a curriculum, separating national and world history<sup>37</sup>. Valdis Klisans, former national advisor for history, argues how in his country a massive political and media campaign emerged in 1999 against the practice of this integrated school history course. The opponents suggested that through such approach the national history would dissolve in the general history and that the 'students would not be able to understand the continuity of national historical processes and events'. Such integrated course was not suitable for a patriotic upbringing.

And do not think this political interference is a prerogative for countries which have just overcome a non-democratic tradition. In 2002 the Educational Authorities in England decided, despite a school history already traditionally focused on national history, that the focus on national history was not enough and that therefore the English history should be obligatory on each level of history education, also for students on the A-level, the pre-university examination. And after the events of 7 July 2005, teaching *Britishness* through school history seems to have gained even more importance<sup>38</sup>.

In the Netherlands, a country with a long term international tradition in school history, an official Canon of Dutch Culture and History is published in 2007, which should acquire a central position in the history lessons for pupils aged 9-14<sup>39</sup>. The Canon for Dutch History and Culture has caused a hype in the Dutch society thinking over canonical knowledge for a wide range of subjects, such as local and provincial canons, science canons and Dutch literature canons. In April 2009 the Minister of Education decided that the Canon of Dutch History and Culture should be seen as a source of inspiration and

not made compulsory for history education for age-group 10-14. However a majority in the Dutch parliament, with parties ranging from left to right have already announced that this decision is not acceptable and that the Canon should be compulsory in history education.

And also in the spring of 2009 Dutch politicians interfered at length in the planning of the New Dutch National History Museum in Arnhem. The management of this future Museum decided to move away from the original ideas of the politicians to follow the also newly designed Dutch Canon, and develop their own ideas as museum directors and historians. Politicians, forming the majority of the Dutch Parliament, demanded that either the museum management carries out exactly what they consider the main thread of the museum, or that they would reopen the whole decision making process around the museum<sup>40</sup>. In June 2009 the Museum Directors were forced to accept the political will of the politicians. And also in Denmark, another country with traditional international outlook, the new history curriculum gives evidence of the demand to introduce a bigger portion of national history.

History education is even targeted during election campaigns, and is regularly changed or addressed when new political leadership comes in, or new political targets have to be addressed. According to Kenan Cayir, a Turkish Academic historian, the process of EU membership application for example triggered the first new curriculum reform since 1968 in Turkey<sup>41</sup>. Recent negative examples of this practice come for instance from Greece and Northern Cyprus. In Greece new generation of independently written history textbooks were intended to be introduced in the school year 2006/2007, based on valid, common areas of modern history and historiography and with an emphasis on critical reading of a multiplicity of historical sources and understanding of history instead of memorizing wars and peak political events<sup>42</sup>. However the orthodox Archbishop of Greece protested strongly against one particular textbook and with further growing criticism, the new history textbooks became a major national issue. After adaptations the Greek Ministry of Education accepted the second edition however after elections in September 2007 the permission to use the book in schools was immediately withdrawn. And in Northern Cyprus, during the latest election campaign in April 2009, the innovative textbooks on Cypriot history were targeted<sup>43</sup>. The National Union party promised its electorate that they should after a possible election victory of this party be abolished.

### **History needs political sponsorship**

History education suffers as no other school subject from the

compartmentalization through European borders. National perspectives are determining the manner history educators inform the students about Europe and the world. They tell their nations story but do not know the stories of the others. Bernard Eric Jensen, in his talk *on writing European History- the Danish Way* during the conference *Writing European History* in June 1999 in Essen, Germany, questioned why the Danes had set out writing three complete history's of Europe over the last 100 years. He pointed out that these three endeavours always had been political grounded. Therefore he concluded that historians and history education need certain (political) projects to convince the society of the benefits of their work. In the conference *Learning and Teaching of History in Europe* organised during the European Union Presidency of France in Blois in autumn 2000, one of the speakers noticed that *history always needs sponsors*. This could be a local power, the nation state, the European Union, the United Nations or any other political organisation. Without such political support, history and history teaching have little change to be acknowledged, as a subject in a society where *utility* is a key concept. The French historian Martin points at France as an example for this specific relationship between history education and politics. He uses the example of the Third Republic in France, which created free schooling for every child with history as a tool in the battle against monarchist and religious ideas<sup>44</sup>. And also Stradling notices that the major curriculum changes for history depend on a political will<sup>45</sup>.

### **European Dimension**

Recurrent questions in the EUROCLIO questionnaires seem to indicate that since 2000 that the desire to enhance a European dimension is decreasing<sup>46</sup>. When EUROCLIO asked its Member Associations in 2003 which dimension (national, regional, European or world) had been increased since the late 1980s, national history came out as the area of greatest growth<sup>47</sup>. However this growth could at that time generally be attributed to the curriculum choices of the new and newly democratic member-countries in Central and Eastern Europe. In 2004 the members were asked to reflect on how far they were satisfied with the proportion of geographical dimensions- local, regional, national, European and world history- in their curricula<sup>48</sup>. The greatest area of satisfaction was the proportion of national history (average *yes* for all age-groups 68%), whereas the proportions of local (*no* average 51 %) and regional history (*no* 52 %) revealed some dissatisfaction. The amount of European history received a 32 % (*no*)dissatisfaction, and gives evidence that people were not really concerned about its share in the history curriculum. In 2005 the results on the question if more teaching about European issues was necessary, demonstrated a general interest for *some increase*, but not too much. However,

in the same questionnaire, promoting European and global citizenship through history education was generally acknowledged as a desirable goal for school history<sup>49</sup>.

### **Understanding of the concept Europe**

What does Europe mean when European history educators talk about European history? In the almost twenty years, I have actively been involved in promoting European history, I noticed the ever-recurring theoretical debate about the definition of the concept Europe, without leading to any concluding idea<sup>50</sup>. In many books, articles and meetings people have reflected on the understanding of the concept Europe. In the introduction of the book *Towards a European Historical Consciousness of Approaches to European Historical Consciousness, Reflections and Provocations, Shaping European History*, Sharon Macdonald and Katja Fausser write *Yet, what 'Europe' means to those who live in it- as well as to those outside- is inevitable shaped by perceptions of its history.*<sup>51</sup>

EUROCLIO members have generally chosen for a pragmatic solution. Europe is mostly considered the Europe of the Council of Europe and therefore including Turkey and countries such as Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan, which belonged to the former Soviet Union.

The meaning of the concept of Europe in the learning and teaching of history seems not border the European history educators too much. Europe is mainly understood as a geographic concept and in fact European history is mostly understood as the history of some large Western European countries plus Russia. Observing the situation in Wales, Jones writes that 'the teaching of the history of nineteenth and twentieth century Europe tends to refer mainly to the major states of western Europe. Many schools study the history of the USSR in the twentieth century, although this is almost always very Russia-centred in approach. There is little study of Scandinavia or the countries of Eastern Europe' approach. There is little study of Scandinavia or the countries of Eastern Europe'. And Falk Pingel, former Deputy Director of the Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research, confirms this observation from a Europe wide perspective<sup>52</sup>. Stradling observes that European syllabuses 'tend to omit those parts of Europe which, for significant periods of their history, were untouched by those influences thought to be central to the European tradition. They also tend to gloss over those periods of European history when the mainstream cultural tradition was virtually lost to large parts of Europe'. At the same time external influences on Europe are mostly downplayed.

In 2005 the EUROCLIO inquiry also looked into the question what *Europe*

means when European history educators say they teach about *Europe*<sup>53</sup>. The answers illustrate that also for the history educators teaching about Europe means in the first place teaching about Western Europe, with *good coverage* of that region from 42% for age-group 10-12, through 63% for age-group 12-15 to more than 80% for age group 15-18/19. Secondly comes Central Europe, with a respective 11%, 32% and 53% *good coverage* for the same age-group order and Eastern Europe, with in the same order 10%, 28% and 48% *good coverage*. However Northern Europe was very little represented in European history classrooms, as we see only 12%, 20% and 31% *good coverage*.

It is however questionable what *good coverage* for the respondents actually meant. When asking more detailed questions about how far a country like Latvia was represented in the school history textbooks, it came out that the country only features, or, even better to say, is mentioned in the aftermath of World War I, further related to the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact and finally in connection with the end of Soviet Union and the rise of the new Independent States. It became clear that the present European focus in school history curricula and textbooks only differs marginally from the curriculum choices before 1989: teaching about Central and Eastern Europe means still predominantly teaching about Russia and the Soviet Union.

The French researcher Nicole Tutiaux looked how young people in France understood Europe<sup>54</sup>. The common picture she found was that Europe had a Christian tradition, a weak cultural diversity and was constructed through conflicts. The German Professor in history didactics Bodo von Borries offered in his great Youth and History Research 15-year-old students in 1995 several options for understanding the concept Europe. The possibilities were a geographical expression, no more; birthplace of democracy, enlightenment and progress; group of white rich countries, guilty of economic and ecological exploitation; only way to peace between nations previously destroying each other; solution of the economic and social crises of the countries of Europe and danger to sovereign nations, their identity and culture. It is interesting to notice that the students dismissed a geographical expression, no more. However all other options were estimated more or less neutrally<sup>55</sup>. Through his findings we may conclude that also pupils do not have a clear opinion what they understand as concept Europe.

### **World history**

Is there a border between Europe and the rest of the world<sup>56</sup>? The past has always operated beyond borders and people in the 21st Century live in global society. History education should therefore not create new artificial borders

by moving the traditional national subject focus to a European one. However the concept 'Europe' is quite often more or less synonym with the concept 'world'. In the Soviet Union, as well as in present day Russia, school history was divided in National and World history, and this tradition is still very much alive in most countries in the Former Communist world. The Russian Historian M. Boytsov reflects that the central concept in the old Soviet and now modern Russian school textbooks always has been the world. However, the topics show that in fact the overall concentration is on (large) Western European countries, and that the world is therefore mainly understood as the history of The United States<sup>57</sup>. This observation is shared by many others. A Wales history inspector, Elim Jones, writes that 'while the media in Wales, as in the rest of Britain, are so much influenced by the United States of America, that it is difficult for European issues to attract the attention of students'. However also that it is for young people more naturally looking outside of Europe, as pupils are influenced by the foreign, but English speaking films, television and the Internet. The EUROCLIO inquiry of 2005 also showed that a global dimension for school history in Europe is virtually absent<sup>58</sup>In the 2005 inquiry the question was asked about the representation of the rest of the world. The outcome was clear; apart from North America with an average for all age-groups of less than 25% *good coverage*, all other continents were hardly featuring at all..We may conclude that the world outside Europe, except for the United States, hardly exists in European school history<sup>59</sup>.

### **National history with a European dimension or a European perspective?**

However despite all mentioned hurdles, the expansion of European awareness has nevertheless increased the European dimension in history education. The special emphasis on *Europe* in school education is evident. Two Hungarian history educators Laszlo Bero and Vilmos Vass observed that 'Teaching about Europe is also teaching for Europe' the European integration process has stimulated special programmes. The learning about Europe is also widely represented in the educational system of Latvia where Latvian historical membership to Europe is stressed in the school textbooks. And in France too has the teaching of European history always been one of the main purposes of the French Ministry of Education<sup>60</sup>.

In many countries local and national history develop a European dimension as a particular period, event or person has influenced Europe or was by influenced Europe<sup>61</sup>. In such way European history is in a sense an annex to the national. In France for example, other countries than France are only mentioned in history textbooks related to specific themes such as

Germany under Nazi rule and Italy for Renaissance and fascism. And such understanding of the European dimension is by far the most common approach. Even topics with a clear European dimension are generally treated from an entirely national perspective. A clear example emerged from the national contributions during the EUROCLIO Annual Training Conference in Berlin in 1995 about the Potsdam Conference of 1945<sup>62</sup>. The national focus in teaching this European/Global subject was overwhelming. It became clear that the textbooks in the countries, which had been hardly involved in the Second World War like Spain and Portugal, barely mentioned this important conference. Others like France, Germany and the UK predominantly addressed their personal preoccupations: respectively to be excluded from the conference table, to be definitively divided into occupation zones and to be hindered by national elections. Also the EUSTORY Charter is aware of this limitation and strives to broaden the learning and teaching of history to a global perspective. It writes that 'a European framework can thus be a step on the way towards a global approach<sup>63</sup>'. However it looks like that this approach is still wishful thinking in the current practice of history education in Europe

A second type of European dimension is a focus on persons, texts, works of art, artefacts and phenomena and processes without a direct link to the national past or on shared historical experiences and cultural heritage. Only very rarely we can find examples of such approach, however some periods, phenomena and processes feature in many history curricula, such as the Antiquity, the Renaissance, the French Revolution or Napoleon regardless if there is a relation with the national past.

### **European Textbook**

Repeatedly this issue of a possible common European textbook has been brought up by politicians and journalists<sup>64</sup>. In spring 2007 European Union Education ministers met this in Heidelberg, during the German EU Presidency and discussed the creation of a common European history book. The German Minister of Education and Research Annette Schavan promoted the idea. She argued that education is essential for shaping identity and for social cohesion in Europe. The minister called on her colleagues in EU nations and neighbouring countries to stress the shared values and cultural perspectives among Europeans. However the Education Ministers from Poland and The Netherlands were sceptical, and in 2009 this initiative has not been followed up.

Historians and certainly history educators in Europe rarely advocated such approach, as many feared a watered down official European narrative as result. A charter of good practice was acceptable and in 2001 the Council

of Europe's *Recommendation on the Learning and Teaching of History*, prepared by history education experts throughout Europe, was not only subscribed by the full Council of Ministers but disseminated to all member states of the Council<sup>65</sup>.

The only existing example of such common European narrative *The History of Europe*, in English *the Illustrated History of Europe*, published in 1992, confirmed for many this anxiety<sup>66</sup>. The book is translated in many European languages and has an uniform design in all the different language editions. It has though not been able to avoid the traditional national mirrors of pride and pain. The twelve authors, representing twelve European Union countries, worked on a French master text. However the national language texts start to deviate considerably, as soon as the edition touches the national history. Only example might illustrate this already. It concerns the German and English version, involving German history and national pride. The English version follows the master text and it writes on the Blitzkrieg *The Wehrmacht advanced rapidly, but was not able to wage a 'lightning war' or Blitzkrieg like its campaigns in Poland and France.* But in the German text adds extra information: It was not only a Blitzkrieg against Poland and France, but also *in the spring of 1941 on the Balkans*. We may question if the master text deliberately wanted to diminish the strength of the German Army, or that the German text wanted to demonstrate German pride about the quality of the army attack during the Second World War<sup>67</sup>

## Challenges

To conclude it might be good to have a short reflection about the major challenges for history education in Europe in 2009. The biggest challenge is the low national and international political priority for education. As a result of the existing EU legislation, general education has within Europe hardly any value. It is even more difficult to convince politicians that history education is relevant: they frequently question the usefulness of school history. If there was interest for history education in these past years, it was because of big words like Reconciliation, Democracy and Intercultural Dialogue. However, the hard content of the subject was, to the dismay of many history educators, disregarded. European wide questions how to deal in school history with the big issues of the European History of the Twentieth Century such as its Communist Legacy, its Devastating Wars, its Massive Migration and Deportations or its long-lasting Controversies created by the Paris Peace Conference of 1919, are generally left to the discretion and responsibility of individual history teachers.

A second challenge is today's generation of young people, which is growing up in a new social environment. They live in an instant global society, where information is available at their fingertips around the clock. The information technology revolution is changing the way young people learn and process information. Recent international test results indicate that students' level of knowledge, and capacity to think are in many European countries decreasing. On the one hand, young people are used to finding information on the internet quickly and effectively, but on the other, they lack sufficient skills of processing and judging this information.

The last challenge regards the teaching profession. The role of teachers today is changing, but not diminishing. Quite contrary. More than ever, students need guidance in learning to process. History teachers have a unique possibility to help young people understand what Europe is about, but they cannot do so without the appropriate skills and training. Recently *Life Long Learning* has become the European slogan for people in education. That was high time, as systematic in-service education was certainly not embedded in the education cultures of Europe. However an EUROCLIO inquiry in revealed that on national, local and school level, there is still generally little support for such training. On the contrary, many obstacles that prevent teachers from full professional development. Teachers are not allowed to leave school for training, they receive insufficient or even not any financial support for participation, they have to take unpaid leave or even are forced to cover the cost for their substitution. Based on this inquiry and supported by information EUROCLIO acquired organizing international training events, it can exemplify several EU countries, which basically deny their teachers continuous professional training.

The late influential Polish politician Bronislaw Gemerek, concluded that the *Future of Europe is Democracy*. If so than Europe needs to work with more effort on strengthening the role of education in this process, and reinforce the role of history education and history educators<sup>68</sup>. The question is how can we connect the need for a European perspective in history education with innovative, 21th century, teaching methods? As response to this question, EUROCLIO proposes an alternative format for a European School History Textbook. Under the title it has started to explore the development of an online multimedia tool to support comparative learning about common themes in European history and heritage. But, such tool alone is of course not enough. It needs a well educated professional work force to disseminate and implement it.

### Final remark

In 2009, History Education in Europe is under construction and it will probably continue to be so, as each generation asks its own questions to the past. As history transmitted through school history is still regularly a weapon in intercultural intra-state and cross border confrontations, there is clearly a need for more intercultural dialogue on history in Europe. It is important that historians and history educators in Turkey join this pan-European challenging voyage, as this working with the past involves the future of young generations in Europe.

### ENDNOTES

- 1 Stimulating teachers to provide their pupils with a variety of perspectives to the past, is one of the goals of EUROCLIO, *the European Association of History Educators*, which I co- founded. This democratic Network organisation was established in 1993, after the Fall of the Berlin Wall and the Dissolution of the Soviet Union, in order to build bridges among the European countries by exploring the connections and complexities between their different histories. In 2009, EUROCLIO represents more than 60 organisations from over 40, mainly European, countries. Please look for more information on [www.euroclio.eu](http://www.euroclio.eu).
- 2 Leeuw-Roord, Joke van der (ed), *History Changes. Facts and Figures about History Education in Europe( since 1989, 2004, (7)*
- 3 *History Changes (7-9) en boek van Alois Ecker*
- 4 <http://www.qca.org.uk/>
- 5 *History Changes (7-9) en boek van Alois Ecker*
- 6 *History changes, (21-22)*
- 7 Examples for this development are amongst others reforms in history curricula in England, Finland, The Netherlands and Denmark
- 8 Ian Philips in his lecture *Nature of history curriculum change & reform in England* on 6 June 2009 in Kızılcıhamam, Turkey during the EUROCLIO seminar *New Roads for History Education in Turkey* Stocktaking, Assessing and Planning. See for further information the history section of the QCA website [http://www.qca.org.uk/qca\\_6354.aspx](http://www.qca.org.uk/qca_6354.aspx)
- 9 Martin Roberts (ed), *After the Wall, History Teaching in Europe since 1989*, Eustory series, *Shaping European History, Volume 4*, (Hamburg, 2004) This publication scrutinizes the impact of this period of change on school history in Europe.
- 10 Polina Verbytska, 'School history education for the development of democracy' (62-69) in *After the Wall*.
- 11 Lubos Vesely(ed) *Contemporary History Textbooks in the South Caucasus* (Prague, 2008); Ukraine have until now not operated along similar lines. Claudia Fischer in *Writing about History without Pathos? Some Remarks on the Best Contributions to the 1998 Students Competition on Ukrainian History* (116) in Joke van der Leeuw-Roord, (ed) *History for Today and Tomorrow. What does Europe mean for school history?* The second

- volume of the series *Shaping European History* (Germany 2001) writes that Ukraine gave priority to the nation-state building of Ukraine and new Ukrainian textbooks only reflected the political changes in replacing the former Soviet symbols, heroes and idols. Joke van der Leeuw-Roord, 'Geschiedenis op school in Europa', (49-61) in P.den Boer en G.W.Muller (red.) *Geschiedenis op school* (Amsterdam, 1998) (49)
- 12 Balkan publicaties/Julia Kushnerereva, *Textbooks in Russia since 1989* in *After the Wall* (148)
  - 13 Angvik, Magne/Bodo von Borries: *Youth and History. A comparative European Survey on Historical Consciousness and Political Attitudes among Adolescents*, Hamburg (Edition Körber-Stiftung) 1997 [vol. A: description, vol. B: documentation, CD-ROM]. Subject(s): Teaching of history - Historical consciousness - Political attitude - Conception of history - Adolescents - Europe - Belgium - Bulgaria - Croatia - Czech Republic - Denmark - Estonia - Finland - France - Germany - Greece - Great Britain - Hungary - Iceland - Israel - Italy - South Tyrol - Lithuania - Netherlands - Norway - Palestinian Territories - Poland - Portugal - Russia - Slovenia - Spain - Sweden - Turkey - Ukraine
  - 14 Youth and History
  - 15 Bero and Vass , in *Teaching and Learning about Europe in Hungary* (147) in Jones, *Sharing the bad with an Elephant: Teaching History in Wales* ( 41-42)Martin in *European History and Old French Habits*(56-57)in *History for Today and Tomorrow*
  - 16 *History Changes*. (17-32)
  - 17 We may conclude that the results of the questionnaires offer at the moment the only comparative insights in school history in Europe
  - 18 In his research on the work of the Council of Europe on School History Stradling noticed a considerable change in the school history curriculum
  - 19 Boytsov *History for Today and Tomorrow*
  - 20 Bodo Von Borries in *Multiperspectivity - Utopian Pretension or Feasible Fundament of Historical Learning in Europe?* (269-295) in *History for Today and Tomorrow* ;Bob Stradling *Multiperspectivity in History teaching, A Guide for Teachers*, Council of Europe publishing (2003) [http://www.coe.int/t/e/cultural\\_co-operation/education/history\\_teaching/european\\_dimension/Multiperspectivity-E.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/e/cultural_co-operation/education/history_teaching/european_dimension/Multiperspectivity-E.pdf)
  - 21 Martin Tutiaux confirms his view as she writes in France there is '.. *History for Today and Tomorrow*
  - 22 As one of the participants in a EUROCLIO conference in 2001 in Tallinn observed. The situation, he wrote, '... shows how much of the traditional history is maintained in all progress that is made, for instance by shifting to teaching skills. Real innovation is, I was convinced already before the conference but now more than ever, a shift in focus....'
  - 23 Stradling A Council of Europe handbook on Teaching 20<sup>th</sup> Century European History (240) in *History for Today and Tomorrow*.
  - 24 Linda Symcox , *Internationalizing the U.S. History Curriculum* (37) in Linda Symcox and Arie Wilschut *National History Standards, the Problem of the Canon and the Future Teaching of History*,2009 ; [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component?option=com\\_myblog/Itemid,384/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component?option=com_myblog/Itemid,384/)
  - 25 History changes, (28)
  - 26 Jan Bank en Piet de Rooy, 'Een canon van het Nederlandse verleden. Wat iedereen móet weten van de vaderlandse geschiedenis', NRC Handelsblad, 30 oktober 2004.

- 27 Teaching about the History of the Khmer Rouge in Cambodia is only going to be allowed in 2009 [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com\\_myblog/Itemid,384/archive,October-2008/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com_myblog/Itemid,384/archive,October-2008/)
- 28 "Yearning for Yesterday, Conference on National history Standards", Utrecht, 5 and 6 October 2006
- 29 The most vocal advocate for world history in Europe is Luigi Cajani, from Università di Roma 'La Sapienza' (Italy). He has been involved in experiments to implement such approach in school history in Italy.
- 30 See for instance EUROCLIO questionnaire 2005 [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com\\_docman/Itemid,402/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com_docman/Itemid,402/)
- 31 Linda Symcox and Arie Wilschut in Introduction (5) in *National History Standards*
- 32 Wijnand W. Mijnhardt "De zinloosheid van een nationale canon in leerbaar" in Arie Wilschut, *Haalbaar*, Vossiuspers, University of Amsterdam, 2005, page 17.
- 33 Maria en kees
- 34 <http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php> History Education in the News
- 35 Kooren story
- 36 Carol Capita *Small World, Big Country. A reappraisal of Europe in Rumanian History Teaching* (77) in *History for Today and Tomorrow*.
- 37 Valdis Klisans, 'The teaching of Local, National and European History. Recent Latvian Experience' in Online EUROCLIO Bulletin 22 <http://www.euroclio.eu/download/2005/Bulletin22/bulletin.PDF>. Valdis Klisans in 'National and European history in Schools', (109-115) in *History for Today and Tomorrow*
- 38 'The Future of Britishness': Speech by Gordon Brown to the Fabian Society: January 14 2006. Fabian Society Press Release
- 39 Commissie Ontwikkeling Nederlandse Canon, <http://entoen.nu>. *Tussenrapportage* (2 februari 2006), [www.canonvannederland.nl](http://www.canonvannederland.nl) . Leeuw-Roord, Joke van der; 'De Canon' Uzerine Bir Degerlendirme in " *Ana Hatlariyla Hollanda Tarihi* (De Canon) (2008) 113-127.  
The Canon for Dutch History and Culture has caused a hype in the Dutch media about thinking over canonical knowledge for a wide range of subjects.
- 40 See for debates on the Dutch National History Museum [http://www.sica.nl/pdf/verslag\\_23\\_mei\\_2007.pdf](http://www.sica.nl/pdf/verslag_23_mei_2007.pdf) and <http://www.rnw.nl/category/tags-english/dutch-national-history-museum>
- 41 Kenan Cayir *Preparing Turkey for the European Union: nationalism, National Identity and Otherness'* " in *Turkeys New Textbooks, Journal of Intercultural Studies* , 30: 1, 39-55,
- 42 Maria Repoussi, *New History Textbooks in Greece, The chronicle of an ideological war on the national past*, via <http://users.auth.gr/~marrep/html/intro/articles/New%20History%20Books%20in%20Greece.pdf>, Euroclio Bulletin 26; Jurgen Broeders, *The Greeks fought heroically*, A history of Greek history textbooks. (2008) Master's thesis Radboud University Nijmegen
- 43 <http://www.kibrispostasi.com/index.php/cat/35/news/25241/PageName/KIBRIS>
- 44 Martin (50-52).*History for Today and Tomorrow*
- 45 Stradling9).*History for Today and Tomorrow*
- 46 See for instance EUROCLIO questionnaire 2005 [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com\\_docman/Itemid,402/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component/option,com_docman/Itemid,402/)

- 47 *History Changes*, (19-20)
- 48 See EUROCLIO questionnaire 2004. [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component?option=com\\_docman/Itemid,402/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component?option=com_docman/Itemid,402/)
- 49 See Questionnaire 2005 [http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component?option=com\\_docman/Itemid,402/](http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php/component?option=com_docman/Itemid,402/)
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- 51 Sharon Macdonald (edited) *Approaches to European Historical Consciousness, Reflections and Provocations*. Hamburg, 2000.
- 52 Jones (Pingel in *How to approach Europe, The European dimension in history textbooks* ( )
- 53 *Euroclio Questionnaire Analysis*, Bulletin 22, 2005, page 69 to 86 (the Bulletin can be found in pdf on the website : [http://www.euroclio.eu/download/Bulletins/22\\_Gaining\\_Equilibrium.pdf](http://www.euroclio.eu/download/Bulletins/22_Gaining_Equilibrium.pdf))
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- 55 Youth and History()
- 56 Jones ().History for Today and Tomorrow
- 57 In his contribution *A Joint Venture: EUROCLIO and Russians Writing Schoolbooks on the post-war History*, ( )History for Today and Tomorrow
- 58 EUROCLIO questionnaire 2005
- 59 Klisans in *National and European History in Schools and Examination in Latvia* ( )as well as Bero and Vass ().History for Today and Tomorrow
- 60 Bero and Vass write. Latvia France.
- 61 Capita Bero and Vass, Martin .
- 62 Leeuw-Roord, Joke van der, *Altered States and Consciousness, examining Potsdam*, in TES, April 7, 1995 (V-VI )
- 63 [http://www.eustory.de/root/img/pool/bilder\\_fuer\\_our\\_network/pdf/eustory\\_charter.pdf](http://www.eustory.de/root/img/pool/bilder_fuer_our_network/pdf/eustory_charter.pdf)
- 64 <http://www.eurotopics.net/en/presseschau/archiv/article/ARTICLE14880-A-European-history-textbook> and <http://www.dw-world.de/dw/article/0,,2370988,00.html>
- 65 <https://wcd.coe.int/ViewDoc.jsp?id=234237>
- 66 Frederic Delouche (ed.). *Histoire de l'Éurope*. 1992.
- 67 *Histoire de l'Éurope*.(344)
- 68 Gemerek, Bronislaw, *De overwinning van de democratie in Europa*, page 93-111, in Leo Ornstein en Lo Breemer (ed), *Paleis Europa*. Grote denkers over Europa. Amsterdam, 2007

# PARTICIPATION OF HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCES TEACHERS IN INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES: THE CASE OF EUROCLIO\*

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In recent years there have been several international in service training courses that are available for teachers which are supported by the European Council or some other International organizations. Such International in-service training courses provide great opportunities for teachers to improve their educational skills. This article aims to show to what extent history and social science teachers participate in such courses and encourage teachers to apply and attend them. In this chapter the EUROCLIO annual in -service training courses are used as an example.

The European Association of History Educators (EUROCLIO) is a NGO based in the Netherlands, and has about 60 member History teachers association and organizations from 46 countries. 17 national and regional associations of history teachers decided to establish EUROCLIO at a meeting in Strasbourg in November 1992. EUROCLIO had its first official meeting in April 1993 at a symposium on 'The Teaching of History since 1815 with Special Reference to Changing Borders' organized jointly by the Netherlands Ministry of Education and the Council of Europe. EUROCLIO identified itself as an independent organization without political, philosophical and religious affiliations (Slater, 1995). The establishment of EUROCLIO can be seen as a result of changing views about History education and history in Eastern and Western Europe after the fall of the Iron Curtain and at the end of the Cold War. After the Cold War new textbooks have been written and teachers have been re-educated. Since history education has more influence than any other subject on people's views about other states and people, in the new period the importance of the development of multi perspectivity, mutual understanding and international cooperation has increased (Leeuw-Roord, 1998). EUROCLIO which was founded in such an international conjuncture aims to strengthen

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the position of history in the curriculum of schools throughout Europe. EUROCLIO promotes innovation in history education and the intellectual freedom of history educators, and aims to enhance mutual understanding, sharing information and cooperation between history educators in Europe (Slater, 1995). A history educator, Ruth Watts from the UK claims that the most significant development from the work of the Council of Europe in history is the birth of EUROCLIO (Watts, 2000, 176).

In order to reach the aims stated above, EUROCLIO has organized international annual professional training and development courses for history educators in various countries since 1993. Recent themes of the courses have been, changes in the learning and teaching of history in the decade of educational reforms; building from the local to the global perspective in school history; using history skills, values and concepts, human rights in history, heritage and national identity, European citizenship, ICT in history lessons and multiculturalism. At the 2005 and 2007 EUROCLIO annual conferences I was the only Turkish participant. When I noticed that there was not enough participation from Turkey I contacted EUROCLIO to gather information about all their annual courses since 1993. I asked about course topics, number of participants and how many Turkish participants have attended these annual courses. The table below which was sent by EUROCLIO shows the numbers of participants and from which countries they have come from to attend these events each year. When the table is examined it is clear that more than 100 educators from 35 different countries participate in these events every year. People from many countries including the USA, Albania, Australia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia, Bulgaria, France, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Latvia, Luxembourg, Macedonia, Malta, Moldavia, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Tataristan, Turkey, UK and Ukraine have participated in the conferences. Most of the participants are history teachers or social science teachers in elementary or secondary schools. Apart from teachers, textbook writers, academics, teacher trainers as well as bureaucrats from the ministry of education of various countries participate in these meetings.

These annual events usually take five days. On the first day of the courses, officials of the host country such as the president, minister of education or some top level academic welcomes the participants and gives brief information about the history of that country and its education. Throughout the rest of the week there are some school visits in order to introduce the host country's educational system and history lessons to the conference participants. The participants visit different schools in small groups. After

a briefing by the head teachers of the schools concerning the school and the national education system, the participants are taken to different classes where they find an opportunity to observe history lessons and to ask students and teachers different questions. During the visit it is aimed to observe history or social science classes but if such classes are not available during the visit the participants can observe other classes as well. During the school visit the school's resources and other facilities are introduced to the participants, also the participants visit the teachers' staff room and have a chance to talk with other teachers at the school. During the week one day is reserved for visiting the museums and important historical sites of the country. While historical places and museums are being visited, various information about the history of the country is introduced. The educational facilities of the museums and sites are also introduced. The visits show concrete examples of using museums and historical places in history teaching.

**Table 1.** International Conferences of EUROCLIO 1993-2010

1993	Glasgow, Scotland	<i>Concepts and Skills in History</i> , 62 participants from 4 countries
1993	Leeuwarden, The Netherlands	<i>History Teaching since 1815 with Special Reference to Changing Borders</i> , 150 participants from 35 countries
1994	Glasgow, Scotland	<i>Concepts and Skills in History</i> , 40 participants from 8 countries.
1994	Bruges, Belgium	<i>Problems in the Learning and Teaching of History</i> , 40 participants from 25 countries
1995	Berlin, Germany	<i>Teaching about the Potsdam Conference and its Consequences</i> , 70 participants from 30 countries
1995	Toledo, Spain	<i>Philip II and his Time</i> 100 participants from 6 countries
1996	Neuchâtel, Switzerland	<i>History Teaching: a Key to Democracy?</i> , 65 participants from 30 countries
1996	Jurmala, Latvia	<i>Explore the Unknown Europe. History and History Education in the Baltic States</i> , 50 participants from 15 countries
1997	Budapest , Hungary	<i>Preparing for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century. Principles for the Design of History Syllabuses</i> , 102 participants from 31 countries
1997	Pècs, Hungary	<i>The Youth and History project. Challenges and Implications for the Teaching and Learning of History</i> , 70 participants from 37 countries
1998	Helsinki, Finland	<i>History Teaching and Information Technology – Will IT enhance History Teaching</i> , 105 participants from 39 countries

1998	Coleraine, Northern Ireland	<i>The past in the future, Information technology in history education and Education for Mutual Understanding</i> , 25 participants from 5 countries
1999	Edinburgh, Scotland	<i>Heritage and National Identity – Key Concepts in History Education?</i> , 108 participants from 37 countries
2000	Lisbon, Portugal	<i>Remembering and Commemorating History</i> , 112 participants from 35 countries
2001	Tallinn, Estonia	<i>A Changing World, the Significance of Everyday Life in the Learning and Teaching of history with a Focus on the 20<sup>th</sup> Century</i> , 140 participants from 35 countries
2002	Prague, Czech Republic	<i>A Rich and Varied Diversity. The Learning and Teaching of Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities in Europe</i> , 140 participants from 39 countries, 1 participant from Turkey
2003	Bologna, Italy	<i>School History on the Move. Changes in the Learning and Teaching of History in the Decade of Educational Reforms</i> , 195 participants from 38 countries
2004	Cardiff, Wales	<i>Belonging to Europe – Small Nations, Big Issues</i> , 118 participants from 32 countries, 1 participant from Turkey
2005	Riga, Latvia	<i>Gaining Equilibrium? How to balance Local, National, Regional, European and World History</i> , 160 participants from 43 countries, 1 participant from Turkey.
2006	Valletta, Malta	<i>Using History Skills and Concepts to Promote an Awareness of European Citizenship</i> , 160 participants from 43 countries, 3 participants from Turkey
2007	Bled, Slovenia	<i>Human Rights Education: Lessons from History</i> , 160 participants from 43 countries, 1 participant from Turkey
2008	Bristol, England	<i>Multi-ethnic Histories as a Vehicle for Values, National Character, Identity and: History Teaching and Ethnic Diversity</i> , 123 participants from 38 countries, 1 participant from Turkey
2009	Nicosia, Cyprus	<i>Taking the Perspective of the Others: Intercultural Dialogue and Teaching and Learning History</i> , 120 participants from 35 different countries, 2 participants from Turkey
2010	Nijmegen, Netherlands	<i>A Bridge Too Far? Teaching Common European History Themes, Perspectives and Levels</i> , The Conference will be held from <b>March 22-28 2010</b> in Nijmegen, the Netherlands

During the rest of the week, different workshops and lectures take place after breakfast until dinner time. While experts from different countries speak about their topics that are based on that year's agenda, in the workshops

practitioners from different countries make presentations about different aspects of history education and participants get the opportunity to share their experiences from their own countries. Before the conference the participants are asked to bring samples of materials, textbooks, assessment tools etc. from their countries. These materials are displayed for the whole week and they are shared and compared. On the last day of the programme a cultural farewell party is organized. At this party there is a musical and folklore presentation which introduces the culture of the host country. The participants get the opportunity to further learn about the folklore and culture of the country as well as getting rid of the stress of the week. Apart from officially planned activities the participants do find opportunities to have further discussions during the meals and tea breaks as well as the free hours after the dinner. It is also possible to meet and speak with the officials of the country during the receptions that the ministry of education or universities of the country gives.

It can be said by participating in such in-service training courses, the educators further develop their many skills and become able:

- 1- To learn about the developments about education around the world.
- 2- To benefit from the knowledge of international education experts about the current problems of education.
- 3- To compare their country with others by seeing examples of education methods in different countries.
- 4- To learn about different cultures by making new friends from different countries.
- 5- To find possible partners for other European Union projects.
- 6- To learn about the culture and history of the host country.
- 7- To learn about the current political and daily events of the visited country.
- 8- To be motivated to learn a foreign language or further develop their knowledge of a foreign language.
- 9- To reduce any mutual biases and prejudices and to know each other better.

The annual conferences of EUROCLIO are part of the European Commission Lifelong Learning Programme, Comenius/Grundvig catalogue, so teachers can apply for grants to attend the meetings. The Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) is a European funding programme which supports education and training across Europe. The LLP provides funding for all stages of lifelong learning; for activities at school, at college, at university, in the workplace and in the community. Lifelong Learning programmes provide educational improvement opportunities without any cost to anyone

from primary-secondary education students to adults, from professional education apprentices to university students, from people who are in need of main skills to education professionals. The LLP is made up of several different programmes offering a variety of opportunities. It provides opportunities for schools and colleges to introduce or strengthen the European dimension in their curriculum. Comenius in-service training grants are available for staff involved in school or further education to attend a training activity in any of the 30 participating countries across Europe. The Comenius programme focuses on the first phase of education, from pre-school and primary to secondary schools. It is relevant for all members of the education community: pupils, teachers, local authorities, parents' associations, non-government organisations, teacher training institutes, universities and all other educational staff. Many participants of EUROCLIO activities participate in these events by using Comenius grants. Comenius and other LLP activities of the European Commission in Turkey are handled by the Center for European Union Education and Youth Programmes, the Turkish National Agency which works under the Turkey State Planning Organization. According to the information on the National Agency web page Turkey joined the European Union Education and Youth Programmes as a "full member" in April 1 2004. Turkey joined the Lifelong Learning programme which started in January 1 2007 again as a "full member". Lifelong Learning and Youth programmes which cover a 7 year period that will last until the end of the year 2013 will accept applications 5 times each year.

Although the grants the National Agency provides change according to the type of activities, for in-service training courses the grant covers the visa fees, course fees, travel and accommodation costs. For example the course application fee for the EUROCLIO in-service training courses is 1000 Euro including accommodation. When travel costs and visa fees are included, the total expenses become about 1500 Euro. When this number is considered alongside the average salary of a teacher it is clear that this Grant is important. In the Grant opportunities that are provided by European Commission, first priority is given to those who have not been to any foreign country or have no foreign language experience and to those who work in regions and institutions with socio-economical disadvantages. A participant who has scholarship from Comenius cannot benefit from it again for three years. In order to benefit from any LLP courses a knowledge of one of the following languages is needed: English, French or German. The actual reason for the low amount of participation from Turkey is the lack of any foreign language experience. In order to participate in personal in-service training courses a person has to prove that he/she has language skills in English, French or German. If

trainee teachers are to be informed about such opportunities during their undergraduate or PGCE degree, they will be motivated to learn a foreign language. If academics who participate in such events make presentations to their students about the activities they participated in and how teachers can join such activities, their students will be motivated to follow international developments and to learn a foreign language.

Another reason for the low participation in international activities is the lack of self confidence. It is possible to observe that some educators, even if they know a foreign language, are shy and humble in this matter. Some teachers are using their lack of practice as an excuse. However it is possible to meet participants in international events with different levels of foreign language. While there are participants that can speak English very fluently, there are also participants whose language skill is just enough to follow the courses. So people should try to attend those events since it is the only chance to improve their foreign language practice. Another reason for the lack of participation in such events can be seen as due to the lack of information that teachers have about such opportunities. Actually after I shared my experiences and knowledge about such opportunities with social science and history teachers around me, I have observed that they know nothing about such opportunities or how to apply for to those grants. It is clear that if National Agencies and the Ministry of Education make more effort to announce such opportunities, there will be more participation in such international events.

In this part of the article some practical information for those who might be willing to participate in future courses of EUROCLIO and other courses that are part of the LLP programme will be given. It is possible to find detailed information about both LLP/Comenius and EUROCLIO programmes in [www.euroclio.eu](http://www.euroclio.eu) web page. It is also beneficial to constantly check the web page of National Agencies. For detailed contact information of national agencies for all countries can be found at [http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/doc1208\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-programme/doc1208_en.htm). In the UK the LLP programmes are managed by the British Council and ECOTEC. The joint website [www.lifelonglearningprogramme.org.uk](http://www.lifelonglearningprogramme.org.uk) serves as a portal for information on all Lifelong Learning programmes and funding opportunities for people from the UK. In Turkey people should check the web page [www.ua.gov.tr](http://www.ua.gov.tr) for details. In those web pages it is possible to learn about educational activities of the European Council, the application procedures, the application dates and assessment criteria for applications, as well as other opportunities. Since all National Agencies have different criteria and application dates, those who wish to participate in such events should check those pages regularly and act with care. Not only social studies and history teachers, but teachers from all

subjects can participate in various in-service training courses that are held in various countries in English, French or German languages. It is possible to reach a list of all the activities that teachers and education professionals can participate in under LLP programmes via the following link <http://ec.europa.eu/education/trainingdatabase>. In addition to that, many international organizations provide many grants for teachers and academics to attend. One should be a good internet user to search for those opportunities. For instance in Turkey it is possible to reach a list of available international course grants and their application dates from the Ministry of Education International Affairs General Supervisor's Office web page: <http://digm.meb.gov.tr/> by clicking the "in service training" link.

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### Internet sources:

- [http://ec.europa.eu/education/llp/doc/call10/part1\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/llp/doc/call10/part1_en.pdf)
- <http://www.euroclio.eu>
- <http://www.lifelonglearningprogramme.org.uk>
- <http://www.ua.gov.tr/>