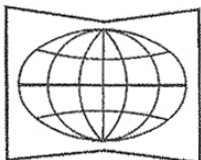


HISTORY EDUCATION INTERNATIONAL

Elisabeth Erdmann, Wolfgang Hasberg (Eds.)

History Teacher Education

Global Interrelations



**Wochen
schau
Geschichte**

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Bologna – A European or a Global Task?

Introduction

Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg

The reform of teacher education seems to be a never ending story. A new chapter (phase) started in 1999, at least in Europe, when the 29 European ministers for cultural affairs signed up the *Bologna Declaration*. Bologna, the name of a town in North-Italy, became a symbol for all reforms in the area of university education. The *Bologna Declaration* intended to create a homogeneous space of higher education in Europe. In particular, it aspired to a convergence of university studies, or a promotion of student mobility. The states participating in the Bologna process are not limited to the European Union or the members of the Council of Europe. All in all, today 47 states participate in the process.



Fig. 1: Bologna-Zone

1. Intentions of the Bologna Declaration

In order to explain the intention and the structure of this book, first the aims of the *Bologna Declaration* have to be presented. The “Joint declaration of the European Ministers of Education convened in Bologna on 19th of June 1999” is a rather brief statement and its single appointments may be well-known, but often they are understood in a mistakable way. The basic appointments are:

- Adoption of a system of *easily readable and comparable degrees* ... in order to promote European citizens employability and the international competitiveness of the European higher education system.
- Adoption of a system essentially based on *two main cycles* ... The degree awarded after the first cycle shall also be relevant to the European employment market as an appropriate level of qualification. The second cycle should lead to a master and/or doctorate degree as in many European countries.
- Establishment of a *system of credits* – such as in the ECTS system – as a proper means of promoting the most widespread student mobility ...
- Promotion of mobility by overcoming obstacles to the effective exercise of free movement ... for students (and) ... for teachers, researchers and administrative staff ...
- Promotion of *European co-operation in quality assurance* with an aim of developing comparable criteria and methodologies.
- Promotion of the *necessary European dimensions in higher education*, particularly with regards to curricular development, inter-institutional co-operation, mobility schemes and integrated programs of study, training and research.¹

These goals may be well-known. And they are as wide as they limit the borders of university studies and consequently of teacher education. But at first sight they seem not to allude to history teacher education. Certainly, attention is advised because the aim of the reorganization is combined with the formation of a European identity as far as the Declaration states “the need to establish a more complete and far-reaching Europe, in particular building upon and strengthening its intellectual, cultural, social, scientific and technological dimensions.” With this in mind the European citizens should gain the “competences to face the challenges of the new millennium, together with an awareness of shared values and belonging to a common social and cultural space.”² Ergo, the reorganization of the higher education in Europe should lead to the formation of a European identity in the long run.

¹ http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/990719BOLOGNA_DECLARATION.PDF (accessed: August 6th, 2013), 3f. (accentuations in original, bracket addition by W.H.).

² Ibid., 1.

And in a second line caution is advised as well. Since the declaration focuses on the employability, the first cycle studies (BA) as well as the second cycle studies (MA) should enable students to take up employment. This becomes much more clear in a German instruction of the *Conference of the Ministers of Cultural Affairs* which is relevant for all federal states. This instruction distinguishes between “more research-orientated studies” and “more applied studies”. Obviously, teacher education belongs to the second group. The instruction declares that Master studies which lead to a teaching post must have a special profile which has to be verified by accreditation institutes and which has to be certified in the diploma-supplement.³ As a consequence, teacher education is consecutive organized in a BEd- and an MEd-cycle and has an own profile which differs from other academic studies, e.g. the study of history. Accordingly the BA-study is a part of teacher education and loses its polyvalent character. If this reform, which is not accepted by all federal states⁴, is compatible with the Bologna process in other countries will be reviewed in the following articles.

2. Reform of (History) Teacher Education as a consequence of Bologna

The cultural administrators expected 1999 “Universities again to respond promptly and positively, and to contribute actively to the success of ... (this) endeavour.”⁵ Until 2010 all goals of the Bologna process should have been realized. But the implementation required more or less time depending on the university or the state. There is a difference between states where the two-stage-framework of university studies is established of long standing (e.g. USA, Great Britain). On the other side, there are countries in Middle and Eastern Europe where this form of university studies was established in consequence of the changes which took place in 1989/90. In Western Europe, at least in the countries where classic universities exist, implementation development proceeded much slower. This is especially in Germany the case, where the federal political system avoids a uniform arrangement of university studies due to cultural sovereignty of the federal states. Whereas in most federal states the academic studies were reorganized early, the teacher education was not reformed in the same way. On the one hand it was reorganized later than the academic studies, on the other the reform differs between states. In most federal states the Bologna reform was implemented in teacher education, too, although not until 2010, as the Declaration intended. In some federal states the re-

³ *Ländergemeinsame Strukturvorgaben gemäß § 9 Abs. 2 HRG für die Akkreditierung von Bachelor- und Masterstudiengängen* (Beschluss der Kultusministerkonferenz Oct. 10th, 2003 in the form of Sept. 18th, 2008 (http://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/veroeffentlichungen_beschluesse/2003/2003_10_10-Laendergemeinsame-Strukturvorgaben.pdf) (accessed: August 6th, 2013).

⁴ E.g. in North Rhine-Westphalia, where the field of teacher education at universities comprises Bachelor studies of Arts (3 years) and Master studies of Education (2 years).

⁵ *Ibid.*, 4 (bracket addition by W.H.).

form is not yet put into practice (Bavaria, Baden-Württemberg), in other the reform was rejected already (Saxony). Because the process in Germany is open, there is the chance to learn from the experiences of other countries. Therefore the editors of this book initiated a panel at the German Conference of History Didactics in 2011 in Augsburg, where some colleagues reported about the changes that took place in Hungary, Netherlands and Switzerland. As a consequence, the editors launched the initiative to analyze the situation of history teacher education in the European Union.⁶ This was the starting point for the recent project of collecting experiences about the implementation, respectively the exposure of history teacher education configured in a Bachelor and Master stage.

3. Challenges and risks – or: History Didactics in the swirl of Bologna

If the form changes the contents change, too. Therefore a short overview of the consequences of Bologna process for the framework of history didactics is necessary. Here the coincidence of the Bologna Process and the results of the OECD *Programme for International Student Assessment* (PISA) seem to be important, at least in Germany. Because the results of German pupils didn't accord with the average many efforts begun to reform the educational system. In particular the debate upon standards and competencies escalated and was incorporated in the politics of education. As a consequence of revision of school lessons, the focus was directed to teacher education, too. Therefore, in the first decade of the 21st century pedagogy and didactics obtained a higher importance. The studies should last longer or – in the new diction – students could obtain more credit points and the influence on the grade became larger. This development could be observed in some European states, but especially in Germany.⁷

Thus, the Bologna reform comprises (or comprised?) chances for the development of history didactics. But the zenith is past already. In some federal states the importance of (history) didactics melted down regarding the number of lessons as well as the duration to the final grade.

And much greater risks arose concerning demand of applicability of teacher education in universities. The subject “Bildungswissenschaften” was created as a conglomerate of pedagogy and general didactics. It was defined as a kind of guiding science in the field of study of teacher education.⁸ Of course the subjects of teacher

⁶ *Zur Professionalisierung von Geschichtslehrerinnen und Geschichtslehrern. Nationale und internationale Perspektiven*, ed. Susanne Popp et al. (Beihefte zur Zeitschrift für Geschichtsdidaktik, vol. 5) (Göttingen: V&Runipress, 2012), 343-414. The panel was based on *Facing – Mapping – Bridging Diversity. Foundation of a European Discourse on History Education*, 2 vols., ed. by Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg (HEint 1,1 and 1,2) (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2011).

⁷ For details s. the article from Erdmann/Hasberg in this volume, 47-64.

⁸ Cf. Ewald Terhart, “‘Bildungswissenschaften’. Verlegenheitslösung, Sammeldisziplin, Kampfbegriff!” *Zeitschrift für Pädagogik* 58 (2012), 22-39.

education should be coordinated and perhaps it would be useful to organize them by a combined curriculum of scientific, historio-didactical and pedagogical studies. In any case, it is debatable, whether “Bildungswissenschaften” should play a leading role.

At the same time, a second risk due to reorganization following the Bologna reform can be observed, even because of the demanded applicability. The number of students enlisted (ist das gemeint?) and importance of practical courses increased. In some universities the practical courses will probably dominate, especially in the master-phase. Hence, the hazard seems realistic that the history didactics as an academic subject will drop back to a kind of artistry (or: master’s teaching) and will be taught not by scientists but by practitioners. If this perception becomes true, the existence of history didactics as scientific subject is in danger.

The question we pursue to answer in this book is, whether similar challenges as in Germany occurred in other countries. If the following articles can describe appropriate solutions for such problems by showing failures or successes, then it would be a challenge to handle them – in Germany as in other states. This was the reason for collecting field reports (studies), not only from Europe but all over the world, since the experiences made in the Anglo-American region are much wider than in the continental Europe.

4. History Teacher Education as a global task: Aims and structure of the book

The issue of this book is teacher education as a global task. But looking on the differences between educational systems all over the world, this pretension becomes questionable. In the face of differences of educational frameworks it seems necessary to have different forms of (history) teacher education, too. And the problem grows with respect to function history has in different educational frameworks as well as in different (national) cultures. If the aim is to integrate the young generation – and the adults, too – into a (self-contained) society using history education or history for educational advertising – to name the both poles – then history education as well as training for history teachers must change.

Nevertheless, the 49 states involved in the Bologna process intent to overall equalize university studies and consequently the education of history teachers, too. Hence, there is a joint European task of history teacher educators, at least regarding the external form of studies. But to respect the cultural features, history education and history teacher education have to be described as parts of historical culture which is different in each of the 49 states (aber S. 5 steht 47, was m.W. stimmt!) and all over the world. Therefore the reports of history teacher educators should give information about the following points:

1. Significance / importance / acceptance of history in society,
2. position of history in the structure of academic education / of university, including the position of history didactics (structural overview and comparison with the position in society),
3. position of history in school education (structural overview and comparison with the position in society),
4. history as academic subject in universities (comparison between history as scientific subject and history as subject of teacher education, explanation of the position and standing of history in the teacher studies for various kinds of schools / teachers)
 - a. contingent of history didactics in study programs, (structural) position in the structure of different study programs and examinations,
 - b. contents of history-didactical studies,
 - c. organisation of practical courses during or after the university phase (are they organised by people with regards to history didactics or general didactics?),
 - d. Configuration of the post-university teacher education and interlacing of both phases,
5. modifications ascribed by the *Bologna Declaration* – discourse of history teacher education in context of the Bologna process – estimation and evaluation of the modifications accused by the reform of Bologna.

As demonstrated by this list, the intention of our book is to share experiences in handling risks and chances which arise when organizing history teacher education in a two-circle-sequence as the *Bologna Declaration* prescribes. Instructors and participants in the discourse get the chance to learn from each other, although experiences are presented in various ways and different depths. Therefore the book is divided into three chapters. In the first chapter experiences of those states are collected which are directly affected by the Bologna reforms because they are members of the European Union. The second section consists of experiences made by states which are not members of the European Union but participate in the Bologna process. In the third chapter the states are presented which possess the deepest and widest experiences with BA-MA-structure of history teacher education, because they practice this form for a long time. Within the chapters, articles are alphabetically arranged by the surname of the first author.

Even though history teacher education must be organized in different ways because of the historic and cultural particularities, it is a global task to discuss the challenges of history teacher education in a global network, since reforms on the one side affect reforms on the other. While adopting a new framework for history teacher education it cannot be wrong to take advantage of the experiences of those who implemented it.

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1.

**History Teacher Education
in the European Union**

University History Education and History Teacher Training in the United Kingdom

Arthur Chapman

1. Introduction

In a companion volume Terry Haydn has explored the role of history in contemporary British society and culture and the position of history in English schools.¹ This paper focuses, first, on history as a university subject in the United Kingdom and, second, on history teacher education in England.²

There is no unified field of ‘history didactics’ in England. There are few direct links between university history education and history teacher education: with rare exceptions, history degrees and history education qualifications are delivered by academics working in different faculties, who are likely to have been trained in different postgraduate disciplines and who rarely have direct professional contact with each other. There are, nevertheless, commonalities in both spheres of history education, for example, shared understandings of history as a discipline.³

Although the term ‘didactics’ is very rarely used in England, the term ‘pedagogy’ is increasingly common and carries some of the meanings that didactics has in Germany or in Holland; ‘history pedagogy’ is used in United Kingdom in the same way that ‘history didactics’ can be used to refer to the domain specific teaching and learning, and ‘pedagogy’ is often used in the ways in which ‘general didactics’ is used, to refer to generic aspects of teaching and learning.⁴

¹ Terry Haydn, “History Teaching in the United Kingdom” in *Facing – Mapping – Bridging Diversity: Foundations of a European Discourse on History Education, Vol. 2*, eds., Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2011).

² The history education elements of this chapter focus on England rather than on the United Kingdom because my practical experience of history education is limited to England and, second, because there are substantial and increasingly marked differences between the educational systems of the component nations of the United Kingdom.

³ Richard Evans, “The Wonderfulness of Us (the Tory Interpretation of History)”, *London Review of Books* 33 (March 17th, 2011): 9-12 (<http://www.lrb.co.uk/v33/n06/richard-j-evans/the-wonderfulness-of-us>) is a recent position statement on school history by an eminent historian that illustrates these shared understandings of the nature and purpose of history education. The piece and the letters in response to it also show, however, that these views are not universally held among English academic historians.

⁴ There are rare exceptions: the University of Bath, for example, describe their subject studies PGCE programmes as ‘subject didactics’ programmes (<http://wiki.bath.ac.uk/display/handbooksdeps/Home>). On pedagogy see Robin Alexander, *Essays on Pedagogy* (London and New York: Routledge, 2008).

2. University History in the United Kingdom

Many teachers in state and private schools in England do not have first degrees in the academic subject (or subjects) that they teach.⁵ However, it is rare, in my experience, for post-graduate students to be admitted onto history education courses without having studied history (or cognate subjects such as archaeology) in at least 50% of their first degrees and a recent study has found that history students were among the best qualified trainees entering post-graduate teacher education.⁶

In my experience, it is not uncommon for trainee history teachers to have master's degrees in history. However, as education in historical studies beyond first degree level is neither a requirement nor the norm for history teachers in English schools, this section will focus on first rather than on higher degrees in history.

2.1 Numbers of Students Studying History

Higher education in the United Kingdom has expanded dramatically since the 1960s: whereas at the start of the 1960s, participation in higher education was a minority activity limited to around 5% of young people (under the age of 21), by 1997, participation rates had risen to 33% and a further expansion was occurred from 2001, driven by the New Labour government's aim that '50% of those aged 18 to 30 should participate in some form of higher education' by 2010.⁷ Whilst the social, economic and educational impacts of these changes remain controversial, 'a huge educational upgrading' has occurred: In 1981, 58% of the adult (aged 26-60) workforce had no qualifications; in the same year, 5% had a degree. By 2011, the percentage without qualifications had fallen to a mere 5%, whilst 31% had a degree.⁸

The number of students studying history in higher education has grown in line with the broader trend. It is difficult to be precise, because the ways in which statistics are reported have changed frequently. However, taking the official figures at face value, in the forty years between 1967 and 2007, the absolute number of students

⁵ Alan Smithers and Louise Tracey, *Teacher Qualifications* (London: The Sutton Trust, 2003), 13 (<http://www.suttontrust.com/research/teacher-qualifications/>); Katharine Burn and Richard Harris, "Findings from the Historical Association survey of secondary school history teachers in England 2011" (http://www.history.org.uk/file_download.php?ts=1316427728&id=9086).

⁶ Alan Smithers and Pamela Robinson, *The Good Teacher Training Guide 2011* (Buckingham: Centre for Education and Employment Research, 2011): 22 (<http://www.buckingham.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2010/11/GTTG2011.pdf>).

⁷ Ann-Marie Bathmaker, "The Expansion of Higher Education: A Consideration of Control, Funding and Quality" in S. Bartlett and D. Burton, eds., *Education Studies. Essential Issues*, London: Sage, 2003. E-print: 9-10 (<http://eprints.uwe.ac.uk/view/author/Bathmaker=3AAnn-Marie=3A=3A.html>). For a critical appraisal of the growth in higher education, see Alison Wolff, *Does Education Matter? Myths about Education and Economic Growth* (London: Penguin Books, 2002).

⁸ Joanne Lindley and Stephan Machin, "The Quest for More and More Education: Implications for Social Mobility," *Fiscal Studies* 33 (2012): 269.

studying history increased by 669.1%, from 6904 to 53.135.⁹ History's relative position declined, however, compared to other subjects and whereas students studying history in 1967 constituted 3.1% of the total number of students (224.116), by 2007 the figure had dropped to 2.3% of the total (230.6105). Expansion continued in the new millennium – a rate of increase of 80.7% between 2000, when there were 30165 history students, and 2010, when there were 54690. Although numbers peaked in 2003/04 and have declined marginally since, history's relative position as a proportion of university students increased by 0.7% between 2000/2001 and 2010/2011.

History students are disproportionately likely to continue their studies to postgraduate level: '14.4% of all history graduates' in a national survey of the career outcomes of graduates in 2009 'were pursuing a higher degree, a proportion considerably higher than the national average of 8.1%'.¹⁰ However, whereas the relative proportion of history students studying at postgraduate level was almost identical in 1967 (19.6% of history students) and in 2000 (19%) the relative size of the postgraduate population has shrunk in the last decade (to 15.8% of history students in 2011).

It is not possible to know if the upward trend in students studying history will continue: policy imperatives change and so do their effects. Whilst the expansion of higher education in the 1960s and 1970s featured significant state subsidy for students, from the early 1990s expansion in England has increasingly transferred costs to students, first, by providing loans rather than grants to support living costs and, second, since 2006/7, through the introduction of tuition fees which will increase, from 2012, by up to 200% (from an annual maximum of £ 3.000 to one of £ 9.000). Direct government funding for teaching in subjects other than science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) has also ended and these changes have caused considerable alarm about the future of subjects, such as history, that lack direct vocational utility.¹¹ Universities and Colleges Admissions

⁹ The 1967 figures are from The Institute of Historical Research (IHR) 'Numbers of students taking history' (http://www.history.ac.uk/makinghistory/resources/statistics/students_HESA.html#sec4). The 2007 figures, and the figures that follow below, are calculated from Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA), 'Students and Qualifiers data tables' (Cheltenham: HESA, n.d.) (<http://www.hesa.ac.uk/content/view/1973/239/>). The measurement and aggregation of data has changed over time rendering the comparisons made here somewhat tentative. I have included the following HESA categories in the totals for history in 1995-6 to 2001-2: History and Economic and Social History; and, from 2002/3 onwards, I have included the HESA categories History by Period, History by Area, and History by Topic in the totals for history.

¹⁰ David Nicholls, *The Employability of History Graduates: An Update* (Warwick: History Subject Centre, 2011): 2 (http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/cross_fac/heahistory/research/gwi/emp_report/).

¹¹ See Sean Coughlan, 'Students face tuition fees rising to £ 9.000', BBC News, November 3rd, 2010 (<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/education-11677862>) and Hannah Richardson, "Humanities to lose English universities teaching grant", BBC News, October 26th, 2010

Service data on undergraduate applications for 2012 show a 10% decline in undergraduate applications from English students. Applications for courses in Historical and Philosophical Studies declined by 7.1%, to a total of 77266 applications, cancelling much of the growth in undergraduate numbers achieved since 2002/2003. Historical and Philosophical Studies have been impacted less than most other subjects, however: of the 25 subject groups that experienced decline in 2012, 15 subject groups experienced a larger drop in applications.¹²

2.2 *Historical Studies in UK Universities*

2.2.1 Curriculum and Pedagogy 1950-2000

The history curriculum in UK universities has changed radically since World War II.¹³ As Alan Booth has observed, whereas students in the 1950s typically studied political, or, more rarely, economic history, since the 1960s, history has diversified dramatically:

“The rise of social history and demands for greater student choice in the 1960s led to an end of the domination of political history ... and the breaking down of notions of a core curriculum. There was a rapid growth of ‘options’, often in thematic topics such as the history of elites, crime and protest, urban history, and women’s history. These frequently imported theories from the social sciences, notably sociology ... The curriculum ... broadened ... to include the history of Africa and Latin America, with some institutions ... introducing interdisciplinary ‘area studies’, and others contemporary history ... (I)nter- and multi-disciplinary programmes ... grew strongly from the early 1970s, for example in areas such as media studies, literature and history, and politics and history. (In the 1980s and 1990s and subsequently) the rise of ‘cultural’ history prompted new areas of research but also greater theoretical engagement with other disciplines, such as anthropology, politics and linguistics, and a more fundamental questioning of traditional practice in the subject than ever before ... The interest in cultural history, alongside a growing public fascination with ‘the past’, also prompted a closer engagement with ‘popular’ history, such as oral history and public history, and with new areas such as ‘heritage’ studies.”¹⁴

(<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/education-11627843>) and for a history academic’s reaction Nicholls, *Employability* (note 10): 1.

¹² Universities and Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS), *Data reported for applications considered on time for 30 June deadline* (Online: UCAS, 2012), 2f. (http://www.ucas.com/about_us/media_enquiries/media_releases/2012/20120709).

¹³ See Peter Mandler, *History and National Life* (London: Profile Books, 2002), for a history of history in Britain in the twentieth century and John Tosh, *Why History Matters* (Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, 2008) for a recent perspective on the discipline in its contemporary context.

¹⁴ Alan Booth, “The making of history teaching in 20th-century British higher education” (London: Institute of Historical Research, 2008 (http://www.history.ac.uk/makinghistory/resources/articles/teaching_of_history.html)). See also David Cannadine, ed., *What is History*

Developments in both curriculum and pedagogy have been impacted by national policy initiatives: the 1997 National Committee of Enquiry into Higher Education report recommended both the establishment of programme specifications for degrees and the creation of a professional Institute for Learning and Teaching in Higher Education and a national ‘subject benchmark statement’ for undergraduate degrees in history and a Higher Education Academy (HEA) ‘Subject Centre’ for history were created in 2000.¹⁵

2.2.2 The Form and Content of Undergraduate History degrees

The subject benchmark for Bachelor’s degrees in history was composed by representatives of a range of higher education institutions, first published in 2000 and republished with revisions in 2007.¹⁶

The statement conceptualises the aim of history degrees in disciplinary terms:

“Knowledge and understanding of the human past is of incalculable value both to the individual and to society at large, and ... the first object of education in history is to enable this to be acquired ... (T)here is variation in how the vast body of knowledge which constitutes the subject is tackled at undergraduate degree level. This entails an approach which concentrates on using knowledge in order to develop certain skills and qualities of mind.”¹⁷

Under the header ‘the historian’s skills and qualities of mind’, the statement lists a number of competencies, including:

- The ability to understand how people have existed, acted and thought in the always different context of the past ...

Now? (Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, 2002) and Peter Burke, ed., *New Perspectives on Historical Writing* (Cambridge, Polity Press, Second Edition, 2001).

¹⁵ For developments in pedagogy see Booth ‘The making’, Alan Booth, *Teaching History at University: Enhancing Learning and Understanding* (London: Routledge, 2003) and Geoff Timmins, Keith Vernon and Christine Kinealy, *Teaching and Learning History* (London, Thousand Oaks, CA and New Delhi: Sage Publications, 2005): 133-169. The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) *Subject benchmark statement: History* (Mansfield: QAA) (<http://www.qaa.ac.uk/Publications/InformationAndGuidance/Pages/Subject-benchmark-statement-History.aspx>). History Subject Centre (HSC) reports and pedagogic materials are available at http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/cross_fac/heahistory/elibrary/. In 2011 subject centres were integrated into the Higher Education Academy (HEA), based in York (<http://www.heacademy.ac.uk/disciplines/history>).

¹⁶ An English Bachelor’s degree or BA (Honours) is equivalent to a ‘First cycle (end of cycle) qualification’ award in the Framework of Qualifications of the European Higher Education Area (FQ-EHEA) and an English Master’s degree (MA) is equivalent to ‘Second cycle (end of cycle qualifications’. See Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (QAA) *The framework for higher education qualifications in England, Wales and Northern Ireland* (Mansfield: QAA, 2008 (<http://www.qaa.ac.uk/Publications/InformationAndGuidance/Documents/FHEQ08.pdf>), 9 and Ministers of Education of the Bologna Process, ‘The framework of qualifications for the European Higher Education Area’, 2005 (http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/EN/BASIC/050520_Framework_qualifications.pdf).

¹⁷ QAA, *Subject* (note 15), 1.

- The ability to read and analyse texts and other primary sources, both critically and empathetically ...
- The appreciation of the complexity and diversity of situations, events and past mentalities ...
- The understanding of the problems inherent in the historical record itself ... appreciation of the range of problems involved in the interpretation of complex, ambiguous, conflicting and often incomplete material ...
- Basic critical skills: a recognition that statements are not all of equal validity, that there are ways of testing them, and that historians operate by rules of evidence ...¹⁸

The statement identifies ‘Criteria for content and approach in designing a programme of undergraduate study’, including temporal ‘depth’ and geographical ‘range’, close work on ‘contemporary sources’, ‘critical awareness’ (reflexivity), an awareness of disciplinary diversity and the opportunity to complete ‘an independent extended piece of written work under appropriate supervision’.¹⁹

The QAA benchmark statement very much expresses and emerges from the traditions of history education that have developed in British universities in the period since the 1960s, for example, in acknowledging and celebrating disciplinary diversity and in its emphasis on reflection on method and on extended depth study and individual research as key elements of undergraduate degrees.²⁰

Undergraduate history degree courses in the UK typically last three years. They typically involve methods courses focusing on historiography and historical research methods in the first year, they often involve a long essay or methods module in the second year and they typically require students to complete a research dissertation and / or a ‘special subject’ depth study in their final year. Degrees typically consist of a mixture of mandatory and elective modules, covering a wide range of periods, topics and types of history and allowing students to specialise in particular sub-disciplinary fields whilst aiming to ensure breadth of coverage in temporal, thematic and / or disciplinary terms.²¹ History departments typically offer a number of degrees and degree combinations, in addition to pure history degrees, and combined honours courses are widely available.²²

3. History Teacher Education in England

History exists as a school subject in primary schools, catering for pupils from 5-11 years of age, in secondary schools, catering for pupils up to the school leaving age

¹⁸ Ibid., 4f.

¹⁹ Ibid, 6f. The document articulates a number of further principles – relating, for example, to teaching and learning and assessment.

²⁰ Timmins et al., *Teaching* (note 15).

²¹ Ibid., 67-131.

²² History degrees and degree combinations can be explored through the Universities and Colleges’ Admissions Service website (<http://www.ucas.com/students/coursesearch/>).

(16), and in school ‘sixth forms’ and in colleges, catering for students who chose to continue in education up to the age of 19. History teachers – teachers who specialise primarily in the teaching of history – exist only in secondary schools and in colleges: primary school teachers teach year groups, rather than ‘subjects’, and teach all subjects to their students. The comments on history teacher education below will, therefore, focus on secondary teacher education.

3.1 *Qualified Teacher Status and Teaching Standards*

Since 1970 teachers working in state schools and colleges have been required to have or to be working towards Qualified Teacher Status (QTS), a status that trainee teachers have achieved, since their introduction in 1992, by demonstrating that they can meet government defined ‘standards’.²³

The latest (2012) Teacher Standards focus on ‘Teaching’ and on ‘Professional Standards’ and the former stipulate that ‘a teacher must’:

1. Set high expectations which inspire, motivate and challenge pupils
2. Promote good progress and outcomes by pupils
3. Demonstrate good subject and curriculum knowledge
4. Plan and teach well-structured lessons
5. Adapt teaching to respond to the strengths and needs of all pupils
6. Make accurate and productive use of assessment
7. Manage behaviour effectively to ensure a good and safe learning environment
8. Fulfil wider professional responsibilities

These statements are developed in further detail (the full text for standards 1-8 is 649 words in length) and statements organised under Standards 2-4 and 6 have particular relevance for subject pedagogy, in the sense that their implementation in history presupposes domain specific pedagogic knowledge and understanding. A sample of these statements is reproduced below:

- be aware of pupils’ capabilities and their prior knowledge, and plan teaching to build on these
- demonstrate knowledge and understanding of how pupils learn and how this impacts on teaching
- have a secure knowledge of the relevant subject(s) and curriculum areas, foster and maintain pupils’ interest in the subject, and address misunderstandings

²³ The standards applicable from September 2012 are available in Department for Education (DfE), *Teachers’ Standards, May 2012* (London: DfE) (<https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/teachers%20standards.pdf>). There have been four iterations of standards since their introduction. It has recently been announced that the requirement that teachers in state schools should have QTS is to be relaxed in some categories of schools, aligning them with the independent school sector – see Hélène Mulholland, ‘Michael Gove tells academies they can hire unqualified teaching staff’ *The Guardian*, July 27th, 2012 (<http://www.guardian.co.uk/education/2012/jul/27/gove-academies-unqualified-teaching-staff>).

- demonstrate a critical understanding of developments in the subject and curriculum areas, and promote the value of scholarship
- impart knowledge and develop understanding through effective use of lesson time
- reflect systematically on the effectiveness of lessons and approaches to teaching
- contribute to the design and provision of an engaging curriculum within the relevant subject area(s)
- make use of formative and summative assessment to secure pupils' progress.²⁴

3.2 *Routes into Teaching*

There are a number of routes through which QTS can be gained in England:

Partnerships led by higher education institutions (HEIs)

These account for nearly 80% of trainees, and include both undergraduate and postgraduate courses (though the number on the former has declined over recent years). Postgraduate training commonly leads towards the PGCE (Postgraduate Certificate in Education).

School-centred initial teacher training (SCITTs)

SCITTs are consortia of schools which offer training towards the PGCE ... With SCITTs, the consortium itself arranges the training and channels the funding for placements ... Universities validate the SCITTs' PGCEs. SCITTs currently count for less than 5% of trainees per year.

Employment-based initial teacher training (EBITTs)

EBITTs involve 'on-the-job' training and fall into three groups: the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) and the Registered Teacher Programme (RTP); Overseas Trained Teacher Programme (OTTP); and Teach First. Only Teach First offers a PGCE as an integral part of the training programme ...²⁵

Figure 1, below, analyses the relative significance of undergraduate, postgraduate and employment-based routes into teaching in 2011-12 in England.

Like university history education, teacher education has changed dramatically since the 1960s.²⁶ In 1960s the majority of entrants to the teaching profession were not graduates but were school leavers following 'undergraduate courses for primary or secondary teaching' that 'led to the Certificate in Education which did not

²⁴ DFE, *Teachers' Standards* (note 23), 7-9.

²⁵ House of Commons Education Committee (HCEC), *Great teachers: attracting, training and retaining the best, Ninth Report of Session 2010-12*, Vol. I (London: The Stationary Office, 2012), 9 (<http://www.publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm201012/cmselect/cmeduc/1515/151502.htm>).

²⁶ David Cannadine, Jenny Keating and Nicola Sheldon, *The Right Kind of History: Teaching the Past in Twentieth Century England* (Houndsmills, Palgrave Macmillan, 2011).

have degree status' in Training Colleges outside the university sector and in 1967 the 'number of graduates in training was very small (only 6.652 out of 113.147 training ...)'.²⁷ Bachelor in Education (BEd) degrees were established from 1968, as part of the process of integrating Training Colleges into the university sector, following the recommendations of the Robbins report on higher education of 1963, and the number of BEd courses with full degree status were expanded further, in the wake of the James Report (1972) on *Teacher Education and Training*, which recommended that all teacher training should lead to a graduate qualification. In the 1950s, a PGCE qualification was typically taken by trainee teachers who had already completed first degrees in subject disciplines and who were training to teach in selective state grammar schools, however, by the late 1970s the PGCE had established itself as the lead qualification for students training to teach in state secondary schools.²⁸

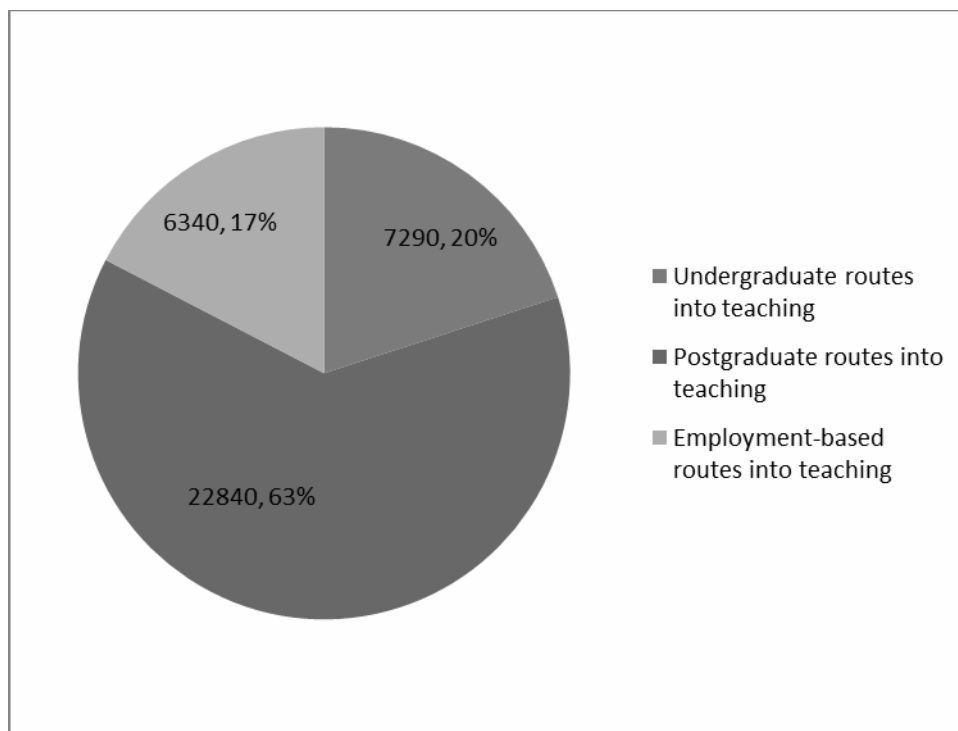


Fig. 1: The distribution of trainee teachers between undergraduate, postgraduate and employment based routes in England in the autumn of the 2011-12 academic year.²⁹

²⁷ Nicola Sheldon, "Analysis of Teacher Numbers 1960s to present day" (London: Institute for Historical Research, 2010): 1 (<http://www.history.ac.uk/history-in-education/project-papers/topics>).

²⁸ David Crook, "Educational Studies and Teacher Education", *British Journal of Educational Studies* 50 (March 2002): 57-75; Geoffrey Partington, *Teacher Education in England and Wales* (London, The Institute for Economic Affairs, 1999): 23; Jenny Keating, "Teacher training – up to the 1960s" and Nicola Sheldon, "Notes on Teacher Training 1960s to present day" (London: Institute for Historical Research, 2010 (<http://www.history.ac.uk/history-in-education/project-papers/topics>)).

²⁹ The figure draws on HCEC, *Great Teachers* (note 25), 10.

The role played by higher education in the training of teachers has frequently been the subject of heated debate in England. These debates have tended to polarise around a theory and practice dichotomy and policies emerging from these debates have tended to prioritise practice.³⁰ One outcome of these debates was the introduction of the Standards for QTS (see section 3.1 above) – a ‘National Curriculum’ for initial teacher training – from 1992.³¹ Another outcome has been the introduction of mandatory ‘partnerships between higher education institutions and schools for the purpose of designing and delivering initial teacher training’ and the introduction, from 1984, of national guidelines on the minimum length of school placements within initial teacher training programmes ... intended to increase the time that trainees spent learning ‘on the job’ in school ... As a result of these changes, Professional/Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PgCE/PGCE) trainees spend around two-thirds of their training programme on placement.³² Finally, these debates have eventuated in the introduction, since the late 1980s, of an increasing number of employment-based routes into teaching (many of which are identified in the quotation at the start of this section), a process which has recently accelerated and which is become a key policy priority for our current government.³³

3.3 Numbers of Trainee History Teachers

The numbers of teachers trained in any given year in England is determined centrally by the Teaching Agency.³⁴ The numbers of history teachers being trained in secondary schools, like the number of teachers trained for all subjects, has fluctuated over time. Figure 2, below, presents trends in allocations to history and a sample of comparator subjects over the period 1990-2012.

In the period covered by the figure, 381.878 training places were allocated across subjects of which 16.585 (4.3%) were history training places. In 1990, 380 places were allocated to secondary history teacher training (3.5% of the annual total) and, with the exception of 1999, when the number shrank, the absolute number of places increased year on year thereafter, reaching a total of 950 in 2002 (5.3% of the annual total). Absolute numbers then declined from 904 places, in 2004, to 545

³⁰ The James Report (1972) was critical of what it perceived to be the overly theoretical approach of many university courses, cf. Crook, “Educational Studies” (note 28): 66, a recurrent theme in critiques of teacher education in England; s. for example James Noble-Rogers, Letter to Chris Wormald, June 19th 2012 (<http://www.ucet.ac.uk/4133>).

³¹ Partington, *Teacher Education* (note 28): 71.

³² House of Commons Children, Schools and Families Committee, *Training of Teachers, Fourth Report of Session 2009-10, Volume I* (London: The Stationary Office, 2010), 30 (<http://www.publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm200910/cmselect/cmchilsch/275/275i.pdf>).

³³ DfE, *Training our next generation of outstanding teachers. Implementation plan* (London, DfE, 2011) (<https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/standard/publicationDetail/Page1/DFE-00083-2011>).

³⁴ Predecessors to the Teaching Agency include the Teaching Development Agency, the Teacher Training Agency and the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education.

in 2010. The history allocation has remained static since 2010 but has increased in relative importance: in 2010 history represented 3.2% of total allocations rising to 3.8% in 2012.³⁵

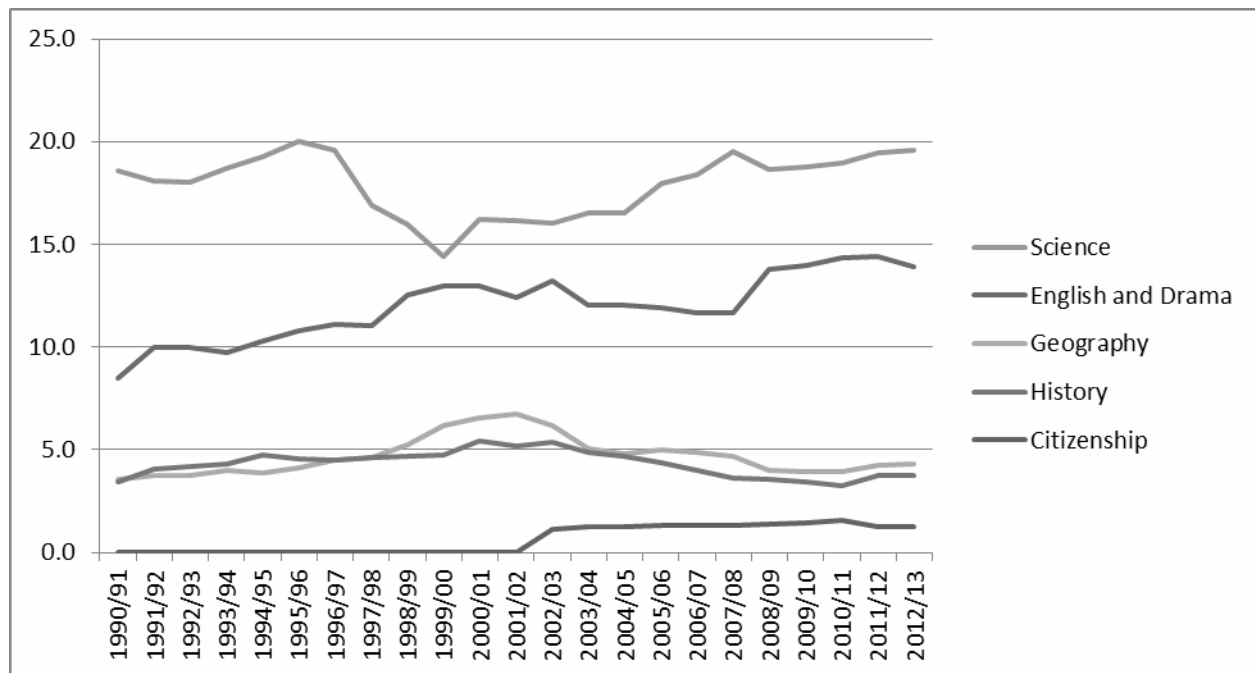


Fig. 2: Allocations of trainee places to history and a selection of comparator subjects, 1990-2012 expressed as percentages of the overall annual total of allocations in each year.³⁶

Fluctuations in the number of history places reflect wider developments, such as the demographics of the teaching workforce and school population and shifting policy imperatives, such as the introduction of the National Curriculum (from 1991) which had a positive impact in securing and improving history's status in many secondary schools.³⁷ Citizenship numbers are included in Figure 2 to draw attention to another policy factor impacting history allocations: there is a suggestive relationship between the data series for history and citizenship following, first, the introduction of the latter as a mandatory school subject, under the New Labour

³⁵ From 2008/09 the DfE data set does not include Teach First. If these numbers are added the absolute number of secondary history allocations rises slightly – to 579 in total for in 2011, for example. See Teaching Development Agency (TDA), *Funding Manual, Teach First, Academic Year 2011/12* (London: TDA) (<https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/standard/SchoolsSO/Page8/TEACH-FIRST-2011-12>).

³⁶ Figure 2 is based on DfE, "Initial Teacher Training (ITT) Places by Subject, 1990/91 to 2012/13". (<http://www.education.gov.uk/researchandstatistics/statistics/allstatistics/a00196885/initial-teacher-training-available-places>).

³⁷ Cannadine et al., *The Right Kind of History* (note 26), 181-218.

government in 1999-2002 and, second, the election of a Conservative led-coalition, with a stated preference for ‘traditional’ subjects, in 2010.³⁸

3.4 Postgraduate History Teacher Education

Since its origins in the 1950s, the PGCE had been understood as a post-graduate qualification because it was taken by graduates. In 2005 the development of a national Framework of Higher Education Qualifications (FEQH) and its alignment with the European framework developed through the Bologna process drew attention to an anomaly: ‘the Postgraduate Certificate in Education did not include any Master’s-level study’.³⁹

Following a national policy statement in April 2005, PGCE courses were redesigned so that, beginning in the 2006/7 academic year, the title Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) was reserved for ‘those ... qualifications that are pitched beyond honours level and align with the FHEQ qualification descriptor at M (master's) level’ and courses that continued to be assessed at Honours, rather than at Master’s level, were to be known as Professional Graduate Certificate of Education (PgCE) courses.⁴⁰ Some universities have designed module assessments exclusively at postgraduate level and others have designed qualifications that can be awarded either at postgraduate or at professional level, depending on student attainment, so that it is possible for students to exit courses with either a PGCE or a PgCE.

Secondary students typically follow a course, lasting 36 weeks in one academic year, that consists of professional training leading to QTS and a course of academic study leading to the award of a PGCE or PgCE. Students spend a minimum of 24 weeks of their 36 week courses in school.⁴¹

PGCE and PgCE students are required to undertake two teaching placements and also typically undertake a week observing in primary schools, often at the start of their courses. It is common for courses to begin with a concentrated period of university study in September and then gradually to move into schools full time in the second half of the first term. The second placement typically follows a variable period of time back in universities in January or February and the second place-

³⁸ Graeme Paton, “Compulsory citizenship lessons ‘may be axed’”, *Daily Telegraph*, Oct. 18th, 2010 (<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/education/educationnews/8071718/Compulsory-citizenship-lessons-may-be-axed.html>).

³⁹ Alison Jackson and Sandra Eady, “Teaching as a Master’s profession in England: the need for continued debate”, *Professional Development in Education* 38 (2012): 149. S. note 16 above on National and European qualifications frameworks.

⁴⁰ Universities UK, Standing Conference of Principals and Universities Council for the Education of Teachers, ‘Joint statement on the use of PGCE qualification title’ (April, 2005) (<http://www.qaa.ac.uk/ASSURINGSTANDARDSANDQUALITY/SUBJECT-GUIDANCE/Pages/PGCE-statement.aspx>).

⁴¹ HCEC, *Great teachers: attracting, training and retaining the best, Ninth Report of Session 2010-12, Vol. II: Oral and written evidence* (London: The Stationary Office, 2012), 292 (<http://www.publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm201012/cmselect/cmeduc/1515/1515ii.pdf>).

ment typically lasts for much of the spring and for the first half of the summer terms. This placement is usually more intensive than the first placement in the teaching load placed upon students. Students usually return to university for a further period of study, ranging in length depending on the amount of time that was spent in university after the end of the first placement.⁴²

School based subject mentors play a critical role in supporting trainees in their reflection on practice, typically through regular mutual observations of teaching, through joint planning and through weekly review and development meetings focused around subject pedagogy, and the effectiveness of courses crucially depends on the development of close partnership working between school subject mentors and university subject tutors.⁴³

The award of QTS is typically assessed through a combination of school based placements, university and school based tasks and assignments focused on general pedagogic and professional issues (for example, inclusion) and the collation of portfolios of evidence, demonstrating that standards have been met. The award of the PGCE is dependent on the completion of assignments at Master's Level to the value of between 40 and 60 credits towards a full Master's degree consisting of 180 credits.

The main focus of PGCE master's level assignments is usually on the subject studied. Assignments typically require students to demonstrate criticality in their understanding of research and pedagogic literature, research methods and data collection and analysis, and it is common for assignments to have an action research or a self-evaluative practical pedagogic focus. Subject studies assignments also frequently aim to promote critical reflection on curriculum and pedagogy and on how the school curriculum constructs history as a subject.

Both the university and the school-based components of PGCE courses tend to be divided into general pedagogic or professionally focused components and subject specific components: the former are typically delivered on an interdisciplinary basis to students studying a number of different subjects and the latter by subject specialists. Subject groups in university vary in size. In 2011/12, 31 universities were leading PGCE history courses in England and the smallest centrally allocated group consisted of 5 students, the largest of 50 and the average group size was 14.8.⁴⁴

⁴² The comments on PGCE/PgCE curriculum in this section are based on my professional experience, as a PGCE tutor in two English universities in 2005-2010, and on scrutiny of a random sample of 4 PGCE course handbooks available online, rather than on extensive systematic research. I am grateful to Dr Katharine Burn, of the Institute of Education, University of London, for sharing history PGCE documents with me.

⁴³ Anna Pendry, Chris Husbands, James Arthur and John Davison, *History Teachers in the Making: Professional Learning* (Buckingham and Philadelphia: Open University Press, 1998): 35-53.

⁴⁴ TDA, *Mainstream and Employment Based ITT allocations 2011/12* (London: TDA, 2011). In 2012 a further expansion of school-led provision was announced ('Schools Direct'). Universities were advised that 'the DFE's strategy to increase school led provision may result in some

PGCE courses do not teach students their subject discipline. Subject input on PGCE courses is usually focused on developing knowledge and understanding of pedagogic processes, curriculum, planning and assessment in history rather than on the development of historical knowledge.

The majority of teaching time in university is typically allocated to subject studies, however, in many cases these sessions address general pedagogic issues (for example, classroom management) as well as history pedagogy. As well as focusing on key practical issues – for example, the examinations system, all the subject studies course materials scrutinised in constructing this paper share a common concern with the development of conceptual understandings or ‘historical thinking’, linked to the most recent iteration of the History National Curriculum which structures historical learning around disciplinary ‘concepts and processes’ as much as around subject content.⁴⁵ Reflecting the concerns and endeavours of history teachers and educators in England in the last twenty five years and English research and curriculum development traditions, history subject studies in PGCE courses focus on ‘developing ... understanding of the distinctive features of disciplinary knowledge’; and it is typical for subject studies sessions to be devoted to helping student teachers think about how to develop children’s understandings of historical enquiry, evidence, change, chronology, causal reasoning, and so on.⁴⁶

3.5 *Teaching as a Master’s Level Profession*

From the mid-2000s, the New Labour administration aimed to transform teaching into ‘a master’s level profession’, in part in response to the Bologna process and in part, as the government put it in 2007, ‘to help fulfil our high ambitions for all children, and to boost the status of teaching’.⁴⁷ The key vehicle for the delivery of

providers having to consider their involvement in initial teacher training’ and 11 of the 31 university subject cohorts for history were ‘identified as potentially unviable’ (Tim Glover, ‘Allocations for academic year 2012/13’ (London: TDA, 2012)). To my knowledge at least two of the 31 university history courses operating in 2011/12 have now closed. The government has announced that only those universities rated as ‘outstanding’ by the school inspectorate will have their training allocations guaranteed to 2015, see Chris Wormald, letter to James Noble-Rogers, 13th July 2012 (<http://www.ucet.ac.uk/4133>).

⁴⁵ Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) *History Programme of Study for Key Stage 3 and Attainment Target* (London: QCA, 2007) (<http://media.education.gov.uk/assets/files/pdf/h/history%202007%20programme%20of%20study%20for%20key%20stage%203.pdf>).

⁴⁶ Christine Counsell, “Disciplinary Knowledge for All, the Secondary History Curriculum and History Teacher’s Achievement”, *Curriculum Journal* 22 (2011) 2: 203. Conceptual and other aspects of historical learning are explored in Ian Davies, ed., *Debates in History Teaching* (London and New York: Routledge). English pedagogic traditions are explored in a number of texts commonly used as ‘textbooks’ in history education courses, for example, Terry Haydn, James Arthur, Martin Hunt and Alison Stephen, *Learning to Teach History in the Secondary School: A Companion to School Experience* (London and New York: Routledge, 2008) and Rob Phillips, *Reflective Teaching of History*, 11-18 (London and New York: Continuum, 2002).

⁴⁷ Jackson and Eady, “Teaching” (note 38): 149.

this policy was the development of a Master's in Teaching and Learning (MTL) degree – a practice-based degree, developed with Teaching Development Agency support and funded by government. Government professional development funds were also available to support master's study through more conventional routes, such as Master's in Education degrees of various kinds, including, in the rare cases where programmes were available, subject specific master's degrees in history in education, and the assumption was that beginning teachers would go on to complete master's degrees in post, building on the master's credits that they had gained in their PGCE year.

The policy of directly funding the MTL has been discontinued by the current government and professional development funding is no longer available.⁴⁸ However, a national scholarship fund has been established 'to provide an opportunity for teachers to deepen their specialist or subject knowledge and renew their passion for teaching', although applications have been restricted to date to 'priority areas ... English, mathematics, science, and special education needs and disabilities'. Nevertheless, 'in the long term' the 'ambition ... for teaching to become a master's level profession' retains government support.⁴⁹

There is good reason to expect that the move towards master's level teacher training developed since 2006 will have a lasting impact in English history education: master's level assignments are now embedded in history PGCE courses, including in the Teach First employment-based route. The establishment of a master's model for the profession as a whole, however, depends upon increasing levels of resource – in the form of fees and teacher time: a development that is unlikely in at least the medium term, given the current economic context.

There are grounds for optimism, perhaps, regardless of current or future political developments: the traditions of history education research and reflection that have driven innovation and renewal in history teacher education in England have a long history and are deeply embedded in the professional culture of the history education community.⁵⁰

⁴⁸ DfE, "Master's in teaching and learning (MTL) FAQs" (<http://www.education.gov.uk/schools/careers/traininganddevelopment/a00201371/mtl-faqs>).

⁴⁹ DfE, *National Scholarship Fund for Teachers, Round 2 Handbook*, April 2012 (London: DfE), f. (<https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/national%20scholarship%20fund%20for%20teachers%20round%202%20handbook%20%20%20april%202012.pdf>).

⁵⁰ See, the Historical Association's website (<http://www.history.org.uk/>), the pages of the Historical Association's secondary journal *Teaching History* and the Schools History Project website (<http://www.schoolshistoryproject.org.uk/>).

The Correction of the Bologna Reform Process Changes in the Training of History Teachers in Hungary

Ágnes Fischer-Dárdai and József Kaposi

Since 2006 history teaching degrees can only be attained in the second training phase of the two-phased so-called Bologna system, i.e. through master's degree level learning. As a result one cannot apply to learn to be a history teacher straight after secondary school matriculation exams. One must first complete a bachelor degree with a history major and then successfully apply to a master's program to attain teaching certification.

From the very beginning – even in the preparatory phase – the new system was met with such strong criticism that five years after its introduction, in July 2011, the concept of restructuring teacher training appeared in the *Hungarian Higher Education Act* (HHEA). This concept would put an end to two-cycle teacher training, which resulted in divergent credit numbers in so-called major and minor pairings, and would replace it with training in a dual-major training system with an equal amount of credits per major.¹ After the Act was passed (in December 2011) expert consultation began, resulting in a detailed plan for the restructuring of teacher training in September 2012. The Ministry of Human Resources submitted its proposal to the government while this article was being written.

This article covers the following areas:

- Based on the in-effect Acts and Decrees we examine history training, the legal framework of history teacher training, and training requirements in the Bologna system.
- We outline what efforts were initiated to restructure teacher training (including the training of history teachers) after the introduction of the Bologna system.
- We briefly review those criticisms and arguments that urged the reintroduction of dualistic training.
- We briefly examine the innovations of the new training requirements in teacher training planned for 2013.

¹ At the time of writing the Government Decree aimed at abolishing the two-cycle teacher training system was in the preparatory phase, though expert consultation had been completed. The government plans to introduce the decree in January of 2013, see: <http://www.komany.hu/download/b/c7/a0000/tan%C3%A1rk%C3%A9pz%C3%A9s.pdf#!DocumentBrowse>.

1. Changing to the Bologna system

Based on the 1993 Act on Higher Education,² teacher training was dual. That means that elementary school teachers were trained in colleges while secondary school teachers were trained in universities. The expansion of higher education, differentiation in the higher education institution system and domestic and international demands at the beginning of the 1990s to professionalize teachers all initiated the transformation to a unified, university-level integrative teacher training system.

The first step was taken in 1997 when a decree was passed on the unification of training qualifications for all teaching degrees.³ The Government Decree stated that teacher training does not in itself lead to a college or university degree, and that teacher training can only be offered in parallel with bachelor's-level training in specialized fields (e.g. history).⁴ The appendix to the Government Decree defined subject-methodology (field pedagogy) very briefly, in three points: 1) subject-methodology should be connected to the content and theory topics of the given field, to general training in pedagogy-psychology and to school practice; 2) subject-methodology should be an area of study which overarches and integrates the given subject (e.g. history) with related majors, subjects and areas of erudition; 3) the time frame per major is at least 150 hours. In 2002, with the introduction of credit-system education the number of credits for subject methodology was established at seven.⁵

Hungary signed the Bologna Declaration on June 19th, 1999. As such it committed itself to joining the European Higher Education Area and to participating in introducing the multi-cycled training system. Before the introduction of the Bologna system Hungarian higher education – like that of many countries – employed a dual structure. Students wishing to continue their education could choose between three to four years of practical-oriented college education or five to six years of theory-oriented university education. Teacher training took place in both kinds of

² Act LXXX of 1993 on Higher Education (repealed effective: March 1st, 2006).

³ Government Decree No. 111/1997 (VI. 27) on the requirements of the pedagogical qualification (repealed effective: December 30th, 2005)

⁴ In Hungary there are several terms used to define the teaching sciences or subjects in schools. The most general is “subject methodology“ (*szakmódszertan*), while “subject pedagogy” (*tantárgypedagógia*) denotes a more focused interpretation and a dominant pedagogical orientation. The term “subject didactics” (*szakdidaktika*) is never or rarely used. It is a more general interpretation characterized by a stronger connection to the subject's science. Experts use the terms to reflect general or narrow interpretations. This study uses as a launching point a general interpretation, according to which history didactics (or in Hungarian parlance “history subject methodology” (*történelem szakmódszertan*) is a subdiscipline, which can encourage the effective, successful and proportional social (and within this public education-related) utilization of subject sciences.

⁵ Government Decree No. 77/2002 (IV. 13.) on the Amendment of the Qualification Requirements of Undergraduate Trainings in line with the Credit System (Repealed effective: September 1st, 2007).

institutions, whereby elementary school teachers were trained in colleges while secondary school teachers were trained in universities.

Act CXXXIX of 2005 on Higher Education⁶ legislated the move toward two-cycled, divided training and went into effect on July 1st, 2006. From September 1st, 2006 it became impossible for colleges and universities to launch new cohorts under the old system. At the legal level the transfer was completed very swiftly, but at the institutional level the implementation – naturally – did not go as quickly. Further, its execution was not an unequivocal success story given that some inadequate solutions were used and many interests were compromised. However, there have been some measurable results, especially in the field of teacher training.⁷ The changes – particularly the transfer to two-cycle training – had a deep effect on pedagogy teaching, including the training of history teachers.

With the exception of six unified/undivided bachelor's level programs, the system introduced on September 1st, 2006 initiated multi-cycled, Bologna-styled training. Two-cycle training was not implemented for institutions training in architecture, civil engineering, art, theatre, law, general medicine, dentistry, pharmacy and veterinarian science, and thus these areas continued to offer undivided training.

2. Disciplinary training – History majors (BA, MA)⁸

On April 4th, 2006 the Minister of Education, through decree 15/2006⁹ (and its appendices) regulated the training and qualifications requirements of bachelor and master's training. Appendix 1 of this decree describes the general characteristics (competencies) of degrees attainable in higher education. Appendix 2 contains the concrete training and graduation requirements for bachelor and master levels training according to field of training, and it is here we find – within the humanities section – the requirement system for bachelor-level studies in history. Appendix 3 contains training and graduation requirements for master programs, while the general requirements for teacher training are found in Appendix 4. Government decree 289/2005 (XII.22) explains which majors can be used to attain teaching qualifications and how many credits must be achieved for such.¹⁰

⁶ Act CXXXIX of 2005 on Higher Education. In: Complex Jogtár (<http://net.jogtar.hu/>). Complex Jogtár is the online database of Hungarian Law.

⁷ Kotschy Beáta. “Új elemek a tanárképzés rendszerében”, *Educatio* 3 (2009): 371-378; Hunyady, György. “A Bologna-rendszerű tanárképzés hazai vitapontjai: A kilengő mérle-gelés”, *Educatio* 18 (2009): 317-334 (www.edu-online.eu/hu/letoltes.php?fid=tartalomsor/1338).

⁸ Ministry of Education decree 15/2006. (IV.3.) on the qualification requirements of BA and MA courses, Appendix 2. In: Complex Jogtár.

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Government decree 289/2005. (XII. 22.) on Bachelor and Master programs and procedures for launching new programs. In: Complex Jogtár.

In Hungary there are a total of eleven institutions in which BA-s and MA-s in history and history teaching MA-s can be attained.¹¹ Below we will illustrate what requirements must be met in order to undertake – and graduate in – history BA and MA studies.

2.1 History BA training and graduation requirements

History BA degrees can be attained through humanities training with four kinds of majors:

- Philologist in History Studies
- Philologist in History, Specialization in Archives
- Philologist in History, Specialization in Museology
- Philologist in History, Specialization in Archeology

In the history BA program the duration of training is six semesters, within which 180 credits must be attained. Within the joint training branch (history) the minimum credit value for the joint training period is 10, the credit value of electives is 10, the thesis project is worth 10 credits, and practical skills are worth 64 credits. Among the majors the maximum number of credit points is 110 for Archeology and 50 for the rest (history, archival studies, museology).

The general goal of the training is to train experts with: knowledge in world and Hungarian history and related fields of science as well as archival science, museology; the ability to learn and systematize independently; and to have theoretical knowledge vast enough to be able to continue studies at the master's level.

According to the Training and Qualification Requirements (TQR) those who have completed the BA in history should be able to independently attain and systematize knowledge in areas of history, society and politics and further critically analyze and process such knowledge. They should be able to: offer solutions for how to interpret problems found through historical-social analysis; make effective use of problem-solving techniques learned in their courses; present and think through arguments and analyses using different points of view; and further understand and interpret related texts and texts illustrated with visual messages, typographic tools, icons, tables, data and visual texts (moving and still visuals, maps, diagrams). They should be capable of communicating in a foreign language and using information technology. They should have the ability to critically reflect on their activities and

¹¹ Of these three are colleges while the others are universities of science. At the universities of science (Budapest, Szeged, Pécs, Debrecen, Miskolc) all three majors are available, while generally at the colleges only the history BA major and the history teaching MA courses are taught. An exception to this is Eszterházy College in Eger, where training is offered in all three majors. Another unique aspect worth mentioning is that there are two institutions where disciplinary history major training and history teacher training are offered by different faculties. At ELTE (Budapest) the Faculty of Education and Psychology offers teacher training, while at Nyíregyháza College it is run by the Teacher Training Faculty, all while disciplinary training is offered in the Humanities faculty.

to weigh their values and be self-aware in their behavior. Further, they should be conscious in terms of quality and responsibility, with good cooperation and communication abilities and problem-solving skills.

With a BA degree in history graduates – in possession of knowledge they attained during their training – can fill positions in public education institutions requiring knowledge of history. Those who have completed the archival studies major can use their knowledge of archival science to complete basic tasks concerning the collection, securing, analysis and accessibility of written materials worth preserving. Those who have completed the museology major are able to add to collections, keep records, store and maintain, and conduct research required to direct museums. Those who have completed the archeology major should be able to use their general knowledge of archeology and focused knowledge of the main archeological periods of the Carpathian Basin to research sources and sites under the direction of an archeologist, and to store and document findings.

The core curricula defining the areas of knowledge are composed of three large units: basic knowledge, core field material and differentiated field material.

Basic knowledge: 20-40 credits

History of philosophy, society, communication, IT, library studies, basic knowledge of the training field (introduction to historical science, introduction to ethnography); basic knowledge for fields (introduction to archeology, introduction to archival studies, introduction to museology, art history, historical geography, religious history, history of education); Latin.

Core field material: 130-150 credits, including

a) general field material: 40-90 credits

Related historical sciences (epigraphy, paleography, diplomatics, heraldics, chronology, sphragistics); ancient history (Europe and the world beyond Europe in ancient times, the ancient East, Greece, Rome, education history of ancient religions); Middle Ages Hungarian history (ancient history of Hungarians, history of the Carpathian Basin before the Hungarian conquest, Hungarian history from the conquest to Mohács); Middle Ages world history (Europe and the world outside Europe in the Middle Ages); early modern Hungarian history (the history of Hungary and Transylvania in the early modern period); early modern world history (world history in the early modern period); modern Hungarian history (history of Hungary and Transylvania in the modern period until 1918); modern world history (history of the world in the modern period); recent Hungarian history (Hungary between the World Wars and after World War II, contemporary Hungarian history); recent world history (20th century and contemporary world history);

b) differentiated field material

- ba) history major: 50 credits
field core of general professional knowledge;

bb) archival studies major: 50 credits

Administration and institutional history (organization of the Hungarian state, government and institutions, the archival institutional system and its history, document production in the private sphere, economic organization and their documents); archival and academic records (archival studies: new and modern documents, archives and document handling; archival IT, archival privacy, data service, archival colleges); archival professional internship (Hungarian National Archive, local government archives, professional and open private collections);

bc) museology major: 50 credits

Educational and cultural history of Hungary, general resources, museum history, collections and the history of major museums, general and historical museology studies, introduction to natural history museology, introduction to agricultural museology, introduction to the history of applied arts, introduction to the history of technology, introduction to technical and transport history museology, introduction to literature and theater history museology, adult education, lifelong learning, museums and public education, museum pedagogy, ethics, museum ethics, museum practicum;

bd) archeology major: 90 credits

introduction to various fields of archeology, archeology methodology, archaeometrics, museology, fields of archeology (ancient archeology, antique archeology, Roman archeology, migratory archeology, Middle Ages archeology);

be) field material of the second major: 50 credits

Should the student choose the teachers' master's course he/she must be offered pedagogy and psychology modules that are necessary for preparation to teach, within the framework of elective studies. The credit value in this case is 10.

A student must participate in an internship and must also meet foreign language requirements. In the archeology program the internship includes fieldwork (12 credits). In the archival studies program the internship includes work in actual archives (6 credits), while in the museology program the internship includes museum work (3 credits). To attain a bachelor degree a student must pass a state-approved mid-level (B2) complex type language exam (or provide an equivalent matriculation exam or other certification) in a living foreign language or in Latin.

2.2 *Training and qualification requirements for the master program in history (MA)*

After completing the master program the students attain the status of qualified historian. Upon entering the master program all credits of a previously attained BA in history are accepted as antecedent, while credits from majors in humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, law and administration, national defense and military, as well as economics can be accepted. As an introductory part a defined number of credits (50) must be attained in the earlier major, which are judged by the given higher education institution's credit transfer committee. The duration of training

for a master program is four semesters, and the number of credits to be attained is 120. The number of credits that can be made available for introductory knowledge is 10-20, while 10-50 credits can be earmarked for field core material. The number of credits available for differentiated field material (specialized programs) is 30-70. The minimum credit value of elective courses is six. Twenty credits can be attained through the writing of the thesis project. The proportion of practicum credits is minimum 30%.

The goal of the master program and the competencies to be acquired

The goal of the training is to prepare experts capable of practicing the historian profession with knowledge in world and Hungarian history and in related sciences and subdisciplines. They are to have a high degree of preparation in historical, social and political issues. They should have knowledge of key periods and significant correlations in world and Hungarian history. They should have enough knowledge to be able to continue their studies at the doctoral level, too.

- a) *Students who have graduated at the master level know:* historical issues of given periods or fields, historical processes, methods of using sources and analyses and the field of historiography may have developed widely applicable problem solving techniques for historical research and the writing of scientific artical papers, conceptual thinking and the ability to think in abstract terms.
- b) *Students who have graduated at the master level are able to:* conduct research and publish in given historical fields with professional guidance. They are prepared to create informative and scientific writing; to educate the wider public on the results and issues of historical science; to use knowledge of historical science in practice; to further educate themselves in at least one foreign language; to systematically and creatively deal with new and complex historical themes; to form strong judgments and opinions despite incomplete data and according to possibilities; to make decisions and to be able to present its consequences to professional and layperson audiences; to understand problems to be solved in historical fields, to conduct original activity and to suggest original ideas; to independently plan and execute presentations to professional and layperson audiences on historical periods and events at a high professional level; to raise the level of their knowledge and to deepen their knowledge of historical training fields and regularities in social and economic events in various historical periods; to self-teach and self-develop new skills; to analyze historical processes and to uncover correlations.
- c) *Personal traits and skills necessary for the practice of the profession:* fair, professional and comprehensible expression skills, both orally and in writing, the ability to express problems, the ability to make independent judgments, cooperation skills, initiative and the ability to take responsibility,

decision making skills in complicated and unpredictable situations, self-learning skills necessary for professional development, critical thinking.

Definitive knowledge areas for the master level and professional qualification:

- Fundamental areas of knowledge which expand on knowledge acquired during bachelor level training and necessary for the completion of the master degree (10-20 credits): historiography, philosophy of history, research methods, theories of history.
- Areas of knowledge compulsory for the core field material (10-50 credits): political structures, states, economy, society, demography, lifestyle, culture, and thought.
- Electives in professional areas of knowledge (50-90 credits).
- Differentiated professional areas of knowledge (30-70 credits).

Electives, special programs

Requirements for the professional qualification can be attained in any of the three topic areas:

Chronological topics: ancient history, antiquity, Middle Ages, early modern period, modern period; Middle Ages Hungarian and world history, medievalism, interdisciplinary medievalism, antiquity-Middle Ages, early modern Hungarian and world history 16th-18th century, 19th century Hungarian history, 19th century world history (Europe and the world beyond Europe), 20th century Hungarian history, 20th century world history (Europe and the world beyond Europe);

Topics according to territory: Hungarian history; European history; the world beyond Europe; local history – country history – history of the Carpathian Basin; history of the Pannon region; European studies; history of the Mediterranean region (ancient and antiquity); comparative historical studies of East-Europe, East-Central Europe (from the birth of national monarchies to EU membership); history of East, East-Central Europe and the Balkans; history of the Balkans and Islamic countries; comparative history of Central-, East- and Southeast Europe; Ibero-American history.

Thematic topics: economic and social history; political thought and institutions; history of diplomacy; education history; church and religious history; classic and modern subdisciplines; economic, social, lifestyle and local history; social crises and techniques of rule; history of technology; state systems, political institutions and organizations, political thought in the 16th-20th centuries; world and Hungarian military history; historical sources; the history of connected continents, globalization and regionalism; interethnic relations and conflicts; Russian studies; modern Sovietology; Kremlinology.

Twenty credits are available for the writing of the thesis project. The curriculum of the higher education institution defines the internship. To complete the master's degree the student must pass a state-approved advanced-level (C1) complex type (written and oral) language exam (or provide an equivalent matriculation exam or other certification) or a state-approved mid-level (B2) complex type language

exam (or provide an equivalent matriculation exam or other certification) excluding that used for the attainment of the bachelor's degree.

3. The training of teachers in the Bologna system

The Bologna process fundamentally restructured Hungarian higher education and within it the teaching of humanities and teacher training. Completely new teacher training programs were necessitated by history teacher training being separated from humanities training, by the significantly higher number of pedagogy and psychology credits in the MA program and by the introduction of semester-long practice teaching periods. Although the introduction of the split training system was rapid, ill-prepared and opposed to the interests of many, it must be said that some institutions attempted to take advantage of the “reform” and “smuggle” curricular developments into the training that were not intended and not possible earlier.¹²

The desire to reform history teacher training in Hungarian education policy predates the introduction of the Bologna process and dates back to approximately the mid 1990s. There was a growing tendency in professional circles to support a move away from mere knowledge-transfer, frontal teaching in history teaching to a competency-based approach. The National Core Curriculum introduced in 1995 satisfied these goals only to a low degree. The last years of the 1990s saw a rethinking of secondary graduation regulations, i.e., the matriculation exam requirements. Education policy makers hoped that a new conceptualization of knowledge (including the teaching of history), a new practice of teaching (more student-centered), and new measurement and evaluation practices would spread and take root in Hungarian schools.

The expectation for history teaching to be renewed, it appears, largely came to fruition, although not to the degree that developers hoped for. The most significant new aspect of the reformed matriculation requirements in 2005 was the shift in emphasis from testing mechanically learned knowledge to the measurement of competencies required to process and interpret history. That is the focus was put on making use of the knowledge of history through the ability to independently and competently process, critically use and systematize historical sources. As such the introduction of the new matriculation system in 2005 created the conditions for the use of a renewed teaching of history. However, the earlier main principles and practices of training teachers were untouched. Thus, when the switch to the Bologna system looked inevitable, a good opportunity arose to make an attempt to renew the theories and practices of history teaching through teacher training. This was in the light of demands for change coming from the public education sphere and advocacy for the adaptation of international research on historical didactics.

¹² Ágnes Fischer-Dárdai. “The Teaching of History in Hungary at the Beginning of the 21st Century. Position and perspectives.” In *Facing – Mapping – Bringing – Diversity*, Vol 1, eds. Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg (Schwalbach: Wochenschau Verlag, 2011), 371-401.

3.1 *Training and qualification requirements of the history teacher master program (MA)*¹³

In the course of history teacher training the acquisition of general professional knowledge takes place during bachelor level studies. Teacher training at the master's level deepens and augments these with areas of knowledge critical to the teaching of history. Courses for differentiated field material are adjusted to matriculation exam themes. Practicum training is executed through close cooperation with the universities' training (public) schools.

Students in history teaching master programs acquire knowledge in the following fields: scientific-level knowledge of political, economic, social and cultural Hungarian and world historical periods by period (antiquity, medieval, new age, modern) or by region (Hungary, Europe, Asia, America, etc.) or by theme (economic and social history, history of thought, military history, church history, etc.); knowledge and practice of types of source analysis (written, photographic, multimedia, object, etc.); sources and source types of given periods and themes; the requirements of new-approach (so-called source-centered) history teaching; knowledge of sciences related to history and its subdisciplines; contemporary historical writing orientations (mentality history, micro-history, women's history, historical demographics, minority history, etc.) and analytical methods and the possibilities for their use; general and specific areas of knowledge and skills required for the subject of history: acquiring and processing knowledge (distinguishing between sources and analysis; critiquing sources, orientation in libraries, handbooks, encyclopedias, atlases, informative and scientific periodicals, internet search programs, distinguishing between significant and insignificant processes during analysis; causal relations and orientation in the complex system of cause and effect; alternatives, understanding the role and responsibility of the individual and the group, understanding the reasons behind actions); ability to express oneself; ability to recall sources and data, thoughts and names arising from sources; clear expression of problems and challenges, given explanations, conclusions, mastering oral argument forms, knowledge of the most important terms and concepts of history and social sciences; written expression; outline and response design, extraction, note-taking, techniques of preparing tables, making use of word processing programs; methods of visual expression: diagrams, graphs, their analysis and preparation, collecting visual data storage, filtering and preparation; orientation skills: orientation in time and space using chronological and topographic data, recognizing the mutual effects of historic events and geographic phenomena, synchronicity approaches, ecological approaches and their further development; the relation between the subject of history and the social sciences and the teaching of the arts; international trends in historical science and teaching with an emphasis on practice in the EU.

¹³ Ministry of Education decree 15/2006. (IV.3.) on the qualification requirements of BA and MA courses. Appendix 2. In: *Complex Jogtár*.

Students in history teacher MA programs master the following professional methodology areas: the methodology of teaching history; methods of developing competencies in history classes, issues in planning history teaching; theories and practices of teaching history; international trends and Hungarian practice; teaching techniques, methods, micro-teaching; multimedia history teaching; differentiated work forms (individual work, pair work, team work, frontal work), syllabi, curricula, thematic plans, class plans, methods of creating class outlines; creating curricular materials, project work and personalized teaching; characteristics of group teaching and the role of group dynamics in education; the role of history teaching in the interest of personal development; the teaching of history in secondary schools, vocational schools and adult education.

Based on the training requirements listed above the institutions work out their teacher training programs independently. The institutions do not coordinate their curricula. For this reason there were institutions where the structure of courses reflected the history didactics research-development results of the past few decades and were able to prepare professional methodology syllabi that focused on the development of historical thinking and student-centered curriculum use. That is the use and preparation of interactive and reflective teaching methods was given significant space. At the same time many institutions conserved earlier content and methods, which led to a loss of prestige for those representing advanced professional methodology. In summary it can be said that the depth of knowledge in the training of history teachers and the level of development of history didactics and methodology in the Hungarian higher education sphere is uneven and pluralist.

3.2 Results of history teacher training in the Bologna system

The new requirements of two-cycle teacher training¹⁴ have to a significant degree changed earlier teacher training programs. Of clear importance is the higher number of courses (and higher number of credits, increasing from 7 to 10) dedicated to the methodology of teaching history. In the new training system the teaching of general professional knowledge and history-teaching knowledge are separated, with greater emphasis put on the latter with the clear goal of strengthening the teaching profession. This goal is further served by the teaching qualification exam that is taken at the end of one's studies. While these requirements are to be applauded – given that they strengthen the teaching profession – we cannot hide the fact that the mandatory training requirements – both in terms of content and in use of language – reflect a rather out-of-date-concept. This concept bases the qualification requirements of history teaching on narrow pedagogical grounds with historical methods as a focus instead of wider historical didactics that are more closely tied to historical science.

Another new element in the training requirements is the “Man and social studies” teaching major, which can be interpreted as being a result of efforts to integrate

¹⁴ Ibid.

higher education institutions with the subject of the National Core Curriculum. To the best of our knowledge not one higher education institution has been able to accredit this major, likely because it transgresses the current organizational (department, faculty) framework and because the accreditation applications to date have resembled training for “history teachers” as opposed to social studies teachers.

A look at the new requirement system for teacher training reveals similarities to the 2003 National Core Curriculum: the necessary teaching skills listed in the training reflect those competencies recorded in the curricular document and expected of students (learning skills, expression skills, orientation skills, etc.). The requirements of teacher training further fit those requirements expected at the matriculation exam, and thus the spirit and jargon of the two documents are in many regards alike. In teacher training the documents that arose from the accreditation processes of the MA program noticeably fulfilled the goals expressed in the matriculation exam reforms, and these further affected the renewal of professional methodology. The signs of such are visible both in the training structure and in the descriptions of courses.

The teacher training major’s requirements unambiguously show that the goals of changing approaches (new content, new teaching methods) as reflected in documents regulating public education (e.g., the requirements for the new history matriculation exam) most certainly gained ground. (E.g., Knowledge and utilization of source analysis; Resources and source types for various periods and themes; Requirements of the new approach or so-called resource-centered teaching of history.¹⁵) Further, we see the appearance of new key competencies for teachers like the development of study skills, the necessity of teaching critical approaches to sources, and the need to prepare students to understand divergent points of view and to develop nuanced historical analysis. We essentially see the same competency areas (space-time, critical thinking, communication) as those appearing in the 2003 National Core Curriculum, supplemented by the methodologies that graduates must master.

4. The problems and lessons of teacher training in the Bologna system

The switch to the Bologna system in 2006 was implemented with great speed – thanks largely to social policy and economic considerations. Most educators in higher education were accustomed to a linear system while the educational model introduced in the Fall of 2006 required a two-cycle system. As a result there were doubts about the new system, which had been introduced abruptly and without having been tested.

The radical change to the teacher training system in 2005 – which resulted in a uniform, two-cycle system – was guided by two principles. First, there was a focus to increasing the prestige of the teaching profession and of teacher training. Second, it

¹⁵ Ibid.

had to be able to integrate into the divided higher education system. The seven years that have passed since 2005 have not unequivocally resulted in an improvement in professional prestige. But it has become clear that the shift of the vast majority of pedagogical studies to the MA level, and further the two-cycle teaching of disciplinary subjects and the disparity in credit numbers of so-called major and minor pairings, have as a whole not been to the advantage of the mastering of general pedagogical or professional knowledge. That is, in light of teacher training the Bologna system has not been able to surpass the previous system's results in professional or pedagogical subject terms. The flexibility of the unified teacher training career choice has not made the teaching profession any more attractive, while at the same time the majors have undergone hyper-proliferation that does not match the hiring needs of the public education sphere. The structure is fragmented and has broken into interesting but narrow fields, which has led to a decline of interest in grand general subjects (history, Hungarian literature, mathematics) among those making career choices. The training institutions have advertised majors that public schools can hardly make use of and the appearance of which have degraded the professional prestige and societal appreciation of teacher training. Another problem is that the divided training system has made it more difficult to harmonize the development of the teaching discipline's three components (the discipline, field didactics, and pedagogy-psychology). In numerous cases – such as in chronologically constructed history teacher training – the two-tier system has resulted in the artificial fragmentation of disciplinary subjects. The unified teacher training MA level suggested that the professional aspect of teacher training majors is merely secondary. Related to this is the fact that a severe critique was expressed, holding that the role of pedagogy in teacher training was too strong, whereas the training does not prepare teachers to satisfactorily solve teaching problems or to offer remedial or differentiated teaching.¹⁶

The new development concept written in 2011 expresses an attempt to balance continuity and necessary change in the process of the renewal of teacher training, more serious consideration of the needs of public education, and meeting the requirements of the labor force while acknowledging and strengthening the management of the role of the teacher in national strategy. The cornerstones of this approach are:

1. pedagogical-psychological knowledge that is better matched to disciplinary knowledge – over a longer period within the training time;
2. an increase in the time of practical teaching (one academic year) while at the same time emphasizing the significance of self-learning and further training;
3. the principle of limited dualism in the majors, which means that unity is disrupted in the so-called grand majors (10) only;

¹⁶ Radnóti Katalin and Király Béla. "A bolognai rendszerű tanárképzés tanulságai," *Iskolakultúra* 2 (2012): 105-112; Laczkovich Miklós. "Bologna és a tanárképzés", *Fizikai szemle* 59 (2009): 218-220. <http://theorphys.elte.hu/tel/magyar/laczkovich0906.html>.

4. directed major choices and training content that better respond to the labor market and assist employment;
5. adjusting oversupply in training to needs and prognostications;
6. making the teaching career more predictable, connecting it to the soon-to-be-introduced pedagogue life path model;
7. state-financed spots in teacher training to guarantee a supply of teachers in the future.

5. The renewal of teacher training from 2013

The Hungarian Ministry of Education – as seen in the government decree now being written – would like to fundamentally reform teacher training in Hungary in the near future, including the training of history teachers. The basic goal of reforming teacher training is the professionalization of the teaching career, the assurance of quality training, and the professional preparation of teachers to effectively carry out their vocation. Hereby one of the elements of such is the effort to increase the professional preparedness of teachers by securing an equal proportion of time allotted to training time and the two teaching majors.

According to plans the new undivided teacher training system will be utilized for 10 subjects – including history – with elementary school teachers and secondary school teachers being trained in different systems (4+1 years for the former, 5+1 years for the latter). Other subjects will have one type of training (five or six years). According to the plan the future teachers must choose two majors at the beginning of their higher education studies, with an equal amount of credits in both majors. Smaller majors (art history, philosophy, ethics, communications, etc.) can only be taken as second majors. In the undivided training system applications are submitted to the teaching majors (e.g., history teaching) with one entry point, but with two completion options (elementary school or secondary school). In this way the new dual teacher training system will have three joint years (180 credits) based on identical field requirements. The choice of completion option occurs in the third year. The practicum period (currently one semester) is doubled. It grows to one year for both elementary and secondary school teachers, which makes it possible for future teachers to prepare for future challenges in a real pedagogical environment. The increased and more emphasized practice teaching time will – according to the plan – introduce the future teacher to a school medium that may lead to employment and teacher's status after graduation.

To a significant degree the new teacher training system to be introduced on January 1st, 2013 will rationalize the training options offered to prospective teachers and adapt them to public education needs and the number of hours to be taught after graduation. Further the regulation of choices for first and second majors will direct and optimize flows to majors. The establishment of Teacher Training Centers at all institutions offering teacher training will be mandatory. These will improve the quality of teacher training through coordinating training and practice teaching in schools as well as executing further training programs for teachers and

teacher evaluations connected to career tracking. The advantage of the new teacher training approach is also reflected in the fact that the one-entrance, two-exit system is likely to encourage future teachers to improve their performance. Further, the joint first three years make transfers across the divided disciplinary training systems possible and ensures continuity in pedagogical training from the beginning of higher education studies. Opponents of the changes criticize the dismantling of the unified teacher training order and the increase of the credit value (proportionality) of two-major disciplinary training, as it will deemphasize general pedagogy and psychology.

We have a reason to be optimistic about the future training of history teachers. We certainly must face the fact that the teacher training and qualification requirements in the current Ministerial draft deal with field methodology training goals separately. Further, the law will use a broader definition of field methodology that emphasizes that field methodologies are a subdiscipline between subject fields and pedagogy, and that they can act as a liaison between academic fields and pedagogy.

The correction referred to in the title of this article refers to ality is such that it can cause a positive change in the training of history teachers. It strengthens and acknowledges those field methodology results that in years past have come to fruition in Hungarian content and methods development at historical didactics workshops. Another encouraging sign is that the training requirements for history teachers have been harmonized with the principles and goals stated in public education documents.¹⁷

¹⁷ All websites quoted in this article were last accessed on: August 5th, 2013.

Bologna in Germany

History Teacher Education between Historical Culture und History Education

Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg

When Peter Lauzas, then president of the German History Teacher Association, after the General Assembly of the German History Association 2012 was interviewed for radio the headline was: “No more learning of year dates”.¹ If this statement corresponds to common activities in German schools, it cannot verify on empirical data. But if it is true, it accurately demonstrates a modification of history teaching in Germany in comparison to the situation 50 years ago. To the question, how he envisions history lessons in 50 years, the interviewee answered: “It will certainly be much more individualized, much more based on partnership and other correlations between teachers and pupils ... There will be a more intensive inclusion of popular media, especially internet and visual media, and, of course, the themes (subjects, topics) will change, which must focus on the central up-to-date problems in 50 years.”² A necessary precondition for such development would be a modification of teacher studies. If the expectations become true, the future teachers must have learned to interact with their pupils in an individualized way and they must be able to detect the actual topics in public discussions. They must select those topics which are important for the development of historical thinking of their pupils and prepare them adequately with respect to educational themes of history lessons.

Do teacher students today gain the competences they will need in the future? To answer this question we must examine how the studies and training for history teachers in Germany is today. Another question, evoked by the former, has to be answered prior to that one: How does the environment in which history teacher studies take place today look like and how will it look like tomorrow? Since we cannot anticipate the future, we limit the question on the presence. Therefore the issue of this article focuses on the procedures for modifying teacher education conformed to the Bologna Declaration from 1999, in Germany.

¹ Es gibt kein Pauken mehr von Jahreszahlen, in: Deutschlandradio (28.09.2012) (http://www.dradio.de/dlf/sendungen/interview_dif/1878672/) (accessed: Nov. 7th, 2013).

² Idem: “Sicher ganz stark individualisiert, sicher noch stärker partnerschaftlich ausgerichtet, sicher mit veränderter Lehrer-Schüler-Rolle ..., dann auch unter stärkerem Einbezug der Medien um einen herum, also vor allen Dingen Internet und visuelle Medien, und dann auch natürlich mit stark veränderten Themen, die sich dann an den zentralen Problemen der Gegenwart in 50 Jahren orientieren müsste(n).” (Correction and translation by W.H.).

1. Historical Culture – Origins and goals of history education

In Germany, 2012 the tercentenary of the birth of Frederic the Great (1712-1786) was celebrated in all fields of historical culture. In 2014, some new biographies of Charlemagne were published, because of the 1200. annual recurrence of his death. Equal, whether birth or death, all anniversaries are welcome to celebrate and to initiate new studies. In this point the historical culture in Germany may not differ from those in other countries. However, the German situation – as in other states, too – is a special one because of the history. More than 20 years after the fall of the Berlin Wall and nearly 70 years after the end of World War II the NS-Regime as well as the time of “Zweistaatlichkeit” (time of two states) leave it’s marks in the historical culture and the historical consciousness of the Germans.³

Preparations and implementations of innumerable exhibitions and commemorations of the 100. anniversary of the beginning of World War I indicate a critical approach to the subject, observable nearly everywhere. In the book stores new editions of Fritz Fischer’s “Griff nach der Weltmacht”⁴ are available and presented in the showcases right beside Christopher Clarks “*The Sleepwalkers*”.⁵ This maybe symptomatic for the candidness (tolerance?) of the German book market and for the historical culture as well. There is room for the Fischer thesis of the German “Alleinschuld” (exclusive responsibility) as well as for the apology offered by Ch. Clark, but above all, the willingness to discuss different interpretations. In fact, the interest, e.g. concerning the beginning of World War I, is focused on the “Erinnerungskultur” (commemorative culture) which seems to dominate the discussion, when listening to radio broadcast, talk shows in TV, as well as reading newspapers and magazines. Of course there are numerous exhibitions, which emphasize the local history. But even those mostly intend to present the local events in a global context often pursuing a critical approach and retaining an ambiguous perspective with regard to the opponents.⁶ Only in few cases such exhibitions persist to show

³ A synopsis or syntheses of the historical culture in Germany is missing, therefore in detail s. Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg, “Historical Culture, History Didactics, Historical Teaching in Germany,” in *Facing, Mapping, Bridging Diversity. Foundation of a European Discourse on History Education*, vol. 1 (HEint 1,1), ed. Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2011), 291-328, here s. 296.

⁴ In 1961, the first edition of Fritz Fischer, *Griff nach der Weltmacht. Die Kriegszielpolitik des kaiserlichen Deutschland 1914/18* (Düsseldorf: Droste, 2013) provoked a public and scientific controversy which was revived in 2013, in anticipation of the anniversary.

⁵ Christopher Clark: *The Sleepwalkers. How Europe went to War in 1914* (London e. alt.: Allen Lane, 2012). German edition: *Die Schlafwandler. Wie Europa in den Ersten Weltkrieg zog* (München: DVA, München 2013).

⁶ E.g. the exhibition “1914 – Mobilisierung in europäischen Heimaten”, organized by the small *Opladener Geschichtsverein* (history club) is to mention which was developed in a close cooperation with the partner towns of Opladen (Bracknell, Ljubljana, Ratibor, Schwedt, Villeneuve d’Asque) and which shows the beginning of World War I by exhibits contributed from this cities for to show the different situations in different towns in Europe 1914 [<http://ogv-leverkusen.de/ausstellungen/aktuelle-ausstellungen-in-der-villa-roemer/>]

“how it was” in the past (L. v. Ranke). This sounds excessively positive and suggests that the public use of history in Germany would be overall critical, which of course is not true.

All in all, one can come to the conclusion that in different fields in which historical culture is performed a high level of reflection can be observed. This not systematically founded assumption is, for example, valid for television history programs, too. A rising number of such television programs do not longer recount an existing story of the past, but reflect either on the sources and on the methodology of “making history” or – more often – deconstruct a well-known story by discovering its tradition and by asking for the sources the story is based on.⁷ Of course, beyond such critical offers there are broadcasts and paper magazines which do not consider the scientific aspects but are limited, at best, on entertainment, which in bad cases, transfer false stories or – much more sublime – are persuasive in the way that they deliver special norms, ethical values or stereotypes by history. Lastly, the book market is flourishing, e.g. by novels of Umberto Eco, Noah Gordon, Dona W. Cross or Dan Brown,⁸ some of which form the basis for movies shown in cinemas with more or less success.⁹ Especially, women like Hildegard von Bingen, Pope Joan or the empress Elizabeth of Austria (Sissi) became protagonists of such movies or – more and more – musicals. In both last mentioned cases, not the real events of the past seem to be important, but the message that Pope Joan, whose real existence is improbable, and empress Sissi are patterns of strong women who tried to realize and partly realized emancipation in times dominated by men.

These examples illustrate that history is functionalized for public purposes. Clothed in the robe of an amusing musical, an entertaining movie, a criminological TV-documentation, or an exciting book history is able to communicate beliefs, norms, and values without making it transparent. History in these consistent forms of media has the power to convince without considering (what?), is able to manipulate the recipients.

⁷ Cf. upcoming Wolfgang Hasberg “Fascination of the Dark. Medieval History between education and ‘Vergangenheitsbewirtschaftung’”, *Yearbook. International Society for the Didactics of History* 35 (2015).

⁸ To name only two books of Umberto Eco, *Der Name der Rose* (Munich/Vienna: Hanser Verlag, 1983), orig.: *Il nome della rosa*. (Milano: Fabbri-Bompiani, 1980); idem, *Baudolino* (Munich/Vienna: Hanser Verlag, 2001); the novel of Noah Gordon: *Der Medicus* (Munich: Droemer, 1987), was extremely successful in its German translation; also Dona W. Cross, *Päpstin Johanna* (Berlin: Rütten & Loening, 1996), orig.: *Pope Joan* (Donna W. Cross, 1996) or the books of Dan Brown, *Illuminati* (2003), orig.: *Angels & Demons* (2000) and idem, *Sakrileg* (Bergisch Gladbach: Bastei Lübbe, 2006) orig.: *The Da Vinci Code* (Dan Brown, 2003) which are not even historical novels. All these books were published as paperbacks and audio books, too. And they gained numerous new editions, most of them achieved millions of sales volumes.

⁹ E.g. Jean-Jacques Annaud, dir., *Der Name der Rose*, Germany/France/Italy 1986; Sönke Wortmann, dir., *Päpstin Johanna* (Germany 2009); Philipp Stötzl, dir., *Der Medicus* (Germany 2013).

The title of a famous essay of Klaus Bergmann can be translated as: “So much history as today was never before.”¹⁰ And although, he could not support his theses with a systematic survey, it seems to be true today. Offers of “History” are available anytime and in all kinds of popular media and institutions (e.g. museums etc.), as well as through different scientific channels (e.g. archives etc.). Therefore all members of the society must be enabled to deal with such offerings and evaluate their significances for orientation (in time). So, the goal of history education must be to support this competence of historical thinking which consists of a list of single competences (e.g. ask historical questions, re-organize historical knowledge and attitudes, re-construct history, de-construct, history, orient in time, reflect on historical thinking). These competences have to be handled by all who want to participate in the historical culture critically and who do not want to be subdued by those who use history for the purpose of manipulation. Ergo, all pupils as well as teacher students must learn these competences, the latter since as teachers they will have to teach them in the class. Therefore one of the questions explored in the following is whether the circumstances of history teacher education in Germany are in the condition to guarantee that teacher students obtain these competences.¹¹ This competences are necessary in order to participate in the historical culture, but at the same time the historical culture is the field where these competences are growing. Consequently, first the focus has to reflect on this field as the original field whereupon historical consciousness is planted set and has to grow up.

2. Historical Culture – a field of didactical research

Not later than the 1970s history didactics in Germany started feeling responsible for examining public history. When Rolf Schörken (1928-2014) proposed to regard historical consciousness as central category of history didactics in 1972 he founded this proposal on the argument that “strange to say, the historical sciences up to now did not attend to the consequences they provoke in the sphere of non-scientific use of history”.¹² Of course he meant the non-rational use of history in public. In the following years it was especially Karl-Ernst Jeismann (1925-2012) who elaborated the concept of historical consciousness which became the status of the core-

¹⁰ Klaus Bergmann, “Soviel Geschichte wie heute war nie – historische Bildung angesichts der Allgegenwart von Geschichte”, in *Politische Sozialisation und Geschichte (Fs Rolf Schörken)*, ed. Angela Schwarz (Hagen: Verlag Rottmann 1993), 209-228.

¹¹ Cf. Wolfgang Hasberg, “Historiker oder Pädagoge? Geschichtslehrer im Kreuzfeuer der Kompetenzdebatte“, *Zeitschrift für Geschichtsdidaktik* 9 (2010): 159-179, where is explained which competences a history teacher has to handle as a pedagogue, teacher, historian, and didact. The above mentioned list of competences is explained there. Otherwise than Jürgen Pandel, *Geschichtsunterricht nach PISA* (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2005) suggests that it is not necessary to differentiate between competences of historical thinking and competences of historical culture because all kinds of historical thinking are related to articulations in the historical culture.

¹² Rolf Schörken, “Geschichtsdidaktik und Geschichtsbewußtsein”, *Geschichte in Wissenschaft und Unterricht* 23 (1972): 81-89, here 81 (translated by W.H.)

category of history didactics. And in 1977, he entitled his report of a conference of history didactics which dealt with “History in public” with the words: “A discipline is discovering its field”.¹³ Obviously, in his opinion history didacticans should research the field of public history for exposing the conditions and circumstances of historical learning. In the late 1980s Jörn Rüsen proceeded this approach by expousing “Geschichtskultur” (historical culture) as a second core-category of history didactics, which he defined as the “outside” whereas historical consciousness were the inner side. With these ideas – it was and still is a nearly common opinion – he founded a new research field. But at least this concept is not convincing, because historical consciousness is a black box which can only be seen by its articulations. And all articulations of historical consciousness are at least parts of historical culture, irrespective of the action or medium through which they are expressed.¹⁴ Although, one may not agree with this concept in detail, it was widespread and – at least – is useful to confirm that the public use of history is its integral component because – as already emphasized – historical culture is the origin and area of application for historical competences respectively historical consciousness.

Chronologically, the concept of historical culture preceded the concept of “Gedächtnis- oder Erinnerungskultur” (commemorative culture) which became a favored theory and a flourishing field of (sociological as well as historical) research in Germany since it was established especially by Jan Assmann who founded this theory, which partly depends on Maurice Halbwachs and on Pierre Nora’s project of the “Lieux de memoire” in France, but is distinguished by a coherent framework of theory.¹⁵ However these theoretical approaches are not identical to the concept of historical culture which is based on J. Rüsen’s “Historik”¹⁶, which depends closely on a narrative theory of history as it was suggested by Arthur Danto.¹⁷ This variation of the analytical philosophy of history became very famous and got a very basic function in German history didactics (see chapter 3). New impulses

¹³ Karl-Ernst Jeismann, “Eine Disziplin entdeckt ihr Gebiet”, *Geschichtsdidaktik* 2 (1977): 322-335.

¹⁴ Cf. the commentary for the discussion by Wolfgang Hasberg, “Unde venis? – Betrachtungen zur Zukunft der Geschichtsdidaktik”, in *Neue Wege – neue Themen – neue Methoden? Ein Querschnitt aus der geschichtsdidaktischen Forschung des wissenschaftlichen Nachwuchses*, ed. Tobias Arand and Manfred Seidenfuß (Göttingen: V&R unipress, 2014), 16-81, esp. 26f.

¹⁵ Jan Assmann, *Das kulturelle Gedächtnis: Schrift, Erinnerung und politische Identität in frühen Hochkulturen* (München: Beck 1992) u. Aleida Assmann, *Erinnerungsräume* (München: Beck, 1999). For orientation cf. Astrid Ertl, *Kollektives Gedächtnis und Erinnerungskulturen* (Stuttgart/Weimar: J. B. Metzler, 2005), for basis cf.: Pierre Nora, *Zwischen Geschichte und Gedächtnis* (Frankfurt a. M.: Fischer 1998) u. idem, ed., *Les Lieux de mémoire*, 3 vols. (Paris: Gallimard, 1984-1992), partly based on Maurice Halbwachs, *Das kollektive Gedächtnis*, Stuttgart: Enke 1967 (orig. *La mémoire collective* [1939], Paris: Presses universitaires 1950).

¹⁶ Jörn Rüsen, *Historik. Theorie der Geschichtswissenschaft* (Köln/Weimar/Wien: Böhlau, 2013) and already idem, *Gründzüge einer Historik*, 3 vol (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck, 1983-1989).

¹⁷ Arthur Danto, *Analytische Philosophie der Geschichte* (Frankfurt a. M.: Suhrkamp, 1974).

were set in the discussion when Hayden White's *Metahistory* was translated to German,¹⁸ but because of its more analytical than creative potentials it had much less influence on the didactical debate. Nevertheless, H. Whites admonition to pay attention to linguistic aspects as the form of narrative patterns, tropes etc. disposed the history didactic discipline to consider "de-construction" as a mental operation as well as a method in history lessons.¹⁹ Other than in the US-American understanding,²⁰ in the German discussion some scholars state that a historical narration is not prior to the imagination of a past continuum which is manifests in a written text, but the imagination itself which can be expressed in different media but can exist unarticulated in a mental representation, too. Only by this example of de-constructing, which was absorbed by nearly all curricula in Germany, should be shown the high level didactic reflections have accomplished. Consequently, history teacher students must reach an adequate level of theoretical reflections during their university studies. They have to be enabled to reflect on epistemological aspects of history sciences as well as on epistemological aspects of history didactics.

3. Epistemological Aspects of Historical Thinking and Learning

How can this standard be converted under the conditions of Bologna, is a question which has to be answered in reference to history studies at university for the studies of history as well as for the history teacher studies which are not strictly separated in most of the German universities. Certainly, there are differences between federal states. And often there are differences between the intended type and level of school education the teacher studies are preparing for.

At most German universities the research and studies of History are classified according to the traditional epochs (Antiquity, Medieval History, Modern and Contemporary Times) whereby this order is often split up into sub-studies. For example, one can study the history of regions e.g. North- or South America or East Europe Studies, sinology, etc.) where history forms a part. Beyond this there are special studies, e.g. public history, which can be studied to get a BA or an MA degree. Another kind of special studies are e.g. Medieval Studies, a combination of Medieval History with e.g. studies of languages, Byzantine Studies, Art History

¹⁸ The book was translated with a delay of nearly 20 years, s. Hayden White, *Metahistory* (Frankfurt a. M.: Fischer, 1991). Cf. idem, *Die Bedeutung der Form. Erzählstrukturen in der Geschichtsschreibung* (Frankfurt a. M.: Fischer, 1990) and idem, *Auch Klio dichtet oder Die Fiktion des Faktischen* (Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta, 1991).

¹⁹ Initiated by Wolfgang Hasberg, "Klio im Geschichtsunterricht. Neue Perspektiven für die Geschichtserzählung im Unterricht?", *Geschichte in Wissenschaft und Unterricht* 48 (1997): 708-726. The achievement of this suggestion shows by Michelle Baricelli, "Narrativität", in *Handbuch Praxis des Geschichtsunterrichts*, vol. 1, ed Michelle Barricelli and Martin Lücke (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau, 2012), 255-280. For some clarifications s. Wolfgang Hasberg, "Jutta oder Johanna – oder: Wer macht hier Geschichte(n)? Grundlegende Bemerkungen zur Narrativität historischen Lernens", *Zeitschrift für Didaktik der Gesellschaftswissenschaften* 4 (2013) 2: 55-82

²⁰ E.g. Alun Manslow, *Deconstructing History* (London/New York: Routledge, 1997).

etc.). For history teacher students the courses prescribe mostly studies of the traditional epochs – obviously, because the school curricula reflect on these fields. What is missing in the history studies as well as in the history teacher studies are epistemological courses. Sometimes, there are modules where single courses of theory of history are offered. During the history teacher studies they are sometimes replaced by seminars in History Didactics. But analytical research and education on the epistemology of historical cognition are not quite the same as research and education on the reception and teaching of history, although there is a close connection. With regard to the high theoretical standards of the history didactic discourse the history teacher studies do not provide an adequate preparation. And the situation is much worse with regard to those who want to become teachers in primary schools or in modern secondary schools.

Are the modifications accompanying the Bologna reform appropriate to solve such problems? An answer to this question will be given in the following chapter. But one can anticipate that the new conditions do not seem to induce an enhancement because the autonomy of the students is restricted by the structure of studies and – especially the BA-studies consist of many overview lectures and only a few special seminars. That is not the fundament for the development of the epistemological awareness. On the other hand, the increase of didactical lectures instead of historical studies may provoke the risk that history studies and history teacher studies estrange from each other.²¹ Overcoming such detachment would be a challenge for all involved (pupils, teachers, didactians, historians). Thus, there is an impact between the public use of history and history education, either in school or university, which cannot be avoided. As shown for Germany a critical use of history is wide spread in certain parts of historical culture. This attitude is probably an outcome of a scientific bias of history education. In order for pupils to learn how to deal critically with history, history teachers have to be enabled to teach history in a scientific way. Without any doubt, a precondition for that is the integration of epistemology or of analytical philosophy of history into history teacher studies. Therefore, history didactians have to be interested in epistemology or theory of history, too, because they need a theory of historical cognition in order to compose a theory of teaching and learning history. At least, this must be an ambition of the historians, too, because only the people who are familiar with difficulties of historical research can estimate their works.

Because of this circular flow the following chapter describes, how the Bologna reform was implemented in Germany. In the concluding chapter we consequently try

²¹ These risks are described in detail by Wolfgang Hasberg, “Herausforderungen der Geschichtslehrerbildung, Chancen und Gefahren”, in *Zur Professionalisierung von Geschichtslehrerinnen und Geschichtslehrern, Nationale und internationale Perspektiven*, ed. Susanne Popp et al. (Göttingen, V&R unipress, 2012), 351-370, as well as in many other articles in this anthology. Cf. already Uwe Danker, “Das Studium für das geschichtslehramt im Bolognaprozess. Eine Zwischenbetrachtung”, *Geschichte in Wissenschaft und Unterricht* 61 (2010): 540-554.

to answer the question whether the reforms seem to be able to support and to promote the critical historical consciousness of all participants or not.

4. Preliminary note to the History teachers' training in Bavaria, Baden-Württemberg and Saxony

The federal states Bavaria and Baden-Württemberg still insist on the centralized first state examination. On the other hand Saxony returned to the centralized first state examination. But in any case the teacher's diploma degree is now modularized. Of course, students who began their studies before they were modularized or before Saxony returned to the centralized first state examination can finish the studies under the initial conditions. It is also guaranteed that they are admitted to the second phase of the teacher's diploma which is concluded by the second state examination.

In the following the topical status will be described. Hereby we will note that since sometimes guideline reforms for schools and teacher trainings are carried out in great haste and often depend on current governments of each federal state, it is reasonable to ask whether these quick changes promote the educational system

4.1 History teacher's training in Bavaria²²

Bavaria belongs to the federal states which modularized the teacher's diploma degree, but still insist on the centralized first state examination. In any case the conditions for students and professors seriously changed.

Diverse universities in Bavaria did not start modularizing their subjects at the same time. But those universities which adapted the reform at last did not profit from the experiences of the other universities, because the change to Bachelor's and Master's degrees concerned all subjects and at the same time teacher's training was modularized. Different periods of change were due to different sizes of the universities. By the way structures and benchmarks for all federal states to mutually acknowledge final examinations for Bachelor and Master are given, but those guidelines are not very precisely described. They are similar to the guidelines for the final teacher examination in every federal state. Moreover during the last years the universities gained more responsibility which had an effect (impact) on the organization of the modularized teacher's diploma degree. This led to a different workload for students of the same subject at different universities in Bavaria. Even worse, the number of modular degree courses for the centralized state diploma differs between the universities of one federal state. Student representatives from to the Bavarian Philologist Association (Bayerischer Philologenverband) criticized this topic in a discussion with the director of the office for examinations in the Bavarian Ministry of Education (Bayerisches Staatsministerium für Kultus und

²² The new organization of history teacher studies is described in the different articles of the anthology *Zur Professionalisierung von Geschichtslehrerinnen und Geschichtslehrern* (note 21).

Unterricht).²³ Another question of similar importance for the students was also discussed: will it be possible to gain not only the centralized first state diploma, but at the same time an academic leaving certificate? Some universities developed possible solutions for this problem. The Bavarian Minister of Education declared in his statement on June 19th, 2013 in the Bavarian state parliament: “Alle Lehramtsstudenten sollen zusätzlich zur Ersten Staatsprüfung einen universitären Abschluss in Form des Masters erwerben können.“²⁴ Since the opportunities of being employed in a Gymnasium are low, it would be helpful to have also the master’s degree in order to find a qualified job outside a gymnasium. This intention is not yet put into effect.

Usually, there is a written exam at the end of a module.²⁵ But it is not unusual that for one module students have to turn in five papers, because each part of a module is taught by a different lecturer and at the end of each part there is a written exam. Written exams mean an increased burden for students as well as for lecturers. Students have to pass many written and oral exams at the end of a term. It is not only the temporal strain, but the results of the exams will be part of the leaving certificate. For the lecturers the burden of examinations and corrections has also increased, because the tests have to be marked quickly, so that the students know as soon as possible, if they have to pass their exam or exams again. Not every module is offered in each term, therefore it is necessary that the students have the possibility to pass the exam again in between a certain period of time, so that – if they are successful – they can enroll for the following module.

It is defined that each ECTS-point (European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System) has a workload of 25 to max. 30 hours. It is expected that the students acquire 30 ECTS-points per term. That means that to study is a full time job with only six weeks holidays per year.

Altogether, many students judge the reform favorably, because the course of studies is now well structured and the demands are clear. Others again complain that studies at the university are organized just like at school. They feel the pressure of the expected workload, since they know that the marks they get for the module ex-

²³ Maximilian Peter, Marco Bleistein, Michael Demel, Peter Missy: “Gymnasiales Lehramtsstudium: Ungleiche Anforderungen werden zum Problem. Philologenverband im Gespräch mit dem Leiter des staatlichen Prüfungsamtes und der Präsidentin der Universität Augsburg”, *Das Gymnasium in Bayern* 7/2012: 24-25.

²⁴ “It will be possible for all students to receive the academic master certificate beside the centralized first state diploma” (translated E.E.), quoted according to: <http://www.bayern.de/Anlage10380331/Regierungserkl%C3%A4rung%20von%20Herrn%20Staatsminister%20Dr.%20Spaenle%20am%2019.06.2012.pdf> (12.8.2012), 23

²⁵ Ländergemeinsame Strukturvorgaben für die Akkreditierung von Bachelor- und Masterstudiengängen (Beschluss der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 10.10.2003 i. d. F. vom 04.02.2010), Anlage 1.1: “Zur Reduzierung der Prüfungsbelastung werden Module in der Regel nur mit einer Prüfung abgeschlossen, deren Ergebnis in das Abschlusszeugnis eingeht.” = “In order to reduce the burden of exams one exam at the end is sufficient in order to complete a module. The mark will be part of the leaving certificate.” (translated E.E.)

ams will be part of the leaving certificate. At the same time they are aware of the fact that on the long run there will be a surplus of teachers.

According to the old centralized state examination for grammar school teachers only one certificate in subject didactics was necessary to indicate that the student had successfully participated in a seminar. It was usual (common) that one student studied two different subjects. With the modularized studies the situation in subject didactics considerably changed.

Before the reform the lecturers for subject didactics emphasized that the students should firstly participate in an introductory lesson e.g. in History Didactics before they participated in a seminar. However, since it was not determined in the exam regulations, this recommendation was not accepted among all students.

Students could decide in which of their two subjects they would do their internship at grammar school (4 hours a week during one term). At the same time they had to visit a two hours seminar, where they could discuss their experiences, since they were obligated to teach up to three hours per week during this internship.

Now, after the reform, students need eight ETCS-points in History Didactics. E.g. at the University of Augsburg students have to do one basic and one deepened module with 6 or rather 9 ECTS-points. The internship with the same conditions as before has to be passed with 5 ECTS-points. The following diagram about the obligations for History studies and History Didactics for teachers of all kinds of schools (from primary to secondary II) was worked out by the chair of History Didactics at Augsburg University.

As mentioned the modules of different Bavarian universities have sometimes different demands and a different number of ECTS-points, but in any case the share of History Didactics for teacher students, who want to teach at a grammar school has grown and is spread out over the whole studies. Comparing the number of ECTS-points for a subject and for subject didactics it is clear that there is no pushing back the subject in favor to subject didactics. Moreover, for all teacher students there is a free field where the students can choose according to their affinity if they will enroll in a History course or in History Didactics.

Before the centralized state examination the students have to hand in a written homework (earlier called a scientific homework) worth 10 ECTS-points. They can choose to write either on a topic of History or History Didactics.

Subject of study: History

	Gymnasium		Grund- und Hauptschule		Realschule		Grundschule (Didaktikfach)		Hauptschule (Didaktikfach)	
	Module	LP	Module	LP	Module	LP	Module	LP	Module	LP
Basic module	GyG 01 - FW	18	GsHsG 01- FW	18	RsG 01- FW	18				
	GyG 02 - FW	12	GsHsG 02- FW	12	RsG 02- FW	12				
	GyG 03 - FW	4								
Build up module	GyG 04 - DID	6	GsHsG 04 - DID	6	RsG 04 - DID	6	GsG 04 - DF	6	HsG 04 - DF	6
	GyG 11 - FW	16	GsHsG 11- FW	8	RsG 11- FW	8				
	GyG 12 - FW	12	GsHsG 12- FW	6	RsG 12- FW	6				
Immersion module	GyG 14 - DID (FDTP)	5	GsHsG 14 - DID (FDTP)	5	RsG 14 - DID (FDTP)	5	GsG 13 - DF	6	HsG 13 - DF	6
	GyG 21 - FW oder GyG 22 - FW	12	GsHsG 21- FW oder GsHsG 22- FW	4	RsG 21- FW oder RsG 22- FW	8				
	GyG 23 - DID	9	GsHsG 23 - DID	9	RsG 23 - DID	9			HsG 23 - DF	8
Self selected module	GyG 31 - FWM oder GyG 32 - FWM	18	GsHsG 31 - FWM oder GsHsG 32 - FWM	6	RsG 31 - FWM oder RsG 32 - FWM	8				
	Summe LP:	112		74		80		12		20
	FB-Gy-VF-Ges (5)		FB-Gs-UF-Ges (12) resp. FB-Hs-UF-Ges (12)		FB-Rs-UF-Ges (9)		FB-Gs-DF-Ges (12)		FB-Hs-DF-Ges (12)	

Acronyms

FW Fachwissenschaft = history as science

DID Didaktik = didactics of history

FDTP fachdidaktisches Praktikum = practical course, internship during one term, students can choose in which subject they want to do it.

FB Freier Bereich = free area where the students can decide between history as science or history didactics

GS – Grundschule = primary school

HS – Hauptschule = modern secondary school

RS – Realschule = modern secondary intermediate school

Gy – Gymnasium = grammar school

Fig. 1: Diagram by Michael Wobring, Augsburg University²⁶

Before the reform started students who wanted to become teachers at other types of schools rather than grammar school had already to do more courses in History Di-

²⁶ Thanks to Dr. Michael Wobring, Augsburg University, for the permission to publish his diagram here.

dactics. For these students there is no big change.²⁷ If they want to become teachers at a primary (Grundschule) or a modern secondary school (Hauptschule) it is possible to choose History as subject. But in this case it is not possible to study History in the frame of Didactics of Primary School or of Didactics of several subjects of the modern secondary school. Often History is not studied as a subject, but only as Didactics, i.e. the students have to enroll only in modules on History Didactics, but not on History. In the examination regulations it is determined that not only subject didactics is demanded but also the fundamentals of the subject.²⁸

Neither in the primary school (grade 1 to 4) nor in the modern secondary school there is a subject called “History”. In the former there is “Sachkunde” (social and natural knowledge), where you can find only a few historical themes such as our place of residence and our region in earlier times and in the latter there is GSE (Geschichte/Sozialkunde/Erdkunde = History/Social Sciences/Geography). In grades 5 and 6 only two hours a week for this group of subjects are taught and from grade 7 to 9 there are three hours a week. Nothing has changed with renaming of “Hauptschule” into “Mittelschule” (secondary school). Since 2011, one big Hauptschule or several Hauptschulen which form a communion in being a full-time day-school, offering not only the qualified final exams, but also the possibility to achieve the qualification of the secondary intermediate school and after grade 8 to specialize in techniques, economics or social work are now called Mittelschule.²⁹

For the teacher post at a modern secondary intermediate school one has to study two subjects.³⁰ For Didactics of History 10 ECTS-points are necessary.³¹

For the centralized first state examination only written exams are now necessary. For future teachers who will have to communicate a lot with their pupils it is doubtful, whether the decrease in the number of oral exams in favor of the written ones, leaving them only with the written ones, is beneficial

4.2 *History teacher’s training in Baden-Württemberg*

In Baden-Württemberg teachers for grammar schools study at a university and teachers for all other types of schools (primary, modern secondary and secondary intermediate schools) study at a teacher training college, Pädagogische Hochschule. It is the only federal state which kept the teacher training colleges and has not integrated them into universities.

²⁷ Ordnung der Ersten Prüfung für ein Lehramt an öffentlichen Schulen (Lehramtsprüfungsordnung I – LPO I) vom 13. März 2008 (<http://www.gesetze-bayern.de/jportal/portal/page/bsbayprod.psml?form=bsbayernFastSearch&st=lr&sm=fs&desc=all&query=LPO+I+13.3.2008&neuesuche=Suchen&psOfTl=41>) (accessed: Nov. 11th, 2012).

²⁸ Ibid. § 37 (3) 1.

²⁹ <http://www.km.bayern.de/eltern/schularten/mittelschule.html> (accessed: March 7th, 2013).

³⁰ <http://www.gesetze-bayern.de/jportal/portal/page/bsbayprod.psml?showdoccase=1&doc.id=jlr-LehrPrOBY2008pG4&doc.part=X&doc.origin=bs&st=lr> §37 (accessed: Nov. 11th, 2012).

³¹ Ibid. § 48 (accessed: Nov. 11th, 2012).

The last (official) notification on the first state examination for primary school teachers has been issued on 20.5.2011. As in other federal states neither in Baden Württemberg is History taught in primary schools, but there is a group of subjects called “Mensch, Natur, Kultur” (man, nature, culture) which substitute it. In the cited notification *areas of responsibility* are formulated. Under “social sciences” you find also competences for History that are divided in process-related and content-related competences.³² The studies regulations for modules are defined by each college itself. Here you find also content-related regulations, e.g. from which periods historical contents should be chosen. In addition to this theories and methods of History Didactics are given. Only the teacher training college in Freiburg has, until now, its studies regulations in the provisional, non-official edition (from March 29th, 2012) in the Net. In contrary to the studies regulations from other colleges, in Freiburg there is no possibility to choose a topic from Antiquity or Late Antiquity. That is a pity because the territory of Baden-Württemberg belonged for the most part to the Roman Empire and is directly influenced by the Greek-Roman culture, as a result of which there are many remains from Roman times, not only but often in the surroundings of Freiburg.

The exam regulations for the first state examination date from the December 5th, 2011. These regulations are valid not only for teachers of primary schools, but also for modern secondary schools, intermediary secondary schools and so-called *Werkrealschulen*. It is possible for all pupils at *Werkrealschulen* to visit the 10th grade and to do the same final exams as pupils of the secondary intermediate school. But they can also do the final certificate of a modern secondary school after the 9th or 10th grade. The *Werkrealschule* is more vocationally orientated than the other school types. From 2012/2013 there will be new subjects in grade 10 as *Berufsorientierende Bildung* (vocational orientation) and *Kompetenztraining* (training of competences). Beside that, all pupils of the 8th grade have to choose one of the following group-subjects: *Natur und Technik* (nature and technology), *Wirtschaft und Informationstechnik* (economics and information technology) or *Gesundheit und Soziales* (health and social welfare). These group-subjects determine pupils vocational orientation and depending on a pupils personal choice are also being taught in grade 10. History as a subject is neither taught in the modern secondary school nor in the *Werkrealschule*, only as part of a group of subjects called *Welt – Zeit – Gesellschaft* (World – Time – Society). Following subjects belong to this group: history, social sciences, politics, geography and economics. For grades 5 to 9 there are 17 hours, for grade 10 four hours a week. In the secondary intermediate school history is taught 8 hours a week, i.e. usual two hours a week during four years.³³

³² [http://www.landesrecht-bw.de/jportal/portal/t/1oak/page/bsbawueprod.psml?doc.hl=1&doc.id=jlr-GHLehr1PrOBW2011rahmen&documentnumber=1&numberofresults=3& Showdoc-case=1&doc.part=X¶mfromHL=true#jlr-GHLehr1PrOBW2011pP6](http://www.landesrecht-bw.de/jportal/portal/t/1oak/page/bsbawueprod.psml?doc.hl=1&doc.id=jlr-GHLehr1PrOBW2011rahmen&documentnumber=1&numberofresults=3&Showdoc-case=1&doc.part=X¶mfromHL=true#jlr-GHLehr1PrOBW2011pP6) (accessed: Nov. 11th, 2012).

³³ <http://www.schule-bw.de/schularten/hauptschule/aktuell/archiv-aktuelles/wrs-perspektiven> (accessed: Feb. 11th, 2013).

To become a teacher at the modern secondary school, at the *Werkrealschule* or at the secondary intermediate school it is possible to study History as main or as subsidiary subject. In the notification on the final first state examination from May 20th, 2011 the list of competences contains the specialist, subject didactic and methodical ones.³⁴ The regulations of studies regarding modules of each *Pädagogische Hochschule* (teacher training college) include contents. I According to the History modules description at the *Pädagogische Hochschule* Heidelberg seminar topics during History studies should cover all epochs.³⁵

It can be assumed that during the integrated internship (130 hours) which is supervised by the *Pädagogische Hochschule* the students teach their subjects. During this internship the students must teach 30 hours under a supervisor's guidance. Having passed the first state teacher's examination the second phase of the teacher's diploma lasts 18 months and is concluded by the second state teacher's examination.

Future teachers for grammar schools are trained at a university. History can be studied as a main or a subsidiary subject. The certificate of the subsidiary subject allows teaching only in lower and middle grammar school.

In order to study history as a main subject 80 ECTS-points are necessary and the topics are prescribed. For about 14 ECTS-points the students can decide which historical themes they want to deepen and 10 ECTS-points are necessary in History Didactics. It is also possible that universities shift up to 6 ECTS-points between compulsory and optional modules. The contents of History Didactics comply with the contents and demands of the internship-term and on the other hand they serve as a fundament for theoretical and practical knowledge for the second phase of the teacher's diploma.³⁶ Having passed the introductory course in History Didactics the internship of 13 weeks has to be spent at a grammar or at a vocational school. During this internship there are also courses by the teacher trainers for the second phase of the teacher's diploma for grammar schools (at a so-called *Studienseminar*, now called *Staatliches Seminar für Didaktik und Lehrerbildung*), whereas at school there are experienced teachers as supervisors.

History Didactics is not examined during the first state examination. That is due to the fact that there are no professors for subject didactics at the universities in Baden-Württemberg at all. But there are courses about subject didactics held at a uni-

³⁴ Cf. note 10.

³⁵ http://www.ph-heidelberg.de/fileadmin/ms-faecher/geschichte/Dokumente/Modulhandb%C3%BCher_PO2011/WHRPO2011-MHB_REV_140912_05-GES.pdf (accessed: Feb. 11th, 2013). As it was mentioned for primary schools the Pädagogische Hochschule Freiburg has until now only the study regulations for all teachers in the provisional, non-official edition posted onto the Net. https://www.ph-freiburg.de/fileadmin/dateien/zentral/studienplanung/whrs_sto_2011_na.pdf (26.2.2013). Obviously there are some difficulties, cf. http://www.ph-freiburg.com/fileadmin/Probleme_mit_der_PO_2011_an_der_PH_Freiburg.pdf (accessed: Feb. 26th, 2013).

³⁶ Roland Wolf: "Geschichtslehrausbildung aus der Sicht der Seminare", *geschichte für heute* 4 (2011) 1: 5-15.

versity by the mentioned teacher trainers for the second phase. These teacher trainers together with experienced teachers at schools are in charge of the students during the internship.

Also during the second phase of the teacher's diploma which lasts 18 months there is a cooperation between the teacher trainers and the experienced teachers at school, although this cooperation could be improved as you can see from the considerations and questions Roland Wolf raises in his article about teacher training.³⁷ In Baden-Württemberg a lot concerning teacher training is in a state of flux. A press release of the Ministry for Science, Research and Art Baden-Württemberg from March 12th, 2012 reported that a panel of experts started to work on development of further teacher trainings. This panel was also expected to make proposals as follows: "Die Stärken der Lehrerausbildung an Universitäten und Pädagogischen Hochschulen sollen zusammengeführt werden. Dabei sollen Modelle einer gestuften Studienstruktur mit geprüft werden." Besides it is emphasized particularly that the panel could also discuss about the second phase of the teacher's diploma.³⁸

4.3 *History teacher's training in Saxony*

As early as 2006/07, the Leipzig University had switched over to the polyvalent Bachelor and Master for teachers. A year after the Technical University Dresden followed with the Bachelor. As a result of a cabinet decision from Oct. 19th, 2010 the reform of the reform which led to the return to the first state diploma for different types of school was introduced. The aim was the shortening of the training period, so the studies for teachers of elementary schools should last 8 terms, of intermediate schools (Mittelschulen) 9 terms, and for special tuition, grammar and technical or specialized secondary schools (Fachoberschulen) 10 terms.

According to the official and semi-official statements the following reasons were decisive: Students, especially those who wanted to become teachers at elementary schools did not take the advantage to decide about their academic profession as late as possible. They had to decide only on passing the polyvalent Bachelor exam, but they were determined from the very beginning to become teachers. For some students the Bachelor was overtaxing and the number of drop-outs from universities was quite high. Besides some students were not willing to continue their master studies far away from their place of residence, because the master for teachers was only accredited at Leipzig University.³⁹ Since it was anticipated that many teachers

³⁷ Ibid., 14f.

³⁸ <http://mwk.baden-wuerttemberg.de/service/pressemitteilungen/presse-detailseite/gute-lehrer-gute-schueler/> (accessed: Nov. 4th, 2012). "The strong aspects of the teacher training at universities and at Pädagogische Hochschulen shall be joint together. Models of a phased structure shall be examined." (translated E.E.)

³⁹ <http://www.sn.schule.de/~afs-vds/index.php/region/13-allg/66-lehrerausbildung-in-sachsen-wird-grundlegend-veraendert> (accessed: Aug. 16th, 2012). http://tu-dresden.de/die_tu_dresden/zentrale_einrichtungen/zlsb/110408_tempo/Reform%20der%20Reform%20Lehrerbildun_g.pdf (accessed: Aug. 16th, 2012). I thank Alexander Biedermann, chairperson of the centre

would retire until 2020, it was necessary to train as many teacher students as possible. Therefore the cabinet decision from 2010 returned to special teacher training courses and the state examination. In any case the modularized studies were kept, but it would have been better adapted to the different types of schools the students are striving for than before. In this way it will be possible to shorten the time of studies as mentioned above. The internships at schools and similar courses shall be preserved and be further developed, especially in a qualitative manner. So it will be possible to shorten the second phase of the teacher's diploma to one year. Now it is possible to study at Leipzig University and at the Technical University Dresden to become teacher for elementary, intermediate and grammar school. In Dresden one can also study for teachers of specialized secondary schools (höheres Lehramt für die beruflichen Schulen) and in Leipzig there is a possibility for teachers studies of special schools.

In addition it will be possible to study for a teacher of elementary schools at the Chemnitz University.

The authorities have decreed about the first state diploma for teachers in Saxony at the end of August 2012.⁴⁰ Until now there exist study regulations for teachers only at the Technical University Dresden, the Leipzig University published until now only some temporary study regulations for teachers.⁴¹

For elementary school didactics historical, social and cultural perspectives are subsumed under the term "Sachunterricht" (general studies). It is not possible to choose history as a subject for the examination for elementary schools,⁴² but "Sachunterricht" can be chosen as part of elementary school didactics and there is a 20 minutes oral examination about "Sachunterricht". According to the study regulations in Dresden the modules for "Sachunterricht" are taught by the professor for elementary school Didactics /Sachunterricht.⁴³

To become teacher at an intermediate school one has to choose two subjects. According to the examination regulations for the first state exam the study of history comprises not only of Ancient, Medieval and Late-Medieval History, but also of History of Early Modern and Modern Times as well as Contemporary History and Didactics of History. The written state examination is on different areas of Educational Sciences, the oral examination is confined to all above mentioned subjects. During the 60 minutes examination about one subject, e.g. History, two thirds of

for teacher training and research at Leipzig University (Zentrum für Lehrerbildung und Schulforschung) for kind information.

⁴⁰ www.revosax.sachsen.de/Details.do?sid=9681215552533 (accessed: Nov. 7th, 2012).

⁴¹ http://www.zv.uni-leipzig.de/universitaet/profil/entwicklungen/amtliche-bekanntmachungen.html?kat_id=725 (accessed: March. 10th, 2013). On this site one will find the links to pdf-versions.

⁴² www.revosax.sachsen.de/Details.do?sid=9681215552533 (accessed: Nov. 7th, 2012), §23, § 26 (2) 4.a) u. 4 b); (3).

⁴³ http://tu-dresden.de/die_tu_dresden/zentrale_einrichtungen/zlsb/studium/SESG/SEGS/120719_sogrs/SO%20Lehramt%20GS%20erlassen.pdf (accessed: Nov. 8th, 2012).

the time are about history as a science and one third is about History Didactics.⁴⁴ According to the published study regulations for History as a subject at the Dresden University there are seven obligatory modules about History as a science and two modules for History Didactics. The basic module (two terms) informs about the fundamentals of History Didactics and includes a practical training during the term. The second module (also two terms) is for advanced students with a four-week full practical training where students have to teach 20 hours independently.⁴⁵ The examination regulations for teachers at grammar schools have only one omission in Didactics of History compared with the regulation for intermediate schools: “Anforderungen für das Lehren und Lernen in heterogenen Lerngruppen.”⁴⁶ But the sixth form of grammar school (gymnasiale Oberstufe) is mentioned. Eight modules of History as a science and two modules of Didactics of History are necessary. The basic module of History Didactics (3 terms, 11 ECTS-points) comprises also a practical training during the term. The second module (2 terms, 13 ECTS-points) is for advanced students with a four-week full practical training, where students have to teach 20 hours independently.⁴⁷

5. Conclusion

Beside all differences between the three federal states there are common tendencies, of which two are to mention. In Bavaria and in Baden-Württemberg history is not a subject in modern secondary schools, but belongs to a group of subjects. The students who later want to teach this group of subjects cannot study all subjects of the group, but only one. Consistently, they are experts only in one subject of the group, but amateurs in the other ones. Moreover there is a tendency or at least considerations to shorten or to abolish the second phase of the teacher’s examination. The same tendencies can be observed in other federal republics, too.⁴⁸ That means that the structure of studies as well as the conditions of teacher training in the second part of teacher education changed radically. Historians already asserted that the Bologna reform would be the second big university reform in modernity.⁴⁹ In

⁴⁴ Ibid. § 44 (3); § 54. About the duration of the oral examination: § 12 (3).

⁴⁵ tu-dresden.de/die_tu_dresden/zentrale_einrichtungen/zlsb/studium/SESG/SEMS/studoksms/SO_Geschichte_MS_erlassen.pdf (accessed: Nov. 7th, 2012).

⁴⁶ www.revosax.sachsen.de/Details.do?sid=9681215552533 (accessed: Nov. 7th, 2012). § 54 (2) 4, but § 81 (2) 5 (Gymnasium). “Qualifications for teaching and learning in heterogeneous groups of students” (translated E. E.).

⁴⁷ http://tu-dresden.de/die_tu_dresden/zentrale_einrichtungen/zlsb/studium/SESG/SEGYM/studoksgy/SO%20Geschichte%20GY%20erlassen.pdf (accessed: Nov. 7th, 2012).

⁴⁸ The situation of the reform in Northrhine-Westfalia, the biggest federal state in Germany, was described by Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg, “Historical Culture, History Didactics and History Teaching in Germany”, (note 3), 287f. and Wolfgang Hasberg, “Herausforderungen der Geschichtslehrerbildung” (note 21), 364, although the development is permanent and still flowing.

⁴⁹ Dieter Langewiesche, “Meine Universität und die Universität in Gesellschaft und Politik”, in idem, *Zeitwende. Geschichtsdenken heute*, ed. Nikolaus Buschmann/Ute Planert (Göttingen, 2008), 107.

public, the discussion is focused on rather marginal aspects, e.g. the students protest against too many tests and the check of regular presence in the lectures and seminars. In fact, the number of tests did not rise and the necessity to check the presence is an impact of compensation by credit points depending on workloads. But the resentments of students are to be taken seriously since they do not feel free in the tight network of logistical regulations, lecturers and professors. But these are extrinsic drawbacks which do not stay without consequences on participants attitudes or without an effect on the content and competences taught at the universities and the teacher seminars. Actually, Dieter Lenzen, a pedagogue and president of the Hamburg University, wrote a book wherein he denounces these drawbacks and demands not to turn back all Bologna reforms but to create space for “Bildungsbegegnungen”, in order to permit “Bildung” possible.⁵⁰ It is universally known that “Bildung” cannot be translated by “education” because Bildung describes the process of becoming an individual, Bildung means much more than just learning. Rather is learning a basic capability for Bildung. Therefore, universities have to provide free spaces in their curricula in order to enable the students not to learn for the test but to study for their own Bildung. This ambition commissioned to all university studies is especially important in teacher studies because teachers have to be “gebildete” (cultured) individuals who are able to guide their pupils towards Bildung. In this process history plays an important role. Therefore history teacher studies should retrieve all possibilities to allow for “Bildungsgerlebnisse” – even if some barriers erected by the Bologna reforms have to be withdrawn.

gen: Vandehoeck, 2008), 241-251, here 242. S. also *ibid*, 194-213, 214-224) and 225-240. For the background s. Wolfgang E. J. Weber, *Geschichte der europäischen Universität* (Stuttgart u. a.: Kohlhammer, 20002), 235-245.

⁵⁰ Dieter Lenzen, *Bildung statt Bologna!* (Berlin: ullstein, 2014).

History Didactics in the Slovak Republic

Viliam Kratochvíl and Barnabás Vajda

1. How significant/important is history in the Slovak society?

In Slovakia, historical culture as a specific complex of historical thinking (comprised of all sorts of historical information, ranging from scientific to non-scientific) is still influenced by the transformation process started by the change of the political regime in 1989, and the establishment of the independent Slovak Republic in 1993. These key events have left an enormous impression on the political, economic and social situation which still reflects an ongoing struggle about the past. Jacques Rupnik, a French political scientist, calls this a “search for employable past”, and this rule seems to be continuously working within the Slovak society. Though the importance of the nation’s historical past has slightly declined in the eyes of the wider public in the last few years, it is also true that its intensity greatly depends on the character of the political agenda of the actual governments.

A bit surprisingly, and a little bit in contrary with usual political patterns in Europe, it seems that Slovak leftist political formations or coalitions tend to be more focused on the importance of the nations’ history than the centrum or right wing ones. In some cases, it is quite clear which political side favoures which historical event. E.g. strong refusal of the Communist totalitarianism has been typical for the representatives of the political right side; on the other hand, the problem of the most ancient history of the „Old Slovaks“ has been focused on by the social democrats and the nationalists. In most cases, a particular historical event runs undistinguishably accross the whole political spectre, and consequently through the public discourse, such as the history of the Slovak State (1939-1945) and its leader, Josef Tiso, or the Slovak national uprising in 1944, or the historical personality of Gustav Husák, the native Slovak president of the post-1968 Communist Czechoslovakia. In Slovakia, a country which had shared a mutual past with the Hungarian Kingdom for many centuries until 1918, and where some 10% of the population still consist of ethnic Hungarians, the misuse of history for political purposes is not an exclusive domain of Slovak politicians, since the representatives of the Hungarian political parties have used and misused it, too.

Evidently, there are many public efforts to convert history into a practical political instrument on all sides of the Slovak political spectrum. History as an argument in the political and/or public discourse is less attractive in Slovakia today than it used to be for instance some twenty years ago. Arbitrary misuse of history however is still an important phenomenon in the armoury of any Slovakian politician. This is one of the major reasons why we think that in Slovakia we would need a more determined presence of skilled history didacticians, experts who could professsionally deal with any public use or misuse of history.

2. What is the position of the history education in the Slovakian school education?

In Slovakia, compulsory school education lasts for ten years. According to the last education reform act (from 2008), all primary schools, gymnasiums and secondary vocational schools have to adjust their education programmes to the National Education Programme (NEP), formulated by the Slovak National Institute for Education (Štátny pedagogický ústav). As far as history is concerned within the NEP, at the second level of primary schools (grades 5-9), history is contained in an educational field called People & Society. In the 4-year gymnasiums, history is a compulsory subject in grades 1-3, plus students may enroll for an optional history seminar in grades 3 and 4. In accordance with the majority of the European school systems, history is an optional subject for the school leaving examination, called *maturita* (abitur) in Slovakia. The steady but continuous reduction in the number of weekly lessons devoted to history is a significant sign of the fact that school policy of the modern Slovakia prefers languages and natural sciences over history. In 1990, on the secondary level (grades 5-9) there used to be 2 lessons per week in each grade. In 2013, there are by 4 lessons less, being only 1 lesson per week in grades 5-8, and 2 lessons per week in grade 9, where modern and contemporary history is taught.

Along with these, there are two more problems which can hardly be handled by traditional history teaching approaches. The first is the teachers' general need for content reduction. If the state has reduced the number of history lessons, they argue, then there is no other option than to reduce the content which should be compulsory taught, too. The second major problem is parents' negative attitude toward history as a school subject. "What do we gain from history teaching?", many parents ask headmasters or class teachers. Or even if they do not ask this question publicly, in the eyes of the general public there are much more "important" subjects than history, such as English language or mathematics, subjects and skills that most parents regard as more useful for their children's future. Both above mentioned professional challenges can only be dealt with using modern history didactics. It is a good news for many that the process of a general review of the National Education Programme from history in order to significantly reduce the content of the history curricula has been done since late 2012. At the end of this procedure (sometimes late 2013), the experts of the Slovak National Institute for Education responsible for the history curricula expect that both elementary and secondary schools will have less compulsory (prescribed) history content, and by using more developed methods and tools, they will be able to devote more professional attention to a reduced content. Also (as to the second problem) it is history didacticians (and not regular history teachers), properly equipped with professional arguments, who can bravely face the public, and who can sufficiently explain the importance of history education.

3. What is the position of history and history didactics in the structure of the Slovak university education?

The change of the political system after 1989 was a turning point for the Slovak historiography. Its importance rests on the fact that the historians realised they got an opportunity to gradually take over the organisation of history as a scientific discipline by themselves. Now it is possible to conclude that history at universities has preserved its position as an independent scientific discipline formulating its own themes, methodology and forms of both history teaching and research. Since 1989, the inflow of students interested in studying history has been constantly rising. Nevertheless, it seems to have attained its culmination point now, whereas the number of pre-service history teachers in a two-branch study (i.e. history plus some other subject) are constantly on decline.

In order to survey the overall position and the precise content of the history didactics in the university courses of the Slovak Republic, the following questions need to be analysed: Is history didactics as such present in the study programmes of the history departments at the Slovakian universities? If yes, at what level of the courses is history didactics taught? Was history didactics established in the pre-service history teacher training, or is it an occasional and negligible school subject? What exactly is the content of the history didactics courses, and what is their relation to the methodology of history teaching? To what extent does it consist of theoretical and/or practical courses? What is the place of history didactics in the examinations, especially in state exams which confirm graduation at the end of the Slovakian university studies?

While answering these questions, we have used the following research methods for this paper. Beyond the very thin literature on this topic,¹ first and foremost we surveyed the study programmes and recommended syllabuses which can be found on the websites of the universities. Even if these online platforms have certain limitations (mainly they are not always detailed and up to date), they provide basic source of information on study programmes, students' profiles, teachers' requirements, lists of thesis, publications, annual reports, etc.² Further on, in some cases

¹ For further particularities on the history teaching in Slovakia and the Czech republic, see: a) Viliam Kratochvíl, "History Teaching in the Slovak Republic", in: *Facing – Mapping – Bridging Diveristy. Foundation of a European Discourse on History Education. Part 2*, eds., Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2011, 195-229; b) Blažena Gracová and Zdeněk Beneš, "History Didactics in the Czech Republik", in: *ibid.*, 139-153.

² Študijné programy, informačné listy predmetov, profil študenta, etc. see: Univerzita Komenškého, Pedagogická fakulta, Katedra histórie, Bratislava (<http://www.fedu.uniba.sk/index.php?id=2758>; Univerzita Sv. Cyrila a Metoda, Trnava: <http://khist.ff.ucm.sk/rozvrh.htm>; http://ff.ucm.sk/docs/dokumenty/info_ff_2011.pdf; Univerzita Konštantína Filozofa, Nitra: <http://www.katedrahistorie.sk/informacie-o-katedre>; Univerzita Mateja Bela, Banská Bystrica, Fakulta humanitných vied, Katedra histórie: <http://www2.fhv.umb.sk/Katedry/Katedra%20historie/>; Prešovská Univerzita, Filozofická fakulta, Inštitút histórie, Prešov:

we were able to obtain some first-hand information from respected colleagues who run history didactics courses at the teacher training faculties. In other cases, we collected some informal data from graduates who attended history didactics courses.

Study of history as an academic discipline and the two-branch study designed for pre-service teachers organised as a three-year study leading to a Bachelor degree and a two-year study oriented towards Master degree is provided by eight universities in their faculties of arts or in faculties of education (see their list below). However, prior to any further and deeper analysis we have to conclude two facts which express the exasperating situation of history didactics as science at the university departments in Slovakia. The first is that *there is not a single department of history didactics* which would function *independently* along with other well established history chairs, such as departments of national history or departments of world history. And secondly, even if there are some genuine efforts aiming at creation of a decent history didactics chair, *we suffer a lack of basic literature on history didactics in Slovak language*. The very last university coursebook specifically on history didactics had been written by prof. Július Alberty back in 1992. Since then, Viliam Kratochvíl has written a series of detailed studies on it, and Barnabás Vajda produced an *Introduction to Didactics and Methodology of Teaching History in Hungarian language*.³

4. Is history didactics present in the study programmes offered by the history departments of the Slovakian universities?

It is a fact that history didactics is present in the study programmes offered by the history departments of the Slovakian universities. But the proper answer is more complex than that. By mid-2012, there are altogether 35 institutions of higher education in the Slovak Republic (a country of 5.3 million inhabitants) offering an opportunity of studying at university level. From these, 23 universities are state universities (including three run by the state armed forces and state police), and 12 are private ones. Out of the 23 state universities, there are 8 universities where there is a faculty with at least one history department in general, and where some kind of history teacher training takes place in particular. These 8 history faculties/departments do offer some courses for future history teachers. This means that in 2012, circa 22% of all Slovakian universities (8 out of 35) possess a state-accredited study programme officially called “Teaching Academic Subjects, Study Programme History”.⁴

<http://www.unipo.sk/filozoficka-fakulta/ih>; Univerzita P. J. Šafárika, Filozofická fakulta, Katedra histórie in Košice: <http://khupjs.weebly.com/>.

³ Julius Alberty: *Didaktika dejepisu* (Banská: Bystrica 1992). S. publications of Viliam Kratochvíl and Barnabás Vajda in the authors entry at the end of the book.

⁴ Študijný odbor 1.1.1 učiteľstvo akademických predmetov v kombinácii, študijný program história, in Slovak.

The list of the 8 Slovakian universities, their faculties, and their departments which have been subject of our analysis is:

Name and seat of the university	Name of the faculty where history is taught	Department where history didactics is taught
Univerzita Komenského, Bratislava	Filozofická fakulta	Katedra všeobecných dejín
Univerzita Komenského, Bratislava	Pedagogická fakulta	Katedra histórie
Univerzita J. Selyeho, Komárno	Pedagogická fakulta	Katedra histórie
Univerzita Sv. Cyrila a Metoda, Trnava	Filozofická fakulta	Katedra histórie
Univerzita Konštanína Filozofa, Nitra	Filozofická fakulta	Katedra histórie
Univerzita Mateja Bela, Banská Bystrica	Fakulta humanitných vied	Katedra histórie
Prešovská Univerzita, Prešov	Filozofická fakulta	Inštitút histórie
Univerzita P. J. Šafárika, Košice	Filozofická fakulta	Katedra histórie

It is worth noting that all history departments on the list are exclusively situated at state universities, and none of them is part of a private higher education institution. We can conclude that at least at five departments out of eight, there is at least some history didactics included in the courses, and this is slightly more than half of all history departments in Slovakia. What makes the proper survey difficult is that among undergraduate courses there are three school subjects which are (at least for the superficial spectator) identical, namely the *Methodology of History Teaching*, the *General Didactics*, and the *History Didactics*. These three can sometimes hardly be separated from each other, neither by name nor by content. In any case, minimally five history departments in Slovakia, namely the University Komenského Filozofická fakulta, the University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta, the University J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta, the University Mateja Bela Fakulta humanitných vied, and the University of Konštanína Filozofa Filozofická fakulta do have courses that are literally called as 'history didactics'.

The situation at the further three university departments is as follows. At the University of P. J. Šafárik Filozofická fakulta there is *not yet* history didactics taught. It means that since this history department was established only in 2009 only, at the time of this article (mid-2012) the department has students on Bachelor' level only. Nevertheless, they do have a subject such as history didactics in their curricu-

lum which will be soon taught at the Master level.⁵ At the Prešovská Univerzita Filozofická fakulta Inštitút histórie, there is a subject called ‘History didactics’ which is included in the *general pedagogical course*. And finally, the University of Santa Cyril and Metod is an institution where its core syllabus does not offer any subject called ‘history didactics’. It offers ‘Basics of pedagogy’ and ‘General didactics’ on the Bachelor level of its studies⁶, and ‘General Didactics’ is also included in the general pedagogical state exams, but eventually we have a good reason to think that the content of these courses is not history didactics.

5. At what level is history didactics taught in university courses in Slovakia?

Since 2008, the so called Bologna System is operating at the Slovakian universities, which means that pre-service university teacher training courses consist of a 3-year-long Bachelor’s level (Bc) plus a 2-year-long Master’s (Mgr) level.

The majority of the history departments do *not* have any didactical courses on their Bc level of studies at all. They start offering history didactics on Mgr level of their studies, like the University Komenského Filozofická fakulta, the University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta, and the University Sv. Cyrila a Metoda Filozofická fakulta.

Two departments (the University J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta, and the University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta) offer both Methodology of History Teaching and History Didactics. In both cases, these two courses are separated from each other as far as the level of studies is concerned. It means that the history department at the University of J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta runs its methodology courses on Bc level, during the second year of the three-year-long Bc study. History didactics is included in the Mgr level of studies, either during the first year (the University J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta) or in the 2nd year of the two-year-long Mgr studies like at the University of Komenského Pedagogická fakulta.

In some cases history didactics is taught in one semester (e.g. at the University J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta). Nevertheless, it is more typical that history didactics courses are divided into two parts, History Didactics part I. and part II. For instance, at the University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta there is ‘Didaktika dejepisu’ I. and II. plus ‘Seminár k didaktike’ I. and II. This is also the case at further history departments like at the University Komenského Filozofická fakulta, the University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta, and the University Mateja Bela Fakulta humanitných vied.

Since under the Slovakian law a university semesters *has to be* minimally 13 weeks long, and since most courses of history didactics are given a time-span of two lessons per week, in very practical terms this means that in optimum case Slovakian undergraduates can have 52 history didactics lessons (i.e. 52 times 45 min-

⁵ We are grateful for this information to Dr. Slávka Otčenášová from Košice.

⁶ Základy pedagogiky and Všeobecná didaktika, in Slovak.

utes) in total. This is the case at least at the half of the existing history departments in Slovakia.

6. To what extent does history didactics consist of theoretical and/or practical courses?

As to the form of the courses, in most cases history didactics courses consist of a combination of lectures and seminars, like at the University Sv. Cyrila a Metoda, the University Konštanína Filozofa Filozofická fakulta, the University Mateja Bela Fakulta humanitných vied, and (according to its planned curriculum) the University P. J. Šafárika Filozofická fakulta. At these departments, in the overwhelming majority of cases there is one lecture plus two seminars per week, while the latter one is explicitly based on undergraduates' personal involvement and activity.

In some cases arrangements are slightly different. E.g. at the University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta there are two lectures plus two seminars. At the University Komenského Filozofická fakulta on the Master's level there are no didactics *lectures* at all; instead history didactics lessons entirely consist of several kinds of activities, such as deep analysis or deconstruction or construction of lesson plans, or analysis of textbooks, or practicing several kinds of source-based activities, etc. In the case of the University J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta, there is an additional subject added to the history didactics, called Seminar of Practical Teaching.⁷

The question of history didactics and methodology is also linked to the pre-service teaching training, called 'pedagogická prax' in Slovakia. Practical teaching training means shorter or longer periods of time spent in real teaching situations in real school environment. The real time spent at elementary or secondary schools can vary from a couple of days to 2 or 3 weeks, depending on demands of the university or the department. In the undergraduates' cause, it might include passive observation of history lessons as well as full-scale teaching of a lesson or even of a series of lessons. During the time of this very practical teacher training, undergraduates are under a joint supervision of the local teacher as well as of the senior lecturer from his/her university. The history departments included in our survey all require and provide practical teacher training in various forms and time spans, ranging from 2 to 15 lessons per semester.

7. Which position does history didactics take in the courses and the examinations, especially in the state exams?

According to the available syllabuses, history didactics courses are compulsory, and this fact refers to its importance within the core syllabus. It is also typical that undergraduates have to take an exam from this subject on two different levels. Firstly, students have to successfully complete history didactics as an individual subject which is part of the semestral course. Secondly, some departments include

⁷ Seminár praktického vyučovania, in Slovak.

questions from history didactics into their final exams, called *state exams* where at the very end of the studies undergraduates have to certify their knowledge in front of a panel in an oral test. If the ‘importance’ of the undergraduate courses can be measured in the number of credits that undergraduates receive when successfully completed a certain course, history didactics courses make up some 20-25% in average of all credits that can be obtained throughout a 2-year-long Master’s course. In general, the departments in our survey offer some 6 to 12 credits out of 30 to 35 credits in total for the Master’s level, as it is the case at the University J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta (8 out of 32) or the University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta (12 out of 32 credits on the Master’s level).

Though only one university has made the list of its state exam questions public (namely the University of P. J. Šafárik Filozofická fakulta), it is correct to say that at least four out of eight Slovakian history departments *do include history didactics topics in their final oral exams*, such as the University Komenského Filozofická fakulta, the University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta, the University J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta, and the University Mateja Bela Fakulta humanitných vied. Among these we can find the following questions: ‘Differences between historical skills and knowledge’; ‘Operationalisation and taxonomisation’; ‘Typology of history textbooks’; ‘Using primary sources in history teaching’, etc.

8. What is the content of the history didactics which is established in the undergraduate courses of the Slovakian university programmes?

Before and during our research, we were forced to specify what should we regard as true or real history didactics content in the courses, and how can one separate it from ‘classical’ didactics or methodology of history teaching. We have regarded definitions by well known historians or didacticians like Joachim Rohlfes, Jörn Rüsen, Hans-Jürgen Pandel, Bodo von Borries, Elisabeth Erdmann, Robert Maier, Susanne Popp and others.⁸

Beside this we also considered other conceptual definitions by several Eastern European historians and didacticians like Zdeněk Beneš and Blažena Gracová (from the Czech Republic) or Ágnes Fischer-Dárdai and József Kaposi (from Hungary) or Viliam Kratochvíl (from Slovakia) who all formulated several definitions relevant for the geographical context of Eastern Europe where history didactics is

⁸ See Joachim Rohlfes, *Geschichte und ihre Didaktik* (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck, 1986); Jörn Rüsen, *Historisches Lernen* (Köln/Weimar/Wien: Böhlau, 1994); Ulrich Mayer et al, eds., *Wörterbuch Geschichtsdidaktik* (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2006); Bodo v. Borries, “Geschichtsdidaktik am Ende des 20. Jahrhunderts”, in *Wie weiter? Zukunft des Geschichtsunterrichts*, eds., Hans-Jürgen Pandel et al. (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2001); Elisabeth Erdmann, Robert Maier and Susanne Popp, *Geschichtsunterricht international/ Worldwide Teaching History/L’enseignement de l’histoire dans le monde* (Studien zur internationalen Schulbuchforschung, vol. 117) (Hannover: Hahn’sche Buchhandlung, Hannover 2006) and others.

not very wide spread.⁹ All these experts who have had their history didactics schools on their own and by Western European standards, acknowledge the fact that history didactics as such started to spread in Eastern Europe only after the political changes of 1989, so today the history didactical approach is neither a very old nor a sufficiently developed scientific branch in Eastern Europe. When referring to the exasperating situation of history didactics in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, *Zdeněk Beneš* informally calls our university courses as ‘made according to a cookery-book’. Thus he refers to their mixed character where history didactics is mistakenly understood as a step-by-step ‘cook-book’, and where confusing elements of methodology are mixed with true history didactics heart and seen perhaps at international conferences or seminars.

This conceptual shade as well as the uncertain place of the history didactics between the historical and pedagogical science, is rather obvious from the research we have done. Taking into consideration the above mentioned factors, during our research we generously regarded as history didactics any content that referred to the didactical approach. For instance, we have regarded as history didactics any voluntary seminars focusing on the theory and technique of history syllabus-design, or any seminar on history textbook research, because these are typical topics and reflect the high professional consciousness that the history didactical approach requires. We were also keen to accept as history didactics all specialised university courses like ‘*Historical sources in school history teaching*’ (University Komenského Filozofická fakulta) or ‘*History textbook as a source of pluralistic methods for both the teacher and pupil*’ (University Komenského Filozofická fakulta) or ‘*History schoolbook research*’ (University P. J. Šafárika Filozofická fakulta and also at the University J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta), etc. which with very high probability contribute to a higher level of didactical approach.

On the other hand, we decided not to include into our research courses which according to our best knowledge are typical methodological themes, even if they are labelled as ‘history didactics’. We acted so especially when the specification of the course content was not possible from the course description. For example, ‘*Multi-media in history teaching*’ (University Sv. Cyrila a Metoda Filozofická fakulta) or ‘*Modern trends in history teaching*’ (University Mateja Bela Fakulta humanitných vied) or ‘*Museum pedagogics*’ (University Mateja Bela Fakulta humanitných vied) or ‘*Organisation forms of history teaching*’ (Prešovská Univerzita Filozofická fakulta) or ‘*History in mass media*’ (University Konštanína Filozofa Filozofická fa-

⁹ See *Zdeněk Beneš*, “Mezi dějinami, dějepisectvím a pamětí”, in *Historické vědomí jako předmět badatelského zájmu: teorie a výzkum*, ed., Jiří Šubr. Historická sociologie – Knižní edice Nezávislé centrum pro studium politiky (Kolín: ARC-Vysoká škola politických a společenských věd, 2010); *Denisa Labischová*, and *Blažena Gracová*, *Příručka ke studiu didaktiky dějepisu* (Scripta Facultatis Philosophicae Univesitatis Ostraviensis, 2008); *Ágnes Fischer-Dárdai*: Történeti megismerés – történelmi gondolkodás (A történelemtanári továbbképzés kiskönyvtára XLI) (Budapest, 2006); *Viliam Kratochvíl*, *Modely na rozvíjanie kompetencií žiakov* (K transformácii vzťahu histórie a školského dejepisu. Acta Historica Posoniensia V) (Bratislava, 2004).

kulta) or ‘*Teaching history in the 21st century*’ (University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta) or ‘*Protection of memorials and cultural heritage*’ (University Komenského Pedagogická fakulta) etc. These courses, judged according to their not very detailed description, in our understanding do not necessarily correspond with the current history didactical approach. Alike, ICT based courses (e.g. ‘*IT as teaching tool in history teaching*’ (Prešovská Univerzita Filozofická fakulta)) belong to methodology of history teaching, too.

Considering the range of optional seminars, facultative or specialised courses offered by the history departments in our survey, it is minimally debatable and it is sometimes not easy to make a fair judgement whether these courses are indeed part of the history didactics courses or they rather belong to the methodology of history teaching. In any case, these optional seminars are usually part of the undergraduates’ Master’s courses.

For a balanced judgement on the position and quality of the history didactics, we have to point out to at least one more important fact. Beside their history teacher programmes, nearly all history departments in Slovakia (with the exception of the University J. Selye Pedagogická fakulta) offer pure scientific history courses too, i.e. courses with no focus on teaching history as school subject.¹⁰ One of the reasons doing so is that the labour market for history teachers is much bigger than the one for research based academic historians. It is important to point out this because this fact has an impact on the quality of pre-service history teacher programmes, since it means that in a country like Slovakia where state universities are by large financed according to the number of their enrolled students, only some universities can afford *not* to open courses for history teachers. In other words, some history departments run pre-service teacher training courses *only* due out of financial necessity.

8. If the position of the Slovakian history didactics is as fragile as described above, what does its position depend on?

As we have seen above, the number of history didactics lessons is rather high at the most Slovakian history departments. In fact, some 52 contact lessons in all¹¹ is quite an amazing period of time in a country where the number of contact lessons at universities is legally limited to some 40 lessons per week. And yet, it is a paradox that on the other hand the real content of these ‘didactics’ courses does not really correspond with the most up-to-date trends and approaches of the international history didactics.

We have to mention that the range and content of the history didactics courses to a great extent depend on the professional orientation and specialisation of individ-

¹⁰ In Slovak, Učiteľstvo akademických predmetov versus História jednodborové štúdium.

¹¹ At most departments there are 2+1 history didactics lessons per week, so there are 3 lessons throughout a 13-week-long semester, and in most cases departments have history didactics in 2 semesters. $(3 \times 13) \times 2 = 52$ contact lessons.

ual historians teaching history didactics¹². It is the personal composition of the teacher staff, and certainly their networks especially as far as their cooperation in international projects is concerned. Here a sad fact of painfully missing or minimally very limited language skills has to be mentioned. Thirdly, the foreign relations of the history didactics university staff is on a quite low level, e.g. if we consider their joint projects with leading scientific centres like the *International Society for History Didactics*, or the *Georg Eckert Institute* in Braunschweig, or the *Euroclio*, the largest and most influential international history teacher federation. The un-established position of history didactics in Slovakia (comparable to the one in the Czech Republic¹³) is even more transparent if we cast a glance at those components that are indirectly linked with the pre-service teacher training. If we look at the list of the themes that are offered to undergraduates to write a thesis on, or if we look at the list of books written on this topic, or if we try to find at least some publications in the periodicals of the faculties – in all these cases we can sadly just conclude the remarkable lack of history didactical themes. The same is true for the state-sponsored scientific projects (called in Slovakia VEGA, KEGA) where in the last five years we could scarcely find any successful project aimed at either general or particular development of history didactics.¹⁴

10. Conclusions

We can conclude that all history departments in Slovakia do run study programmes on theoretical and practical knowledge and skills on pre-service history teaching. We can also conclude that either explicitly or overtly, ‘history didactics’ is present in the study programmes of the half of the Slovakian history departments. Nevertheless, it can be stated that even if Slovakian history departments use the explicit course title ‘*history didactics*’, it is often clear from the more detailed description that it is history didactics only in wording but not in content. Most course contents correspond more with methodology of history teaching rather than with genuine history didactical approach. Under scrutiny it is obvious that some half of the courses in our research are genuine history didactics, and that as far as the real content of the eight history didactics courses at the mentioned eight universities is concerned, most of them are in fact methodology of history teaching, or at minimum are closer to methodology rather than to history didactics.

When doing a deeper analysis into the causes of such a not too favourable situation, we can conclude that one of the most obvious reasons is the tension between the established historiography as a renowned science and history didactics as

¹² Kratochvíl, “History Teaching in the Slovak Republic” (note 1), 199.

¹³ See Denisa Labischová, “Czech history in historical consciousness of students and history teachers – Empirical research”, *Yearbook of International Society for History Didactics* 33 (2012): 165-189.

¹⁴ We found only one public lecture specifically on history didactics, at the University Mateja Bela Fakultu humanitných vied dated to year 2006 by Prof. Dr. Hab. Adam Suchonski. <http://www2.fhv.umb.sk/Katedry/Katedra%20historie/>.

a university discipline which is regarded by most professional historians as an inferior field mostly because of its pedagogical content. The level of the low acceptance of school history teaching methodology as well as history didactics by professional historians is evident for example from the latter's relation to the design and production of history schoolbooks. Despite the fact that historiography gets transformed into a subject matter by means of schoolbooks, many historians show a kind of disrespect and a constant inclination to assess them as a lower genre of historical literature, or a text which is not part of a serious scientific discipline. Beside other factors, this sceptical view stems from the conceptual framework of Slovak historiography, more specifically from a narrow understanding of historiography.

What gives us some hope regarding the future of history didactics in Slovakia is that it is rather clear now what should be done. For example, Viliam Kratochvíl has recently worked out the 'metaphor of a tree' which is a very clear and practical indication how modern history didactics should be taught at the Slovakian universities.¹⁵

¹⁵ Viliam Kratochvíl, Podnety na rozvíjanie kľúčových kompetencií učiteľov dejepisu – metafora stromu, ako nazerať na veci (Acta Universitatis Carolinae – Historia Universitatis Carolinae, vol. LII (Pragensis, 2012), 285-294.

The Teaching of History in Spain Imbalances between History and History Didactics in the Training of History Teachers

Maria Sánchez Agusti

1. Current Debate regarding the Teaching of History

In Spain, we usually refer to 1857, and the introduction of the Public Instruction Law by liberal minister Claudio Moyano, as the starting point for Education in its modern sense. In this law, history is considered as a fundamental tool in the education of people, and since then, its presence in successive the education Laws of the 20th and 21st centuries has not been subject to dispute.

Even though the presence of history in the curriculum has not been questioned, its function, internal structure and relationship with other areas of the curriculum, certainly have been. In recent decades, no other subject in the curriculum has caused such controversy and discussion as history. Debate around the subject has transcended the sphere of the merely educational and entered into the social and political, due to history teaching is currently moving from a position of disaffection among the people (and of the educational authorities) towards the status of a scholarly discipline considered more apparently than genuinely useful, and a passion for the explanation (or control) of our national past that is susceptible to diverse and conflicting interpretation. In a country socially inclined to adopt Manichaeian positions, this situation, albeit paradoxical, is not surprising.

We might arrange these areas of debate into three: a) the political, b) the pedagogical and c) the professional.

a) In a large country with such broad cultural diversity in its regions (some with levels of political autonomy close to those of the state itself), centrifugal and centripetal factors have always made the interpretation of Spanish history and its teaching rather difficult. One of the moments of greatest confrontation, known as “The Humanities Debate”, began in 1996, when the conservative political party, the Partido Popular (PP) came to power. The Ministry of Education responded to criticism that had arisen with regard to the transfer of educational responsibility to regional governments, and the consequent diversity of interpretation of the history of Spain presented in school text books. For this reason the Ministry attempted to correct the “destruction of our common past” through a reform of the history content in the State curriculum. This immediately gave rise to considerable criticism in the media. The discussion of the law led to bitter debates in Parliament, where Basque and Catalan Nationalist politicians were virulently opposed to the new law and accused the conservative government of

attempting to impose only one vision of History. Finally, the planned law was withdrawn and the reform of the curriculum was postponed. Curiously, the controversy lies between poles that defended the same thing, the use of history to strengthen concepts of identity, but differed with regard to the territorial extension where they might be applied.¹

- b) In 1970, the new General Law of Education, following the recommendations of UNESCO, and based on the North American Social Studies model, replaced the traditional history subjects in Basic Education (6-14) with Social Sciences, wherein this content was combined with Geography. Over the years, the controversy concerning the appropriateness of teaching, in compulsory education, this disciplinary or interdisciplinary social content, is reflected in the teaching debate.² For those in favour of integrated teaching, disciplinary specialisation constitutes a restriction that makes the inclusion of important problems into the curriculum difficult. For those who support interdisciplinarity, the integration of content dissolves the frames of epistemological reference, leading to the selection of decontextualised or juxtaposed content, which is seen as particularly damaging to the learning of history.
- c) The professionalisation of teachers has also been subject to the adoption of Manichaean positions, between those who believe that to teach well it is enough to know the subject in depth, and those who consider proper educational training more important. Such that, in the case of primary teachers, the balance is excessively inclined towards pedagogical sciences, putting aside any necessary training in the sciences (among them, history) that they have to teach. This process has been described, quite accurately, as a switch from “History with education” to “Education with a little history”.³ On the contrary, in secondary teacher training, the dominance of content was such that, until the adaptation of University qualifications to the Bologna process in 2009, pedagogical training was deficient, not to say, non-existent. Since 1970 professional teacher training has been undertaken via the postgraduate programme (CAP), of three hundred hours duration according to official regulation, but which is considerably shorter in real University terms. The various attempts to substitute the much deteriorated Teaching Aptitude Certificate (CAP), by other more rigorous and efficient systems such as the Educational Teaching Course (CCP, 1990) or the Teaching Specialisation Diploma (TED, 2002), failed completely.⁴ Today, hopes for achieving an improvement in teacher training are centred on the new Master

¹ Joaquim Prats, “La enseñanza de la historia y el debate de las humanidades” *Tarbiya. Revista de investigación e innovación educativa* 21 (mayo 1999): 57-75.

² Joan Pagès, “¿Hacia dónde va la enseñanza de la historia y de las ciencias sociales? Apuntes para la comprensión de un debate”, *Endoxa: Series Filosóficas* 14 (2001): 261-288, here 276.

³ Raimundo Cuesta, *Clío en las aulas. La enseñanza de la Historia en España entre reformas, ilusiones y ruinas* (Madrid: Akal 1998), 79.

⁴ Isidoro González Gallego, “Del CAP al Máster sin pasar por el CCP”, *Iber. Didáctica de las ciencias sociales, geografía e historia* 61 (2009): 24-48.

Degree in Secondary School Education, psychological and pedagogical in nature, which will be considered in more detail below.

2. The Position of History in Primary Education and in Teacher Training

In Spain today, general non-university teaching is organised into three broad stages: infant (3-6); primary (6-12); and secondary education, divided into compulsory education (12-16) and post-compulsory or the baccalaureate (16-18).

The subject in Primary Education known as “Knowledge of the natural, social and cultural environment”, where social and natural aspects are combined, is responsible for initiating Spanish children in a progressive comprehension of history, starting from the familiar sources (6-8), then going on to introduce them to events and ways of life in the past via biographies, and sources existing in the scenes and topics of daily life (8-10). In the final years of the stage (10-12), the contents are organised chronologically in accordance with historical periods, with particular emphasis on history of Spain.⁵

This sequence, which is methodologically irreproachable, is restricted by the fact that its history content barely represents the seventh part of the timetable for the subject. The limited presence of history, along with its “dissolution” in areas of the supposed methodological benefit of interdisciplinarity, makes it difficult for Spanish children to be aware of the existence of any view of the reality of the past, which we call history.⁶ This discouraging prospect is growing, as we shall see below, with the absence of any basic history training in the study plans of primary teachers, despite having been lengthened a year in duration, in order to conform to the university structure of the Bologna process.

In effect, nowadays, to teach classes in Spain to children aged six to twelve, the “Primary Education Certificate” (BA) is an essential requirement. As it is a “regulated profession”, the Ministry of Education has established the subjects in all Spanish universities,⁷ with the Education Schools and Faculties being responsible for their organisation.

The study plan has a clearly psychological or educational profile and does not take into account any obligatory history content. Moreover, the history didactic content is integrated into the area called *Teaching and Learning of Social Sciences*, whose specific competencies, in accordance with the ministerial instruction that organises the qualification, are:

⁵ ROYAL DECREE 1513/2006, December 7th. (<http://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2006/12/08/pdfs/A43053-43102.pdf>).

⁶ Cristofol Trepas, “¿Integración o disolución?. La Historia en la Educación Primaria”, *Aula Historia Social* 22 (2011): 1-14.

⁷ ORDER ECI/3857/2007, December 27th (<http://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2007/12/29/pdfs/A53747-53750.pdf>).

- Understanding the basic principles of Social Sciences.
- Knowledge of the Social Sciences curriculum.
- Integration of History and Geography in their instructive and cultural context.
- Promotion of democratic education of citizens and the practice of social critical thought.
- Evaluation of the importance of private and public institutions towards the peaceful coexistence of communities.
- Knowledge of religion throughout history and its cultural relevance.
- Development and evaluation of curriculum content using appropriate methodological resources and the promotion of correspondent responsibility of the students

In order to attain these responsibilities, the area is structured into two subjects, found in the second and third years, although the assignment of credits, and the content and name of the qualification may vary from university to university. For example, in the University of Valladolid⁸ students in the second year tackle pedagogical theory regarding the difficulties of teaching and learning Historical Time and Geographical Space, such that in the third year, the students acquire the practical skills to develop programmes via activities and resources. Sometimes, as occurs in the study plan of the Autonomous University of Barcelona,⁹ students work on the development of the curriculum together with the content of Experimental Science, given that the school subject combines Natural and Social Science. In other cases, as with the University of Jaén,¹⁰ they opt to work separately the History didactics and the Geography didactics (Table 1). In all cases, the university teacher who is teaching belongs to the university area of Didactics of Social Sciences, which is made up of graduates in History (or Geography), who are specialised in the educational use of this knowledge.

However, whatever is the ordering of “Teaching and Learning of Social Sciences” area, it is not accompanied by any specific compulsory history subjects. Nevertheless, some universities such as the Complutense of Madrid,¹¹ offer history subjects among their optional courses, with the objective of reducing this deficiency in future primary teachers.

⁸ <http://grado.uva.es/grado-en-educacion-primaria-valladolid>.

⁹ <http://www.uab.es/servlet/Satellite/estudiar/llicitat-de-graus-1216620162672.html>

¹⁰ <http://grados.ujaen.es/node/40/competencias#asignaturas>

¹¹ *Historia de España y su didáctica* is an optional subject in Primary Education Degree of UCM. (<http://www.ucm.es/?a=estudios&d=muestragrado3&idgr=25>).

SUBJECTS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AREA			
Year	Autonomous University of Barcelona (UAB)	University of Jaén (UCM)	University of Valladolid (UVA)
2 ^o	Teaching and Learning Knowledge of the Natural, Social and Cultural	Didactics of the Social Sciences: Geographic Space and its educational use (6 ECTS)	Didactics of the Social Sciences (6 ECTS)
3 ^o	Didactics of the Social Sciences	Didactics of the Social Sciences II: Historical Education and Citizenship (6 ECTS)	Curriculum development of Social Sciences (6 ECTS)

Table 1: Degree in Primary Education. Examples of subject organisation in Teaching and Learning of Social Sciences

3. The Position of History in Secondary Education and in the Training of History Teachers

In compulsory secondary education (12-16) there is no specific history subject either. This content is integrated into “Social Sciences, Geography and History”, whose interdisciplinarity is pure entelechy, given that history and geography are not worked on together, but in a sequential manner. Such that in the first year, following study of the various natural environments, students begin learning about Prehistory and Ancient History; moving on in the second year, following the study of population and demographic behaviour, to the Middle Ages and Modern Period; the third year is dedicated entirely to geography, leaving the fourth for the learning of history from the 18th century up to the present day.¹²

Students have to wait until post-compulsory Secondary or Baccalaureate education (16-18) before they find any specific history subject. All students in their second year, regardless of their chosen specialist subject,¹³ have to study the “History of Spain”, which extends from earliest times up to the present, although it places special emphasis on the contemporary period. Moreover, students of the speciality in “Humanities and Social Sciences” have to take “History of the Modern World” in the first year of the Baccalaureate.

Since 2009, with the application of the harmonisation process in higher studies defined under Bologna, teachers of these subjects have to follow a consecutive training process (BA+MA), comprised of a four year degree in History (or in Geography, or in History of Art, or in History and Geography) and, afterwards, a Master’s

¹² ROYAL DECREE 1631/2006, December 29th (<http://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2007/01/05/pdfs/A00677-00773.pdf>).

¹³ The Spanish Baccalaureate has three specialties: Science and Technology; Humanities and Social Sciences; and Arts. The curriculum establishes the subjects which are common to all and others which are specific to each specialty. ROYAL DECREE 1467/2007, November 2th (<http://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2007/11/06/pdfs/A45381-45477.pdf>14ORDERECI/3857/2007).

68 in Teaching Compulsory and Baccalaureate Education, with the “Geography and History” specialisation. Universities, aside from some general directives of the Ministry of Education,¹⁴ have a free hand in the design of the study programmes for these degrees. However, the Master’s Degree in Secondary Education, the essential requirement to become a teacher, is controlled by the Ministry of Education throughout the State.¹⁵

3.1 *History and its Didactics in the study programmes for the History Degree*

Until the 1970s, university History studies were integrated into degrees of “Philosophy and Humanities”, which comprised two years of common subjects (Latin, Greek, Literature, Geography, History ...), and a further three years of specialised material in each area of knowledge (History, Geography, Philology, Philosophy ...). From this period, this qualification was diversified into specialised studies, leading to a degree independent of History, which was taught in almost all Spanish universities. This transformation, accompanied by the progressive rise in financing and the massive increase in student numbers into university classrooms, brought about undeniable benefits for specialised scientific research. From an educational perspective, the improvement in academic training of History teachers was also seen as highly beneficial, in the then Post-compulsory Education system (BUP 15-18).

However, in 1990, when the new education law (LOGSE)¹⁶ came into effect, History teachers in Post-compulsory education also took on the teaching of the Social Sciences content in the new compulsory secondary education system. This caused a serious imbalance between the interdisciplinary knowledge of the curriculum 12-16 and the training experience of specialised History teachers. This distancing of university qualifications from the main application area of their knowledge, in secondary teaching, started more than twenty years before, and continues today, with nothing having been done about it in the various subsequent reforms to the curriculum, or in teachers’ university training.

In effect, with the adaptation of degrees of the Bologna process,¹⁷ the majority of Spanish universities have chosen to maintain different degrees in History (and Geography). Those universities, like the University of Jaén, which offers a “Degree in Geography and History”, might be counted on the fingers of one hand, where their

¹⁴ ORDER ECI/3857/2007, December 27th (<https://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2007/10/30/pdfs/A44037-44048.pdf>).

¹⁵ ORDER ECI/3858/2007, December 7th (<http://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2007/12/29/pdfs/A53751-53753.pdf>).

¹⁶ The General Organic Law of the Education System (LOGSE) extended compulsory education by two years, modifying its structure. The General Basic Education (6-14) was divided into Primary Education (6-12) and Compulsory Secondary Education (12-16). The teaching in the first (EPO) continued to be the responsibility of teachers, whereas the second (ESO) was left to the teachers in the Post-compulsory system.

¹⁷ Under the Bologna process five year degrees have been converted into four year degrees.

evident intention is to forge a better link between their degree content and the main employment opportunity for History students: namely teaching.

Below we will show, as an example, the study plans of the “History Degree” of the Autonomous University of Barcelona¹⁸ and that of the University of Valladolid,¹⁹ as well as the study plan of the “Geography and History Degree” of the University of Jaén²⁰ (Table 2). As would be expected, the fundamental difference is that in the first two plans the subjects are primarily History, whereas in the third, Geography and History share the assignment of credits equally.

HISTORY DEGREE			
Year	Autonomous University of Barcelona (UAB)	University of Jaén (UJA)	University of Valladolid (UVA)
First year 60 ECTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written Expression • Geographical Visions of the World • Main Themes of Philosophy • Introduction to Social and Cultural Anthropology • Reading the Artistic Image • Introduction to Pre-history • Introduction to Ancient History • Introduction to Medieval History • The Foundations of the Modern World • The Foundations of the Contemporary World 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geography • History • Art History • Social Anthropology • Philosophy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction to History • Art through history • Principles of Geography • Literature and History • Social and Cultural Anthropology • Historical Geopolitics of Europe • Heritage Art: Concept and Management • Geographical Spaces and Societies I • History of Political Thought • Information Resources for Historians
Second year 60 ECTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prehistoric Societies • Social and Economic History of the Ancient World • The Formation of Europe (5th-11th c.) • The Gothic Period (7th-15th c.) • The Reformation Period • Palaeography 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical Geography I • Physical Geography II • Human Geography I • Human Geography II • Regional and World Geography • Prehistory • Ancient History I • Medieval History I • Ancient History II 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prehistory I • Archaeology I • Ancient History I • Medieval History I • Palaeography and Diplomatic I • History of Religions • Prehistory II • Archaeology II • Ancient History II

¹⁸ <http://www.uab.es/servlet/Satellite/studying/1st-cycle-2nd-cycle-courses/syllabus/history-ehea-degree1096476781663.html?param1=1229587005709¶m10=3>

¹⁹ <http://grado.uva.es/grado-en-historia>

²⁰ <http://grados.ujaen.es/node/32/presentacion>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Methods and Techniques of Historical Research • Contemporary Universal History I: The Liberalism Period • Contemporary History of Spain I: The Period of the Liberal Revolution • Contemporary History of Catalonia I: Catalanism and the Republican Generalitat 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Medieval History II 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Medieval History II
Third year 60 ECTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Baroque Period • The Enlightenment • Conquest and Colonisation of America (16th-18th c.) • Contemporary History of America • Current Historiographical Trends • Contemporary Universal History II: The Imperialism Period • Contemporary Universal History III: The Blocs Period • Contemporary History of Spain II: from Monarchy to Republic • Contemporary History of Spain III: Franco and Democracy • Contemporary History of Catalonia II: Franco and the Recovery of Autonomy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geography of Europe • Modern History I • Modern History II • Contemporary History I • Contemporary History II • Prehistory and Ancient History in the Iberian Peninsula • Medieval and Modern History of Spain • Elective1 • Elective2 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Palaeography and Diplomatic II • Modern History I • Historiographical Trends • History of America I • Modern History II • Contemporary History I • Elective • Elective • Elective • Elective
Fourth year 60 ECTS	<p>Optional modules:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minor in History and Gender • Minor in History of Catalonia • Minor in History of War • Minor in Modern History • Minor in Contemporary History • Minor in Social and Cultural History of the Modern and Contemporary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geography of Spain • Regional Geography of Spain • History of the Modern World • Contemporary History of Spain • Geography and History Workshop I • Geography and History Workshop II • Elective 3 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • History of America II • Contemporary History II • History of the Modern World • Elective • Elective • Elective • Elective • Internship • Final Paper

	Periods • Minor in Ancient History • Minor in Medieval History • Minor in Bibliographical and Documental Heritage	• Elective 4 • Final Paper	
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Table 2: Study Programmes of the History Degree of the Autonomous University of Barcelona, the Universities of Jaén and Valladolid

However, whichever option is chosen, whether History, or History and Geography together, what is most notable is that in none of the three training plans (nor in the rest of Spanish universities), the didactic subjects are integrated, neither in compulsory nor in optional subjects.

And, what is more, in the “Philosophy and Humanities” and “Geography and History” faculties, where these degrees are studied for, there is a complete absence of educational perspective or any acceptance that professionalism in the communication of knowledge is one of the distinct specialities proper to any qualification, and that this is one of the various professional opportunities, among others, which may be available to students of any degree. Or, in the best of cases, the educational perspective which does exist is that of *expert knowledge*, what is, to teach History, all one need to know is a lot of history.²¹

3.2 *History and History Didactics in the study programmes of the Master’s Degree in Secondary School Teaching*

As we have already observed, since 2009, educational staff is obtained via the Master’s Degree in Secondary School Teaching, speciality in Geography and History, which is of one year’s duration (60ECTS). The objective is that, once a solid foundation in History has been obtained through the four-year degree courses, future teachers will acquire the pedagogical skills necessary to teach History to adolescents. These competencies are defined by a State ministerial order²² and are organised into two broad modules (Table 3), one general in character (12 ECTS) divided into three subjects, whose contents are linked to Psychology, Pedagogy and Sociology of Education; and another specialising in the teaching of History and Geography (24 ECTS), which is also organised into three subjects: Teaching and Learning of Geography and History, Innovation and Initiation in Educational Research in History and Geography and Disciplinary Complements in History and Geography. To these is added a period of practicals in schools and a final project

²¹ Isioro González Gallego, “El Máster de Profesorado de Secundaria. Concepto, normativa y propuesta para geografía e historia” in *El nuevo profesor de secundaria. La formación inicial docente en el marco del Espacio Europeo de Educación Superior*. ed. Isidoro González Gallego (Barcelona: Graó 2010), 27-77.

²² ORDER ECI/3858/2007, December 27th (<http://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2007/12/29/pdfs/A53751-53753.pdf>)

(16 ECTS). The remaining 8 ECTS are the free choice of universities via their optional subjects.

Subjects	Basic Skills
General Section	
Personality Learning and Developing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To know social context, motivation and students' characteristics. • To understand how their personalities develop and to identify some dysfunctions that might affect their learning process. • To create work proposals based upon their own learning achievements, skills and intellectual and emotional aptitudes. • To identify, plan and resolve those situations in an education world affecting students with different abilities and learning speeds.
Process and education context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To understand the interaction process, related to school and classroom communications. • To identify and resolve future troubles. • To know the history and development of our educational system. • To know and apply facilities information, and professional counseling strategies. • Stimulate emotional and social education. • To participate in the school education program and general activities based upon quality improvement, attention to diversity, learning skills and fellowship challenges
Education, family and Society	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To link education and society, to understand family and the role of education in society; acquired learning skills and abilities; the role of education in personal rights, freedom and opportunities. Understanding equal treatment, and not discriminating against people with disabilities. • To understand the differences in the historical development of the family; the differences and these influences in a child's education. • To acquire social skills in order to counsel and build relationships
Specific Section	
Additional Training in Geography, History and Art History	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To understand the cultural background of these special subjects and how to apply and teach them for three different degrees. • To understand the history and recent developments in order to communicate a compelling and dynamic point of view. • To know the different contexts and situations in which various curricular elements are utilized
Learning and Teaching Specifics Subjects in Geography, History and Art History	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To know the theory and practical application for effecting teaching/learning in the classroom. • To adapt the curriculum to an active and dynamic program. • To prepare grading criteria and develop instruction material. • To promote a work environment that helps learning and encourages students to develop strong values and creative ideas. • To integrate media studies into the learning process. • To learn assessment strategies and techniques, and to understand the evaluation process as an instrument of control which can encourage

	learning.
Innovative Teaching and Introductory Course to Research in Education in Geography, History and Art History	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To know and apply innovative teaching techniques in the learned specialty field. • To assess the teaching performance, best practices and orientation using quality indicators. • To identify relative teaching difficulties and learning problems in specific subjects, and focus on creative alternatives in finding solutions. • To research, develop and apply technical and teaching processes in order to bring innovation to various projects and evaluation processes
Practical and Final Paper	
Practical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To acquire experience in planning, teaching and evaluating the learning process in each specific subject. • To provide the best oral and written teaching skills. • To possess excellent social skills in order to create an environment that encourages learning and fellowship. • To collaborate on proposals and improve the different fields of action based on this practice period.
Final Paper	These basic skills, with the rest of the skills acquired during the Master's programme, must be reflected on the Final Paper as a summary of the learning process

Table 3: Modules, subjects and competencies in the Master's Degree in Secondary Education Teacher training Compulsory and Baccalaureate, speciality in Geography and History

As we can see, the attainment of the responsibilities established in the specific module of history (and geography) Didactics through its three subjects, is related to the fundamental theory to the selection of content in History (and Geography) and the development of programmes appropriate to the context and level of the students, such as the use of innovative methodologies that favour a positive atmosphere in the classroom and a taste for history (and geography) in adolescents. It is clear that knowledge is different from history, because educational knowledge is constructed, in and from the practice by the relationship between its protagonists (teachers, pupils and historical contents).²³ There is space too for educational research, making students aware, for the sake of future teachers, of the need to identify problematic areas in the teaching of History and develop scientific ideas to solve them. Therefore, all the content is linked to the History Didactics and the university teachers concerned in its teaching generally belong to the area of Social Sciences Didactics, which has meant an extension of their field of work, previously

²³ Joan Pagès, "Enseñar a enseñar Historia: la formación didáctica de los futuros profesores de Historia", in *Miradas a la Historia*, ed. Encarna Nicolás Marín and José Antonio Gómez Hernández (Murica: Universidad de Murcia, 2004), 155-179, here 157.

limited to the training of Primary teachers.²⁴ In the Master's Degree there are no History subjects, although some universities, such as Valladolid,²⁵ take advantage of the optional courses to offer them, with the objective that graduates in Geography improve their training in History and vice versa.

It is beyond doubt that the Master's Degree supposes a substantial advance with regard to the previous postgraduate CAP course, and it is not merely quantitative, with regard to its longer duration. It is the first time, in Secondary History teacher training, that their professional responsibility is properly explained and that the educational content to achieve this is properly structured into a systematic study plan.

However, a single year is considered insufficient by students themselves as a period in which to elaborate an efficient practical educational framework for their teaching work. The number of hours (10 ECTS) dedicated to the period of *Practicum*, which we will consider further below, is also seen as insufficient, when it should really be the fundamental axis of the whole course, around which the entire training principal should be ordered and coordinated.

4. Practicals in History Teacher Training

In effect, one of the most important initial aspects of History teacher training is the *Practicum*, since it is the time when students have the opportunity of contact with the reality of school life and to put the skills acquired during the training process into practice. In the consecutive model (BA+MA) that comprises Secondary History teacher training, practicals are envisaged, as we have seen, as part of the Master's Degree.

In the ministerial order that regulates this Master throughout the Spanish State, the competencies that students must develop during these practicals are established (see Table 3). It is fundamental that the future History (and Geography) teacher acquire experience in the planning and development of class activity, and its evaluation, always creating an atmosphere of working together in the classroom that is motivating and interesting to adolescents in their approach to the knowledge and study of the History (and Geography) content.

Participation agreements between the Education Councils of regional governments and the Universities have created a framework that guarantees the participation of state and private school History teachers and, therefore, the provision of the necessary places for university students in their schools.

Each University prepares directives for the organisation of the period and the format of the *practicum*, in which there may be minor structural differences. Below

²⁴ Joaquim Prats and Rafael Valls, "La Didáctica de la Historia en España: estado reciente de la cuestión" *Didáctica de las ciencias experimentales y sociales* 25 (2011): 17-37.

²⁵ <http://master.uva.es/profesor-de-educacion-secundaria-obligatoria-y-bachillerato-formacion-profesional-y-enseñanzas-de-idomas>

we outline the scheme prepared by the University of Valladolid, in which we develop our teaching work, and which corresponds to one of the most usual models. Practicals in schools (10 ECTS) are organised in two phases: observation (4 ECTS) and participation (6 ECTS). In both phases, assessment of the student is undertaken through collaboration between the University teacher and the school's History teacher.

The first phase is carried out over a two-week period in January, after the students have completed their general educational subjects, with the objective that the future History teachers get to know the school and its situation, its educational orientation and the organisation and functioning of the History and Social Sciences department; assess the educational material available and learn from the work carried out by the teacher in the History and Social Sciences classrooms. Prior to going to the school the students have also attended preparatory seminars with the University tutor, who is in contact with the school teacher. The student, once this period is completed, must produce a report in which we analyses the organisation at the school and the Social Sciences department, the methodological resources and material available, the strategies undertaken by the teacher to favour the appropriate class environment, the methodological resources employed to encourage the learning of History and Social Sciences, as well as any attention to pupils with special educational needs and the evaluation procedure.

The participation phase takes place after students have completed the History and Social Sciences didactic subjects, with the object that the future teacher programmes and puts into practice those methodological aspects of the Social Sciences curriculum at one or several levels in Secondary teaching, always under the control and supervision of the school teacher and the orientation received from University tutor through their seminars.

Once this period is completed, students must present a report, which makes their programming proposal clear, along with the sequence of activities carried out, the resources employed, the method and evaluation instruments developed and, particularly, a critical appraisal, pointing out any strengths and weaknesses in their performance as History teachers. The evaluation of the degree of responsibilities achieved is carried out by the school teacher and the University tutor together.

5. Post-University Process of Teaching Staff Selection for State Schools

The Master's Degree in Secondary Education, specialising in History and Geography, is obtained once all the subjects that comprise it have been completed, as well as the practicals and the final Master's Degree project, thereby concluding the teaching process. The student is considered as prepared for teaching classes in Private and Private-Government Grant schools, equally in compulsory Secondary Education and Baccalaureate. Unlike in other European countries there is no post-university or *induction phase* in order to finally qualify as a History teacher.

Meanwhile, to work in State school teaching it is necessary to obtain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) via a series of selective tests or exams with History-Geography content and methodology, known as *Oposiciones* or State Examinations. These are held bi-annually in accordance with the availability of vacant places and are comprised of three phases: entrance, competition and practical²⁶.

The entrance phase is comprised of a single test with the objective of evaluating the candidates' knowledge in History-Geography, the second values methodological aspects, those necessary to the proper communication of the first. The first phase consists of answering a series of questions on History-Geography of a practical nature, such as a written essay on a given History, Geography or History of Art topic, chosen by lottery by the committee from a previously established subject list. In the second phase, the candidates have to present one of their lesson plans (chosen from three selected by lottery) from their programme for teaching a Secondary Education History or Geography subject and expound it by *viva voce* to a committee, explaining their methodology, and the structure and typology of the proposed activities.

The competition phase is designed to assess the academic, teaching and research merit of *candidates* that have passed the first phase.

The practical phase lasts between 3 and 9 months. It begins, once the two previous phases have been passed, with the provisional title of teacher being given and the assignation of a school, under the supervision of an experienced teacher. The objective is to assess the real capability of the new teacher. In reality it is rare to find anyone who has not passed this period, such that this phase is generally considered merely administrative rather than an actual evaluation of teaching ability.

6. Conclusions

Over the last few decades, there has been much debate about history and the teaching of it. The particular intensity of political controversy regarding content in Spanish History requires a revision of the objectives of History teaching in schools, distancing it from concepts of the promotion of identity, whether in the national or nationalistic sphere. The objectives of History teaching should move towards the promotion of reflection and a critical spirit with regard to the past, based on History from a diversity of perspectives, and avoiding any radical or dogmatic interpretation.

This diverse and educational vision of History should be present from the earliest level of schooling, but the scarce attention that any History content receives in environmental knowledge subjects, is clearly not the best way to achieve this. In parallel, History training in Primary school History teacher training is entirely deficient at the present time, and should be part of the basis of subjects in the study plan in Primary Education. The adaptation of these degrees in the Bologna process,

²⁶ This process is regulated by the *Royal Decree 276/2007, of 23 of February*, and other decrees of the seventeen Autonomous Communities having responsibilities in this area.

and the one year increase in the training period, have not been seen to improve History training, neither in quantity nor quality. We are not campaigning for encyclopaedic teacher training, contained in one or two History subjects within the degree, but for genuine training in the methods and techniques of History, the real motors of interpretative and critical thought about the past, that allow the establishment of the necessary links between the tools of the historian and procedure in the schoolroom. It is obvious that the teaching of the educational theory and methodology of History cannot be disconnected from training in the actual science which is taught.

On the other hand, although it is too soon to evaluate the results, there is no doubt that the introduction of the Master's Degree in Secondary Education Teacher Training has corrected one of the most apparent reprehensible aspects in Spanish Education: the lack of methodological training of teachers in the second stage of compulsory education. However, the imbalance in the Social Sciences interdisciplinary curriculum of specialised material in academic training in the different degrees (History, Geography or History of Art) continues to be a disadvantage that affects the efficiency of the teaching function. In this sense we need to consider whether the consecutive model (BA+MA) is the best alignment for training History teachers in the difficult stage of compulsory Secondary Education. The absence of methodological training, and of any reference to the world of education in the History degree, favour the absence of any educational perspective in students undertaking these studies. Medicine, Architecture or Primary Education students, by way of example, are aware of their prospective professional areas, from the first year, but this does not occur among History degree students, despite the fact that teaching is their main prospective work opportunity. It is in reality a gigantic task to attempt to develop all the emotional and scientific structure that sustains the teaching history to adolescents in the complex and multi-cultural compulsory education, in the single year of the Master's Degree course.²⁷

²⁷ All websites quoted in this article were last accessed on: August 20th, 2013.

Development of History Teacher Education in Slovenia

Danijela Trškan

1. The Role of History at University

The importance of the study of history at the first Slovene university is attested by the fact that when the University of Ljubljana began its operation in 1919 it had five faculties, one of which was the Faculty of Arts, which included the study of history.¹

As regards the period after 1945 (in Yugoslavia), students at the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana from 1945 onwards studied history as a dual-subject or a single-subject study. Graduates most often became employed at archives, museums, civil services and secondary schools. The Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana devoted more attention to the dual-subject study in the 1960s mainly in order to increase the employment chances of the graduates at elementary and secondary schools. It also began incorporating pedagogical subjects into the study programme. One characteristic was that in the case of A and of B history study programmes the study was identical in the first two years (first level: two years), as the A study programme was a four-year one (second level: two additional years).²

At the Faculty of Arts in the 1970s students could choose different combinations of dual-subject studies. They could study history as an A study programme in connection with sociology, history of art or geography; or as a B study programme in connection with philosophy, pedagogy, psychology, history of art, ethnology, geography, world literature or musicology. Other combinations were possible only on the basis of approved individual applications of students.³ Different combinations of two programmes enabled future teachers to become better employed in secondary schools, with the exception of the history-geography combination, which was in Slovenia suitable especially for teaching in elementary schools. With the introduction of the Career-oriented Education Act⁴ after 1985 a four-year study was introduced for both the A and B study programmes.⁵

¹ The 1919/20 study year contained lectures on 13 subjects: mathematics, slavistics, classical philology, Germanic studies, comparative linguistics, pedagogy, philosophy, history of art, mineralogy, botany, zoology, chemistry and history. *Enciklopedija Slovenije*, Vol. 3 (Ljubljana: MK, 1989), 115.

² Fran Zwitter, "Oddelek za zgodovino na Filozofski fakulteti Univerze v Ljubljani," *Zgodovinski časopis* 1-2 (1973): 138-140.

³ *Učni program za študij zgodovine na Filozofski fakulteti v Ljubljani* (Ljubljana: PZE za zgodovino Filozofske fakultete, 1978), 1.

⁴ Career-oriented Education Act: *Uradni list SRS*, 11/80, 6/83, 25/89, 35/89.

⁵ *Poročilo o delu Filozofske fakultete Univerze Edvarda Kardelja v Ljubljani v študijskem letu 1988/89* (Ljubljana: Filozofska fakulteta, 1989), 136.

After Slovenia attained independence the study of history from 1991/92 onwards was possible as a single-subject (non-pedagogical orientation) or dual-subject study (pedagogical or non-pedagogical orientation). Students – future history teachers – could combine the study of history with any other pedagogical programme at the Faculty of Arts. E.g. prior to the introduction of Bologna study programmes, students could choose the following programmes: philosophy, sociology, history of art, geography, pedagogy, Slovene language and literature, French language and literature, Spanish language and literature, English language and literature, Latin language and literature, Greek language and literature, Russian language and literature; Croatian, Serbian and Macedonian languages and literatures. The pedagogical study of history could be combined with non-pedagogical study programmes (e.g. musicology, library science, Japanology, Sinology etc.).⁶ Different combinations of dual-subject study programmes enabled graduates to become employed in institutions in the field of the humanities, social sciences, culture, journalism, public relations, tourism, publishing, translation, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, in elementary and secondary schools and other pedagogical institutions.

A similar development also took place at the second largest Slovene university, the University of Maribor, namely at the Faculty of Education (later renamed Faculty of Arts), where students can study history as a dual-subject or single-subject study. Today students can study history at two other Slovene universities (the University of Nova Gorica and University of Primorska), which shows the great role of history at universities in the Republic of Slovenia.

2. The Importance of History at Schools

After 1945 history was continuously present as a compulsory subject in elementary schools and general secondary schools. Greater changes occurred in vocational secondary schools, as the independent subject of history was cancelled and incorporated into other subjects (e.g. social sciences). The number of lessons per year decreased substantially particularly in technical secondary schools (from 210 lessons to 103 lessons per year).⁷ To this day the subject of history has kept the status of an important compulsory subject only in general secondary schools and elementary schools in the Republic of Slovenia.

Immediately after 1945 two institutions were responsible for educating and training future history teachers: Faculty of Arts and the Teacher Training College (afterwards the Academy of Education) in Ljubljana. If from 1945 to 1960 the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana trained its students mostly for teaching in secondary

⁶ *Seznam predavanj za študijsko leto 1999/2000* (Ljubljana: Filozofska fakulteta Univerze v Ljubljani, 1989).

⁷ An overview of the number of history lessons per week from 1945 onwards is published in: Danijela Trškan, *Krajevna zgodovina v učnih načrtih in učbenikih za zgodovino 1945-2005*. (Ljubljana: Znanstvenoraziskovalni inštitut Filozofske fakultete, 2008), 229-238.

schools, then after 1960 it began devoting more attention to training future history teachers for elementary schools as well, precisely with the introduction of a dual-subject study. Below is a detailed presentation of the history study programme at the Faculty of Arts of the University of Ljubljana after 1945. Faculties that also educate future history teachers for elementary and secondary schools today are the Faculty of Arts of the University of Maribor and the Faculty of Humanities Koper of the University of Primorska.

Types of schools	Name of subject	Total number of lessons
<i>Elementary schools</i>	<i>History</i>	<i>239</i>
<i>General secondary schools</i>	<i>History</i>	<i>280</i>
<i>Classical secondary schools</i>	<i>History</i>	<i>350</i>
<i>Professional secondary schools</i>	<i>History</i>	<i>210</i>
<i>Technical secondary schools</i>	<i>History</i>	<i>103</i>
<i>Vocational secondary schools</i>	<i>Social Sciences</i>	<i>132</i>
<i>Short-term vocational schools</i>	<i>Social and Natural Sciences</i>	<i>248</i>

Table 1: Number of history lessons in elementary and secondary schools 2011/12

3. History Programme (Pedagogical Orientation) at the Faculty of Arts

After 1945 the history study programme at the Faculty of Arts mostly included historical subjects and trained future secondary school history teachers. E.g. in the 1950s students took general history (world and European history) of antiquity, of the Middle Ages and modern times, history of the nations of Yugoslavia, Slovene (national) history and other subjects (introduction to the study of history, archaeology, historical auxiliary sciences etc.). There was already one pedagogical subject in the syllabus called Pedagogy and Methodology.⁸ From 1953 onwards there was also the subject Methodology of History Teaching.⁹

When study in levels (first and second level) and when a dual-subject study were introduced at the Faculty of Arts in the 1960s, students of the first level took a review of general history and history of the nations of Yugoslavia by periods, namely for antiquity, Middle Ages, modern times and from World War I onwards. In the second level they carried on an in-depth study and individual work. The contents were: issues of general history by periods and issues of Slovene history and of the history of other nations of Yugoslavia. A peculiarity was also the compulsory field practice, which was carried out in the first two years and included visits

⁸ *Seznam predavanj za zimski semester 1950-51* (Ljubljana: Univerza, 1950), 35.

⁹ *Seznam predavanj za študijsko leto 1953-54* (Ljubljana: Univerza, 1953), 22.

to historical monuments and institutions. Students prepared brief reports and guided the tour of individual sites. This field practice prepared them for their future teacher's work.¹⁰ The subject Methodology of History Teaching was implemented as Methodology of History Teaching I in the first level and as Methodology of History Teaching II in the second level. All students had to pass examinations in general pedagogical subjects: psychology of instruction and teaching, and introduction to pedagogy, didactics and andragogy,¹¹ which means that the Faculty of Arts provided suitable theoretical training of future teachers in all its dual-subject study programmes.

In the 1980s the contents of the history study programme were changed to contain four different topics, namely general history from antiquity to 1918, Slovene history from antiquity to 1918, history of Yugoslav nations until 1918 and contemporary history (general history and history of the nations of Yugoslavia).¹² It likewise included the subject Methodology of History Teaching, one for students who studied history as their B study programme and one for students who studied history as their A study programme. All students had to pass examinations in general pedagogical subjects: psychology for teachers, didactics, pedagogy, and andragogy.

After Slovenia attained independence (in 1991) the contents of the history study programme changed considerably. Each year covered one historical period with general and Slovene history and the history of South-Eastern Europe, which had replaced the history of Yugoslav nations: e.g. the 1st year covered antiquity and the Middle Ages, the 2nd year modern times, the 3rd year 19th century, and the 4th year contemporary history. Students of the A study programme had special lectures in Methodology of History Teaching, while students of the B study programme had special lectures in Methodology of History Teaching until 1999/2000,¹³ after which this division was eliminated. All students had to pass examinations in general pedagogical subjects: psychology for teachers, didactics, pedagogy, and andragogy.

First year

Subject	Number of hours per year
<i>Introduction to the Study of History</i>	60
<i>Proseminar</i>	60

¹⁰ *Program za študij zgodovine na filozofski fakulteti univerze v Ljubljani* (Ljubljana: Oddelek za zgodovino filozofske fakultete, 1971), 3.

¹¹ *Seznam predavanj za študijsko leto 1984/85* (Ljubljana: Filozofska fakulteta Univerze Edvarda Kardelja v Ljubljani, 1984), 5.

¹² *Vzgojnoizobraževalni program za študij zgodovine. Veljavnost od šolskega leta 1985/86* (Ljubljana: Filozofska fakulteta, 1985).

¹³ *Seznam predavanj za študijsko leto 1999/2000* (Ljubljana: Filozofska fakulteta Univerze v Ljubljani, 1999), 72.

<i>Greek History</i>	60
<i>General History – Middle Ages</i>	60
<i>Slovene History – Middle Ages</i>	60
<i>History of South-Eastern Europe – Middle Ages</i>	60
Total	360

Second year

Subject	Number of hours per year
<i>Roman History</i>	60
<i>General History – Middle Ages II</i>	60
<i>Slovene History – Modern Times</i>	60
<i>History of South-Eastern Europe – Modern Times</i>	60
<i>Psychology for Teachers</i>	45
<i>Seminar</i>	60
Total	345

Third year

Subject	Number of hours per year
<i>General History – 19th Century</i>	120
<i>Slovene History – 19th Century</i>	120
<i>History of South-Eastern Europe – 19th Century</i>	60
<i>Ancient East</i>	60
<i>Auxiliary Historical Sciences</i>	90
<i>Theory of History</i>	60
<i>General History: Early Modern Times 16th–18th Century</i>	60
<i>Seminar</i>	60
<i>Pedagogy</i>	15
<i>Andragogy</i>	15
<i>Didactics</i>	30
Total	690

Fourth year

Subject	Number of hours per year
<i>General History – Contemporary</i>	120

<i>Slovene History – Contemporary</i>	120
<i>History of South-Eastern Europe – Contemporary</i>	120
<i>Seminar</i>	60
<i>Didactics of History</i>	120
Total	540

Table 2: Example of a dual-subject history study programme (pedagogical orientation) in the 2003/04 study year¹⁴

Of the 1935 hours of lectures in all four years, students had 120 hours of Didactics of History and 105 hours of general pedagogical subjects: Psychology for Teachers, Didactics, Pedagogy, Andragogy (50% of the lectures were taken into account, as the second study programme had the other half of these lectures), which is 11.6% of all pedagogical subjects. Pedagogical subjects were divided between the 2nd and 4th year, with Didactics of History being held in the final, 4th year.

When comparing history study programmes that trained future history teachers after 1945, we can conclude that the history study programme at first trained students to be future experts in the field of history and that the number of pedagogical subjects, which prepared the students for actual pedagogical work in schools, also began to slowly increase. Greater changes occurred precisely in the 1960s when the Faculty of Arts intentionally introduced a dual-subject pedagogical study. Until the Bologna Reform, the percentage of pedagogical subjects did not surpass 12%, which means that there were very few of these subjects in the study of history (pedagogical orientation) at the Faculty of Arts.

4. Development of the Didactics of History at the Faculty of Arts

From the 1953/54 study year onwards students of history took a subject called Methodology of History Teaching (30 hours of lectures and 45 hours of practical training per year),¹⁵ which represented the beginning of the development of the Didactics of History in Slovenia.¹⁶ The subject Methodology of History Teaching was intended primarily for preparing the students of history for teaching in secondary schools. For the first time history students had the chance to attend history lessons and test their pedagogical and methodical abilities in teaching history at schools.¹⁷

¹⁴ *Seznam predavanj za študijsko leto 2003/2004* (Ljubljana: Filozofska fakulteta Univerze v Ljubljani, 2003), 57-58.

¹⁵ *Seznam predavanj za študijsko leto 1953-54* (Ljubljana: Univerza, 1953), 22.

¹⁶ More in Danijela Trškan, "Metodika pouka zgodovine od leta 1952 do leta 2002 na Filozofski fakulteti v Ljubljani = Methodology of History Teaching at the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana from 1952 to 2002," in *Trojarjev zbornik*, ed. Danijela Trškan (Ljubljana: Znanstvena založba Filozofske fakultete, 2011), 43-55.

¹⁷ *Internal archival material of the Faculty of Arts: personal file of Bogo Stupan: Iz poročila [From a Report], 8 Dec. 1958.*

From the 1962/63 study year onwards the subject was divided according to the study level into two parts: Methodology of History Teaching I (30 hours of lectures, 45 hours of practical training per year) was taught in the first level, while Methodology of History Teaching II was taught in the second level (likewise 30 hours of lectures, 45 hours of practical training per year). Methodology of History Teaching I was connected with elementary school history, as the subject prepared students for teaching in elementary schools. The main contents were connected with the meaning and learning objectives of history lessons, with a chronologically progressive method of portraying history in elementary school and with a substantive and methodical lesson plan. In the practical training students observed and analysed the lessons carried out by history teachers at elementary schools and prepared one history lesson. The subject Methodology of History Teaching II was connected with secondary school history, in which the students learned the meaning and role of history in education; became acquainted with the curricula for different types of secondary schools; got to know the significance of active methods, the problems of testing and grading the knowledge of pupils etc. They likewise observed history lessons in secondary schools and prepared one history lesson.¹⁸

The new history study programme, which began to be implemented in the second half of the eighties, envisaged an expert and pedagogical training of students for the realisation of common Yugoslav goals in elementary and secondary schools. Students were in particular to be trained to educate pupils in the spirit of national consciousness, brotherhood and unity of Yugoslav nations, and in the spirit of socialist humanism and internationalism. The subject Methodology of History Teaching (60 hours of lectures and 30 hours of practical training) included more contents related to the concept of history curricula in elementary and secondary schools; to the planning of teaching contents, methods and aids; to the use of a textbook and historical texts; to different types of examination and the problems of grading, and to the organisation of historical excursions. Each student had to observe eight history lessons in elementary and secondary school and perform two history lessons, one in elementary and one in secondary school.¹⁹

After Slovenia attained independence (in 1991) the subject Methodology of History Teaching (60 hours of lectures and 60 hours of practical training) contained the following objectives: students were to know the didactic/methodical qualities of contemporary history teaching and its educational and cognitive/logical objectives; know how to use the criteria for quality assessment of practical teaching in a classroom; know the didactic concept of history teaching in the curricula for elementary and secondary schools, know the different types of teaching forms, methods and audiovisual materials used in history lessons.²⁰ The objective to train history students for teaching a class and for the efficient and interesting conveying of

¹⁸ *Program za študij zgodovine na filozofski fakulteti univerze v Ljubljani* (note 10), 26.

¹⁹ *Vzgojnoizobraževalni program za študij zgodovine* (note 12), 2.

²⁰ *Študijski program Zgodovina* (Ljubljana: Oddelek za zgodovino Filozofske fakultete, 1999), 53.

historical knowledge to pupils in elementary and secondary schools was emphasised,²¹ which made practical training even more important. In this way history students obtained solid theoretical and methodical knowledge on history teaching at the end of the nineties. With guided group analyses of observed history lessons, guided preparations for history lessons and analyses of their individual teaching the students gained suitable first experience for working in elementary and secondary schools.

At the beginning of the 21st century the title of the subject was changed to Didactics of History, because at that time the Faculty of Arts began to introduce the term didactics of individual subjects and began to abandon the term methodology of teaching of individual subjects. The contents of Didactics of History were modernised in accordance with the development of general didactics, as students primarily became acquainted with the preparation of a teacher's lesson plan, types of learning objectives, motivational techniques and methods (especially working with sources), authentic teaching, use of curricula, textbooks and manuals, with classical and alternative grading, with action research and the professional development of teachers, with the teacher-pupil-relation, portfolios of pupils etc. Also introduced was a compulsory two-week teaching practice at an elementary or secondary school under the guidance of a teacher mentor and a faculty teacher, during which students at first observed the history lessons, participated in various school activities, and in the end taught several lessons in a classroom under the mentorship of a teacher.²² A continuous two-week teaching practice at schools was introduced in 2003, while in 2006 it was extended by an additional week at the request of the students and the mentors at the schools.²³

In the end, when assessing the development of Didactics of History as a subject at the faculty from 1945 onwards, we can conclude that this subject began to be implemented at the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana as late as in 1953. The number of hours for this subject remained the same until Slovenia attained independence (75 hours per year) and increased only after Slovenia's independence (120 hours per year). The theoretical contents of this subject were throughout connected with the development of general didactics, with the providers of the subject applying the findings of general didactics to didactics of history. All providers contributed to the development of history teaching. In the 1960s and 1970s the significance and role of the subject of history within the school system and a comparison with history in the Soviet and American educational systems were above all placed in the foreground. In the eighties this role was held by the elements of planning a

²¹ *Program študija zgodovine. Velja od študijskega leta 1992/93* (Ljubljana: Oddelek za zgodovino Filozofske fakultete, 1992), 35-37.

²² Danijela Trškan, *Študijski program didaktike zgodovine 2009/2010* (Ljubljana: Oddelek za zgodovino Filozofske fakultete, 2009), 8-9. <http://www.ff.uni-lj.si/oddelki/Zgodovin/DANIJELA/DIDAKTIKAZGODOVINE/Studijski%20programi.htm> (accessed: October 14th, 2010).

²³ Danijela Trškan, "Didaktika zgodovine na Oddelku za zgodovino Filozofske fakultete: prispevek k visokošolski didaktiki," *Zgodovinski časopis* 3/4 (2007), 513.

lesson with all the methodical elements, with emphasis on incorporating audiovisual teaching materials; and in the 1990s by the didactic/methodical structure of curricula and textbooks, a comparison with history in the German educational system, and a critical observation and evaluation of teaching history. Prior to the Bologna Reform at the beginning of the 21st century this role was held primarily by self-reflection, portfolios, alternative grading and alternative teaching, and a comparison with history in the British and French educational systems.

Practical training was important from 1953 onwards. It included the observation of history lessons performed by experienced history teachers at elementary and secondary schools in Ljubljana, analyses of observed lessons and individual teaching (at least one performance at an elementary school and at least one performance at a secondary school). It was not until the beginning of the 21st century that teaching practice at schools became an integral part of the practical training; at first as a two-week practice and later as a three-week practice in schools. The history study programme at the Faculty of Arts was one of the rare ones to have a continuous teaching practice and the only one, prior to the Bologna Reform, with the longest or three-week teaching practice. In order to introduce this practical training at schools the providers of the subject had to be engaged personally and found the schools and mentors who would be willing to co-operate with the Faculty of Arts in the practical training of students. All the schools and teachers co-operated voluntarily on the basis of an internal co-operation agreement with the Faculty of Arts and internal instructions on conducting practical training at schools, which were prepared by the very providers of the subject Didactics of History.

5. Bologna History Programme (Pedagogical Orientation)

In the 2009/10 study year, the Faculty of Arts began implementing a first-cycle Bologna history study programme (3 years, 180 ECTS), as was the case at the majority of faculties of the University of Ljubljana. Future teachers must complete the second-cycle Bologna history study programme (2 years, 120 ECTS) in order to obtain the title of Master History Teacher in the chosen field of study and thus be eligible for employment in elementary and secondary schools and other pedagogical institutions.²⁴

Three faculties in Slovenia therefore prepared two-year pedagogical history study programmes of the second-cycle, namely the Faculty of Arts of the University of Ljubljana (single-subject and dual-subject study of history, start of implementation 2012/13), Faculty of Arts of the University of Maribor (dual-subject study of history, start of implementation 2011/12), and the Faculty of Humanities Koper of

²⁴ More in: Danijela Trškan, "Didaktika zgodovine od leta 2002 naprej na Filozofski fakulteti v Ljubljani = History Didactics from 2002 to Present at the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana," in *Trojarjev zbornik*, ed. Danijela Trškan (Ljubljana: Znanstvena založba Filozofske fakultete, 2011), 57-70; Danijela Trškan, "Izobraževanje in usposabljanje študentov zgodovine – bodočih učiteljev zgodovine na Filozofski fakulteti: prenovljeni pedagoški študijski programi," *Zgodovinski časopis* 3/4 (2010), 446-456.

the University of Primorska (dual-subject study of history, start of implementation 2011/12) in accordance with Criteria for Accreditation of Study Programmes for Teacher Education, adopted in 2008 by the Expert Council for Higher Education of the Republic of Slovenia²⁵, followed by the Council of the Slovenian Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education in 2011.²⁶

The second-cycle Bologna history study programme at the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana can be enrolled by those who have completed the first-cycle Bologna study programme in the same discipline or an equivalent education abroad. One can also enrol if he/she completes any other first-cycle study programme in other expert fields, provided that he/she has fulfilled the study obligations that are essential for the second-cycle study prior to enrolment. These obligations are determined with regard to the difference between the expert fields and are awarded up to 60 ECTS.

In the 2012/13 study year at the Faculty of Arts students will be able to enrol into a single-subject or dual-subject pedagogical history study programme (two years, 120 ECTS). It is characteristic of both pedagogical history study programmes that they will train students to be familiar with the fundamental didactic/methodical characteristics of history teaching and of contemporary didactics of history, and to connect theoretical knowledge with practical pedagogical work at elementary and secondary schools. Students will become qualified to plan, monitor, test, and evaluate history teaching and extracurricular activities (museum work, archival work, field work). They will be capable of different pedagogical work as history teachers and prepared for reflection, self-assessment and self-evaluation of life-long education.²⁷

First year

Subject	Number of hours per year	Number of ECTS
<i>Psychology for Teachers</i>	45	3.5
<i>Pedagogy – Theory of Education and Andragogy</i>	37.5	3
<i>Didactics</i>	30	2.5
<i>Observation Practice</i>	7.5	1

²⁵ Merila za akreditacijo študijskih programov za izobraževanje učiteljev 2008. http://www.svs.gov.si/fileadmin/uzvs.gov.si/pageuploads/Zakonodaja_in_predpisi/MERILA_pedagoski_maj08.doc (accessed: May 17th, 2010).

²⁶ Merila za akreditacijo študijskih programov za izobraževanje učiteljev 2011. <http://www.uradni-list.si/1/objava.jsp?urlid=201194&stevilka=4013> (accessed: May 4th, 2012).

²⁷ Danijela Trškan, ed., *Predstavitveni zbornik. Drugostopenjski pedagoški študijski program Zgodovina* (Ljubljana: Oddelek za zgodovino Filozofske fakultete Univerze v Ljubljani, 2012) http://www.ff.uni-lj.si/fakulteta/Studij/BolonjskiProgrami/DrugaStopnja/PedagoskiEnopredmetni/Zgodovina-ENOP_PED.pdf (accessed: May 4th, 2012).

<i>Compulsory elective pedagogical subject</i>	30	2
<i>General (external) elective subject</i>	45	4
<i>Compulsory elective historical subject: Selected Chapters from Contemporary Slovene History or Selected Chapters from Contemporary Slovene Local History or Selected Chapters from Contemporary General History</i>	60	5
<i>Elective historical subject</i>	30	3
<i>Didactics of History I</i>	75	6
Total	360	30

Second year

Subject	Number of hours per year	Number of ECTS
<i>Didactics of History II</i>	75	6
<i>Teaching Practice in History</i>	30	6
<i>Elective historical subject</i>	60	5
<i>General (external) elective subject</i>	45	4
<i>Master's Thesis</i>	-	9
Total	210	30

Table 3: Example of a two-year pedagogical dual-subject Bologna history study programme²⁸

The study programme has been compiled in accordance with the Criteria for Accreditation of Study Programmes for Teacher Education, which demand that a study programme that trains for the teaching profession has appropriate subjects that are evaluated with a minimum of 60 ECTS. The contents of these subjects must include: “pedagogical/psychological knowledge (e.g. psychology, pedagogy, didactics, andragogy, methodology of pedagogical research) and knowledge of social sciences and humanities (e.g. philosophy, sociology, anthropology etc.), subject or special didactics in connection with the study of the main discipline, and teaching practice.”²⁹

The dual-subject pedagogical study programme is comprised so as to include common pedagogical subjects, namely Psychology for Teachers, Didactics, Peda-

²⁸ Danijela Trškan, ed., *Predstavitveni zbornik. Drugostopenjski pedagoški dvopredmetni študijski program Zgodovina* (Ljubljana: Oddelek za zgodovino Filozofske fakultete Univerze v Ljubljani, 2012). http://www.ff.uni-lj.si/fakulteta/Studij/BolonjskiProgrami/DrugaStopnja/PedagoskiDvopredmetni/Zgodovina-DVOP_PED.pdf (accessed: May 4th, 2012).

²⁹ *Merila za akreditacijo študijskih programov za izobraževanje učiteljev 2011* (note 26).

gogy – Theory of Education and Andragogy, Observation Practice and one compulsory elective pedagogical subject (students can choose among: Slovene for Teachers, Humanities and Social Sciences or Research into the Learning Process). It has half of the credits (12 ECTS), and the other dual-subject study programme likewise 12 ECTS (a total of 24 ECTS). Special pedagogical subjects (of the Didactics of History) have 18 ECTS. On the other hand, the second dual-subject study programme also has 18 ECTS for special pedagogical subjects, which makes a total of 60 ECTS.

The programme is comprised so as to take into account the electiveness of the subjects. Students can choose historical subjects and general (external) elective subjects (at least 10%), which they can choose at other faculties and universities in Slovenia or abroad.

Criteria for Accreditation of Study Programmes for Teacher Education also demand that teaching practice in schools is an integral part of pedagogical training and is evaluated with a minimum of 15 ECTS. The Teaching Practice has 6 ECTS (the same amount is present in the other dual-subject study programme), Observation Practice has 2 ECTS, and the joint Master's Thesis has another 2 ECTS (a total of 16 ECTS in both dual-subject study programmes).

This means that in order to obtain the teaching profession in two subjects one must complete a five-year study: three years in the first-cycle and two years in the second-cycle or attain 300 ECTS in both dual-subject study programmes. If prior to the Bologna Reform pedagogical subjects took up 11.6%, than it can be concluded on the basis of the number of ECTS that in the five-year education (3+2), pedagogical subjects take up to 20%, which signifies the greater pedagogical qualification of students for actual pedagogical work in schools and for the teaching of history.

In order to obtain the teaching profession in a certain subject students must complete the first cycle (single or dual-subject study) and the second-cycle (single-subject study). The single-subject study (120 ECTS) of the second cycle also consists of pedagogical subjects in the amount of 60 ECTS, with the other 60 ECTS provided by historical subjects, elective subjects and the master's thesis. The single-subject history study programme of the second-cycle is one of the rare single-subject pedagogical study programmes at the Faculty of Arts, which means that these programmes are fewer than the dual-subject ones.

In the case that students choose a dual-subject pedagogical history study programme they must also choose another dual-subject pedagogical study programme at the Faculty of Arts (e.g. English Studies; Philosophy; French; Geography; Greek Language, Literature and Culture; Italian; Latin Language, Literature and Culture; German; Pedagogy; Polish Studies; Comparative Literature and Literary Theory; Russian Studies; Slovak Studies; Slovene Studies; Sociology or Spanish).³⁰

³⁰ The second-cycle Bologna study programmes at the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana: <http://www.ff.uni-lj.si/fakulteta/Studij/BolonjskiProgrami/DrugaStopnja/DrugaStopnja.html> (accessed: May 4th, 2012).

6. The Future of the Didactics of History

In the first decade of the 21st century the subject Didactics of History provided students with concrete didactic and methodical knowledge for teaching in classroom or extracurricular activities on the one hand, while on the other hand students were trained in the various tasks carried out by history teachers at schools, with emphasis on the precise preparation of lesson plans, effective teaching history, the team work of teachers, the writing of didactic articles on their work and the regular elaboration of a portfolio – a teacher's personal file etc. Many of the tasks of a teacher (teaching, participating in excursions, helping with the setting up of exhibitions, individual lessons for pupils with special needs, correcting homework, preparing tests etc.) could be tried by students at the teaching practice.

The subject Didactics of History will continue to have such contents; however, the Bologna study programmes require that subjects are divided into semesters, which means that the subject Didactics of History will be divided into two subjects, Didactics of History I and Didactics of History II. In addition, Teaching Practice in History will become a separate subject. Therefore, one subject will be broken down into three subjects and implemented in all three semesters.

Below is a brief presentation of the implementation of these three subjects, with an explanation of the differences between the implementation of these subjects in the single-subject and dual-subject study of history.

The subject Didactics of History I will be implemented within 75 hours in the dual-subject history study programme (or 90 hours in the single-subject study). Students will be taught how to prepare (lesson plans) annually and daily, organise and teach history classes; use different teaching forms, methods and motivational techniques at different levels of education; use teaching materials for history and communications and information technology; observe, monitor, assess and self-evaluate the learning process; show satisfaction, responsibility and a positive attitude towards pedagogical work. The subject will be evaluated with 6 ECTS (or 9 ECTS in the single-subject study), as it will require that students prepare a group assignment, observe history lessons and make a report of the lessons observed, elaborate and present one lesson plan, and fill out a portfolio.³¹

The subject Didactics of History II will be implemented with the same number of hours and with the same number of credit points (ECTS). Students will be taught to compare and assess the development of history teaching, the learning objectives of contemporary history teaching and the didactic/methodical concept of historical curricula, textbooks, manuals, and external history examinations; to plan, organise and carry out extracurricular activities, and compile and grade written, oral and authentic assignments. Students will have to write an original seminar paper (arti-

³¹ Danijela Trškan, ed., *Vloga za pridobitev soglasja k drugostopenjskemu pedagoškemu študijskemu programu Zgodovina Filozofske fakultete Univerze v Ljubljani (akreditacija študijskega programa)* (Ljubljana: Filozofska fakulteta, Internal material of the Department of History, 2009), 122.

cle), perform a lesson in front of students or at a school, and give an oral defence of the knowledge of the Didactics of History.³²

Teaching Practice in History will be organised in order to appropriately prepare the students for teacher's work. During teaching practice a faculty teacher will monitor the work of students by e-mail, telephone or with a personal visit to the school. Each student will have individual consultations and a group evaluation of the entire practice at the faculty.³³ Students will be able to carry out teaching practice at elementary or secondary schools in Slovenia (or at both types of schools in the case of the single-subject study) with which the Faculty of Arts will sign an agreement on co-operation in the teaching practice of students.

At the three-week teaching practice under the dual-subject history study programme (or five-week teaching practice under the single-subject history study programme) students will become accustomed to the systematical observation of history teaching in elementary and secondary schools, connect theoretical knowledge with practical pedagogical work and in the end give history lessons independently. During their three-week teaching practice they will have to observe at least 10 hours of history lessons, perform 10 lessons, and participate in school activities. In addition, they will have more home assignments (preparing lesson plans and compiling a diary of teaching practice).³⁴ The entire teaching practice will include several hours of student work; therefore students will be awarded 6 ECTS points at the three-week teaching practice and 10 ECTS at the five-week teaching practice (1 week has 2 ECTS).

When comparing the importance of Didactics of History in the old programme (in which teaching practice was already included), we can see that it took up 6.4%, but under the Bologna study programme it will take up 10.9% (together with the subject Teaching Practice in History), which means that Didactics of History will have greater value and role in training future history teachers.

7. Conclusions

After 1945 the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana mostly educated history teachers for secondary schools and after 1960 also for elementary schools. Until 1985 the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana was the only institution in Slovenia to educate history teachers for both secondary and elementary schools. With the introduction of the Bologna history study programmes three different faculties at three different universities in Slovenia (in Ljubljana, Maribor and Koper) will perform the training of history teachers for elementary and secondary schools, which is a big step forward in the Republic of Slovenia.

³² Ibid., 126.

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ Danijela Trškan, ed., *Vloga za pridobitev soglasja k drugostopenjskemu pedagoškemu dvo-predmetnemu študijskemu programu Zgodovina Filozofske fakultete Univerze v Ljubljani (akreditacija študijskega programa)* (Ljubljana: Filozofska fakulteta. Internal material of the Department of History, 2009).

At the Department of History students continuously gained solid knowledge or contents from various historical periods, which from 1945/46 to 1990/91 (until Slovenia attained independence) were divided into general history (world and European history) and the history of Yugoslav nations, in which Slovene history was discussed separately. After that time the concept of the history study programme changed and general history, Slovene history, and history of South-Eastern Europe began to be discussed by periods, namely for the Middle Ages, modern times, 19th century and 20th century, with antiquity or Roman and Greek history discussed separately etc. In the case of Bologna pedagogical study programmes greater emphasis will be placed on the electiveness of these subjects in the second cycle, with at least one compulsory subject for in-depth study of Slovene history remaining.

In the process of training history teachers at the Department of History at the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana one subject held an important role; until the beginning of the 21st century it was called Methodology of History Teaching. Its renaming was in accordance with other subject areas, as methodology stood for special didactics or subject didactics. Thus the term Didactics of History was introduced at the beginning of the 21st century and will continue to be used in the Bologna study programmes.

In the case of the theoretical contents of the subject it has been ascertained that these contents were in accordance with pedagogical novelties and with the knowledge of the providers of the subject. In the sixties and seventies the relation between the methodology of history teaching and general methodology, didactics and pedagogy was emphasised, as well as the role of history in sociological subjects in elementary schools and history teaching at combined classes. In the 1980s and 1990s emphasis lay on the concept of history curricula, on the use of teaching methods, especially explanation, discussion and working with texts and audiovisual materials. In the 21st century alternative methods of carrying out lessons are placed in the forefront, as well as alternative grading and history teachers with all the tasks they carry out at schools.

From the very start practical training was an integral part of the subject and was organised so as to include the observation of history lessons performed by experienced teachers in elementary and secondary schools in Ljubljana, analyses or discussions of the observed lessons, the individual teaching under the mentorship of a teacher at the school and of a faculty teacher. This will be preserved in the Bologna pedagogical study programmes.

Teaching practice in elementary and secondary schools began to be introduced in 2002/03, first as a two-week teaching practice in history and afterwards as a three-week one (2005/06). The Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana will introduce a three-week teaching practice for all Bologna study programmes in dual-subject studies (and a five-week one for single-subject studies). One novelty is the additional one-week general teaching practice (Observation Practice), which will be organised by general didacts, psychologists, pedagogues or adult educators. Seeing that all study programmes at the Faculty of Arts will have practical training, the faculty will

have to be prepared accordingly to co-operate with pedagogical and other institutions at which students will carry out their practical training.

When comparing the subject Didactics of History in the old non-Bologna four-year pedagogical study programme to the new two-year Master's Bologna study programme we can see that there are similarities regarding the contents and methods of carrying out lectures, seminars and practical work, but that there will be big changes organisation-wise. Due to study in semesters Didactics of History will be divided in half, with the first part mostly encompassing a teacher's preparation for actual work in a classroom (planning, teaching and evaluating lessons), while the other part will include the theoretical study of history teaching, alternative teaching methods, testing and grading, and other tasks of history teachers (action research, permanent education, working with pupils with special needs and learning disabilities). The greatest change will be that teaching practice will no longer be an integral part of the subject Didactics of History but an independent subject, which will present a conclusion to the practical training of a pedagogical study programme.

Despite the fact that pedagogical Bologna study programmes of the second cycle are not yet being implemented at the Faculty of Arts, some advantages can be foreseen:

- As students choose the pedagogical profession in the second cycle they show greater responsibility and maturity for the teaching profession.
- In the first Bologna cycle students obtain a solid expert foundation and in the second Bologna cycle a primarily pedagogical foundation for carrying out the teaching profession.
- They can choose a single-subject study of history or a dual-subject study of history in combination with another study programme.
- Study programmes are of greater quality, as students have less direct hours of work (lectures) and more independent work, which means that Bologna study programmes demand a greater independence of the students.
- Study programmes contain more practical training and prepare the students better for the teaching profession.
- All study programmes are evaluated regularly, which means that the teaching contents, objectives, competences, learning and teaching methods, intended learning outcomes and readings of all subjects can be updated continuously. It is only that the process of confirming these changes takes longer, which means that changes of the study programmes will have to be planned on time.

Even before the start of the implementation of pedagogical Bologna study programmes of the second cycle at the Faculty of Arts certain disadvantages of the Bologna system can be foreseen:

- The 3+2 Bologna system enables enrolment into the second cycle for students who have completed any other study programme, not only histories of the first cycle, if they pass bridging examinations that are awarded up to

60 ECTS. Therefore not all future history teachers will possess the same basic expert foundation from the first cycle.

- The second cycle Bologna pedagogical programmes contain pedagogical subjects in the amount of at least 60 ECTS in both study programmes, i.e. 30 ECTS in one of the two study programmes. This means that half of the ECTS (15 ECTS) can be taken up by other history subjects, thus providing the students with less historical education in the second cycle.
- The offer of combining two study programmes will be reduced, since the combination of a pedagogical and non-pedagogical study programme will not be possible at the Faculty of Arts.

In the future some of the disadvantages of the Bologna system could be eliminated by introducing a regulated teacher profession in the Republic of Slovenia, thus introducing uniform five-year study programmes in which teachers would be expertly (historically) well-versed. The uniform five-year study programmes would not necessarily contain pedagogical subjects in the final years of study, but from the first year onwards as gradual preparation for the teaching profession. Combinations of pedagogical study programmes should be combined with non-pedagogical study programmes as well, which would enable students to gain employment in pedagogical and in non-pedagogical institutions and professions. Seeing that all pedagogical study programmes require practical training and the inclusion of mentors at schools and other institutions, appropriate reward of the work of teachers – mentors at schools should be regulated in Slovenia. For now mentors at schools co-operate voluntarily and on the basis of a written agreement with the faculty.

One will have to wait at least two years before planning a proper analysis of the first and second cycle Bologna study and evaluating the suitability of the Bologna pedagogical study programmes for the teacher profession. In addition, results of the research on the suitability of Bologna pedagogical study programmes will have to be transferred to the modification of the 10-month compulsory probationary service in schools (concluded with a professional examination in the Republic of Slovenia), which is organised entirely by the Ministry and in which the university is not involved.

It can be concluded that the Bologna Reform has brought about greater changes in the concept of the study programmes (3+2) in the Republic of Slovenia, particularly in the education of future teachers and, consequently, also certain dilemmas, which will have to be solved accordingly with planned monitoring, evaluation and updating of all programmes. In this way the Bologna Reform can contribute to the appropriate qualification of history teachers in the 21st century, as history teaching will greatly depend precisely on them. Education must follow changes and the needs of the time. For this reason the Republic of Slovenia began a Pan-European process in the 21st century known as the Bologna system of higher education. The key success factor will be quality or quality of education. “A quality school can be only one which follows the needs of the time and responds to them by directing

and educating its users to be independent, ambitious, creative, efficient and flexible.”³⁵

³⁵ Ljudmila Novak, “Stoji učilna spletno zidana ali šola prihodnosti.” in *Slovensko šolstvo včeraj, danes, jutri* (Ljubljana: Ministrstvo za šolstvo in šport, 2007), 123.

In France: Tense Times follow the Training Reform Upheaval

Marie-Christine Baquès and Brigitte Morand

Introduction¹

France has recently undergone a teacher training reform (2010-2011), in the context of the Bologna Process, which started in 2002. We are still in the early stages of this reform today. It was carried out in an extremely tense context with universities and politicians being very critical of the IUFM* (Instituts de Formation des Maîtres, which were the only structure in charge of teacher training), and even the former French president himself publicly asserting they had disappeared. At the same time, the drastic reduction in the number of teachers in primary and secondary schools (because of the government's policy of reducing the number of State-employed) gave this reform a financial dimension and therefore strengthened opposition to it.

And indeed, this reform has brought very strong, although sometimes contradictory, opposition from different actors. On the one hand, the faculties (UFR)*, and above all history faculties, which had previously been in charge of initial training in the different disciplines, were afraid for the future of their research Master's (which would be in competition with the vocational Master's); and on the other hand, the IUFM which were in danger of disappearing and who argued in favour of vocational Master's. The reform in teacher training profoundly affected the universities, where didactics was traditionally poorly considered (and this was particularly true in faculties for humanities and social sciences). Very few departments (such as the Centre de Formation et d'Études sur l'Enseignement des Disciplines, CFEED) de Paris 7-Denis Diderot) provided training and research in didactics and, after the PhD, the specialists of history didactics could only find positions in the IUFM (at the time these institutions were independent schools, outside the universities).

To add to these difficulties, the reform of teacher training in the context of the Bologna Process was at odds with the traditional mode of teacher recruitment. In France, teachers are State-employed and have to pass a very competitive exam, the CAPES*, considered as an important element of Republican democracy. The future of this exam was questioned in the reform. Moreover, at the same time the government announced a very important reduction in the time devoted to training of newly qualified teachers (stagiaires*), and this caused further outcry (for example from the trade unions).

¹ Many thanks to Judith Barnoin, from the IUFM d'Auvergne, for her careful reading and help for the English translation.

* For all acronyms and institutions, see the glossary

For all these reasons, the introduction of Master's in teacher training courses was a very controversial process, and recent studies, commissioned by the very government who conducted this reform seem to confirm some of the criticisms.

To understand the reform and the problems it has created, we have first to consider the academic context in which it took place, together with the place of this discipline, which is traditionally considered to be important for the education of citizens.

Secondly, we are going to see the consequences and the problems created by this reform in teacher training, the basis of which (the Master's) seems to be here to stay. Indeed, if the new government set up after the presidential election in May 2012 seems to intend to make some changes (particularly for the training of stagiaires), it is very unlikely that the BA/MA reform of teacher training will be abandoned.

2. The Place of History and Education in French Political Culture

2.1 *History in French Political Culture*

History occupies a very important place in France, because it was established as a modern science at the end of the nineteenth century, at the time when there was a significant development of studies of the French revolution. The most important question was then to explain and understand the origins of this revolution, the sources of divisions amongst the people, as well as to find the forces that could unite the nation.² The context in which modern historical science was born explains the special place given to the history of the nation in French people's political culture and values. Even after the middle of the twentieth century when, according to Pierre Nora a turning point was reached in this matter, the constant use of historical references by politicians (and sometimes the misuse of them), the vigilance of historians themselves regarding the way lobbies influenced, and political decisions interfered with the teaching of history at school, the importance given to the "*lieux de mémoire*", as well as the numerous genealogical societies, show the persistence of this attachment.³ However, this stems more from "historical memory" than from a real consideration for historical research and for the place of historians in public life. Historians and philosophers who were involved in thinking about society have today been replaced by experts in economics and political sciences who are asked to provide reports on social topics. History has moved down in the hierarchy of disciplines, and its position has been challenged by theorists of inter-disciplinarity such as Edgar Morin, in a context where social sciences themselves are challenged.

2.2 *History at Secondary School*

² Christian Delacroix, François Dosse and Patrick Garcia, *Les Courants historiques en France XIXème – XXème siècles* (Paris: Gallimard, 2007), 11f.

³ Pierre Nora, *Les Lieux de mémoire* (Paris: Gallimard 1997).

The position of history at school in France is profoundly affected by the role played by this discipline in the setting up of the republic in French society. It is taught from the third year of primary school (called cycle 3 in France, for pupils from 8 to 10), to the end of secondary school. At the lycée (upper secondary school), although the importance given to the subject varies according to the course chosen by pupils, it is a compulsory course for all of them. The curriculum is decided on at the national level, with some recent modifications for France's overseas departments (this measure has given rise to considerable opposition and will probably be soon dropped).

History is traditionally linked to geography, and the two disciplines are taught together, by the same teacher in secondary school. Because of the civic role played by the teaching of history since the 3rd Republic, the teacher is also in charge of civic education (or social and political education, whose purpose is to transmit the values of French society) in lower and upper secondary school.

History and geography, as well as civic education, are evaluated by a written examination at the end of middle school (DNB, Diplôme National du Brevet) and another at the end of the upper secondary school (Baccalauréat), except for pupils doing vocational and technological courses. We can conclude, along with Françoise Lantheaume, that history teaching at school has two contradictory characteristics: on one hand, its importance, as shown by its place in the curriculum, and on the other, its instability which is seen in the constant questioning of its place.⁴

Lastly, the history teacher is not only in charge of geography and civic education, as we already said, but also the history of art, together with art and music teachers. The history of arts is a cross-curricular subject (and could be taught by other teachers) but in fact the decree names only history, art and music teachers outlining the teaching of this course. Most history teachers are history graduates. Geography graduates prefer to apply for positions in spatial planning or the environment rather than to teach at school). However, until now, history (and geography as well) have been considered compulsory subjects, just behind French and mathematics in the hierarchy of the disciplines, and all attempts to replace them by a course in social sciences have failed.

2.3 *The History Curriculum at University, History Didactics and Teacher Training before the Reform*

In 2008 there were 66 500 students of history, which is taught in the faculties of humanities and social sciences. Since 2006, historical studies, just like other disciplines, have been organised according to the Bologna System (the BMD system), with three stages: Bachelor's degree (obtained after 3 years) Master's (2 more years) and Doctorate (PhD, 3 to 5 years). The years are divided into semesters according to the ECTS system. After the PhD, and a validation by the CNU (National University Council) a student can apply for an academic position, as a university

⁴ Françoise Lantheaume and Patrick Rayou, "Présentation", *Recherche et formation* 66 (2011): 8.

lecturer (Maître de Conférences). But most of the time, before applying for such a position, he or she has spent some years in a temporary position as an ATER* (Allocataire de recherche or “Allocataire-moniteur”), which provide an experience of teaching at university. In France, there is a strong link between secondary school and university, because of the exams for selecting secondary school teachers. These exams (CAPES and Agrégation*) are prepared at university, and very often the Agrégation is an asset when applying for an academic position in most disciplines. Since 2007 and the LRU* reform that gave greater autonomy to the universities, recruitment for academic positions by a jury of peers has been replaced by the university governing board and president making these appointments, taking into account the opinions given by a committee of peers who are experts in the discipline.

But the traditional link between secondary school and university does not mean that history didactics play an important part in the curriculum of history studies at university. Until quite recently, this curriculum was devised with a view to training researchers and prepare students for the teaching exams, which gave no place to didactics. This was the result of the opposition between historians and epistemologists of history, who did not see any point in didactics. According to Anne Le Roux “History didactics is recognised by educational sciences, not by historians”.⁵ Thus, history didactics was the field of teacher trainers at the IUFM (researchers, PhD-students or teachers in primary and secondary schools) and any actual teacher training took place in these institutes once students had their degrees. Moreover, less than 1/3 of teacher trainers at the IUFM are currently researchers in education, and few of them have carried out research in didactics.

So in fact, history didactics itself was not taught at University – according to A. Le Roux “vocational training at university was an exception” –,⁶ and it has only become more extensive very recently, as a result of the reform of the university curriculum for training teachers. Research in didactics itself was originally carried out in two different places: the Disciplinary didactics Unit at Paris-7 University (Denis Diderot University) and the INRP* (National Institute for Pedagogical Research) which at first focussed on applied research, which was not recognised by the University. But the researchers in history didactics could not find a position in the history faculties, and because there was no research laboratory in the IUFMs (except in one case), and no coordination of the projects, researchers were isolated most of the time. So for a long time the INRP was the only link between researchers in didactics (in the IUFMs, sometimes in the educational sciences departments or the social psychology departments at some universities). But the INRP has been recently dissolved by a decree (December 28th, 2012), and its activities transferred to the IFé (Institut Français de l’Éducation), which is now part of the ENS* (École Normale Supérieure) in Lyon. This new institute has its own board of directors, including a strategic and scientific council and has taken over the missions of the

⁵ Anne Le Roux (2005)

⁶ Ibid.

INRP. However, the Museum of Education, previously a part of the INRP has been transferred to the CNDP (Centre National de Documentation Pédagogique).

3. Teacher Training since the Introduction of the BA/MA-structure

3.1 Initial Training: The University Curriculum

The BA/MA structure for teachers was introduced in 2010, after the reform for teacher training was adopted in July 2008. Table 1 shows the changes in the curriculum since this reform. A new exam has been set up (decree of January 6th, 2010), and each student with a Master's degree is entitled to sit this exam. As was the case before this reform, this exam does not include questions on any vocational issues, but requires only knowledge in history or geography. The written part of the exam takes place in November in the second year (semester 3 of the Master's), and for the students who pass this first stage, the oral part takes place in June and July (semester 4). To be fully admitted, the students also have to obtain the Master's. So the Master's does not replace the exam, but the students have to prepare and pass both of them.

	Before 2010	After 2010-2011
Level of recruitment	3 years after the Baccalauréat (CAPES certificate) or 4 years (Agrégation)	5 years for all the exams
Initial training	Training in history or geography, with an additional year, for most of the students, for preparing the exam, in a IUFM.	A master in history or geography, prepared in a UFR (faculty of humanities and social sciences) for teachers at secondary school, or a Master's in primary education, prepared in a IUFM for the teachers at primary school.
Number of years before being fully in charge of classes	At least 4 years, including a year of vocational training in a IUFM	At least 5 years
Course during the first year after the exam (qualifying year)	6 hours a week teaching in the classroom (with total responsibility for the classes taught), and twelve hours a week training in a IUFM	Full time in the classroom, around 6 hours' training a week, with a help of a mentor

Table 1: Evolution of teacher training and teacher recruitment since 2010. (Cour des comptes 2012, 767)

3.2 Vocational Training during the Licence Bachelor's Degree (BA)

Until recently, students could do a pre-vocational training course during the Licence*, but most of those who attended this course were preparing for teaching in primary school. The reform resulted in the opening of such courses for all students, but according to the report by the Degree evaluation committee,⁷ only one half of the universities actually provide these courses. However, this percentage is higher in the faculties of humanities and social sciences (50% of them have opened such courses, and 50% provide some training). We don't have any statistics for history degrees, but we can assume that the percentage is similar. But many of these courses (22%) don't include training in the classroom itself and a third can only offer a bit of training in the classroom. The committee's report raises the question of whether the reason for these disparities is to be found in universities being unsure about this training, or if there are more concrete reasons.

Let us take the example of the IUFM d'Auvergne. Since 2008 it has been part of the Blaise Pascal University in Clermont-Ferrand, which has opened a course during the third year of the Licence (semester 6), for the students of any Master's preparing for the teaching exams (any discipline, and also for teaching at primary school). This course consists of 24 hours at the IUFM and 18 hours in a classroom (mostly observation of the practices of teachers in charge), in a primary or a secondary school. The presentation of this unit on the IUFM website⁸ states that the objectives are "to understand what the career is like" and the course consists of "work on representations, an institutional and sociological approach to school, and achieving an understanding of the activity of teaching". This last objective is tackled by just a few hours' training (8 hours) in disciplinary didactics (history for example) in primary or secondary school, and it is the only moment when the undergraduates can work on this subject.

The Degree evaluation committee has also put forward a proposal for a framework for professional competencies for undergraduates on academic and vocational courses in social sciences. This framework includes a) knowledge, b) general competencies, c) vocational competencies, with an annex for history and geography. This annex defines:

- basic knowledge in the two disciplines,
- knowledge and competencies in associated disciplines (languages, political sciences, history of art or archaeology, and information and communication),
- general competencies and vocational competencies (for teaching careers, careers in tourism and heritage preservation, information, communication, administration and management of organizations).

⁷ Gilles Rabby, *Rapport du Comité de suivi de la licence et de la licence professionnelle, rapport année 2010-2011* (http://www.cpu.fr/fileadmin/fichiers/pedagogie/rapport_CSL_2010_2011.pdf) (accessed: 31.08.2013), 31.

⁸ <http://www.auvergne.iufm.fr>

We would like to draw attention to the weight of this framework, and to the fact that the only competencies that are really described in detail are common to all social sciences: there is no reference to disciplinary didactics.

3.3 *The Master's Curriculum*

The place given to history is very different in the Master's degree and teaching exams. The "careers in education" Master's (for teaching at elementary school) is open to any graduate whatever their discipline, but history graduates are in the minority. Most of those who want to teach history in a lycée and to take the CAPES have a history degree, and very few a geography degree. It is the same case for students wanting to teach in a lycée professionnel (vocational secondary school). The latter will also have to teach French, and take a special exam, the CAPLP. For history and geography, the reform resulted in the introduction of new specialties inside the previous research Master's, and the professional part consisted chiefly in preparation for the exam. Students also have to do work experience in a school, but the conditions are very different from one university to another. Some Master's (most of them in faculties of humanities and social sciences) include work experience in a class with a teacher in charge present, while some of them have students teaching full-time and being totally in charge of the teaching and pupils. In most cases, teacher training is provided by the IUFM (these institutes are now part of the universities) but the faculties are in charge of the Master's.⁹ According to the Jolion report: "The major problem of this approach is the articulation of the content of this training with the part of the curriculum, because the Master's, being a research Master's, has its own specific objectives, namely preparing students to do a Ph D."¹⁰ There is also a difference between vocational training and learning how to do research: as these Master's are also research Master's, the student's dissertation is often a research dissertation without any relation to teacher training.

3.4 *Training after the Teaching Exam*

Once they have got their Master's and passed the teaching exam (both compulsory requirements), the young teachers work full time in a school (18 hours' teaching for those who have the CAPES, and 15 hours for those with the Agrégation). The training that they have to do, which is now considered to be "continuing to their training" and is calculated as 1/3 of their statutory working time, is done in addition to full time teaching. Thus new teachers are required to work much longer hours than experienced teachers, while they need much more time to prepare their lessons! Then, the reform resulted in fact in abolishing the year of vocational train-

⁹ For an example, see Cour des comptes, *Rapport public annuel 2012* (Paris: La documentation française, 2012) (<http://www.ladocumentationfrancaise.fr/rapports-publics/124000069/index.shtml>).

¹⁰ Jolion report, *Mastérisation de la formation initiale des enseignants – Enjeux et bilan* (2008) (<http://www.ladocumentationfrancaise.fr/rapports-publics/114000624/index.shtml>).

ing that previously existed after the exam.

In 2010-2011, for the first year of the reform, half of the academies* tried to make adjustments to the system, but with different modalities: only six provided a reduction in teaching time during the year, and three gave teachers the possibility of doing a few weeks part time during the year. But these adjustments were stopped in 2011-2012 and since then every new teacher without exception has had to teach full time. Moreover, in 2011-2012 some of them (24% of the trainee teachers in an academy in the south-east of France) had to teach in two different schools.¹¹

It is now the rectorats, and not the IUFM, who are in charge of teacher training, which mainly consists in courses on subjects defined as “national priorities”, and the new curricula. A framework for the competencies to be achieved by teachers has been introduced. According to the ministry of education, the aims of this framework are also “to give universities guidance for the contents of teacher training courses in their research masters.”¹²

The teacher:
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Acts in an ethical and responsible way befitting the State-employed 2. Has sufficient mastery of the French language to be able to teach and communicate effectively 3. Has sufficient mastery of subject knowledge and sound general knowledge 4. Is able to prepare a lesson and implement teaching 5. Is able to organize classwork 6. Shows an ability to take pupil diversity into account 7. Shows an ability to assess pupils' 8. Has sufficient mastery of ICT 9. Is able to work in a team and cooperate with parents and school partners 10. Shows an ability to improve and innovate.

Table 2: The 10 items in the competencies framework

This framework is composed of 10 items (table 2), but only the first one is evaluated by an oral exam during the teaching exam. In fact, this framework is based on transversal competencies, and does not refer to competencies in disciplinary didactics, even for items 3 to 6, or 9. The place given to teaching didactics is thus decided on by each teacher trainer.

According to the IGEN report “there is now more training in teaching the disciplines and training in classroom practices (didactics, pedagogy for the different levels of school, evaluation of competencies and knowledge ...) than in general and

¹¹ Rapport de la cour des comptes (note 9), 773.

¹² Ibid., 794.

transversal competencies.”¹³ However, “teacher trainers are more often school-based mentors (teachers selected for their skills in the classroom) than professors at university, who “have the reputation of encouraging more theoretical approaches.” In the future, this situation could result in even greater dissociation between research in didactics and teacher training, both for primary and secondary education.

4. Conclusion

Instead of facilitating and improving teacher training, the training curriculum reform, following the BA/MA reform in France, has caused many difficulties, first of all because of the French peculiarity of recruiting by an exam. The result is that students have to prepare for the teaching exam and at the same time to do their Master’s degree. In fact, they have to achieve three different objectives simultaneously: pass the exam, do research in history (and not in history didactics) and vocational training. The reform has also created difficulties because sometimes students only achieve one of these objectives: the exam but not the Master’s or, more often, the opposite.

The consequences for Master’s students are a very heavy curriculum, an excessive workload and, according to the Jolion report “great suffering at work”. Jolion says, too, that “the panel of students used for this study were highly motivated, and we can consider that this motivation explains why the system has not yet collapsed.”¹⁴ But the new exam is not very different from the previous one, and puts greater stress on basic knowledge in history and geography than on knowledge in didactics and professional skills. Therefore, students choose to work more for the exam and leave vocational training aside.

Even when universities do provide some training courses, the result is a drastic decrease in vocational training. In the new generations of teachers, who did not benefit from the previous training system, some begin teaching having done just a three- or four-week training placement. The situation has been worsened because of budget cuts, which resulted in cutting 16 000 teaching jobs in 2010, on top of the 50 000 cuts since 2007. This has greatly increased the workload for trainees and quite simply done away with training after the exam. In fact, as the Cour des Comptes* underlines in its 2012 report, “the result of the current mode of recruitment is that teachers begin their career with no more professional skills than previously.”¹⁵ Vocational training, which is very often neglected during the Master’s course, has been reduced to just 216 hours for the certifiés (teachers with CAPES) and 180 for the agrégés (teachers with the agregation). The ministry has not always provided the means to achieve the objectives which it has itself set up. Thus, as far

¹³ Inspection Générale, *Rapport No 2011-093. Mise en œuvre de la réforme de la formation des enseignants* (<http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid60403/publication-de-rapports-des-inspections-ge-nerales-igen-igaenr.html>), 5-6.

¹⁴ Jolion report (note 10), 8-13.

¹⁵ Cour des Comptes (note 9), 783.

as pedagogical skills are concerned (authority, relations with pupils ...), apart from the ministry advising trainees to use NéoPass@action (a website developed by researchers from the IUFM d'Auvergne together with the INRP) and offering two days' theoretical training at the start of the school year, the only training during the qualifying year it recommends consists of a two-day course in critical analysis of teaching practices and a 9-hour course on pupil heterogeneity (a national priority defined by the code of education promulgated by the ministry). In fact, there is no any competencies framework for teacher training. Therefore, each academy* sets up its own training curriculum. For example, in the académie de Clermont-Ferrand, this was composed of 19 training days during the year, of which 10 days were devoted to classroom management (general pedagogy, authority), 8 days to history didactics, geography and civic education,¹⁶ and one day for ICT (legislation, ethical issues).

Finally, the lack of any consensus due to the lack of any consultation between the actors has made the implementation of the reform even more difficult, and generated a lot of conflicts that have been detrimental to students. This reform has also met with strong opposition from history students and all students in humanities and social sciences, and there has been a reaction against vocational training itself. In 2011, this resulted in a great drop in the number of first-year students for Master's in these subjects and also in strong opposition from teachers, and especially from those who were mentors for classroom training and, thus also in a shortage of mentors. But the situation seems to vary from one académie to another: "we don't have a real understanding of the situation in the schools and, above all, of the number of students affected by this reform."¹⁷ In fact, according to the teacher trainers themselves, the experience of the reform has led to new teachers and trainees paying the price for this reform, with a heavy schedule, a lack of training, conditions which vary according to the school or the mentor,¹⁸ stress at work, and focussing on classroom management at the expense of gaining knowledge despite these new teachers' high motivation.

Glossary

ACADÉMIE: An administrative division of the national education system. There are 30 academies in France. Each academy is under the authority of a Rector, nominated by the Council of Ministers and the President of the Republic. Representative of the Minister of Education, the Rector, implements at the regional level (the academy) the educational policy defined at the national level.

¹⁶ How to prepare a lesson (2 days); competencies in history, geography and civic education ; inductive approach in history and geography ; ICT in history and geography ; using documents in history and geography ; local resources in history.

¹⁷ Jolion report (note 10), 4-13.

¹⁸ The national survey of the DGRH* stresses the point that, due to that lack of tutors, 23% of the students in all disciplines had a tutor who taught in another school (43% in the académie of Paris)

- ATER or “Allocataire-moniteur”: jobs enabling PhD students to do a few hours a week of university teaching whilst completing their PhDs),
- IUFM : Instituts Universitaires de Formation des Maîtres. Institutions of higher education, created in 1991. Since 2005 (law of April), they were gradually integrated into a university, as internal institutes. There are 32 IUFM in France (including overseas), one per académie, they are dedicated to teacher training (for primary, secondary and professional schools).
- AGRÉGATION: The most prestigious degree for a teacher in secondary education. Originally (19th century) teachers with this degree taught in high schools and preparatory classes and were supposed to be doctors. This obligation is no longer required, and the aggregate can teach in any class of secondary school. Unlike the certified, they must teach 15 hours per instead of 18.
- CAPES: National concourse of recruitment for teachers in secondary school and college. The concourse for teachers in vocational school is CAPLP, and for teachers in primary school is the CRPE.
- COUR DES COMPTES: The institution in charge auditing the accounts of public money.
- DGRH: La Direction Nationale des Ressources Humaines (National Directorate of Human Resources) is responsible for the management, planning of recruitment and careers of civil servants from the Ministry of Education.
- ENS: Created by a decree in 1887, originally to train teachers and inspectors for primary school, the École Normale Supérieure (Lyon and Paris) are nowadays prestigious higher education institutions. They train teachers for secondary school (CAPES and Agrégation) and they also devote to research.
- IGEN: Created in 1802, the Inspection Générale de l’Éducation Nationale is an institution placed under the direct authority of the minister of education. The inspectors are in charge of prospective and evaluative missions, and provide advice and proposals to the minister.
- INRP: Institut National de la Recherche Pédagogique. The National Institute of Pedagogical Research was created in 1878. The Institute gradually changed during the twentieth century and became, in 1976, the National Institute for Educational Research (NPRI) which missions are research in educational, documentation in education and life long training for teachers. It was dissolved in 2010 and under the abbreviation IFÉ (French Institute of Education) became an institute inside the ENS in Lyon.
- LICENCE: Bachelor degree. In France, the Bologna system is called LMD, for Licence / master / doctorat (Ph.D).
- LRU: Loi relative aux libertés et responsabilités des universités. This law of August 10th 2007 on “local freedoms and responsibilities of universities” is commonly called the “law of autonomy universities” or “Loi Pécresse”, after the name of the minister. It stipulates that by January 2013 all universities will be self-governed in the matter of budget and human resources, and become owners of their property.
- UFR: Unité de Formation et de Recherche (Training and Research Unit). In 1984 they replaced the old faculties. They involve in training departments and research laboratories and offer training programs in association with fundamental research.

STAGE: A practical training session inside the classroom. Usually students have to perform 3 types of stage: Observation, practice under the supervision of a tutor, and practice with entire responsibility of the pupils. The year of training and probation after the concourse is also called “stage”. Assigned to an academy, they have a service teaching in a school and receive training. They become civil servants if their course is validated.

STAGIAIRE: The student or newly recruited teacher who performs the “stage” is called a “stagiaire”.

Annex 1: The specialty “teaching history and geography”, inside of the master “Territoires et cultures” at the Blaise Pascal University of Clermont-Ferrand (Source: Student guide 2012-2013)

Semester	Titles of the teaching units	Hours / student	ECTS
S1			
UE1	Research seminar n°1	24	5
UE2	Research seminar n°2	24	5
UE4	Initial training on methods of research in history or geography - Training in documentation		20
UE7	<i>Pupils and learning (IUFM)</i> + Stage : observation inside the classroom (2 weeks)	50	5
S2			
UE5	Historical culture (Training for the written test of the concours)	180	10
UE6	Geographical culture (Training for the written test of the concours)	180	10
UE8	- <i>Didactics : Teaching history and geography (IUFM)</i> + Stage : teaching practice with a tutor (2 weeks)	50	5
S3			
UE9	Scientific and disciplinary culture (Intensive training for the written tests of the concours) + Defense of the research report in History or Geography	180	30
S4			
UE10	Disciplinary culture Training for the oral tests of the concours, in history and geography	180	10
UE11	<i>Training for the oral test of the concours :</i> <i>Epistemology and historiography of History, Geography and Civic Education (IUFM)</i>	50	5
UE12 + UE 13	<i>Training for taking over the career (IUFM)</i> + Stage : full responsibility of the classroom (4 weeks)	50	15

	<i>including 4 to 6 hours per week in front of the pupils)</i>		
	<i>Total of hours</i>	912	120

Comments:

The training for research and for the preparation of the concourse is provided by professors of the UFR (Faculty of humanities and social sciences, witch is in charge of the master). The professional training is provided by professors of the IUFM d'Auvergne. But one has to notice that, according to the test of the concourse, the "UE11" is mostly theoretical and not a real professional training.

This training (in italics: 150 h without the stages) represents approximately 25% of the total of hours of training at university. Including the "stages" it represents approximately 1/3 of the total of the training.

The total hours also include the hours in the classroom or with the tutor in the school, together with hours of tutoring by the supervisor of the research.

A week = 18 hours of teaching for a teacher in charge, not including of course the preparation of the lessons and others tasks. When in stage, usually the students have to perform half of this teaching.

2.

History Teacher Education in Europe

Hisory-Teacher Education and History Education in Turkey

Ismail H. Demircioglu

The purpose of this study is to describe history teacher education and history education in Turkish society. With this in mind, history education and history teacher education will be explained from a historical perspective.

1. Significance of History in Turkish Society

The history of history education in public schools in Turkish society goes back to the 19th century. In 1869, Sultan declared an educational act which required that history be taught as a school subject in primary and secondary schools throughout the Ottoman Empire.¹ At this time the content of history courses was based mainly on the history of Islam in this period because the Ottoman Sultan, Abdulhamit (1876-1909), was following an Islamic policy and also wanted to gather all Muslims under one flag as a Caliphate. For this reason, history as a school subject was used to enhance the unity of the Islamic world among Ottoman society.

The Ottoman Empire faced significant problems during the second period of the 19th century due to military defeats that led to the loss of territories. This meant that the Muslim population of the Empire who used to live outside Anatolia, especially Muslims in the Balkans and Caucasus, became immigrants and moved to Anatolia, which was the main territory of the Empire. Beside this, the Ottoman Empire lost the great majority of its territories in the Balkans after the Balkan Wars at the beginning of the 20th century, and many civilian Muslim Turks were killed. All these developments were a shock to Turkish society, which emerged with a new ideology – ‘Turkism’ – which affected the purpose and content of history education in Turkish society. The purposes and content of history education were reshaped in the light of nationalist history, especially in 1914. Beside this, topics regarding general history and civilization were introduced into the history curriculum in this year.²

Certain events strengthened nationalist history education, which took place during and after World War I. First of all, the main cities of Turkey were occupied by British, French, Italian, Russian and Greek troops, and many civilians were killed by non-Muslim armed bands. Secondly, Turks started the War of Independence in 1919, and in this period nationalism increased in Turkish society.³ In this war

¹ Tuncay, Mete, *Ilk ve Ortaöğretimde Tarih, Felsefe Kurumu Seminerleri* (Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu Basimevi).

² Öztürk, Cemil and Ali Yılmaz, “Türkiye’de Harf İnkilâbindan Önce Kullanılan İlkokul Tarih Programları ve Ders Kitapları”, *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Bilimleri* 2 (2001): 408-427.

³ Copeaux, Etienne, *Tarih Ders Kitaplarında (1931-1993) Türk Tarih Tezinden Türk ?slam Sentezine* (Istanbul: Tarih Yurt Vakfi Yay, 1998)

Turkish society was successful under the leadership of Kemal Ataturk, who was the founder of the Turkish Republic, a new state built on the ashes of the Ottoman Empire in 1923.

2. History Education in the Era of Ataturk (1923-1938)

Kemal Ataturk wanted to set up a strong, modern and secular nation-state, and he believed that history was one of the important instruments in creating it. For this reason, history education and historiography were seen as tools for transmitting Turkish identity and nationalist ideas among Turkish society, and so were a major focus of Ataturk's era.⁴ The other reasons why history education and historiography were given great attention by Ataturk can be listed as follows:⁵

- Some European historians had an unscientific knowledge of, and were biased in their views about, Turkish history. For this reason, it was believed that Turkish history should be researched scientifically.
- Following from the above: some European history textbooks consisted of unscientific knowledge of, and biases about, Turks.
- Some history textbooks being used in the Ottoman education system were translations of European history textbooks.
- There was not enough research on Turkish history, especially pre-Ottoman history.
- Negative attitudes towards Turks in Europe were supposed to be eliminated by historical research.
- The contribution of Turks to world civilization was supposed to be researched historically.
- The history of Turks in Anatolia was supposed to be brought to light by historical research.

All the mentioned factors, which emerged in a Turkish history thesis written during the 1930s, showed why history and history education were important to Kemal Ataturk. According to the thesis, Turkey was one of the most important nations in the world and contributed significantly to world civilization. Furthermore, it was believed that the history of the Turks should be researched as far back as the establishment of the first Turkish state in central Asia, which was the first homeland of the Turks. Furthermore, Turkish historians should indicate that the Turks established one of the greatest and oldest civilizations.

History textbooks were also given attention in the 1920s in the Turkish Republic. New history textbooks were written by Fuat Koprulu, who was one of the most famous Turkish historians, and who promoted a Turkish history thesis in the light

⁴ Enver Ziya Karal, *Tanzimat'tan Bugüne Tarihçilğimiz, Felsefe Kurumu Seminerleri* (Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu Basimevi, 1977).

⁵ Ali Ihsan Gencer and Sebahattin Özel, *Türk İnkılap Tarihi* (Istanbul: Der Yay, 1991).

of the nationalist idea in the early 1920s.⁶ According to this textbook-authors, history textbooks prepared before 1923 contained some scientific mistakes, and did not transmit national values to students.

The pace at which activities regarding history textbook writing and creating a national history developed in Turkey accelerated after 1928. In this year, Ataturk got information about a geography textbook, wherein Turks were mentioned as a second-class peoples when compared with Europeans. He required historians to review all history textbooks used in the Turkish education system and to write new ones, dedicated by the thesis of Turkish history. Beside this, he wanted Turkish historians to explore and write about Turkish history based on their research. Responding to Ataturk's instructions, Turkish historians examined Turkish history and wrote new history textbooks, which arose the emergence of a Turkish history thesis in 1930. This Turkish history thesis was one of the important elements contributing to a national identity in Turkish society. And another important step was taken in 1931, when the Turkish History Society was established, and given the role of organizing and encouraging historical research and studies of history education.

3. History Education in Turkey after 1938

There were important changes made to history education after Ataturk died in 1938.⁷ As mentioned earlier, history education had been based on Turkish nationalism during the Ataturk era; after 1938, the ideology of history education changed and a humanistic approach was implemented in this field. As a consequence, the content of history education changed, and topics regarding the history of Greeks and Romans were included in the Turkish history curriculum. This development was criticized by conservative parts of Turkish society.

History education was further questioned after World War II, and the main criticism was that history education was not pragmatic and did not provide skills that students could use in their daily lives. For example, the field was thought not to teach problem-solving and critical-thinking skills to students. As a result of this, some research on what kinds of skills history education should provide was carried out, especially in England, leading to the emergence of new skills which students could use. These studies affected Turkey, and the history curriculum was renewed in 1970.⁸ The new history curriculum was based on a problem-solving approach. Nevertheless, the majority of history teachers did not implement this curriculum, and taught history in a traditional way.

⁶ Mesut Çapa, Mesut, "Cumhuriyetin İlk Yıllarında Tarih Öğretimi", *Türk İnkılap Tarihi Enstitüsü Dergisi* 15 (2002): 39-55.

⁷ İsmail Hakki Demircioğlu, "Türkiye'de Tarih Eğitiminin Tarihi", *Türkiye Araştırmaları Literatür Dergisi* 6 (2008) 12: 431-450.

⁸ Mustafa Safran, "Tarih Öğretimi ve Meseleleri", *Türkler Ansiklopedisi* 17 (2002): 935-941

In 1980, a military coup affected history education in schools. In this time, and especially in the upper grades of primary schools, history lessons were called ‘national history’, and history teachers were asked to teach history from a nationalist viewpoint.⁹ This situation continued until 1998, when national history lessons were abolished in schools. Social studies lessons have been in service instead of national history lessons in the upper levels of primary schools since 1998.

History education as a separate subject was not given attention in Turkey until the 1990s. According to some academic historians, the attitude was that if someone knows history well, then he or she can teach history in schools. Beyond this, these historians did not have enough information about what history education is, and how to teach history lessons in an active way.

Another deficiency in history education was a lack of research on history classrooms: there was not enough research on history education in schools until the 1990s. Most literature on this field was translated from other languages. The first important meeting about history education in Turkey was held by the Philosophy Society in 1977, and was a turning point for this field. It is interesting that the conference was held by the Philosophy Society, and not the Turkish History Society. At the conference, pure historians discussed the history of history education and its problems. Although important issues were discussed, however, the findings of this conference were not translated into the Turkish education system.

Turkish history textbooks were on the agenda of some Turkish historians in the early 1990s. A conference focused on history textbooks was held by Dokuz Eylul University in 1994 in Izmir. Important issues were discussed, and papers regarding history education and history textbooks presented at this conference made history education meaningful in the eyes of professional historians and society. This conference also accelerated research on history education in Turkey. Although some important developments did take place in the field of history education in the 1990s, then, there were not enough researchers who knew how to conduct educational research and solve the problems of history education in schools.

The lack of researchers who knew how to conduct educational research in their field (such as history education, geography education and literature education) came onto the agenda of the Turkish Higher Education Council. In order to create experts on educational research in diverse fields, some research assistants in education faculties were sent to the UK, France and the USA for master’s and PhD studies.

These research assistants completed their studies during the late 1990s and early 2000s. They returned to their universities in the early 2000s, and went on to make important contributions to history education. These researchers conducted research on different aspects of history education in Turkey. An important body of literature therefore came into being in this field in Turkey; academics and postgraduate students presented their research conclusions to solve the problems of history education in Turkish universities. The results of these studies were crucial in increasing

⁹ Demircioglu (note 7), 431-435.

the quality of history education in Turkey. At this point, however, it should be noted some of these studies have methodological problems.

History is a compulsory subject in Turkish high schools. For this reason, history teachers are still important figures in transmitting the knowledge of the past and of Turkish culture in the eyes of the majority of society in Turkey. The history teacher education system will be explained in the following section.

4. History Teacher Education System in Turkey

Although the origins of teacher education are reputed to go back to the reign of Sultan Mehmet (1432-1481), there are not enough reliable resources to confirm this claim.¹⁰ Reliable historical sources concerning teacher education date back only to the mid-19th century in Turkish society.¹¹ After the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, a new state, the Turkish Republic, was set up, and teachers – especially history teachers – were seen one of the most influential groups of people for creating a modern, secularized nation-state.¹² For this reason, until the early 1980s a variety of teacher education institutions were set up to produce qualified teachers. Almost all teacher education institutions were governed and organized by the Ministry of Education.

The military coup in 1980 in Turkey affected the teacher education system. According to the military, the teacher education system was far from satisfactory because of the poor quality of traditional teacher education programs and teacher educators. This led to the establishment of separate, autonomous schools of education located within universities.¹³ In other words, all teacher education institutions became education faculties under the control of universities.

Although important decisions regarding the teacher education system were taken in the 1980s and early 1990s, the teacher education system still faced problems. In Turkey, all teacher education, both at primary and secondary levels, is embedded in university programs. All history teacher education programs from 1982 to 1998 were conducted by history teacher education departments in education faculties. If we examine the curriculum of these history teacher education departments from 1982 to 1998, it appears that the great majority of courses were on history, and history teacher candidates were being educated like historians. Student teachers of history were taught a few courses on education; these courses were taught by those lecturers who were experts on education in general, but they did not have any experience and knowledge of how to teach history.

¹⁰ Ismail Hakki Demircioglu, *Educating History Teachers in Turkey and England: A Comparative Study* (Saarbrücken: VDM-Verlag, 2010).

¹¹ Abraham Ethem Başaran, *Eğitime Giriş* (Ankara: Sevinç Matbaası: 1994).

¹² Demircioglu (note 10), 10-18.

¹³ Ismail H. Demircioglu, "History-Teacher Education in Turkey: Status and Issues", in *The Professional Teaching of History: UK and Dutch Perspectives*, ed. Alan McCullay, Garry Mills and Carla van Boxtel (Ireland: University of Ulster Press; 2012), 159-168.

The curricula and the structures of education faculties were changed in 1998 to increase the quality of teacher education. Another main reason for this reform was to adopt developments in teacher education that had taken place throughout the world and within the European Union. The curricula of teacher education programs called non-thesis master's programs were divided into three main parts, and in the new system, teacher candidates were required to take courses in three different areas: pedagogy, knowledge of subject and knowledge of general culture. During this period, three different programs were designed to educate history teacher-students. First, history teacher-students were given comprehensive courses on the three main areas in education faculties over a five-year span. History teacher-students were given a non-thesis master degree at the end of these five years. Second, history teacher-students were required to spend 3.5 years in the history departments of arts faculties and take courses in the knowledge of their subject and general culture, and they were asked to take a pedagogy course in the history teacher education department within 1.5 years. The third form of non-thesis master's program took 5.5 years. Those students who graduated from the history departments of arts faculties, whose courses took 4 years, had the chance of enrolling in 1.5-years long, non-thesis master's programs in history in education faculties. Beside this, undergraduates of archeology, history of art or political science programs were also given the right to enter 5.5-years long, non-thesis history teacher education programs.¹⁴

The majority of the staff of history teacher education departments showed a negative reaction to this change, because they were pure historians and studying only history and did not have experience and knowledge how to teach history. Beside this, pure historians history departments of art faculties criticized this reform, too, because they think that historical knowledge is essential in history education and history teacher-students do not need extra information.

1998 reform on teacher education affected teaching staff in history teacher education departments. Turkish Higher Education Council required this staff to study history education rather than history. According to Turkish Higher Education Council, staff of education faculties should carry out research on how to teach in their field. This situation was criticized by pure historians because they believed that someone who knew history well, taught history well, which is a debatable issue in Turkey.

History teacher-students could gain qualified teacher status through non-thesis, history teacher education programs from 1998 to 2010, and were given education through both faculty- and school-based studies. The courses that history teacher candidates were given in education faculties dealt with pedagogy and teaching history. There were different courses about pedagogy and school experience, and the curriculum organization of history teacher education departments (cf. appendix 1). Non-thesis history master's courses during this period required history teacher-students to spend more time teaching in practice schools under the guidance of expert history teachers than before 1998. There were two main courses focused on in-

¹⁴ Ibid., 163.

service training in teaching practice schools. The first course was on teaching experience, and history teacher-students were required to observe teaching activities, teaching, teachers, pupils and management of the school environment in teaching practice schools. Preparing a critical diary based on teacher-students observation was one of the important activities in this process. The other course was known as teaching practice, and required history teacher-students to engage in teaching activities and teaching history lessons in teaching practice schools, under the guidance of experienced history teachers. History teacher-students were also asked to prepare teaching materials and conduct different activities, such as work sheets, drama, historical empathy and problem-solving for history lessons in teaching practice schools. In addition, one of the main responsibilities of history teacher-students was teaching history lessons for at least six hours per week. History teacher-students were observed by experienced history teachers and their teaching-practice colleagues during this period. Furthermore, mentors from education faculties also observed history teacher-students and gave feedback as part of the process. History teacher-students were expected to develop teaching capabilities, and recognize the problems they encountered in teaching history lessons. The teachers also advised students how to overcome their limitations by learning from experienced history teachers and mentors from education faculties.

Educational research indicates that the quality of history teacher education in many history teacher education departments transmitting non-thesis history master's courses increased from 1998 to 2010¹⁵ because history teacher-students were given an intense education carried out in both faculties and teaching-practice schools. Throughout this period, the staff of history departments in arts faculties had criticized history teacher education programs in education faculties. According to these historians, the quality of students who entered history departments had been decreasing, because their students were not allowed to be history teachers. Furthermore, numbers of unemployed arts-faculty graduates increased day by day, which created a pressure on society. This got the particular attention of politicians, and the Turkish Higher Education Council closed non-thesis master's programs in 2010.

5. A New Era of History Teaching in Turkey

A new era for history teacher education began in 2010, when non-thesis master's programs were closed by the Higher Education Council, replaced by pedagogy programs lasting one year designed to educate all secondary school teacher candidates. This new program consisted of two semesters offering two options for educating history teacher-students. In the first option, history graduates from arts faculties were given the opportunity to enroll for one year's pedagogy education in education faculties. In the second option, students in history departments in the

¹⁵ Ismail H. Demircioglu, "Eğitim Fakültelerindeki Yeni Gelişmelerin Tarih Uygulama Öğretmenlerine Yansıtılabilirliği Üzerine Bir Çalışma", *Çağdaş Eğitim* 319 (2005): 20-28.

third and fourth years of their degree were given the right to attend pedagogy courses, mainly organized by education faculties. Some arts faculties have also been allowed to organize pedagogy courses in certain universities. In this case, pure historians who do not have any education in pedagogy or how to teach history offer these courses in arts faculties. The recent changes in teacher education have been criticized by academics studying history education in education faculties; according to them, teachers should be educated in education faculties because pure historians in arts faculties do not have the necessary experience and education in teacher education. This debate is still a very pressing issue among academics in Turkey.

The pedagogy program for history teachers runs for two semesters, and the courses in this program (cf. appendix 2). As can be seen, the great majority of courses in the non-thesis master's program and pedagogy program are the same. History teacher candidates, like the candidates of other subjects, have to pass a national exam, the Public Sector Personnel Qualifying Examination (KPSS), in order to become history teachers in secondary schools in Turkey. If a history teacher candidate does not pass this exam, he or she has no chance to teach in public sector. For this reason, many graduate history teacher candidates follow a profession outside the public sector.

6. Position of History in Schools

In Turkey, all schools – including pre-school, primary and secondary – are under the control of the Ministry of Education, and all decisions regarding education are taken by the ministry. History as a separate subject is compulsory at secondary level education. Secondary school education includes subjects of a general or vocational and technical character, with a duration of at least four years following primary education.¹⁶

History has been one of the most important subjects in Turkish secondary schools since the establishment of the Turkish Republic. As mentioned above, it was seen as a crucial subject in the construction of a modern, national and secular Turkish state. In other words, it was used for nation building. Today, history is a part of the core curriculum at all secondary schools, and is only taught at secondary level. There are no history lessons in lower and upper primary schools; at these levels, history – especially the history of the Turks – is taught as part of social-studies courses.

There was an important change in history education and the other core curriculum subjects in the last decade. The purpose of this curriculum reform was to renew the curriculum at primary and secondary levels in Turkey. The rationale behind the change was to integrate the developments in education that were taking place in the modern world. Before the recent changes, history education in Turkish secondary

¹⁶ MEB 2011. “Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri: Örgün Eğitim”, *Giriş Tarihi* 30 (Temmuz 2012) (http://sgb.meb.gov.tr/istatistik/meb_istatistikleri_organ_egitim_2010_2011.pdf).

schools was criticized because, according to some scholars, these courses required students to learn names, dates and events. Thus, it was claimed that history courses were based on memorization, and did not promote higher-order thinking. This was seen as an obstacle to Turkish society becoming a part of the modern world. There was also pressure from the European Union for Turkey to reform education and other fields. All these factors led to changes in history education and the other subjects that were components of education in Turkey.

History and the other curriculum subjects were re-designed in the light of the constructivist approach, which requires teachers and schools to create an active learning environment. Four new history curricula, including those at 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grades, based on student-centered learning, were prepared from 2007 to 2010.¹⁷ According to the new approach, students were encouraged to construct new insights based on their previous learning and experience. The idea was that they should be given the opportunity to learn by themselves and be provided with a rich learning environment. In history lessons in particular, students are expected to use primary and secondary sources, letters, photographs and different versions of a given historical event. In sum, history courses have been given new roles in educating problem-solving, creative, efficient and productive students based on new history curricula. Yet, although the new history curricula are better than the previous ones, there are no significant differences between the two in terms of contents and aims.

History lessons are taught for two hours per week in the 9th, 10th and 11th grades in Turkish high schools, and four hours per week in the 12th grades. Turkish history curricula (from 9th to 12th grades) give information about a broad time-period, extending from prehistoric times to the present. The content of history curricula from 9th to 12th grades are as follows:

9th Grade History Curriculum:¹⁸

- The Science of History
- The Birth of Civilization and the First Civilizations
- The First Turkish States
- Islamic History and Civilization (until 13th Century)
- The History of Muslim Turkish States (from 10th to 13th Centuries)
- The History of Turkey (from 11th to 13th Centuries)

10th Grade History Curriculum:¹⁹

- From Principality to State (1300-1453)
- World Power: Ottoman Empire (1453-1600)

¹⁷ Ibrahim Hakki Öztürk, "Curriculum Reform and Teacher Autonomy in Turkey: The Case of the History Teaching", *International Journal of Instruction* 4 (2011) 2: 113-128.

¹⁸ MEB 2012. "9th Grade History Curriculum", *Girş Tarihi* 30 Temmuz 2012) (<http://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/program.aspx>).

¹⁹ MEB 2012. "10th Grade History Curriculum", *Girş Tarihi* 30 Temmuz (<http://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/program.aspx>).

- Years of Reduction in Power (17th Century)
- Diplomacy and Change (18th Century)
- The Longest Century (1800-1922)

11th Grade History Curriculum:²⁰

- Mustafa Kemal from 1881 to 1919
- Preparation Period for the War of Independence
- The War Fronts in the War of Independence
- The Turkish Revolution
- Kemalism and the Principle of Ataturk
- Foreign Policy in the Ataturk Era
- Death of Ataturk

12th Grade History Curriculum:²¹

- The World in the Early 20th Century
- World War II
- Cold War Period
- The Period of Detente and the Year Following Detente
- World Globalization

As can be seen from their content, the Turkish history curricula are mainly devoted to Turkish history, although some turning points in world history are also represented.

The second step of the reform process was to renew history textbooks in light of the new history curricula, and 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th grade history textbooks were revised during this period. New history textbooks consist of more pictures and activities when compared with previous history textbooks. At this point it should be noted that, although new Turkish history textbooks are better than the previous, they have still some deficiencies. In particular, some of the pictures in the textbooks are not clear, and some of them are not directly related to the content of the textbooks.²² Beside this, history textbooks are written from a male-dominant perspective and women and children are not represented adequately.

7. History as an Academic Subject in Universities

In Turkey, history as an academic and scientific subject is being taught in the history departments of the arts faculties, which are called humanities faculties in some countries (such as the UK). The first history department was set up in 1936 in An-

²⁰ MEB 2012. "11th Grade History Curriculum", *Giriş Tarihi* 30 Temmuz (<http://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/program.aspx>).

²¹ MEB 2012. "12th Grade History Curriculum", *Giriş Tarihi* 30 Temmuz. (<http://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/program.aspx>).

²² Ebru Demircioglu, *Tarih Öğretmenlerinin Dokuzuncu Sınıf Tarih Ders Kitabındaki Görseller Hakkındaki Görüşler*, MEd diss., Karadeniz Technical University, 2011.

kara as part of the Faculty of Language, History and Geography. History departments had been given the role of bringing out and writing Turkish history in Atatürk's era, and they continued this role after Atatürk. The departments were also given another role, supporting the national state, until the end of the 1980s.

The number of history departments is around 160 in Turkey, and history is now being taught as a scientific subject. The main purpose of history departments is to educate students as scientists of history. In other words, students are expected to learn history and the skills of historians in these departments. Although it is difficult for graduates of history to find a job, history is one of the most popular subjects for those students who want to study in a social-science field.

History departments in Turkish universities have various curricula, and offer different courses varying from ancient history to modern history. For example, there are courses on Ancient Greece, the Roman period, early Turkish history, the history of the Seljuk Turks, the Ottoman Empire, the Turkish Republic period, Ottoman writing and history research methods. Courses about Europe and the modern world are also taught in history departments. Furthermore, the Arabic and Persian languages can be seen in certain courses in some departments. If the curricula of history departments are examined, it would seem that the great majority are devoted to Ottoman and other aspects of Turkish history. In other words, students in history departments are mainly expected to learn Turkish history. The Middle East Technical University undergraduate history department curriculum is one example (cf. appendix 3). At this point, it should be noted that this department has a good reputation, with a strong tradition and facilities as a history department in Turkey.

It is a common belief that history departments educate students to be historians in Turkey. The majority of history departments in Turkey also offer postgraduate education (MA and PhD in history). Although many students graduate from history departments every year, these students cannot find a job easily. As mentioned above, this creates pressure on the public to allow them the right to enrol in pedagogy programs.

All history teacher education departments in education faculties offered history courses before the 1998 reform of teacher education. When the curricula of history teacher education departments before 1998 are examined, it is clear that the great majority were specific history courses, like those in the history departments in arts faculties. Student teachers were not taught how to teach history, but were just given some courses in general education. It can be said that history teacher candidates were educated like historians. As mentioned above, after 1998 the curricula and structures of education faculties were changed, and a great majority of history teacher education departments offered courses in education and how to teach history. Only a few history teacher education departments in education faculties have continued to teach courses in both history and education. These departments teach both history and pedagogy courses.

8. Conclusion

History and history education have been the focus of much attention in Turkish society since the early years of the 20th century. Turkish society faced many problems in the early years of the 19th century, and the Ottoman Empire lost a significant portion of its territories during World War I. People suffered and were in trauma during this period, in which Turkish nationalism emerged. Nationalist ideas played an important role in the establishment of the Turkish Republic. History and history teaching were seen as the key in constructing nationalist ideas and the nation-state during this period. In other words, history and history teacher education have been examined since the establishment of the Turkish Republic in 1923. Especially in the period of Ataturk (1923-1938), history was an important social-science subject in the eyes of those who ruled the country. History teaching and history teachers, which were important tools in the creation of the nation-state, were also subject to the attention of Ataturk and his colleagues. History and history teaching remained on the agenda of Turkish society after Ataturk, and history teachers and history lessons were expected to transmit nationalist ideas to Turkish children until the late-1990s.

In Turkey, modern teacher education has a strong tradition, dating back to the mid-19th century. 1982 was a turning point for teacher education, and separate and autonomous education faculties were set up within the universities because of the poor quality of traditional teacher education programs and teacher educators. History teacher education departments became a part of education faculties, and all history teacher education programs from 1982 to 2010 were conducted by history teacher education departments in education faculties. If we consider the curricula of history teacher education departments from 1982 to 1998, it appears that the great majority of courses were about history, and history teacher candidates were being educated like historians. History teacher-students were taught few courses in education, and these courses were taught by lecturers who were experts in education in general, but who did not have any experience and knowledge in how to teach history.

Curricula and the structures of education faculties were changed in 1998 in order to increase the quality of teacher education. Another main reason for this reform was to incorporate developments in teacher education that were taking place across the world, and especially in the European Union. After 1998, history teacher education departments were converted into non-thesis master's programs. Teacher-Students were given new courses in pedagogy during this period, and the new structures of education faculties required student teachers to spend more time in schools for teaching practice.

There was a further change in teacher education in 2010, when the Turkish Higher Education Council closed non-thesis master's programs and launched a pedagogy program for teacher education. This new program consists of two semesters, offering two options for educating history teacher-students. In the first option, history graduates from arts faculties were given the right to enroll in one year pedagogy

courses in education faculties. In the second option, students in history departments in their third and fourth years were allowed to attend pedagogy courses, mainly organized by education faculties. Teacher educators have since criticized the pedagogy program, claiming that there has been a decline in the quality of history teacher education.²³

²³ All websites quoted in this article were last accessed on: Sept. 3rd, 2012.

Appendix 1: Curriculum Organization of non-thesis history teacher education courses from 1998 to 2010

The courses that are offered during each semester of the history teacher education program are as follows.

(T): Weekly Theoretical Course Hours

(P): Weekly Practical Course Hours

(C): Weekly Credit Hours

First Semester

Course Name	T	P	C
Introduction to the Teaching Profession	3	0	3
Development and Learning	3	0	3
Planning and Assessment in Teaching	3	2	4
Special Teaching Methods I	2	2	3
School Experience I	1	4	3

Second Semester

Course Name	T	P	C
Educational Technology and Materials Development	2	2	3
Classroom Management	2	2	3
Special Teaching Methods II	2	2	3
School Experience II	1	4	3
Elective I	3	0	3

Third Semester

Course Name	T	P	C
Subject Area Textbook Review	2	2	3
Guidance	3	0	3
Teaching Practice	2	6	5
Elective II	3	0	3

Appendix 2: Curriculum Organization of Pedagogy Program 2010

The courses that are offered during each semester of the history teacher pedagogy program are as follows.

(T): Weekly Theoretical Course Hours

(P): Weekly Practical Course Hours

(C): Weekly Credit Hours

First Semester

Course Name	T	P	C
Introduction to the Educational Science	2	0	2
Developmental Psychology	2	0	2
Theories and Approaches to Learning and Teaching	2	0	2
Program Development and Teaching	2	0	2
Measurement and Evaluation in Education	2	0	2
Classroom Management	2	0	2

Second Semester

Course Name	T	P	C
Educational Technology and Materials Development	2	2	3
Special Teaching Methods II	3	2	4
Guidance	2	0	3
School Experience II	2	6	5

Appendix 3: Undergraduate Curriculum of History Department of Middle East Technical University

First Year

First Semester

Course Code	Course Name	Metu Credit	Contact (H/W)	Lab (H/W)	Ects
Hist101	Classical Civilization of Greece & Rome I	3	3	0	6.0
Hist107	Ottoman Turkish I	3	3	0	6.0
Hist113	Readings in History I	3	3	0	6.0
Hist151	History of Eastern And Western Civilizations I	3	3	0	6.0
Eng101	English For Academic Purposes I	4	4	0	6.0
Any 1 of the Following Set ..					
Turk101	Turkish I	0	2	0	2.0
Turk105	Turkish I	0	2	0	2.0
Turk201	Elementary Turkish	0	4	0	2.0

Second Semester

Course Code	Course Name	Metu Credit	Contact (H/W)	Lab (H/W)	Ects
Hist102	Classical Civilization of Greece & Rome II	3	3	0	6.0
Hist108	Ottoman Turkish II	3	3	0	6.0
Hist114	Readings In History II	3	3	0	6.0
Hist152	History of Eastern and Western Civilizations II	3	3	0	6.0
Eng102	English For Academic Purposes II	4	4	0	6.0
Is100	Introduction to Information Technologies and Applications	0	2	0	1.0
Any 1 of the Following Set ..					
Turk102	Turkish II	0	2	0	2.0
Turk106	Turkish II	0	2	0	2.0
Turk202	Intermediate Turkish	0	4	0	2.0

Second Year

Third Semester

Course Code	Course Name	Metu Credit	Contact (H/W)	Lab (H/W)	Ects
Hist207	Ottoman Paleography & Diplomatic I	4	4	0	7.0
Hist231	The Rise of the Ottoman Empire	3	3	0	6.0
Eng211	Academic Oral Presentation Skills	3	3	0	4.0

Any 1 of the Following Set ..					
Hist2201	Principles of Kemal Ataturk I	0	2	0	2.0
Hist2205	History of The Turkish Revolution I	0	2	0	2.0

Fourth Semester

Course Code	Course Name	Metu Credit	Contact (H/W)	Lab (H/W)	Ects
Hist208	Ottoman Paleography & Diplomatic II	4	4	0	7.0
Hist224	Medieval European History	3	3	0	6.0
Hist232	The Decline Of The Ottoman Empire	3	3	0	6.0

Any 1 of The Following Set ..

Hist2202	Principles of Kemal Ataturk II	0	2	0	2.0
Hist2206	History of the Turkish Revolution II	0	2	0	2.0

Third Year**Fifth Semester**

Course Code	Course Name	Metu Credit	Contact (H/W)	Lab (H/W)	Ects
Hist307	Methodology in History I	3	3	0	6.0
Hist321	Modern European History	3	3	0	6.0
Hist331	Ottoman Modernization I	3	3	0	6.0

Sixth Semester

Course Code	Course Name	Metu Credit	Contact (H/W)	Lab (H/W)	Ects
Hist308	Methodology in History II	3	3	0	6.0
Hist332	Ottoman Modernization II	3	3	0	6.0
Eng311	Advanced Communication Skills	3	3	0	4.0

Forth Year**Seventh Semester**

Course Code	Course Name	Metu Credit	Contact (H/W)	Lab (H/W)	Ects
Hist401	Readings In The History of The Turkish Revolution I	3	3	0	6.0
Hist407	Contemporary World History I	3	3	0	6.0

Eighth Semester

Course Code	Course Name	Metu Credit	Contact (H/W)	Lab (H/W)	Ects
Hist402	Readings in The History of The Turkish Revolution II	3	3	0	6.0
Hist408	Contemporary World History II	3	3	0	6.0

H/W = Hours Per Week

History Teacher Education in Russia

Alexander S. Khodnev

1. Significance of History in the Russian Society

The post Cold War world had to deal with many problems. The challenges of globalization are connected with new economic, cultural and educational context. Many societies entered a period of rearranging the education systems trying to adapt them to new goals and values. For many reasons, this situation in Russia reached the critical and even sharp form as the country has changed essentially. The Soviet Union (USSR) after 1991 became the Russian Federation. This fact means that both elder and younger generations of the country had to search for a new identity. The situation demanded to apply a new system of values connected with the best national tradition as well as universal humanistic practice. The both latter were a great turn from the communist goals in education in the previous period.

Russian society has been going through a long cycle of political, economic and socio-cultural reforms since 1985. The main trend of these modifications in general is clear – the modernization of Russian society and the state in spite of the periods of harsh struggle between different political forces that either supported the transformation or opposed it.

All these processes cannot be but linked with the sphere of education and upbringing. And the historical education as ideology and viewpoint of learning became a part of a complicated process of social reforms. This means that many difficulties of history in contemporary Russia are stipulated by the uncompleted social and political reforms. And at the same time the accomplishment of social reforms and modernization in the society depends on the successive educational policy.

In the Soviet period, the significance of history in the society was substantiated by the fact that the USSR and especially the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU) had their own history to be studied and taught as a compulsory subject in all educational institutions. The Soviet state established a pretty totalitarian system of supervision of this part of education. The history of the CPSU was the main ideological course in the educational curriculum. In comparison with other history departments the professors and lecturers of the departments of the CPSU history had to teach a lesser amount of classes in order to have more time for “scientific research” in the “history science number one”. All lecturers of CPSU history department were Communist Party members and they were validated in their positions at Universities by the special decisions of local Communist Party Committees. Beside this the history of the USSR, which is Russian history since 1917 was the key portion of school and university curricula. The school graduates also had to pass this part of history as an admission exam to the university. As a result, the ac-

ceptance of history in the society during the Soviet time was dictated by the state from above. It was a complete officialdom of history.

However the tutorial curriculum of history teachers training did not have only the courses of the USSR and CPSU history. There were also big programmes of the history of Russia, ancient and medieval history as well as modern and contemporary world history. The students studied general didactic courses as well as history didactics. In general these courses and the practice at schools were larger at the pedagogical institutes than at the history departments of classical universities.

The teaching of history in the Soviet time was a part of a big propagandistic work intended to bring up younger generation according to the official ideology of Marxism-Leninism. The history was seen as one of the main criteria of trustworthiness of this ideology. It is not a surprise that history as an occupation was considered pretty high in the society primarily among the people who thought of some social lift and even bureaucracy career. This fact partly explains high competition to enter prestigious history faculties of Moscow State and Leningrad State Universities. At the same time working at a secondary school as a teacher was not estimated as a big success. Moreover the Soviet state needed universities as the main producer of cadres for the industry and the state machinery. The Soviet regime did not invest considerably in the extensive development of humanities. For this reason it always preferred to support specialized technical schools rather than classical universities¹ and pedagogical institutes with their departments of history.

The Soviet system of history acceptance in the society began to erode since 1987 during Mikhail Gorbachev's "*Glasnost*" and "*Perestroika*" policy. History became particularly popular in the society at the end of 1980s. The public interest was very high because the popular Russian periodicals revealed so called "white spots in history". Several ones were very sensitive for most of Russians topics connected for instance with Joseph Stalin's time, e.g. the great purges of the 1930s, e.g. the casualties of World War II and many others. The circulation of the "*thick journals*" ("*toslye zhurnaly*") that published history texts and the weekly "*Ogoniok*" were raising by about 20 million each year and in 1988 they were 65 million higher than in 1985. The periodical "*Rodina*" (*Motherland*) that had published its first number in 1989 became a best-seller and in one year, in 1990, it had already a 450 thousand-strong readership.²

History became an important part of collective representations that helped to forge new socio-cultural identities. As a consequence of history revision they created new symbols of identities. The liberal reformers of the end of 1980s and the beginning of 1990s would speak and write about the "unpredictable Russian past". The communists began to talk about "the picturing of the Soviet past in black paints".³

The socio-cultural context of the interest in history had changed dramatically with the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the beginning of market reforms in 1990s.

¹ Andrei Kortunov, "Russian Higher Education", *Social Research* 76 (2009): 203-224, here 205.

² Bondarev, V. "Press svobody i svoboda pressy", *Rodina* 7 (2007):14.

³ Boris Dubin, *Zhit' v Rossii na rubezhe stoletii*, (Moskva, Press-Traditsiya, 2007): 297.

The role of history in the system of education had to change too. Russian society has entered reforms of 1990s without finishing the process of perception and assessment of its own past. In the end of 1980s it was announced that history examinations would be suspended, until the issue of new textbooks. A variety of textbooks appeared, but opinions in Russia remained polarized.

The sociologist Boris Dubin explains that the Russian society made its way in 1990-2000 from “communist fragmentation” to a “regime of isolation”.⁴ The Russian society was late to get acquainted with the – well-known in the West – processes of Modernity. The Russians did not participate in any discussions or reflections on these topics. In the Soviet time only few Russians could read these texts in the special reading rooms under a special permission in the central library located in Moscow. It is no surprise that in 1990-2000 Russians, after getting some knowledge of the democratic ideology, began to revive elements of old ideas.

In 1992 former politbureau of the CPSU member Aleksandr Yakovlev, who was a political advisor of Mikhail Gorbachev and an architect of “*Perestroika*”, launched the slogan “*Return to history*”. He expressed the widespread feeling created in the previous years that the Soviet period had not been a real history and that in search of their true identity Russians would do well to return their authentic national traditions that existed prior to 1917.⁵ As a result it seemed that the prevailing idea in the beginning of 1990s assumed that the state has no need to get involved in the process of history education. Professor Mark von Hagen recalled about the meeting in the Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation in spring 1993 that the Russian official explained the model of new history texts: “We will get rid of all extremities of our history and there will be more attention to the harmonized description of Russian Past.” According to the official the main method of accomplishment of this target was the cutting down the 20th Century Russian history with its class struggle, revolutions and the Soviet period and expanding the history of 19th Century Russia with its high culture and religion. The intention of this was to integrate Russian history into European history and to reduce the Russia’s role that was dominant in the late Soviet Union history texts. It is no surprise that Mark von Hagen criticized this approach: “Instead of a try to recover from the ill events of Stalinism and to understand its sources and foundations they prefer the harmonized view of the Past.”⁶

In the middle of 1990s the crisis of history as a profession and the identity crisis in Russia stimulated a new discussion. The sociologists confirmed the rise of interest in history. Boris Dubin wrote that the state as a social parameter in the mind of Russians moved to the end of the list of values, and gave up its place to the

⁴ Boris Dubin, “Regim razobscheniya: novye zametki k opredeleniyu kultury i politiki”, *Pro et Contra* 44 (2009): 6.

⁵ Hans Bagger, “The Study of History in Russia during the Post-Soviet Identity Crisis”, *Scando-Slavica* 53 (2007): 110.

⁶ Mark von Hagen, *Stalinizm i politika v postsovetskoj istorii* in *Evropeiskii opyt i prepodavanie istorii v postsovetskoj Rossii* (Moskva: Institut vseobschei istorii Rossijskoj Akademii nauk, 1999): 12.

“Common past” and the history.⁷ Some historians describe this situation as that the identity crisis stimulated a “social demand” for history. Paradoxically, this great interest in history (*toska po istorii*) proved pretty harmful to the history profession as a whole.⁸ One of the reasons was that professional historians refrained from taking part in the public debate. In 1990s bookshops and kiosks were full with popular biographies and glossy illustrated works on the holy places of 19th Century Russia. The celebrated crime writer Boris Akunin also placed his novels in that period, which became the main destination for the romantic escapism of ordinary Russians during the social crisis of the 1990s.

One more factor began to play role in the discussions about history and the history teaching in Russian Federation in the end of 1990s – the beginning of 2000s. The Council of Europe has played a major role in funding projects to improve the teaching of history and history textbooks in Europe, and especially in the Russian Federation between 1999 and 2003. The Council of Europe organized in 1998-2003, a series of seminars on different topics from history textbooks to usage of sources in teaching cultural diversity on history lessons.⁹

The period of 2000s with the coming to power of President Vladimir Putin changed the whole picture of history in the Russian society. President Putin declared the politics of stability and the new character of relations between the state and the society demanded to turn to issues of history as a common memory, science and learning subject in the school and university curriculum. The results of state politics in the field of history seem controversial. The Russian government changed the national anthem to the melody of the USSR, stated a new holiday on November 4th based on historical events of 1612 and inspired a big discussion on combating the falsification of Russian history.

The new history textbook with a notorious assessment of Stalin rule was recommended to the history teachers in 2007. It was the first post Soviet textbook officially recommended by authorities. The book has been attacked by some Russian liberal politicians as an attempt to impose a new ‘party line’ that glosses over Stalin’s record. They were especially angered by the chapter on ‘Sovereign democracy’, which they understood as a justification for President Putin’s authoritarian style of government.

And above all, new turns there were novel educational standards.

⁷ Dubin (note 3), 298.

⁸ Bagger (note 5), 109.

⁹ List of seminars held in the Russian Federation in the framework of bilateral cooperation (<http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/historyteaching/Cooperation/RussianFederation/RussianFederation>) (accessed: July 17th, 2012).

2. Position of history in the university education

Historical education was looked upon in the USSR as a system of training of pedagogical and professional research cadres in the field of history.¹⁰ For this purposes two types of higher education facilities were established. History teachers were usually trained at Pedagogical institutes. However some of them obtained degrees from Classical universities.

The system of teacher training was a part of the state planned economy system applied to all levels of education in the USSR from a kindergarten to a university. This also means that the universities had and still have to interact with appropriate state bureaucracy usually on a federal level as a pivotal source of funding, standards and legitimacy.¹¹ It is true that the three centuries of history of the Russian universities illustrated two basic challenges in their dealing with the society: how to protect their autonomy from the state without losing state support and how to be socially relevant without losing professional standards.¹² The existence of a very strong state and a weak society was the Russian specific feature in the process of education.

In 1971, sixty thousand students were trained at Pedagogical Institutes. The classical Universities had forty-five thousand students.¹³ In 1970s and 1980s more than 150 universities and pedagogical institutes had programmes of training professionals in the field of history in the USSR. Five-year terms was the normal length of studies at a university. A student had to spend four years at a Pedagogical Institute to get a qualification as a history teacher. And if a student wanted to combine two degrees, for instance a teacher of History and English, he had to be taught for five years. The tuition was free of charge in all institutions and it was limited only by state funding. The graduates got a specialist degree that gave them right to teach history in all types of institutions of secondary and vocational education.

In 2000, the Russian Federation had 562 (49%) state and 662 (51%) non state higher educational institutions (universities, academies, institutes). The number of students of all forms of education increased from 2.638.000 (in 1992) to 4.739.500 (in 2000). The amount of students in every 10.000 populace rose from 178 (in 1992) to 280 (in 2000). 224.800 students studied at engineering institutions in 2000. 152.600 students had chosen humanities and education as their major. A large part of students was learning at the faculties of economics (114.000).¹⁴ The latter amount demonstrates that new occupations became attractive in the eyes of Russian younger generation and their parents. Many of them dream of becoming economists, lawyers, attorneys, notaries, These subjects comprise a big part of humanities students. While these figures show that the Russian system of education experienced big

¹⁰ "Istoricheskoe obrazovanie", *Bolshaya sovetskaya encyclopedia* (<http://slovari.yandex.ru/>) (accessed June 21st, 2012).

¹¹ Kortunov (note 1): 204

¹² *Ibid.*, 203.

¹³ "Istoricheskoe obrazovanie" (note 10).

¹⁴ *Otechestvennye zapiski* 2 (2002) (<http://magazines.russ.ru/oz/2002/2/sprav.html>) (accessed: July 12th, 2012).

changes in the 1990s, the values of higher education connected with the thoughts of raising the social status and earnings are very popular in Russian society now. However, the percentage of occupations in the field of history and history teaching at schools was below the average societal aspirations and new values. In 1989, in the end of the Soviet period, the average earning in the field of school education was 76% of the average earning in the country. By 1997 it was twice less than in 1989.¹⁵ In many Russian regions the school teacher's salary in 1990s-2000s was twice less than average wages in other branch fields with the exception of Moscow where the teacher's earnings were twice or even three times better, thanks to mayor of Moscow Yuri Luzhkov's additional reimbursement.¹⁶

The Ministry of Education policy in recent years was aimed at reducing the number of state universities and combining them. This policy led the Ministry of Education to look at Pedagogical universities as high institutions of "second rank" or even less. This was followed by a mass process of transforming pedagogical universities into humanitarian or classical universities in 1990s-2000s, and behind this one could see no more than the desire to raise their prestige.¹⁷ According to the Ministry of Education there are only 79 pedagogical universities in Russia now. The amount of these institutions is nearly twice less than in the beginning of 1990s. Anyway some of these changes can be explained by demographical problems and reducing the number of schools in the country.

The societal demands and reforms proclaimed in the Law "On education"(1992) made the Ministry of Education to speed up the work on new standards of teaching history at universities in the end of 1990s. The new state educational standards of higher education were introduced in 2000 and they are in operation until 2011.

The "State educational standard for higher professional education 032600 on history" became the principal document in the process of training teachers of history since 2000. It fixes the normal term of training for five years. After graduating the teacher could work in different types of educational institutions. The standard included four main cycles of disciplines:

- General humanitarian and socio-economic disciplines (Foreign language, Physical culture, Culture studies, Political science, Law, Russian language, Sociology, Philosophy, Economics),
- General maths and science discipline (Math and IT, Modern concept of Natural Science),
- General professional discipline (Psychology, Pedagogy, Theory and methods of teaching history and social studies, Developmental Anatomy, Physiology and hygiene fundamentals of medical knowledge, Life safety), the

¹⁵ Tatyana Klyachko, "Modernizatsiya rossiskogo obrazovaniya: problemy i resheniya", 2 (2002) (<http://magazines.russ.ru/oz/2002/2/kl.html>) (accessed July 12th, 2012).

¹⁶ "Umen'shitsya li zarabotnaya plata moskovskikh uchitelei?" (<http://mosschool.ru/2011/08/13/umenshitsya-li-zarabotnaya-plata-moskovskih-uchiteley/>) (accessed: July 18th, 2012).

¹⁷ *Podgotovka uchitelya istorii v usloviyakh modernizatsii vysshego pedagogicheskogo obrazovaniya* (Yarsolavl: Izdatel'stvo YaGPU, 2005): 16.

discipline of substantive preparations (History of the ancient world, History of the Middle Ages, History of Russia, Modern and contemporary history of foreign countries, Archaeology, Historiography, Source Studies, Auxiliary historical disciplines).

- The training curriculum should also have National and regional (high school) discipline, discipline and courses of the student's choice, by higher education institution and optional subjects approved by University board.

In the whole the standard demanded completion of 8.884 hours of tutorials during five year term¹⁸. The hours were used on the principle fifty-fifty between class participation and guided self work of a student.

General humanitarian and socio-economic disciplines had 1.500 hours tutorials. General maths and science discipline covered 400 hours of classes. General professional discipline comprised 1.600 hours. The discipline of substantive preparations included 4.934 hours of tutorials.¹⁹

Pedagogy (General didactics) has 270 tutorial hours. Theory and methods of teaching history and social studies has nearly twice more hours – 410. The pedagogical practice at school lasts 12 weeks.²⁰ So the history didactics has reasonably twice more tutorial hours in comparison with general didactics.

In 2003 the Ministry of Education launched the experiment with the Unified State Examinations that had to show the final educational results of school graduates in different subjects. The outcome of the Unified State Examinations had also replaced university admission tests that became notorious in the society, because it was said that they were connected with corruption scandals. From 2009 the system became fully mandatory for all Russian universities. This innovation had effected some changes in the educational standard in 2005. For instance “Modern means of assessing learning outcomes” were included in the cycle of General professional discipline with 72 tutorial hours. The main idea behind this course was to equip the students with the knowledge and skills of testing history in Russia and abroad, interpretation of test results, the content and organization of the Unified State exam.²¹

In 2003 the Russian Federation co-signed the Bologna Declaration that changed the whole system of higher education. In October 2007 Russia enacted a law that replaces the traditional five-year model of education with a two-tiered approach: a four-year bachelor degree followed by a two-year master's degree.

History teachers are trained in terms of the “Federal State educational standard for higher professional education in preparation 05100 Pedagogical education” (bachelor degree) adopted by the Ministry of Education on December 22nd, 2009. They are used in all universities since 2011. The term of studies is four years. The main idea

¹⁸ “Gosudarstvenny obrazovatelny standart vysshego professional'nogo obrazovaniya. Special'nost 032600 – istoriya”, *Utverzhden prikazom Ministerstva obrazovaniya Rossiiskoi Federatsii* 686 (March 2^{de}, 2000), 18.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, 4.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, 18.

²¹ *Ibid.*, 7.

of the new standards of higher professional education is based on creating general cultural, general professional and occupational competences. The learners have to be assessed mainly by these competences. Another big innovation of the standard is connected with the demand that a university has to create its own Main educational program of preparation on the basis of the standard requirements. The standard identifies only necessary credit units and a list of subjects. All other curricula creation is a university creativeness based on the excellence of tutors and professors. Every cycle has a basic (compulsory) part and an elective part established by a university.

The Main educational program of preparation of the university (Faculty) must comprise compulsory parts:

- Humanitarian, social and economic cycle (History, Philosophy, Foreign language, Culture of speech, Economics of education),
- Mathematical and natural-scientific cycle (IT, Fundamentals of mathematical processing of information, Natural-scientific picture of the world),
- Professional cycle (Psychology, Pedagogy, Life safety, Methodology of teaching and education on profile training).

The basic (compulsory) part in the humanitarian, social and economic cycle comprises 20 out of 35 credit units. The basic (compulsory) part in mathematical and natural-scientific cycle is 10 out of 15 credit units. The basic (compulsory) part professional cycle leaves more freedom to the curriculum makers: only 45 out of 175 credit units.²² In spite of the fact that the whole curriculum construction seems to suggest more autonomy it has strict limitations in subject hours and practice. For instance if a curriculum maker gave more hours for teaching of History of the ancient world, History of the Middle Ages or History of Russia, he will shorten the practice at school that is really important for future teacher. This standard of teachers training is used at history faculties of both classic and pedagogical universities. The present picture of history teacher training in Russia cannot be complete without a quick glance at the possibilities of post-university education. First of all highly educated teachers with master's degrees in History and Education appeared at schools in recent years. Some Russian teachers follow post-graduate training. A scientific degree (*Kandidat Nauk*) becomes common at secondary schools.

Russian history teachers can advance their knowledge and skills at nearly 300 institutes of upgrading, institutes of educational developing, faculties of upgrading at the main universities. The practical upgrading courses are usually organized by the departments of history didactics and general didactics.

At least two main changes happened in recent two decades in the field of post-university education. The departments of history didactics have more closer cooperation with the new upgrading institutions. The departments of history didactics

²² "Federal State educational standard for higher professional education in preparation 05100 Pedagogical education" (bachelor degree) adopted by the Ministry of Education on 22 December 22^{de}, 2009.

lead with their courses in comparison with general history departments and general history courses.

The place of history in the University education still is pretty high. The state considers the history course as one of the foundations of a patriotic identity construction and the Ministry of Education included history (largely Russian history) as a compulsory course into the new Federal state Educational standard for higher professional education.

3. Position of history in school education

In a popular publication on history didactics the authors stressed that “Russian society experiences a period of profound structural including socio-cultural changes.”²³ The system of history teaching has been modified seriously following the changes of Russian Society. It developed to the principle of the priority of personality and the humanization and humanitarization of education were the means of achieving that goal.

The Russian government launched the Russian Federation Law “On Education” in 1992. The political leadership of the country had a task of overcoming the Soviet legacy and a depolitization of the system of education and the new Law was supposed to set up new organizational norms in the field. It did not establish new didactical rules and educational standards in history teaching. According to the new Law the abolishment of old history teaching programs was claimed. The system of education was splitted in several parts: preschool education, primary general education (1-4 classes), basic general education (5-9 classes), and full general education (10-11 classes).²⁴ The pupils begin to learn at school usually at the age of 6 or 7 and graduate from school at 17 or 18.

The Law “On Education” (1992) also authorized Russian pedagogical collectives and individual teachers to enrich the state educational standards with more innovation, variability and didactic creativity. New educational institutions in the field of secondary education soon appeared, namely, colleges, gymnasiums, lyceums. The new law also legalized private educational institutions and plan extra students who could get education for charge.

The Ministry of Education explained the new strategy of history teaching in a special official document of December 1994. There were good statements in the document: “The system of education should give an integrity view of the World and *scientific vision*. It is necessary that the content of school history course should have a goal to bring up a feeling of patriotism, citizenship, and help to form national self-consciousness, respect to the historical and cultural heritage of the peo-

²³ Evgenii Vazemskii and Olga Strelava, *Teoriya i metodika prepodavaniya istorii* (Moskva: VLAODS, 2003), 22.

²⁴ Zakon Rossiskoi Federatsii, “Ob obrazovanii”, (10 July 1992 , No. 3266-1).

ples of Russia and the World, to the human personality, and human rights.”²⁵ History became a compulsory subject of the curriculum and it is studied for seven years at the secondary school.

The Law “On Education” (1992) established the concentric system of history teaching. The new system was based on the idea that the pupils should study the full courses of Russian and World history in a basic secondary school (5-9 classes). The teaching of Russian and World history had to be performed again at the second level at the full secondary school (10-11 classes), but on another more deep basis, concentrating on most difficult problems and from the beginning.²⁶ The previous Soviet system of school history education well known by Russian teachers was linear, and it required that students have to study Ancient, Medieval and Modern Russian and World history from 5th-9th class and the Russian and World history from the end of 19th Century, and the 20th Century history were taught in the 10th and 11th forms.

The linear system of education had several weak sides. The learning of early periods of history was put in the curriculum of 5-8 forms and this led to a serious adaptation of material to 10-13 year old pupils. The second frail point was connected with the too fast swiftness of learning historical material. The students could not look in the depth of any historical epoch or event. The third discussed in 1990s argument was that the Law “On education” (1992) demanded to give the knowledge of full history up to the end of the 20th Century to the graduates of basic general education level (9 classes) but according to the linear system this task could not be solved.²⁷

The previous system of history education was also blamed in the end of 1980s and the beginning of 1990s with the separated and non synchronized teaching of World and Russian history, using the formational theory principle of construction of history courses when the class struggle was the key point of history narratives. The historians were inspired to replace the formational theory approach to a civilization method of history explaining.

The Ministry of Education document on history teaching (1994) confirmed the rebirth of Russia, its coming back to the World Civilization and the building of democratic state. The authors stressed that “the humanitarian education in the first priority form the personality and prepare him (the pupil) to the life in the changing world.” “The state does not impose to pupils any the only truthful outlook as it was in the previous period, but it supports the realization of their right of free choice of

²⁵ “Strategiya razvitiya istoricheskogo i obschesvovedcheskogo obrazovaniya v obscheobrazovatel’nykh uchrezhdeniyakh”. Retshenie kollegii Ministerstva obrazovaniya Rossiiskoi Federatzii (December 28th, 1994).

²⁶ “O perekhode na novuyu strukturu istoricheskogo i obschetsvovedcheskogo obrazovaniya.” *Pis’mo Ministerstva Obrazovaniya RF* 84 (May 11th, 1993).

²⁷ Evgenii Vyazemsky and Olga Strelova, *Istoricheskoe obrazovanie v sovremennoi Rossii* (Moskva: Russkoe slovo, 1997), 30f.

viewpoints and convictions.”²⁸ The document fixed that the state must do all possible to give the students fundamental scientific knowledge in history. The system of history education was supposed to give the learners whole vision of the world based on scientific ideas about most important problems that stand before the mankind.

The Russian system of education became more flexible and variable in the process of reform in comparison with the Soviet one fully dictated by the state. The authors of one of the textbooks on the history didactics highlighted that the new system of education “is integrating in the world educational space to a greater extent than the previous one.”²⁹ However, the authors regret that the Russian state ideology was not expressed in 1990s and that made difficult the choosing of strategic priorities of state educational policy.³⁰

In the whole the structure of history education at school that developed in 1990s-2000s looks like this:

- Primary general education – induction course of history.
- Basic general education:
 - 5th class – Ancient history
 - 6th class – History of Russia and the World in the medieval age
 - 7th class – History of Russia and the World in Modern times
 - 8th class – History of Russia and the World in Modern times and Introduction to the society studies
 - 9th class – History of Russia and the World in contemporary time, Introduction to the society studies (law course)
- Full general education:
 - 10th class – History of Russia from ancient time to contemporary days, History of World Civilizations
 - 11th class – History of Russia from ancient time to contemporary days, Introduction to the society studies: Contemporary World.³¹

The preparation of the new Federal State Educational Standard for secondary school started in 2004. The new Standards are now in the process of launching. The standard determines the goals of history teaching at each level of education and the minimum requirements to the contents of history courses. The regional authorities can add about 10% of the contents with local and regional history.

In 2012 the first age group of Russian pupils completed the program of Primary general education and entered the classes of Basic general education (5-9 classes) with full history courses. However, the introduction of the new Standards in the Full general education (10-11 classes) is not clear. The project of the new Standard attracted the attention of the society in 2010. The first option of new standard was

²⁸ *Strategiya razvitiya istoricheskogo i obschesvovedcheskogo obrazovaniya* (note 25). Addition in brackets by A.K.

²⁹ Vazemskii/Strel'ova, *Teoriya i metodika prepodavaniya istorii* (note 23), 23.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, 23.

³¹ Mikhail Studenikin, *Metodika prepodavaniya istorii v shkole* (Moskva: VLAODS, 2000), 36.

sharply criticized because the history courses were excluded from a basic part and they were removed to the optional one. An integrated course “Russia in the World” was suggested instead of history courses. However, the creators of the Standard neither explained the goals of a new course to the public properly nor who will teach it in schools. As a result the adoption of the Standard was deferred. In September 2013 they promised the beginning of an experimental test of the Standard. The Standard of Basic general education focuses on “achieving the planned results on targets, knowledge, skills, and competencies determined by the personal, family, community, national needs and capacities of the children.”³² In other words the learner-based education and the developing personality ideas are the core of the new Standard. The process of education has to perform results in three main areas:

- Personal results that means willingness and ability of students to self-development, motivation to the studies and the well-developed cognitive abilities, social competence and personal qualities, well-developed civil identity.
- Meta subject results: formed universal training actions (educational, regulatory and communication).
- Subject results that means in the experience gained by students in the course of studying, specific skill in each subject area to gain new knowledge, its transformation and application, as well as the fundamental elements of scientific knowledge underpinning the modern scientific picture of the world.

The development in 1990s and 2000s of the system of Russian history education obviously has changed its concept. The education became personality orientated or learner-centred, plural and multifaceted.³³

This turn indicates a considerable change of history position at contemporary schools. To reach this goal, personal results of learners demanded by the new Standard humanity presume a stronger cooperation by all subjects of the curriculum.

4. Contingent of history didactics in study programs

History didactics play a big role in the training of history teachers. History didactics are taught at the universities in the third of four years of studies before the first practice at school. That helps to strengthen the theoretical knowledge of students formed by lectures and seminars with the help of tutorial experience. As all other aspects of university education the course history didactics got through a lot of changes in recent years.

³² “Federal’ny gosudarstvenny obrazovatel’ny standart osnovnogo obschego obrazovaniya”, (Moskva, 2010): 4.

³³ Vyazemsky/Strelova, *Istoricheskoe obrazovanie v sovremennoi Rossii* (note 27), 17.

The two main concepts of the structure of history didactics courses are discussed among Russian experts. Knowledge-oriented approach is understood as a totality of systematic knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs and practical training reached in the process of education at a university.³⁴ This attitude is believed to help quick socialization of a teacher. But the critics of this approach claim that it leads to ideological teaching and strict regulation of core knowledge. Another weak point is that assumably the whole system of education is oriented on an average student.

In the recent decade the discussion turned to the idea of humanization of the whole system of education. And the person-oriented or learner-centred approach is the centre of debate. The whole content of education is changing in this case. The process of education becomes not only the transfer of knowledge but developing of a personality of a student. Accordingly the knowledge and skills as a traditional content of education became an external component education in this case. The main value is the representation of a personality. The Russian new Federal state educational standard (2010) is designed according to these ideas. For instance the standard demands that there cannot be more than 40% of lecture classes in the main educational program of preparation. The priority is given to different practical types of lessons.

The Russian teachers criticized the “too academic” or “excessively theorized” style of teaching history didactics at universities. They oppose to this traditional way of teaching and suggest more active project-based learning of history didactics.³⁵

As a result of an achieved consensus the contents of the theory and methods of teaching history and social studies were built in the end of 1990s. The university source incorporated the issues of modern methods of pedagogical research, the aims of history learning at school, the state educational standard in history and its aims, the structure of school history education, the basic contents of educational material in history, federal and regional components of that contents, special features of the basic and profile level of teaching history in the upper level of full general education, schools’ curriculum in history, linear and concentric systems of the history teaching.

On learning the theory and methods of history teaching students are expected to have knowledge of the structure of history: a fact, an event and a process, about empirical and theoretical levels of history knowledge, on the cognitive abilities of learners, of the cognitive process, of individual approach of teaching, of usage of different kind of sources, of chronology and cartography, of visual teaching methods, of different types of lessons, of teacher preparation teacher for the lesson, of modern educational technologies, of history games and extra class activities.³⁶

³⁴ *Podgotovka uchitelya istorii v usloviyakh modernizatsii vysshego pedagogicheskogo obrazovaniya* (Yarsolavl: Izdatel'stvo YaGPU, 2005), 165-166.

³⁵ Sokolov V.Yu. “Problemy postroeniya kursa ‘Metodika prepodavaniya istorii v shkole’ v klassicheskom universitete”, *Vestnik Tomskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta* 281 (2004): 224-225.

³⁶ Gosudarstvenny obrazovatelny standart (note 18).

The tutorials on the theory and methods of history teaching are completed with the final exam. The students also accomplish different written projects from course papers to the final graduating thesis on this subject.

The course of history didactics became more practically oriented. There are more practical classes where some tutorial situations are performed. Students take the position of teachers and learners in turn. One more trend of changes is connected with students' participation in investigation of skilled history teachers' activities. The students have to evaluate educating, creative and developing goals of the lesson, to what extent methods used by a teacher help to reach these goals. The didactics of history tutorials break another old tradition. The history sources were used only to illustrate some points from the textbook in the traditional didactics of history. The usage of history sources becomes more extensive and the methods of work with them have changed in recent years. The teachers employ the multi-perspective approach when choosing history sources. That means that the pupils have to choose between different positions and points of view. They have to listen to various arguments and evaluate them on the basis of their own experience.

The modern Russian didactics of history tutorials also offer students the methods of work with the history textbooks. In their practical work the Russian teachers obtained the possibility to choose between different texts in 1990s. The students must have some skills of this kind. They study how the "new generation" texts look like, and what differences they have in comparison with the traditional ones from the point of narrative, didactical methods, and visual appearance.

The new generation of instructors tries to widen students' views about the international experience of teaching history didactics and the debates about these issues.

5. Conclusion

The system of history teachers' training in contemporary Russia is still a mix of old legacies and change with a twist to more transformation in the recent years. The traditional parts of the education system are connected with class-lesson structure, and the teaching of big general courses of national history in comparison with regional and local history.

The influence of the state is big as usual in Russia. The state determines the policy in the field of history and history education and it remains the main job creator in the education. The State launched the Bologna Process that makes the Russian system of education closer to European and World ones.

The educational crisis and poor financing is another feature of the contemporary system of education in Russia. The state focuses on developing Federal and National Research universities the last five years. Pedagogical universities and the teachers' training seem not to be the main concern of the Russian state now.

The societal demands show that history remains a central part of identity construction process. The role of Russian history in the society even grew in recent years. All sociological polls show that the interest to history is increasing.

Relations between the history science and the training of history teachers are far from harmony. Many observers speak of history science crisis in Russia. This leads to difficulties in choosing the contents of the general history courses in the teachers' training curriculum. The situation in the Russian history science also causes some eclectics in a classroom.

The position of a teacher in the society is still low in spite of the several decisions in increasing the salary in recent years and organizing different national and local competitions for grant support.

The launching of the new Federal educational standards means that the universities must train new teachers. At the same time without the change of attitude to teacher training the reform can fail.

The Great Upheaval The Reform of History Teacher Education in Switzerland

Vera Sperisen and Béatrice Ziegler

Over the past 20 years, two factors have influenced history teacher education in Switzerland. The first factor was the reform of training on a scale both unique and unprecedented in the history of teacher education in Switzerland. During this period, the content and structure of training were reformed under the sign of economic and rationalist thinking and oriented toward European higher education. The previous model of training – the regionally anchored teacher training college – was replaced by tertiary, university-level education.

The second factor determining history teacher education and teaching practice in Switzerland is the ambivalent status of history, firstly as a scientific discipline, secondly as a school subject, and thirdly as collective memory in today's society. History still serves a traditionally important function for the national identity of Switzerland as a “Willensnation” (voluntary nation). The increasing concentration on competency models and subject didactics in the educational sector has recently led to history didactics beginning to outgrow their peripheral role and becoming a more sought-after subject area, especially among education authorities. Subject-didactic perspectives have gained ground in teacher education and in the primary and secondary school curricula, while history lessons – at least in their traditional form – have lost significance.

1. Educational reforms under the sign of economic and rationalist thinking

Over the past twenty years, the teacher training system in Switzerland has been shaken to its very foundations and subjected to radical reform. The scope of institutional change, which began in the early 1990s and remains ongoing, is unique in the almost 200 year history of teacher education in Switzerland. The training of pre-school and primary school teachers has been and continues to be most strongly affected by this major upheaval. Fragments of this reform were already apparent in the 1970s. Essentially, however, the restructuring of the Swiss educational system in the 1990s was initiated and dynamised by economic constraints and politico-economic interests. Especially the opening up of the teacher labour market and the ongoing development of European higher education have set the pace of reform in Switzerland and served as the standard measure of reform efforts. On the one hand, reform granted the heads of education institutions greater autonomy vis-à-vis the

cantons and regional decision makers.¹ On the other, education now became more strongly linked to the international university system and to market economy objectives. The orientation of teacher education toward economic interests and rationalist objectives can be traced from the onset of the reform processes through the structuring of new training programmes to the adjusting of degree course curricula.

Up until the early 1990s, teacher education in Switzerland was marked by great pluralism. The educational historian Lucien Criblez speaks somewhat pointedly of the Swiss educational system being characterised by “randomness.”² Especially the training of preschool and primary school teachers was organised very differently at the time. The vast majority of these teachers were receiving their training at upper secondary teacher training colleges.³ By contrast, future grammar school teachers were being trained at universities, partly also at tertiary non-university institutes. Approximately one hundred and fifty cantonally governed institutions were responsible for teacher education.⁴ Teachers were trained *by* the cantons *for* the cantons: the content and form of training programmes were aligned with a cantonal school system and its specific curriculum. Thus, training content, rather than being oriented toward science, was conceived as and focused on providing the practical tools of the trade.⁵ In addition, the lack of national consistency in the recognition of teaching certificates impeded the occupational mobility of teachers between cantons.

1.1 Opening up Swiss teacher education to the international sphere and polit-economic pressure

Fundamental endeavours to reform the educational system had existed in Switzerland since the 1970s. Already in 1975, a report on the future of teacher training, “Lehrerbildung von morgen,” proposed the tertiarisation of teacher education.⁶ At the time, equal importance was attached to the tertiary approach as to an extended

¹ In Switzerland, education is a cantonal rather than a federal matter. Thus, measures aimed at intercantonal standardisation take the form of mergers and amalgamation.

² Lucien Criblez, “Die Reform der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung in der Schweiz seit 1990. Reformprozesse, erste Bilanz und Desiderata.” In *Tertiarisierung der Lehrerinnen und Lehrerbildung: Bilanztagung I*, ed. Hans Ambühl et al. (Bern: EDK, 2010), 22–58, here 26.

³ Future teachers entered teacher training colleges upon completing compulsory schooling. Unlike current tertiary-level training at universities of teacher education, training colleges focused less on conveying scientific knowledge than providing the tools of trade and equipping trainee teachers with the skills needed to teach fine arts, music, and crafts.

⁴ Hans Ambühl, “Zur Einleitung: Wie steht es um die Ziele, die mit der Tertiarisierung der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung verbunden waren?” In *Tertiarisierung der Lehrerinnen und Lehrerbildung* (note 2), 14–21, here 16.

⁵ Criblez, “Die Reform der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung” (note 2), 24f.

⁶ Fritz Müller et al., *Lehrerbildung von morgen: Grundlagen – Strukturen – Inhalte: Bericht der Expertenkommission “Lehrerbildung von morgen” im Auftrag der Schweizerischen Konferenz der kantonalen Erziehungsdirektoren* (Hitzkirch: Comenius-Verlag, 1975).

version of the teacher training college.⁷ In many European countries, as well as in the United States and Canada, teacher education was integrated into the university system. In Switzerland, especially in the German-speaking region, the teacher-training-college concept was mostly adhered to.⁸ This changed in the early 1990s, when Switzerland opened up its education policy to other countries. This shift is epitomised by an OECD expert report, which was commissioned for the first time by the Swiss authorities in 1989.⁹ Its key findings concern “the economic framework, the social environment, and the labour market.”¹⁰ Accession to the European Economic Area (EEA) was very much at the forefront of politics and public debate at the time. In retrospect, opening up Switzerland’s economy, especially the implementation of the Free Movement of Persons Directive, was the most important catalyst for reforming Swiss teacher education. Even if the reforms underway in Switzerland were neither homogenous nor simultaneous, the EEA ballot of 1992 accelerated reform in all cantons and channelled corresponding endeavours in a consistent direction, one compatible with EU regulations governing the recognition of teaching qualifications. Wage lawsuits filed under equal opportunities legislation meant that not only teacher pay but also training in what was a traditionally female profession were subject to public discussion. This, too, increased the pressure to reconceptualise teacher education.¹¹

The debates surrounding the ballot of 1992 on Switzerland’s accession to the EEA raised fundamental questions about the occupational mobility of teachers. One basic condition for opening up labour markets is the mutual recognition of professional qualifications and certificates. Not even this condition was satisfied within Switzerland, since only inconsistent arrangements existed for the mutual recognition of teaching qualifications between the cantons. With the possible introduction of a Swiss-EU Bilateral Agreement on the Free Movement of Persons, the situation prevailing in Switzerland at the time would have meant that while foreign teaching qualifications would have been valid across Switzerland, this would not have applied to qualifications from other cantons. Even if the Swiss electorate voted

⁷ Peter Tresp, “Ausbildungsinhalte und berufliche Verwertbarkeit: Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung zwischen Berufsbildung und Allgemeinbildung”, *Beiträge zur Lehrerbildung* 20 (2002): 339-346, here 341.

⁸ The Canton of Aargau tertiarised primary and upper school teacher education already in 1976. It pioneered teacher training in Switzerland together with the cantons of Basel, Geneva, Zurich, and Schaffhausen.

⁹ Armin Gretler, “Das Schweizerische Bildungswesen auf dem Prüfstand. Der OECD-Bericht ‘Bildungspolitik in der Schweiz’ und die EDK-Berichte ‘Bildung in der Schweiz von morgen.’” *Beiträge zur Lehrerbildung* 9 (1991): 127-140.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 129. One important finding of the OECD Report was that the low quota of teachers trained at the tertiary level could no longer satisfy the labour market’s needs for more highly qualified teachers in future.

¹¹ Lucien Criblez et al., “Erfolgreicher Abschluss des Tertiarisierungsprozesses. Die Integration der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung ins Hochschulsystem.” In *Die Schule im Glashaus: Entstehung und Entwicklung der Fachhochschule Aargau Nordwestschweiz*, ed: René Bortolani (Baden: hier + jetzt, 2006), 94-109, here 103.

against the country's accession to the EEA in 1992, the introduction of the Swiss-EU Bilateral Agreement on the Free Movement of Persons was foreseeable.¹² Therefore, there was a pressing need to resolve the matter of teaching qualifications being recognised beyond cantonal borders. Also, structural adjustments were necessary to satisfy international regulations. European Union Guidelines (bac + 3) therefore became a minimum requirement for cantonal reform projects. The relevant stage model placed teacher education at level 3, which in practice meant at least three years of university-level education.

To prevent discrimination against domestic teachers on the labour market, an Agreement on the Recognition of Degrees and Qualifications was enacted by the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK) in February 1993.¹³ The Agreement came into force on January 1st, 1995. It marked an important step toward the formal alignment of teacher education in Switzerland.¹⁴ Concurrently, efforts were made to progress the structural adjustment of training programmes; as a result, the EU's minimum requirement (bac + 3) found its way into the various cantonal reform projects. Further pressure on Switzerland to comply with international requirements arose from the development of a unified European Higher Education Area and the subsequent ratification of the Bologna Declaration in 1999, which has since undergone further planning and implementation on the basis of further international agreements.

1.2 *The Reforms and their Dimensions*

L. Criblez has divided the above reform process into three phases.¹⁵ First, a preliminary phase, which lasted up until about 1995. During this period, "the fundamental documents for intercantal arrangements were drawn up ... but cantonal reforms were largely introduced 'in reference to themselves'".¹⁶ Developments in this phase occurred neither in a simultaneous nor in a homogenous fashion. On the contrary, it was marked by "high asynchronicity and regional, that is, cantonal disparities".¹⁷

Second, a constitutional phase, which extended to about the year 2000. During this period, European minimum norms resulting from the Bologna Process became

¹² The Bilateral Agreement on the Free Movement of Persons came into force almost ten years later in 2002.

¹³ The Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK) consists of the twenty-six cantonal government members responsible for education, professional training, culture, and sports. The Conference is not a ministry of education as such, but regulates and coordinates intercantal cooperation. The cantons are chiefly responsible for education in Switzerland and bear most of the financial burden along with the local councils.

¹⁴ Peter Metz, "Problemhorizont der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung in der Schweiz," *Beiträge zur Lehrerbildung* 16 (1998): 196-206, here 197.

¹⁵ Criblez's classification exhibits an ideal structure, from which individual cantonal reforms diverge.

¹⁶ Criblez, "Die Reform der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung" (note 2), 39.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, 31.

gradually available to the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK) and served ministers and those responsible as guidelines. Most cantons referred to these norms when establishing new training institutions.

Finally, a realisation phase, whose beginning L. Criblez dates to 2001. This year marks the starting date for new degree courses, whose introduction heralded the implementation of the reforms. Concurrently, staff needed to be transferred from the old to the new institutions, and curriculum development had to be completed. Teacher education reform entailed a threefold concentration: first, on an organisational level, a reduction of administrative and funding bodies; second, a reduction of the number of institutions, which has also resulted in a reduction of institutional diversity within and between the cantons; and third, a concentration of campus locations.

The tertiarisation of teacher education is the most apparent change brought about by these reforms: courses for upper secondary school teachers are now offered by the tertiary sector, thereby rendering obsolete the concept of the traditional teacher training college. The tertiarisation of teacher education has raised the admissions bar for such courses. Candidates seeking admission to teacher training courses, including kindergarten teaching, must now hold a formal upper secondary school qualification.¹⁸ The academisation and scientification of teacher education are two closely intertwined part-processes of the reform. On the one hand, these developments imply that while degree courses leading to academic qualifications are offered, the respective schools of teacher education are allowed to award only Bachelor's and Master's degrees. Since these institutions are not entitled to award doctoral and postdoctoral (so-called habilitation) degrees in their own right, they are unable to further promote academic talent. This issue will continue to concern education policy in future. On the other hand, the awarding of academic titles implies that in addition to delivering courses the remit (or the so-called performance mandate) of education institutions also includes research and development. Thus, schools of teacher education must undertake research projects and introduce students to research methods. These changes have imposed new qualification requirements on staff, especially as regards their transfer from the old to the new system. This transition process remains unfinished to this day. Notably, while teacher education has been harmonised primarily on a structural level, a wider consensus about programme contents is still largely absent.¹⁹

According to a Message of the Federal Council of 2007, the priority objective of the university reforms in Switzerland is "to continue and intensify the development of an internationally competitive research and educational system".²⁰ Seen thus, international competitiveness and the continued efforts to preserve Switzerland as

¹⁸ Other forms of admission still exist, for instance, for candidates who hold an occupational baccalaureate or who show sufficient individual aptitude (via a portfolio submission).

¹⁹ Criblez, "Die Reform der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung" (note 2), 51.

²⁰ Schweizerischer Bundesrat: Botschaft über die Förderung von Bildung, Forschung und Innovation in den Jahren 2008-2011, dated 24 January 24th, 2007.

a seat of learning are at stake. These endeavours follow a market logic and are aimed explicitly at meeting economic demands.

1.3 Consequences for History Teacher Education

Notwithstanding the above reform processes, which have contributed to standardising teacher education in Switzerland over the past twenty years, training programmes remain highly variegated compared to other European countries. Currently, there are twelve legally independent cantonal schools of teacher education; another four teacher training institutes are integrated into other types of higher education institutions. Moreover, there are two associated federal institutions of higher education. Given the diversity of training institutions, at present no unified picture of history teacher education can be drawn. In fact, the opposite is true: eleven of the above-mentioned institutions offer specialist and subject-didactic training in the field of history, partly as an integration subject in combination with geography. The structure and content of such training programmes differ markedly depending on the institution.²¹ One common feature of all lower secondary school teacher training is that history is offered in combination with two or more subjects. Other common denominators, which are closely related to the Bologna Reform, are the modular structure of training programmes, the curricular emphasis on competencies, the standardisation of student workloads (in terms of the number of hours) within a credit point system (ECTS), the intensifying of self-study, and the alignment of examination regulations with Bologna provisions. What followed was a departure from training programmes equipping future teaching practitioners to teach at specific types of schools to programmes designed for teachers working on specific educational levels. Specialist-disciplinary and subject-didactic training were upgraded.²² “All-round training” was discarded in favour of training practitioners capable of teaching a group of two to four subjects.

This development contrasts with everyday reality in schools. In Switzerland, there still exist “upper schools” with a relatively small number of pupils. At such

²¹ Two examples further illustrate this point: At St. Gallen University of Teacher Education, both students pursuing the humanities track (languages and history) and those pursuing the science track (mathematics and natural sciences) may opt for History/Geography as a dual subject elective. Specialist and subject-didactic modules awarded a total of 43 ECTS are required to complete this so-called integration subject. Course contents range from geology and geomorphology to a subject-didactic course on civic education. The standard program for lower secondary teachers at the University of Teacher Education of Central Switzerland includes history as a compulsory elective alongside French, mathematics, English, German, geography, and the natural sciences: students must attend at least two of these subjects out of a total of four. Students working toward a degree (BA or MA) as history teachers are awarded 34.5 ECTS for attending subject-didactic and specialist courses.

²² Béatrice Ziegler, “Was ist ein ‘Geschichtslehrer’ in der Schweiz? – Das Konzept der Geschichtslehrerausbildung in der Schweiz.” In *Zur Professionalisierung von Geschichtslehrerinnen und Geschichtslehrern – nationale und internationale Perspektive* (Beiheft zur Zeitschrift für Geschichtsdidaktik 4), ed. Michael Sauer et al. (Göttingen: V&R unipress, 2012), 399-414.

schools, it is often neither possible nor desirable to contract teachers exclusively for one or two subjects, although staff are basically required to teach only those subjects in which they specialised whilst training at the school of teacher education. In effect, staff teach many subjects that they have never studied. Consequently, subjects with a small number of lessons per week, including history, are often taught by teachers from outside the field. The emphasis on a specialist subject teacher system at the universities of teacher education leads not only to in-depth specialist training, but also to classes being taught without any specialist and subject-didactic knowledge and skills.²³

1.4 *The Structure and Content of Training*

This section looks at the teacher training provided at the University of Applied Sciences North-western Switzerland (FHNW) as an example of history teacher education. Within only a few years, and along the lines of the “Overall Concept of Teacher Education,”²⁴ several existing training institutes in the Canton of Aargau, and from 2006 in the Cantons of Solothurn, Basel-Landschaft, and Basel-Stadt, were merged and integrated into a single institution.²⁵

The FHNW School of Teacher Education provides training in six Swiss cities and boasts the largest number of students enrolled on teacher training courses in the country.²⁶ In the 2009-10 academic year, 160 future history teachers for upper and lower secondary schools were doing their training at FHNW. In the course of reforming course syllabuses, recourse was had to the existing syllabuses of the predecessor institutions. The same happened for defining the content of university degree courses in “history”. While as late as 1996 teacher education at the predecessor institution in Aarau was still aimed explicitly at training “all-rounders”, the current programmes at the FHNW School of Teacher Education are focused much more strongly on training subject specialists.²⁷ In 1996, a specialist knowledge of history and teaching skills were taught in a specialist course, “Time and Space”, which formed part of “Individual-Society-Politics”. The 1996 course syllabus describes this area in terms strongly oriented toward teaching practice, and dispenses almost completely with scientific language of history²⁸ The 2001 course prospectus

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ The full title of the original version is: Kanton Aargau, FHA Pädagogik: Gesamtkonzeption Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung Aargau. Sachbereich 3. Die innere und äussere Struktur der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung, Aarau 1997.

²⁵ A special feature of the FHNW School of Teacher Education and its formal constitution is that it has been separated from the sovereignty of the Canton of Aarau. Today, the funding bodies of the new school are the Cantons of Aargau, Basel-Landschaft, Basel-Stadt, and Solothurn.

²⁶ In 2011, 2183 students were enrolled at the FHNW School of Teacher Education. Its training institutes are located in Aarau, Basel, Brugg, Liestal, Solothurn, and Zofingen.

²⁷ SEREAL (Lehrerbildung für Sekundar- und Realschule, i.e., secondary and middle school teacher education) at the Didaktikum in Aarau.

²⁸ Reference is here made to the 1996 SEREAL curriculum, known in German as Didaktikum Lehrerbildungszentrum: SEREAL-Studienplan, Aarau 1996.

reads differently, making reference to “specialist and subject-didactic competencies” and using terms specific to the discipline in setting out the course concept. Today, history teacher education comprises subject-didactic and specialist courses, educational studies and professional practice modules. The consecutive programme for future lower secondary school teachers devotes 11.7% (35 ECTS) to subject didactics and 60% (180 ECTS) to the scientific study of history. The integrated programme dedicates 25.2% (68 ECTS) to subject didactics and 35.6% (96 ECTS) to the scientific study of the subject. The overall conception of history teacher education is set out in annually updated “subject portraits,” which describe course structure and objectives, list the modules taught, and outline course requirements.²⁹ These portraits provide a good insight into the reconfiguration of the new educational contents, and the faultlines therein: what emerges from these portraits is the search for a feasible relationship between scientific study and complexity-reduced specialist knowledge, between subject-didactic approaches and civic education as a central concern within the field of history. While civic education is factored into content reconfiguration, its status within history as an academic subject remains unclear. The demands placed on specialist knowledge are extremely high, but they contrast with a naive anthropological notion of history. How these rather general subject portraits and module descriptions might be carried into actual teaching practice is left largely to the discretion of lecturers. The introduction of the competency-oriented syllabus at the target level will only intensify the already-existing emphasis on competencies.³⁰

2. The ambivalent role of “history”

The structure and content of history teacher education have undergone noticeable change in recent years. By comparison, the status of history in schools and society has shifted only creepingly, which also complicates retracing this development. To this day, the country’s history – especially its national history – plays a paramount role as a binding agent for the construction of Switzerland’s national identity. This history, along with “The Alps,” represents the most important reference point and anchor for inventing and consolidating notions of Swiss identity.³¹ Switzerland’s self-image rests on a shared history, which narrates the path followed collectively by a freedom-loving, independent voluntary nation (Willensnation). There are no other possible reference points, as Thomas Maissen has explained: “Switzerland never had a dynasty, nor a single centre of power such as Paris/Versailles or Vi-

²⁹ Subject-didactic modules include “Grundfragen historischen Lernens (Fundamentals of Teaching and Learning History),” “Gestaltung von Lernwegen und Lernsituationen (Designing Learning Pathways and Learning Scenarios),” or “Modelle guten Unterrichts im Geschichtsunterricht und in der Politischen Bildung (Models of Teaching Good History and Civic Education Classes).”

³⁰ Béatrice Ziegler, “Was ist ein ‘Geschichtslehrer’ in der Schweiz?” (note 22).

³¹ Guy P. Marchal and Aram Mattioli, *Erfundene Schweiz: Konstruktionen nationaler Identität = La Suisse imaginée: bricolages d’une identité nationale* (Zürich: Chronos, 1992), 17.

enna, nor a common language, nor a permanently unified law before 1848, and least of all a common religious denomination. The corrective for these various shortcomings is, in an implicit reference to Ernest Renan, talk of a ‘voluntary nation.’”³² Switzerland’s shared history is not so much the result of a scientific pre-occupation with the past as with socially transmitted notions of history and with myths. Especially myths of origin and the “Old Confederates” serve as a fount for the national self-image. Thus, Marchal and Mattioli suggest that “while in other countries especially modern history is invoked to satisfy the need for history, along with evoking medieval history on occasion, especially, or so it seems, in times of great national arousal, in Switzerland recourse to the medieval ‘Old Confederates’ appears to be an indispensable element of the country’s notions of identity.”³³ One case in point is Wilhelm Tell, a legendary figure and perhaps Switzerland’s best known national hero. The spectrum of political parties whose election and referendum campaigns refer to Tell ranges from the neo-conservative *Swiss Democrats* to the communist-oriented *Partei der Arbeit* (Swiss Party of Labour). In 2010, the Social Democratic Party of Switzerland harnessed the national icon to its tax-initiative campaign: “Wilhelm Tell resisted the feudal lords, who roamed the land and sowed strife – and so, too, does the Social Democratic Party of Switzerland!” The figure of Tell is also a popular motif in culture and business, where it is moulded to fit manifold agendas and exploited for economic purposes.

How far notions of history matter for the Swiss construction of national identity became evident not long ago in the debate surrounding the history of Switzerland during World War II. In the 1990s, a debate erupted in Switzerland over the country’s relationship with Nazi Germany. Critical voices from the United States and the Jewish World Congress questioned Switzerland’s purportedly neutral role and the behaviour of the Swiss banks, which handled roughly three quarters of Nazi Germany’s gold transactions with foreign countries. Following the debate, a committee of historians – the Independent Commission of Experts Switzerland – World War II (ICE) – was established. Commissioned by the federal government and national parliament, from 1996 to 2001 the ICE investigated the wartime economic relations between Switzerland and Nazi Germany as well as Swiss refugee policy.³⁴ The Commission’s findings were met with fierce criticism from national-conservative quarters. The interpretation of the Swiss past pitted two opposing camps in the politics of memory against each other. On the one hand stood the national-conservative camp, which upheld the image of a neutral nation which had been spared involvement in World War II due to its military capability of defending itself against attack and which had performed its humanitarian duties as well as possible. On the other was the left-liberal camp, which maintained the image of a

³² Thomas Maissen, “Die ewige Eidgenossenschaft. (Wie) Ist im 21. Jahrhundert Nationalgeschichte noch schreibbar?” *Schweizerische Zeitschrift für Geschichte* 59 (2009): 7-20, here 10.

³³ Marchal and Mattioli, *Erfundene Schweiz* (note 31), 17.

³⁴ S. further www.uek.ch (accessed: May 11th, 2012).

nation whose survival had rested on economic collaboration and political concessions.³⁵ The sheer emotional intensity with which this debate on the nation's past has been conducted points to the identity function of conceptions of national history.

Interestingly, the most contentious issue concerning the past and its interpretation has been what is actually taught at schools.³⁶ This is particularly well illustrated by the debate about Switzerland's role in World War II over the last ten years: when a textbook for upper and lower secondary schools was commissioned on the basis of the ICE's findings, there was a huge outcry, especially among rightwing conservatives.³⁷ A speaker of the Swiss People's Party (SVP) was convinced, as early as 2003—that is, three years before its publication—that the envisaged textbook would contribute to the “dumbing-down of society.”³⁸ Since the publication of this textbook was so fraught with controversy, an advisory committee, whose members were selected on the basis of political affiliation, was established to oversee the process.³⁹ Nor were the differences resolved following publication. The textbook enjoyed a broad reception and was widely discussed; it won the 2006 *Worlddidac Award for Innovative Educational Publications* and made the non-fiction bestseller list in Switzerland. It also came under massive, politically motivated attack, especially from the Swiss People's Party, which sought to prevent its use in the classroom. The party justified its battle against the textbook with its concern about left-wing agitation at schools. Christoph Mörgeli, an MP belonging to the Swiss People's Party, pinpointed this indoctrination especially among the “Generation of 1968”: “Along with education, the Generation of 1968 has also usurped official historiography. Moreover, the political left is enforcing its own particular textbooks to convey a one-sided worldview to school pupils and thus to future generations.”⁴⁰ The historian Konrad Jarausch has identified schools as an important site of cultural integration, where shared “problems” and a society's contested categories of thought are conveyed and reproduced. He writes: “There is no post-modern randomness about either the fierce controversies over a public culture of memory or the content of textbooks, but rather a desire for the social interpretation of the meaning of shared experience.”⁴¹

³⁵ Markus Furrer, *Die Nation im Schulbuch – zwischen Überhöhung und Verdrängung: Leitbilder der Schweizer Nationalgeschichte in Schweizer Geschichtslehrmitteln der Nachkriegszeit und Gegenwart* Hannover: Hahn'sche Buchhandlung, 2004).

³⁶ Maissen, “Die ewige Eidgenossenschaft” (note 32), 18.

³⁷ Barbara Bonhage et al., *Hinschauen und Nachfragen. Die Schweiz und die Zeit des Nationalsozialismus im Licht aktueller Fragen* (Zürich: Lehrmittelverlag Zürich, 2006).

³⁸ S. “Der Bergier-Bericht hält Einzug in die Schule.” *Neue Zürcher Zeitung* (March 4th, 2006).

³⁹ Peter Gautschi, “Geschichtslehrmittel als eigenwilliger Beitrag zur Geschichtskultur.” In *Geschichtskultur. Die Anwesenheit von Vergangenheit in der Gegenwart*, ed. Vadim Oswalt and Hans-Jürgen Pandel (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2009), 34-46.

⁴⁰ <http://www.svp-zuerich.ch/nt/download/060310moergeli.pdf> (accessed: May 11th, 2012)

⁴¹ Konrad H. Jarausch, “Die Krise der nationalen Meistererzählungen.” In Konrad H. Jarausch and Martin Sabrow, *Die historische Meistererzählung. Deutungslinien der deutschen Nationalgeschichte nach 1945* (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck&Ruprecht 2002), 140-162, here 152.

However, the intensively debated textbook *Hinschauen und Nachfragen* should not belie the current status of history teaching at Swiss schools. Although notions of history are centrally important to collective memory and the construction of national identity, although such notions are politically contested, and although the battle over the teaching of the “right” history has been fought with the gloves off, especially since the new political (world) order of the 1980s, the status of history as a subject taught at Swiss primary through grammar schools is on the wane. Notably, this decline follows a period lasting over a century during which history enjoyed a relatively privileged status as a school subject in Switzerland.⁴² Since the mid-1990s, history has been integrated increasingly into aggregate subjects within the cantonal curricula. In the Canton of Bern, for instance, history now forms part of “Nature–Humans–Social World” (formerly biology, geography, history, home economics, and religious education), while in the Canton of Zurich it is included in “Humans and the Environment” (formerly the natural sciences, geography, and history). In parallel, the number of hours per year allotted to history—especially at upper secondary schools—has been continually reduced.⁴³ This development is also related to history no longer being a core subject within the federal baccalaureate curriculum.⁴⁴

The remodelling of history as a school subject and its changing status at Swiss schools has continued up until the present. Since 2008, the cantonal school curricula are devised in three of Switzerland’s four language regions. The French-speaking curriculum, “Plan d’études romand,” has been in force since 2011, while the German- (LP21) and Italian-speaking curricula are under development.⁴⁵ As the reform unfolds, the changes already known are being aligned and implemented at the supra-cantonal level: first, the new LP 21 curriculum continues the tendency toward cutting the number of hours allotted to history, a development emerging in various cantons for years. Second, through its consolidation with other subjects, “history” will be taught uniformly as part of “Nature, Humans, Society” at primary schools, and as part of “Spaces, Times, Societies” at secondary schools. Third, in addition to national standardisation, curriculum development also focuses on reorienting schools toward (measurable) competencies. Associated therewith is a shift from subjects that require learning to ones that promote critical thinking, as cur-

⁴² Hafner, Urs. “Vom Fach Geschichte oder Der Speer und der Säugling. Die Geschichte verliert in der Volksschule ihren Vorrang – das könnte ihre Chance sein.” *Neue Zürcher Zeitung* (March 18th 2012).

⁴³ Rudolf Hadorn, “Zum allmählichen Verschwinden der Geschichte aus dem Schulunterricht”, *Schweizerische Zeitschrift für Geschichte* 51 (2001): 368-371, here 369.

⁴⁴ <http://www.admin.ch/ch/d/sr/4/413.11.de.pdf> (accessed: May 11th, 2012)

⁴⁵ On the curricular design of history in the Plan d’études, s. Charles Heimberg, “Einige Bemerkungen zum Plan d’études romand hinsichtlich der Inhalte Geschichte und politische Bildung”, *Le cartable de clio. Revue Suisse sur les didactiques de l’histoire GDH* 11 (2011): 10-13.

riculum development and the debates on subject didactics have anticipated already ten years ago.⁴⁶

Swiss historians have thus far expressed only limited interest in how history is taught at schools and in the public sphere. Thus, Thomas Maissen speaks of an “exclusive orientation” of academic history “toward scientificity and thus also toward achieving recognition in the international scientific community.”⁴⁷ The price for this orientation, he further argues, is paid on the domestic front, namely, by “forsaking the opportunity to have a corrective say in the use of one’s work. Scientific results, and indeed a great deal more, enter into the ‘bricolage’ of national identity.”⁴⁸ History didactics are not firmly anchored in the Swiss university system, in contrast to Germany. Thus, to this day, many academic historians regard didactics rather “as a contrast to science than as a teaching aid.”⁴⁹ History didactics have been the subject of academic research only since the mid-1990s, whereby the vast majority of this research is undertaken at schools of teacher education rather than at universities proper.⁵⁰ A gradual shift as regards the anchoring of history didactics in science is becoming evident, and appears to be related to the growing status of subject didactics at schools.⁵¹ One indication of this change in trend is the establishment of a Swiss Association of History Didactics (Schweizerische Dachorganisation der geschichtsdidaktischen Gesellschaften) in 2008; the Association became a section of the Swiss Historical Society (Schweizerische Gesellschaft für Geschichte), the central association of Swiss historians, in 2010.

Compared to the natural sciences, however, historical science has also claimed no more than an inferior role in the history of science in Switzerland. This fact is borne out by the special status of the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology in Zurich (ETHZ), known as the Federal Polytechnic from 1855 to 1911. To this day, the Institute enjoys both great political and social acceptance and comfortable funding. Until the establishment of the Swiss National Science Foundation for the Advancement of Research Excellence in 1952, all national research funds flowed directly to the ETHZ. Discussing the history of science in Switzerland, the sociologist Claudia Honegger has observed that this institution was selected to educate individuals capable of meeting the industrial challenges facing the modern nation-

⁴⁶ Hadorn, “Zum allmählichen Verschwinden der Geschichte aus dem Schulunterricht (note 43)” 369; s. also Pierre Felder, “Unter Legitimationsdruck. Der Geschichtsunterricht an den Mittelschulen”, *Schweizerische Zeitschrift für Geschichte*, 51 (2001): 364-368, here 366.

⁴⁷ Maissen, “Die ewige Eidgenossenschaft” (note 32), 18.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, 18.

⁴⁹ Hadorn, “Zum allmählichen Verschwinden der Geschichte aus dem Schulunterricht” (note 43), 371.

⁵⁰ Several scholars, including François Audigier and Charles Heimberg (both at the University of Geneva) and Markus Furrer (University of Fribourg and School of Teacher Education of Central Switzerland) have been exploring subject-didactic questions for over ten years.

⁵¹ Lucien Criblez, “Fachdidaktik in der Schweiz: von der normativen Lehrdisziplin zur empirischen Unterrichtsforschung?” In *Forschungswerkstatt Geschichtsdidaktik 07. Beiträge zur Tagung “geschichtsdidaktik empirisch 07*, ed. Jan Hodel and Béatrice Ziegler (Bern: hep-Verlag, 2009), 21-37.

state.⁵² These challenges, she further notes, lay predominantly in the field of technology and industry: “Unlike in France, where *grand écoles* in the areas of philosophy and the humanities were also established alongside the *Ecole Polytechnique* in Paris, the country’s focal point, and played a crucial role for the identity of France as a *grande nation*, Switzerland has lacked a centre for the non-technical sciences.”⁵³ Thus, the “engineer” for a long time “was the prototype of the Swiss scientist”: “practical, useful, pragmatic, and thoroughly male.”⁵⁴

In summary, the social and political role of “history” in Switzerland has paradoxical features. “History,” understood as collective memory, is accorded high status. And while history performs a central function in the construction of national identity, there is by no means a general consensus about the “correct” interpretation of the past. Especially *which* history makes its way into the classroom, and *how*, can swiftly spark fierce political debate. However, very little importance is attached to the social function of history, understood as a scientific discipline: in Switzerland, historical science has a lower status compared to the natural sciences, technology studies, and economics. To this day, moreover, didactic approaches to history, as well as related questions, are given stepmotherly treatment at best, especially by historical science itself. In recent years, however, the status of history didactics has grown, due to curriculum alignment and reconception, along with the academisation of teacher education.

A devaluation of history as a subject can be observed at schools. Up until the late 1980s, schools, and history lessons in particular, were regarded as an important place for conveying a sense of national identity.⁵⁵ Today, by contrast, emphasis is placed on the utilitarian value of education. The key question now is how far school subjects directly benefit the labour market, and equally how they serve to defend or rather enhance Switzerland’s position as an attractive location for business and industry.⁵⁶ This perspective has also led to a devaluation of history as a school subject, since the applicability of the knowledge it conveys is not immediately evident.

3. Conclusion

Over the past twenty years, history teacher education and history teaching as a profession have been subject to radical change. While the shift toward the economisation, functionalisation, and rationalisation of education concerns the entire education system, these far-reaching changes have specific consequences both for his-

⁵² Claudia Honegger et al, *Konkurrierende Deutungen des Sozialen: Geschichts-, Sozial- und Wirtschaftswissenschaften im Spannungsfeld von Politik und Wissenschaft* (Zürich: Chronos, 2007), 10.

⁵³ Ibid., 10.

⁵⁴ Ibid., 11.

⁵⁵ Furrer, *Die Nation im Schulbuch* (note 35), 305-330.

⁵⁶ S. Akademien der Wissenschaften Schweiz. *Zukunft Bildung Schweiz. Anforderungen an das schweizerische Bildungssystem 2030*. Bern 2009.

tory as a school subject and for history teacher education. History is affected differently than other subjects. Compared to mathematics and languages, the operationalisation of historical competencies and the development of instruments capable of measuring the output of history lessons are still in their infancy. This indicates history's resistance to competency orientation and especially to competency measurement. The complexity and multidimensionality of history conflicts with the pursuit of a straightforward verifiability of historical competencies. Thus, on the one hand, the structure and content of history teacher education are shifting increasingly toward rationalist models, competency-oriented teaching, and output steering. On the other, however, there is no consensus within subject didactics and curriculum development about which competencies should be taught and how they could be measured. As regards history teacher education, students (that is, future history teachers) therefore need to grasp not only the historicity of the discourse on competency and of the models of competency, but also their function in the classroom. Crucially, they also need to learn how to deal with these new and partially paradoxical demands in a sovereign way.

3.

**History Teacher Education
in a Global Perspective**

History Education and Teacher Preparation in the United States

Keith C. Barton

Summarizing the nature of history, history education, and the preparation of history teachers in a country as large and diverse as the United States is a daunting task. The range of political ideologies, the diversity of racial and ethnic backgrounds (each with its own distinct historical experience), and the varied immigration experiences of much of the nation's population all suggest caution in generalizing about the role of history in public life. Moreover, there is no central education system in the United States – whether at primary, secondary, or university level – and thus practices in history education and teacher training reflect a patchwork of tradition, state requirements, local control, and individual preferences. Yet even within this assortment of approaches, it is possible to discern important patterns, particularly because history education in the United States reflects a core of widespread cultural assumptions about the nature and purpose of the subject. This chapter identifies the most common trends that characterize history education in the United States, as well as some of the most significant variations. However, no generalization made here can apply to every student or teacher in the nation; the relative autonomy of educators and educational institutions ensure frequent variations from the norm.

1. History in U.S. Culture and Society

History is a vibrant part of culture and society in the United States, even though detractors often claim otherwise. Despite the claims of some historians and critics, history permeates private and public life in the United States, and it does so in a variety of ways. For many individuals, aspects of history are an important hobby, pursued either alone or with others. Many people spend extensive time exploring their family's genealogy, for example, while others enjoy reading popular historical biographies, taking part in historical re-enactments, collecting antiques, or devoting time to restoring historic cars. Within families, stories about the past are an important part of oral tradition, as grandparents and other relatives tell children and adolescents about life when they were young; for immigrants, this can be an important part of establishing ties to countries of origin, or of helping the younger generation see themselves as part of their family's ongoing narrative, rooted in the past. In popular culture, meanwhile, Americans encounter history through movies, television programs, museums, preserved buildings, national parks and monuments, and local and ethnic heritage festivals.¹

¹ Roy Rosenzweig and David Thelen, *The Presence of the Past* (New York: Columbia University Press, 2000); David Glassberg, *Sense of History: The Place of the Past in American Life* (Amherst, MA: Massachusetts University Press, 2001).

History also features prominently in important aspects of public discourse in the United States. For example, a major strand of judicial philosophy holds that the Constitution can only be interpreted in light of its original meaning or intent, and for proponents of this theory, the perspectives of the 18th century founders of the nation are a crucial element of constitutional law. Although this may seem like a highly specialized issue, a similar perspective spills over into controversial public issues. Proponents of gun control, for example, argue that the Second Amendment to the U.S. Constitution (which protects the right to own guns) should be seen in light of the role of militias in colonial America rather than as a guarantee of individual ownership. Even more controversially, the religious views of the framers of the Constitution are repeatedly used as a way of justifying contemporary positions on the role of religion in public life, as both popular and academic works set out to establish the extent to which these and other founders of the nation believed that religion and government should be separated, whether they thought of the United States as a Christian nation, or even whether they were Christians at all. So powerful is the voice of history in the United States that linking one's own political position to that of the founders is considered highly compelling – so much so that participants in these debates have been accused of fabricating historical evidence.²

Even more important, U.S. political rhetoric is heavily invested in images of the past, as politicians of varied ideological positions – particularly those at the highest levels – draw upon the nation's history to justify their policies and visions. For conservatives, this often means calling attention to a tradition of individualism and self-reliance; for liberals, a tradition of seeking justice and community well-being; and for both, a tradition of hard work and patriotism. Minority politicians, meanwhile, often call attention to the unique historical challenges and struggles of their own groups. Trying together each of these positions, however is the theme of “American exceptionalism.” Although there are varied notions of what makes the United States unique, politicians recognize that their success depends on portraying the United States as a nation set apart from the rest of the world, one founded on ideals that are taken to be uniquely American.³

These varied uses of the past – particularly in their public guises – point to the central purpose of history in U.S. society: It forms a sense of identity. Whether listening to stories from grandparents, doing genealogical research, or listening to political speeches, Americans expect history to give them a sense of who they are and where they fit into a larger narrative. Thus history, for Americans, is expected to be about origins (of a family, a community, or the nation) or about developments that have led directly to the present (an immigrant's journey, a town's founding, or a

² Jack N. Rakove, *Original Meanings: Politics and Ideas in the Making of the Constitution* (New York: Vintage, 1997); James Lindren, “Fall from Grace: Arming America and the Bellesiles Scandal,” *The Yale Law Journal* 111 (2002): 2195-2249; John Fea, *Was American Founded as a Christian Nation? A Historical Introduction* (Louisville, KY: Westminster John Knox Press, 2011), 69.

³ Seymour Martin Lipset, *American Exceptionalism: A Double-Edged Sword* (New York: W. W. Norton, 1997).

national event such as the Civil War or the Civil Rights Movement). This identification, moreover, revolves around the country itself. History in the United States is expected to establish a community of identification, and that is, first and foremost, the imagined community of the nation-state. Liberals and conservatives tell different stories of the U.S. past, but they all aim to tell *every American's* story; that is, conservatives and liberals do not aim to divide the past into those who have been individualistic or justice-oriented – they aim to portray Americans in general as having been representative of their own favored vision. Even minorities' historical struggles are positioned as a claim on the "American dream" – an attempt to become accepted as part of the larger national community, not to remain separate from it. A group's distinctive experiences may be valued, but complete separatism rarely is. The importance of establishing a national community also helps explain why history in the United States focuses primarily on the nation's past, and why world history is not usually an important element of concern (except when the United States was involved in global affairs, as in World War II).⁴

The cultural and political importance of history in the United States is illustrated by the vehemence of periodic controversies over the past. Throughout the nation's history, arguments have erupted over which figures should be commemorated, and which events memorialized, because these invariably send a message about the character of the nation itself. The United States is subject to ongoing debates over how best to remember individuals such as Christopher Columbus or Thomas Jefferson, or events such as the bombing of Hiroshima or the internment of Japanese Americans during World War II. Similarly, issues such as the public display of the Confederate flag, or changes to the history curriculum in schools, are sure to provoke heated responses among politicians and the public. In a nation in which history is so closely tied to identity, controversies are inevitable.⁵

This emphasis on identification also helps clarify why so many critics complain that history is not important in the American consciousness, or why historical understanding in the United States is lacking. Academic historians may dismiss a concern with family or local history as "merely culture," and they can easily point to distortions, simplifications, and outright fabrications when history is used in political and cultural debates. Popular media, meanwhile, periodically give Americans tests of historical knowledge to show how ignorant they are of basic facts or how incapable they are of identifying historical dates. Both these critiques miss the point, however, for Americans are neither unconcerned nor uninformed about history. Rather, their historical knowledge and interests are highly selective. Most Americans have little interest in the research of academic historians, for this is not the world in which their historical understanding circulates. Neither are Americans

⁴ Keith C. Barton and Linda S. Levstik, *Teaching History for the Common Good* (New York: Routledge, 2004).

⁵ Edward T. Linenthal and Tom Engelhardt, *History Wars: The Enola Gay and Other Battles for the American Past* (New York: Holt, 1996); Gary Nash, Charlotte Crabtree, and Ross Dunn, *History on Trial: Culture Wars and the Teaching of the Past* (New York: Vintage, 2000).

especially concerned with minute details of national political history. When they are interested in details, their focus is likely to be on their family or community; when they turn to the nation, they are interested not in trivia but in the big picture – how the nation began, how it developed, and what it says about who we are as a people. There are indeed shortcomings in Americans’ historical understanding (as there are in that of any group), but it is important to remember that these cannot be interpreted in absolute terms. Deficiencies exist only in reference to some set of standards, and those standards are social constructions. To say that Americans don’t know enough history, then, is to say that they don’t know enough of the history that some particular group thinks they *should* know.

2. History in Primary and Secondary Schools

History in U.S. primary and secondary schools both reflects and conditions the emphasis on national identification. In order to understand history education in the United States, though, it is important to keep in mind several key factors that influence the nature of curriculum and instruction. First, the United States has a long-standing tradition of local control of schools; each “district” (usually a city or town) elects its own governing board, which has almost complete executive control over its schools. This means that there is no required national curriculum, nor any national system of education. Second, the United States is a federal system, in which educational funding and legislation is determined at the state level. This means that each state has substantial influence over its schools; local districts that chose to defy certain guidelines would lose funding from the state. Each state, then, establishes a curriculum framework for its schools; although the specificity of these varies from state to state, the general contours are remarkably similar across the country. Yet the accountability of local districts for implementing the state curriculum is extremely imprecise, particularly in history. This is because there is no system of school inspection in which states evaluate curriculum adherence. Instead, schools are held accountable only through students’ test scores; if schools or districts perform poorly on these tests, then teachers or administrators may be replaced—although this is both rare and uncertain. Moreover, the articulation between state curricula and tests is loose, at best; tests cover only a small (and usually unpredictable) portion of the curriculum, and about half of the states have no tests in history.⁶

This combination of factors means that in practice, each state and each district – even each school within a district – has enormous freedom to shape a distinct approach to curriculum and instruction in history. Yet throughout the country, each school has a nearly identical curriculum and very similar approaches to teaching. Nor have these changed much in the last century: Textbooks and curriculum guides

⁶ Keith C. Barton, “Wars and Rumors of War: Making Sense of History Education in the United States,” in *History Wars and the Classroom: Global Perspectives*, ed. Tony Taylor and Robert Guyver (Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, 2011), 189-204.

from the early 1900s are immediately recognizable as following the same outlines as those today, and descriptions of instructional methods from that period share fundamental similarities with current-day patterns of teaching. This is because history education in the United States is not determined primarily by tests, textbooks, or curriculum requirements; it is determined by deep-seated cultural expectations about what history *is* and what young people should know in order to be U.S. citizens. Although some teachers and some schools take advantage of their flexibility to institute practices that are substantially different from dominant patterns, there clearly is an outline that represents the experience most students have of history education in U.S. schools.

Instructionally, learning history means learning narratives. The basic expectation of most history coursework in the United States is that students will be able to reproduce the historical narratives they have encountered in school. This does not usually mean that students will be required to memorize those narratives in meticulous detail, nor will they be expected to exactly mimic what they have read; instead, students are expected to comprehend narratives well enough that they can explain them in their own words or answer questions about them. Across grade levels, these narratives become increasingly complex, and students are expected to understand increasingly sophisticated elements of them, such as how particular events are related to larger contexts and developments. Although history teachers in the U.S. are sometimes stereotyped as presenting narratives by lecturing or having students read textbook chapters (and while those stereotypes are too often true), many of them familiarize their students with narratives through more accessible formats (such as digital media or historical fiction) and develop their comprehension through more engaging activities (such as role plays, presentations, or personal writing.) But while classrooms may appear different on the surface, depending on the kinds of resources and activities teachers select, the underlying purpose – to comprehend and remember a narrative – pervades most history education in the United States.⁷

In addition, these narratives are not usually problematized to any great extent. This means, first of all, that students do not gain extensive familiarity with how narratives are constructed by historians (or others), with the variety of evidence upon which historical accounts are based, or with the means by which evidence is shaped into coherent narratives. In a related way, students are not usually presented with multiple historical interpretations of events. Although they may be exposed to multiple perspectives that existed at a given time in the past, such as English and Colonial perspectives on the American Revolution (which are often oversimplified and dichotomized), they rarely encounter differing historiographical interpretations, such as different historians' explanations of the nature, cause, and effects of the American Revolution. In particular, students are not usually exposed to contro-

⁷ Keith C. Barton, "History: From Learning Narratives to Thinking Historically," in *Contemporary Social Studies: An Essential Reader*, ed. William B. Russell (Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing), 119-138.

versial perspectives on history, especially those that call into question fundamental social structures or that locate the roots of contemporary social problems in the political or economic policies of the past. The kinds of controversies that surround history outside schools, that is, do not usually make their way into classrooms. Overall, history in U.S. classrooms is presented as though it were a story (or a set of stories) about which most people agree; neither its construction nor its contemporary relevance is fundamentally questioned.⁸

The content of this curriculum is largely, although not exclusively, a story of national origins and development. In the first three years of school, most students' exposure to history is limited to holiday celebrations, each of which commemorates a significant event in national development – Columbus Day, Thanksgiving, Martin Luther King Jr., Day, and Presidents' Day (celebrating George Washington and Abraham Lincoln). Some schools may also include brief attention to other historical topics, such as Native American life or local history, but the history of the world outside North America is almost entirely absent. During the upper elementary school years, students usually receive a more systematic exposure to history, which usually takes the form of a chronological treatment of the exploration and settlement of the United States, the American Revolution and founding of the country, and often the events leading up to the U.S. Civil War. In many states, students also study state history during this time, and this too generally takes the form of a chronological treatment of the origin and development of their state, often set within the framework of national development. It should be noted that in the upper elementary grades, it is common for students to study the broad field of social studies (including economics, civics, and geography as well as history) for at least two hours each week, but the amount of history taught during that time can vary – from the integration of all subjects within historical topics, to separate units on each.

During the middle school years – generally 6th through 8th grades, when students are approximately 11-14 years old – comes the first exposure to world history in school. Two years of middle school are usually spent studying some combination of prehistory, ancient civilizations, medieval and European history, or the history of world regions – often combined with the study of world geography. One year of middle school, though, is almost always devoted to another chronological treatment of U.S. history, focusing on the period up to and including the Civil War (often overlapping with the content studied in elementary school), and emphasizing legal and political developments. Note that beginning in middle school, most students study history (again, sometimes combined with other social studies areas) every day of the school week, during periods that usually range from 40-50 minutes per day.

During high school – the last four years of pre-collegiate education in the United States – it is common for students to be required to enroll in either three or four

⁸ James W. Loewen, *Lies My Teacher Told Me: Everything Your American History Textbook Got Wrong* (New York: New Press, 2008).

social studies courses, and this usually includes the requirement of another chronological treatment of U.S. history, usually stretching from the post-Civil War period through the present. Just as in middle school, this course focuses primarily on legal, political, and economic developments (including reform movements such as progressivism, women's suffrage, and civil rights), presidential politics, and U.S. involvement in foreign wars. Many students also take – either as a requirement or an elective – another course in European or world history, the content of which varies from state to state. Also during high school, many academically capable students take “Advanced Placement” courses, which cover the same content as regular courses in U.S. or world history but at a sufficient level of difficulty that students receive college credit for them. (Note that in the United States, nearly all high schools are comprehensive ones; differentiation of students usually occurs based on the level of difficulty of their courses rather than overall curricular requirements or type of school.) Just as they do in middle school, most students in high school study the same subjects every day, for approximately 40-50 minutes each; in high school, however, history courses are rarely combined with content from economics, geography, or civics, and so the direct attention given to history is usually greater. And notably, a course in civics or government – often required – may also include extensive attention to the constitutional history of the country.

Overall, then, primary and secondary history education in the United States aims at creating a strong sense of national identity, but in a somewhat indirect way. The lessons of identity come less from the explicit content of the curriculum than its overall structure: Students study national history repeatedly, from the first holiday celebrations of kindergarten through constitutional history in senior high school. Moreover, despite occasional forays into social history (e.g., “life in the colonies,” “immigrant experiences,” “life during the Great Depression,”) the overwhelming emphasis of history is the story of the origin, development, and character of the United States *as a national political entity*. Students learn that this is what school history *is* – the story of U.S. national development. They also develop a positive sense of national identity, not through exposure to explicitly patriotic messages (though these occur in the wider context of U.S. schooling), but because of the curriculum's narrative emphasis on the solution of problems. Challenges such as British domination, slavery, women's suffrage, world wars, and civil rights were faced and resolved – this is the story of U.S. history that students encounter, again and again. Episodes that do not easily fit that image – such as foreign interventions to topple democratically elected governments or domestic suppression of free speech – receive much less attention, if any at all.⁹

For the past century and more, many history educators have challenged this pattern, but with limited results. Scholars have argued for greater attention to the nature of historical interpretation, more connection between past and present, expanded focus on the rest of the world, and increased attention to alternative per-

⁹ Keith C. Barton and Linda S. Levstik, *Teaching History for the Common Good*. New York: Routledge, 2004.

spectives.¹⁰ And there are indeed many committed teachers, scattered throughout the country, who make use of their autonomy and flexibility to introduce new elements into the curriculum.¹¹ Overall, however, these efforts have difficulty making headway in U.S. schools. This is not due primarily to curricular requirements or textbook content, as many people believe. Even when state curricula include attention to alternative perspectives or to historical investigation and interpretation, many teachers ignore these elements – perhaps unconsciously – and focus instead of the traditional narrative of U.S. nation-building. Similarly, when teachers claim to be “teaching to the test,” they often emphasize not what is on the test but what they perceive to be on it – and their perceptions fall in line with long-standing cultural expectations about the nature of history in schools. Textbooks, meanwhile, are not produced by governmental agencies, and apart from occasional passages they are not written to adhere closely to state curriculum guidelines (although publishers retroactively proclaim the ability of their texts to match such guidelines). Instead, as part of a lucrative and competitive commercial industry, textbooks are written to be sold – and that means including content that conforms to expectations. A textbook that deviated too far from the traditional narrative pattern of school history would not be adopted by schools and would thus not make a profit. Although textbooks contribute to traditional patterns of history teaching in the United States, they must be seen as part of a mutually reinforcing cycle by which cultural patterns are reproduced rather than as the principal cause of those patterns.

3. History in Universities

University-level history simultaneously reflects and deviates from the patterns found in primary and secondary schools. Unlike in many parts of the world, universities in the United States do not specialize at the undergraduate level: Although they have differing strengths, all offer a broad range of courses and major fields of study, particularly in the Arts and Sciences, and students could major in history at the vast majority of universities in the country. (176,000 students were majoring in history at last count.) In addition, the first two years of university study in the United States usually involves general education, much like in secondary schools: Students are required to take courses in language, social and natural sciences, mathematics, the humanities, and so on, regardless of what field they plan to major in. This affects university history in two ways. First, a large portion of the higher education student population takes additional history courses – usually one or two

¹⁰ E.g., Barton and Levstik, *Teaching History for the Common Good* (note 9); S. G. Grant, *History Lessons: Teaching, Learning, and Testing in U.S. High School Classrooms* (New York: Routledge, 2003); Bruce VanSledright, *The Challenge of Rethinking History Education: On Practices, Theories, and Policy* (New York: Routledge, 2010);

¹¹ E.g., Linda S. Levstik and Keith C. Barton, *Doing History: Investigating with Children in Elementary and Middle Schools* (New York: Routledge, 2011); S. G. Grant and Jill M. Gradwell, eds., *Teaching History with Big Ideas: Cases of Ambitious Teachers* (Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield, 2010).

– beyond that which they studied in secondary school. (History is also a popular major among students who plan to study law; in the United States, legal study occurs only at the post-baccalaureate level.) Second, the need to offer these courses means that all universities hire faculty in the field, and this creates an extensive job market (albeit one that is currently saturated) for academic historians in the United States; there are approximately 30,000 university historians in the country.¹²

Upon completing the doctorate, historians are qualified to join the faculty at any university. Just as with primary and secondary schooling, higher education in the United States is highly decentralized, and each university makes its own, independent hiring decisions. Faculty usually enter as “assistant professors,” who have all the responsibilities of full faculty members, but who have limited job security for approximately seven years. If they demonstrate an acceptable record of teaching and, more importantly, scholarship (the standards for which vary across universities), they can expect to receive tenure and promotion to “associate professor”; those who are denied promotion usually must seek employment elsewhere. Further accomplishments usually lead, eventually, to promotion to “full professor”. Each of these promotions brings a small increase in salary and an appreciable increase in status and prestige, although they carry with them few differences in workload or responsibilities. Increasingly, though, faculty members are hired as “instructors” or “lecturers,” sometimes on a part-time basis, and these positions often carry less pay, fewer benefits, a higher teaching load, and – most important – substantially lower job security and opportunity for promotion. Because of the competitive nature of the job market at present, however, many historians have no choice but to accept such positions.¹³

U.S. historians’ research is motivated both by their own intellectual interests and by opportunities for publishing (a major requirement for tenure), and they face no formal restrictions on the nature of the work they undertake. Informally, young historians at any given institution may feel pressure to privilege certain lines of inquiry over others, but within the profession as a whole, historians in the United States produce cutting-edge scholarship that makes use of extraordinarily diverse perspectives, methodologies, and theoretical frameworks, and they focus on the widest possible range of topics in both U.S. and world history. Professional advancement is possible using almost any approach, because the number of publishing outlets and conference opportunities – both general and specialized – render

¹² American Historical Association, “AHA Data on the Historical Profession,” http://www.historians.org/info/AHA_Data.cfm (accessed: September 22nd, 2012); Thomas Bender, Philip M. Katz, Colin Palmer, and the Committee on Graduate Education of the American Historical Association, *The Education of Historians for the Twenty-first Century* (Washington, DC: American Historical Association, 2004), <http://www.historians.org/projects/cge/2004/Report/> (accessed: September 29th, 2012).

¹³ Robert B. Townsend, “The Ecology of the History Job: Shifting Realities in a Fluid Market,” *Perspectives* (December 2011), American Historical Association, <http://www.historians.org/Perspectives/issues/2011/1112/The-Ecology-of-the-History-Job-Shifting-Realities-in-a-Fluid-Market.cfm> (accessed: September 29th, 2012).

such diversity feasible. As in any field, the most radical or challenging perspectives initially struggle for a place within mainstream professional discourse, but even when such perspectives are marginalized they can nonetheless be found to some degree at conferences, in journals, and in coursework. Certainly there is no pressure, informal or otherwise, to produce history that serves nationalistic purposes; indeed, historians with overtly nationalistic agendas would be held in low esteem by their peers. This is not to say that national history is not an important focus of scholarship; many U.S. historians are passionately interested in national origins, development, and identity – but their perspectives invariably are far more complex, nuanced, and multi-vocal than those found in primary and secondary schools.

University students' experiences, however, are somewhat less diverse than the work of the historians who teach them. Introductory U.S. history courses generally follow the same chronological and national framework found in previous levels of schooling, and world history courses also are usually based on a chronological outline; topic or thematic courses at the introductory level are not common.¹⁴ However, within these courses, students are much more likely to be exposed to contemporary scholarly perspectives on the history of women, minorities, the working class, culture, and global relationships than they have been in their previous studies. If students continue to study history past the introductory level, they will encounter not only diverse – and sometimes challenging – perspectives, but also more topically focused courses that align with broader trends in the history profession, as well as alternative historiographical interpretations. However, even at advanced levels, most undergraduate students will not gain extensive experience developing their own interpretations based on first-hand research with original historical sources. Although not unknown at the undergraduate level, such work is much more common in masters and, especially, doctoral programs.

4. The Preparation of History Teachers

Just as elementary and secondary school systems in the United States are established by state governments and administered at the local level, teacher preparation requirements are outlined by states but given detail and shape at each university. Despite a range of such requirements and programs, some broad patterns – and specific variations – are most common. With some exceptions, primary responsibility for educating teachers lies not within history departments but in colleges of education (or what may be called “faculties of education” in other countries). Most universities have separate academic units that focuses on the study of education; these typically include departments focused on teacher training, as well as on educational psychology, school administration, and the social and philosophical foun-

¹⁴ Robert B. Townsend, “Teaching the Introductory Survey: Insights from the College Board’s AP Survey”, *Perspectives* (September 2005), American Historical Association, <http://historians.org/perspectives/issues/2005/0509/0509new2.cfm> (accessed September 29th, 2012).

dations of education. Just as most universities have degrees in history, most have teacher preparation programs as well; in states of at least medium size, prospective teachers could receive their preparation in any of several dozen institutions of higher education.

However, students do not take all their coursework within these colleges; instead, like most university students in the United States, their first two years of study consist of general coursework taken primarily within a college of Arts and Sciences. During their third and fourth years of undergraduate study, they typically take an increasing number of courses within the field of education. They also complete practical field experiences in schools in the last two years of their programs, and this culminates in a semester-long student-teaching experience, during which time they gradually assume nearly full control of classrooms under the supervision of regularly-employed teachers. Students who successfully complete these requirements are recommended by their university, to the state, to become qualified teachers (known as either a “licensed” or “certified” teacher – the two terms have the same meaning). Most universities submit their programs for periodic review by one of the two institutions charged with accrediting programs of teacher education – the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), or the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC). Both NCATE and TEAC are supported by institutional fees and are independent of any government control, but in most states their approval is accepted (or required) as a condition for the state’s continuing approval of a university’s teacher education programs. In some states, an additional level of state review is also required.¹⁵

As part of their coursework in education, most aspiring teachers take a variety of classes that focus on topics such as psychology and human development; the nature and purpose of schooling in the United States; technology use in education; multicultural education; literacy and language development; general instructional and assessment methods; and – most significantly – subject-specific instructional methods. (In the United States, such courses are usually referred to as “methods courses”; the term “didactics” is not used, and its adjectival form – “didactic” – has an extremely negative connotation due to its association in the United States with heavy-handed, teacher-centered instruction.) The exact set of classes depends on state and university requirements, and students in teacher education usually have limited flexibility or choice in their course selections. In elementary teacher education programs, it is common for students to complete approximately two-thirds of

¹⁵ Linda Darling-Hammond, “Teacher Preparation and Development in the United States,” in *Teacher Education around the World: Changing Policies and Practices*, ed. Linda Darling-Hammond and Ann Lieberman (New York: Routledge, 2011), 130-150; National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, “Unit Standards in Effect 2008”, <http://www.ncate.org/Standards/NCATEUnitStandards/UnitStandardsinEffect2008/tabid/476/Default.aspx> (accessed September 29, 2012); Teacher Education Accreditation Council, *Guide to Accreditation* (Washington, DC: Teacher Education Accreditation Council, 2012), <http://www.teac.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/01/GuideToAccred-for-2012-V1.12.pdf> (accessed September 29th, 2012).

their coursework within Arts and Sciences, and one-third within education; although that pattern is also common in preparing secondary teachers, some programs require a higher proportion of courses to be taken in one or more subject fields in colleges of Arts and Sciences.

To understand the subject-specific nature of history teachers' preparation, it is important to keep in mind that in the United States, history is one subject within the broader field of "social studies," along with geography, economics, government, and other social sciences. At the elementary level, teachers are required to teach a small portion of each of these subjects, and in their preparation programs they usually take a range of introductory courses in social sciences as part of general education; in some cases, slightly greater depth is required in a subject of their choosing. They then take an instructional methods course that covers methods for teaching all the social sciences at the elementary level; they also take similar courses in methods for teaching science, mathematics, and language. Subject matter specialization is not a common feature of initial teacher education at the elementary level, although some elementary teachers pursue such specialization in graduate school. Most secondary teachers also are licensed to teach more than one social science subject, and so their general education courses also include several introductory courses. However, secondary teachers must pursue more extensive coursework in at least one field. In some programs, this means a relatively equal number of courses in two or more subjects, while in others, teachers concentrate in just one – sometimes taking as many courses as a student majoring in that field – while enrolling in slightly more courses than required as part of general education in one or more additional fields. Just as at the elementary level, most secondary teacher candidates take an instructional methods course (sometimes two) that focuses on teaching the entire range of social science fields – although in practice, history and government usually are the two areas most heavily emphasized, because of their dominance in secondary schools. In both elementary and secondary programs, these subject-specific methods courses may be taught by educational generalists (more common at smaller institutions), education faculty or education doctoral students specializing in social studies (at most medium and large institutions), or classroom teachers who serve as adjunct faculty at universities.¹⁶ Depending on state and university guidelines, at the end of their program students may become licensed to teach one, some, or all social sciences. (In programs that require a single field of preparation, methods courses may focus on only one discipline, and such courses sometimes are taught by history faculty rather than those in education.)

A common variation in teacher preparation occurs at the graduate level. Most large universities permit – and sometimes require – students to have completed baccalaureate degrees before enrolling in a teacher education program. Such graduate certification programs usually consist of one year of intensive education courses

¹⁶ Stephen J. Thornton, "Educating the Educators: Rethinking Subject Matter and Methods," *Theory into Practice* 40 (2001): 72-78.

and field experiences, sometimes resulting in a masters degree as well as certification (often known as an MAT – a Master of Arts in Teaching) or involving dual enrollment in a more traditional masters program.¹⁷ At the elementary level, the baccalaureate degree can usually be in any field, and undergraduate programs of study often include most or all of the social sciences courses needed at that level (although sometimes candidates may be required to take additional coursework). At the secondary level, students are usually required to have much greater preparation in the social sciences, and this can be problematic. A student with a degree in history, geography, or political science usually has all the subject-matter coursework necessary to be certified in one field, and may often be able to complete additional areas with minimal additional classes beyond those in education. However, those seeking graduate certification often do so as a career change after working in other fields. Students whose undergraduate degrees are in business or communications, for example, may find that they have substantial coursework to complete in history (or other fields) before becoming licensed.

Another, less common, alternative to traditional routes for teacher certification requires minimal or no specific preparation in educational methods. Under such plans, college graduates with degrees in appropriate fields (perhaps after passing an examination) are permitted to immediately assume jobs as classroom teachers (when schools are willing to hire them). Their development of pedagogical expertise comes from some combination of on-the-job experience, school-based mentoring, and university coursework, eventually leading to official certification. (More extreme proposals would require no certification, but these have not been implemented.) Such alternatives have been a feature of the educational landscape in the United States for many years and have usually represented a response to shortages of qualified teachers. One alternative program, Teach for America, has generated a great deal of publicity and controversy in recent years, due both to its aim of providing teachers to low-income communities, and its growth during a time of the oversupply of teachers (leading critics to charge that it undermines the ranks of professional educators).¹⁸ Despite its visibility, however, Teach for America (and other programs like it) are responsible for only a small portion of the U.S. teaching force, and their impact on history education has been minimal.

Upon completion of either baccalaureate or graduate certification programs, teachers are fully licensed to teach in any school in their state; because U.S. schools are comprehensive ones, there is no specialized training for different types of schools. (Teaching in a state different than that in which professional preparation took place requires separate application to that state's Department of Education.) Schools in the United States are at their most decentralized in issues of hiring: There are no

¹⁷ Pam Grossman and Susanna Loeb, eds., *Alternative Routes to Teaching: Mapping the New Landscape of Teacher Education* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press, 2008); C. Emily Feistritzer and Charlene K. Haar, *Alternative Routes to Teaching* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill/Prentice Hall, 2008).

¹⁸ David Labaree, "Teach for America and Teacher Ed: Heads They Win, Tails We Lose," *Journal of Teacher Education* 61 (2010): 48-55.

state or federal agencies that co-ordinate the hiring of teachers, so those seeking positions apply to individual districts or individual schools – often to a great many of them, given that there is an oversupply of elementary teachers and secondary teachers in history/social studies. Upon being hired, teachers often participate in a specialized system of introductory mentoring and evaluation during their first year, after which they have a probationary period of employment, when they can be dismissed at any time (but usually at the end of a school year). After a period of 2-5 years, most teachers who have performed satisfactorily receive tenure, and after this point dismissal requires a much more extensive process of documenting deficiencies and providing remediation.

Further professional development after graduation occurs in a number of ways. In some states, teachers are required to obtain a masters degree within a specified (and variable) number of years after assuming their jobs; such degrees may be in history, education, or a related field (or some combination of education and other fields). In other states, teachers may demonstrate continuing professional development through their participation in practitioner-oriented workshops or programs; these may take place at individual schools, throughout a district, or under the sponsorship of outside institutions such as universities, historical associations, or museums. Such workshops and programs may be short-term (e.g., a single hour after school) or much more extensive (e.g., residential summer institutions or multi-year programs of education and coaching); they may also be generic programs (e.g., on motivating students, or using questioning techniques across subject fields) or focused more directly on history or social studies. Teachers can also join local, state, and national organizations for historians and for teachers, such as the National Council for the Social Studies, the National Council for History Education, the American Historical Association, the Organization of American Historians, and many others; each of these organizations publishes journals and other materials aimed at the professional development of history and social studies teachers. (Notably, however, many history teachers belong to no such organizations, and the participation of elementary teachers is particularly low.) Teachers who wish to demonstrate an appreciably higher level of pedagogical expertise than the norm can also seek certification from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS); although participation in this process is voluntary and does not result in officially recognized qualifications, such certification carries a high level of prestige and is encouraged or supported by many states and districts.¹⁹

¹⁹ National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, *Social Studies/History Standards*, 2nd ed. (Arlington, VA: National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2010), <http://www.nbpts.org/sites/default/files/documents/certificates/nbpts-certificate-aya-ssh-standards.pdf> (accessed August 4th, 2013).

5. Conclusions

Despite its size and diversity, and despite its decentralized educational system, the United States demonstrates some clear patterns in history education and teacher preparation. History is a prevalent part of popular culture and of schooling, and one of its most important purposes is to create a common sense of U.S. identity, grounded in a story of progress and national development. This story does not closely reflect either the work of academic historians or the findings and recommendations of educational theorists and researchers. Despite encountering a more complex version of the national story in university courses, despite learning about contemporary theory and research in history education in their pedagogical methods courses, and despite the availability of a rich assortment of professional development opportunities, most teachers – though by no means all – replicate patterns that have existed throughout much of the last century. The perpetuation of this pattern cannot be attributed solely to textbooks, examinations, or curricular requirements; rather, the entire panoply of history education in the United States is part of long-standing cultural assumptions about reasons for knowing the past. Any changes to these practices must involve a reconsideration of purpose, rather than technical or instrumental changes in educational requirements.

Dialogue Across Chasms: History and History Education in Canada

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1. Introduction

Questions related to the place of history in our daily lives and how it should be taught in schools are complex and challenging. Canada is a diverse country in many respects. The federation, created in 1867, did not become officially bilingual until 1969, but we consider ourselves to have been formed by two founding nations, the French and the English, a situation which was not easy from the beginning. When Lord Durham was dispatched from Britain in 1838 to assess the causes of, and propose an appropriate government response to, the rebellions against the authorities in the British colonies of Upper Canada (Ontario) and Lower Canada (Québec), he returned, completely perplexed and muttering, “I expected to find a contest between a government and a people: I found two nations warring in the bosom of a single state: I found a struggle, not of principles, but of races.”¹ Durham was speaking of the historical chasm between the people of French heritage in Lower Canada and those of British heritage in Upper Canada. In the years since, aboriginal peoples who inhabited this land well before the European “discovery,” have also claimed a form of nationhood for themselves within the Canadian state.² Increasingly, immigrant groups have added their voices to the mix.³ Canadians now ask, are we one nation or are we several?

A second challenge has been that many Canadians, particularly the young and immigrants, do not find their own history as a nation particularly interesting and relevant. Iconic Canadian poet Earle Birney articulated this sentiment in his 1947 poem, “CAN. LIT.”:

We French, we English, never lost our civil war
Endure it still, a bloodless civil bore
No wounded lying about, no Whitman wanted
It’s only by our lack of ghosts we’re haunted.⁴

¹ John George Lambton, 1st Earl of Durham, *Report on the Affairs of British North America, from the Earl of Durham*, In Dictionary of Canadian Biography Online. Retrieved from http://www.biographi.ca/009004-119.01-e.php?id_nbr=3484.

² Canada, *Report of the Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples* (Ottawa: Queen’s Printer, 1996).

³ Will Kymlicka, *Finding Our Way: Rethinking Ethnocultural Relations in Canada* (Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1998).

⁴ Earle Birney, “CAN. LIT,” *Ghost in the Wheels: Selected Poems* (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1977).

A third challenge relates to our sheer physical size (we are the second largest country in the world by area) and relatively low population (34 million), clustered mostly along the border with the United States. As political scientist Philip Resnick has put it, Canada is “a thinly populated, continent-sized triumph of history over geography.”⁵ This has led to strong regional identities and provincial autonomy, as well as constant anxiety about cultural takeover by our much larger neighbour to the south.

Historians and history educators are confronted with the challenge of articulating a continent-sized, regionally divided country, with a very influential neighbour. Canada defies simple concepts of nationhood, has evolved through constitutional change rather than revolution and continues to live according to its dictum “peace, order, and good government.”⁶

If Canadian history is complicated, so is history education. Elementary and secondary school education are not the responsibility of one federal jurisdiction, but the mandate of 13 provincial and territorial governments, each of which determines its own curriculum and teaching resources. Postsecondary education is also under provincial and territorial mandate, but is funded partially by the federal government. In the Constitution Act, education of aboriginal students is the responsibility of the federal government, although most aboriginal students now attend provincial or territorial public schools.

In 1998, Canadian historian Jack Granatstein published *Who Killed Canadian History?*, a bestselling polemic which captured the sense of crisis pervading history education and cultural heritage at the time. He blamed the demise of school history on various “killers,” including academic historians; interest groups formed around cultural, gendered, and political aims; and provincial departments of education. Academics hindered the development of a coherent national narrative teachable to students because they were increasingly engaged in narrowly focused research studies such as “housemaid’s knee,” as one academic disparagingly put it.⁷ Interest groups compounded the problem by lobbying for new curricula that included women, various ethnic groups, the elderly, and other marginalized groups who had made it into the curriculum only in very limited ways. Provincial departments of education were at fault for replacing history courses with contemporary, interdisciplinary social studies courses, which diluted the overall influence of the discipline

⁵ Philip Resnick, *The European Roots of Canadian Identity* (Peterborough, ON: Broadview, 2005), 11.

⁶ These include the 1931 Statute of Westminster, the 1982 Charter of Rights and Freedoms, the 1982 repatriation of our constitution from Great Britain, and the 1982 Constitution Act. See Resnick, *The European Roots of Canadian Identity* (note 5).

⁷ Michael Bliss, “Privatizing the Mind: The Sundering of Canadian History, the Sundering of Canada,” *Journal of Canadian Studies* 26 (1991) 4: 5-17.

of history.⁸ To compound the problem, they were also decreasing time allotments for history teaching and overemphasizing skill development.⁹

Another aspect of the problem is that those who could make a significant difference to history education have been separated by deep divides. As Ruth Sandwell has stated elsewhere, with regard to the rift between historians in universities and history teachers in elementary and secondary schools:

From the vantage point of elementary and secondary school history teachers, the work of professional historians in the post-1960 period has been increasingly ‘academic’ in the worst sense of the word: irrelevant, pretentious, and frequently unreadable. For historians, the work of history teacher has been seen as, at best, facile and irrelevant, and at its worst a more or less benign form of government propaganda.¹⁰

Canadians have been asking: If Canadian history is dead, who killed it and why?¹¹ How can we best teach national history in a country that is culturally and ethnically divided? Should we develop a nationally mandated Canadian history curriculum? Are we historically illiterate as a nation? Do we understand enough about our past to make informed judgments about our course for the future? How do new technologies affect the ways that Canadians, especially young Canadians, relate to the past? How should we prepare history teachers? How should we assess students’ historical literacy? These questions inform both public and scholarly discourse about history education.

2. History in the Public Domain

In spite of Canadians’ apparent dissatisfaction with academic and school history, evidence indicates that they take a surprisingly avid interest in the past. A recent national study by Jocelyn Létourneau and his colleagues in the “Canadians and their Pasts Project,” surveyed a sample of over 3000 adult Canadians and found that almost all of the respondents engaged in activities where they encounter the past. Many looked at old photographs (83%), watched movies, DVDs, or television programs about the past (78%), or kept heirlooms or other objects to pass on to family or close friends (74%), as a way to preserve the past. A large number re-

⁸ Ken Osborne, “Teaching History in Schools: A Canadian Debate”, *Journal of Curriculum Studies* 35 (2003): 585-626.

⁹ Bob Davis, *Skills Mania: Snake Oil in Our Schools* (Toronto: Between the Lines, 2000).

¹⁰ Ruth Sandwell, “Introduction,” in *To the Past: History Education, Public Memory, and Citizenship in Canada*, ed. Ruth Sandwell (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2006), 6. For these debates, see Ruth Sandwell, “‘We Were Allowed to Disagree, Because We Couldn’t Agree on Anything’: Seventeen Voices in Canadian Debates over History Education,” in *History Wars and the Classroom: Global Perspective*, ed. Tony Taylor and Robert Guyver (Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, 2012), 51-76; Penney Clark, “Introduction,” in *New Possibilities for the Past: Shaping History Education in Canada*, ed. Penney Clark (Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia Press, 2011), 1-30.

¹¹ See Tim Stanley, “Why I Killed Canadian History: Towards an Anti-Racist History in Canada”, *Social History* 33 (2000): 79-103.

ported that they had read books about the past (54%), visited a historic site (49%), or a museum (43%) in the previous 12 months. 70% reported that they had participated in five or more activities related to the past.¹² The level of involvement in these activities suggests that “Canadians generally seem to be turning to history as a way of rooting themselves in time and place. They know, consciously or unconsciously, that history matters and are eager to access accurate sources that help them put their personal and family experiences in a broader historical context.”¹³

The other interesting phenomenon is the remarkable number of history products, both French and English, developed over the decades following World War II and received with great interest by the public-at-large. These have been produced by our public broadcaster, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC), the National Film Board of Canada (NFB), but also by individual Canadians.¹⁴ A significant part of this output has centred on interpretations of involvement in the two world wars, which an increasing number of Canadians are seeing as defining moments in the development of a Canadian national consciousness.¹⁵ Prominent novelists have produced prize-winning narratives,¹⁶ war historians have crafted carefully researched and well received nonfiction accounts,¹⁷ playwrights have written

¹² PASTS Collective (Margaret Conrad, Kadriye Ercikan, Gerald Friesen, Jocelyn Létourneau, Delphin Muise, David Northrup, Peter Seixas), *Canadians and their Pasts* (Toronto, University of Toronto Press, in press).

¹³ Margaret Conrad, Jocelyn Létourneau, and David Northrup, “Canadians and Their Pasts: An Exploration in Historical Consciousness”, *The Public Historian* 31 (2009): 33.

¹⁴ *Canada: A People’s History*, a 17-episode, 30 hour television production by the CBC and Radio-Canada, which first aired in the 2000-01 and 2001-02 television seasons, is one significant example. It traces Canadian history from pre-history to 1990. For a discussion of this production, see Darren Bryant and Penney Clark, “Historical Empathy and Canada: A People’s History”, *Canadian Journal of Education* 29, 4 (2006): 1039-1064.

¹⁵ This attention to Canada’s “warlike nature” is being questioned. See Ian McKay and Jamie Swift, *Warrior Nation: Rebranding Canada in an Age of Anxiety* (Toronto: Between the Lines Press, 2012).

¹⁶ Some examples from different time periods are Gabrielle Roy, *The Tin Flute* (New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, 1947); Timothy Findlay, *The Wars* (Toronto: Clarke Irwin, 1977); Joy Kogawa, *Obasan* (Toronto: Lester & Orpen Dennys, 1983); Joseph Boyden, *Three Day Road* (Toronto: Viking Canada, 2005). In French Canadian literature, we can include the following classics, Roch Carrier, *La guerre, yes sir!* (Toronto; Anansi, 1970); Anne Hébert, *Kamouraska* (Paris: Seuil, 1970); Yves Thériault. *Agaguk* (Paris: France-Loisirs, 1993); Arlette Cousture, *Les Filles de Caleb*, 3 tomes (Montreal: Libres Expression, 2003).

¹⁷ Jonathan Vance, *Death So Noble: Memory, Meaning, and the First World War* (Vancouver, BC: UBC Press, 1997); J. L. Granatstein and Desmond Morton, *Canada and the Two World Wars: Marching to Armageddon: 1914-1919; A Nation Forged in Fire, 1939-1945* (Toronto: Key Porter Books, 2003); *Unlikely Soldiers: How Two Canadians Fought the Secret War Against Nazi Occupation* (Toronto: HarperCollins, 2008); David J. Bercuson, *The Fighting Canadians: Our Regimental History* (Toronto: HarperCollins, 2008); Tim Cook, *At the Sharp End: Canadians Fighting the Great War, 1914-1916* (Toronto: Viking Canada, 2007); *Shock Troops: Canadians Fighting the Great War, 1917-18* (Toronto: Viking Canada, 2008); *Warlords: Borden, Mackenzie King and Canada’s World Wars* (Toronto: Allen Lane, 2012); Roger Léger, *Le journal du Marquis de Montcalm* (Montréal: Michel Brulé, 2007); Thomas-

compelling stage plays,¹⁸ and film makers have produced both gripping fictional filmic treatments¹⁹ and documentaries.²⁰

History in the public domain has not been without controversy.²¹ One of the more spirited and widely discussed centred on a plaque about Bomber Command, the Allied bombing campaign against Nazi Germany during World War II, at the Canadian War Museum (2005-07). War veterans' groups strongly objected to the plaque, which drew attention to the debate about the efficacy and advisability of the bombings of German civilians. The veterans' concerns generated overwhelming support from the Canadian public and resulted in debates in the House of Commons and the Senate. The museum eventually capitulated and the plaque was reworded. Eminent Canadian historian, Margaret Macmillan, who evaluated the exhibition for the museum, contends that the veterans were allowed to re-write history and that political interference and a well-orchestrated public campaign silenced a museum, which was doing what museums are supposed to do, that is to explore questions of efficacy and morality. Macmillan also makes the point that public controversies in Canada share many characteristics with those in other Western countries, such as the United States and Australia.²²

3. History as an Academic Subject in Universities

University education in Canada falls under provincial (and not federal) jurisdiction, and the provincial governments monitor undergraduate and graduate programs in various formalized ways across the country, generally through regular academic reviews of both new and existing programs and departments. Canadian universities typically follow the path of American universities in offering undergraduates formal courses, the successful completion of a set number and type of which will allow students to graduate with a declared major. Unlike the United States, though, there are few private universities in Canada, and there are now few junior colleges; most of the country's universities offer both graduate and undergraduate programs

Louis Tremblay, *Journals de guerre (1915-1918)* (Montreal: Athéna, 2006); Jacques Lacourrière & Hélène Quimper, *Québec ville assiégée, 1759-1760* (Québec: Septentrion, 2009); and Desmond Morton, *Histoire militaire du Canada, 2e ed.* (Montreal: Athéna, 2010).

¹⁸ John MacLachlan Gray, with Eric Peterson, "Billy Bishop Goes to War", 1978.

¹⁹ Paul Gross, *Passchendaele* (2008); Pierre Falardeau, *15 février 1839* (2001).

²⁰ Brian McKenna and Terence McKenna, *The Valour and the Horror* (Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, National Film Board of Canada, and Galafilm, 1992).

²¹ *The Valour and the Horror* was particularly controversial. See David J. Bercuson and S. F. Wise, *The Valour and the Horror Revisited* (Montreal: McGill-Queen's University Press, 1994). For a more recent controversy, see the television debate: Marie-France Bazzo, *Quand Wolfe et Montcalm se donnent en spectacle*, Télé-Québec, 29 January 2009 about the failed attempt in 2009 by Parks Canada to celebrate and recreate the famous Battle of the Plains of Abraham (1759), which sealed the fate of New France.

²² Margaret Macmillan, *The Uses and Abuses of History* (Toronto: Penguin Books, 2008).

in history.²³ Most universities offer a variety of degree programs for those wanting to study history, including a history major, a history honours program, and a joint major. Some universities allow, and some compel, history students in one or more of these undergraduate history programs to write an undergraduate thesis in lieu of one or two courses. Most advanced degree programs (M.A., Ph.D.) in history include course requirements along with the original research required to write a thesis or dissertation. Some universities impose particular admissible grade allowances (the bell curve) on student evaluations, and some do not. Ongoing decisions about the nature of courses, whether they are lectures or seminars, and the variety of history courses students require to graduate with a history degree are made by individual department committees, endorsed by the departmental Chair and approved by the university administration. Course content itself is usually decided by individual faculty members teaching the course, as is the pedagogical approach to course delivery.

History departments across the country reflect a general consensus that an undergraduate education for history majors should introduce students to world history through time. All departments require undergraduate history majors to take at least one course on the history of a country outside of North America and Europe, and most require courses from four geographical areas as well as one focused on a pre-1800 era. Consensus is not as high regarding the importance of Canadian history in Canadian universities: only nine out of the country's 24 largest universities require a minimum of one course in Canadian history. A growing minority, indeed, do not offer Canadian history as a designated "area of specialization" within departmental programs, preferring to situate Canadian history as a subset within North American, or even North and Central American history.

In an important sense, this trend towards globalization in history education at the university level reiterates the situation in Canadian university history departments in the early 1960s, before a push for Canadian studies generally and Canadian history in particular became part of a larger nationalist movement to Canadianize the country's universities and schools. The seminal report created by Tom Symons, scholar of Canadian history and former President of Trent University, *To Know Ourselves*, focused on Canadian content and the number of academics in university education. It led directly to the founding of the Association for Canadian Studies and contributed to a huge increase in attention to Canada and the importance of employing Canadian academics across a range of university specialties including history.²⁴ As a result, the 1970s and '80s witnessed what one historian has called the "blossoming" of Canadian history, wherein scholarly research on Canadian topics within the rapidly increasing number of graduate programs led to the hiring

²³ A number of provinces have junior colleges that offer diplomas, but which also provide some first and second year academic courses eligible for a university credit if the student transfers to a degree-granting institution. In recent years, there has been a noticeable trend for the provinces to 'upgrade' these to degree granting institutions.

²⁴ T. H. B. Symons, *To Know Ourselves: Report of the Commission on Canadian Studies*, 2 vols. (Ottawa: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1975).

for the first time of large numbers of Canadian, rather than British or American-trained, historians.²⁵ These historians in turn taught courses that gave legitimacy to topics previously seen as sub-sets of larger British, imperial, European or (less commonly) American narratives.²⁶

With the retirement of those hired in the late 1960s, however, a new generation of historians, skeptical of nationalist narratives and keen to educate citizens of the world, has encouraged history departments to provide an education that does not privilege one national history. This trend is observable in the national professional organization of Canadian historians, the Canadian Historical Association (CHA). The CHA provides a lively forum for discussion amongst academic historians and their graduate students, both at its annual conference, and through its scholarly journal. The annual meeting also provides the opportunity for nineteen history interest groups, including the Canadian Committee on Labour History, on Women's History and the Public History and Environmental History Groups, to meet. As well, the annual meeting affords the opportunity for History Department Chairs from across the country to meet and discuss their various programs. Reflecting the increasing globalization of history education at Canadian universities, the CHA is currently actively encouraging non-Canadianists, who have typically been a distinct minority in the Association, to become actively involved.

Although the breadth of its historical gaze is widening geographically after a generation of Canadian-focused scholarly activity, the CHA is continuing a distinctive trend: its narrow focus on academic history and historians. At one time, the CHA included in its membership a wide range of history professionals, with public historians, teachers and history educators participating along with the dominant group of academics in conferences and reading its journal. Since the 1970s, however, there has been an increasing specialization and narrowing of its membership to academics teaching or studying in university history departments. The election in 2011 of a public historian as President of the CHA for the first time in 36 years, preliminary discussions about including panels about history teaching in the conference program, and discussions about including The History Education Network (to which we will return below) as a defined history interest group of the CHA may be heralding change with the organization, but the Association's history

²⁵ Chad Gaffield, "The Blossoming of Canadian Historical Research: Implications for Policy and Content", in *To the Past: History Education, Public Memory and Citizenship in Canada*, ed. Ruth Sandwell (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2006), 88-102.

²⁶ For an overview and discussion of Canadian history education at the university, see Margaret Conrad, "A Brief Survey of Canadian Historiography" and Gerald Friesen, "The Shape of Historical Thinking in a Canadian History Survey Course in University", both in *New Possibilities for the Past: Shaping History Education in Canada*, ed. Penney Clark, 33-54, 210-223 (Vancouver, BC: UBC Press, 2011); Ruth Sandwell, "We Were Allowed to Disagree" (note 10) esp. 57-62; Christopher Dummitt and Michael Dawson "Introduction: Debating the Future of Canadian History: Preliminary Answers to Uncommon Questions", in *Contesting Clio's Craft: New Directions and Debates in Canadian History*, ed. Christopher Dummitt and Michael Dawson (London: Institute for the Study of the Americas, 2009).

speaks to deep divisions within the history education community in Canada.

This was not always the case. Until the early 1970s, it was not uncommon for historians to participate more actively as public historians on the Canadian stage, or to involve themselves in history education more broadly. Historians advised government on policy, gave their learned opinions in print and at public forums, wrote history textbooks or provided advice about them, and spoke out in a variety of ways on issues relating to history education in the schools. A number of historians became actively involved in adding their voice on a variety of topics and issues of urgent contemporary interest and concern: according to one Canadian historian, “Academic historians led the broad series of changes that history is more than political and military issues; and there were wars about who gets to be included in history. Academics were interacting with the 1960s and ‘70s political scene; aboriginal politics, multiculturalism, the women’s movement, and the labour movement.”²⁷

Several factors conspired to break down the dialogue between academic historians and the wider public. A growing scholarly professionalism created more and better history, particularly Canadian history, in the country’s universities but it put more time pressure on faculty to “publish or perish,” working with teachers, boards of education or policy makers did not give faculty members what they needed in the increasingly competitive academic world.²⁸ Other factors, ones more internal to the history profession, also had the effect of breaking down dialogue between academic historians and others.

The professionalization of history had originally taken place within the great positivist traditions of the late nineteenth century, within a framework of evolving scientific thinking where “the truth” is something that is out there waiting to be discovered. History was about finding facts, and then explaining them. By the mid-twentieth century, however, historians in Canada as elsewhere were pursuing aims that were at once more modest, and more diverse. Rather than discovering “the truth,” humanists began to understand their search for knowledge more as a process of understanding. Motivated as well by the surge in interest in inequality, in the disadvantaged, and in history “from the bottom up,” academic historians created histories that were more inclusive, more diverse, and more sensitive to questions previously ignored such as: who gets to decide which particular events were significant, and to whom? On the basis of which criteria do historians decide which explanations are most convincing? Perhaps most significantly, historians were rejecting the very notion of synthesis, within the “emerging view of historical change as multiple, uneven, contested, ambiguous, non-linear and profoundly complex.”²⁹

The changes in the history profession did not always go unchallenged. In fact, there was some resistance to the new social history. The most significant resistance

²⁷ Sandwell, “We Were Allowed to Disagree” (note 10).

²⁸ Friesen, “The Shape of Historical Thinking;” Ruth Sandwell, “School History vs. the Historians,” *International Journal of Social Education* 30 (Spring 2005): 9-17.

²⁹ Gaffield, “The Blossoming of Canadian Historical Research” (note 25), 92.

was from those who believed that historians had a key role to play as public intellectuals; for them, the increase in attention to the disparate and fragmented worlds of the private, the disempowered, and the marginalized in history represented an abdication of professional responsibility. In the 1990s, when the continuation of the Canadian state was understood as being explicitly threatened by ongoing discussions about the ‘separation’ of Québec, a number of historians drew clear connections between an increasingly fragmented, decentralized historiography and the fragmentation of Canada. Most famous among these historians was Michael Bliss’ blistering 1991 attack in “Privatizing the Mind: The Sundering of Canadian History, The Sundering of Canada.”³⁰ He accused historians of focusing exclusively on the private worlds of disparate individuals and identity groups, betraying in the process their responsibilities as public intellectuals interested in larger regional, national, economic and political issues of common interest. As he put it, he identified a “parallel relationship between the disintegration of Canadian history as a unified discipline, on the one hand, and, on the other, the withering of a sense of community in Canada which I believe partially underlies (Canadian) current constitutional and political malaise.”³¹

In 1998, shortly after a referendum in which Québécois had decided – but only by the narrowest of margins – that the province would stay within Canada, J.L. Granatstein published his diatribe *Who Killed Canadian History?* As we saw above, school teachers, educational bureaucrats and professional historians were all held responsible for “killing” history, but professional historians came in for particular attack. He blamed them for “trivializing” history by studying topics of minor importance that fit awkwardly, if at all, into a common national (or nationalist) narrative.³² Certainly his invective was so fierce because he, like Bliss, believed that historians’ concern with social history interfered with an active, urgent relationship between historians, public policy and a democratic citizenship, a relationship that was, they believed, a form of historical consciousness within the nation state. Granatstein, like Bliss, was particularly disturbed by the withdrawal of professional historians from public life.³³

By the early 2000s, however, although historians continued to talk about the more diversified social history ushered in by the late 1960s, “the battle had been won. With a few grumpy exceptions, the university professoriate has been won over to a more inclusive history.”³⁴ Canadian historians had decided *en masse* that they were not prepared to reinstate a conservative, unified, national vision of what Canada was, or what its history had been. A recent collection of essays about Canadian his-

³⁰ Bliss, “Privatizing the Mind” (note 7).

³¹ *Ibid.*, 5.

³² Jack L. Granatstein, *Who Killed Canadian History?* (Toronto: Harper Collins, 1998), esp. chapter 3, “Professing Trivia: The Academic Historians”: 53-82.

³³ For a discussion of Canada’s ‘history wars’, and historians’ and history educators’ responses to these and other attacks, see Sandwell, “We Were Allowed to Disagree” (note 10).

³⁴ Dummitt, “After Inclusiveness: The Future of Canadian History,” *Contesting Clio’s Craft*, 102.

torigraphy has, however, suggested that it might be time to re-evaluate the current overwhelming consensus amongst Canadian historians that the best history is fragmented and inclusive; Canadian historians may now be ready to discuss what has been lost by jettisoning political, military and national history, and what could be gained by re-including them, albeit on different terms than outlined in the 1990s debates, within professional practice.³⁵

If academic historians were creating histories that were more inclusive, complex and diverse, their stories were increasingly inaccessible to, and indeed at odds with, the kinds of history that Canadians wanted, or that Ministries of Education and teachers could use. With academic historians suspicious of and hostile to what they perceived as the positivistic nationalism of school history, they were reluctant to engage in dialogue with other history educators. The antipathy was not unidirectional. Ironically, at the same time that academic historians of the late 1960s were embracing a more inclusive social history, schools across Canada were rejecting history as a school subject because of its perceived narrow, elite, British and disciplinary focus in an increasingly multicultural, multi-disciplinary educational world.³⁶ As a result, throughout the 1960s and '70s several provincial ministries of education turned towards Canadian Studies and issues-oriented social studies and social science courses where historical study became one aspect of broad ranging focus on issues of contemporary interest.³⁷ The same impulse for equality and inclusion that had led to more rigorous, fragmented and dissonant academic history in the universities had, by the 1990s, created in the secondary and elementary schools a kind of history that was at best marginalized and at worse rejected entirely as a course of study. The net result was a nearly complete breakdown in communication between the academic historians and school history. As one professional historian well-versed in this debate put it, "I have spent a certain amount of time consulting with Ontario's Ministry of Education on history curriculum ... I would judge that my advice was received politely and filed neatly."³⁸

One further factor can be called on to explain the breakdown in communication between university history and school history. While teacher education programs across Canada generally require student teachers to have completed at least some courses in history in their undergraduate degree, a major in history is not required.

³⁵ See Dummitt and Dawson, *Contesting Clio's Craft*, for a number of essays that explore this issue. Magda Fahrni, for example, in "Reflections on the Place of Quebec in Historical Writing on Canada" notes that one consequence of the respect for difference and a concern for not appropriating the voice of "others" has in part led to a reluctance of English Canadian historians to engage with French Canadian history, leaving a void in the historiography.

³⁶ Gaffield, "The Blossoming of Canadian History" (note 25), 89-91.

³⁷ Osborne, "Teaching History in Schools" (note 8), esp. 590-594; see also Sandwell, "We Were Allowed to Disagree" (note 10), 66f.

³⁸ Desmond Morton, *Remarks by Professor Desmond Morton to the Pre-Convention Institute of the Quebec Provincial Association of Teachers at the Palais du Congrès*, 4 November, 1999. Retrieved from http://www.learnquebec.ca/en/content/curriculum/social_sciences/features/future/speakers/speakmort.html. (accessed: August, 6th, 2013).

In fact, the required number of history courses across the programs is very small (between three and five courses). Anecdotal reports of student teachers suggest that if the quantity of history courses is small, the quality of their undergraduate history courses may be compromised by the large size of survey courses, where engagement with professors, other students or with critical historical analysis of any kind is minimal. While there are many academic historians who care deeply about their undergraduate teaching and are very good at it, there is little incentive within the world of academic historians to be a good teacher.³⁹ This is reflected in the fact that history professors are not required to have formal training in or formal evaluations of their teaching. In most cases, their only feedback is from standardized student evaluations – a form of evaluation widely rumoured to correlate more strongly with the grade that the student receives in the class than with any pedagogical factor. As a result of all of these issues, many of those going on to become history or social studies teachers in Canada have a very poor understanding of or education in historical studies.⁴⁰

Two things have changed in the last five years that indicate that harmful (in terms of history education) divisions between historians and other history educators may be changing. The first is Peter Seixas' remarkable success with his Historical

³⁹ There is a growing literature about the disconnect between historians and history teachers' historical knowledge and understanding, since the publication of Sam Wineburg's 1991 seminal article, "On the Reading of Historical Texts: Notes on the Breach Between School and Academy," *American Educational Research Journal* 28 (Fall 1991): 495-519. See for example Ruth Sandwell, "School History vs. the Historians" (note 28); G. McDiarmid, Williamson and Peter Vinten-Johansen, "A Catwalk Across the Great Divide: Redesigning the History Teaching Methods Course", in *Knowing, Teaching and Learning History: National and International Perspectives*, ed. Peter N. Stearns, Peter Seixas, and Sam Wineburg (New York: New York University Press, 2000), 156-77. In a sense, Peter Seixas' work, on historical thinking concepts (discussed below) is a large, and very successful, attempt to address this difference directly.

⁴⁰ For a summary of recent literature on the historical understanding of history teachers, see Scott Pollock, "The Poverty and Possibility of Historical Thinking: An Overview of Recent Research into History Teacher Education Programs," in *Becoming a History Teacher in Canada: Sustaining Practices in Historical Thinking and Knowing*, ed. Ruth Sandwell and Amy von Heyking (University of Toronto Press, in press). See also Richard W. Evans, "Teacher Conceptions of History," *Theory and Research in Social Education* 17 (1989): 210-40; Thomas Fallace and Johann N. Neem, "Historiographical Thinking: Towards a New Approach to Preparing History Teachers," *Theory and Research in Social Education* 33 (2005), 329-46; Jennifer H. James, "Teachers as Protectors: Making Sense of Preservice Teachers' Resistance to Interpretation in Elementary History Teaching," *Theory and Research in Social Education* 36 (2008): 172-205; G. William McDiarmid, "Understanding History for Teaching: A Study of the Historical Understanding of Prospective Teachers," in *Cognitive and Instructional Process in History and the Social Sciences*, ed. Mario Carretero and James F. Voss (Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers, 1994), 159-85; Peter Seixas, "Student Teachers Thinking Historically," *Theory and Research in Social Education* 26 (1998): 310-41; A. Virta, "Student Teachers' Conceptions of History," *International Journal of Historical Learning, Teaching and Research* 2 (2001). <http://centres.exeter.ac.uk/historyresource/journal2/barca.pdf>.

Thinking Project in schools across the country. This initiative is having a very positive effect not only on the teaching and learning of history, but is also providing legitimacy for the discipline of history throughout the school system and, in the process, opening up the possibility of more teacher involvement with academic historians and history. A second indication of positive change in the relationship between academic and other history educators can be seen in the founding of The History Education Network/Histoire et éducation en réseau (THEN/HiER). As a result of this network, individual historians and the CHA as a whole have shown considerable interest in pursuing and maintaining ties within THEN/HiER, and discussions are moving ahead about including pedagogy as an important component of history in the university. These initiatives will be discussed in more detail below.

4. History in Schools

The Place of History in Schools Since 1960

The current developments in Canadian history education are not entirely new. In some ways, they evoke a sense of déjà vu. In 1960, the highly influential work by American psychologist Jerome Bruner, *The Process of Education*, offered educators a more academic approach to learning through the disciplines.⁴¹ In the United States, implementation of Bruner's "structure of the disciplines" was accompanied by a massive infusion of funds and an impressive number of publications. This was less the case in Canada, but it was still widely incorporated into curriculum development and teaching materials. In history students were encouraged to act as miniature historians and to investigate primary source documents.⁴² Although social studies was retained as a school subject in several provinces, history and geography were often taught separately, notably in Ontario and Québec the two largest provinces in the country.

But Canadians have not always been enthusiastically receptive to American influences, most particularly so in the domain of culture. Growing concerns about American cultural domination and a perceived loss of Canadian identity at the time of Canada's centennial (1967) led to inquiries. A. Birnie Hodgetts' *What Culture? What Heritage? A Study of Civic Education in Canada* was the report of a two-year study of the teaching of Canadian history and civics. A. B. Hodgetts and his team employed a number of measures, including teacher interviews and observa-

⁴¹ Jerome Bruner, *The Process of Education* (Cambridge, MA: Education Development Center, 1960).

⁴² See for instance Murray H. Smith, *Footprints in Time: A Source Book for Canadian History for Young People* (Toronto: The House of Grant (Canada), 1962); J. M. Bliss, ed. *Canadian History in Documents, 1763-1966* (Toronto: Ryerson, 1966); Neil Sutherland and Edith Deyell, *Making Canadian History*, Books 1 and 2 (Toronto: W. J. Gage, 1966, 1967); Neil Sutherland, *When Grandma and Grandpa Were Kids*. A Gage World Community Study, ed. Neil Sutherland (Toronto: Ginn, 1970).

tion in 847 classrooms across the country. He concluded that “we are teaching a bland, unrealistic consensus version of our past: a dry-as-dust chronological story of uninterrupted political and economic progress told without the controversy that is an inherent part of history.”⁴³ This report was the impetus for the establishment of the Canada Studies Foundation in 1970 and for an ensuing emphasis on the development of Canadian teaching materials throughout the 1970s.

As Ken Osborne points out, “this focus on Canadian Studies rather paradoxically led not to an increased attention to Canadian history, but “to an interdisciplinary, present-oriented Canadian Studies, in which the past was used as a source of examples and precedents but was not studied systematically.”⁴⁴ Add period, A: B. Hodgetts’ (with Paul Gallagher) own model curriculum framework emphasized various public issues involving such topics as politics, economics and the environment, with very little history.⁴⁵

It was Jerome Bruner who again signalled a sea change in social studies curriculum emphasis. In 1971, in response to the social upheavals experienced across North America, and indeed the world, he declared: “I believe I would be quite satisfied to declare, if not a moratorium, then something of a de-emphasis on matters that have to do with the structure of history ... and deal with it rather in the context of the problems that face us.”⁴⁶ Curricula in Canada, to a greater or less extent, turned to an emphasis on social issues. In the province of Alberta, which took this approach the furthest, history was part of the curriculum only where it was needed to help students to deal with current social problems. In its 1981 curriculum, social studies was defined as “the school subject in which students learn to explore and, where possible, to resolve, social issues that are of public and personal concern.”⁴⁷

A 1982 survey by the Council of Ministers of Education of the social studies curriculum in every province discovered that the focus was on inquiry approaches across the country. A common goal was to provide “students with the knowledge, skills, values and thought processes which will enable them to participate effectively and responsibly in the ever-changing environment of their community, their country and their world.”⁴⁸ There was an increasing emphasis on skills acquisition and critical thinking, sometimes with little regard to specific content.⁴⁹

By the late 1990s, history was beginning to re-emerge in provincial curricula. This was due to a number of events which will be discussed later in this chapter. At the

⁴³ A. Birnie Hodgetts, *What Culture? What Heritage: A Study of Civic Education in Canada* (Toronto: OISE), 24.

⁴⁴ Osborne, “Teaching History in Schools” (note 8), 593.

⁴⁵ A. Birnie Hodgetts and Paul Gallagher, *Teaching Canada for the '80s* (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1975).

⁴⁶ Jerome Bruner, “The Process of Education Revisited,” *Phi Delta Kappan* 53 (July 1971): 21.

⁴⁷ Alberta Education, *1981 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum* (Edmonton: Author, 1981), 1.

⁴⁸ Council of Ministers of Education, *Canada, Social Studies: A Survey of Provincial Curricula at the Elementary and Secondary Levels* (Toronto: Author, 1982), 4.

⁴⁹ See Bob Davis, *Whatever Happened to High School History? Burying the Political Memory of Youth: Ontario, 1945-1995* (Toronto: James Lorimer, 1995).

present time, several Canadian provinces either have made, or are in the process of making, major curriculum changes involving, among other revisions, a greater emphasis on a critical disciplinary approach to history.⁵⁰

Textbook Representations of a Changing Canadian Society

By the late 1960s, there was broad public and academic interest in how Canadians were representing themselves in school history in general and their history textbooks in particular. Newspaper headlines such as “Slanted Textbooks” and “Tell it the Way it Was”⁵¹ signaled a need for thorough content analyses of provincially authorized texts. Concerns were initially prompted by the enduring dualism of Canada and the growing threat of Québec nationalism.⁵² This was soon joined with a need to respond to the increasingly multicultural nature of Canadian society, the rise of second-wave feminism, and aboriginal activism. There was a deluge of teaching and textbook analyses during the 1970s, conducted by provincial departments of education and human rights commissions, women’s and aboriginal organizations, and national royal commissions.

In a 1970 textbook study sponsored by the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, Marcel Trudel, a Professor of History at the University of Ottawa, and his assistant, Genevieve Jain, found startling differences between the textbooks used in the province of Quebec and those used in other provinces. English and French-language texts focused on different eras in Canadian history. The authors found that after the British Conquest of 1760 the texts “do not even seem to be talking about the same country! The English-speaking authors do their best to give an overall history of Canada, while the French authors ... hardly talk about anything but the history of Quebec and its expansion beyond its borders.”⁵³ The survival of French culture and religion and the Roman Catholic Church, were prominent themes in the French-language texts, yet received little attention in the English-language texts. Trudel and Jain recommended that a national history textbook be developed by a collaborative team of French-and-English-speaking historians, a project never carried out. This “socialization into discord” was corroborated by later studies.⁵⁴

⁵⁰ This includes Ontario, which is the largest English-speaking province.

⁵¹ “Slanted Textbooks,” *Toronto Telegram*, 18 January 1967, 6; “Tell it the Way it Was,” *Toronto Daily Star*, 15 October 1968, 6.

⁵² Kenneth McRoberts, *Misconceiving Canada: The Struggle for Canadian Unity* (Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1997); and Mason Wade, ed. *La dualité canadienne. Essais sur les relations entre Canadiens français et Canadiens anglais – Canadian Dualism. Studies of French-English Canadian Relations* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1960).

⁵³ Marcel Trudel and Genevieve Jain, *Canadian History Textbooks: A Comparative Study*. Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism Staff Study No. 5 (Ottawa: Queen’s Printer, 1970), 124.

⁵⁴ Paul Lamy, “Political Socialization of French and English Canadian Youth: Socialization into Discord”, in *Values in Canadian Society*, Vol. 1, ed. E. Zureik and R.M. Pike (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1975), 263-280; J.P. Richert, “The Impact of Ethnicity on the Perception of Heroes and Historical Symbols,” *Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology*

In a second royal commission study that year, the *Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada*, concluded: “this analysis of sex role imagery in a representative selection of elementary school textbooks clearly indicates that a woman’s creative and intellectual potential is either underplayed or ignored in the education of children from their earliest years.”⁵⁵

The 1971 study, *Teaching Prejudice*, was sponsored by the Ontario Ministry of Education and the Ontario Human Rights Commission. This study, which was carried out by Garnet McDiarmid, a professor at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education and his graduate student, David Pratt, examined 143 history textbooks authorized in the province of Ontario. The authors concluded that “we are most likely to encounter in textbooks devoted Christians, great Jews, hardworking immigrants, infidel Moslems, primitive Negroes, and savage Indians.”⁵⁶

The negative depictions of Canada’s aboriginal peoples in school books were of major concern from the mid-1960s onwards and studies were carried out in every province, many conducted by aboriginal people themselves. McDiarmid and Pratt reported that

Indians emerged as the least favored of all the groups. An overwhelming number were portrayed as primitive and unskilled; not infrequently they were shown as aggressive and hostile as well. Although most have worn western dress for generations, 95% were shown in tribal dress or only partly clothed. In 86% of the illustrations, one or more Indian males were shown wearing feathers or feathered headdresses . . . none were shown in skilled or professional occupations.⁵⁷

The Shocking Truth About Indians in Textbooks, a 1977 study by the Manitoba Indian Brotherhood, concluded that “the main failure of the textbooks under review is their tendency to treat the Native as an impediment to be removed so that the goals of European ‘progress’ can be realized.”⁵⁸ This study supported the findings of two 1974 studies, *Prejudice in Social Studies Textbooks*, published by the Saskatchewan Human Rights Commission and *Textbook Analysis: Nova Scotia*, by the

VIII (May 1974): 159-163; Marshall Wm Conley and Kenneth Osborne, “Political Education in Canadian Schools: An Assessment of Social Studies and Political Science Courses and Pedagogy”, *International Journal of Political Education* 6 (1983): 65-85.

⁵⁵ Canada, *Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada* (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1970), 175.

⁵⁶ Garnet McDiarmid and David Pratt, *Teaching Prejudice: A Content Analysis of Social Studies Textbooks Authorized for Use in Ontario* (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1971), 45.

⁵⁷ McDiarmid and Pratt, *Teaching Prejudice* (note 56), 51.

⁵⁸ Manitoba Indian Brotherhood, *The Shocking Truth About Indians in Textbooks*, (Winnipeg, MB: Textbook Evaluation and Revision Committee of the Manitoba Indian Brotherhood, 1977), iii.

Nova Scotia Human Rights Commission, which found errors of fact, glaring omissions and negative stereotyping.⁵⁹

Native People in the Curriculum, a study of 264 social studies textbooks conducted in the province of Alberta, reported that “63% of all materials which dealt with native issues were found to be either seriously problematic or completely unacceptable.”⁶⁰ There were “problems of factual error, stereotyping, contextual problems, errors of implication, the representation of theory as fact, and unclear and confused tribal distinctions.”⁶¹ Alberta Education next initiated an assessment of all 328 of its authorized textbooks, using what it called “tolerance and understanding” criteria. As a result of this assessment, five textbooks were judged to be unacceptable and twenty problematic. Eight books were removed from authorized lists. Depictions of aboriginal people were a particular concern.⁶²

A concrete result of the many content analysis studies was the development of textbook selection criteria in every province. One example is Ontario’s *Race, Religion, and Culture in Ontario School Materials*.⁶³ Such criteria began to be used by authors and publishers during the textbook development process and by provincial textbook selection committees when selecting textbooks to support the curriculum.

Content analysis studies tapered off by the early 1980s, after 15 years of feverish activity. Textbooks have improved since then. However, selection criteria have not been universally successful. A 2007 study of aboriginal representation in Canadian history textbooks over time, which included 26 recent textbooks, concluded that there were still serious misrepresentations and omissions.⁶⁴

A Synergy Around History Education

History education in Canada is currently enjoying a vitality which has gained significant momentum over the past two decades. We can date the turning point in history education to 1996 (although no-one would have been aware of this at the time) with two complementary publications in French and English Canada. Following the Estates General on Education in the province of Québec (1995), the task force on the teaching of history released its much-anticipated report in fall

⁵⁹ L. Paton and J. Deverell, ed. *Prejudice in Social Studies Textbooks* (Saskatoon: Saskatchewan Human Rights Commission, Modern Press, 1974); Nova Scotia Human Rights Commission, *Textbook Analysis – Nova Scotia* (Halifax: Queen’s Printer, 1974).

⁶⁰ A. M. Decore, R. Carney, and C. Urion, with D. Alexander and R. Runte, *Native People in the Curriculum* (Edmonton, Alberta Education, 1981), 2.

⁶¹ *Ibid*, 12.

⁶² Alberta Education documents are in the personal files of one author.

⁶³ Ontario Ministry of Education, *Race, Religion, and Culture in Ontario School Materials: Suggestions for Authors and Publishers* (Toronto: The Ministry, 1981).

⁶⁴ Penney Clark, “Representations of Aboriginal People in English Canadian History Textbooks: Toward Reconciliation,” in *Teaching the Violent Past; History Education and Reconciliation*, ed. Elizabeth A. Cole (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, with the Carnegie Council for Ethics in International Affairs, 2007), 81-120.

1996. Known as the “Lacoursière report” in the name of its chair, Québec historian Jacques Lacoursière, the publication brought a refreshing dialogue on the nature of history and its place in education. It argued that “The more complex society becomes, the more we must rely on the study of history to understand its present, and ultimately, to participate, as responsible citizens in a democracy, in defining its future. This is the main role of the study of history: learning from the past.”⁶⁵ Its impact was immediate in the province. It led to the complete rewriting of history curricula and the implementation of a new inquiry approach to school history, from elementary to secondary education, combined with citizenship education.⁶⁶

At the same time, Peter Seixas presented his own conception in “Conceptualizing Growth in Historical Understanding” in *The Handbook of Education and Human Development*.⁶⁷ In this groundbreaking article, Seixas set out a framework for the field of history education based on six concepts of historical thinking: significance, epistemology and evidence, continuity and change, progress and decline, empathy (perspective taking) and moral judgment, and agency.⁶⁸ By means of Seixas’ Historical Thinking Project, this conceptual framework is currently exercising a significant influence on provincial curriculum and textbook development, teacher pre-service education, and ongoing teacher professional development across most provinces. It has also influenced the research trajectories of other history education theorists and researchers in the two linguistic communities, such as Stéphane Lévesque at the University of Ottawa, Amy von Heyking of the University of Lethbridge, and Carla Peck at the University of Alberta.⁶⁹

Developments in the public domain have also had influence on history education in schools. The Association for Canadian Studies, formed in 1973, conducts social

⁶⁵ *Learning from the Past: Report of the Task Force on the Teaching of History* (Québec: Ministry of Education, 1996), 3.

⁶⁶ See Jean-François Cardin, “Pour un enseignement intellectuellement ‘riche’ de l’histoire; un discours de longue date,” *Canadian Diversity*, 7 (2009), 31-36. On the impact of the reform on Québec nationalists and the traditional master-narrative of ‘la survivance’ in Québec, see Christian Laville & Michelle Dagenais, “Le naufrage du projet de programme d’histoire ‘nationale’: retour sur une occasion manquée”, *Revue d’histoire de l’Amérique française*, 60, 4 (2007), 517-550.

⁶⁷ Peter Seixas, “Conceptualizing the Growth of Historical Understanding,” in *Handbook of Education and Human Development: New Models of Learning, Teaching, and Schooling*, ed. David Olson and Nancy Torrance (Oxford: Blackwell, 1996), 765-83.

⁶⁸ In the latest iteration of this framework, the concepts are: significance, evidence, continuity and change, cause and consequence, historical perspectives, ethical dimensions of history. For further information about the historical thinking concepts, and to see lesson plans incorporating them, go to <http://www.historybenchmarks.ca>.

⁶⁹ Stéphane Lévesque, *Thinking Historically: Educating Students for the Twenty – First Century* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2008); Amy von Heyking, “Teaching Elementary Students Think Historically,” in *The Anthology of Social Studies: Issues and Strategies for Elementary Teachers*, ed. Roland Case and Penney Clark (Vancouver, BC: Pacific Educational Press, new ed. 2013), 35-45; Carla Peck, “‘It’s Not Like (I’m] Chinese and Canadian, I am In Between’: Ethnicity and Students’ Conceptions of Historical Significance”, *Theory and Research in Social Education* 38, 4 (2010): 574-617.

research related to Canadians' attitudes toward various historical and contemporary topics. It also offers biennial history conferences. Canada's History Society, formed in 1993, publishes two popular journals, *Canada's History* for adults and *Kayak* for children, which tell well documented stories about Canadian history. The society also offers awards to exemplary teachers, making their work widely known, promotes Canadian books, and provides sample lesson plans. The Historica/Dominion Institute, established in 2009 as the result of a merger, offers various educational programs, including Encounters with Canada, which brings 3000-37000 100 students to Ottawa each year to engage in activities related to Canadian history and identity.⁷⁰ (It changed its name to Hirstorica Canada in 2013). These organizations are funded through various combinations of federal government grants, charitable donations, and magazine subscriptions.

Despite the fact that Canada has no national ministry of education, the federal government has played a strategic role, particularly in the past decade, in the synergy which history education is experiencing. In 2000, the government implemented its Canada Research Chairs program. This \$ 300,000,000 per year program, which is intended to encourage the work of both established and promising scholars, included one for history education, and Peter Seixas of the University of British Columbia was a recipient in 2001. Dr. Seixas established the Centre for the Study of Historical Consciousness at UBC that year (<http://www.cshc.ubc.ca>). This centre has engaged in significant activity related to history and history education and has become a hub for visiting international scholars and graduate students. Its The Historical Thinking Project has the aim of transforming history education in Canada through use of the historical thinking concepts as a conceptual framework for teaching and learning history.

Since the mid 2000s, the Canadian government has made a commitment to support long term research and research dissemination projects in the academy through its granting agency, the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC). These grants have implications for both public and school history. Two major history projects have been funded thus far. In 2006, Jocelyn Létourneau, historian at Université Laval, and six academic co-investigators⁷¹ received a major grant of \$983,218 over five years from the SSHRC Community-University Research Alliance (CURA) program. This study, "Canadians and Their Pasts," was discussed earlier in this chapter. In 2008, Penney Clark, from the Faculty of Education at the University of British Columbia, received a \$ 2.1 million SSHRC Strategic Knowl-

⁷⁰ The Dominion Institute was established as a charitable organization in 1997. Historica was formed in 1999 and offered teacher summer institutes in the teaching of Canadian history, sponsored the popular Heritage Fairs for students, and offered the Historica Minutes. These programs were discontinued at the time of the merger.

⁷¹ The co-investigators are: Margaret Conrad (Canada Research Chair, University of New Brunswick), Kadriye Ercikan (University of British Columbia), Gerald Friesen (University of Manitoba), Delphin Muişe (Carleton University), David Northrup (Institute for Social Research, York University), and Peter Seixas (Canada Research Chair, University of British Columbia).

edge Clusters Grant spread over seven years.⁷² The purpose of this grant was to nurture the development of The History Education Network/Histoire et éducation en réseau (THEN/HiER). This network is intended to provide opportunities for academic historians; history education scholars; school teachers; public historians, including those in museums, archives, and historic sites; provincial curriculum developers; and indeed everyone interested in history education, to communicate with each other in order to promote research-informed history teaching, and pedagogically informed historical practice.

The first decade of the 21st century has produced five key new publications that explore and explicate history education in Canada. *Knowing, Teaching, and Learning History: National and International Perspectives* (2000), edited by Peter Stearns, Peter Seixas and Sam Wineburg, was a joint Canadian/American endeavour. *Theorizing Historical Consciousness* (2004), edited by Seixas, came out of a 2001 international conference at the Centre for the Study of Historical Consciousness. *To the Past: History Education, Public Memory, and Citizenship in Canada* (2006), edited by Ruth Sandwell, is a sign of public interest in history and history education, since all but one of its chapters are the written texts of public lectures delivered on the Canadian Broadcasting Corporations' popular *Ideas* series. *Thinking Historically: Educating Students for the 21st Century* (2008) by Stéphane Lévesque is an explication of each of the historical thinking concepts.

The final book, *New Possibilities for the Past: Shaping History Education in Canada* (2011), edited by Penney Clark, is the first publication in a series to be produced by The History Education Network.⁷³ This book reviews the debates around history education and historiography in Canada. It considers different perspectives on what history education should be about, examining research and practice related to four classroom contexts: elementary and secondary schools, undergraduate Canadian history survey courses, and a pre-service teacher education course. It then ventures out to examine historical thinking in museum exhibitions, virtual environments, and public institutional settings, including the British Columbia legislature building. Finally, it looks at aspects of citizenship and citizenship education and their relationship to history education, including the relationship between students' ethnic identities and their historical understandings. The second book, *Past-*

⁷² Co-applicants are: Margaret Conrad (CRC, University of New Brunswick), Kevin Kee (CRC, Brock University), Jocelyn Létourneau (CRC, Université de Laval), Stéphane Lévesque (University of Ottawa), Ruth Sandwell (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education/University of Toronto), Peter Seixas (CRC, University of British Columbia), and Amy von Heyking (University of Lethbridge).

⁷³ Peter N. Stearns, Peter Seixas, and Sam Wineburg, eds., *Knowing, Teaching and Learning History: National and International Perspectives* (New York: New York University Press, 2000); Peter, Seixas, ed., *Theorizing Historical Consciousness* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2004); Ruth Sandwell, ed., *To the Past: History Education, Public Memory, and Citizenship in Canada* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2006); Stéphane Lévesque, *Thinking Historically: Educating Students for the Twenty-First Century* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2008); Penney Clark, ed., *New Possibilities for the Past: Shaping History Education in Canada* (Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia, Press, 2011).

play: Teaching and Learning History with Technology (Kevin Kee, editor), will examine the possibilities and challenges of digital technologies, asking: how do we teach history in an age of pervasive computing when interactivity with (rather than consumption of) media, in the context of social networks (rather than in isolation) is key? Book three, *Becoming a History Teacher: Sustaining Practices in Historical Thinking and Knowing* (Ruth Sandwell and Amy von Heyking, editors), explores history teacher education in the context of academic preparation, pre-service teacher education programs, and ongoing professional development. The fourth, *Museums as Sites of Historical Consciousness* (Viviane Gosselin and Phaedra Livingstone, editors), focuses on teaching history in museums and historic sites. Themes will include web-based technologies, critical public engagement with historical narratives and the museum's aura of authority, and representations of questions about the past informed by current concerns. In the fifth book in this series (Peter Seixas and Kadriye Ercikan, editors), international assessment and measurement theorists, history education and digital humanities scholars, and history assessment practitioners will address central questions related to assessment and history education. The final book in the THEN/HiER series (Penney Clark and Alan Sears, editors) will consider historical representations in the arts and will involve collaborations among history education scholars and novelists, playwrights, filmmakers, gamers, and other arts and culture professionals.

5. Conclusion

Due to the political organization of Canada, there has never been a coherent, federal state-mandated approach to the teaching of history. Each provincial and territorial jurisdiction has developed its own mandated curriculum, sometimes with enormous variation across the country. This has been particularly clear with regard to the province of Quebec, which has, until recently, offered its students a unique perspective on Canadian history.

Not only has there been disparity across provincial and territorial jurisdictions, there are chasms between the constituencies involved in history education. Academic historians, history education scholars, public historians, teachers, curriculum developers, and the public, have not communicated effectively. As a result, research in the academy, whether the work of academic historians or scholarship in history education, has had limited influence on school or public history practices.

In spite of these challenges, history and history education in Canada are placed on a promising trajectory. Organizations which are directed toward the public domain and classrooms, such as Canada's History Society, the Historica/Dominion Institute, and the Association for Canadian Studies are engaging the public in history and providing materials and support for the betterment of history teaching. *Canadians and Their Pasts* is providing empirical data about how Canadians respond to, and use, their pasts. The recent pan-Canadian research initiatives, The History Education Network and The Historical Thinking Project provide an empirical and conceptual base that has the potential to both transform the production and dis-

semination of history education research and ultimately to transform practice in classrooms and other sites where Canadians engage with history.

It is an invigorating time to be involved in history in Canada. The last decade has witnessed startling changes. While it is impossible to predict where we will be a decade hence, the prospects seem almost limitless.⁷⁴

⁷⁴ If there is no special note all websites quoted in this article were last accessed on: Sep. 26th, 2012.

History Lessons from the Antipodes: Teaching History Didactics in Australia

Tim Allender

1. Finding Historical Voice in Australia

In the Australian public domain, as in other Western countries, History is seen as accessible to all who may be interested. History captures the popular imagination via slickly marketed docudramas; and the web, particularly Wikipedia, offer readily accessible vignettes and other fragments, marshalled usually by noun tagging using the google search engine. These processes commodify History into a content-driven discipline, unveiled by its academic methodology and heurism. The ‘facts’, ‘the achievements’ or ‘failings’ of usually male elites, actually a Whig History approach of old, are privileged as Australians understand ‘their’ past.

Most significantly, popular accessibility of this kind has opened the discipline up to spurious critiques by the Australian political classes, particularly from the mid 1990s onwards. Popular histories on Australian sport, culture, art and biography are often referenced to a less discernable, even mythical, notion of one national identity. Commemoration of Australia’s war History, that erroneously projects a ‘unified nation’ in time of crisis, is a particularly troubling rendering in this genre. Marilyn Lake and Henry Reynolds’s work questions this mythical view of nation building: and sees the Australian and New Zealand Armed Corps (ANZAC) tradition, that emerged after World War I, as also perpetuating White Australia as well as exalting military achievements over civilian ones.¹ Popular histories are also traditionally anchored using a settler, Anglo-Saxon perspective that at once excludes what the 2011 national census revealed was almost 12% of Australians born in either China or India; and in a nation where Mandarin has displaced Italian as the most common second language.²

The popular accessibility of History opens the discipline up to questionable critiques by the political classes. Far from a discipline that deploys a methodology reliant on subjectivities, different perspectives and categories of evidence, conservative politicians, in particular, see the discipline only in terms of a narration of agreed facts. To some of these politicians this surface understanding of the discipline then leads them to impatient judgements of academic historians themselves. To these politicians the insurgent mind of the professional academic favours a non-celebratory version of the national story that is uninterested in the achievements of our male forebears, particularly in war and politics. And, of course, this rendering

¹ Marilyn Lake and Henry Reynolds, *What’s Wrong With Anzac?* (Sydney: UNSW Press, 2010).

² <http://www.abs.gov.au/websitedbs/censushome.nsf/home/CO-59?opendocument&navpos=620> (accessed: July 25th, 2012).

does not dwell on past injustices, let alone our very problematic treatment political of Aborigines: who up until the 1967 referendum were not recognised as Australians under federal jurisdiction, and who remained divested of traditional land rights, *terra nullius*, until the High Court Mabo ruling in 1992. This polemic relegates the pursuit of the academic historian to one of a political participant: always liable, it seems to accusations by conservative politicians like the former Prime Minister John Howard and his associates, of a peddling of left-of-centre cynicism that is mired in ‘post-modern miss-mash’ theoretical approaches.³

Of course, as already stated, the academic discipline deploys a methodology reliant on the use of subjectivities, opposing perspectives, the triangulation of categories of evidence and so forth. This is its usual a territory. But the surface political debate in Australia, that mostly worries about the conveyance of an agreed and innocent national identity, remains a troubling perversion of the discipline for many Australian academics concerned with History’s deeper purpose and theorisation constituencies. Furthermore, a more fertile ground of interest in Australian social History is cut off from the popular imagination. And, in a response to popular demand, there has been a rise in the more academically corrosive ‘factition’ – the melding of fact and fiction – used to create the ‘good story.’

In Australia, this perversion has resulted in an official view of the past that tends to cluster around artificial binaries: binaries that again denature the essential business of the discipline. For example, Australia, originally a group of six white settler colonies, has a rich contact History to be explored using post-colonial paradigms. But the discourse has been transcended by a political debate where ‘black armband’ controversies have operated instead. The debate has been framed as a kind of appeal for national absolution of what might have been a dark part of Australia’s past. The chief generative was Keith Windshuttle’s attack on Henry Reynolds and others about frontier conflict and whether there really were massacres of Tasmanian Aborigines in the 1800s.⁴ Of course, this tension between popular and academic History is evident in many other countries too. For example, a similar disciplinary dissonance was played out in the US in 1994. This was when a Smithsonian Museum exhibition about the dropping the atomic bomb on Japan conveyed a new moral uncertainty about the probity of such action.⁵ And in Canada, J. I. Granatstein’s *Who Killed Canadian History?* complained that Canadian historians had robbed the country of a coherent national narrative in the interests of multicultural sensitivities, the intervention of social studies and ‘the grievors amongst us’.⁶

³ A fuller account of this political interlude can be found in J. Hirst, “Australia: The Official History”, *The Monthly Magazine* (February 2008).

⁴ Stuart Macintyre and Anna Clark, *The History Wars* (Melbourne: University Publishing, 2003), 9 and 161f.

⁵ Macintyre, S. & Clark, A. *The History Wars* Melbourne, 2003. p. 9.

⁶ Peter Seixas, A Modest Proposal for Change in Canadian History education. *Teaching History* (2009), 137, 26-32 cited in Ruth Sandwell, “We Were Allowed to Disagree, Because We Couldn’t Agree on Anything” in *History Wars and the Classroom*, ed. Tony Taylor and Robert Guyver (North Carolina: Information Age Publishing, 2011), 58f.

It is easy to over-estimate the impact of the so-called History Wars on the work of academic historians and even the more general interest in History in Australian society. But the new political interest in what History is taught in schools continues to generate anxieties in Australian universities, and in the History teaching academy in general. This is especially so as the History strand of the new national curriculum is bedded down; and where one national document might be liable in the future to external political manipulation.

2. Popular History Inside the Classroom

These considerations are also framed, of course, by History's academic metier, especially as far as the History classroom is concerned. The History polemic is probably the most intense and well worked of all disciplines.⁷ And much of History's use in any society is exemplified and purposely conveyed by schoolteacher talk about skills and process. One key aspect of this kind of learning is that student mastery is demonstrated by deeper thought about the linkages between the past and the contemporary world, referencing these perspectives in either direction: past to present: present to past.

Additionally, a distinguishing feature of school-based History teaching is the student part of the conversation as adolescent learners. Part of this conversation concerns them as unconscious conduits for imperfect community understandings of what the craft of the historian actually is. This is worth thinking about. The most alluring aspect of popular History is that students project an enthusiasm and curiosity sponsored by such things as feature films and family ancestral lore: fertile territory for the canny teacher to use. Yet community interest in History also establishes stereotypes and notions of History's 'lessons' that are liable to be inserted back into contemporary political debates where they do not belong. This interest and misappropriation is already part of the cultural capital most students bring to school. And rendering it, in terms of the authentic academic discipline, is about expert teachers destabilising student assumptions and untangling student misunderstandings about what the discipline might realistically yield in terms of deeper and contestable interpretation.

3. Inter-relating University History and History Didactics in Australia

In Australian universities the study of History as an academic subject remains strong despite the under-resourcing of Arts faculties and the favouring of the Sciences, ICT (Information, Communication, Technology) and Business studies as part of a worldwide phenomenon in the past 15 years. Generally speaking, many

⁷ Tim Allender, "Historical Analysis" in *Methodological Choices and Research Designs for Educational and Social Change*, ed. Lina Markauskaite, Peter Freebody and Jude Irwin (Dordrecht: Springer, 2011), 143-156.

Australian universities offer in first year broad, almost omnibus, History courses, like 'Early Modern History' with greater specialization in second and third years with courses that couple as their theme History with paradigms such as gender, sexuality, holocaust, revolution or war. Asian History remains under-taught in our universities despite the Australia's changing demographics and academic conference invocations such as 'the Asian Century'. As well, Asian History specialists have been lost, as retirements have occurred without replacement. Although post-graduate studies in Asian History remain strong in Australia.

History didactics is the largest subject method area currently taught at the University of Sydney. This means undergraduate and postgraduate preparing teachers can be separated into separate classes, seminars and workshops, whilst they share a common lecture each week. This separation is critical as the undergraduate and the postgraduate cohorts present, typically, with very different learning needs. The Combined degree (undergraduate) students begin History didactic study in the third year of their degree. By this time they have much of the broad didactic language that accompanies the teaching profession generally. Additionally some limited in-school observation allows these students to theorize about in-class situations that they are likely to meet when teaching History at junior or senior school level. For example, this theorization might include discussion of apposite assessment procedures for each level of History schooling, or it might be a debate over what could comprise a higher-order teaching procedure for each cognitive schooling level according to the special History framework laid down by theorists such as Martin Booth.⁸ However, these undergraduates demonstrate considerable anxiety about their level of knowledge of the cognate discipline of History as they are still completing university level History courses in the Faculty of Arts as part of their five-year degree.

Conversely, students in the MTeach (Postgraduate) cohort are usually strong in their History subject knowledge. For entrance into their degree the required expertise in Undergraduate History has already been completed; and generally these students are confident also in building their knowledge and skills base to embrace new History content that they might be asked to teach in schools. These students often have had experience in high-powered professional workplaces as former lawyers, accountants or secretaries. This usually means they possess a stronger understanding of the professional requirements of the teaching workplace as they embark on their schooling placements as trainee teachers. However, unlike their undergraduate counterparts, they have more difficulty in understanding classroom procedures. These understandings might include student History learning levels and the broader pedagogical issues that impact upon a school child's History learning. They might also include theorization such as Bourdieu's Cultural Capital, or working with communities of professional practitioners.⁹ Part of this deficit is ex-

⁸ Martin Booth, "Cognition in History: A British Perspective", *Educational Psychologist* 29 (1994): 61-70.

⁹ Pierre Bourdieu, *Sociology in Question* (London: SAGE Publications, 1993).

plicable because the design of their postgraduate degree means they are learning about these issues in parallel with their classes in History didactics. But, unlike the undergraduate cohort, they have not had time to reflect on these broader issues, and they have completed their university education units of study in these areas, before applying them to the business of teaching History.

4. Teaching History in Australian Schools

History remains a central part of teaching at schooling level. In Australian schools History, as a discrete subject area, has, in fact, become stronger in the past 10 years. This strength is partly the result of lobbying from the teaching profession itself and also partly as the Federal government, in particular, has moved to intervene more strongly into what is taught in schools. In states such as Victoria, History in the first four years (Stages 4 and 5) of the six years of secondary schooling (before the option of university entry) was taught as a nested subject within a broader Studies of Society and Environment (SOSE) syllabus. However, six years ago this powerful state moved to separate History out as a separately taught subject in junior and middle level secondary schooling: aligning itself with states such as Western Australia (WA) and New South Wales (NSW) where this has always been the case. Additionally, the Federal Government's National Curriculum initiative is to be implemented in 2014 for the core subjects of History, English, Mathematics and Science (with other subjects projected to follow in coming years). The initiative has elevated History as a first order subject area for teaching in Australia; an elevation which took its cue from NSW when Barry McGaw's report gave senior History a similar status in the mid 1990s.¹⁰ The National Curriculum now requires at least 50 hours of History to be taught at each level of the first four years of secondary schooling, to be then chosen as an option for the Higher School Certificate (or its equivalent) in each Australian state. Of even greater significance is that History is also to be taught under the National Curriculum as a discrete subject at primary schooling level (Stages 1 to 3). This now requires many primary school teachers (typically teaching students a broad suite of subject areas) to undertake professional development in History didactics, particularly if their training has been in other social science areas only, such as Geography or English.

At the other end of the schooling continuum, Stage 6 History (the highest secondary school level before university entry) remains strong in an increasingly overcrowded curriculum. In NSW in 2011 there were approximately 10,302 students enrolled in Modern History and 12,328 enrolled in Ancient History which meant 31% of all HSC students chose one or both of these options out of a very broad range of subject choices. And, incidentally, the gender ratio in both Histories favoured females by about 15%.¹¹

¹⁰ Barry McGaw, *Securing Their Future* (Sydney: D.E.T., 1996).

¹¹ <http://www.boardofstudies.nsw.edu.au/news-media/enrolment-tables.html> (accessed: July 25th, 2012).

5. The Problem With Australian History School Teaching

A worrying aspect of History's place in schools remains the ongoing struggle to make Australian History more engaging and interesting to Australian school students, particularly at secondary school level. Like many Western democracies the study of their national History is mandated and in Australia in most states this has been for Years 9 and 10 (Stage 5) of the secondary school syllabus. Furthermore, Australian History will be strategically integrated under the new National History Curriculum across the primary schooling years up until Year 10 at secondary school level.

The conundrum that confronts the History teaching academy in Australia is that the moment Australian school students are given the option to learn other national histories at the Higher School Certificate level or its equivalent they opt out of Australian History in favour of more alluring German war History or studies into the Russian revolution. For example, in the New South Wales HSC Modern History examinations (Year 12) in 2009 (the last year this breakdown of figures was given by the NSW Board of Studies) less than 3% of students chose Australian History with a staggering 65% choosing Germany, 1918-39 and 21% choosing Russia/Soviet Union 1917 to 1941.¹² Of course this is not all bad news. In one sense the preference for Europe is understandable in that these new historical topics, with all of their rich content, offer new territory for the budding historian after several years of enforced studies into Australian national History. Furthermore, part of this European History hegemony at HSC level can be explained by a History teaching profession made up of many who, themselves, were taught these European histories in their former school days and who have carried forward this expertise preference and career-long resourcing to their current-day classrooms.

However, the concern is that this phenomenon also exposes a deficient approach in the teaching of Australian History at earlier school levels that restricts, in turn, the academic development of students. The dilemma, particularly for novice History teachers entering the profession, is that their uninterested students in a Year 10 Australian History classroom are scarcely likely to respond well to attempts to invoke higher order skills, or new approaches such as P. Seixas' historical consciousness for example, which these trainee teachers have studied as part of their History didactic courses at university.¹³

Many of our trainee teachers feel compelled to understand better the barriers that lay before them in teaching Australian History. It is clear, as shown by Anna Clark's work, that students in years 9 and 10 of schooling and their experienced teachers, really struggle to make Australian History 'interesting'. A. Clark's view is that Australian school children want to know about Australian History but they also want historical narratives, discussions and debates, and imagination in the

¹² <http://www.boardofstudies.nsw.edu.au> (accessed 25/7/12).

¹³ Peter Seixas, *Theorising Historical Consciousness* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2006).

classroom.¹⁴ And perhaps this means, in part, a deeper reading by teachers of Australian social History using the current and rich secondary works that are now available to help to bring this area alive: away from more normalised and standardised surface knowledge that remains embedded in textbooks and other government generated ‘teaching materials’.

As mentioned, there is a natural interest amongst Australian school students to learn about wars and revolutions in Europe. Yet, flaws in the way Australian History is framed at school level also accentuate this preference; a framing that supposes the formation of one unified national identity for this country even though it has been built upon waves of non Anglo-Saxon immigration since World War II. Furthermore, many trainee teachers find Australian History troublesome to teach because there is a tendency in syllabus documents to see our ‘History’ as confined to our geographical borders. That is, imported mentalities such as civil society as articulated by Enlightenment thinkers; and useful comparatives regarding contact History (indigenous Australians and Europeans) with contact histories in other empire domains, remain neglected. Teaching that embraces transnational movements in thought and experience concerning these and other Australian History topics might offer clever students greater challenge to engage in more authentic forms of higher order thinking at Stage 6 (HSC) level. Additionally, approaches that consider the subaltern (hidden) voice of the oppressed, or Inga Clendinnen’s associated approach of decoding white man’s documentary records to intellectualise Australian aborigines (who belong to a non-written culture) at the time of first contact with Europeans, remain intellectual territory most History teachers, pinned to current syllabuses, struggle to access in their classrooms.¹⁵ These approaches also require syllabus framers to take greater account of new paradigms of thought that have emerged amongst academic historians: something these framers have been reluctant to do in the past.

To elaborate on a point that I have made earlier, a more accessible aspect of revitalising the teaching of Australian History in schools is to offer greater emphasis via the social History lens that can really bring this nation’s History alive. For example, the fastest growing component of popular History in this country is that generated by genealogy research online. Encouraging students to pursue their family histories and juxtaposing these with broader national stories offers these students a more authentic and inclusive rendering of History. Student family History narratives that naturally import into the classroom multicultural sensitivities, migration experiences and accounts of personal struggle help align classroom teacher praxis with social History to imbibe deeper historical understandings. Additionally, site studies that explore a changing street scape, a museum, transport modalities or the household offer up another engaging way to understand Australia’s social History and here Australian History syllabuses have been much more successful in accessing these approaches. The use of the *National Film and Sound Archive* mate-

¹⁴ Anna Clark, *History’s Children* (Sydney: University of New South Wales Press, 2008), 142.

¹⁵ Inga Clendinnen, *Dancing with Strangers* (Melbourne: Cambridge University Press, 2003).

rial where Australia's very early, world leading film industry is preserved online is another avenue. And alternative approaches that focus on the 'values and attitudes' of 'bad' people-criminals, the corrupt or even the prurient-using well-framed non-sympathetic empathy skills, are further possibilities where the human condition holds centre stage of robust classroom discussions. Even brief foray into other national contexts, as part of an international History approach, such as apartheid in South Africa or the Civil Rights Movement in the US, to better contextualise our national approaches to race and other social prejudices are also possible.

To make these teaching strategies effective in engaging students with Australian History is the critical need for the well-prepared and passionate History teacher. Understanding how to deploy and map skills, key competencies and valid interpretative processes, remain vital across the general business of classroom learning. This also includes encouraging students to test their opinions and to develop their understanding of different perspectives within the ambit of the historian's craft. Expert History teaching of this kind has another essential outcome. School students are taught to take greater ownership of their learning via problem solving exercises, their personal research and their understanding of broader narrative History. The scholar History teacher who is self-confident enough to be guided but not overly constrained by any one syllabus is also critical in mediating these approaches. And this is a teacher whose praxis is typically different each year so to be able to strategically pursue depth studies according to individual classroom learning needs and bridging lessons to build in sufficient connective context that is required by the overall topic.

5. Taking History to the School

As mentioned above, University level History remains a major area of study and its strong disciplinary gravitas is revitalized rather than disaggregated by new multidisciplinary, research-based inquiry. This subject strength remains even though Arts Faculties, that support university History teaching, continue to suffer from underfunding and a global preference for professional degrees, business/commerce studies and degrees in ICT.

However, more nuance occurs in Australia where the academic subject is articulated into History didactics. State and federal government intervention creates far more regulation in the preparation of History teachers than it does for the learning of History as an Arts subject at university. This regulation reflects the political scene in Australia where teaching quality remains a hotly contested topic: with current moves underway to raise the entry score required by teacher training institutions, possibly to make teaching a postgraduate degree only, and to set up state-regulated frameworks of support for teachers in their first years of teaching in schools.

Of course, trainee History teachers are caught up in this policy maelstrom that demands greater accountability to the state. In NSW beginning History teachers are required to be accredited by the NSW Institute of Teachers (NSWIT). However,

the process also offers some uncomfortable intervention into university level History teaching in both subject domain undergraduate units of study and in the teaching of History didactics itself. For example, Ancient History (defined as up to the fall of the Roman Empire) and Modern History (everything after the fall of the Roman Empire) are seen as two distinct teaching disciplines even though Australian universities do not see any real distinction in the heuristic and ontology of these areas of History. The NSWIT requires all beginning History teachers to be accredited in either Modern or Ancient History; and this means student undergraduate subject choice is unnecessarily limited and monitored along this artificial content binary. The imposition creates considerable anxiety and resentment amongst our student teacher cohort although the distinction may well be removed when the next round of accreditation is undertaken at the federal level in 2014.

What also drives university History didactics is the established teaching profession itself that our students need to engage with as they build their university-based learning back into the History classroom. Best-practice, experienced History teachers possess very clear language forms that are immediately recognisable to the rest of History teaching academy. This language includes identifying key disciplinary skill and pedagogy constituencies for school children studying History. This teacher language is grounded in past teaching experience and a History teaching academy, which is the collective inheritor and shaper of politically charged History syllabi.

The school/university History didactic relationship also projects back to the university important pedagogic issues. I have been part of a large Australia Research Council (ARC) project that looked at experienced and inexperienced History teachers actually teaching in the classroom and comparing these teachers with teachers in other disciplines such as Physics, Music and Biology.¹⁶ The findings of this research offered an opportunity to make more explicit what distinctions there are in Australia in the way History was taught at schooling level compared to university. These findings also verified the broader work of Barbara Stengel which suggests that all disciplines should be considered as containing merged but distinct features when school teaching is compared to that at university level.¹⁷ For History we found this distinction was most apparent when it came to mentoring trainee teachers, particularly the powerful reflecting-on-practice phase after first lessons by trainee teachers were taught and observed.

Experienced schoolteachers found themselves mentoring novice teachers who had become accustomed to using secondary sources only when writing their university essays. Yet, these same experienced teachers identified teaching primary sources as a key component of their teaching of skills and key competencies and also the

¹⁶ DP0663300 ARC Discovery (Large) Scheme (AUD \$ 279,000) Project: "Disciplinary and classroom practice: Epistemological issues in the analysis and improvement of teaching and learning." (Professor Peter Freebody, A/Professor Tim Allender, A/Professor N Bahr, Dr. C. Christensen, Dr. A. Wright)

¹⁷ Barbara Stengel, "'Academic Discipline' and 'School Subject': contestable curricular concepts", *Journal of Curriculum Studies* 29 (1997): 585-602.

most negotiable and flexible aspect of their praxis. A strong part of the induction of student History teachers by their experienced mentors was asking them to connect primary source inquiry to explicit skills that were understandable to school children, whilst still maintaining an intuitive approach where each rich primary source presented a new frame of inquiry. This flexibility was one of the most difficult aspects for the unconfident student teacher to deploy, even though the work of John Fines and others have long offered an academic rationale that can be studied at university.¹⁸

However, the realities of the classroom are not always new terrain at university. In New South Wales, source-based questions that group a hierarchy of four or five questions around a collection of written, cartoon and visual sources distinguishes History skills from those required in other essay-based subjects such as English. As such this assessment approach offers a strong bridge between school student and university level History. NSW also offers another key link, which is Extension History. For the most able senior school History students this subject offers students the opportunity to theoretically frame, research and write up an original piece of writing in a way that mimics in micro fashion thesis work at university level.¹⁹ And understanding the academic and pedagogic journeying in this way, between school and university, remains an essential part of the preparation of student History teachers in Australia at university level.

6. Two Degree Models of History Didactics in Australia

History didactics in both the Combined Degree (undergraduate Arts/Education degree of five years including university level Arts university History units of study) and the Master of Teaching (postgraduate add on masters teaching degree) offer three units of study in History didactics, each of approximately 32 hours face-to-face teaching in lecture, workshop and seminar format. For preparing History teachers there is also a minimum requirement of 80 hours of practicum (in-school) teaching of which 40 hours is devoted to the teaching of History with the other method area, usually English or Geography, taking up the other 40 hours. For the undergraduate degree History didactics is delayed until Year 3 when students have had the opportunity to undertake undergraduate Arts History units: and to learn more in other Education Faculty units about broader educational issues that impact on teaching, such as children with special needs, sociological and psychological education perspectives and indigenous education.

6.1 *Teaching History-didactical studies*

At the University of Sydney, History didactics ranges over a wide-range of pedagogy, content, teaching strategy, assessment, lesson preparation and reflective practice territories. The order in which these are taught have been carefully refined

¹⁸ John Fines, *Reading Historical Documents* (Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1988).

¹⁹ (http://www.boardofstudies.nsw.edu.au/syllabus_hsc/History-extension.html).

over the past 14 years to build History teacher knowledge in a logical and sequentially sound manner even though there are many times when a full grasp of one aspect of the course is not possible until later related teaching occurs.

When pursuing higher points of History didactic theorization, based on research in Australia and overseas, there remains a tension on the part of students who seek 'just to get on with it' and learn on the veldt, at the chalk face, in the practicum classroom. In one sense this is resonant of the old 'model school' approach one hundred years ago where a hapless proximate school to a teacher training institution acted as an almost permanent practice school for trainee teachers. Yet, even then, in places such as colonial India, as I remind my students, courses in child psychology, sociology and the History of education were mandated in these early courses in didactics.²⁰

It is certainly so that theorization relating to History didactics has far greater resonance with students once they have undertaken the first of their two school placements. But it is unavoidable that a good part of this theorization has to be studied before any actual school teaching experience occurs, apart from some one-day observational school visits. With this tension in mind History didactics at Sydney University first builds student understanding of the connectedness but difference between popular History and academic History. It then encourages History student teachers to situate themselves as subjective participants in the classroom; as well as having them consciously identify the likely History teaching they will favour in terms of both content and dominant pedagogical approach and, even more critically, what alternative strategies they will need to more deliberately work at in the interests of variety of approach.²¹ Assessment at this stage is for these trainee teachers to develop their own History research study and then explain how they might adapt this for use in the History classroom. Exercises in teaching historical empathy follow that interplay with study into the different cognitive levels likely to be found in mixed ability classes and classes at each schooling stage.²²

Deeper work is then pursued to understand what is meant by historical literacy and also, using micro-teaching exercises, how teaching key concepts might be orchestrated in the classroom.²³ Vernacular history approaches and narrative history approaches are also taught.²⁴ And interlaced amongst these and other topics is direct

²⁰ Pedler to the Government of Bengal July 12th, 1904 Oriental and India Office Collection (OIOC), British Library P/6808.

²¹ John Tosh, *Why History Matters* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2008); Sam Wineburg and S. Wilson, "Models of wisdom in the teaching of history", *Phi Delta Kappan* 50 (1988) 8: 13-21.

²² O. L. Davis, Elizabeth Yeager and Stuart Foster, eds., *Historical Empathy and Perspective Taking in the Social Studies* (Oxford: Rowman&Littlefield, 2001).

²³ Peter Davis, Rhys J. Davis and Derek Lynch, *Enlivening Secondary History* (London: Routledge Falmer, 2003).

²⁴ John Tosh, "History by Word of Mouth", in John Tosh, *The Pursuit of History* (Pearson Education, 2006), 310-338; David Kennedy, "The Art of the Tale: Story-Telling and History Teaching", *The History Teacher* 31 (1998): 319-330.

mentoring regarding the instrumental parts of the teaching profession in Australia: including lesson and unit planning, conforming to state assessment procedures and textbook use. In the final History didactics unit approaches to teaching senior Modern and Ancient History are taught, including the creation and critique of classroom resources for Stage 6 (HSC) level.

6.2 Organisation of the History Practicum

In both the undergraduate and postgraduate degrees at the University of Sydney History didactics for Modern and Ancient History are separately taught and not conflated with other teaching areas in the humanities. Practicums in History are supervised by an experienced History schoolteacher who remains legally, and professionally, responsible for the classes the trainee History teacher undertakes. Mostly, for staffing reasons, tertiary supervision in schools is carried out by non-specialist, general didactic mentors.

6.3 Post-university teacher education

Under-resourced Departments of Professional Learning in Faculties of Education across the country undertake some one or two-day professional courses for teachers in the classroom who seek to upgrade their skills. These approaches remain generally under developed in Australia compared to other countries. Although this neglect is likely to be addressed as State and Federal governments move towards yearly reviews for all teachers and a requirement that all teachers undertake some form of regular, formal professional development. At least some of this professional development will be conducted by universities but it will also be under the leadership of best practice History schoolteachers.

The NSW IT (New South Wales Institute of Teachers) has two levels of accreditation for teachers already in schools including one for management level teachers. As well, experienced teachers, including History teachers, tend to organize themselves in professional state and national bodies for cross-mentoring and sharing of expertise. Some History teachers are involved in the development of new syllabuses, assessment procedures and the annual writing of examination papers: as well as the marking of the HSC or its equivalent towards the end of the academic year in October and November. Governments in Australia have recently identified professional development of the school teaching academy as a priority area but how this might be funded remains unclear.

6.4 History didactic studies and the BA/MA-structure

At the level of teacher education course structure generally, History teacher studies have been nested within the broader diploma/degree frameworks of equal standing with other disciplinary areas such as Languages, English, Geography, Science and Mathematics. Traditionally in Australia, in the 1970s at least, teacher education was an end-on one-year diploma, read by students who had successfully completed a three-year under graduate degree. Students who chose to undertake History hon-

ours, which involved a 15.000-word thesis in their area of specialty, did this as part of their undergraduate Arts degree before beginning their diploma of education. All students then, as now, were required to undertake a first and second teaching method.

However, in the 1990s, most Australian universities acknowledged teacher preparation should involve new studies concerning pedagogy issues, both within the methods of teaching, and those more generally applicable to preparing teachers regardless of their method areas. Older Colleges of Education were amalgamated with Faculties of Education. This happened at Sydney in 1990 as a result of the Federal Government's Dawkins reforms. And at Sydney the Faculty of Education is unique in this country in offering optional education subjects in disciplines such as the Sociology, Psychology and Gender. But in our country generally universities have acknowledged that one year only teacher preparation is insufficient to produce best practice scholar teachers ready to embark on potentially highly influential careers concerning the teaching of the young that might last for forty years. The Federal Government will shortly enshrine these developments by ensuring postgraduate teacher education degrees of two years in duration. However, since the mid-1990s, universities have pre-empted these moves by offering two-year, post-graduate MTeach degrees and many have also developed so-called Combined Degrees. These latter degrees are usually of four or five-year's duration, where the study of Arts or Science subjects at university level, and particularly those leading to the two teaching areas of students, are interwoven, from Year One onwards, with intra and inter subject didactics occupying progressively more of an undergraduate's study as the degree progresses. This degree model was instituted at the University of Sydney in 2000. In both MTeach and Combined Degree formats History and History didactics in most universities is one of the most popular student choices as a teaching Method. This reflects the popularity of this subject at school level and also in the Australian community.

6.5 Reflecting on Practice: History Didactics and the Future

In Australia there are new History didactic vistas that are emerging as a result of mostly state-led trajectories, particularly regarding literacy testing and a global accreditation frenzy at present. Teaching these requirements to trainee History teachers runs the risk of implying to these students that the main game is to become overly formulaic in their classroom preparation approaches: that they, as the professional and the History expert, should not expect to exercise much more discretion and spontaneity in the classroom to best engage the students in front of them. Of course History didactics teaching has always invoked a mentality of compliance. This includes the ability of the trainee History teacher to write professionally recognisable lesson plans, their understanding of syllabus components as well as assessment procedures for both internal and external school student assessment. There is also the understandable clamour by our trainee History teachers to attain these competencies, as well as to master effective discipline techniques and confi-

dence in the classroom. However, in mastering these skills, and now with a new layer of state intervention to contend with as well, these novice teachers are less likely to remember to engage with the deeper secondary literature that naturally enlivens a particular topic and prompts them to use their university level History education to build a richer fare of content and interpretation.²⁵ For this reason I still find myself returning to missives in my later lectures that emphasise the vocation of the History teaching profession and not just its external regulation.

Another aspect of History didactics that has emerged at the University of Sydney is the need to provide teacher preparation that is cognizant of teaching and learning in lower socioeconomic status (SES) contexts. The University of Sydney may at times be a forum for middle class social reproduction, where the language metaphors and microteaching scenarios unintentionally ignore education contexts of poorer children, multicultural classrooms and indigenous children learning History. And with this problem in mind a large social inclusion project is currently underway researching how children learn and how experienced teachers teach History in low SES schools.

Another imperative regarding History didactics is the better embedding of ICT in History teacher education courses, so that the research regarding the Sciences and ICT is not merely transferred to History didactics classes. ICT needs to be strategically placed to properly elevate classroom History teaching and learning and more research is needed here to guide us as a profession. Yet the application of ICT to History is developing in this country. This application includes: better ways to present findings; the employment of History games as problem solving exercises; the use of blogs to track knowledge building via journals; and new approaches for parsing the variable quality of information available on the web. As well, preparing History teachers how to use large online archival sites, like the National Security Archive in the US, in manageable ways has become core business. This preparation is important so that History teachers can prepare school students to gradually master how primary sources can change mainstream historical interpretation. This is done by structuring access to these websites via teacher led inquiry into designated hyperlinks and then allowing students to speculate on the ramifications of new primary source knowledge as it is strategically revealed by the History teacher. These are exciting possibilities, although more research is needed as to how student cognitive processes are assisted by History ICT.

More work is needed to embed a less Anglo-Saxon approach to History didactics. A large proportion of university students and school students are now from Asian backgrounds in Australia and 'their' History has little in common with more orthodox European inspired History. Understanding better this so-called Asian century, after an aberration of three centuries of European domination in Asia, requires substantial reconfiguration of most of the elements of History teacher preparation. Finally the first round of teacher accreditation for beginning teachers was carried

²⁵ Richard Paxton, "A Deafening Silence: History Textbooks and the Students Who Read Them" *Review of Educational Research* 69 (1999): 315-339.

out at a state rather than a federal level in eastern Australia. In NSW when this process was begun in 2008 the graduate standards that were devised to underpin and measure this accreditation assessment, were probably too numerous to invite genuinely compliant university institutional responses. To avoid a mere check list approach in the future where not much actual change happens as a result of teacher education institutions, there needs to be greater initial consultation between the accrediting authorities and each Faculty of Education. The first federal level accreditation round is scheduled for 2014.

7. History Didactics: Suggestions for the Future and Observations about the Past

The MTeach structure, as an add-on two-year postgraduate degree where all formal teacher preparation takes place after all required university subject domain knowledge has been acquired, is probably the easiest to formulate. As a general rule MTeach students enjoy the History didactic units they undertake. However they struggle to engage with the more generic omnibus Education units for trainee teachers of all disciplines that teach required generalist knowledge.

The Combined Degree History education structure is more complex. As a part Education/part Arts degree the full five year course gets easily mired in regulations required by both the Faculty of Arts and the Faculty of Education. The integrated structure also means students are required to study this degree full time so that its lockstep iterations are not disrupted, as many units have earlier prerequisites that are only taught in one or other semester each year. A particular difficulty is that for complex timetabling reasons in-school practicum experience is delayed until late in Year 3 and it is only then that some students discover History teaching is not for them.

Furthermore, because History didactics is a large cohort in both the Combined Degree and the MTeach, it is possible for these cohorts to be taught in separate classes. But in smaller curriculum cohorts, such as Science and Mathematics, budgetary constraints mean that undergraduate and postgraduate didactic classes are combined. This blending means there is less capacity for academics to cater for the tertiary students' separate academic needs in each cohort (postgraduate compared to undergraduate).

A nine-week internship at the end of both degrees has proven valuable. This is where History student teachers are qualified to conduct their own classes in schools, but under the superintendence of an experienced teacher and with visits from a university academic as well. The internship prepares student teachers for relatively long stints with the same History classes in schools to gather experience of the kind that better reflects what they will confront in schools after graduation. And an especially appealing upshot of these internships is that they often allow

trainee teachers to negotiate their first full time, paid place of employment in some of the most interesting school workplaces in the country.²⁶

²⁶ If there is no special note all websites quoted in this article were last accessed on: August 20th, 2013.

Studying History in South-Africa: Reflections of yesterday to face, map and bridge diversity today and tomorrow

Elize S. van Eeden

*If we have opened up a quarrel between the past and the present,
we shall find that we have lost the future*
Winston Churchill

1. Historical culture in a multi-diverse country

For South-Africans, and probably globally, 1994 will have long-last memories for many decades to come. The first democratic election in the country politically and emotionally captured attention.¹ Afterwards the transformation of education especially at school level jumbled in high and low moments. Historians and educators of History Didactics by the early 21st Century gradually perceived their reasonably high profile position during anti-apartheid education of the 20th Century to be degraded, greatly neglected and devalued in educational debates.² Curriculum 2005 and Outcomes Based Education reforms, which emphasised constructivists' notion of knowledge, allowed for more than a decade of historical amnesia, not at all welcomed in a multi-diverse country. Pleasant news is that in the last few years the significance of History as a core subject, necessary to be offered at school, was re-confirmed.³ From 2010 the development of new curricula for History received attention, and was being implemented from 2012. Currently the bygone and newly formed historio-cultural landscape of South Africa still labour work extensively and progressively towards activities of understanding, accommodating and co-debating the past to efficiently face, map and bridge diversity on historical standards for the sake of tomorrow. The following sections cover aspects of History Education's value; the status of History as academic discipline on all educational levels; the direct and indirect impact of educators as well as the influence of political roleplayers on History Education (for learners and students).

¹ Cf. with Khabele Matlosa, "Political culture and democratic governance in Southern Africa", *African Journal for Political Science* 8 (2003): 85-112.

² Kader Asmal and Wilmot James, eds., *Spirit of the nation. Reflections on South Africa's Educational Ethos* (Claremont: HSRC, 2002), 2-17.

³ Peter Kallaway, "History in Senior Secondary School CAPS 2012 and beyond: A comment", *Yesterday&Today* 7 (July 2012): 23-62.

2. Thinking locally about History's significance to society

In 2000 the Ministerial Committee that investigated the matriculation exam in South Africa recommended that in Grades 10 and higher curricula in general should be more vocation-friendly. This recommendation also applied to History. Even educators, when bluntly honest, admit that they fall short in 'defending' the significance of History when they are confronted by learners and parents. In for example 1983 Venter pointed⁴ out that according to a survey among 49 Afrikaans History teachers, 83.3% felt that History offers very few vocational opportunities. At the same time, no less than 76% indicated in another question that they as teachers are not always aware of the vocational possibilities of History. To date, no constructive debates or practices in South Africa have been attempted in order to theoretically and practically relieve teachers and/or students at e.g. FET and HET levels from their ignorance or misconceptualisation. From a citizen and economic sector perspective one could understand this perpetual vocational value question regarding History as: "what can be gained from including History as a subject/discipline on especially the Further Education and Training level (FET or Grades 8-12) to support me vocationally in any Higher Education and Training (HET) academic field and/or in any other environment?" To respond to such a recurring question, the following thoughts surfaced since the late 20th/early 21st century in South Africa.⁵

2.1 *The value of History and its "applied" features*⁶

History Departments at Higher Education institutions are all quick to acknowledge that History has the ability to support students in acquiring transferable generic skills as valuable asset in the professional employment market.⁷ Generic skill requirements include a sound historical knowledge, an ability to understand diversity, acceptable writing skills and adequate communication skills.

History as an "applied" discipline for professional practising purposes can feature in three broad fields: a) History as a spontaneously knowledge "applied" subject or discipline to serve community needs; b) History as a purely academic activity and c) History as an intellectual activity visible or less visible in many organised forms/a variety of careers.

History professionals in specific discipline and in related professional environments could apply history, as a purely academic activity.

⁴ C. Venter, "Soeklig op die probleme met Geskiedenisonderrig" in *Gister en Vandag/Yesterday and Today* 5 (1983): 7f.

⁵ Elize van Eeden, "The 21st Century value of History and the history educator revised – a motivational discourse", *New Contree* 51 (May 2006): 25-54.

⁶ Cf. Elize van Eeden and Johannes van der Walt, "Creating a future for History within South Africa's 'Curriculum 2005'", *Theory & Research in Social Education* 28 (Winter 2000): 85-95.

⁷ Cf. Internet research: Yahoo.com, University of Glasgow, SR 043/2002, April 2002.

Equally so can knowledge created in the field of History as an intellectual activity be visible, or perhaps less visible, but not invisible, in many organised forms/a variety of careers. In the structure below, History reflects as an activity exercised by a variety of professionals having some kind of training in History to function properly in the economic, the private or/and the public sector.

2.1.2 Practising History at schools “out-of-the-box”

The suggested framework (fig. 1) can be even more refined after broader input and debate.⁸ As an additional direction in mind, learning programmes could be developed in more creative ways and which departs from fundamental or core/baseline History content but with a means to also explore the “career value side” of content, either as part of an existing History curriculum or as an additional option.⁹

A selection of themes to consider for HET History curricula in exposing its significance for multiple careers

EXAM- PLES OF HISTORY IN SOME PROFES- SIONS	EXAMPLES OF SOME SKILLS REQUIRED (Knowledge ex- cluded because it is not a choice but a necessity in each)	WHAT TRADI- TIONAL HIS- TORY CAN OFFER (in terms of con- tent)	“PRACTICAL” HISTORY (in terms of generic training) TO ALL GRADES ON VARIOUS COGNITIVE AND ASSESS- MENT LEVELS	Educator in- volvement, DoE, GET, FET, HET, Govern- ment and Busi- ness Sector
Tourism	Communicative; ¹⁰ management and writing abilities	* World History (people, places and develop- ments); * Regional/local history of South Africa and Africa (on places and developments)	* Knowledge on cultural heritage * Communication * Writing (extrac- tion and organis- ing of evidence) ¹¹ * multi-perspec- tivity and toleran- ce	E.g. SAtour; Dept of Environment and Tourism; Tour organisations; SA Transport Ser- vices; Local gov- ernments; tourist agencies
Publishing	Communicative; language and writing abilities	* World History (people, places and develop- ments); * Aspects of Re-	* Knowledge on cultural heritage * Communication * Writing	E.g. Publishers; HET- language depart- ments

⁸ Cf. Elizabeth Mertz, “The uses of history: Language, ideology and law in the United States and South Africa”, *Law & Society Review* 22 (1988) 4; Barbara Laslet, “Interdisciplinary teaching and disciplinary reflexes”, *Historical Methods* 23 (1990) 3; *Historia* series on History and other disciplines, 1983-1984-editions.

⁹ For more information see Elize van Eeden, “The 21st Century value of History and the history educator revised – a motivational discourse”, *New Contree* 51 (May 2006): 25-54.

¹⁰ Communicative in this context can involve critical analysis; comparisons; identification; multi-perspective thinking and clear thinking.

¹¹ This piece of detail also applies to the rest of disciplines in this discussion.

		gional/local history of South Africa and Africa (on places and developments)		
Diplomatic Services	Cultures and communicative and writing abilities	* World History; * Regional/local history of South Africa * Africa	* Knowledge on political structures and public management * Communication * Writing	E.g. Diplomatic Services personnel; Dept. of Foreign Affairs
Legal Profession	Communicative; language and writing abilities; insight; comparisons	* Legal and general History of states (international/regional)	* Knowledge of state/government law practices; structures and constitutional management * Communication * Critical analysis of information/evidence	E.g. The legal professional community/ Associations; HET-Faculties of Law
Military information	Communicative and writing abilities	* Acts, legal law history; military history and the military history of especially all the countries worldwide. Also aspects of cultures and politics	* Knowledge of state/government military practices; structures and the culture/politics within constitutional management * Communication * Critical analysis	E.g. Military-focussed Government Departments and organisations; local security services etc.
Library and informational services	People, places and activities; communicative, writing abilities.	* World History; * Regional/local history of South Africa * Africa * A search in History themes in hard copy/ electronic format	* A broad general knowledge of people, places and activities * Knowledge of history-related sources	E.g. Information centres; Library; Archival depots; Museums
Marketing (Sales and banking)	People, places and activities; communicative abilities; a cultural understanding and tolerance obtained through a range of source interpretations.	* World economic history; * Regional/local history of South Africa and Africa from an economic history angle	* Knowledge of people, places and activities; * Comparative and research skills; * Research abilities in selective Economic His-	E.g. Banking services; Sales Services; Dept. of Economic Affairs

			tory-/Economic thought- related themes.	
Radio and TV	Places, events and activities; communicative, language and writing abilities. Production of e.g. Documentaries	* World History; * Regional/local history of South Africa * Africa	* A broad general knowledge of people, places and activities * Knowledge of history-related sources, especially communication systems; * writing and communicative experience in practical applications.	E.g. SABC; local radio stations; SABC-TV; Dept. of Communication
Journalism	Places, events and activities; communicative, language and writing abilities. Production of e.g. Documentaries and reports	* World History, * Regional/local history of South Africa * Africa	* A broad general knowledge required of people and places; * Accuracy; * Objectivity; * Critical thinking; * Multi-perspectivity; interpretation and a sound sense of the context in a specific time.	E.g. Communication agents/firms; institutions

Fig. 1: A selection of themes to consider for HET History curricula (in academic History and History Education) in exposing its significance for multiple careers

2.2 The role of the educator

The role of the educator in History to add significance to the discipline/subject *per sé* cannot be emphasised enough. At the University of Vienna a preliminary job-description for educators has been developed on the assumption that History educators need to acquire content-related and pedagogic competencies in order to act deliberately and successfully in the classroom to add meaning and value to History. A. Ecker suggested the following high academic competence job description for appointing future History educators:¹²

¹² Ecker, Alois, "Process-oriented methods in the teaching of history. New avenues in the initial training of history teachers at the University of Vienna" (http://univie.academia.edu/AloisEcker/Papers/1428329/Process-oriented_methods_in_the_teaching_of_history, ca 2000, 1-23. Cf. also Elize van Eeden, *Didactical guidelines for teaching History in a changing South Africa* (Potchefstroom: Keurkopie Uitgewers, 1999), Chapters 2-3.

“We would expect this to comprise a certain flexibility in the handling of factual and methodological knowledge about the subject; the ability to establish connections between political, economic, social and cultural developments in the historical period under discussion; readiness to cross borders between academic disciplines; a choice of teaching contents which is oriented towards the present; critical and problem-oriented choice and treatment of a historical subject in a way that creates identity.”

A. Ecker also suggested that a fourfold didactic competence is acknowledged and applied. These consist of the ability to self-reflect and to disseminate social, communicative, planning and designing skills in a competent way:

“In sum we need history teachers who will not only present facts about particular historical topics but who are able to transmit its relevance for the social dynamics of the learning environment.”

One could add to this comprehensive list the “need for history teachers who will not only present facts about particular historical topics but who are able to also transmit the relevance of historical knowledge for the professional economically active environment.”¹³ These competencies for educators of History in South Africa are endorsed.

2.3 *History education in early days*

To understand the practising of History in schools (and even at tertiary institutions in South Africa), requires at least a broad contextualisation on the practising of History.¹⁴ Figure 2 is a broad orientation starting from European intervention in 1652. These are early days of “colonialism” practises with a strong economic undertone. South Africa soon hosted peoples from several countries in Europe and elsewhere.¹⁵

The next sections will provide some context within the background of a sometimes controversial and brittle national history trends up to South Africa gaining democratic status in 1994, and aiming towards progressing as a post conflict society in South Africa.

¹³ Cf. Ecker (note 12), 1-23.

¹⁴ E.g. the informative discussion on early day history teaching trends in South Africa by Howard Phillips, “First Lessons in South African History: University Teaching and the Writing of South African History, 1903-1930”, *South African Historical Journal* 34 (May 1996), 160-174; H. B. Thom, “Die Posisie van Geskiedenis as Skoolvak. Toespraak ... 10 April 1964”, *Historia* 9 (1964): 168f.

¹⁵ E.g. the discussions in Hermann B. Giliomee and Bernhard Mbenga *New History of South Africa* (Cape Town, Tafelberg, 2007), 261 and 319; Peter Kallaway, ed., *The History of Education Under Apartheid, 1948-1994: The Doors of Learning* (Cape Town, Maskew Miller Longman, 2002), 1-10.

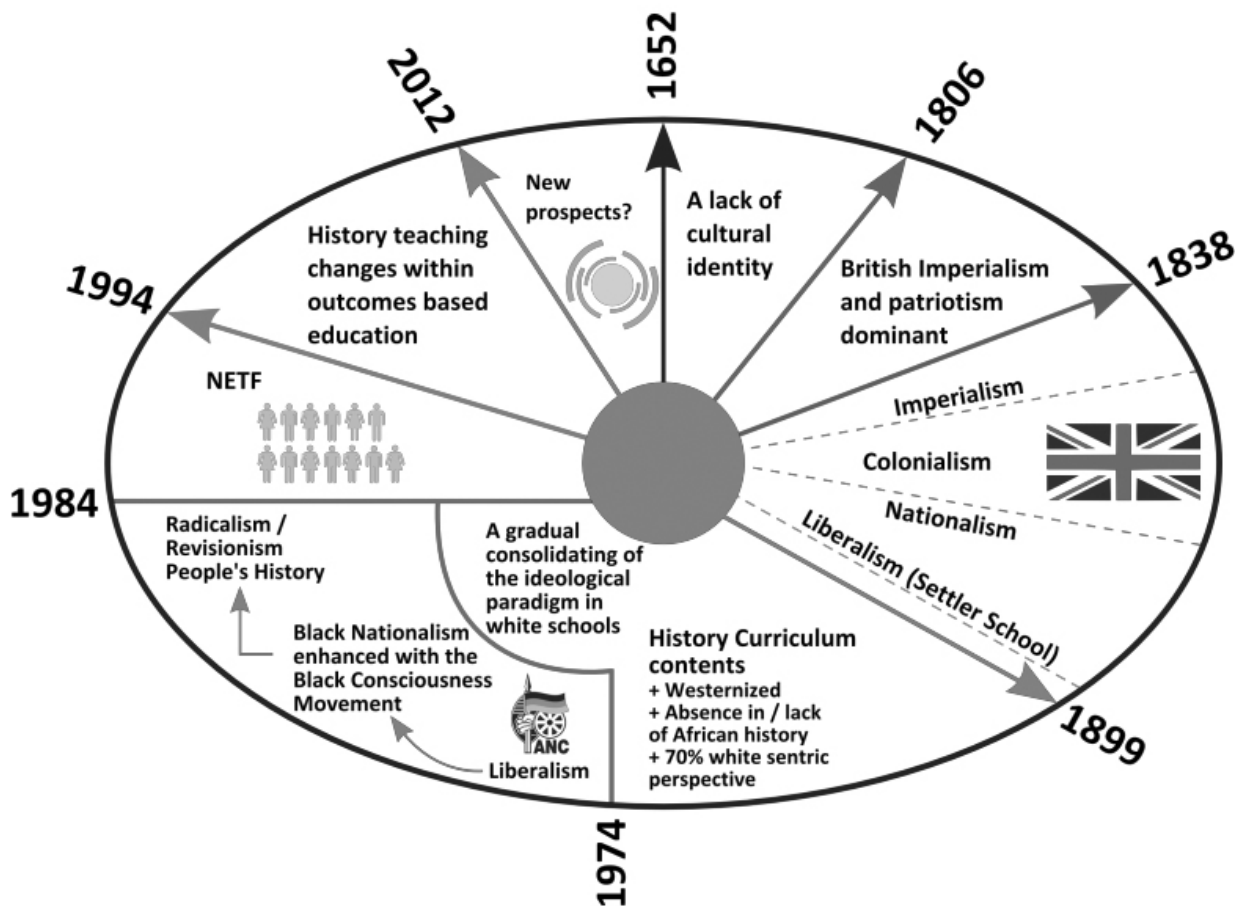


Fig. 2: A broad Interpretation of the South African historiography and it's influence on history education

3. A past glance on History in academic education

3.1 *Academic History versus History as school subject*

Historians and History Education practitioners (HET level) as well as History teachers (GET and FET level) will probably agree that History as school subject is aimed at the preparation and shaping of life and the cultivation of a content-balanced historical consciousness. In contrast, practitioners of academic History normally focus on exposing students to trends, themes and phenomena on a high cognitive level of being explorative, creative, analytical, critical and focussed at contributing to existing knowledge.¹⁶

¹⁶ Leo J. Alilunas, "The problem of children's historical mindedness", in *The teaching of History*, ed., Joseph S. Roucek (New York, 1967), 192 as in J. M. L Horn, "Die primêre skoolleerling en geskiedenisonderrig", *Historia* 24 (1979): 60; Junita Kloppers-Lourens, "'n Nuwe 'leitmotiv' vir die onderrig van Suid-Afrikaanse geskiedenis", *Yesterday and Today/Gister en Vandag* 31 (May 1996): 3-8. Cf. Tim Nuttall and John Wright, "Probing the predicaments of academic history in contemporary South Africa", *South African Historical Journal* 42 (May 2000): 26-48.

Some time ago, a respected historian in South Africa, Albert Grundlingh, made the following observation with regard to school History and academic History:¹⁷

“Indeed, school History is an adaptation of academic History for the adult person, ... This adaptation should not make History something different. If this should be the case, then the word “History” ought to be scratched out ... by only taking pedagogic considerations into account, History as discipline will not come into its own and the value that the subject offers, will not be reached.”

Since earliest times, but especially from the mid 20th Century and well up to the 1970s, academic History and school History in the country were closely knitted. Academic historians were much more involved in school History agendas than after the 1980s up to 2012. Past black-on-white debates and conferences in History for example dealt with content choices in the History curricula of the four former provinces in South Africa (Transvaal, Natal, the Cape and the Orange Free State). Questioning of teaching methodologies¹⁸ as well as the career-orientated values of the subject were frequent questions on the agenda.¹⁹ Regular requests to promote History to a compulsory school subject also featured from voices in academic History circles.²⁰

Back in the 1970s²¹ and 1980s, several schools of thought in academic History circles are traceable in the South African historiography. They were sometimes very much absorbed in debates on the political past and scenarios of the day. Particular views were sometimes institutionally defined and even language or/culturally related. So for example Afrikaans-speaking historians were accused of neglecting innovative international historiographic trends²² and of being too politically di-

¹⁷ Albert M. Grundlingh, “Doelstellings van Geskiedenisonderrig op skool”, *Historia* 18 (1973): 154-155 (freely translated by E.v.E.).

¹⁸ Cf. Martin H. Trümpelmann, “The HRSC-investigation on history teaching – a response”, *Yesterday and Today/Gister en Vandag* 23 (May 1992): 46-49; Anonymus, “History teachers and their work”, *Yesterday and Today/Gister en Vandag*, 23 (May 1992): 7b-16; J. M. L. Horn, “Die primêre skoolleerling en geskiedenisonderrig”, *Historia* 24 (1979): 66.

¹⁹ Cf. Floors A. van Jaarsveld, “Geskiedenis in na-oorlogse Duitsland”, *Historia* 6 (1961) 1: 15; Elize van Eeden, “Historiographical and methodological trends in the teaching of History in a changing South Africa”, *Historia* 42 (Nov. 1997); idem, “History as silent formative force in all careers with specific reference to history training and its career receptiveness”, *New Contree* (November 1997); idem and van der Walt, “Creating a future for History” (note 6); Elize van Eeden, “The 21st Century value of History and the history educator revised – a motivational discourse”, *New Contree* 51 (May 2006): 25-54; C. Venter, “Soeklig op die probleme met Geskiedenisonderrig”, *Gister en Vandag/Yesterday and Today* 5 (1983): 7f.

²⁰ Cf. A. G. Coetzee, J. J. Snyman and J. S. du Plessis, “Memorandum aangaande die plek van Geskiedenis in die onderwysprogram”, *Historia* 11 (1966): 1-4.

²¹ Van Jaarsveld, “Oor die opleiding van geskiedkundiges, Deel 1”, *Historia* 16 (note 21) 2: 74-88; idem, “Oor die opleiding van geskiedkundiges, Deel 2”, *Historia*, 16 (1971) 3, 146-160; Diko J. van Zyl, “Geskiedenis as vak en wetenskap: Nuwe uitdagings”, *South African Historical Journal* 19 (1987): 1-5.

²² Van Jaarsveld, “Oor die opleiding van geskiedkundiges, Deel 1” (note 21): 77.

rected when it comes to educating themes.²³ Regardless of the kind of research undertaken, it inclined to be more white-centric than equally accommodating of the histories²⁴ and/or social histories²⁵ of all the groups in South Africa.²⁶ With “history from below”-related research approaches scarcely off the ground in South Africa by the 1980s,²⁷ it was not strange at that time to have History content at school level was for the most part still politically directed.²⁸

Though a pro-active promoting of a Public History in post-apartheid South Africa captured the attention of many, some historians remained sceptical of its equal like skewness and lack of balance:²⁹

“It is clear that academic historians do not have a monopoly on historical knowledge. Neither are they able to compete with the popularizers of history, namely the mass media and the heritage sector as gatekeepers of memory. In fact, the gap between academic history and memory is widening ... The (post-modernist) notion that reality is socially constructed has undermined the predications of positivistic history. This epistemological crisis for the historical profession has called into question its authority and credibility with the public ...”

This crisis resulted in declining academic history enrolments, though some historians tried to embrace circumstances by changing curriculum content to accommo-

²³ Albert M. Grundlingh, “Herhistorisering en herposisionering: perspektiewe op aspekte van geskiedsbeoefening in hedendaagse Suid-Afrika”, *Historia* 46 (Nov. 2001): 312-314.

²⁴ Johan S. Bergh, “Uitdagings vir die Afrikaanse historikus”, *Historia* 32 (1987): 14-26; van Eeden and van der Walt, “Creating a future for History” (note 6).

²⁵ See William M. Macmillan, *Complex South Africa, an economic footnote to History* (London, 1930), where he points out the lack of Social History in South Africa as quoted by Floors A. van Jaarsveld, “Oor die onderrig van sosiale geskiedenis en riglyne vir sy metodiek”, *Historia* 17 (1972): 118-133. He provides numerous examples of works on Social History, for example one of the first social history related works such as P. J. van der Merwe’s, *Die noordwaartse beweging van die boere voor die Groot Trek, 1770-1842*.

²⁶ Phil Bonner, “Keynote Address to the ‘Life after thirty’ colloquium”, *African Studies* 9 (2010): 14-15; van Jaarsveld, “Oor die onderrig van sosiale geskiedenis” (note 25), 119.

²⁷ Elize van Eeden, “Regional, local, urban and rural history as nearby spaces and places: Historiographical and methodological reflections towards modern day practice”, Special Edition, *New Contree* 63 (2012): 1-34; C. F. Bakkes, Editorial, *Contree* 1 (1977): 2; Luli Callinicos, “Popularising History in a changing South Africa”, *South African Historical Journal* 25 (1991): 22-37; Callie Eloff, “History from below”, *South African Historical Journal* 26 (1992): 38-60; H. Ludlow, “Using local history to apprentice undergraduate students into the practices of the historian”, *South African Historical Journal* 57 (2007): 201-219.

²⁸ Greg Cuthbertson and Albert M. Grundlingh, “Some problematical issues in the restructuring of History education in schools”, *South African Historical Journal* 26 (1992): 154-171; Howard Phillips, “First lessons in South African History: University teaching and the writing of South African History, 1903-1930”, *South African Historical Journal* 34 (1996): 160-174; Gray Minkley and Nicky Rousseau, “This narrow language: People’s history and the university: Reflections from the University of the Western Cape”, *South African Historical Journal* 34 (1996): 175-195.

²⁹ Gary Baines, “The politics of Public History in post Apartheid South Africa” (http://sun025.sun.ac.za/portal/page/portal/Arts/Departemente1/geskiedenis/docs/baines_g.pdf) 2003: 1-14.

date courses in the field of Public History and the heritage sector.³⁰ Nation building, “rainbowism”, embracing democracy and identity politics in post-1994 South Africa became buzz words in the vocabulary of some politicians, which some journalists tried to rub on to the public, and which even some historians consciously or unconsciously started to nurture.³¹ Gary Baines sees the Truth & Reconciliation Committee (TRC) as the most organised public attempt to refashion a collective national memory “for the sake of reconciliation and laying to rest the beast of the past”.³²

Amidst challenging times from an academic History perspective, research in many fields of the discipline flourished,³³ which is also an indicator of, and efforts to, remain engaged in the scientific focus of producing History.

3.2 *History Education and schools*

History teaching, instruction and training in South Africa prior to 1994 was different from the context and historical course thereafter, to which Peter Kallaway is referring. Culture-centric nationalism, embedded in centuries of subordinate rule by the Dutch East Indian Company from 1652 – tailed by the British Colonial era since 1795 – paved the way in how indigenous communities, followed by immigrants from all over the globe, perceived, lived and treated each other³⁴ (cf. figure 2). Historical context inevitably impacted on the way in which historical content was written, used and abused in a subject and discipline in which a process has developed whereby an own mode of thinking and protocol of what History should stand for progressed.³⁵

³⁰ See the impressions of Jane Carruthers, “Africa Forum on ‘Heritage and History’”, accessed from on H-Africa (<http://h-net.msu.edu/cgi-bin/logbrowse.pl?trx=vx&list=h-africa&month=9810&week=c&msg=sv82DZpkATFzGc7zqbKFKa&user=&pw=>, October 20th, 1998; Baines, “The politics of Public History” (note 29).

³¹ In his remarks Baines, “The politics of Public History” (note 29) also refers to the observations made by the American historian Eric Foner in Foner, Eric., *Who owns History?* (New York: Hill&Wang, 2002), 102.

³² Baines, “The politics of Public History” (note 29).

³³ See for example publications in environmental history, regional history, local studies, social history and corporate histories as in Elize S. van Eeden, “Die jeug en Geskiedenis – vandag en gister met verwysing na die Hertzog-era”, *Suid-Afrikaanse Akademie vir Wetenskap en Kuns*, J. B. M. Hertzog gedenklesing (September 21st, 2011): 1-36; idem, “Regional, local, urban and rural history” (note 27).

³⁴ John Lambert, “South African British? Or dominion South Africans? The evolution of an identity in the 1910s and 1920s”, *South African Historical Journal* 43 (2000): 197-222; Johann Rossouw, “South Africa: Not yet post colonial”, South Africa History Online, 2008, 1-6; Kevin Shillington, *History of Africa* (London: Macmillan Education Ltd., 1995), Chapters 26-29.

³⁵ Cf. Elize van Eeden, *Didactical guidelines for teaching History* (note 12); idem and van der Walt, “Creating a future for History” (note 6).

During any transitional-crisis period, the meaningfulness of History most of the times appears to be a point of contention.³⁶ Cases do exist where History teaching at school level had been abolished in the past as an attempt at pacification. For example, after the defeat of the so-called two Boer Republics in 1902 against the British, Lord Milner provisionally prohibited fatherland History (in South Africa) in white schools and allowed only British imperialist history.³⁷ However, the opposite ideal from a historian's perspective is also observed in 1899 in the memoirs of the academic Henry Eardley Stephen Fremantle from Oxford (involved as lecturer in the former South African College- currently the University of Cape Town). His views on History teaching for the youth filtered through from time to time:

“Indeed, the planners of new school syllabi for post-war South Africa argued that the ‘political attitude’ of the next generation will be determined by the History teaching.”³⁸
 “The subject (history, EE) had been neglected with fatal results, and it was an Imperial necessity that this neglect should be corrected. The absence of accurate and unbiased historical knowledge ... had allowed political myths to flourish among all the inhabitants of South Africa, and these had to be removed if a new country was to be built on a sound basis. Its bureaucrats too would need such knowledge, while a ‘scientific’ study of the past would be vital for any serious study of ‘native questions’ ... as ‘a work of incomparable importance’ for the future.”³⁹

Following H. E. S. Fremantle's timeless observations, a rather conflicting circumstance developed since, embedded in nationalism politics and selfish laws,⁴⁰ which bring this discussion to South Africa-being-a Union-of-Britain-years. In 1910, the education of History in the then four provinces of South Africa was all differently structured and managed within the newly formed Union of South Africa. This was agreed upon as part of the federated-preferences requests the former colonies insisted on before progressing to a Union.⁴¹ By the 1940s History Education as career and profession in the training of History teachers for schools was still in its formative period⁴² and varied from province to province.⁴³

³⁶ Gail Weldon, “A comparative study on the construction of memory and identity in the curriculum of post-conflict societies: Rwanda and South Africa” (<http://www.centres.ex.ac.uk/historyresource/journal11/>) 2003.

³⁷ Floors A. van Jaarsveld, “Weereens ‘n skoongeveegde lei? – Afrekening met, en nuwe singewing aan die Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis?” *Historia* 39 (May 1994): 95f., 98.

³⁸ See R. B. Mulholland, “The Evolution of History Teaching in South Africa” (MEd thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, 1981), 127 as cited by Howard Phillips, “The South African College and the Emergence of History as a University Discipline in South Africa”, *Historia* 49 (May 2004): 1-11.

³⁹ Phillips, “The South African College and the Emergence of History” (note 38), 7.

⁴⁰ Cf. the history of South Africa as recently described in Fransjohan Pretorius, red., *Geskiedenis van Suid-Afrika. Van voortye tot vandag* (Kaapstad: Tafelberg, 2012), 255-344; Hermann Giliomee and Bernhard Mbenga, *New history of South Africa* (Kaapstad: Tafelberg, 2007), 245-395.

⁴¹ Van Eeden, *Didactical guidelines for teaching History* (note 12), 8-10.

⁴² Cf. discussions in F. A. van Jaarsveld, *Skoolgeskiedenis in die nuwe Suid-Afrika, Gister en Vandag/Yesterday and Today* 20 (September 1990): 1-2; van Eeden and van der Walt, “Creating a future for History” (note 6): 86f.

The year 1948 marked the election of the new governing National Party (a mainly white voter decision) who eventually formally installed apartheid by law and ruled for more than 40 years.⁴⁴ Black, Coloured and Indian teachers before and after 1948 gradually added their voices of discontent to those of white English-speaking teachers, who criticised the dominant Afrikaner nationalist-centred approach visible in school History curricula.⁴⁵ These efforts brought about no extraordinary success until the late seventies.⁴⁶

Concerns in academic history circles about the perceived declining status of History as school subject since the previous decade⁴⁷ (the decline was recognised then as a world-wide phenomenon),⁴⁸ resulted in research commissioned by research councils or the Department of Education of the time. Up to 1992 three reports on the status of History as school subject in South Africa are recalled. This was followed by a report in 2000 of the History Archaeology Panel which broadly hinted towards the status of History.⁴⁹ In the next two sections some outcomes from these reports are concisely shared as they inevitably pointed to pitfalls and constraints History Education practitioners and *Historia* academia had to take note of regarding the actual status of History which also mattered to them.

3.2.1 The first HSRC report on History at schools

In 1969, the Human Science and Research Council (HSRC) of South Africa reported on research done since 1966 regarding many facets of the status of History as school subject of some historically white-centric schools in the Further Education and Training (FET) level.⁵⁰ Some of the most notable findings were that teaching was too examination-oriented; that learners showed a lack of diligence, insight and productivity (no less than 82.3% of the respondents were of the opinion that students' reading knowledge was very limited). Discussions included observations

⁴³ Floors A. van Jaarsveld, *Skooldgeskiedenis in die nuwe Suid-Afrika, Gister en Vandag/Yesterday and Today* 20 (September 1990): 1f.

⁴⁴ Pretorius, *Geskiedenis van Suid-Afrika* (note 40), 307-309.

⁴⁵ Cf. R. E. Chernis, "The study of South African school history syllabuses and textbooks, 1839-1990", *Yesterday and Today* 21 (April 1991): 12-23; E. G. Pells, *300 Years of education in South Africa* (New Haven: Greenwood Press, 1970).

⁴⁶ Elize van Eeden and Tienie Vermeulen, "Christian National Education and People's Education: Historical perspectives on some common grounds", *New Contree* 50 (May 2005): 177-208.

⁴⁷ Cf. A. G. Coetzee, "Kruispaaie in ons Geskiedenisonderrig", *Historia* 8 (1963): 233-237; van Jaarsveld, "Geskiedenis in na-oorlogse Duitsland" (note 19): 15; J. J. van Tonder, "Geskiedenis op die drumpel – in of uit", *Historia* 14 (1969): 93-97; C. Venter, "Soeklig op die probleme met Geskiedenisonderrig", *Gister en Vandag/Yesterday and Today* 5 (1983): 7f.

⁴⁸ Albert M. Grundlingh, "Doelstellings van Geskiedenisonderrig op skool", *Historia* 18 (1973): 146-155.

⁴⁹ Republic of South Africa (RSA), Department of Education (DoE), Report of the History Archaeology Panel to the Minister of Education, December 14th, 2000, 1-19.

⁵⁰ Before 1994 known as the secondary or high school level, covering standards 5 to 12, but after 1994 known as the FET level covering Grades 7-12.

of unacceptable objectives and ill-prepared teachers. Reasons provided for the decrease in the number of learners taking History as school subject ranged from an educational introspection to broader trends for which no particular recommendations or plans of action were suggested:⁵¹

- Older generations that lived through or experienced prominent events and key moments in history have become attenuated;
- An increased focus on vocational/professional, i.e. “bread-and-butter” subjects;
- “The employment of inefficient, irresponsible and pedagogically unsound methods in order to attain good examination results.” Attention had been drawn to the mindless repetition, memorisation and regurgitation of facts that make learners want to “flee from the subject”;
- The ill-considered use of the prescribed textbook in class, namely overemphasising it at the expense of other relevant History publications. It has been said of History teachers that they are the victims of spiritual isolation and, should situation prevail, they would smother the subject.

The 1969-report severely lacked a pro-active plan of action on the what-to-do-about. So, after more than two decades, the need for repeating the 1969-exercise was requested in 1992. The declining rate of learners taking History as school subject remained a concern.

Province	1953	1966	1992
Cape	66,1%	53%	28,8%
Transvaal	63,6%	47,6%	20,1%
OFS	74,8%	42,8%	22,01%
Natal	47,3%	43,9%	25,4%

Fig. 3: Statistics on the percentage of white History matriculants (Grade 12) in the former four provinces⁵²

From the very limited statistics available on black, Coloured and Indian history matriculants (Grade 12) in South Africa⁵³ it would appear that there is more evi-

⁵¹ Human Sciences Research Council, “Die onderrig van geskiedenis aan Suid-Afrikaanse sekondêre skole; ’n Verkorte weergawe van ’n opname in die jaar 1966”, Compiled by C. R. Liebenberg, Report 0-11 (Pretoria: HSRC, 1971), 1-36.

⁵² Statistics obtained from various sources: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC), “Die onderrig van geskiedenis aan Suid-Afrikaanse sekondêre skole; ’n Verkorte weergawe van ’n opname in die jaar 1966”, Compiled by Liebenberg, Report 0-11 (note 51): 1-36; J. J. van Tonder, “Gesiedenis op die drumpel – in of uit”, *Historia* 14 (1969): 93-97; C. Venter, “Soeklig op die probleem met Geskiedenisonderrig”, *Gister en Vandag/Yesterday and Today* 5 (1983), 7f.; G. J. Thirion, “Die geskiedenis-handboek – ’n onmisbare ergernis?”, *Gister en Vandag/Yesterday and Today* 19 (1990): 16-18; Johan S. Bergh, “Historiese verenigings en tydskrifte in Suid-Afrika: Verlede, hede en toekoms”, *Historia* 38 (November 1993): 48.

dence substantiating an increase up to 1992 than a decrease, which maybe more related to the fact that learners progressively entered formal education after it had become compulsory.

Black, Coloured and Indian Matriculants	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Total	82.449	86.191	82.815	99.715	151.232

Fig. 4: Statistics on the percentage of Black, Coloured and Indian history matriculants (Grade 12) in the former four provinces⁵⁴

3.2.2 The second HSRC Report – What has changed since 1972 in training and teaching practices?

The 1992 HSRC Report⁵⁵ will be remembered for being a culture-inclusive reflection on the state of History education in South Africa. Notwithstanding the ever declining trend in the number of learners taking History, it was found that Black and Coloured learners still indicated History (beside the compulsory language component, Mathematics, Natural science and Biology) as the most popular optional subject with a view on the Grade 10 intake.

At white and Indian schools, History as an optional subject was far less popular. When these learners were asked to arrange the subjects that they enjoyed most in Grade 9 (Std. 7) in order of preference, History, however, was rated higher. In black, Coloured and Indian schools History was placed at the top, whereas in white schools it was placed third (following closely behind Biology, which was placed second, and Mathematics, which was the learners' first choice). Ignorance of the importance of the subject and the discipline remained a concern in a society predominantly driven by commerce and industry, especially when the value of History is correlated to the number of learners.⁵⁶

Despite the fact that the respondents at Black, Coloured and Indian schools emphasised the need for an inclusive History curriculum, virtually nothing new was added to the 1971 report. Some of the most important observations made in the

⁵³ Van Tonder, "Gesiedenis op die drumpel" (note 52); Thirion, "Die geskiedenis-handboek" (note 52); Floors A. van Jaarsveld, "Redaksioneel", *Historia* 30 (May 1985): 4.

⁵⁴ Statistics obtained from various sources: HSRC, "Die onderrig van geskiedenis aan Suid-Afrikaanse sekondêre skole; 'n Verkorte weergawe van 'n opname in die jaar 1966", Compiled by Liebenberg, Report 0-11 (note 51); van Tonder, "Gesiedenis op die drumpel" (note 50); Venter, "Soeklig op die probleem met Geskiedenis-onderrig" (note 52), 7-8; Thirion, "Die geskiedenis-handboek" (note 52), 16-18; J. S. Bergh, *Historiese verenigings en tydskrifte in Suid-Afrika: Verlede, hede en toekoms*, *Historia* 38 (November 1993): 48.

⁵⁵ Martin H. Trümpelmann, "The HSRC-investigation on history teaching – a response", *Yesterday and Today/Gister en Vandag* 23 (May 1992): 46-49; Anongnus, "What our pupils think", *Yesterday and Today/Gister en Vandag* 24 (October 1992): 45-60.

⁵⁶ Trümpelmann, "The HSRC-investigation on history teaching" (note 55); Anongnus, "What our pupils think" (note 55).

1992 report regarding the training of teachers, subject content and other requirements were the following:⁵⁷

- Teachers are not adequately trained.
- Opportunities available to teachers for in-service training on a regular basis are necessary.
- More African content was suggested (ideologies, the history of black people, apartheid, contemporary history, land settlement and tenure, liberation movements, the class struggle).
- The volume for the final examination was still too comprehensive.
- Methods of innovative assessment are poor and insufficient.
- Grade 9 (Std. 7) teachers play an important part in learners' decision to continue with the subject.

Perhaps to note from these reports, inclusive of the History Archaeology panel report (see 3.2.3), is the observation that an emphasis on the significance of History as school subject has always been too emotionally connected to the political history of the country, while the value of methodologically understanding aspects of the discipline of History in specific thematic contexts and contents at schools, appears peripheral. Understanding broader historical trends through for example regional histories and its social phenomena were and still are not well contextualised.⁵⁸ Though the panels of all the aforementioned reports will claim to have been representative of all the country's experts (also for example considering language groups and institutions) this was simply not the case,⁵⁹ and perhaps also one of the reasons for its limited success and progress.

3.2.3 The 2000 History Archaeology Panel Report

The terms of reference for the History Archaeology Panel were mainly to explore the status of history from a History education perspective. This involved looking into the quality and improvement of the teaching of history; the state and strengthening of teacher training; the quality and improvement of support materials, as well as looking at the scope and substance of the history curriculum. The Panel only had nearly two months to submit the report to the Minister of Education so, as

⁵⁷ Another report on the status of History in historical white Afrikaans and English Schools, commissioned by the Committee of University Principals was also released in 1992, with nothing extraordinary that previous reports did not report on. See H. J. Breytenbach and Leo Barnard, "Die huidige stand van die vak Geskiedenis op skoolvlak in blanke hoërskole in die RSA", *Yesterday and Today/Gister en Vandag* 23 (May 1992): 28-32.

⁵⁸ Van Eeden, "Regional, local, urban and rural history" (note 27).

⁵⁹ This observation requires another separate discussion. For the moment the reader only should take note that most panels were either white Afrikaans centric with historical Afrikaans Universities taking the lead, or white Afrikaans and English focussed or English and English institution-specific focussed. At no point yet a history panel in South Africa convened with the intention to strike a healthy representative balance for the sake of History, History Education and history teachers.

such, most of the input relied on personal experiences and impressions. Furthermore most of the panellists were not from the History Education field and the input mostly came from one region's expertise. Approximately 50% of the report was devoted to the History-Archaeology relationship. The concept of "place"⁶⁰ as a valuable construct in history curricula and teaching is (still) endorsed as the way to depart from the known in content/themes knowledge to the unfamiliar or unknown.

4. History Education and school history since the 1930s

The visibility and contributions of historians and subject didacticians for History or experts in the teaching methodology of History at school level after 1940 were primarily concerned with ensuring that the historical content is satisfactorily varied and that every syllabus made sense chronologically.⁶¹ In many ways, the South African historian of earlier times was also part of the team known as educators and developers of a methodology in which prospective History teachers were trained. History inspectors, teachers and experts in education science over the past decades have made some prominent contributions in the field of training and research in history educational practices.⁶² In addition, postgraduate students were encouraged to research themes related to the teaching of History and in which historians were occasionally involved. Even though postgraduate research that was thematically connected to the teaching of History did not produce that many students year on year, those efforts nonetheless formed part of the greater contribution to raise the standard of History education. The University of Pretoria produced the first postgraduate study on the methodology of the teaching of History in 1937,⁶³ followed by the University of the Witwatersrand in 1951,⁶⁴ and thereafter several contributions followed from some other tertiary institutions in South Africa (see section 4.1).

⁶⁰ RSA, DoE, Report of the History Archaeology Panel to the Minister of Education, December 14th, 2000, 1-19.

⁶¹ See van Jaarsveld, "Oor die opleiding van geskiedkundiges" (note 21).

⁶² Regarding the contributions made by primarily South African historians and subject didacticians compare Floors A. van Jaarsveld and J. I. Rademeyer, *Theory and method of teaching History* (Voortrekker Pers, Johannesburg, 1964); Floors A. van Jaarsveld and J. I. Rademeyer, *Teorie en metodiek vir geskiedenisonderrig* (Voortrekker Pers, Johannesburg, 1977); B. J. van der Merwe, *ABC vir geskiedenisonderrig*, Deel I (Pretoria: Academica, 1980); Martin H. Trümpelmann, *Kreatiewe geskiedenisonderrig/Creative teaching of History* (Publication series of the Bureau for Continuing Education 1) (Durban: Butterworth, 1983); S. J. Esterhuizen, N. R. Gunning and H. A. Mocke, *History method for the primary and secondary schools* (Via Afrika: Pretoria, ca 1988); Jeff Matthews et al, *Discover History. A pupil-centred approach to history method* (Johannesburg: MaskewMillarLongman, 1992); van Eeden, *Didactical guidelines for teaching History*" (note 12).

⁶³ See J. F. S. Havinga, "Die onderwys van Geskiedenis in die middelbare skool" (MEd, University of Pretoria, 1937).

⁶⁴ K. F. Kirby, "Some aspects of history teaching in Transvaal High Schools" (MEd, University of the Witwatersrand, 1951).

4.1 Post graduate research contributions in History Education⁶⁵

Most research contributions in history teaching practices up to the early 1980s developed from initiatives by history education practitioners producing research on a Masters degree level. The first doctorate delivered from history teaching research was by a J. F. Stuart on aims and curriculum.⁶⁶

Research in history teacher education at tertiary institutions during and shortly after World War II years was on the teaching methodology and, to some extent, on ways how to use audiovisual and other media.⁶⁷ For some baffling reason, the next generation of post graduate research contributions in the how's of teaching History, surfaced only 16 years later. No wonder that historians like F. A. van Jaarsveld started contributing to Education History at this stage because he believed that historians should not ignore the junior levels of history teaching which feed tertiary education.⁶⁸

It was A. N. Boyce making his mark in 1967 at the University of the Witwatersrand with a Masters in Education on "The teaching of History in South African schools, with special reference to methods of evaluation and syllabuses".⁶⁹ His published works on high school history teaching (even before he officially received the M.Ed degree and his works with co-authors afterwards),⁷⁰ were widely consulted. At the time of his contributions, the emphasis on the status and improvement of History teaching in historically white centric educational institutions appears to have spontaneously received preference in research. The very first post-graduate research contribution changing this tendency was a study by Malie at the University of South Africa in 1968 on the teaching of History in Bantu secondary high schools. The erstwhile southern Transvaal region served as research area for the findings in this study.⁷¹ Motshabi further complimented research in this long neglected segment of history education by looking at the use of textbooks in the

⁶⁵ Extensive effort was made to identify all the post graduates theses and dissertations on History Education in South Africa. However, in this discussion the authors don't claim to have achieved a level of completeness.

⁶⁶ J. F. Stuart, "Kontemporêre geskiedenisonderwys met spesiale verwysing na doelstellings en kurrikulering" (DEd, University of Pretoria, 1983).

⁶⁷ For example A. Stoffberg, "Die rolprent as hulpmiddel by geskiedenis-onderwys in die laerskool" (MEd, University of Pretoria, 1943).

⁶⁸ Van Jaarsveld, "Oor die opleiding van geskiedkundiges" (note 21): 80.

⁶⁹ A. N. Boyce, "The teaching of History in South African schools, with special reference to methods of evaluation and syllabuses" (MEd, University of the Witwatersrand, 1967).

⁷⁰ Idem, *A history for South African schools* (Juta, 1965), 708; idem/C. Hunter and A. Telford, *A history for Std 9, Vol. 1: Europe and South Africa* (Juta, 1975), 226; idem, *A history for Std 10, Vol. 2: Europe and South Africa* (Juta, 1975), 327.

⁷¹ E. Malie, "The teaching of History in Bantu secondary high schools of the Southern Transvaal region" (MEd, University of South Africa, 1968).

former Bantu high schools.⁷² The use of media equipment in efficiently teaching History topics was receiving occasional attention in research by the 1970s.⁷³

The 1980s saw extensive movements in South Africa challenging the controversially perceived history education echelons of the time. Also more formalised support was established in the education and practicing of History (via the launching of the *Journal Yesterday & Today/Gister & Vandag* and the founding of a South African History Society). These developments probably contributed to the growing interest of research in history education during the next two decades which peaked exceptionally, despite the uncertainties perceived regarding the future of History as school subject.

Research topics covered between 1980 and 1999 explored a wide variety of interests. Amongst others there were teaching history in groups;⁷⁴ doing fieldwork history;⁷⁵ the role and place of instructional media, simulation games and newspapers in history education;⁷⁶ as well as addressing ill-covered topics like African history.⁷⁷ Also the exploring of possibilities for alternative⁷⁸ and creative teaching⁷⁹ in particularly historically black schools (given the logistical constraints and lack of intellectual capacity)⁸⁰ surfaced. Other valued research foci covered are practice-

⁷² E. V. N. Motshabi, "The use of the text-book in the teaching of history in Bantu high schools, with special reference to the Form II class" (MEd, University of Fort Hare, 1972).

⁷³ J. Swart, "Die gebruik van die oorhoofse projektor in die onderrig van geskiedenis met besondere verwysing na die aanbieding van die leerstof van die Oranje-Vrystaatseniorsertifikaat by wyse van geskikte transparante" (M.Ed, Universiteit van die Oranje Vrystaat, 1972).

⁷⁴ E.g. C. A. Kapp, "'n Didakties verantwoorde ondersoek na die moontlikhede van spanonder- rig in Geskiedenis aan si-skole" (M.Ed, Stellenbosch University, 1980).

⁷⁵ F. E. Graves, "History outside the classroom. An investigation into the use of fieldwork for history teaching with particular reference to Transvaal Schools" (M.Ed, University of the Witwatersrand, 1982); W. L. Rheeder, "History outside the classroom: the use of museums in teaching history" (Med, Rhodes University, 1988).

⁷⁶ J. M. Hoskins, "An evaluation of the effectiveness of a simulation game in history teaching for secondary school pupils" (M.Ed, University of the Witwatersrand, 1987); F. M. Tallie, "Ervaringsgerigte onderwysmetodes binne geskiedenisonderwys op sekondêre skoolvlak, met besondere verwysing na simulاسie en rolspel" (MEd, Stellenbosch Universiteit, 1989); M. F. Molwantwa, "The selection and integration of instructional media for the teaching of History" (Med., Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education, 1997); R. Mauel, "Visual literacy skills in the teaching of History at secondary school levels" (M.Ed., Stellenbosch University, 1994); J. J. Liebenberg, "Gebruikmaking van die rekenaar in geskiedenisonderrig" (M.Ed., University of Port Elizabeth, 1992); J. C. Kloppers, "Die politieke spotprent en geskiedenisonderrig" (M.Ed., RAU, 1990); R. Manuel, "Visual literacy skills in the teaching of history at secondary school level" (M.Ed., University of Stellenbosch, 1994).

⁷⁷ J. J. van der Merwe, "Die aktualiteit van kontemporêre Afrika in die onderrig van geskiedenis in die sekondêre skool van Transvaal" (M.Ed, University van Suid-Afrika, 1981).

⁷⁸ B. C. Mohammed, "Teaching strategies for an alternative history in the senior primary: an action enquiry involving a group of Cape Town teachers" (M.Ed., UCT, 1993).

⁷⁹ M. E. Morake, "Methods of teaching history to Grade 12 adult learners: A case study of an adult education centre in Winterveldt" (M.Ed., Wits, 1999).

⁸⁰ T. L. Magau, "Strategies for promoting creativity in the teaching of history in black schools" (M.Ed, Rand Afrikaans University, 1983); G. J. Thirion, "'n Ondersoek na 'n geskiedenis-

teaching systems in a tertiary setup and how to conduct efficiently the primary schooling;⁸¹ primary schooling;⁸² critical reflections on curriculum developments;⁸³ addressing multiculturalism;⁸⁴ ideologies impacting on history teaching;⁸⁵ identities;⁸⁶ the aims and objectives of teaching;⁸⁷ citizenship; empathy;⁸⁸ assessment and heuristic practices towards teaching history content.⁸⁹

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- derrigstrategie vir groot klasse in swart onderwys” (PhD, Vista University, 1987); Holm C., “Onderwysmedia by die onderrig van Geskiedenis” (M.Ed, Universiteit van Pretoria, 1988); N. M. Vena, “An investigation into problems underlying the teaching of history as school subject in Transkei and secondary schools” (M.Ed, University of Transkei, 1988); M. B. Mokgalabone, “The teaching of history in black secondary schools with special reference to concept teaching” (Ph.D., Vista University, 1992); C. B. N. Gobe, “History teaching in Ciskeyan secondary schools: some current problems identified and a suggested new syllabus for Standard 10” (M.Ed., University of Fort Hare, 1991).
- ⁸¹ A. H. Kock, “’n Kritiese evaluering van onderwyspraktikumstelsels by residensiële onderwyskolleges vir blankes in Natal” (M.Ed, Universiteit van die Oranje Vrystaat, 1981); D. J. McGill, “Problems experienced by student teachers with teaching and understanding of history at Indumiso College of Education” (M.Ed., University of the Orange Free State, 1992); G. E. Visser, “Military professionalism and the teaching of military history in South Africa” (M.Ed., US, 1997).
- ⁸² J. R. M. Paul, “The design and use of a database for the teaching of History at primary school level (MEd., Rhodes University, 1994); B. C. Mohammed, Teaching strategies for an alternative history in the senior primary: an action enquiry involving a group of Cape Town teachers (Med., UCT, 1993).
- ⁸³ J. F. Stuart, “Kontemporêre geskiedenisonderwys met spesiale verwysing na doelstellings en kurrikulering (DEd, University of Pretoria, 1983); S. Seetal, “Reconceptualising the teaching of History in secondary schools in a post apartheid South Africa” (M.Ed., University of Durban-Westville, 1996); M. Govender, “A subject didactical investigation of conceptualization in history teaching in the secondary school” (D.Ed., UNISA, 1993).
- ⁸⁴ Y. Struwig, “Multikultureel sensitiewe geskiedenisonderrig: ‘n Klaskamerperspektief” (M.Ed., RAU, 1992); O. E. H. M. Nxumalo, “The sociological significance of the teaching of History as a variable in the socialization of African secondary school pupils” (D.Ed., UNISA, 1980).
- ⁸⁵ R. J. Nussey, “Philosophical assumptions that inform history teaching in South Africa” (M.Ed., Wits, 1992).
- ⁸⁶ C. J. Kros, “National identity, social cohesion and the teaching of history in South Africa” (M.Ed., Wits, 1997).
- ⁸⁷ M. Governder, “A critical evaluation of aims and objectives in history teaching in the secondary school with special reference to the classification of objectives (MEd, University of South Africa, 1989).
- ⁸⁸ N. S. Kekana, “Empathy and the teaching of history in secondary schools for blacks” (D.Phil, RAU, 1990).
- ⁸⁹ M. G. Raper, “The heuristic method in the teaching of history in the primary school” (MEd, University of South Africa, 1988); A. van Schalkwyk, “Die prent as onderrigmedium in die sekondêre skool” (MEd, Rand Afrikaans University, 1988); D. N. Potgieter, “Mediagebruik by geskiedenisonderrig in sekondêre skole in Gazankulu (MEd., Rand Afrikaans University, 1988); J. C. de Wet, “Staatsburgerlike vorming deur geskiedenisonderrig in die primêre skool (MEd, Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit, 1989); F. Oosthuizen, “Die leer en onderrig van konsepte in Geskiedenis aan die Universiteit van Vista” (D.Phil., RAU, 1999); S. Matiwane, “Continuous assessment in history teaching at secondary school level” (MEd., Stellenbosch

Research in History Education during the first decade of the 21st century reflected some curriculum and other challenging issues⁹⁰ and instructional concerns related to the Outcomes Based Educational⁹¹ system South Africa at the time was endorsing. Ways of using new technology⁹² and innovatively revise modes of history instruction⁹³ to be utilised in a time of experiencing continuous decline in student numbers, are observed. Ideas around history education and historical consciousness,⁹⁴ nation building, literacy, globalism,⁹⁵ gender visibility in history sources⁹⁶ as well as assessment practices⁹⁷ were explored.

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- University, 1999); A. J. van Wyk, “’n Onderrigleerstrategie om kritiese denke deur middel van Geskiedenisonderrig te ontwikkel” (M.Ed., Stellenbosch University, 1992).
- ⁹⁰ H. R. Hariram, “Implementing peace education as a part of the South African school curriculum for learners in the intermediate phase (grades 4-6)” (M.Ed. University of KwaZulu-Natal, 2010); M. H. Molete, “History for human rights: learning about apartheid can teach tolerance” (M.Ed., Wits, 2004); C. Simchowitz, “Teaching historical time, causation and empathy in the senior primary school: a theoretical and empirical study” (M.Ed., University of KwZulu-Natal 2011); P. Bharath, “A study of knowledge representations in grade 6 history textbooks before and after 1994” (M.Ed., Wits, 2010); C. A. Bertram, “Curriculum recontextualisation: a case study of the South African high school history curriculum” (D.Ed., UKZN, 2010).
- ⁹¹ R. M. Manyane, “History teaching in South Africa within the context of the human and social sciences: an outcomes-based approach with reference to anti-racism” (D.Ed., UNISA, 2000); P. G. Warnich, “Uitkomsgebaseerde assessering van Geskiedenis in Graad 10” (PhD., North-West University, 2008).
- ⁹² M. C. Mahlakoleng, “The use of radio and television as educational and instructional technology in the teaching and learning process of History and English in senior secondary schools within Mafikeng district of the North West Province, Republic of South Africa” (M.Ed., PU vir CHO, 2001).
- ⁹³ A. Pillay, “History through drama’: perceptions, opinions, and experiences of history educators in the further education and training (FET) band at schools in the eThekweni region, KwaZulu-Natal (KZN, M.Ed. University of KwaZulu-Natal, 2010); D. S. Shutte, “History teaching as a catalyst for change in an open primary school” (M.Ed., RAU, 1992).
- ⁹⁴ G. Mazabouw, “The development of historical consciousness in the teaching of history in South African schools (D.Ed., UNISA, 2003); P. Bharath, “A study of knowledge representations in grade 6 history textbooks before and after 1994” (M.Ed. University of KwaZulu-Natal, 2010).
- ⁹⁵ A. M. A. Odhiambo, “Teaching history for national-building: locally responsive pedagogy and preparation for global participation” (PhD., University of the Witwatersrand, 2004); M. T. Maposa, “Conceptualising historical literacy in Zimbabwe: a textbook analysis” (M.Ed. University of KwaZulu-Natal, 2010), and a general discussion on nation building in History by T. Blaser, “A New South African Imaginary: Nation Building and Afrikaners in Post apartheid South Africa”, *South African Historical Journal* 52 (2005): 179-198.
- ⁹⁶ J. V. V. Fardon, “Gender in history teaching resources in South African public schools” (D.Ed., UNISA, 2002).
- ⁹⁷ S. Matiwane, “Continuous assessment in history teaching at secondary school level” (M.Ed., US., 1999).

4.2 *Book publications on History Education for training prospective history teachers*

It took more than 25 years since the first M.Ed in the country was awarded, to be able to purchase a book on the teaching methodology of History. Historians Van Jaarsveld and Rademeyer in 1964 pooled efforts together to write a teacher training guideline (which was also published in Afrikaans in 1966)⁹⁸ while Doman in 1967 produced a book for primary/junior phase history teaching.⁹⁹ As far as is known the 1966 Van Jaarsveld and Rademeyer publication sold reasonably well, and was it possible for the authors to revise and prepare a second publication in 1977.¹⁰⁰ In a 2012 context it can still be regarded as the most comprehensive book on the didactics of History teaching ever to be published in South Africa, despite its datedness and shortcomings. Van Jaarsveld's immense contributions in the History teaching methodology and his passion for, and involvement in, history education can hardly go unnoticed in the historiography of history education in South Africa. A publication in this field that can be considered as his solo input is "Probleme By Die Onderrig Van Geskiedenis"/Problems perceived in the teaching of History" which was published in 1976 and reproduced (a few years after his death) in 2004.¹⁰¹

As is the case with the thrive in post graduate research publications of the 1980s and onwards, the producing of refreshing directions in the History Teaching methodology were gradually added to the previously limited repertoire. B. J. van der Merwe was the first to contribute to History Education guidelines in the senior school phases.¹⁰² This publication was further refined in 1984 and done under a new editor, N. Dreyer.¹⁰³ In this year a first combined effort between an expert in History Education and a historian was visible when J. F. Stuart and F. J. Pretorius in 1984 published a book serving as a guide for preparing history educators at secondary schools¹⁰⁴ (in the market the second of its kind). Most initiatives and contributions in publishing on the training methodology at this stage appeared to have remained in the historically Afrikaans historian and educator domain.¹⁰⁵ S. J.

⁹⁸ Van Jaarsveld and Rademeyer, *Theory and method of teaching History* (note 62), 182; Van idem, *Teorie en Metodiek vir Geskiedenisonderrig* (note 62), 239.

⁹⁹ See F. H. Doman, *Didaktiese Benadering Van Geskiedenis Op Die Laerskool* (Johannesburg, Voortrekkerpers, 1967), 182.

¹⁰⁰ Van Jaarsveld and Rademeyer, *Teorie En Metodiek Vir Geskiedenisonderrig* (note 62), 223.

¹⁰¹ B. J. van Jaarsveld, *Probleme Bei Die Onderrig Van Geskiedenis* (Wallachs Drukkery 1976) (paperback-edition: J. L. van Schlaik, 2004), 121.

¹⁰² B. J. van der Merwe, *ABC vir Geskiedenisonderrig Senior primer* (note 60), 60. Further refined by Nic Dreyer, *ABC vir Geskiedenisonderrig Senior primer; Junior sekondêr Deel 1 Inleiding, Beplanning van die Onderrig* (H & R Academica, 1994).

¹⁰³ Dreyer, *ABC vir Geskiedenisonderrig Senior primer* (note 100), 255.

¹⁰⁴ J. F. Stuart and F. J. Pretorius, *Vakdidaktiek: Geskiedenis In Die Sekondêre Skool* (Capetown: Gutenberg, 1984), 137.

¹⁰⁵ See for example S. P. Jordaan et al., *Vakdidaktiek: Geskiedenis In Die Primêre Skool* (Uitgewers: De Jager-HAUM, 1984), 181; S. J. Esterhuizen, *Geskiedenisonderrig in die Primêre Skool Objektiewe Toetse ST.3* (Johannesburg: Perskor 1981), 44.

Esterhuizen, N. R. Gunning and H. A. Mocke cared to write an English publication titled the "History method" for prospective history educators to use.¹⁰⁶

Two books developed for a broader (English) market were published in the 1990s are those of history educators.¹⁰⁷ A lack of interest from publishers (perhaps due to the downplaying of History as subject/discipline in Outcomes Based Education for close to two decades, as well as the decline of History in schools),¹⁰⁸ are reasons for the lack of revised past publications and the current absence in initiating revised and updated perspectives on teaching history and the training of history educators. Currently History Education practitioners are negotiating with publishers to consider a revised publication which is long due.¹⁰⁹

4.3 *Historical Journals and Societies*

When historic societies were initially formed in South Africa during the 1950s, the collaboration between academic History and school history educators was prominent.¹¹⁰

F. van Jaarsveld provided his impressions of cooperation between academic History and school History educators at tertiary educational institutions in the early 1970s:¹¹¹

"History as profession in South Africa displayed the characteristics of History departments/disciplines at higher educational institutions that are closed units, each with its own group of students and distinctive internal affairs. Deliberations with fellow historians were limited and some syllabuses remained unchanged for years. Not much came from a collective consciousness regarding History instruction at university."

Yet some academic historians were, nonetheless, justly concerned by what was happening to History at school level. *Historia junior* was launched in 1956 as a history

mouthpiece for schools, but by 1977, this essentially one-man effort by Inspector J. J. van Tonder, had to sound the retreat due to his retirement from education and because no one was willing and enthusiastic enough (or had the necessary funds at their disposal) to continue this worthy cause and task.

In the 1980s, experts in the methodology of History education made a renewed attempt to mobilise and establish a national society for the teaching of History in 1986 to benefit the training of teachers and eventually to benefit the tuition of His-

¹⁰⁶ S. J. Esterhuizen N. R. Gunning and H. A. Mocke, *History method* (Good Wood: Via Africa, no year).

¹⁰⁷ Jeff Mathews et al., *Discover History A Pupil-Centred Approach To History Method* (South Africa: Maskew Miller Longman Pty.vLtd. 1992), 167 and E. van Eeden, Didactical guidelines for teaching History (note 10), 306.

¹⁰⁸ See discussions in previous and next sections that covers these statements.

¹⁰⁹ The author and a selected group of History Educators in the country is currently negotiating with a publisher.

¹¹⁰ Reasons therefore were outlined earlier in the discussion.

¹¹¹ Van Jaarsveld, "Oor die opleiding van geskiedkundiges (note 21): 79 (translated by. E.v.E.).

tory to the youth and students. A new journal was founded as mouthpiece (*Yesterday and Today/Gister en Vandag*), and establish a national society for the teaching of History in 1986. These movements were particularly encouraged from the ranks of historical Afrikaans universities, and were labelled during this time as being the instigators of Christian National Education (CNE), Afrikaner Nationalism, apartheid and rapporteurs in the 1992 HSRC Report.¹¹² For a while, these initiatives had the opposite effect on attempts to turn around the flagging trend of History at school level.¹¹³ Membership subscriptions for the journal had declined at such a rate by 1996 that the Journal ceased to exist. However, the South African Society for History Teaching (founded in 1986)¹¹⁴ revived the journal in 2006 and improved the scientific quality of the journal to such a standard that it received accreditation from South Africa's Department of Education as from 2012. The future challenge will be to disseminate and marry academic research (which will usually contain the bulk of a journal's issue) with an applied/practical component mainly produced by educators of school History.

4.4 *Insights into the state of History and History Education at universities and schools*

In this section, statistical data is applied to demonstrate an insight into the status of History that could be traced at higher education and further education and training levels in South Africa. The learner population after 2000 for History as school subject in the various provinces is discussed, while components of the condition of History at university level assist in forming an impression of current activities and tendencies. A much more encompassing study is necessary to attempt to work progressively through all the past events that helped shape History and History Education as disciplines within the field of teaching history. Glimpses of events and statistics now follow to provide some additional perspective of History in Higher Education environments in the decades after the 1960s.

4.4.1 Academic History moving away from History Education and school history practicing

In May 1973, the South African Historical Society conducted a survey about the status of History at tertiary institutions.¹¹⁵ The results show that from the total

¹¹² Peter Kallaway, "History education in a democratic South Africa", *Yesterday and Today/Gister en Vandag* 26 (October 1993), 10-17; B. Trabold, "Historical narratives as rhetoric of resistance in Apartheid South Africa: The 'History workshop and 'The new nation'", *South African Historical Journal* 62 (2010), 735-752; Sue Krige, 'Organizational History from Above', *South African Historical Journal* 26 (May 1992).

¹¹³ Elize van Eeden, "The role and focus of the South African Society for History Teaching in decades of educational transformation, 1986-2006", *New Contree* 52 (November 2006).

¹¹⁴ See www.SASHTW.org.za

¹¹⁵ Cf. Johann De Villiers, "'n Analise van Geskiedenis op Universiteitsvlak in Suid-Afrika, 1971 tot 1973", *Historia* 18 (1973): 224-232.

number of students at higher education institutions (about 99.890 in total), 7.2% were students in History. In table format, the profile reflects accordingly:

A free division of statistics in 1973 was made between:	Universities	Number of students	Cut of the 7.2%
Historically Afrikaans-medium Universities	UP, US, PU for CHE, RAU and UOPS	2.128	29,4%
Double medium Universities	Unisa and UPE	2.842	39,3%
English-medium universities	Wits UCT, Natal and Rhodes	1.103	15,2%
Historically Black universities	Durban-Westville	1.141	15,8%

** Postgraduate students in 1971 and 1972:

1971: 404 (of these, 104 were MA students; 62 PhD students and 238 honours students).

1972: 439 (of these, 130 were MA students; 55 PhD students and 254 honours students).

Fig. 5: A 1973 profile of the status of History Departments at certain universities (South Africa)

Regarding the number of employees in History at universities in 1973, 107 of them were from:

- Historically Black Universities: 19
- English-medium universities: 30
- Double medium Universities 24
- Historically Afrikaans Universities 34

Except for English-medium universities where the student/lecturer ratio was 37 to 1, the rest had an average of 61 to 1 and double medium universities a ratio of 118 to 1.

Since 1972, as far as academic production is concerned the number of scientific articles (excluding books) delivered between 2001 and 2011, at seven universities from the possible 17 that accommodate History teaching were: 650 articles, which amounts to a high average of about 65 per annum at 9.2 articles per History subject group per university. However, these impressive contributions conceal a negative side: an eventual lack of learners at school and university level with whom to share it. I would like to argue that several historians' retreat to mainly research-focussed interests also contribute to the marginalizing of the educational market for the subject and discipline. Such an approach may fill universities' purses and allow the individual to excel in the short term, but in the long term, the existence of the discipline and subject will not benefit, particularly given that it has become blunted to

the needs of communities and has become estranged from the youth and the educators of the youth.¹¹⁶

Concerning student numbers in academic History, the following (incomplete)¹¹⁷ statistics provide valuable insight regarding the status of History.

University	1 st year	2 nd year	3 rd year	Postgraduates
NMMU	120	26	18	-
NMU	269	70	8	22
US	321	178	95	47
UFS	188	85	60	7
UCT	757	742	329	39
UP	504	97	35	73
UNISA			1.459 (total)	172

- Numbers at first-year level may be misrepresentative due to students who are required to take History as background subject in certain fields of study;
- There is a visibility of international students at undergraduate level;
- Certain History subject groups present History as core discipline and applied discipline. This has a positive effect on the number of enrolled students;
- The majority of History subject groups at Universities after 1994 have limited or no connection to the training of aspiring teachers of History;
- Some of the tertiary subjects groups in History have shown an increase in student numbers since 2001;
- The skill levels and quality of postgraduate students is worrying.

Fig. 6: A 2011 profile of the status of History¹¹⁸ at certain universities¹¹⁹

Though expectations in Higher Education and Training on the performance by for example academic history practitioners, changed through the decades, research output obligations became compulsory. Therefore, contributions in History as a growing discipline on HET level became the core focus and involvement in school-related History tangential. Furthermore, the voices of the majority of black

¹¹⁶ To be compared with the view of J. W. Horton, "The relationship between School and University in the Development of Historical Studies", *South African Historical Journal* 14 (1982): 1-7.

¹¹⁷ Not all academic History departments at the tertiary institutions responded to the questionnaire sent through electronic mail.

¹¹⁸ The intake of students in certain subject groups of History is according to semester calculation of the amount of students in the course. To keep the profile simple, the general total (sometimes estimated) of each year-group is presented as the profile for better clarity.

¹¹⁹ Not all history subject groups of the universities in South Africa heeded the call to provide information. Therefore, those that did provide information, represent an image of the status of History at university level. With appreciation to the following data suppliers: E-mail from Prof. F. J. Bezuidenhout (Nelson Mandela Metropole University-NMMU) June 1st, 2011; E-mail from Prof. G. J. J. Oosthuizen, North-West University (NWU), June 1st, 2011; E-mail from Corinne Harmsen Senior Departmental Officer University of Stellenbosch (US), June 1st, 2011; E-mail from Prof A. Wessels (University of the Free State-UFS), August 4th, 2011; E-mail from Prof. Nigel Warden (University of Cape Town-UCT), August 4th, 2011; E-mail from Me Z. Tsoetso (University of Pretoria-UP), August 8th, 2011; Ms Henriette Lubbe, University of South Africa (UNISA), August 2011.

and white historians by 2012 seemed to have been muted regarding matters of History and History teaching at all educational levels. This form of “tolerance” is harming the discipline of History, particularly with regard to the profession’s obvious commitment to the community and History teaching at lower educational levels.

4.5 History Education shortly before and after the 1990s

A changing political environment, strengthened by a growing black political consciousness, paved the way for a more collective and pro-active approach in education regarding many critical issues that the voteless and oppressed experienced.¹²⁰ From these strategies, People’s Education also resulted in People’s History,¹²¹ developed during the 1980s.¹²² Even then, it was evident that, as in the past and irrespective of the views of historians and/or history didacticists practising History as academic subject and as school subject, greater needs and agendas of governments and communities in general always tend to be defining factors in the practice of History as a school subject.¹²³

During the early 1990s the state of History Education countrywide appeared healthy. Research, teaching and community engagements through societies and journals were up and running. However, sensitive discussions that became more sensitive as South Africa was progressing to its first democratic election in 1994, were embedded in curriculum debates from various ideological points of departures concerning History content for schools.¹²⁴ Ideas on Social Science history practices for the training of history educators who teach learners from grades seven to nine equally became prominent. Past and present experiences on history textbook processes and developments remained controversial within the structures of a

¹²⁰ Compare with the writings of several historians in Hans Erik J. Stolten, *History making and present day politics: the meaning of collective memory in South Africa*, (Nordiska Afrikainstitutet, Uppsala, 2007), 1-300.

¹²¹ Wessel P. Visser, “People’s History en geskiedenisonderrig op skool: ‘n Alternatiewe geskiedenis vir die nuwe Suid-Afrika”, *Yesterday and Today/Gister en Vandag* 25 (Mei 1993): 32-39; Elize van Eeden and Tienie Vermeulen, “Christian National Education and People’s Education: Historical perspectives on some common grounds”, *New Contree* 50 (November 2005): 177-206.

¹²² Cf. Kenneth, B. Hartshorne, *Crisis and challenge. Black education, 1910-1990* (Oxford University Press, Cape Town, 1992), 218-254; Michael Cross, *Imagery of identity in South African education, 1880-1990* (USA: Carolina Academic press, 1999), 73-81; 213-216.

¹²³ The author’s experience of History currently and based on a historiographical knowledge of History and education in South Africa.

¹²⁴ Cf. van Jaarsveld, “Geskiedenis in na-oorlogse Duitsland” (note 19), 15; Pieter Warnich, “The source-based essay question (SBEQ) in history teaching for the further education and training (FET) phase, *Yesterday&Today*, Special edition (March 2006), 23-24. Warnich mentions that the first national examination was written in 2003.

tightly controlled Department of Education.¹²⁵ A lack of balance, shortcomings in inclusivity and ill-considered assessment activities are spotted.¹²⁶ A propensity towards stereotyping, language bias and racism still featured, though less than any time before 1994.¹²⁷

Inadequate textbook content and research with regard to some histories in South Africa have left a void in History education in the past¹²⁸ and the present.¹²⁹ In all these trends experts of various History Education and History departments at higher education institutions all over the country took serious note of. Some were able to engage more freely towards ensuring spaces for history teaching in education, while others initiated/joined forums to engage in possible educational changes that may impact on their future tertiary educational activities. However, the sudden changing times for History at schools in a post-Apartheids and OBE mode, and the consequent effects on History Education (and even History departments) are recalled. Professor Rob Siebörger of the University of Cape Town (UCT) responded:¹³⁰

¹²⁵ Personal experience of the writing and publishing process of History textbooks for Grades 12 and 10 and perceiving the Department of Education's reticent approach towards decisions and processes.

¹²⁶ Cf. Elize van Eeden, "The revised South African History Curriculum on Globalism, National Narratives and Textbooks from a Transcontinental Perspective", *Yearbook Annals, International Society for History Didactics* 2010): 25-52, Kathalin Morgan Stereotypes, prejudices, self and 'the other' in history textbooks", *Yesterday&Today* 7 (July 2012): 85-100.

¹²⁷ Floors A. Van Jaarsveld, "Probleme by die skryf van Geskiedenis-handboeke", *Historia* 7 (1962): 147-163.

¹²⁸ C. G. Coetzee, "The Bantu and the study of History", *Historia* 11 (1966): 96-105.

¹²⁹ See for example Albert M. Grundlingh, "Herhistorisering en herposisionering: perspektiewe op aspekte van geskiedsbeoefening in hedendaagse Suid-Afrika", *Historia* 46 (November 2001), 312-314.

¹³⁰ Rob F. Siebörger, *History and the Emerging Nation: The South African Experience* (centres.exeter.ac.uk/historyresource/journal1/Sieborgered-kw), 1993. He also has made use of other sources remarking on the status of history education in the nineties, like: J. Dean and Rob Siebörger, "After Apartheid: the outlook for history", *Teaching History* 79 (April 1995); Department of Education, values, education and democracy. Report of the Working Group on Values in Education, Pretoria 2000; Sarah. Dryden, "Mirror of a nation in transition: Case studies of history teachers and students in Cape Town schools", M.Phil, UCT, 1999; A. Fa-taar, "Notes from a talk at the Southern African Comparative and History of Education Society conference", Windhoek, 15-18 October, 2000; History Education Group, History matters. Debates about a new history curriculum for South Africa Johannesburg: Heinemann-Centaur, 1993; P. Kallaway, "History education as a popular version of the TRC' Notes for the Values in Education History panel", 2000; Cynthia Kros, *Trusting to the process – reflections on the flaws in the negotiating of the history curriculum in South Africa* (Johannesburg, Cambridge University Press and University of the Witwatersrand, 1996); S. Lowry, "A review of the history curriculum process" in *Proceedings of the Workshop on School History Textbook Writing From Principles... to Practice*, ed. J. Reid, J and Rob Siebörger (Cape Town, Project for the Study of Alternative Education in South Africa, 1995); Ministry of Education, "A South African Curriculum for the Twenty First Century". Report of the Review Committee on Curriculum 2005 (Pretoria, 2000); Yona Seleti, "From History to Human and Social Sciences. The

“In 1992, three conferences for history teachers were held in the main urban centres, Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban, to debate a new history curriculum for South Africa. There was widespread consensus about the way ahead, across a range of speakers covering the spectrum of views, and representative groupings of teachers from all sectors ... “A year after the conferences, the first of three colloquia on “School History Textbooks for a Democratic South Africa” was held ... An agreed statement was published after the first two colloquia. It again drew attention to advances in the discipline of history ... and ... expressed a vision of the role for history in the new society ... An early decision of the newly appointed Minister of Education, Sibusiso Bengu, in 1994 was to set in motion an interim revision of school syllabuses, to remove inaccuracies, outdated and contentious content – with the important proviso that amendments made would not necessitate new textbooks. As with many aspects of the country's transition, the process by which the revision was conducted was as important as the changes in the curriculum itself. It took place under the National Education and Training Forum (NETF), a bargaining forum of stakeholders in education, comprising education departments, with business, parent, teacher and student organisations ... This determined the composition of the history sub-committee, which consisted entirely of stakeholder representatives, including a departmental official who had served on apartheid-era syllabus committees, five representatives of teacher organisations, a high school and a university student. There were no academics and no representatives of professional history bodies or history teaching associations ... The separation between history and geography was removed and a Human and Social Sciences¹³¹ learning area created which made no mention of subjects ... Not only was all reference to history removed from the curriculum, but the brand of Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) employed had a very marked impact on what became the study of the past ... Further support for history has come from the Working Group on Values Education published its report in September 2000. It identified six values (equity, tolerance, multilingualism, openness, accountability and social honour) to be promoted in schools ... It does not explain, however, why teachers have not fought for history and have largely remained silent,¹³² despite the high levels of interest before 1996.”

Perhaps a sense of wait-and-see-despondency was prevalent among educators of History, leading to the retreats and the silences they are able to manage. A healthy outreach by the DoE cannot be recalled, but perhaps several misunderstandings embedded in perceptions also allowed for limited engagements at the time.

Despite uncertain times in the history of History Education, the population statistics of history learners at schools after 1992 showed positive signs of History growing in certain provinces while also dwindling in others where tertiary educa-

new curriculum framework and the end of history for the General Education and Training level” (Durban: Education Policy Unit, University of Natal, 1997); Rob Siebörger, *New History Textbooks for South Africa* (Manzini, Macmillan Boleswa, 1993); idem, “Reconceptualising South African School History Textbooks”, *South African Historical Journal* 30 (May 1994): 98-108.

¹³¹ See also the view of J. Rehman, “From Bantu Education to Social Sciences. A Minor Field Study of History Teaching in South Africa, Thesis, Stockholms Universitet, 2008, 1-47.

¹³² Cf. with the impressions by Siebörger in S. Dryden-Peterson and R. Siebörger, Teachers as Memory Makers; Testimony in the Making of a New History in South Africa, *International Journal of Educational Development* 26 (2006): 394-403.

tion institutions are either limited or perhaps not very proactive.¹³³ A mainstay in history education circles, F.A. van Jaarsveld, in the winter of his life still bothered to make his voice heard despite the historical silences Siebörger and others observed. F. A. van Jaarsveld's opinion at History in schools in 1994 was:

“A demonizing of the past should not be allowed again. However, with the reconstruction of a new image, a history without a past must be avoided. History must not be allowed to dictate to us but in our multi-cultural society it must be mastered mutually. Because the meaning of history (the idea of freedom for instance) is relative, a multiperspective approach must be encouraged. In the light of the vast majority of school children of African origin, the question arises whether history will be Africanized as has been the case in many other African states. My advice is that a balance should be maintained between all contributors to the making of South African history.”¹³⁴

A few years later another pillar of strength, Professor Pieter Kapp¹³⁵ and some historians¹³⁶ supported F. A. van Jaarsveld's observation. However, the root of evil lies not only with the opinion of Van Jaarsveld and others, but is in all likelihood deeper and more difficult to comprehend. On the one hand, transitional periods bring forth new role-players that completely replace and/or ignore previous role-players and researchers, which can mean that previously identified gaps remain or are repeated within the system. On the other hand, different approaches, views and needs with regard to curriculum content from the academic community and John Citizen are requested,¹³⁷ but not necessarily considered.

The “silence” of the dismantled¹³⁸ historians and history educators¹³⁹ by 2001 was further articulated by another respected historian Professor Albert Grundlingh:

“Up until 1994¹⁴⁰ the past was a contested terrain and it assisted in creating a lively and critical history writing. Currently, it would seem that there is no need for such a tradition; it

¹³³ See statistics in Elize van Eeden, “Die jeug en Geskiedenis – vandag en gister met verwysing na die Hertzog-era”, *Suid-Afrikaanse Akademie vir Wetenskap en Kuns, J.B.M. Hertzog gedenklesing* 21 (Sep. 2011): 1-36.

¹³⁴ Floors A. van Jaarsveld, “Weereens ‘n skoongeveegde lei? –Afrekening met, en nuwe singewing aan die Suid-Afrikaanse Geskiedenis?”, *Historia* 39 (May 1994): 92-99.

¹³⁵ P. Kapp, “Vernuwing of vervanging? Geskiedenis en die herskikkingsproses in die onderwys”, *Historia* 42 (May 1997): 1-21.

¹³⁶ See also the view of historian Colin Bundy as quoted in L. Chisholm, “Migration, Citizenship and South African History Textbooks”, *South African Historical Journal* 60 (2008): 357-358; Elize van Eeden, “Historiographical and methodological trends in the teaching and curriculum development process of History in a changing South Africa”, *Historia* 42 (No. 1997): 102; Redaksioneel, “Die krisis van Geskiedenis as dissipline”, *Historia* 44 (May 1999), 1f.; H. B. Giliomee., “The uses of History”, *New Contree* 60 (Nov. 2010): 21-41.

¹³⁷ L. Chisholm, “Migration, Citizenship and South African History Textbooks”, *South African Historical Journal* 60 (2008): 357.

¹³⁸ Cf. J. Carruthers, Africa Forum on “Heritage and History” (<http://h-net.msu.edu/cgi-bin/logbrowse.pl?trx=vx&list=h-africa&month=9810&week=c&msg=sv82DZpkATFzGc7zqbKFA&user=&pw=>), from October 20th, 1998.

¹³⁹ M. Legassick, comp., “Statement on the Implications of Curriculum 2005 for History Teaching in the Schools by the South African Historical Society”, *South African Historical Journal* 38 (1998): 200-204.

would almost appear as if history is considered over and done with and all that remains is to set the results – drained from any controversy – to book in an accepted form for posterity. The history report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) and the matter of guilt have paved the way for this.” (translated by E.v.E.)¹⁴¹

By 2012, it appears that the majority of experts at higher education level, with some exception, have become spectators to the status of History teaching and content at school levels.¹⁴² History Education expert Professor Peter Kallaway also observed that the quality of students taking History in a History Education environment has declined.¹⁴³

“As I remember the numbers taking history had fallen drastically – and what was even more alarming was that the quality of the students was very poor. Most had only History I or II – and many of the class had taken over five years to get their degree. I think only one or two in a class of 25 or so had scored above 60%. So my sense is that quality/capacity is poor.”

Moreover a sufficient visibility and active participation of black historians in History and in History Education¹⁴⁴ in South Africa remains a concern. Grundlingh wrote that apartheid could no longer be used as an excuse by black historians who did not put their hands to the plough. He remarked:

“Perhaps the time has come to look at the situation in a more nuance way. What is remarkable, is that most graduated black intellectuals, including historians, do not find themselves in the academia, but in the public service, semi-public service or the private sector.”¹⁴⁵

Several Black, Coloured and Indian historians in South Africa have made contributions to parts of the perspectives of the South African history since the observations of Grundlingh, but – ironically enough and contrary to the direction into

¹⁴⁰ It could be said that this period could even be expanded to 2000. Compare e.g. contribution by C. Hamilton, “The future of the past: New trajectories”, *South African Historical Journal* 35 (1996), 146-148; L. Waldman, “The past: Who owns It and what should we do about It?”, *South African Historical Journal* 35 (1996), 149-154; S. P. Lekgoathi, “An accessible history of rural society”, *South African Historical Journal* 37 (1997), 214-217; K Tankard, “History, the Internet and South Africa”, *South African Historical Journal* 38 (1998), 20-33; N. Combrink and Pia Steyn, “Oor Geskiedenis en digitale lugknikke in die kuberruimte”, *South African Historical Journal* 38 (1998), 34-54.

¹⁴¹ A. Grundlingh, “Herhistorisering en herposisionering: perspektiewe op aspekte van geskiedsbeoefening in hedendaagse Suid-Afrika”, *Historia* 46 (Nov. 2001), 316-318.

¹⁴² ‘n Indruk verkry na die terugvoer op vrae aan historici en vakdidaktici van Geskiedenis in Suid-Afrika, May-Augustus 2011.

¹⁴³ E-mail conversation with author: Peter Kallaway (UCT), September 1th/2nd 2011.

¹⁴⁴ The author observed that several black History Educators having obtained a postgraduate M.Ed or D.Ed or D.Phil degree don’t seem to be currently active in the academic environment.

¹⁴⁵ Grundlingh, “Herhistorisering en herposisionering: perspektiewe” (note 141), 312-314 (translated E.v.E.).

which the current History curriculum is directing history content – the contributions of these historians seem to be regionally focussed.¹⁴⁶

4.7 *History teaching at Education Faculties by 2012*¹⁴⁷

From a recent electronic interview with all academic educators involved in the training of History teachers for practicing on school level in South Africa, the following remarks were made by most of them:¹⁴⁸

- The voice of the historians and History Educators is mostly not heard or is deliberately ignored;
- History should be more visible in societies;
- Students trained as educators in History need to examine their attitudes;
- Though a steadiness in student numbers in the training of History educators are experienced, the waning interest in History as school subject influences the number of students who should be trained, and who are willing to continue with History as subject/discipline at university level;
- Government (via the Department of Education) allows for too much politicking in the managing of History as a subject which may impact on the quality of teaching and training;
- Historians should become involved in the sharing of knowledge and the training of History teachers again.

By 2012 most academics in History Education passionately engaged in the teaching of curriculum content they themselves or predecessors had developed.¹⁴⁹ Some of the most prominent History Education sections at universities in South Africa responded on their student enrolment status and their current curriculum content:

¹⁴⁶ Cf. for example the precious contribution of Prof. Bernard Mbenga with regard to the Bafokeng, the Oorlam community in Rustenburg district, the Bakgatla in the Pilanesberg and more. Dr Chitja Twala's focus is more on the regional bound political contributions (e.g. COPE) and other community themes like the Maokeng in Kroonstad.

¹⁴⁷ Not all history subject groups of the Education Faculties heeded the call to provide information. Therefore, those that did provide information, represent an image of the status of History at university level. With appreciation to the following data suppliers: E-Mail, J. Wassermann (UKZN), August 4th, 2011; September 6th, 2011; E-mail, Karen Horn (US), September 2^{de}, 2011; E-mail, P. Warnich (NWU), September 2nd, 2011.

¹⁴⁸ Information was requested as widely as possible but only a few universities reacted: Information was provided by Johan Wassermann (KZN); Pieter Warnich (NWU-Potchefstroom Campus), June 15th, 2012; Louisa Meyer (NWU-Vaal Triangle Campus) and Rob Siebörger (NCU), June 21st, 2012; Henriette Lubbe, September 1st, 2011; Helen Ludlow, WITS/ES van Eeden E-mail July 10th, 2012; Sonja Schoeman, June 25th, 2012.

¹⁴⁹ E.g. the Electronic responses of History Educators to the author: Prof. Rob F. Siebörger, July 2nd, 2012;

University of the Witwatersrand:¹⁵⁰

“We make sure that our future history teachers are well acquainted with the national Social Science and History curricula. At the same time we are engaging with broader issues of the nature of the discipline of history and of history pedagogy so that, hopefully, they can stand outside of any curriculum, and engage critically and creatively with it. Our students would be able to work with and around the previous National Curriculum Statement (NCS), and are currently working with Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS). We look at questions of “What is history? Why teach it? How do learners learn? What are appropriate methods to achieve what we want to achieve. More than anything, we have discovered that if students are well grounded in academic history, they are able to engage effectively with methodology. We thus ensure that our students have a thorough academic grounding. In the BEd we do bear in mind the topics taught at school and make sure that our courses assist students to teach the key concepts and topics. We do not, however, teach the school curriculum per se.”

H J. Ludlow further commented on the History education at the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) and, which academia of other higher education institutions would endorse, and remarked that there is a steady trend of growth in the number of students being trained. Since 2010 for example the number of students at Wits remained between 20 and 40 per annum of which less than 20 progressed towards secondary history teaching. A lack of subsidy for students wanting to major in History remains part of the problem regarding the low intake.

University of South Africa¹⁵¹

“No major decline or growth of students is observed. An average of 55 students per annum registers for History education. Our focus: A theoretical framework, ensuring inclusion in the History classroom, designing lesson plans, blooms taxonomy and History as a school subject, teaching essay writing in the History classroom, the educator as an assessor in the History classroom, resources in the History classroom, learning mediation in History as a school subject, teaching a skills-based approach to historical evidence and knowledge.”

University of KwaZulu-Natal:¹⁵²

“The University of KwaZulu-Natal experiences a growth of students. Reasons for this are the quality of our program as well as the fact that young students feel that the subject reflects their identity and struggles ... B.Ed. Students: At the end of 2012 we had roughly 550 students enrolled for one module or another in History Education ... B.Ed. (Hons): This is the initial post-graduate qualification in History Education ... In 2012 we had collectively close on 60 students enrolled for all the modules in this qualification ... M.Ed. (History Education by dissertation): In 2012 we had 10 students enrolled for this qualification. The research foci we pursue is History textbooks; Youth and History Education; Oral History; Holocaust in Africa and Gender and History Education. Ph.D. (History Education by thesis): This is our flagship qualification and we currently have students from South Africa, Mauritius, Nigeria, Cameroon, Malawi, Rwanda and Zimbabwe in our program. The research foci pursued include History textbooks; Youth and History Education and teaching issues of controversy in History. We currently have 11 doctoral candidates in our program.”

¹⁵⁰ E-mail from Dr. H Ludlow (Wits), October 2^{de}, 2012.

¹⁵¹ E-mail from Prof. Sonja Schoeman, June 25th, 2012.

¹⁵² E-mail from Prof. Johan Wassermann, September 6th, 2011; 29 January 2013.

University of the North-West¹⁵³

“On our three campuses there is a steady growth of undergraduates enrolling for school history courses. An average of 35 per year is recorded. Students are also trained in the Social Sciences and 239 were accommodated in 2012. The number of students taking the History teaching methodology/Didactics course averages 7 per year ... Training is based on the framework of the CAPS document. We currently accommodate 60 undergraduate students in History Education and will re-implement post graduate opportunities from 2014 only since it was phased out in the late nineties due to a lack of educator capacity.”

University of Stellenbosch¹⁵⁴

“Students who wish to study History education at Stellenbosch University can either register for the BEd programme (Intermediate and Senior Phase) or they can complete a degree and then do the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) with Curriculum Studies (History Education) as an elective ... The focus of the current BEd programme at Stellenbosch is on the Foundation, Intermediate and Senior phase. During their first year, all education students are required to complete Social Sciences. On completion of year 1, students decide between Foundation Phase on the one hand, and Intermediate and Senior phase on the other hand. If they select Intermediate and Senior phase, they then have the option to choose Social Sciences as one of their specialisation areas. Students spend an equal amount of time on Geography and on History to pass Social Sciences at the end of years 2 to 4. During the four year BEd course, the focus in Social Sciences is both on content knowledge and on pedagogical aspects of History and Geography education. PGCE (History) numbers since 2009 averaged between 25 and 33 in the final year.”

Apart from the platform, the South African Society for History Teaching sets to organise annual conferences because the instructors of History Education don't liaise regularly. Some cherish informal links and occasionally support each other in for example the development of post graduate courses in History education,¹⁵⁵ and to act as external examiners.¹⁵⁶

4.8 *The 2011-status of History in the Further Education and Training (FET) level as source for securing History Educator training on HET-level*¹⁵⁷

The statistics available per province indicates a decline in learner numbers in History since 2004 to 2010. In a few provinces, there was an increase in learner num-

¹⁵³ E-mail from Dr. Louisa Meyer, Sept. 1st, 2011; Dr. Pieter Warnich, Sept. 2nd, 2011; June 15th, 2012; September 19th, 2012; Ms Leilani Titus, February 2013; Luiza De Sousa, February 20th, 2013 (translated E.v.E.).

¹⁵⁴ E-mail from Dr. Karen Horn, January 28th, 2013.

¹⁵⁵ The author is familiar with current support by the History Education section of the University of KwaZulu-Natal to the Wits History Education section as from 2013 and the re-development of a post graduate B.Ed pathway at the North-West University for training prospective students in post graduate History Education courses from 2014.

¹⁵⁶ E-mail from Prof. R. F. Siebörger, University of Cape Town (UCT), July 2nd, 2012 and Prof. S. Schoeman, June 25th, 2012.

¹⁵⁷ Information provided by the Department of Basic Education (National), Tshepo Seema, Sub-Directorate: System Administration, Pretoria, August 5th, 2011. The initial statistics as provided by the DBE in July 2011, is viewed by the Department as preliminary and might deviate from the final numbers, however the broader insight of History remains insightful.

bers. General observations with regard to Grade 12 learner status in History (provincial) are:

- As appears to be the case in History education training, KwaZulu-Natal also accommodates the largest number of learners in History at schools, Grade 12. Despite the decrease in learner numbers Gauteng shows a firm increase in learners, but is also conspicuous in its absence when it comes to fundamental decision-making at DoE level. Certain educators are of the opinion that the increase in learners from Grade 10 to Grade 12 is not necessarily positive, because learners who struggle with other subjects from Grade 10 onwards are simply “forced” into History. This places a great demand on teachers to help these learners pass at Grade 12 level.
- The Western Cape has shown a decrease during the past few years, yet the Department of Education of the Western Cape and expertise in this province has played a prominent role in establishing the curriculum content.

The “big five” of History in the Further Education and Training phase of the provinces are: KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng, Limpopo, Eastern Cape and the Western Cape.

5. Conclusion and perspectives

This retrospection on yesterday’s academic reflections could actually serve as a national audit of some kind. Yesterday somewhere, Historians and History Educators of History exchanged important thoughts about the subject and discipline that may have aged, but do not have an expiration date just yet.

For years considerations for support of History teaching were also spontaneously provided by historians up to the 1980s and in some way they were even always involved, though limited in number in recent years.

History Education in South Africa only really started as a professional direction since the late 1930s, and several degrees were issued in the M.Ed and D.Ed programmes. Just as a diversity of contributions and diverse perspectives (content) are needed in History education to limit content distortion (and even to try to avoid it completely), similarly, an openness is required when expertise (and experience) is employed across provincial borders to help realise a crossing to old, existing and new processes. Openness and tolerance should be democratic by nature. If openness is side-stepped, and research or expertise disregarded, the uncertainty and unhappiness will only increase. Important matters that educators of History at all educational levels should currently consider (or rather reconsider, as in the past)¹⁵⁸ include how mutual synergy should exist in order to induce proactiveness for the benefit of the subject and discipline without invoking anger, “violating” or “denying” one another’s “speciality”, or to be completely detached from the value that one has to the other. Historians and History Education should reposition the pro-

¹⁵⁸ Cf. e.g. Harriet Deacon, “Using computer technology in history teaching”, *South African Historical Journal* 38 (1998): 3-19; Geoff R. Allen, “Is there a baby in this bathwater? Disquieting thoughts on the value of content in History” 42 (2000): 290-306.

fession in a continuous changing intellectual and political environment in South Africa.

The studying of academic History and History Education in South Africa towards 2012 appeared more vibrant than anytime after 1994.¹⁵⁹ Grounded in the reflections of yesterday's research, the passionate contributions, debates and impressions (despite their shortcomings and unfortunate occasional disrupting moments in ideology) it is possible for South African practitioners in History to face, map and bridge diversities that currently may blurs pathways towards constructive involvement, cooperation and healthy communication.

¹⁵⁹ Cf. Linda Chisholm, "Migration, Citizenship and South African history textbooks", *South African Historical Journal* 60 (2008), 353-374; Karen Harris, "Transforming School History Texts", *South African Historical Journal* 34 (1996): 267-275; Fransjohan Pretorius, "Unfair 'affirmative' action in South African historiography", *Yesterday & Today* 1 (May 2007): 1-8; Jane Carruthers, "The changing shape and scope of Southern African Historical studies", *South African Historical Journal* 60 (2010): 384-393.

Issues of History Education in Japan as seen in Teacher Education. Lost in Polarisation of Historical Culture

Takahiro Kondo

1. Introduction

During the past decade, both history education and teacher education have garnered a great deal of attention in Japanese society. Oddly, however, no serious discussion of issues related to the education of history teachers has been undertaken. This paper was composed to unravel this mystery.

Specifically, this paper first confirms some recently discussed difficulties related to history education and teacher training. Next, the current state of the history teacher education system will be addressed. This process will not only provide a structured understanding of the current situation in which both history education and history teacher education have ceased to function properly; it will also shed light on the historical culture underlying today's Japan.

2. Hollowing out of history education during a history boom

2.1 *From history novels to history games*

The Japanese publishing industry is undergoing a *history boom*. In 2010, four new weekly history magazines entered the market. Along with three strong history magazines that have been published since the late 20th century, it is unclear whether these new history magazines will be able to survive in the market. It is interesting however, that at a time when many weekly magazines are reducing their circulation, history magazines are increasing in popularity.

Common elements and different points of these older and newer magazines are somewhat surprising and illustrative of this new history boom. The first common element is that virtually no contributions are made by history researchers. Consequently, no common ground links such history magazines and the journals of historical science. The second common element is their strong tendency to examine historical figures specifically. Many articles depict the decisions and lives of warlords from the Sengokujidai (age of provincial wars in Japan: 1467-1573), and military figures and politicians who commanded modern wars. This is a form of narration that is common with a literary genre known as historical novels.¹ The

¹ There are two literary genres under the notion of “historical novel” in Japan, i.e. *Rekishishosetsu* and *Jidaishosetsu*. While the former aims to describe a period of history itself, the latter puts an actual or fictional personage in a historical setting and recounts his life and achievements, cf. Narita, Ryuichi, *Sengoshisoka toshiteno Shiba Ryotaro* [*Ryotaro Shiba, a thinker of postwar Japan*] (Tokyo, Chikumashobo: 2009). 85-86.

third and final common element is the trend of viewing past cases through an interest in everyday life. The timeless themes such as family love are representative. However, with regard to differences, older established history magazines are more text-centric and strongly push their characteristics as reading material while newer magazines are strongly visually oriented, exhibiting a trend to reduce the number of words on one page and feature illustrations (cartoon-like art) of historical figures. The expected readers also differ. Established history magazines target middle-aged and older males, although the newer magazines target younger readers and have even broadened their readership specifically to women. In recent years, young women are increasingly showing an interest in samurai stories by playing computer games based on themes such as the Sengokujidai. History stories are changing from something that is read to something that is played.

These common and differing elements show that the gap separating the professional depictions of history by researchers and what the general public demands of history is widening. The public wants a thrill and emotion that cannot be provided by academic research. Clearly, history still occupies an important position in the cultural goods market. However, history education in schools presents a completely different impression.

2.2 *Refusal of a required course subject: world history*

In autumn 2006, mass media reported, almost every day, on the improper structuring of the curriculum in high schools nationwide. Although there were many descriptions of different forms of injustice, the most common were cases in which class hours for world history, a required subject, were greatly reduced. Moreover, it became apparent that this had been going on from the end of the 20th century.

The course of studies for elementary schools (six years), junior high schools (three years) and high schools (three years) were first issued and implemented in 1947. Since then, there have been eight revisions to these guidelines. During each revision, at each stage, the history education curriculum has also changed. Nevertheless, no change is apparent in the fundamental format of learning overall history. It mainly emphasized Japanese history for the first time in sixth grade. Based on this foundation, it emphasized learning Japanese history in greater detail along with some foreign history in junior high school, with learning of either Japanese history or world history (or both) in high school.

Some difficulty arose when world history became a requirement and Japanese history was designated as an elective requirement in the high school education guidelines implemented in 1994. The designation of world history as a required subject was aimed at educating students to take part more readily in the globalization of society. However, this policy was not an important one for ordinary high school students and their teachers, who were heavily focused on university entrance exams. What they wanted was to increase the class time that was allocated to study for entrance exams and to reduce times for other non-useful classes to the absolute minimum. However, all universities offer options other than world history on their

entrance exams. This point is where the contradictions arise. Quite a few high schools used class time allocated to world history for other subjects such as English, which is necessary for entrance exams.²

What is noteworthy is that the popular opinion that appeared in the mass media was not only aimed at the high schools which were part of these improper acts. It was also aimed at the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), which had made world history a requirement.

Criticism of the appointment of world history as a required subject does not mean that learning history is completely discretionary. However, history education in elementary and junior high schools has always shown a Japanese-history bias. Furthermore, in the 1994 revision to the course of studies, that bias was reinforced. The requirement of world history teaching in high schools went hand in hand with these measures. However, the mass media did not interpret or portray the overall structure of this history education system and criticized MEXT from the perspective of its overwhelming academic load on the students.

What the 2006 incident brought to light is that for many people, learning history in school education has meaning only in relation to university entrance exams, and that it represents nothing but a burden of memorizing many names, incidents, and years. Many people attach no meaning or relevance to questions of what academic skills should be nurtured through history education and what purpose learning history has.

In the society of today's Japan, one finds history as literature or as a game on one hand, and history as a trial or challenge to advance to university on the other. Japan's historical culture is characterized by this polarized interaction with history. History teachers are not merely helpless in such a situation: they play a salient role in it.

2.3 *Positioning of history in university education*

Since the incident in 2006, high school students can no longer escape from history. Nevertheless, this is not the case at universities. By choosing a course carefully, it is possible to avoid studying history altogether. The curricula of the universities have become greatly diversified since the deregulation of universities in 1991. Before this deregulation, a bachelor program consisted of two years of general education courses and two years of specialized education courses at all universities. The former consisted of three areas: humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences. Students, irrespective of their major, were obligated to obtain a certain number of credits from each area. History was categorized into either humanities or social sciences, and was taken by numerous students. In other words, at the general edu-

² In world history, there are two categories, class A and class B. The former is a 2 credit class; the latter is a 4 credit class. Two credits in high school is equivalent to 70 50-minute classes. Although students taking world history as part of the entrance exams to popular universities are obligated to take class B, other students can take only class A as a compulsory subject. For the most part, these 70 hours (2×35 hours/year) were used for other subjects.

cation level, history was regarded as a subject that was easier to gain an interest in than philosophy or linguistics, even among students who intended to progress to the faculties of science or medicine from their third year and thereafter. In fact, deregulation has eliminated the partition of these three areas at the general education level and has furthermore brought about a reduction in size of this stage. This measure has also freed some students from the requirement of studying history.

Next, we can examine the specialized educational course level for humanities and social science programs. It is undeniable that the departments of history in the school play a central role in the education and research of history in the Japanese universities. Legal and economic history is also taught in the schools of law and economics, but the professors who teach these courses generally identify themselves as jurists or economists.

Recent developments suggest a threat to the history departments at universities, not just because world history in particular is given the cold shoulder by high school students, as described above.³ With the questions related to the social meaning of history education, the knowledge and skills provided by history departments to students are regarded as useless. In fact, even if a student emphasizes study in history at university by majoring in it, the fields in which a student can use what has been studied are limited to teaching at school or becoming a researcher at university, and similar professions. In addition, most graduates from the departments of history of famous universities avoid professions of these types and choose to work for private companies such as banks and security companies where they can expect to receive high salaries.

Such situation raises the concern that departments of history do not exist for the students, but for the university professors. General opinion on the departments of history at national universities, where approximately 70% of the budget is dependent upon taxes, is especially dire. A fundamental difficulty is that people do not understand the role played by the national universities in the development of historical science. Moreover, the importance of historical science itself is underestimated.

Considering this current state, the Science Council of Japan, of which the author is a member, has called on the government to assign even more specialized employees at archives, museums, and galleries.⁴ However, the possibility of this recom-

³ For the standardized nationwide university exams, approx. 100,000 students selected world history B in 2005, but only approximately 88,000 took it in 2011. During that period, the students selecting Japanese history B and geography B also decreased from 155,000 to 153,000 and 119,000 to 114,000 respectively. However these decreases are smaller (Daigaku nyushi sentar [National Center for University Entrance Examinations], *Heisei 10 nendo jisshi kekka no gaiyo* [Implementation results and summary 2008], (Tokyo: Daigaku nyushi sentar, 2008), 9; Daigaku nyushi sentar, *Heisei 23 nendo jisshi kekka no gaiyo*, (Tokyo: Daigaku nyushi sentar, 2011), 9).

⁴ Nihon gakujutsu kaigi dai 1 bu nihon no tenbo iinkai [Science Council of Japan Section 1 Vision of Japan Committee] ed., *Jinbun-shakaikagaku karano teigen* [Proposals from the Humanities and Social Sciences] (Tokyo: 2010), 141.

mentation being implemented is low; even if implemented, it is expected to generate very few jobs.

3. History teacher education system

3.1 Reforms surrounding teacher education

Against these headwinds buffeting history departments, the importance of history teacher education is growing. However, the calls from historians to increase the expertise of school teachers have remained unanswered, partly because teacher education has been gaining increased attention during recent years.

In April of 2009, MEXT revised the standard of teacher training program for universities, and implemented a teaching license renewal system. The former required students aiming to become teachers to learn more in relation to educational sciences including psychology, while the latter required persons who already held a teaching license to take 30 hours of courses every 10 years.

The background behind this policy is the increased and changing burden on teachers from society. Today, the issue related to the formation of a pupil's academic skills is merely a tiny fraction of the entire workload of the teacher. What is emphasized more is a total care given to each student. However, increasingly large numbers of teachers are taking leaves of absence or resigning because of mental disorders. According to a survey by MEXT, in the 20 years leading up to 2009, the number of teachers who took prolonged leaves of absence because of psychiatric disorders increased by 20 times.⁵ The particular difficulty persists of teachers resigning immediately after they are hired. One reason for these difficulties is probably that they were unable to acquire the knowledge and skills that they needed to work at a school. Consequently, the new standard of the teacher training program emphasizes practical skills such as understanding the psychology of adolescents, how to interact with guardians, and how to work with colleagues to address and handle issues.

To be specific, as the table 1 shows, through the reform of the standard in 2009, credits for "courses related to education" where these skills are thought were increased. What suffered as a result were "courses related to subjects". For example, the total number of credits to be acquired from "courses related to subjects" required for a junior high school teacher of social studies was reduced drastically from 40 credits to 20 credits. In addition, these 20 credits cover the following five fields: history, geography, law/political studies, sociology/economics and philosophy. Consequently, a teacher student takes only 4 credits in history, which is the absolute minimum number of credits required. It can be inferred that most students take more classes than this in reality. However, a high probability persists that a

⁵ "Seishin shikkan de kyushokushita koritsu gakko kyoin 5458 nin, saita koshin [Number of public school teachers taking leaves of absence reaches record high 5458]", *Asahi Shimbun* (December 25th, 2010).

certain number of teachers hired in the future will not have confidence in their knowledge of history.

	courses related to subjects	courses related to education	courses related to subjects or education
elementary school	18 → 8	41 → 41	0 → 10
junior high school	40 → 20	19 → 31	0 → 8
high school	40 → 20	19 → 23	0 → 16

Table 1: Revised credit requirements for teaching licenses (2009)

For all teaching levels, in addition to the courses above, 2 credits are required in each of the following courses, “Japanese constitution” “physical education”, “foreign language communication”, and “operating information processing devices”. Two credits are awarded after participating 15 lectures or seminars and success in the necessary exams. In addition, “courses related to education” include teaching practice; 5 credits (4 weeks) for elementary school, 5 credits (3 weeks) for junior high school, and 3 credits (2 weeks) for high school.

The objective for implementing the teaching license renewal system is to enhance teacher education after employment. However, the difficulty is of the same character.

Before the new system was implemented, newly hired teachers at public schools worked their first year on the job under the guidance of a seasoned teacher. After 10 years it was necessary to take a refresher course of 20 days. This course consisted of the following: 1. Education act including regulations related to teachers. 2. New subject contents and their teaching methods. 3. Methods of counselling and guidance of students. However, in reality only 1 and 3 are emphasized and in relation to 2, only a brief and simple explanation on the revised curriculum guidelines was given. Refreshing and updating knowledge related to various subject courses and the development and spreading of new educational contents and methods were left up to the individual effort of the teachers and voluntary study groups.

The newly implemented teaching license renewal system is showing the same trend. In this system, 30 hours of courses over 5 days every 10 years are required, and at least 18 hours must be divided into categories 1 and 3 noted above. The remaining 12 hours are useful to take the courses of category 2 but this is not expected proactively.

In this way, in relation to the history teacher education, the increase in the interest in teacher training decreased the number of hours allocated to studying history.

3.2 Curriculum of teacher education

With the Education Personnel Certification Act of 2009, how is teacher training actually being undertaken? This section will introduce two case examples, one from the School of Education at Waseda University, and another from the Tokyo Gakugei University. Although both are education-related institutions, they show three mutually distinguishing characteristics.

The first is that the former is an undergraduate school of a private university while the latter is a national university of education. Second, obtaining a teaching license is not a requirement for graduation at the former, while the latter requires, in principle, a license to graduate. Finally, the former's main mission is to train teachers for work in junior high schools and high schools, whereas the latter is intended to train teachers for work in elementary schools and junior high schools. These differences give rise to slight differences in the ways of thinking related to the curriculum for training history teachers.

3.2.1 History teacher education at Waseda University School of Education

The students majoring in geography and history in the Department of Social Studies at Waseda University School of Education who aim to become teachers of junior high schools' social studies or high schools' geography-history courses must earn 28 credits in courses related to the subjects. This is 8 more credits than required under the new standards established by MEXT. Of these 28 credits, those related to history are 4 credits for "introduction to Japanese history" and 8 credits for "introduction to foreign history". In addition, 4 credits in "introduction to historical science" are necessary for graduation with a BA degree.⁶ These requirements dictate that at least 16 credits of history courses are necessary in the specialized program.

The students must also write their graduation thesis in either the history or geography field. In order to submit a graduation thesis in the history field, additional 12 credits are necessary in related seminars. Therefore, students majoring in history must earn at least 40 credits related to the subject of "geography-history", of which 28 must be in history-related courses. This obligation complies with the Education Personnel Certification Act before 2009. Waseda University School of Education did not reduce the requirements for the subject related courses, although the number of education-related courses was increased in response to the revision of the Act. In fact, it can be inferred that students majoring in history are taking even more related elective courses. A relatively comfortable financial situation underlies this academic environment.⁷

However, in some cases, students who write their graduation theses in geography earn only the minimum 16 credits in history-related courses. This makes it difficult for them to acquire the knowledge they need when teaching history at high school. Particularly only 30 90-min classes exist for each of Japanese history, western history, and oriental history from ancient times to the modern day. It is impossible to cover deeply the wide range of history that is examined in high school. In addition, the students are not able to master everything that is taught in these classes. Furthermore, some bias exists in class details because of the expertise of the professor who gives the lecture. These points underscore the difficulty that arises from the

⁶ This is not related to the teaching license.

⁷ Some universities cut a few subject-related courses off in 2009 and following years.

creation of the high school subject of geography-history, as well as providing a teaching license for it.

A similar difficulty also appears in the “didactics of geography–history”, which is positioned as courses related to education. In accordance with the requirements of MEXT, Waseda University requires the earning of 4 credits in these courses. The salient implication is that there are only 2 credits worth of history teaching method classes. In the class of the “didactics of geography-history”, the students study how to create a history lesson plan, review teaching materials, conduct actual trial lesson, and to evaluate lesson results. Although this is a vital subject for future history teachers, it is looked upon very lightly. The reality that history education at high schools requires only a memorization of a substantial amount of facts results from the lack of teaching skills of the teachers. The teacher training at universities is also responsible.

Many students who aim to receive a teaching license for high school geography–history also aim to acquire a teaching license for junior high school social studies. In such case, students must also earn 2 credits in the “didactics of junior high school social studies (History).”⁸ Therefore, in reality, many students learn a total of 4 credits worth of knowledge when combined with history teaching methods. However, this engenders another issue: no relation exists between the contents of the classes for junior high school and high school teaching students. The majority of these classes are held by junior high school and high school teachers separately, and a lack of communication between them exists. They are taught by adjunct professors and do not come to the university aside from their assigned class times.

Another severe difficulty is that no standard textbook of history didactics exists for university students. In fact, when looking at the balance of seminars of didactics for junior high schools and high schools in the 2011 Seminar List⁹, no textbook is listed. Most professors in charge of these classes merely require that the students plan and implement trial lessons based on the demands of the course of studies, and evaluate their performance while providing a little advice.

The Waseda University School of Education has resisted revisions to the Education Personnel Certification Act, which emphasizes pedagogy (psychology) classes in place of history classes to the greatest extent possible. However, they have yet to engage in a lack of functionality of history didactics entirely, which has been pointed out for a long while. It can be said that the case of Waseda University School of Education shows an old-style type of history teacher training in Japan.

⁸ The courses “didactics of junior high school social studies (geography) and (civics)” are also required.

⁹ Waseda daigaku kyoikugakubu [Waseda University School of Education], *2011 nendo jugyo gaido* [Course guide 2011], (Tokyo: Wanda daigaku kyoikugakubu, 2011).

3.2.2 *History teacher education at Tokyo Gakugei University*

Staff members of Tokyo Gakugei University's School of Education have close communications with MEXT and therefore influence teacher training policies.¹⁰ Most students are enrolled in either the elementary school teacher education program or the junior high school teacher education program, but in actuality most students acquire licenses for both. To obtain a license as an elementary school teacher, who must teach all subjects, students must study the didactics of each subject in addition to child psychology and other psychology related courses. Consequently, a characteristic of this university is that it requires students to study vast amounts of courses related to education. This is in line with the intent of the 2009 revision to the Education Personnel Certification Act.

Taking the junior high school education program as an example, students enrolled in this program aiming to obtain a teaching license for social studies must earn 50 credits of courses related to the subject and 46 credits of the courses related to education.

Although the 50 credits required for courses related to social studies is more than the 40 credits required by the Waseda University School of Education, these are only the absolute minimum number of credits required. No large difference exists in the actual number of credits earned by students at each university. However, some differences exist in the contents of the programs. Among these 50 credits, the total number of the required courses related to history is only six. This includes 2 credits for "introduction to Japanese history", 2 credits for "introduction to western history", and 2 credits for "introduction to oriental history". As noted already, Waseda University holds each course as a 4 credit course.

The reason for this difference is that other academic fields such as geography, law/politics, economics, sociology and philosophy, which are all part of social studies of the junior high school, are also required subjects at Tokyo Gakugei University. In other words, Waseda University assigns more weight to high school teachers and creates curricula that separate geography–history and civics, whereas Tokyo Gakugei University assigns importance to junior high school teachers of social studies. Therefore, for example law/politics, which is classified as a separate field known as civics in high school, is also required, and in comparison, history-related courses are reduced. Most of the Waseda University high school teacher training curriculum overlaps with the junior high school teacher training curriculum. Conversely, when a student completes the junior high school teacher education program at Tokyo Gakugei University, that student also satisfies most the requirements necessary to obtain a high school teaching license. There are 10 more required credits in social studies related courses when compared with Waseda Uni-

¹⁰ In cooperation with MEXT, some educational researchers of this university are working on developing the indexes for evaluating teacher education curricula. However, their concern lies only in the management of the whole program. The characteristics of each subject are out of their interest.

versity because the number of history course hours necessary to obtain a high school teaching license cannot be achieved with only 40 credits.

The second characteristic, as already noted, is the large number of required credits for pedagogy-related courses. In this category, Waseda University required 26 credits for a high school teaching license, and 32 credits for a junior high school license. Even this surpasses the standards established by MEXT. In contrast, Tokyo Gakugei University requires 46 credits¹¹ for a junior high school teaching license. The reason for the large number of credits is that a large amount of time was set to study the didactics of social studies, including history teaching methods. Specifically, in addition to the social studies didactics in narrow sense, there are an additional 10 credits worth of courses on teaching materials.

Moreover, many students of the junior high school teacher education program also obtain elementary school teaching licenses, as described above. In these cases, they must earn approximately 40 additional credits that include 15 credits in each related subject such as Japanese and mathematics, and 18 credits for the didactics of these subjects. Even if a student has already earned 4 credits in the didactics of junior high school social studies, they must earn 2 credits in the didactics of elementary school social studies separately.

It is apparent that the students at Tokyo Gakugei University spend an extremely large amount of time learning teaching methods over multiple subjects. Therefore, this practice alleviates the weaknesses of the Waseda University School of Education. However, the results cannot necessarily be viewed optimistically. In fact, no reliable data confirm the relation between the teacher training programs at each university and the knowledge and skill level of the graduates as teachers. What is certain is that many classes of didactics at Tokyo Gakugei University, merely looking at the syllabus, are plagued with the same issues as those at Waseda University. For example, merely limiting our example to history teacher training, no curricular device exists for students to acquire and develop their teaching skills systematically.

The students practice constructing lessons centred on historical figures, or they practice constructing lessons that use TV dramas as teaching materials. They are also taught skills to organize the learning of history by relating it with the learning of geography and civics. However, what courses the students take is left to their own discretion. Additionally, no particular awareness exists in relation to the difference in the skill required when teaching history at elementary, junior high and high school levels. Moreover, no syllabus advises the textbooks that are suited to be used.¹²

Tokyo Gakugei University allocates a large amount of time to the study of history didactics. However, a curricular device to use this time effectively is falling be-

¹¹ Tokyo gakugei daigaku [Tokyo Gakugei University], *2010 Sutadi gaido* [*Study Guide 2010*], (Tokyo: Tokyo gakugei daigaku, 2010), 15.

¹² Tokyo Gakugei University website – Live Campus (https://tgulc.u-gakugei.ac.jp/syllabus2/syllabusSearchDirect_do?nologin=on) (accessed: December 9th, 2011).

hind. One reason is apparently the course subject structure that integrates history education into social studies in elementary and junior high schools, whereas in high school, the subject of “geography-history” exists. In addition, teachers are responsible for all subjects in elementary school, whereas in junior high and high school, teachers are responsible for one subject. Results show that conceptualizing a teacher training curriculum that specializes in history education is not only unsuitable for elementary school and junior high school teacher training: the fear exists that the teachers might have difficulty in teaching geography, even at high school.

Another reason for the delay in streamlining history didactics is also apparent in the pragmatic thinking of the people concerned. They have thought that it was more effective to collect practical hints that can be referred to when needed from time to time by individual teachers and teacher students, than to systemize the different knowledge into a theory.¹³ In fact, the voluntary teacher research groups that were touched upon in the first section of chapter 3 functioned as a forum for sharing such hints. However, with increased social pressure on the teachers and the widening of the distance between history education in schools and history culture in the public, these informal activities are starting to lose their functionality. It is undeniable that both history education in schools and teacher training program at universities must confront change.

4. Conclusion

There are two markets of history in Japan. The first is a market centred on university and high school entrance exams. In this market, school teachers provide knowledge that is necessary for students to pass the exams. The second is the entertainment market with components as games, novels, and TV dramas. In this market, game writers and playwrights mutually compete.

To date, most education researchers have specifically examined the first market and criticized the type of history education that emphasized memory. However these criticisms have lacked clarity on two levels.

First, a lack of concrete proposals on how to change the current situation has prevailed. In the Japanese educational world, the opposite of “memorize” is “think”. However, what kind of a class will come to exist if the emphasis is on the students’ “thinking”? No common understanding on this point has been forthcoming. Many teachers are filled with questions related to their own teaching style when they are faced with the low academic motivation shown by the students in their classes. They have continued with the old style of conducting classes, with the excuse of

¹³ As the paper of Hirokazu Kimura and Takahiro Kondo, “Bibliographie der Geschichtsdidaktik in Japan. Ihre Entwicklungen seit 70er Jahren”, *Internationale Gesellschaft für Geschichtsdidaktik Mitteilungen* 20 (1999) 2: 132-147 shows, many studies have examined history didactics in Japan. However, most reflect the particular interests of their authors. It is difficult to identify a common framework that organizes the diverse knowledge acquired from the various perspectives.

the need to accommodate entrance exams, probably because no widely acknowledged class model based on the theory of history didactics exists.

The second difficulty is that the criticisms have overlooked one common element shared by the two markets described above. In both markets, the students (or consumers) are in a passive position. They do not experience the process of actively engaging themselves in history. This difficulty symbolizes the lack of history didactics.

The severity of this difficulty is apparent in the revival of the right wing and the difficulty in opposing it. Since the 1980s, there have been efforts to eliminate nationalistic descriptions in textbooks in Japan. Consideration of the relationship with neighbouring countries has played an important role here. However, during the past decade, nationalistic historical stories that have survived outside the classrooms have regained strength and are making a comeback into school education. What is interesting is that in this process, a few teachers have brought nationalistic success or tragedy stories back into schools. They are trying to fill the lack of history didactics with nationalism.

Historians who criticize these movements have resisted through efforts to spread more specialized and collected understandings of history. However this has ended in a media war with right wing controversialists. In addition, another incident that led many historians to realize that there was a limitation to their efforts was the incident in 2006, which was described in the second section of chapter 2. Even if they were able to protect textbooks from attacks by the right wing, this would have only been a localized victory. Their continued mode of thinking that school is a place where students acquire collected knowledge under the pressure of exams will lead to a waning of history's influence on the public.

One project that has come about from such awareness is the reform of the course of study for history at high school. The current requirement of world history will be revised to establish a new required class of "Fundamentals of history", which integrates world history and Japanese history. Events covered in this class will be greatly reduced. It is planned to teach students the skills to read historical materials and history books critically, to conduct simple research, and to inculcate the skills to organize, present, and debate their research results.

The following tables portray the educational guideline reforms. The reform proposal presents "fundamentals of history" and "fundamentals of geography" requirements for all high school students, and "world history", "Japanese history" and "geography" become electives. In reality, students wishing to major in humanities and social sciences at university will most likely take at least one class from the three electives.

When this proposal was presented by the Science Council of Japan to MEXT in 2011,¹⁴ concerns arose such as "we do not know how to teach this" and criticisms

¹⁴ Nihon gakujutsu kaigi koko chirirekishishi kyoiku ni kansuru bunkakai [Science Council of Japan Committee on High School Geography–History Education] ed., *Atarashii koko chirirekishishi kyoiku no sozo – Gurobaruka ni taiohita jikukan ninshiki no ikusei* [Creating a new high

such as “there is no point to changing the course of study without changing university entrance exams” especially from high school teachers. When we consider that many teachers who did not major in history at university and who nevertheless teach history at high school, this response is predictable. Whether or not “Fundamentals of history” will be implemented is ultimately a decision that must be made by MEXT. If it is implemented, then it is crucial to address the concerns of the teachers through efforts such as enhancing in-service training.

Current system

world history A (2 credits)	more than 2 credits
world history B (4 credits)	
Japanese history A (2 credits)	more than 2 credits
Japanese history B (4 credits)	
geography A (2 credits)	
geography B (4 credits)	

⇒

Reform proposal

fundamentals of history (2 credits)	obligatory
fundamentals of geography (2 credits)	
world history (4 credits)	optional
Japanese history (4 credits)	
Geography (4 credits)	

While the hollowing out of history education in schools continues, efforts to address the current situation in which various dubious interpretations of history exist in society are just beginning. Particularly the teacher education system which was formed on the condition of the polarized history markets and which simultaneously reproduced that very structure is still awaiting reform.

Teacher education reforms of the past decade were conducted in a manner that accommodates the interests of teachers and educational researchers. However, the success of future reforms depends on how much historians can enhance history didactics in teacher education.¹⁵

school geography–history education – developing a new spatiotemporal awareness to accommodate globalization], (Tokyo, 2011).

¹⁵ If there is no special note all websites quoted in this article were last accessed on: August 9th, 2013.

4.

Conclusion

Global Interrelations? Necessity and Fertility of Standardizing History Education

Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg

1. Basic Questions

Creating a homogeneous area of higher education was the prior intention when the Ministers of Cultural Affairs subscribed the Bologna Declaration in 1999. The fact that this ambition is not achieved, at least not in Germany, was the initial point for editing this book. Because the situation in Germany is an open one, by reason that in some federal states the aims of the Bologna Declaration is not yet realized till today, one of the main goals for initiating this volume was to preserve experiences from those states, which were either successful or not in fulfilling the Bologna requirements in the past. Although, the situation in the involved countries is even more diverse than it was expected in the beginning, the treasure of experiences documented in this book can be helpful to track the development of the reforms occurred outside Germany, too. The rich information gathered by a standardized questionnaire (cf. introduction) can be the fundament for discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of a two-circle-organization of history teacher education overall.

At this point, the answers to this questionnaire shall no be treated in detail, but only the main results shall be mentioned and, in the end, be related to the subtitle of this book: Global Interrelations. Is the standardization of (history) teacher training a global goal? Which are the similarities and the differences of history teacher education enlisted in the accounts of those European states or of other parts of the world? And last but not least: In which way internationality is necessary or, at least, fruitful for organizing history teacher education?

2. Selected results

In some cases the authors of the state accounts advert to the small experience they have with respect to the implementation of the requirements of the Bologna Declaration (e.g. Slovenia). Therefore it was necessary to access the information on experience of several states in- and outside of Europe because in some cases (e.g. Great Britain, USA) there is a long tradition of organizing history teacher education in nearly the same profile as it is prescribed by this European resolution. But in states where reforms in the sense of Bologna were implemented recently the future of history teacher education seems not to be clear (e.g. South-Africa, Slovenia).

Looking on single reports, firstly, one can notice that some authors emphasize the public use of history respectively the political or historical culture to explain the

organization of teacher education (e.g. Japan, USA), whereas other accounts do not stress the effect of these circumstances. This difference may be caused by the fact that some of the European rapporteurs could refer to the accounts published elsewhere.¹ Therefore, in spite of the differences one can conclude that both, the political as well as the historical culture, have to be regarded as base whereon teacher education is grounded. But certainly with different intensity, especially in those states where history wars take place like in Australia or in Canada. Where history or the use of history is controversial history teacher education is nearly automatically involved. Because the one who likes to have the dominance over the right interpretation of history must be interested in getting influence to history teacher education, for the reason that history teachers are an import group for distribution of historically based convictions or even – not in one of the included states – ideologies. The example of Canada shows that the rule of history didactics can potentially be strengthened for reaching these goals.

Undoubtedly, political atmosphere and historical culture have a deep impact on teachers attitudes and the reality of history lessons, namely a deeper one than history didactics (cf. Australia, Canada, Japan, USA). One reason maybe the disregard and disrespect in relation to the didactics of history. This is a problem which is much older than the Bologna reform but which was obviously not overcome by the reforms attendant to Bologna. Beyond this problem the relationship between history teacher education and historical sciences seems to get a new correlation.

Therefore it seems urgent to distinguish the experiences made in the United Kingdom as well as in Slovenia whereupon it is necessary that history must be a subject of study already in the BA-phase. Others emphasize that it would be essential that history didactics should already be a part of BA-studies (e.g. Slovenia, Germany, Japan). With these experiences a core problem is appointed: If in (history) teacher education the BA and MA studies have to be interlocked in such a deep correlation, it is disputable if the division into two consecutive portions of university teacher studies makes any sense. Because BA studies which are interrelated in such a close manner, as it seems necessary in teacher education, cannot be polyvalent as it was aimed by the Bologna Declaration.

Whereas the implementation of the Bologna reform is not yet conducted in all states, even not in all Federal states in Germany, it is remarkable that some members of the Bologna-Zone² already turn back to the old systems, as can be observed in Hungary or Saxony. In Hungary the reason is the declining number of teacher students since the establishment of a consecutive teacher education consisted of two phases (3 + 2 years). In Saxony the rollback was caused by the need to raise the numbers of teachers, too. But at once time a more specialized teacher education, angled to the different types of schools, was aspired.

¹ Especially in *Facing – Mapping – Bridging Diversity. Foundation of a European Discourse on History Education*, 2 vol., ed. Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2011).

² Cf. this book, 5.

The case of Saxony displays two problems: On the one hand a danger seems to be provoked by Bologna reforms that the studies for those students who do not attend a certification for teaching at Grammar schools or Gymnasiums will not only be shortened but will be excepted from history studies and limited on general studies³ or on pedagogy (cf. France, Turkey). In some studies there is an apparent trend to create all-round-teachers who are able to teach several or nearly all school subjects, at least in primary and secondary modern schools (cf. Switzerland). This would evoke an obscure differentiation between the school forms, although everywhere a horizontal permeability is intended. And it would induce that history lessons would be executed by teachers who are not specialized in history sciences. That would be a great disadvantage for history lessons as it could be observed in the United Kingdom, not least because they will not have studied history didactics (cf. Japan). The praxis exercised in the United Kingdom that a special teacher training follows the university studies is no solution because it cannot even compensate for the theoretical deficits acquired during the university studies. The conduction of practical courses during or after the academic education may be an obstacle for innovation if the conductors are not familiar with scientific developments even in historical sciences or history didactical sciences.

On the other hand the example of Saxony demonstrates that there is no homogeneous history teacher education in this federal state because the studies in Dresden and Leipzig are different. In other federal states in Germany where more than two universities are involved in teacher education the situation is much more confusing. This is not a special German observation but the situation in other countries is alike. And although the case of South Africa shows that this situation can also be found in states where two-stage-studies are established since a long time, obviously, the efforts of the Bologna reform were not successful in this direction. The question is if a standardization of history teacher education is really needed. But this question can be stretched to all university studies and therefore it is not to be answered here. The result of the overview given by the single accounts is that history teacher education is not more consistent than other studies, although it is standardized by parameters prescribed by the governments.

Rather, the courses of studies differ even in single states (as the federal states in Germany). The reason may be that history lessons must keep the different historical culture as base of history education in minde as far as they intend to enforce the pupils to take part in this historical culture. Therefore it is an open question confirmed by the inquiries of this book whether an international standardization of history teacher education and history education is possible or even desirable.

³ Cf. "Sachunterricht" in Germany.

3. Fundamental Responses

All in all, resilient studies on the effects of Bologna reforms do not exist. The experiences disclosed by the rapporteurs as well as the governmental arrangements are not based on empirical inquiries. Even if such results would be available the structure of history teacher education is diverse in such a desperate way that the findings could probably not be transferred from one country to another. This is valid for those states where the BA-MA-studies are established a long time ago, too.

In the case of history teacher education one must account for the different historical cultures. That means a universal history education cannot be preferable because of the variety of historical consciousness in different parts of the world which for example Magne Angvik and Bodo von Borries could expose by their broad survey "Youth and History".⁴ The fact that there is a connection between the imaginary map of historical consciousness found throughout Europe and the self-concept of history didactics, the structure of teacher education, and history education could be discovered by the attempt to consolidate a European discourse of history didactics and education.⁵

But the Bologna Declaration not only intends to constitute a homogeneous area of higher education in Europe, it also states that Europe would be a unity of knowledge and therefore it wants to support the "increasing consciousness of the necessity of the erection of a more completed and more extensive Europe".⁶ This is a "history didactics challenge", too.⁷ But on the one hand, the aims of the Bologna Declaration are not accepted in all European states and they are not just absorbed by all curricula and textbooks in Europe. In fact there are big differences for adopting the European idea into history lessons.⁸ On the other hand, the European iden-

⁴ Magne Angvik and Bodo von Borries, *Youth and History. A Comparative European Survey on Historical Consciousness and political Attitudes among Adolescents*, 2 vols. (Hamburg: edition Körber-Stiftung, 1997).

⁵ S. the conclusion of Elisabeth Erdmann and Wolfgang Hasberg, "Bridging Diversity. Towards a European Discourse on History Education", in *Facing – Mapping – Bridging Diversity*, vol. 2 (note 1), 345-379.

⁶ Der Europäische Hochschulraum. Gemeinsame Erklärung der Europäischen Bildungsminister 19. Juni 1999, Bologna (online available: http://www.bmbf.de/pubRD/bologna_deu.pdf) (translated W.H.).

⁷ Bodo von Borries, "Europa als geschichtsdidaktische Herausforderung", in *Europa in historisch-didaktischen Perspektiven*, ed. Bernd Schönemann and Hartmut Voit (Idtstein: Schulz-Kirchner Verlag, 2007), 21-44.

⁸ Cf. for the German-speaking perspective *Europäische Geschichtskultur – Europäische Geschichtspolitik. Vom Erfinden, Entdecken, Erarbeiten der Bedeutung von Erinnerung und Geschichte für das Verständnis und Selbstverständnis Europas*, ed. Christoph Kühberger and Celmens Sedmak (Innsbruck: Studienverlag, 2009) and *Inventing the EU. Zur De-Konstruktion von "fertigen Geschichten" über die EU in deutschen, polnischen und österreichischen Schulgeschichtsbüchern*, ed. Christoph Kühberger and Dirk Mellies (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2009).

tity suffers from a “Mythendefizit” (deficit of myths)⁹ or, another explanation is, it suffers from the enormous number of national myths on Europe, which means that each country has its own myth of Europe. This last explication makes clear why the teaching on Europe cannot be the same in history lessons in different European or other countries.¹⁰

If this is true – and there is no reason for doubt –, the ambitions of the Bologna Declaration are exorbitant. Nevertheless, the arrangements are set and have to be implemented, not least in the field of history teacher education. Indeed, empirical results about the effect of the new structure of studies are rare or not existing in many universities where BA- and MA-studies are established. The structure of higher education shall be aligned whereas not only the contents (historical knowledge) but also the attitudes (historical consciousness) and the manners to deal with history (historical culture) are still different. Therefore, it has to be considered that the modification of the structure certainly is not without effect on the contents and the attitudes the students acquire by their studies. Related to the appointments of the Bologna Declaration one can state:¹¹

- The “adoption of a system of *easily readable and comparable degrees*” would facilitate the exchanges of teachers – but it is not yet realized.
- The “adoption of a system ... based on *two main cycles*” maybe “relevant to the European employment market” – but is this the adequate structure for teacher education in universities? Probably not, because on the one hand, teacher education needs a consecutive coherence of basic and advanced studies (s. above). On the other hand, the ones who want to become teachers have to acquire competences which are of such complexity that their acquisition cannot be limited on the MA-cycle. Therefore, it is impossible to create a BA-study for teacher education which is polyvalent as well as enabling the students to adopt the tasks of other professions as well. This is the reason why in nearly all countries involved in this survey, special BA-studies for teacher education exist.
- The “*system of credits*” implemented by the Bologna reform is combined with the idea of measuring the workload students have to adduce. In consequence, the achievement has to be measured, too. Therefore, often the number of tests arises and, in reverse, the lectures and seminars often take the form of overviews. This development may lead to the conviction or belief that history is an entity which can be learnt by absorbing year dates and facts of the past, instead of learning that history is a construct made by scientific methods. Further, the credit system based on workloads may influence the receptive attitude of students, instead of letting them make the experience that science is an exhausting business whose

⁹ Wolfgang Schmale, *Scheitert Europa an seinem Mythendefizit?* (Bochum: Verlag Dr. Winkler, 1997).

¹⁰ Eugen Kotte, “*In Räume geschriebene Zeiten*”. *Nationale Europabilder im Geschichtsunterricht der Sekundarstufe II* (Idstein: Schulz-Kirchner Verlag 2007).

¹¹ Cf. this book, 6.

award is the earning of cognition (Erkenntnis). If the outcomes of the Bologna reform do not keep alive the aspiration of cognition (that is the origin meaning of to study, lat. *studere*) and limit the demands on learning by rote an important reason for attending to humanities and for attending to become teacher will be abdicated. The quest for education (better: Bildung) seems to be a fundamental reason for both.

- The survey presented in this book shows that a cooperation regarding the structure of (history) teacher education or even an adjustment regarding to the curricula for teacher education is not yet initiated. In fact, the implementation of the reform proceeds in a different speed or – with Hungary and Saxony in mind – turns into different directions.

This résumé seems to be fatal. Were the efforts undertaken by this survey in vain?

4. Global Interrelations

“The interest in an inter- and transnational outlook ... is owing to the perception that the Bologna reform in many respects appears as a transnational ‘transfer of culture’ (Kulturtransfer), in which many European states try to integrate elements of a ‘foreign’ educational system (Bildungssystem) into their different interior (educational) structures.¹² This statement, reported by Susanne Popp at the end of a German conference wherein the “process of professionalism of history teachers” was discussed, seems to be confirmed by the lecture of this book. The Bologna Declaration is a structural prescription born in spirit of increasing the employability throughout Europe. Although, the authors were Ministers of Cultural Affairs or of Education the paper was not inspired by educational or academic ideas. Therefore it must appear as a foreign imposition to nearly all concerned institutions and persons.

It is not visible that the Bologna reforms strengthened the international correlations beyond the transfer of some structures established in the academic tradition of the anglophone world. An approximation of (history) teacher education initiated by the Bologna appointments cannot be asserted, at least not with regards to the contents and curricula of history teacher education. It is one of the main results of this book to have discovered the diversity of history teacher education in Europe as well as in the global context. Nevertheless, the undertaken attempt to get into a conversation with colleagues from all over the world was not in vain.

Firstly, conversations are seldom in vain. Mostly, all participants learn by the explications of others, especially if they explain their own. Secondly, the diversity

¹² Susanne Popp, “Geschichtslehrausbildung nach Bologna – europäische Einblicke. Einführung”, in *Zur Professionalisierung von Geschichtslehrerinnen und Geschichtslehrern. Nationale und internationale Perspektiven*, ed. Susanne Popp et al. (Göttingen: V&R unipress, 2013), 345-350, here 345 (translated W.H.).

would not become manifest without this survey. And thirdly, the conclusion makes clear

- (a) that the structure of university studies can be standardized and harmonized but the procedures of modification should at the best be initiated by the concerned institutions as far as possible or at least should be arranged with them.
- (b) that in the field of history education borders of standardizing and harmonizing have to be accepted because of the differences of historical cultures which change slowly and cannot be modified by political decrees. Therefore, history teacher education always has to accord to that historical culture which is the origin and the aim of history education. Structural modifications which always affected the contents and the attitude of university studies have to pay regard to this coherence.

In the end, one can conclude that considering global interrelations as performed in this volume is useful in order to estimate the challenges of modifying (history) teacher education. But beyond such a utilitarian point of view it is simply exciting.

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Selected Publications: *Brown Ladies: Learning Femininity in Colonial India* (London/New York: Manchester University Press, in press); *Ruling through education: the politics of schooling in the colonial Punjab* (New Delhi: New Dawn Press, 2006); *Coaches Called Here* (Adelaide: Advertiser Press, 2006); "Loreto Teaching in India, 1842-2010: "Transcending the Centre-Periphery Paradigm", in *Connecting Histories of Education: Transactions, Transculturalisms and Transnationalisms*, ed Barnita Bagchi, Eckhardt Fuchs, and Kate Rousmaniere (New York: Berghahn Books, 2014); "Colonial Anxieties: the State Embodiment of the Female Teacher 'Trainer', 1808-1931" in *Education in Colonial India: Historical Insights*, ed. Joseph Bara et al. (New Delhi: Manohar Books, 2013); "Closing Down an Intellectual Interchange: The Gifting of Text to a Colonial India" in *Comparativ* 1 (2012): 15-32; "Imagining Innovation: State Agendas for Women's Education in Colonial India, 1854-1919" in *Women and Education: Major Themes in Education*, ed. Joyce Goodman and Jane Martin (London: Routledge, 2010); "Historical Analysis: New Approaches to Postcolonial Scholarship and the Subcontinent" in *Methodological Choices and Research Designs for Educational and Social Change: Linking Scholarship Policy and Practice*, ed. Lina Markauskaite, Peter Freebody, Jude Irwin (Dordrecht: Springer, 2011); "Girls at Risk: The Female Learning Space in Colonial India, 1818-1919" in *Children and Youth at Risk. Approaches from the History of Education*, ed. Christine Mayer, Inga Lohmann, Ian Grosvenor (Frankfurt: Peter Lang, 2009); "How the state made and unmade education in the Raj, 1800-1919" in *Transformations in Schooling: Historical and Comparative Perspectives*, ed. Kim Tolley (New York: Palgrave MacMillan, 2007), 67-86; "'Learning Abroad: The Colonial Educational Experiment in India, 1813-1919'; 'Empires at Home and Empires Overseas'", *Paedagogica Historica* 45 (2009) 6: 707-722; "Understanding Education and India: New Turns in Postcolonial Scholarship", *History of Education* 41 (2009) 5; "Understanding the nature of Work: How historians of education deconstruct its pasts", *History of Education Review* 28 (2009) 2: 3-9.

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Selected Publications : “Les effets d’un enseignement culturel en histoire”, *Revue française de pédagogie* 106 (1994): 55-65; “Art, artiste et histoire”, in *L’histoire et ses fonctions. Une pensée et des pratiques au présent*, ed. Henri Moniot and Maciej Serwanski (Paris: L’Harmattan, 1999), 101-106; *Art, histoire et enseignement* (Paris, CNDP/Hachette éducation, 2001); “Mise en intrigue des manuels et évolution récente. Un éditeur, trois manuels et la période révolutionnaire”, in *Pistes didactiques et chemins d’historiens. Mélanges offerts à Henri Moniot*, ed. Marie-Christine Baquès, Annie Bruter et Nicole Tutiaux-Guillon (Paris, L’Harmattan, 2003), 87-106, “L’écriture des manuels : l’exemple de la première République”, *Le cartable de Clio, revue romande et tessinoise* 3 (2003): 179-189; “History Textbooks in France: between national institutions, publishers and teaching practice”, in: *School History Textbooks across Cultures international debates and perspectives*, ed. Jason Nicholls (Oxford studies in Comparative Education 15,2) (Oxford: Symposium books, 2006), 105-118; “Mémoires de guerre au cinéma et enseignement de l’histoire”, *Le cartable de Clio, revue romande et tessinoise* n 7 (2007): 60-79; “Construction de l’identité professionnelle des professeurs d’histoire et modèles disciplinaires: quelles références?” *Journées d’Études Didactique 2007* (http://ecehg.inrp.fr/ECEHG/formation/journees-d-etude-didactique-2007/jed2007_pdf/baques_jed_2007.pdf); “Los árabes, el islam y los turcos en la enseñanza de la historia en el sistema educativo francés contemporáneo: entre la tradición educativa y el contexto sensible”, in *Conociendo al otro. El Islam y Europa en sus manuales de historia*, ed. Fundación Atman (Ministerio de Educación, Política Social y Deporte & Santillana, 2008), 123-172 (together with Nicole Titiau-Guillon); “L’évolution des manuels d’histoire du lycée”, *Histoire de l’Education* 114 (2007): 121-149; “De lo que dicen los alumnos a la construcción de una didáctica: el ejemplo de ‘La pietà’”, *Enseñanza de las Ciencias Sociales* 8 (2009): 25-38; “Les manuels d’histoire et l’enseignement du fait religieux: nouvelle norme et controverses à travers les cas de l’Islam et du christianisme”, *Yearbook of the International Society for the didactics of History* 2008/09: 125-150; “Historical Narratives in French School Textbooks, and the Writers Responsibility for the Pupils”, *Yearbook of the International Society for the didactics of History* 2011: 11-22; “Le dialogisme à l’œuvre dans le cours magistral à l’université”, in *Apprendre et former la dimension langagière*, ed. Emmanuelle Auriac-Slusarczyk (Presses Universitaires Blaise-Pascal, 2013), 359-394 (together with C. Marlot).

Barton, Keith C. (*1961), Professor, Curriculum and Instruction, and Adjunct Professor, History, Indiana University (USA) since 2008; Ed.D. Curriculum and Instruction, University of Kentucky (USA), 1994; Elementary Teaching Credential, University of California, Los Angeles (USA), 1985; M.A., Anthropology, University of California Los Angeles, 1984; B.A., Anthropology, University of Kentucky, 1982; Elementary and Middle School Teacher, California, 1985-1990; Visiting Professor, University of Ulster (United Kingdom), 1996, 2000-2003; Victoria University (Wellington, New Zealand), 2009; National Institute of Education, Singapore, 2012, 2013.

Selected Publications: *Doing History: Investigating with Children in Elementary and Middle Schools* (New York: Routledge, 4th ed. 2011) (with Linda S. Levstik); *Researching History Education: Theory, Method, and Context* (New York: Routledge, 2008) (with Linda S. Levstik (with Linda S. Levstik)); *Teaching History for the Common Good*, (New York: Routledge, 2004); ed., *Research Methods in Social Studies*

Education: Contemporary Issues and Perspectives (Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing); “School History as a Resource for Constructing Identities: Implications of Research from the United States, Northern Ireland, and New Zealand,” in *History Education and the Construction of National Identities*, ed. Mario Carretero, Mikel Asensio, and María Rodríguez-Moneo (Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, 2012). “Agency, Choice, and Historical Action: How History Teaching can Help Students Think about Democratic Decision Making,” *Citizenship Teaching and Learning* 7 (2012): 131-142; “Trying to ‘See Things Differently’: Northern Ireland Students’ Struggle to Understand Alternative Historical Perspectives,” *Theory and Research in Social Education* 40 (2012): 371-408 (with Alan W. McCully).

Chapman, Arthur (*1966), Senior Lecturer, History in Education at the Institute of Education, University of London; Studies in Modern History at the University of Cambridge (Bachelor of Arts, 1989), in Social and Political Science at the University of Cambridge (MPhil, 1991), in history pedagogy at the University of East Anglia (PGCE, 1993) and in history in education at the Institute of Education University of London (Ed.D, 2009); 1993-2005 History teacher, head of department and head of humanities; 2005-2008 Senior Lecturer in Secondary History, St Martins College, Lancaster/The University of Cumbria; 2008-2010 Lecturer, History in Education, Institute of Education, University of London; 2010-2013 Reader in Education, Edge Hill University. Co-editor *Teaching History*. Associate Editor *The International Journal of Historical Learning Teaching and Research*. Member of the editorial panel of *The International Review of History Education*. Fellow of the Royal Historical Society, 2012. Honorary Fellow of the Historical Association, 2013.

Selected Publications: Joined up History: New Directions in History Education Research (International Review of History Education, vol. 9) (Charlottesville, CA: Information Age Publishing, in preparation) (ed. with Wilschut, Arie). *Constructing History 11-19* (London: Sage Publications, 2009) (ed. with Cooper, Hilary). “‘They have come to differing opinions because of their differing interpretations’: Developing 16-19 year-old English Students’ Understandings of Historical Interpretation through Online Inter-institutional Discussion’, *International Journal of Historical Learning Teaching and Research* 11 (2012) 1: 188-214; “Developing English Advanced Level school and college history students’ understanding of historical thinking through online interaction with academic historians: three case studies”, *Yearbook of the International Society for History Didactics* 33 (2012): 21-40; “Taking the perspective of the other seriously? Understanding historical argument” *Educar em Revista* 42 (2011): 95-106; “A case-study of one teacher’s use of an interactive whiteboard system to support knowledge co-construction in the history classroom” (with Deaney, Rosemary and Hennessy, Sara), *Curriculum Journal* 20 (2009) 4: 365–387.

Clark, Penney, Univ. Prof. Dr, English, Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, British Columbia, BA, 1976; Education, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, MEd, 1982; Education, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, PhD, 1991-1996. 1997-2000, Assistant Professor Without Review, Faculty of Education, University of British Columbia. Since 2001, Assistant, then Associate, then Professor, Faculty of Education, University of British Columbia.

Selected Publications: “‘The Teacher is the Keystone of the Educational Arch’: A Century and a Half of Lifelong Teacher Education in Canada.” In *Becoming a History*

Teacher: Sustaining Practices in Historical Thinking and Knowing, eds. R. Sandwell and A. von Heyking (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, in press), (with Mona Gleason and Stephen Petrina); "Preschools for Science? The Child Study Centre at the University of British Columbia, 1960-1997", *History of Education Quarterly* 52 (2012): 29-61; ed. *New Possibilities for the Past: Shaping History Education in Canada* (Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia Press, 2011), (with Peter Seixas); "Obsolete Icons and the Teaching of History." In *New Possibilities for the Past: Shaping History Education in Canada*, ed. Penney Clark (Vancouver BC: UBC Press), 282-301, (with Wayne Knights); "'Gringo Operations': Nationalism and Capital in Canadian Educational Publishing, 1970-1981." *Journal of Canadian Studies/Revue d'études canadiennes* 45 (2011): 123-161, (with Yesman Post); "'A Natural Outcome of Free Schools': The Free Text-Book Branch in British Columbia, 1908-1949", *Historical Studies in Education* 21 (2009) 2: 23-45; "'The Most Fundamental of all Learning Tools': A Historical Investigation of Textbook Controversies in English Canada." In *Auf der Suche nach der wahren Art von Textbüchern*, eds. Marc Depaepe and Angelo Van Gorp (Bad Heilbrunn: Verlag Julius Klinkhardt), 123-142; "'Reckless Extravagance and Utter Incompetence': George Ross and the Toronto Textbook Ring, 1883-1907." *Papers of the Bibliographical Society of Canada* 46 (2008): 185-235, (with Michael Cromer); "Getting Graphic with the Past: Graphic Novels and the Teaching of History." *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 35 (2007): 574-591; "Representations of Aboriginal people in English Canadian history textbooks: Toward Reconciliation." In *Teaching the Violent Past: History Education and Reconciliation*, ed. E.A. Cole (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield and Carnegie Council for Ethics in International Affairs, 2007), 81-120; "The Rise and Fall of Textbook Publishing in English Canada." In *History of the Book in Canada, 1918-1980* Vol. III eds. C. Gerson & J. Michon (Toronto: University of Toronto Press) (226-232, 538-539).

Demircioğlu, İsmail Hakkı (*1969), Univ. Associate Prof. Dr., Studies in History Education, Social Studies Education and Teacher Education at the Karadeniz Technical University in Trabzon, Turkey; Doctorate at the School of Education of Birmingham University in England; 1994-1996 Research Assistance for History Education at Karadeniz Technical University in Turkey, 1996-1999 Research Assistance for History Education at Birmingham University in England, 2000-2009 Assistance Prof. Dr. at the Karadeniz Technical University in Turkey, 2009 Associate Prof. Dr. at the Karadeniz Technical University in Turkey; Since 2011 Head of the Department of Secondary Social Science Education at the Karadeniz Technical University.

Selected Publications: "Turkish History Teachers Perceptions of Primary Sources in History Textbooks" *The New Educational Review* 21 (2010): 71-78; "Emperical Research on History Education in Turkey: An Overview of Key Issues, Methods and Outcomes", *Yearbook of ISHD*: 53-67; "Analysis of Turkish Secondary School History Examination Questions According to Cognitive Levels", *The New Educational Review* 17 (2009): 295-304; "Learning How to Conduct Educational Research: A Turkish Perspective", *The Australian Journal of Teacher Education* 33 (2008): 1-17; "Does The Teaching of History Encourage Active Citizenship in Turkey? Perceptions of Turkish History Teachers", *International Journal of Historical Learning, Teaching and Research* 1 (2008): 17-23; "Using Historical Stories to Teach Tolerance: the experience of Turkish 8th-grade students", *The Social Studies* 93 (2008): 105-110; "History Teachers' Attitudes to Museum Visits", *Teaching History Journal* (2008) 9: 24-30; "Does the Teaching of

History in Turkey Need Reform?" *International Journal of Historical Learning, Teaching and Research* 2 (2001): 1-5.

Elize S. van Eeden (*1960), Professor Dr., Complete studies in History, Psychology and History Teaching at the University of Johannesburg, 1981. In 1985 achieved the BA Honours in History (University of South Africa); In 1988 the MA in History with distinction (North-West University). Thereafter the PhD was obtained in 1992 in regional economic history. Started a professional career in 1982 as educator for History in Further Education and Training. After having made a short appearance as regional researcher at the Potchefstroom Museum, she started a career as research scientist in History, July 1986 at the present day North-West University. Has since then been involved in teaching History on Higher Education and Training level (Regional history; History of Africa and South Africa; World history; Research Methodology and historiography). In 2000 she was promoted to associate professor; also from 2002 employed at the Vaal Triangle Campus of the NWU, School for Basic Sciences. Was promoted to full professor in 2009. Since 2012 chair for History and coordinator of the School's research initiatives.

Selected publications: Didactical guidelines for teaching history in a changing South Africa (Potchefstroom, Keurkopie, 1999); Juta Publishers, Moments in History, Grade 12 [Contribution 2 Chapters: Chapters 3 & 5] on SA History after 1960 in a global context (Teachers guides incl.), (Teacher's guide and Learner's guide, December 2007); Die jeug en Geskiedenis – vandag en gister, met verwysing na die Hertzog-era, Genl JBM Hertzoggedenklesing, XXXX, Suid-Afrikaanse Akademie vir Wetenskap en Kuns, 2011; Contribution in section I: "Theorizing the way forward regarding transdisciplinary research on environmental crises in small towns – Merafong in the Gauteng Province as case study:", in *Small town geographies in Africa: Experiences from South Africa and elsewhere*, ed. R. Ronaldson and L. Marais, (Nova Science Publishers, USA, July 2012); "Exploring local histories in the use and appreciation of Heritage and History in history curricula", *Yesterday&Today*, 5, Oct. 2010, scielo.org.za, 23-50; Impressions on publisher's approach to the revised South African History Curriculum on Globalism and National Narratives in Grade 12 textbooks", *Historia*, 55 (2010), 1, 110-124.

Erdmann, Elisabeth (*1942), Professor emeritus Dr., Studies in History and Latin at the University of Tübingen; 1965 first, 1967 second examination for teaching in secondary schools, Doctorate at the University of Konstanz in Ancient History 1971, academic employee at Konstanz University 1969-1973 for the excavations in Old-Paphos/Cyprus. 1967-1968 and 1973-1975 grammar school teacher, 1975-1993 assistant, then Oberstudienrätin at the Pedagogical University of Freiburg i. Br. for Ancient History and History Didactics, habilitation in History Didactics at Dortmund University 1991, guest professor for History Didactics at Humboldt University Berlin 1993-1994, since 1994 until 2007 chair for History Didactics at Erlangen-Nürnberg University.

Selected Publications: Die Römerzeit im Selbstverständnis der Franzosen und Deutschen. Lehrpläne und Schulbücher aus der Zeit zwischen 1850 und 1918. 2 vols. Bochum: Universitätsverlag Dr. N. Brockmeyer, 1992; ed. Verständnis wecken für das Fremde. Möglichkeiten des Geschichtsunterrichts, Schwalbach/Ts: Wochenschau, 1999; ed. Thematische Längsschnitte für den Geschichtsunterricht in der gymnasialen Oberstufe. Neuried: Ars Una, 2002; ed. Mensch – Natur – Technik. Perspektiven aus der Antike für das dritte Jahrtausend (with Kloft, Hans), Münster: Aschendorff, 2002; ed. Geschichtsunterricht international – Bestandsaufnahme und Visionen (with Maier, Robert

and Popp, Susanne), Hannover: Hahnsche Buchhandlung, 2006; *Fenster zur Vergangenheit. Bilder im Geschichtsunterricht*, 2 vols. Bamberg: Buchners, 2004 and 2009 (with Buntz, Herwig).

Fischer-Dárdai, Ágnes (*1954), Univ.-Prof., habil., Director General of the University-Library of Pécs. Studies in History, German Literature and Language at the University of Szeged (1977), and Library Sciences at the University of Eötvös Loránd Budapest (1983), Doctorate (Pedagogy, 2001); Habilitation (History, 2006) at the Faculty of Humanities of the University of Eötvös Loránd Budapest. 1983-1994: History Teacher, from 1994: Expert in History Didactics, Textbook Researcher, from 1999: Director General of the University-Library of Pécs.

Selected Publications: *Történelmi megismerés – történelmi gondolkodás. I.-II. kötet. A történelemtanári továbbképzés kiskönyvtára XLI-XLII* (Budapest, 2006); *A tankönyvkutatás alapjai. Dialóg Campus* (Budapest-Pécs, 2002); “Das neue zweistufige Abitur im Fach Geschichte in Ungarn”, in *Worldwide Teaching of History – Present and Future*, ed. Elisabeth Erdmann, Robert Maier and Susanne Popp (Hannover: Hahnsche Verlagsbuchhandlung, 2006) (*Studien zur internationalen Schulbuchforschung*, vol. 117), 85-99 (with József Kaposi); “Geschichtsunterricht in den verschiedenen Stufen des ungarischen Schulwesens”, in *idem*, 101-113 (with Marta Szabo); “L’image de l’Afrique dans les manuels d’histoire et de géographie hongrois”, in *Rencontre de l’histoire et rencontre de l’autre: L’enseignement de l’histoire comme dialogue interculturel. Colloque co-organisé par la Société Internationale pour la Didactique de l’Histoire et l’Université Mohammed V – Soussi – Faculté des Sciences de l’Education*, Rabat Maroc 22-25. Septembre 2004, 85-99 (with Zsuzsa Meszaros Csaszar); “Die Raumwahrnehmung in der Zeit der Globalisierung und die Möglichkeiten ihrer Entwicklung im Geschichtsunterricht”, in *Historical consciousness and history teaching in a globalising society*. ed. Karl Pellens et al. (Frankfurt a. M.: Peter Lang, 2001) 239-247; “A problémaorientált történelemtanítás koncepciója”, *Új Pedagógiai Szemle* 2007/10; Magyar és német történelemtankönyvek kvantitatív tankönyvanalízise. “Ókori Hellász” fejezeteiben, *Iskolakultúra*, 2006/2 26-32; A történelem tanításának és tanulásának módszerei és stratégiái: Elméleti segédanyag, in: *Tanári kincsestár. Történelem*, 2003. november 1-10. o.; Történelemdidaktika és kontroverzív történelemtanítás, in: *Történelem. Tanítás. Módszertan: Tanulmányok a 75 éves Szabolcs Ottó tiszteletére*. Szerk. Nagy Péter Tibor (Budapest, 2002). 34-43. o.; Történelemdidaktika és történelemtanítás az új évezredben, *Módszertani lapok. Történelem* 9. 2002 4, 1-16.

Hasberg, Wolfgang (*1961), Univ.-Prof. Dr., Studies in History, Catholic Theology and Educational sciences at the University of Cologne and Rheinische Friedrich-Wilhelms-University in Bonn; 1987 first, 1990 second examination for teaching in secondary schools, 1993 Doctorate at the Pedagogical Faculty of the University of Cologne; 1994-2000 assistant for Didactics of History at University Augsburg, 2000 Postdoctoral lecture qualification at University Augsburg; Senior Assistant Professor at University Augsburg; 2000-02 Substitution of the Chair for the Didactics of History at the University of Leipzig; since 2002 Professor for Medieval History and the Didactics of History at the University of Cologne.

Selected Publications: *Kirchengeschichte in der Sekundarstufe I.* (Trier: WVT, 1994); *Empirische Forschung in der Geschichtsdidaktik*, 2 vols. (Bayerische Studien zur Geschichtsdiaktik 3,1 and 3.2) (Neuried: Ars Una, 2001); ed. *Mittelalter und Geschichtsdi-*

daktik (Neuried: Ars Una, 2002), with Uwe Uffelmann; ed. *Erinnern – Gedenken – Historisches Lernen* (München: Vögele, 2003); ed. *Zwischen Politik und Kultur* (Neuried: Ars Una, 2003), with Manfred Seidenfuß; *Geschichtsdidaktik(er) im Griff des Nationalsozialismus?* (GVG 2) (Münster: LIT, 2005) with Manfred Seidenfuß; ed.: *Flores considerationum amicorum* (Gleichen/Zürich: MUSTER-SCHMIDT, 2006) with Josef Schröder); ed. *Geschichte entdecken.* (GVG 4) (Berlin: LIT, 2007) with Wolfgang E. J. Weber; ed. *Modernisierung im Umbruch* (GVG 6) (Berlin: LIT, 2008) with Manfred Seidenfuß; *Facing – Mapping – Bridging Foundation of a European Discourse on History Education*, 2 vol. (HEint 1,1 and 1,2) (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau 2011) with Elisabeth Erdmann; *Canossa. Aspekte eines Wandels* (Regensburg: Friedrich Pustet, 2012) with Hermann-Josef Scheidgen; ed. *Antike – Bilder – Welt. Forschungserträge internationaler Vernetzung* (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau, 2013) with Charlotte Bühl-Gramer and Susanne Popp; ed. *Inklusiv – Exklusiv. Historisches Lernen für alle* (Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2014) with Sebastian Barsch.

Kaposi, József (*1955), PhD, General Director of the Hungarian Institute for Educational Research and Development (OFI) and Univ.-Dozent at Pázmány Péter Catholic University; studies in Hungarian Literature (1983), History (1986) and Drama Pedagogy (2003) at Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest; doctorate in Educational Science at the University of Pécs; first teaching in secondary education, then involved in various professional fields: development of secondary school leaving assessment in History, textbook writing for History and Drama; lectures and seminars on subject pedagogy at Eötvös University and Pázmány University; 2006 USA Visitor Leadership Program; member of boards of professional societies (e.g. Hungarian Historical Society), research and development activities in teaching methods in secondary education, teaching materials, assessment and general curricula in History and Drama and public education management.

Selected Publications: “A tankönyv szerepének változása. (Changes in the role of textbooks)” *Iskolakultúra/School Culture* 2012/12: 56-70; “Értékek és tartalmak, avagy a tartalom értékei (Values and content or the values of content)”, *Új Pedagógiai Szemle/New Pedagogical Review* 2012/ 1-3): 5-22; “Történelmi gondolkodás fejlesztése/ The development of thinking about history”, in *Lehetőségek és alternatívák a Kárpát-medencében (Opportunities and alternatives in the Carpathian Basin)*, ed. Andrea Benecéné Fekete (Módszertani tanulmányok: Pedagogy Faculty of the University of Kaposvár, 2011), 357-366; “Szélsőjegyzetek a történelemtanítás gyakorlatának alakulásáról (Footnotes on the development of practice in teaching History)”, *Új Pedagógiai Szemle (New Pedagogical Review)* 2010/ 3-4: 69-92; A fejlesztő feladatok és a multikulturális tartalmak “Task-based teaching and multicultural content”, in: *Új kutatások a neveléstudományokban. Többnyelvűség és multikulturalitás (New research in Education Science. Multilingualism and multiculturalism)*, ed. Kozma Tamás and Perjés István (Magyar Tudományos Akadémia Pedagógiai Bizottsága (Aula Kiadó: Budapest, 2010), 52-68; “A problémaorientált történelemtanítás és a fejlesztő feladatok (Problem and task-based history teaching)”, in *Tanulmányok az érettségiről: Hatásvizsgálat, tantárgyi vizsgák értékelése, feladatfejlesztés (Studies about the maturity exam: Impact assessment, assessment at subject exams, development of tasks)*, ed. Zsuzsa Bánkúti, and Judit Lukács (Hungarian Institute for Educational Research and Development: Budapest, 2008), 353-369 (with Ágnes Fischer-Dárdai); “Das neue zweistufige Abitur im Fach Geschichte in Ungarn”, in *Geschichtsunterricht international Bestandsaufnahme und Visionen.*

Worldwide Teaching of History Present and Future. L'enseignement de L'histoire dans le monde Bilan et visions (Studien zur internationalen Schulbuchforschung, vol. 117), ed. Elisabeth Erdmann, Robert Maier and Susanne Popp (Hahn'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung: Hannover, 2006), 85-99 (with Ágnes F. Dárdai).

*Khodnev, Alexander S. (*1952)*, Univ.-Prof. Dr., Faculty of History and Philology, Yaroslavl' State Pedagogical Institute, Yaroslavl, 1974; Postgraduate studies at the Department of Modern and Contemporary History, Moscow State Pedagogical Institute, 1980; Candidate of science degree (History), Moscow State Pedagogical Institute, 1981; Moscow Pedagogical State University, Doctor of Science degree (History), 1997; 1981-1987 Assistant Professor of the World History Department at Yaroslavl' State Pedagogical Institute, Yaroslavl'; 1987-1997 Associate Professor and the Chair of the World History Department at Yaroslavl' State Pedagogical University, Yaroslavl'; since 1997 Professor and the Chair of the World History Department at Yaroslavl' State Pedagogical University, Yaroslavl'.

Selected Publications: Mezhdunarodnaya organizatsiya v ozhidanii prigorova: Liga Natsii v mirovoi politike (Yaroslavl': izdatel'svto YaGPU, 1995); Yaroslavl': A Benchmark History of the City in the 20th Century in Regional Russia in Transition: Studies From Yaroslavl, ed. Jeffrey W. Hahn (Washington, D.C.: Woodrow Wilson Center Press, 2001); Reforma i tseli vysshego obrazovaniya in Rossiya 2001: Novye tendentsii politicheskogo, ekonomicheskogo i sotsial'nogo razvitiya (Moskva, 2002), 167-174; Kul'turny context i uchebniki istorii in Vestnik Instituta Kennana v Rossii", *Moskva* 4 (2004): 21-26; Islam: Vvedenie v izuchenie sotsial'noi istorii islama v 19-20 vekakh. Uchebnoe posobie (Yaroslavl, 2004); "Methods of History Teaching in the Upper Level of Gymnasium and at the University", in *Geschichtsunterricht international: Bestandsaufnahme und Visionen*. ed. Elisabeth Erdmann, Susanne Popp and Robert Meier (Hannover: Verlag Buchhandlung, 2006), 157-168; "Empirical Research on History Learning in Russia: The Students Difficulties in Working with Primary Sources and Ways to Overcome them in Empirical Research in History Learning", *Yearbook of the International Society for the Didactic of History* (2010) : 87-96.

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Selected Publications: Doitsu Gendaishi to Kokusai Kyokasho Kaizen (International Textbook Research in the Contemporary History of Germany), Nagoya: Nagoya University Press, 1993; Kokusai Rekishi Kyokasho Taiwa (International Dialogue on History Textbooks), Tokyo: Chuokoronsha, 1998; Jikokushi no Yukue – Osutoria no Rekishiseisaku (Whereabouts of the National History – History Policy of Austria), Nagoya: Nagoya University Press, 2001; Doitsu no Seijikyoiku (Citizenship Education in Germany), Tokyo: Iwanamishoten, 2005; ed. Higashi Ajia no Rekishi Seisaku (History Policy of East Asian Countries), Tokyo: Akashishoten, 2008; "Politische Bildung in Japan – Bewälti-

gung politischer Neutralität,” *Zeitschrift für Didaktik der Gesellschaftswissenschaften* 1 (2010): 128-137.

Kratochvil, Viliam (*1954), Dr. paed, PhD., studied history and Slovak language, Pedagogische Fakultät Comenius Universität in Trnava. 1978-1989 history teacher in Bratislava, 1989 PaedDr., 1998 PhD., 1991-1996 history teacher at the first Privat gymnasium in Bratislava (Externe), 2004 docent for didactics of history – professor for History at the philosophical Faculty of the Comenius University in Bratislava.

Selected Publications: Rukoväť učiteľa. Metodické kompendium, didaktická analýza, historické pramene, mapy, slovník historických pojmov, úlohy a testy Bratislava: Orbis Pictus Istropolitana, 2003 (with Daniš, Miroslav, Šnircova, Beata); *Didaktické modely na rozvoj znalostí a intelektových schopností žiakov vo výučbe dejepisu na základných a stredných školách*. Prešov: Metodické centrum, 2003; *Modely na rozvíjanie kompetencií žiakov. K transformácii vzťahu histórie a školského dejepisu*. Bratislava: Stimul, 2004; *Nová maturita, dejepis, didaktické testy, maturitné zadania*. Bratislava: SPN, 2007 (with Mlynarčíková, Hana); *Dokumentárny film ako školský historický prameň*. Prešov: VMV, 2008. Author and co-author of 19 textbooks of history for primary schools and the lower level of 8-year gymnasiums. Bratislava: Orbis Pictus Istropolitana 1994-2006.

Morand, Brigitte (*1959), PhD, researcher at the ACTé laboratory; university lecturer at the ESPé Clermont-Auvergne (higher school for teacher training) in Sciences of Education (didactics of history); Blaise Pascal University (Clermont-Ferrand, France). Main research interest: representations of the Cold War in Eastern and Western textbooks, historical narrative and the use of pictures in the textbooks.

Selected publications: “La problématique de la convergence entre les systèmes de l’Est et de l’Ouest dans les manuels scolaires français des années 1960 et 1970”, *Revue d’Histoire Diplomatique* 2008/1: 47-59; “Les ‘Deux Grands’ au balcon: Le couple américano-soviétique et la personification de la Guerre Froide dans les manuels scolaires français depuis les années 60”, *Société & Représentations* 26 (2008): 97-114; “La guerre froide dans les manuels scolaires français des années soixante à nos jours : une recomposition douloureuse de l’image de l’Europe et du monde”, *Tréma* 29 (2008): 49-62; “La Guerre Froide, une histoire partagée? Le blocus de Berlin dans les manuels allemands, américains et français depuis les années soixante”, in *La Fabrique de l’événement* (Paris : Michel Houdiard, 2009): 321-341; “Questions on the comparative method of European and U.S. textbooks. The example of the Cold War and the Berlin Blockade”, *Yearbook of the International Society of History Didactics* 2010: 129-138; *Cinquante ans de Guerre Froide vus par les manuels scolaires français* (Paris : l’Harmattan 2011); “Os manuais escolares, mídia de massa e suporte de representações sociais. O exemplo da Guerra Fria nos manuais franceses de História”, *Pro-Posições* v. 24 (2012) 3: 67-86.

Levesque, Stéphane (*1971), Univ.-Prof. Dr., History Didactics, Faculty of Education at the University of Ottawa; 2008-2009 Director of Graduate Studies at the University of Ottawa; 2001-2007 Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Education of the University of Western Ontario, 2001 Doctorate in History Education at the University of British Columbia; 1997-2001 Research Assistant in Educational Studies at the University of British Columbia; 1995-1991 Masters degree in Foundations of Education Université Laval (Québec).

Selected Publications: “What is the use of the past for future teachers?”, in *Becoming a History Teacher: Sustaining Practices in Historical Thinking and Knowing*. Toronto, ed. A. von Heyking and R. Sandwell (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, in press); “What it means to think historically” in *New Possibilities For The Past: Shaping History Education in Canada*, ed. Penney Clark (Vancouver: University of British Columbia Press, 2011); “Thinking History: Development of Didactics of History Education in Canada”, in *Patterns of Research in Civics, History, Geography and Religious Studies*, ed. B. Schüllerqvist (Karlstad University Press, 2011); “Teaching national history in Canada: An experiment in multiculturalism”, in *Pensar historicamente en tiempos de globalización*, ed. R. Lopez et al. (Universidade de Santiago de Compostella Publicacions, 2011); “La pensée historique et l’enseignement d’enjeux contentieux : l’expérience des élèves qui étudient la Crise d’octobre”, in *L’école et la diversité : perspectives comparées*, ed. A. McAndrew (Québec: Presses de l’Université Laval, 2010) ; *Thinking Historically: Educating Students for the 21st Century* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2008).

Sánchez Agusti, Maria (*1954), Univ.-Prof. Dr, Studies in History at the Autonomous University of Madrid and University of Valladolid (Spain); Doctorate at the Education Faculty of the University of Valladolid; 1993-99 Assistant Professor for History and Social Sciences Didactics at the University of Valladolid; 2000-2012 Professor for History and Social Sciences Didactics; 2002-2012 Coordinator of the Doctorate Programme Educational Research in Social Sciences at University of Valladolid; 2002-2010 Secretary of the Spanish University Association of Professors of Social Sciences Didactics; Member of the Editing Committee of the journal *Enseñanza de las Ciencias Sociales*.

Selected Publications: “Ciudadanía y enseñanza de la historia. Resultados de una intervención en la formación de maestros“ *Didáctica de las Ciencias Sociales y Experimentales* 25 (2011): 3-15; “La Didáctica de la Historia y su producción científica en el ámbito educativo de las Ciencias Sociales. Algunas ideas para el debate”, in *Metodología de Investigación en Didáctica de las Ciencias Sociales*, ed. Ávila, R et al. (Zaragoza: IFC, 2010), 433-441; “Enseñar Historia desde el tiempo de larga duración“. *Iber. Didáctica de las Ciencias Sociales, Geografía e Historia* 50 (2006): 99-107; “Redefinir la historia que se enseña a la luz de las TIC: un análisis sobre nuevas maneras de aprender Roma“, in *Formación de la ciudadanía: las TIC y los nuevos problemas*, ed., I. Vera and D. Pérez (Alicante: AUPDCS, 2004), 217-237; (Ed.) *Nuevos horizontes en la formación del profesorado de Ciencias Sociales* (Madrid: ESLA, 2002); “Los retablos como recurso para enseñar Historia en edades tempranas. Una aproximación a la vida cotidiana en la época de los Reyes Católicos“, in *La Geografía y la Historia, elementos del Medio*, ed. I. González Gallego (Madrid: MEC, 2002), 279-320.

Sandwell, Ruth W., Univ. Prof. Dr.; Studies in English Literature, Carleton University, Ottawa, BA (First Class Honours, English) 1979; History, University of Victoria, Victoria, British Columbia, MA 1981; PhD History at Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, British Columbia 1991-1998, 2001-2002 Assistant Prof., Depts. of History and Education, McGill University, Montreal, since 2002, Assistant and then Associate Professor, History and History Education, Ontario Institute of Studies in Education, University of Toronto.

Selected publications: ed., *To The Past: History Education, Public Memory and Citizenship Education in Canada* (Toronto, University of Toronto Press: October: 2006); *Contesting Rural Space: Land Policy and the Practices of Settlement, Saltspring Island, Brit-*

ish Columbia, 1859-91 (Kingston and Montreal: McGill-Queen's University Press, 2005); "We were allowed to disagree, because we couldn't agree on anything": Seventeen Voices in the Canadian Debates Over History Education" in *History Wars and the Classroom: Global Perspectives*, eds. Tony Taylor and Robert Guyver (Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, 2012), 51-76; "History is a Verb: Teaching Historical Practice to Teacher Education Students" in *New Possibilities for the Past: Shaping History Education in Canada*, ed. Penney Clark (Vancouver: UBC Press, 2011), 224-242; "Using Primary Documents in History and Social Studies" in *The Anthology of Social Studies: Secondary Education*, eds. Roland Case and Penney Clark (Vancouver: Pacific Educational Press, 2008), 293-305; "The Internal Divide: Historians and their Teaching" in *Bridging Theory and Practice In Teacher Education*, eds. Mordechai Gordon and Thomas V. O'Brien (Sense Publishers: Rotterdam, Taipei, 2007), 17-30.

Sperisen, Vera (*1979), Historian. Researcher at the School for Teachers Education at the University of Applied Sciences Northwestern Switzerland/ Centre for Democracy Studies Aarau (ZDA). Fields of research are: history didactics and civic education, teaching research, right-wing extremism, cultural sociology.

Selected Publications: "Zum Eigensinn von Lehrpersonen im Umgang mit Lehrbüchern. Das Beispiel 'Hinschauen und Nachfragen', in *Forschungswerkstatt Geschichtsdidaktik 09, Beiträge zur Tagung geschichtsdidaktik empirisch 09*, ed. Béatrice Ziegler and Jan Hodel (Bern: hep, 2011), 124-134 (with Bernhard Schär); "Switzerland and the Holocaust. Teaching contested history", *Journal of Curriculum Studies. National History and Beyond – Part Three* 5 (2010): 649-669 (with Bernhard Schär); "Country Report Switzerland", in *Strategies for Combating Right-Wing Radicalism in Europe*, ed. Bertelsmann Stiftung (Gütersloh: Verlag Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2009), 463-530 (with Damir Skenderovic).

Trškan, Danijela (*1966), Univ.-Prof. Dr., Studies in History and French at Faculty of Arts of the University of Ljubljana; 1992-2002 History and French teacher in secondary school, Master Studies (1994-1996) and Doctoral Studies (1997-2001) at the Faculty of Arts of the University of Ljubljana; 1999-2001 Assistant for Didactics of History at University Ljubljana, 2002-2007 Assistant Professor and since 2007 Associate professor for the Didactics of History at Faculty of Arts of the University of Ljubljana, 2011-2012 Vice-Dean of the Faculty of Arts.

Selected Publications: *Evropsko gospodarstvo v 18. stoletju in začetki moderne industrializacije v Angliji: uporaba aktivnih učnih oblik in metod* (Ljubljana: Zavod Republike Slovenije za šolstvo, 1999) (together with Kunaver, Vojko and Gerden, Violeta); *Sodobno pisno preverjanje in ocenjevanje znanja pri zgodovini v srednji šoli na izbranih temah 20. stoletja* (Ljubljana: Zavod Republike Slovenije za šolstvo, 2003); *Provjera znanja i ocjenjivanje u nastavi povijesti* (Zagreb: Srednja Evropa, 2005); *Lokalna zgodovina – učenje z odkrivanjem* (Ljubljana: Znanstvenoraziskovalni inštitut Filozofske fakultete, 2007); *Lokalna zgodovina – učenje z odkrivanjem: naloge malo drugače* (Ljubljana: Znanstvenoraziskovalni inštitut Filozofske fakultete, 2007); *Krajevna zgodovina v učnih načrtih in učbenikih za zgodovino 1945-2005* (Ljubljana: Znanstvenoraziskovalni inštitut Filozofske fakultete, 2008); *Pregled zgodovine današnjih arabskih držav v slovenskih učbenikih za zgodovino* (Ljubljana: Znanstvena založba Filozofske fakultete, 2011); *Overview of the history of today's Arab countries in Slovene history*

textbooks: report for the project Euro-Arab dialogue: comparative study of school textbooks (Ljubljana: Slovenian National Commission for UNESCO, 2011).

Vajda, Barnabás (*1970), PhD. Mgr. Studied History at the Comenius University, Bratislava. Doctorate at the Comenius University, Bratislava in 2003. Since 2005, lecturer at the History Department of the University of J. Selye, Komárno, Slovakia. His main fields of interest: Post-1945 General History, Everyday Life in the Cold War, History Didactics & Methodology, Analysis of History Textbooks.

Selected Publications: “Communist Czechoslovakia and Radio Free Europe”, in: *A Multiethnic Region and Nation-State in East-Central Europe. Studies in the History of Upper Hungary and Slovakia from the 1600s to the Present*, ed. László Szarka (East European Monographs No 787) (Budapest: Atlantic Research and Publications Inc. and Balassi Institute, 2011); *Államhatár és identitás – Komárom/Komárno. [State Border and identity Komárom/Komárno.]* (Monographiae Comaromienses 3) (Komárno: University of J. Selye, Komárno, 2011); *Bevezetés a történelemdidaktikába és a történelemmetodikába. Úvod do didaktiky a metodiky vyučovania dejepisu. [Introduction to Didactics and Methodology of Teaching History]* (Komárom: Selye János Egyetem, 2009); *A XX. század magyar beszédei* (The Hungarian Speeches of the XX. Century) (Budapest: Agave Könyvek, 2007); “Hallgatói telefonok a SZER csehszlovák szerkesztőségébe 1985-1986-ban [Listeners’ Calls to the Czechoslovak Desk of the Radio Free Europe in 1985-1986]”, *MTA Világtörténet* (Autumn-Winter 2010); “A magyar-szlovák közös történelem a korszerű történelem tankönyvek kontextusában” *Limes Tudományos Szemle Tatabánya* 4/2010/: 77-80; “Az Egyesült Államok elképzelései Közép-Kelet-Európával kapcsolatban a Szabad Európa Rádió belső elemzései alapján [Policy of the USA regarding Central Eastern Europe, according to the analyses of the RFE]”, *MTA Világtörténet* (2008): 67-76.

Ziegler, Béatrice (*1951), Prof. Dr., historian. Head of the Center of Civic and History Education of the School for Teachers Education (FHNW) at the Centre for Democracy Studies Aarau (ZDA). Fields of research are: history and citizenship education, public history, migration history, gender history.

Selected Publications: “Historische Konzepte und Kompetenzmodelle – ein empirischer Zugang zur Bedeutung von Wissen für Kompetenzen”, in: *Historisches Wissen. Geschichtsdidaktische Erkundungen zu Art, Tiefe und Umfang für das historische Lernen*, ed. Christoph Kühberger (Schwalbach/ Ts.: Wochenschau Verlag, 2012), 135-151; “Politische Bildung im Deutschschweizer Lehrplan (Lehrplan 21)”, in *Forschungstrends in der politischen Bildung. Beiträge zur Tagung “Politische Bildung empirisch”* 2010, ed. Dominik Allenspach and Beatrice Ziegler (Zürich/Chur: Rüegger, 2012), 29-48; *Die Schweiz und die Shoa. Von Kontroversen zu neuen Fragen* (Zürich: CHRONOS, 2012) (ed. with Peter Gautschi, Bernhard C. Schäer, and Claudia Schneider).