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ANALYZING TEXTBOOKS:
METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

SCHULBUCHANALYSE:
FRAGEN ZUR METHODOLOGIE

L'ANALYSE DES MANUELS:
QUESTIONS METHODOLOGIQUES



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PREFACE · VORWORT · AVANT-PROPOS

PREFACE

The annual conference of the International Society for the History Didactics (ISHD), taking place in 2009 and organized by Elisabeth Erdmann, chairwoman of the ISDH, was held in cooperation with the Georg-Eckert-Institute of International Textbook Research in Braunschweig. The topic of ‘Analyzing Textbooks: Methodological Issues’ picked up on fundamental research issues of the ISHD. Many of the conference’s presentations are gathered in this volume. Even some of the thematically unattached essays, which can be found in the ‘Forum’, additionally underline the current relevance of international research on textbooks and other didactic media.

The magazine will continue the well-tried and proven two-parted structure – Focus and Forum – in its 32nd volume. Along with that a third section of ‘Miscellanea’ will be added. Not only small articles, workshop reports and reviews can be allocated here, but also conference reports, comments and discussion inputs. We hope that this new section will, in collaboration with ISHD’s homepage, develop into a vivid platform. But the reforms have yet to be concluded. This 32nd volume is the first that only features essays written in English. This development follows a decision of ISDH’s board. Nevertheless, the upcoming articles will still be attended by abstracts in all three conference languages. This measure shall act as a stimulus to emphasize international standards of scientific journals and to increase the magazine’s international appeal. Conclusively, it should be mentioned that contributions to the magazine of the International Society for the Didactics of History up until the year 2000 can be found on the following homepage: www.int-soc-histdidact.org/publications.html. SP/JS

VORWORT

Die Jahreskonferenz der Internationalen Gesellschaft für Geschichtsdidaktik (IGGD) fand im Jahr 2009, in Zusammenarbeit mit dem Georg-Eckert-Institut für internationale Schulbuchforschung, in Braunschweig statt. Die Tagung, die von Elisabeth Erdmann, der Vorsitzenden des wissenschaftlichen Verbandes organisiert worden war, befasste sich mit dem Thema „Schulbuchanalyse: Fragen zur Methodologie“ und wandte sich somit einem grundlegenden Forschungsanliegen der IGGD zu. Viele der Tagungsbeiträge, die sich um eine Bestandsaufnahme der Schulbuchforschung an verschiedenen internationalen Standorten bemühen, sind in diesem Band versammelt. Aber auch einige der thematisch ungebundenen Artikel im „Forum“ unterstreichen die fortdauernde Relevanz wissenschaftlicher Forschung zu Schulbüchern und didaktischen Medien.

Im 32. Jahrgang führt die Zeitschrift die erprobte Gliederung in zwei Teile – Fokus und Forum – fort. Zugleich kommt ein dritter Teil hinzu: Miszellen. Hier

können nicht nur kleinere Beiträge, Werkstattberichte und Rezensionen, sondern auch Tagungsberichte, Stellungnahmen und Diskussionsbeiträge Platz finden. Wir hoffen weiterhin, dass in Zusammenarbeit mit der Homepage der IGGD mittelfristig eine lebendige Plattform entsteht. Damit sind die Reformen jedoch noch nicht abgeschlossen: In diesem 32. Jahrgang (2011) wird erstmals der Beschluss des IGGD-Vorstandes umgesetzt, nur noch englische Artikel wiederzugeben, die jedoch weiterhin von Zusammenfassungen in den drei Sprachen der IGGD – Deutsch, Englisch, Französisch – begleitet werden. Diese Maßnahme soll dazu dienen, die internationale Wahrnehmung der Beiträge zu erhöhen. Abschließend soll noch einmal der Hinweis folgen, dass die Beiträge der Zeitschrift der IGGD bis zum Jahr 2000 im Internet zugänglich sind (<http://www.int-soc-hist-didact.org/publications.html>). SP/JS

AVANT-PROPOS

La conférence annuelle de la Société Internationale pour la Didactique de l'Histoire (SIDH) en 2009, organisée par la présidente Elisabeth Erdmann en collaboration avec le Georg-Eckert-Institut, a eu lieu à Braunschweig. Le sujet de la conférence «L'analyse des manuels: questions méthodologiques» s'est consacré à un domaine de la recherche essentiel de la SIDH. Beaucoup d'articles qui ont fait des efforts d'un bilan de la recherche empirique internationale sont rassemblés dans ce volume. En plus, on trouve dans le «Forum» plusieurs articles libres en ce qui concerne le sujet qui soulignent aussi la pertinence actuelle d'une recherche sur des manuels et des médias didactiques.

Dans sa 32^{ième} année la revue continue la nouvelle structure en deux parties – Focus et Forum. En même temps une troisième partie sera ajoutée: les «faits divers» Dans cette partie on peut trouver des petits articles, des rapports sur les ateliers et des recensions ainsi que des bulletins de congrès, des prises de position et des contributions à la discussion. Nous espérons que ce domaine en coopération avec la page d'accueil de la SIDH deviendra en moyen temps une plate-forme vivante. Mais les réformes n'ont pas encore terminé. D'après la décision du comité directeur ce 32^{ième} volume (2011) ne contiendra que des articles en anglais, qui pourtant seront accompagnés de résumés en trois langues – allemand, anglais et français. Le but de cette mesure est de souligner les standards internationaux pour des publications scientifiques et d'améliorer la perception internationale de cette revue. Pour conclure nous voulons encore une fois indiquer que les contributions de la revue de la Société Internationale pour la Didactique de l'Histoire (SIDH), à partir de l'année 2000, sont accessibles sur l'internet (<http://www.int-soc-hist-didact.org/publications.html>). SP/JS

CORRECTION

The editors regret a misprint in the Yearbook 2010: Instead of '1970' it has to be '1770' on pages 195 and 196.

ANALYZING TEXTBOOKS:
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HISTORICAL NARRATIVES IN FRENCH SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS, AND THE WRITERS' RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE PUPILS¹

Marie-Christine Baquès

Some characteristics of French history textbooks can be explained by certain common conceptions in terms of teaching history among the authors and the teachers. My hypothesis is that the historical narrative in school textbooks is established by linking together institutional demands, publishing constraints and the following convictions: 1. Reference to academic history and the model of a historical narrative mainly shaped by notions. 2. The conviction that documents, mainly the iconographic ones, should be immediately accessible and clear. 3. The conviction that pupils as youngsters are deterred by any intellectual effort, an insight which consequences the development of exercises mainly focused on extracting information from documents.

School textbooks in France are positioned at the intersection of several different worlds: the institution, the publishing world, the general social environment and teaching. Although society at large is involved through media campaigns, there are basically two groups of people who are concerned by these textbooks: an active group, namely teachers and the passive group of pupils, who are the ultimate aims of those books. Actually, the teachers choose the books and decide how they will be used. Pupils and their parents have no voice in the choice of textbooks. Thus the publishing world attempts to foresee the teachers' needs as precisely as possible in the designing process of a textbook, both concerning the structure as well as its contents. This is done in a competitive context. It becomes very clear that some publishers focus on a certain type of school, even if this means to publish two different collections – as Nathan does at high-school textbooks. Others however, such as Hatier, prefer to remain generally focused. So the authors have to adjust the content onto the respective choice of the publisher and type of school. The text is proofread by a panel of teachers in order to make it as suitable as possible. Textbook authors only partially take into account the second group, the pupils themselves, whose presence is indirect. Pupils have no influence on the choice of textbook except through the

representation of their teachers. They do not choose the activities proposed by the books. The pupils are just presented through the filter of the representations of the writers, who are mostly teachers themselves and throughover the extent the writers see the needs and demands of the teachers concerned, especially those expressed by the panel of teachers who proofread the books. It is this complex network of teachers, representing pupils, and their conceptions of teaching that I shall attempt to analyse here in order to ascertain the roles of these two groups of pupils and teachers, further in which way history is narrated in secondary school textbooks. At first I give a rapid presentation of the corpus and the research methodology, later on I will then study historical narratives using an example taken from the 9th grade syllabus.

1. The Corpus and the Research Methodology

This research is based on the study of the chapter entitled ‘National and liberal movements’ in the latest set of 9th grade textbooks, published in 2006, implementing the 1995 secondary school syllabus. The relevant textbooks are published by five different publishers: Belin, Hachette, Hatier, Magnard and Nathan.² The analysis will not deal with the whole chapter, but with the double introductory page, the first lesson, the two pages called ‘National Heritage’ or ‘file’ and in case of existence with the pages entitled ‘exercises’ or ‘preparing for the diplome national du brevet (DNB)’.³ I have also analysed the presentation pages, which I found in four of the five textbooks.

1.1 *A Methodology Governed by the Conception of the Textbook as an Complex Historical Narrative*

Current studies agree in the opinion that history textbooks are historical narratives which include all the composite elements and their interactions. The historical narrative links up the author’s text, the documents with their paratext and questions, when there are any, the introductory documents with their paratext and/or the questions that walk along with them, the exercises and the pedagogical tools such as the boxes called ‘vocabulary’ or ‘chronological time-lines’.

The recent introduction of a double presentation page by many publishers is indicative for the complexity of the historical narrative in school text books.

1.2 *A Two-Phase Approach*

In the first phase of my approach I selected the information which arose from analysing the elements of the historical narrative in the books: The notions, documents and exercises. Afterwards I crossed these elements throughout three stages:

- a lexical and semantic analysis of contents in the author's text in order to find the notions it is based on. The way and context these notions are explained with. Finally, the kind of notions that occur (all the notions or merely the new ones).
- a study focussing on the documents, including a typology of them, analysing in what way the documents and their paratext are linked up with the notions in the author's text. Attempting to ascertain whether the set of documents is coherent with the notional contents of the narrative. The study also focuses on a typology of the asked questions.
- a typology of the exercises.

In the second phase I moved on to compare the results of this cross analysis with the results of the analysis dealing with the contents of some texts, which were explicitly for the pupils, guiding them into the given task. At first I carried out a lexical analysis of the text entitled 'method' which accompanies the guided exercise 'preparing for the DNB' in the textbook published by Hachette. Indeed, I considered this text to be a significant exception. Then I checked the conclusions I had drawn at the beginning from the lexical and semantic analysis of the commentaries on the double pages (inwards four of the five textbooks).

2. A Few Remarks Concerning Historical Narratives in 9th Grade Textbooks

This approach leads me to few important remarks about the notions, documents and exercises presented in the textbooks.

2.1 *The Notions*

The text of an author is written in relation to notions. What are those notions? Are they in accordance with the syllabus designers' recommendations? How does the author organize the way pupils access them? The commentaries onto the 9th grade syllabus focus on two key notions: national movements and liberal movements, varying in the way of presentation. Throughout and above the commentaries the notions of traditionalist Europe and national unity are introduced. They also return to the notions of revolution(s) and the revolutionary period, using a somewhat vague expression: 'peoples' new aspirations'.

I want to take three examples in order to compare the author's text in the textbook with the recommendations given in the commentaries on the syllabus: Belin, Hachette and Magnard. Le Belin would appear to be a slightly particular case in the studied corpus because of the shortness of the author's text, where the publisher has opted to present mainly documents within a summary. However, there are eleven notions in the author's text.

The Hachette textbook is quite average in the number of characters: 1776. The author's text here includes 12 notions. Checking Magnard, the author's text is the longest with 2110 characters. So textbook author's texts contain more notions than the syllabus commentaries. They all, with the exception of Magnard, include the notions of liberal and national movements as well as national unity, but not once the notion of traditionalist Europe is presented. This absence may be explained in different ways. First, the connotations of this notion may have appeared too strong in relation to the language used by the actors and their ideology. But also the notion is hard to get across, explaining only a part of what was supposed to be explicit. Hatier is the only one who picks up the notions of 'the peoples' new aspirations' and 'ideas from the revolutionary period' word-for-word. These notions are not picked up by Belin. In the other textbooks, they are replaced by 'the ideas of the French revolution' (Hachette), 'the principles of 89' (Magnard) and 'identity' (Nathan). Here, the choice of the notions were included or not clearly assumed to be political, mostly linked to the author's wishes of conveyance.

These notions, which are referred to in the author's text are explained in different contexts. I will only use examples from Magnard and Hachette to illustrate this. Magnard positions the explanation of the notions at very different places, which gives both the notions and the explanation a heterogeneous status. Four of these notions, two of them occurring in the syllabus commentary, are defined in the box called 'vocabulary': nationalities, patriot movements, national movements and liberal movements. The two notions found in the commentary (national movements and liberal movements) are also explained by the author himself in his text and questions are asked about them in the documents. Other notions are explained in the author's text, too, namely 'the old order' and, just partially, 'the springtime of the peoples'.

It becomes clear that the author wishes to insist on the notion 'the springtime of the peoples', but the sketchy explanation which is given does not put any emphasis on the hope the expression conjures up. The notion of a 'return to order' is limited merely to repression, both in the author's text and in the choice of documents. A specific set of exercises is devoted to the notion of the nation in a two-page 'file'. The notion of identity is defined through several asked questions in relation to a document. To some notions, such as the 'conservative government', it is only implicitly alluded. Finally, the notions of public opinion, domination and power are neither defined nor explained. The notions that are considered to have been acquired in previous lessons – reform, constitution, liberties, sovereign – are not reactivated in any way. Similar features can be found in the Hachette textbook: contexts for explanation are varied; the notions of national movements and liberal movements can be found in the vocabulary box, and 'the springtime of the peoples' and the return to order are dealt in the same way.

My aim, when I analysed the documents, was to compare the author's text and its underlying narrative with the documents and their questions. Therefore I adopted a three-stage approach: I first drew up a typology of the documents in lesson 1; then noted the notions if it was possible to study with the documents for the lesson and the introductory pages; finally I established a typology of the asked questions.

The corpus of documents is strictly codified. If we do not take into account the maps of the 1848 revolutions and their repression, which have to be in all the books as far as there are some of the major events defined in the syllabus, there are principally three kinds of documents. First, all the books have a set of documents concerning national and liberal demands. These documents are either textual made statements or analyses, or narratives of events (chiefly those in 1848) and always include the relevant demands. In every textbook one or several pictures of the 1848 barricades can be found. This materialization in an symbolic way, mainly operated with in the 19th century revolutions, should certainly not be underestimated! Finally, the textbooks contain documents focussing on the repression, with occurred in three of the five. Only Hatier opts to include a document giving other causes for the failure of the revolutions than repression, namely an extract from Faith and Future (translated from the French title 'Foi et avenir' by Giuseppe Mazzini). Nathan is the only publisher who consider the return to order from the sovereigns' point of view. Some of these documents are doxa. Sorrieu's 'Universal democratic and social republic' can be found in four of the five textbooks, Daumier's drawings, stigmatizing the repression, in Naples and three others, along with some extracts (some slightly modified or abridged) from the Countess of Metternich's diary. The recurrent choice of these documents descends from the desire to satisfy teachers. Sorrieu's engraving is a pertinent pedagogical document which is easy to use because it enables the teacher to deal with the 1848 spirit using just one document. Including one of Daumier's caricatures may seem to be unavoidable regarding his stature among the caricaturists of the time. The interesting thing about the caricatures on the repression in Naples is that they present both the return of the monarchy and repression in its most spectacular form.

In order to complete the analysis of the choice of documents I studied the links between this choice, the pertaining questions and the notions I found in the authors' text. Which of these notions can be studied through the documents? Certain constants can be found in the five textbooks. The documents make it possible to grasp the notions of the national movement and the liberal movement and the

return to order. In three of the five textbooks there is also the notion of the springtime of the peoples.

If we leave aside the Belin textbook which has included a summary rather than the author's text, what is more or less significant depending on the concerning textbook. However, in most cases, the return to order is assimilated merely with repression. Even if Daumier's caricature allows the teacher to deal with the return of the monarchy in the places where it had been driven out, any other political consequences are not mentioned. The notion of the 'springtime of the peoples' is only sketchily defined.

Finally, my study of the documents examined the pertaining questions. Therefore, I drew up a typology. It was very obvious that the questions should primarily create information from the document, and then, to a lesser degree, should crossing information from several other documents. There were very few questions asking for explanations or containing a critical objective, such as the temporal links between the document and the event or the author's point of view.

The narrative underlying the documents and their questions is far less substantial rich than the author's text. A 'cold' historical narrative of the 1848 revolutions (revolutionary hope is absent from the narrative and merely from the questions about Sorrieu's lithography) can be opposed to a narrative which victimizes repression. This is a reflection of a doxa which is hostile to revolutionary action and which puts the victims in the place of the heroes, even quite simplified as actors in the historical mythography of this society. It would thus seem that the authors and teachers share this mythography. This analysis of textbooks dealing with the liberal and national revolutions will end with a typology of the exercises.

2.2 Exercises

It is quite clear that the typology of exercises proposes the aim of preparing for the DNB exams. If we do not take into account the thorough study of a particular type of document (usually a picture or a map) and the quiz-style exercises in Hachette, we observe that there are chiefly exercises focusing on linking up several documents of the same or different kind with tasks on comparative tables. However, we should not be too categorical concerning the success of this

typology, regarding that one particular class of exercise can have different objectives depending on the textbook. Let us take a look on the example of the comparative table. The level of intellectual effort required to work on this can vary. In two cases (Belin and Hachette) it is merely used as a formal exercise. Similarly, the exercises entitled 'exam', which can be found in four of the five books, are incomplete in three of the four cases or formal, like the summary proposed by Belin. The proposed typology of exercises is determined by the general competencies evaluated by the DNB exam, namely getting information, classifying and crossing information out of the different documents, making a summary. There are many shortcomings in the exercises, preparing for the DNB exam which show that the way in which institutional requirements are implemented is often just formal. The authors certainly put in the competencies required for the exam, but do not draw any intellectual consequences from it. There are few exercises leading to an explanation or to an understanding of certain phenomena. If they exist, they are put in a marginal position inwards the 'file' or 'National heritage' pages, for example the tasks, which propose to concern the notion of the nation, inwards the Magnard edition.

Finally, you can observe a contradiction between the author's text which is marked by references to scholarly history and both the demand for explanatory history and the elements in the textbook which are supposed to aim the pupils choice of documents and the involved questions. This is also true concerning the exercises. This distortion refers not only to publishing and documentary constraints. The representations and conceptions of the authors are also key figures.

3. Distortions Showing the Authors' Representations and Conception of Teaching

The French textbooks analysed are very neutral and quite detached, in accordance with a convention that is common to all school textbooks. Such explicit traces of author's representations cannot often be found; however, the Hachette textbook provides a series of

recommendations, given to the pupils for a guided exercise of that kind which is found in the exam. That gives a glimpse of the author's representations. So I have tried to clarify them by examining the used lexicon.

3.1. *The Hachette Edition: Authors' Representations and Conceptions, Seen through a Lexical Analysis of the Methodological Advice, Given to Pupils*

The text entitled 'method' accompanies a guided question for the pupils. It is interesting to analyse the accordance to other implicit parts of the Hachette textbook and to other textbooks. Studying the vocabulary used in the text enlightens the way the authors see the pupils, the way they see the document (and the way they think the pupils see it) and their conception of teaching. The lexical field of easiness is recurrent, clearly visible at the frequent use of the terms 'easy/easily', 'you just need to[...]'.²

- 'Questions 1 to 3 ask you in fact to sum up the information given in each document. You just need to have a quick look at the map to find the answer.'
- 'It is often easy to analyse a caricature [...].'
- 'You can easily understand [...].'
- 'You can have fun trying to recognize [...].'
- 'You just need to pick out [...].'

The author presents the documents as easily accessible and not very elaborate for the pupils. This will to minimize the intellectual difficulties is also obvious in the paratext of the documents. In several cases the paratext gives the pupils the answer to the asked question. For example in the paratext, accompanying a satirical English engraving called 'the appetites of the people in power in the Balkans'. Due to the contents of the paratext, the pupils do not need to analyse the engraving and find the word 'Turkey' (written on the plucked turkey which the people in power are to feast on), look up the two meanings of the word in English, and then identify the powers concerned. It provides the pupils directly the element, which enables them to grasp the comic effect of the caricature, namely the English word Turkey which means both the bird and the country. At the accompanying subject, the well-known caricature 'Order reigns in Warsaw', the commentary gives away the meaning: 'Caricature drawn /painted after the Russians quelled the Polish insurrection.' The

pupils just have to paraphrase this into their answer to the asked question. Similarly, the title of the map 'Poland, 1815, a dismembered country', proposed in the same practice question, gives the pupils beforehand the answer to the asked question. What could have been used for practising analysis and research becomes a mere repetition exercise.

Behind this representation of an easily accessible document, or rather the presented form of it, we can in fact find a representation with regard to the pupils themselves. They are seen as being put off by any intellectual effort, which leads to a conception of teaching whose main priority is to motivate pupils by ironing out all the difficulties and giving activities an artificially game-like character. Therefore, they are confronted with questions which are repetitive and not really appealing.

3.2 Can we Generalize from these Conclusions?

I did not find any similar traces in other 'method' Hachette texts. However, the very fact that the collection editor accepted it seems to indicate his approval towards the ideas. The book, as common practice for all school textbooks, was proofread by a panel of teachers who validated it. It can thus be assumed that the teachers overall agreed with these representations.

The textbook published by Hachette is characterized by the presence of exercises requiring little intellectual effort (quizzes, and gap-filling exercises in other chapters) and by a paratext which does not provide explanations like for example the Magnard textbook. Whereas this text can be considered as a sort of unconscious slip-up that reveals the conceptions and representations, shared by the authors and the teachers, who use the textbook. Can we apply/extend this conclusion to the other textbooks? I did not find any similar texts among the other publishers. So I completed my study by analysing the vocabulary used in the introductory pages inwards four of the five textbooks (the Hatier edition does not have any).

The introductory pages consist of an commentary on the different elements in the textbook or a double page devoted to a lesson. If we analyse the vocabulary used here we find confirmation of the conclusions which were already put forward. The term 'simple' can

be found in the four works: the Belin textbook refers to ‘simple maps’, the Hachette to ‘a simply written and well-structured course’, and the Magnard to ‘simple exercises’. The simplicity of the lesson is linked to its well-structured presentation in the Magnard (twice), Hachette and Nathan. The author of the Belin textbook insists on the term ‘essential’: Remember the essential points (twice), an ‘essential’ place. The Nathan textbook indicates that the ‘difficult words are explained in the vocabulary pages’. It is obvious that all the publishers wish to present their textbook and its contents in an uncomplicated way.

The organization of the historical narrative, as it is produced by secondary school textbook authors is thus determined by the tension between the university model, with expert historical knowledge, and their own representations. This can be seen on two levels. Their own representations refuses any demand of intellectual activity among the pupils. Additionally, they assume their representations to be shared by history teachers. Furthermore that pupils are motivated by the playful and easy nature of the activities and the distinction between the two stages of providing basic knowledge and giving explanations. This leads to a conception of teaching which shows reluctance to include intellectually demanding exercises (Allieu-Mary & Lautier, 2008). This is obvious through the elements in the textbooks which are specifically to be worked out by the pupils. Thus, secondary school textbooks reproduce teachers’ practices, reinforcing them instead of providing help.

Notes

¹ This article will be published in French on the Montpellier CEDRHE website, IUFM de l’académie de Montpellier, Université de Montpellier 2.

² Adoumié, V. (dir) (2006), *Histoire-Géographie 4^o*, Hachette Éducation; Azzouz, R. (dir) (2006), *Histoire-Géographie 4^o*, Magnard; Chaudron, É. & Knafou, R. (2006), *Histoire-Géographie 4^o*, Belin; Cote, S. & Dunlop, J. (2006), *Histoire-Géographie 4^o*, Nathan; *Histoire-Géographie 4^o*, Hatier (2006), collection Martin Ivernel. In order to simplify reading, the textbooks will be indicated by the name of the publisher.

³ Exams taken at the end of the first cycle in French secondary education, at 15.

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THE PICTURE OF THE ‘SAXONIC PERIOD’ IN HISTORY TEXTBOOKS. THE RECEPTION OF ACHIEVEMENTS IN HISTORIOGRAPHY

Grzegorz Chomicki

The purpose of my project is a study about the changing picture of the ‘Saxonic period’ in Polish history textbooks in high schools from the end of the XIX century to the beginning of the XXI century. The content (choice of material) and the textbook narration are analysed. I focused on an introductory presentation of the analysed data.

What is the ‘Saxonic Period’ in the History of Poland?

The ‘Saxonic period’ are the years 1697-1763. In this time the Polish Commonwealth had electors of Saxony on its throne: Augustus II and Augustus III Wettin. In this time the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth was befallen by numerous calamities, caused by both the political situation in this part of Europe and internal conflicts. In order to show the frequency and scale of the disasters efficiently, a chronicle of the first quarter of this period will be useful:

- 1696: John III Sobieski dies and a long, intrigues interregnum, full of quarrels, commences;
- 1697: The election of the new king is not unanimous; most of the nobility supports the candidature of prince Conti, but some choose Frederick Augustus, the prince elector of Saxony, who somewhat earlier converted to Catholicism; the Saxon army together with the elector, who adopted the name Augustus II when he was crowned, enter Poland before Conti manages to arrive from France; in the following couple of years the legitimacy of the election of Augustus is questioned by (among others) the primate, cardinal Radziejowski – the first senator of the Commonwealth and the head of the Roman Catholic Church in Poland;
- 1699: Resulting from the Treaty of Karlowitz, the long war with Turkey comes to an end, however, the unimpressive results are out

of proportion with the amount of sacrifices and efforts made in more than a dozen years of fighting with the Turks;

- 1700: A few years of unrest in Lithuania lead to the battle of Olkieniki (Valkininkai); king Augustus is unable to tranquillize the situation;
- 1700: Saxon elector Augustus II, pursuing the dynastic interests, forms a political coalition with Denmark, Russia and commences hostilities against Sweden and tries to conquer Riga and the Duchy of Livonia; Poland does not take part in the anti-Swedish coalition;
- 1701: The Saxon army is defeated and the Swedes under Charles XII enter the neutral territory of the Commonwealth;
- 1702: To defend Cracow the Saxon and Polish armies fight a battle with the Swedes at Kliszow; the Swedes win inter alia because of the sudden retreat of the Polish cavalry during the battle;
- 1703: The Swedes besiege Thorn; the bombardment of the city leads to its destruction and capitulation;
- 1704: Charles XII does not agree to a peace as long as Augustus II occupies the throne; he organizes a circle of malcontents and sets up the election of the marionette king Stanislaw Leszczyński, who is completely dependant on the Swedish king; defendants of the national sovereignty support Augustus II and wage war on Sweden;
- 1706: Augustus II receives strong military support from the czar Peter I, but the Swedes crush the Saxon army in Great Poland and enter Saxony, threaten to ravage the electorate; Augustus II makes a separatist peace and resigns from the Polish throne;
- 1706-1709: Most of the nobility and army still does not acknowledge Stanislaw as a lawful ruler; the Polish Commonwealth forms an alliance with Moscow without the king; both the war with Sweden and the civil war are going on; foreign and Polish troops exploit and exhaust the country, which is befallen by hunger and a great epidemic;
- 1709: After Charles' loss at Poltava the Russian and Saxon armies enter the Commonwealth, Stanislaw leaves Poland together with the retreating Swedes and Augustus II returns to the throne;
- 1710-1714: Fights with the Swedes break out outside Poland's territory, but still there are foreign armies stationed, which plunder

the country; the nobility suspect of August II to develop a Coup d'état with their help and want to introduce absolute rule, taking Louis XIV as an example;

- 1715: Contributions, claimed by the Saxon army as well as their pillaging, provoked the Polish nobility to form a confederation in Tarnogrod; for half a year fights last in the whole country, afterwards Russian mediatory forces enter the Commonwealth and lead long negotiations, in which the czar's ambassador function as the main mediator.
- 1717: An extraordinary diet (the Dumb Diet) confirms the treaty negotiated between the king and confederates, as well as some controversial reforms, such as limiting the permanent army to 24,000 troops - while the Russian army had over 200,000 at this time, and the Prussian 100,000;
- 1719: Long endeavours lead to the evacuation of the Russian troops;
- 1720: A diet which originally confirmed Poland's participation in the alliance against czar Peter's attempts at hegemony in Northern Europe is held; it breaks off because of the intrigues of the Prussian and Russian ambassadors;
- 1721: Peter dictates Sweden the conditions of the peace of Nystadt, not allowing Poland's representatives to take part in the negotiations; he also refuses to turn over the territories promised to Poland in earlier treaties.

The political weakness and dependence from the stronger neighbours escalate. No more wars and destructive invasions occur, but foreign armies repeatedly enter Poland.

After the death of Augustus II, at the election of 1733 the nobility chooses (this time completely lawfully) Stanislaw Leszczyński. However, the interventions of the Saxon and Russian armies lead to the ingress of another Saxon elector, known as Augustus III. This ruler was defeated at the begin of the Seven Years' War (Frederick II of Prussia takes over Saxony). During his rule all the diets had been broken off by the opposition using the 'liberum veto' rule. No bills could pass because the vote had to be unanimous.

This short summary of failures and disasters shows how severely the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth was weakened already in the beginning of the Saxon period. At the same time it is a list of the

basic facts (only as far as politics are concerned), that in my opinion are necessary for the coherent and understandable description of Augustus II's and Augustus III's tumultuous rules. I will develop these ideas in later part of the article.

Common Opinion

This epoch was condemned in Polish historical awareness without being thoroughly studied. Publicists, novelists and professional scholars saw in it, first and foremost, the reasons of the catastrophe of the Partitions. When in the 19th and 20th century German nationalism weighted upon the fate of Europe, Polish historians formulated the tempting thesis that it had been the two German rulers, who had forcefully imposed to get upon the Polish throne – one an amoral liar, the other lazy and intellectually dull – who led our country to its downfall on purpose (Bobrzyński, 1881: vol. II, 254 - 256; Szujski, 1889: 351). Those opinions reduced to broad generalities have closed the discussion over the complicated and indeed sad reality of that time. The characterizations of the Wettins found in textbooks personify an egoistic, perfidious, inept foreign king, who cunningly exploits the conquered country, cheating and demoralizing his subjects.

It was a particularly durable 'black legend', completely immune to the progress of historical research. The 'Saxonic period' did not appeal to the collective imagination. Poland did not have any triumphs, no character entered the pantheon of national heroes. The works of the widely read novelist and historian J. I. Kraszewski (1812 -1887) were full of condemnations for the rulers.

The Method

Analyzing the contents consist of estimating the size of the chapters and the proportions between different forms of communication with the reader in various textbooks. The number of characters, dates and terms appearing in the authorial narration as well as in complementary elements (tables, captions under illustrations, chronological diagrams (timelines), modules, biographical notes, dictionaries of terms and maps) is evaluated. The amount of mistakes

and unjustified simplifications undergoes this evaluation as well (Chomiccki, 2008: 139-146).

Analyzing the structure shows the difficulties in organization and construction of the knowledge. The Saxonic period is usually stigmatized as a 'dark age'. The earlier chapters describe the adjacent absolute monarchies (Russia, Prussia and Austria). The situation of the weakened Poland is contrasted with the 'blossoming' military powers of our region. A suggestive graphic comparison is used eagerly – illustrating diagrams of taxes, treasury incomes and numbers of troops (Gładysz, 2003: vol. II, 167, 194, 238-256, vol. III, 76-77; Kopczyński, 2006: 22-25, 45-47, Kozłowska, 2007: 7-23).

Analyzing the narration brings up the frequency through which negative evaluations of characters and events, pejorative denominations and subjective views caused by sympathies and antipathies formed a priori, baseless conclusions and different kinds of anticipations (for example Russia's protectorate of the Commonwealth, which is actually the characteristic one for the third and fourth decade of the 18th century, usually moved to the beginning of the century) occur in the text.

The Problem of Mythologization

While analyzing the elementary myths that appear in Polish historical education on the base of twentieth century textbooks, the myth has been defined as a filter through which the past is seen. However, in this case it does not mean a fable. The role of an educational-historical myth requires an basic knowledge about the past. (Ronikier, 2002: 155). It allows to build one's own identity, usually by underlining the distinctness of groups.

This means the educational myth is a set of criterions, dividing phenomena into positive and negative, but from the point of view of our group. In the ethnological understanding of this word it is a system of values which can be seen as immemorial and immutable for a specific period (Ronikier, 2002: 156-60).

According to these criteria and values we select the material and the contents of the programme not only in order to describe the reality of the yesteryear past realistic, but instead to build an expressive model open to efforts of ordering the past: the

hierarchization and generalization of past events and their evaluation, in the focus of present moral norms.

For example the behaviours of our ancestors after being classified and brought to a common denominator, are taken out of the mental context of their epoch and systematized, usually in a sharp opposition: brave-cowardly, noble-despicable, selfless-corrupt etc. The fundamental myth of Polish textbooks would be the ethos of creating the state according to the ideal of an strong state, centralized, ethnically homogenous and powerful. Moreover, the nation should strengthen this sovereignty by its thoughts and deeds. From this point of view, condemning the Saxonian period as a priori becomes completely understandable because at this time the organs of the state suffered from an atony (and at times even paralysis). The majority of the representatives of the magnate elite can be categorized as ratters; while the monarchs themselves, whose original sin – I want to underline it once more – was their German origin, had the most prominent place in the gallery of historical villains.

The Biased Image of the Epoch

In older textbooks this ordering filter was the stronger and the more visible the younger the potential reader was. Chapters were given suggestive titles that gave this fragment of national history widely known as the ‘age of the greatest of Polish catastrophes’ a negative evaluation right from the outset.

Biased pamphlets were developed by authors of textbooks for elementary schools in the twenties and the thirties. Augustus II, a good ruler of Saxony, was accused of two-facedness as he did not care at all about Polish needs and allowed his troops to cross all limits, abuse their power and plunder the country. The extreme moral decay of the monarch was underlined, a fact which made all his positive qualities lose their meaning (Sanojca, 2003: 69-70).

Nothing came out of the fact that the candidacy for the throne of the Wettin was ‘based on the grounds of a fame of a good ruler and brave man whom he was in his home Saxony. He was entirely different in Poland, however, as he had no concern for its fate.’ ‘This king well-built and handsome, and as strong as Samson, was such a

waster and libertine that the whole nation hated and despised him' (Chomicki, 2008: 139-146).

While the style changes the catalogue of charges is constantly repeated: pride, greed, craving for power, loose morality lead to the neglect of the welfare of the country and nation. The silhouette of Augustus III was shown in an even worse light – he was devoid of any positive characteristics. He was accused of forcefully taking over the throne with the help of 'foreign troops and Russian roubles'; that he allowed the destruction of Poland by foreign armies, and that he essentially was unable to fulfil his duties was attributed to his intellectual and physical weakness.

Not much more differentiated was the picture of Augustus II in Marcei Kosman's textbook from the sixties, according to which '[the king] showed no conscience in his treatment of the Commonwealth; caring only about his hereditary state, in which he even puts forward projects of partition [...]'. After the political bankrupt in 1706 'he had to flee to his Dresden for some time [...]', while in 1709 'the defeated Stanislaw Leszczynski left the country.' The Saxon usurper cowardly ran away, the Polish usurper emigrated with dignity. This state of awareness was summarized and at the same time consolidated by the conclusion that 'there are no reasons to remember these times fondly'.

The situation was not any better as far as post-war books for high schools are concerned. Initially, the language of propaganda and agitation seeped through to the description of the Saxonic period as well. 'In the first half of the eighteenth century the Commonwealth suffered its worst fall. The magnates and the nobility formulated then the disgraceful saying: While the Saxons rule - eat, drink and loosen your belt.' (Missalowa, Schoenbrenner, 1951: 91) (After translating it into English it does not sound catchy, but in Polish it rhymes creating a comical effect: *Za króla Sasa jedz, pij i popuszczaj pasa.*) Especially the corrupt magnates (aristocracy), not caring about the fate of their motherland, were parasites taking advantage by the work of the masses.

Progress

Not sooner than 1958 appeared a textbook that attempted an evaluation based on facts. Its author Kazimierz Piwarski developed a more competent image of the epoch, however it was still laconic, one-sided and grim (Piwarski, 1958: 80): The Saxonian epoch separated into two 'heroic' periods – the rule of John III and that of Stanislaw August Poniatowski – simultaneous used as a contrast. This was the reason for the discreetly omission of its positive aspects.

A distinct improvement came only in the seventies. It was marked by the publication of the high school textbook, which was co-authored by Józef Andrzej Gierowski, Poland's most famous researcher of the Saxonian period (Gierowski, 1976: *passim*).

The calendar at the beginning of this article more or less covers the factographic base of the relevant chapters in this high school textbook. At that time, this material was meant for students around 17 years of age, learning history for the second time (before high school all of them would have taken a systematic course in an 8 year long primary school). History used to be one of the most important subjects in high school and many hours weekly were assigned for its teaching. However, only a relatively small percentage of teenagers would attend high schools, because the level of requirements was high. Several reforms of the Polish educational system caused more and more students to be included in the full cycle of education concluded with a 'matura' examination. Unfortunately, at the same time the number of hours intended for history lessons significantly diminished. After the introduction of the new organization of schooling, the systematic and chronological course of local and international history is now effectively learned by 13-16 year old students of junior high schools (these schools are obligatory for the entire population). It is not difficult to notice that a narration built on these facts would, in due to its volume, highly exceed the norms of junior high school textbooks, and would be impossible to comprehend and memorize for the average student. Moreover, also at the level of high school (which is attended by a much larger percentage of youths than before) the number of history lessons is smaller than 30 years ago. As a result, the volume of the content learned and assimilated by high school students is modest as well

(Chomicki, 2009: 243-5). This forces one to approach towards the optimism of the creators of textbooks, willing to use this broad factographic base, with great caution, even if their books would be intended for students taking extended courses in humanities.

The New Outlook

The last statement forces us to analyze the historiography, separating the textbooks into different periods. It is necessary to check how the image of the epoch pictured in them changed in due to the research which was done in the seventies and eighties at the universities of Cracow and Thorn. Following the footsteps of these researchers we will try to formulate a list of the most frequent inaccurate statements about the Saxonic period in textbooks (Staszewski, 1996: 1157-161).

Typical constructive elements seen in many textbooks:

1. Praising the merits of absolutism – the positive characters about the story of the eighteenth century are: Peter the Great, the Prussian Frederics, Mary Theresa. On the backdrop of the winning regimes the failures of the Polish anarchy are enlarged.
2. Moving the beginnings of the Enlightenment and the merits of the Saxon period to the chapter about the rule of Frederik Augustus (for example Stanislaw Konarski's important school reform of 1740).

Some of the false or inaccurate statements:

1. The Commonwealth did not take part in the Northern War at all.
2. The Polish army was ignominiously defeated at Kliszow (what is more, the iconography of the battle of Kliszow 1702 is repeatedly confused with that of the battle of Kalisz 1706).
3. The Confederates of Sandomierz asked Peter I for help – the creation of the czar as the hegemon of Baltic long before the battle of Poltava, especially before the year 1715.
4. Overestimating the military participation of Prussia in the Northern War ('conquering Pomerania').
5. Showing the constitution of the Dumb Diet as a dictate of Russia, the incorrect explanation of the ceremonial meaning of this event and the essence of the Russian mediation. Attributing catastrophic after-effects to this diet.
6. Suggesting that all the elections of this epoch occurred under the

pressure of neighbouring powers and in the presence of foreign armies.

Typical omissions:

1. Omission of the mutual cultural influences – the role of Dresden as the additional ‘capital’ of the Commonwealth, Polish accents in the architecture of Dresden, ‘Polish’ products made in the manufacture of porcelain in Meissen.
2. Neglecting the meaning of the conversion of Augustus II for the position of the Wettin dynasty in Saxony and the decisions made by the nobility during the election.
3. Omission of the historical context during the evaluation of the Treaty of Potsdam (1720) and Loewenwolde’s Treaty (1732).
4. Omission of the budding attachment to the dynasty, a manifestation of which were the decisions of the Constitution of 3 May 1791 about the inheritance of the throne.
5. Leaving out the Saxon origin of the Order of White Eagle (now the highest Polish distinction).
6. Keeping mum about the servility of Stanislaw Leszczyński towards Charles XII (Chomicki, 2008: 139-146).

Conclusion

Textbook narration puts in notion idiosyncratic meta-interpretational mechanisms. The term ‘meta-interpretation’ was introduced to Polish didactics by the well known methodologist Jerzy Topolski, who using Umberto Eco’s ideas, pointing out the phenomenon of triple interpretation in the process of educational communication (Tobolski, 1996: *passim*). According to Topolski, while passing on the information presented in the narration, you have to take into account:

- the intent of the work
- the intent of the author
- the intent of the reader (a very particular one – the students develop their own level of intellectual maturity)

That is why the teacher (in this sense an author of the textbook as well) should at all times regard the discourse from the point of view of the intellectual and emotional capability of the student. In lay terms we would say he has to ‘adjust to the student’s level’.

Metainterpretation according to Topolski is a cognitive discourse that requires an active cooperation between the teacher and the student. The teacher has to be aware, first of all, that the student's interpretation can be marred by different kinds of additional factors, such as simply the lack of understanding of the informational (lexical, semantic) layer.

This gives birth to the need of conducting tests (not to misuse the term experiment), which would show how different narrations about the Saxon period affect the students in reality; not only in terms of factual knowledge, but also in the understanding of the epoch, or the revelation of phenomena indicated above, when we talked about the myths as cognitive schemes. Systemizing the view on the past, considering the hindrance of individual views among the students, but also other possible hindrances, makes it impossible to understand too sublime and complex narrations.

According to the adopted working hypothesis, the research confirms that the 'Saxonic period' is in majority of textbooks described very traditionally, actually for decades in the same way. The results of newer research have reached school education only to a small extent. Authors were unable to construct a narration of this complicated period, which would be approachable and at the same time not consolidating to widely spread stereotypes. The only charge that has evidently disappeared is highlighting the German origin of both kings. Nowadays it is not seen as destructive factor weakening the personal union. It is even being pointed out that there were possibilities of a Polish-Saxon cooperation in the economic field.

In conclusion, withstanding the influence of up-to-date historiographical currents (which are aiming to revise the opinion about those times), school teaching of history in this domain has not been re-evaluated. What is more, not all authors have acquainted themselves with the newest literature, and many others seem to be ignoring its contents.

Fitting the subtle language of historiography formulations to the needs of didactics proves to be extremely difficult as well. A survey about the perception of this epoch has been planned and conducted on a population of 300 high school students. It has revealed the fact that the knowledge coming from the earlier stages of education is slender (Chomicki, 2009: 239-245). Moreover, its growth as an result

of the teaching, which was done on the basis of the textbooks is unsatisfactory. Due to the many-sided crisis of the state and noble society at that time and the minimal impression the 'Saxonic period' left in popular culture, it is exceptionally weakly known and considered as unattractive even by students, who are interested in history.

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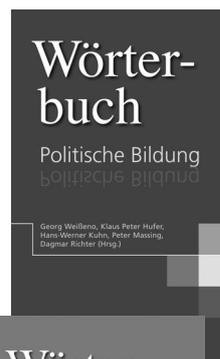
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WORLD HISTORY IN DUTCH TEXTBOOKS: MEASURING WORDS, RECONSTRUCTING TEXTBOOKS AND THE FUTURE OF HISTORICAL VISUALIZATION

Jonathan Even-Zohar

Between 2006 and 2007, I conducted extensive research into the world-historical perspective of Dutch history textbooks between 1975 and 2005. The purpose was to find all non-western elements in Dutch history textbooks, so as to judge the quality of the non-western/world-historical perspectives, and how this has changed over time. The content of 65 textbooks for pupils aged 12-15 was dissected and a database containing over 12,000 entries of 'non-western' history was built. This database provided a subcategorized quantitative overview, whilst providing a methodology from which to conduct further research. In this paper I will critically review this methodology by identifying four methodological obstacles that could arguably lessen the validity and significance of the research and the results. The first two obstacles deal with the quantitative research and the statistical methodology, while the remaining two touch more on issues relating to qualitative analysis.

Introduction

The first part of this paper will address the methodological obstacles, while in the second part, some interesting and technologically innovative initiatives will be discussed. This will be done to illustrate that these projects, although not necessarily including textbook research in their initial scope, can be identified as innovative methods for future textbook research. In addition, they could point to ways in which the field of textbook research can actually influence educational policies.

One of the 1985 textbooks I examined featured a full colour illustration of a Polynesian island (Hildingson & van den Eerenbeemt, 1985: 23; Bartman (ed), 1993: 31). Some inhabitants are moving onto a boat, while others stay behind. In the featuring text, this book explained the migration patterns of Polynesia's societies and gives a general context of their history on the Pacific. In the next edition of this same textbook (1993), the illustration is the same, but

the text only mentions the search for the ultimate Utopian society by French philosophers and explorers. The first edition included an active and autonomous actor. The second clearly did not.

In addition to serving as a subject that transfers valuable thinking skills, school history education is the main way in which a society transfers historical selection, assumptions and memory to a younger generation (Husbands, 1996: 132-133; Van der Leeuw-Roord, cited in Smart (ed), 2007: 34). A growing group of scholars is advocating that historical research should go beyond the national boundaries and include research with a global scope and global narrative (O'Brien, 2006: 4; Vries (ed), 2009: 6; Allardyce: 1990). In the field of academic historical research, World History is now a mature field. In the United States, several states have adopted a World History High School curriculum that complements the US History curriculum (Goldstone 2009 cited in Vries (ed), 2009: 79). In Europe, we hardly see such developments (Cajani, 2004: 3-4). In fact, school history curricula are being used more openly for nationalist policy making. In the Netherlands, United Kingdom, Denmark, France and other countries, history curricula have – more often than not – been accompanied by set lists of topics and themes. All of these aim to strengthen a national identity. This diminishes the possibilities for publishers to include new perspectives in textbooks. The non-western people are, as Antoon de Baets would say, reduced to mere *Extras* (de Baets, 1994: 99). In most cases, textbooks reflect these tendencies all too well.

For instance, a 2005 textbook shows a map of the crusades that does show the detailed routes of the Crusaders and their new states, but neglects to show or mention the existence of other Middle East polities (Boxtel & Schrover, 2004: 80). This is similar in the case of Ancient Egypt, which could have had court doctors, although it is often claimed that their future Greek colleagues invented medicine. Dutch textbooks do give attention to colonial historical relations with Surinam and Indonesia, and do touch upon the history of Japan, China, India and the Americas, but usually only within the framework of colonial history, and only after the *Age of Discoveries*.

In my opinion, school history education should overcome this eurocentric tunnel vision and find new and innovative ways to show children in classrooms today the history of the world they are living in, which is undeniably a *global world*. Efforts so far to include world-

historical perspectives can mostly be seen as attempts to include non-western current events (or current remembrance) into the textbooks.

Part I – Methodological Obstacles

Whilst conducting this research, I encountered numerous distinct methodological challenges. Firstly, there still seems to be too little cross-border engagement in Europe between methodological schools of different language-groups, despite the admirable work of several European research, network and training institutions. Secondly, divergence between research methodologies in different language-schools is a problem that is often swept under the rug by professional research groups. Also, the socio-economic relevance of the selected textbooks is an important issue. How could a researcher select which books should be studied, and which ones not, when publishing houses for instance do not make their market value public? Being outside of the scope of this paper, I will not delve into these more external and institutional challenges.

Obstacles on the Level of Quantitative Research

The first two methodological obstacles which should be discussed are ‘measure first, question later’ and ‘select once and tag too much’. Both relate more to the quantitative side of the methodology. The latter is related to the style of measuring content in textbook research, the former to the relation between the desire to build a comprehensive database and the need for it to stay statistically operational.

When creating raw input for the database, a special challenge is how to form a multilayered entry. If done well, the researcher can revisit a single entry and still be able to perceive the full significance of the data. One can, for instance, include various quantifiable properties with each entry, such as place on the page, relation to an image, connection to a historical theme and other geographical and chronological information. The more is measured at first, the more can be questioned later. The second challenge then comes into play.

One example which I used in my own research was to provide each entry in the database with a brief textual summary. This enabled me to do interpretative quality analysis on it at a later stage. This task produced an interesting methodological obstacle. On the one hand

the 'thinking' and any 'bias' of the original author, had to remain intact. This was done by mirroring the author's logic by summarizing his argumentation. On the other hand in order to keep the size of the databases to a minimum, the description ought to be as precise as possible. An example of the former entry style: 'Mohammed was a simple man, married a rich widow for not having to work' (Kalkwiek & Berendsen, 1975: 163). This entry comes from a textbook that wrote in 3-4 sentences that Mohammed married in order to avoid working and this is described as recognizable as possible. An example of the second arrangement is introduced in this description: 'There was irrigation and canals, more agricultural land' (Toebe (ed), 1984: 52). Here, a story about digging canals and building dikes effectively is deliberately simplified and reduced to an informative description. The obstacle here is that it might in fact not be possible to 'measure first, and question later', as a judgment is passed on the importance of an entry's description upon its creation in the database.

It is quite easy to avoid this obstacle by reversing this order and simply falling back to a 'count'-based database. This means preparing a thorough question first, and counting how much this issue is mentioned in textbooks, while later coming back to it to analyze how it is mentioned. However, I would argue that allowing more depth in each 'measurement' enriches the possible scope of future research, and therefore contributes more significantly to the possibilities of scientific collaboration. Some suggestions on innovative approaches that address this challenge are given in the second part of this paper.

Obstacles on the Level of Qualitative Analysis

The third and fourth obstacles I have entitled 'overrule the textbook authors' and 'History is more than text', both of which are on the level of qualitative analysis. After compiling the complete database, it becomes possible to make a comprehensive analysis of the measurements.

In my own research I set out to analyze the quality of the non-western history in the Dutch textbooks as compared with major works of scholarship that belong to the World History Movement of the late twentieth century. On several levels this comparison could be seen as unfair. First of all, textbook authors are usually not publishing scholars, and if they are, they are mostly experts in national history and even if there is time for proper fact-checking of the textbook's

narrative, the bulk of this remains national history. Secondly, even if textbook authors are highly qualified historians and the fact checking has a professional basis, the world-historical perspective which I was seeking in their work was never part of their works' objectives. Perhaps one can simply not assess the quality of a cheap car by reading manuals of expensive ones, and each attempt to do so, implicitly *overrules the original textbook authors*.

A possible solution is to always increase the research to include other important actors in the history education habitat, such as the national curriculum developers, the assessment consultant, the teachers and the teacher trainers, as well as the textbook authors. By performing more of a social surroundings study with interviews, the relevance of the judgments made upon the textbook's content can gain more significance. For instance, if it comes out that a textbook author did attend a specific training meeting about Chinese History, and did try to include as much Chinese History as he/she could, that would clarify the quality of a certain textbook as opposed to another – less informative – one.

I would however argue that it remains significant to research the textbooks 'beyond' or 'without' the authors. In fact school textbooks are valuable primary sources, and they become even more valuable when more of them are compared over time. In addition to this, a certain neutrality is safeguarded if the researcher can focus solely on the textbook's content, and is not distracted by sometimes colored opinions or selective memories that come forward in interviews.

The fourth, and final methodological obstacle that I wish to discuss in this paper is the important notion that a textbook's textual content is far more than its narrated text. When I was building a database out of all the textual entries, I also included texts which described (historical) imagery sources and texts which were printed on maps. Textbooks often also carry textual information in timelines.

However, it is crucial not only to assess the used images and maps on their own value, but also in relation to the narrative that they aim to support. A textbook mentioning the high level of sophistication of 7th century Baghdad and the importance of the Caliphate, may fail in its educational objective, if it does not offer anything else than a flat political map of Middle East with Baghdad being a mere dot on this map. Even if the text highlights the importance, the map seems not to intrigue or inspire the student to explore further. The cohesion

between all the elements of the textbooks should be studied. As mentioned earlier, a multilayered database helps the researcher in tracking down these interrelationships between the mentioned elements.

For future research, I believe a lot more attention has to be spent on investigating the connections between textbooks and their growing body of digital content, often provided on additional DVD's or special (password-protected) websites. Perhaps even more revolutionary is the impact of whiteboards and Internet in the classroom, offering the teacher endless possibilities of audiovisual media to show and comment on. The wealth of additional thematic educational material could be studied in this light as well. Finally, the wide range of history education that is offered outside of the classroom, including its textual narratives, could be analyzed. These may include information boards in museums and heritage sites, but also video games and documentaries as well as Internet pages. Looking at these methodological obstacles, one issue could be interesting for discussion: *How far can Textbook Research go?* Is it fair to come to qualitative conclusions based on a quantitative collection of textbook material, when one has merely measured snippets out of constructed narratives in textbooks? For instance, in my research, I did not encounter a heading which specifically dealt with Korea in over 70 textbooks. The history of Korea is never a topic, yet – following my research method – my conclusion could be that the historical narrative about Korea is of bad quality and contains large gaps. In other words: I reconstruct the textbooks in a way they were not doing themselves, only to conclude that this reconstructed non-western narrative is a bad one. There are arguments in favour and other against this methodology. I look forward to learning more about the methodological obstacles and challenges of other – more experienced – textbook researchers.

Part II: Ways Forward

Thinking forward, I would advocate for textbooks research to use innovative technologies to create common databases that can be shared across linguistic borders. When I was building my own research database, I thought it would be logical to build this in Dutch, as to stay close to the researched textbooks. Having presented

this research on several occasions, I came to regret that my own research is so poorly accessible to the wider scientific community, and the general public. In this section, I would like to present some innovative projects that have caught my attention, and which I believe can contribute greatly to future textbook research and collaboration among researchers. I would like to profile three of these projects and stress their unique contributions to research of historical awareness in given societies. One technology is the key: The Internet, a subway that we all traverse. The first and most widely known project is Wikipedia. Since being established as a non-profit organization in 2001, Wikipedia has amassed over 13 million articles in over 200 different languages (Shirky, 2008: 114-116). Many have criticized the quality of information available on Wikipedia, and several initiatives have been made to establish an enhanced quality ranking system of authors and articles. One interesting side-project of Wikipedia, is WikiBooks. This is a website that uses the Wikipedia software to create an online collaboratively written textbook. Suddenly, a textbook is written by several thousand authors, and is used to accommodate several tens of thousands of students' needs. For the textbook researcher, two new research angles arise. One is related to the content: To what extent is the content used in the WikiBooks new and original and what is the role of the free editing policy of Wikipedia software? Research related to this question can study the editing history of textbook articles, as each edit in this system requires the author to use arguments. Subsequently, each edit is recorded and is an object for future study. In the example of the *European History textbook* one can easily study and analyse the debates surrounding the different edits. *Where is the Polish Perspective?* a user asks.

A second question is related to the nature of the medium: What is the motivation of people to become authors of this form of non-official and off-market textbooks? Is it possible to imagine that a medium like Wikipedia could actually be used to blur the distinction between textbooks authors, teachers, historians and textbook researchers? In other words: would it now be possible for History Education Experts to make themselves heard in public and find more direct ways to classrooms? It is estimated that the whole of Wikipedia is at the moment about 180 million hours of human thought. This is the equivalent of the amount of time spent watching commercials

each week in the whole of Europe. In other words: this Wikipedia is still a very small project.

A second project I would like to profile is CITER, an EU-funded project, which is the creation of a digital European history textbook repository. It is mainly a project of IT-departments, collaborating with publishers across Europe. They aimed to integrate already existing textbooks. For me the most interesting thing of this integration process is the creation of shared typography, based on space (locations), time (dates), and thematic categories. After these entrances have been created, the project trusted Google Translate (a free service) to make the necessary translations between Greek, Slovenian, German, English and Spanish. The user interfaces with the database through these entrances, but also by using a map and a timeline that shows queried results. For the textbook researcher it forms an extremely valuable tool to compare and assess different emphasis in different countries. The visualization provided by the map summarizes my point in one snapshot.

In this project, German and English publishers were included, but there was no Dutch or French partner. The result is clear on this picture. The CITER-Project has produced a pilot CD-ROM, but it does seem like a good model for textbook researchers who would like to cooperate and collect and examine data from different countries.

The usage of computers and software has in fact greatly increased the capacity to share and collaborate on data sets. The growth of online data has freed to a certain extent the usual destiny of any research database, and enables researchers to profit from their colleagues' research in a more relevant and deeper way.

The final project I would like to profile officially started on 1 October 2009. It is another EU-sponsored project, executed by EUROCLIO (European Association of History Educators) in close relation with a wide variety of partners, such as Europeana, Dutch Institute for Heritage, Council of Europe and Georg Eckert Institut. The project is called Historiana (www.historiana.eu), and aims to create a website for historical themes that are most relevant when studied on an European and comparative level. This website will not be like Wikipedia free-for-all, neither will it explore existing textbook materials. It will include a wide range of textbook authors, many of whom are in fact teachers, and will enable them to upload their own

educational material to this common web space. There, other teachers as well as students and researchers will be able to access this material and work with it. Again, the visualization of historical thematic and geospatial data will be the project's biggest challenge, but if successfully, it will form another great innovative research and educational tool.

Conclusion

The methodological obstacles mentioned in this paper had to do with database-building issues, as well as interpretation and assessment issues. The ways forward that I have identified all stress the need for more sharing of data and collaboration. Textbook research is like any other historical research: a method to interpret historical sources and construct a truthful analysis. In order to strengthen the field, the sources should be made more accessible and cross geographical and linguistic borders. In order to achieve this, a platform like this conference is helpful, but more concrete research projects building on already executed textbook research and on the wide variety of existing international network should produce more substantial results.

Due to the rapid technological change of the last couple of years, the technical programming of so-called Historical Geographical Information Systems (HGIS) has been more and more synchronized. Just think of the GPS systems and the unfolding universe of capabilities on these devices. Anno 2009, we see more IT experts and historians collaborating in various settings, trying to produce open-ended visualization tools for databases containing entries with chronological and geographical data. It seems to me, therefore, that the future of history textbook research lies in sharing findings in a comprehensive database, and enabling visualization tools in order to see new dimensions, as well as reach a wider audience that includes teachers and textbook writers. Many people would consider the rise of Wikipedia, Google Earth and digital textbooks a threat to agreed standards of history textbooks. But I believe from the perspective of history textbooks, they form an opportunity to increase cooperative and comparative research, and most importantly, they provide efficient ways to pool together existing knowledge. Regarding my own research theme, I would be very much interested in making my

database more accessible by providing translated entries through a Google Translate-like software. The non-Western History that I have categorized from the Dutch textbooks of the last 40 years could prove of great value when compared to textbooks from other European countries. Finally, when thinking about the impact of history textbook research, and the possibility for the field to become more relevant for historians and for textbook authors, I believe it is really important to increase the collaboration and visualization of textbook research results.

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TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS METHODS FOR THE LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF TEXTBOOK CONTENTS

Agnes Fischer-Dardai & László Kojanitz

The research performed in the spring of 2006 carried out a comprehensive analysis for the comparison of school textbooks in Hungary over the past 30 years. The experts involved in the work examined over a hundred textbooks from the 1970s to the present day. The main issue was to examine how textbooks have changed over the course of time. Do they reflect the social requirements that have changed in the meantime? Do they stimulate problem solving and social learning, and the practical application of the knowledge gained more than they did before? During their research the authors concluded that new analysis criteria and methods need to be developed. The goal is to explore whether the selection of content, the structuring, the wording and the related didactic apparatus provide adequate conditions for the acquisition of well-structured adaptive knowledge that can be easily recalled in task and problem situations.

I. Introduction

1.1 *The Aim of the Study*

The research commissioned by the Ministry of Education in the spring of 2006 carried out a comprehensive analysis for the comparison of school textbooks in Hungary over the past 30 years. The experts examined over a hundred textbooks from the 1970s to the present day. Textbooks appear as important public affairs for our society, both for the professional and for the general public opinion, since consecutive generations acquire a significant part of their knowledge from textbooks. It is not just the teachers using educational material during their teaching work, but the parents also come across textbooks day by day while following their children's progress. So the quality of textbooks is a widely disputed topic in Hungary. Questions are arising as to whether the current textbooks are suitable, whether they help the students in acquiring and structuring their knowledge in a proper way. Have textbooks changed over the course of time? Do they reflect the new social requirements? First of all, do they assist problem solving learning, social learning, the application of acquired knowledge, and to what extent are the students' viewpoints reflected in them?

In the project the research team examined how the content knowledge and the instruction methods have changed in primary school textbooks over the past 30 years in the subjects of literature, grammar, mathematics, history, chemistry, physics as well as nature and science (environment studies). During our work we explored the differences between the old and the new textbooks related to curriculum, content, professional terminology, didactic apparatus and quantity and level of difficulty of the study material included in them. Based on the results of these analyses we drew conclusions on how the changes can be assessed in terms of suitability for teaching and learning, and, focusing on that question, how they adapt to features of the children's age and learning abilities. Conclusions are supported by data and factual examples based on textbook analysis.

1.2 *Aspects of the Comparative Analysis*

Comparing and contrasting the old and the new textbooks we concentrated our attention on the following areas:

- *Thematic changes in the new textbooks*
 - the appearance of new topics
 - the structure of curriculum elements
 - the principles, consistency and proportionality of the arrangement of the curriculum
 - the structuring of the conceptual system
 - the shift of topics
 - between the different stages of education
 - between grades
 - content changes within topics
 - inclusion of life-related practical problems within the learning process
- *Changes in the quantitative and difficulty level of the study material within individual topics*
 - knowledge elements, technical terms
 - concepts, conceptual systems
 - theories
 - types of exercises
- *Changes in the language within individual topics*
 - exposition of the content
 - expressive wording

- quantity and frequency of scientific concepts and technical terms
- introduction of new concepts
- types of concept explanation (definition and description)
- exposition and explanation of technical terms
- *Changes in the didactic apparatus*
 - the application of accomplishments of psychology and cognitive psychology research (correspondence with age, consideration of rules of cognitive development)
 - differentiation between core and supplementary study material
 - learning aids
 - methodological tools for different disciplinary domains
 - motivation, interestingness
 - ensuring the opportunity for student activity
 - ensuring the opportunity for differentiation during the lesson
 - information apparatus (index – subject index, glossary, mini-encyclopaedia, bibliography etc.)
- *Changes in the illustrations and pictures*
 - quantity of illustrations
 - pedagogical functionality of illustrations
 - complexity and comprehensibility of maps, explanatory illustrations, diagrams etc.
 - correlations between visual appearance and learnability
- *Changes in questions and exercises*
 - quantity of questions and exercises
 - variety and types of questions and exercises
 - difficulty level of questions and exercises

1.3 Textbooks Included in the Study

We wanted to compare Hungarian textbooks from four different decades: 1970s, 1980s, 1990s and 2000s. Before 1990 textbook publishing was a state monopoly corresponding to the educational policy of the communist era. There was no alternative to these textbook series. Their use was obligatory in every primary school. In the same way, the one and only central curriculum was also compulsory for everyone. Therefore the textbooks of the 1970s and 1980s mean only two textbook series used before and after the central curriculum reform of 1978. Consequently, there was no question about which

textbooks to examine from among the textbooks of these decades. The situation was completely different in the 1990s and in the case of the textbooks published after 2000.

The monopoly of syllabuses and textbooks prescribed as obligatory came to an end in school practice after the change of regime in 1990. Since 1993 the education law also declared the right to a free choice of textbooks and the conditions of the textbook market were also established in practice at the time. Especially by the competing publishers offering the teachers different textbook series to teach each subject. So, bearing in mind the aim of the comparison, the experts had to select textbook series from the choice on the market. They tried to find the textbook series which represented the characteristic features of textbooks and dominated the textbook market in the 1990s and the years after 2000.

The comparative analysis concentrated on the textbooks of the fifth to eighth grades of general school (ISCED 1-2). In this period the 10 to 15-year-old students start to learn disciplinary domains like physics and chemistry. The study covered the following subjects: Literature, Grammar, History, Mathematics, Chemistry, Physics, Nature and Science. The number of the textbooks the examination extended to depended on the number of years the children studied these subjects in the last four years of general school. This meant that 28 textbooks were analyzed per decade, and a total of 112 textbook prepared for analysis and evaluation.

1.4 Method of Analysis and its Measuring Apparatus

The analysis of the selected textbooks was carried out in accordance with a raster¹ consisting of seven analytical worksheets. Each textbook analyst worked with this raster (organised into Excel spreadsheets). This uniformed analysis apparatus ensured the exactness of the study and the comparability of the quantitative data. The analysts not only filled in the Excel spreadsheets but also gave a textual (qualitative) evaluation of the textbooks they examined, which provided an opportunity to explore the individual features and illustrative trends characteristic of each subject.

II. Information Data

The comparative examination extended to a large number of aspects. There were certain aspects that required the examination of a complete series (e.g. comparison of the change of topics). There were other aspects that only needed a comparison of the textbooks used in a certain grade or the chapters dealing with the same topics (e.g. suitability for teaching and learning, or the quantity of the study material).

In the first worksheet, all experts had to precisely record which textbook series, which textbooks and which topics had been selected for the examination of different aspects. This worksheet includes the bibliographical data of the textbooks, and the experts gave the textbooks an abbreviated reference number, to make the comparison easier in the data lines and in the textual reviews. The first number of the reference number usually refers to the grade, whereas the second refers to the chronological order: serial number 1 represents a textbook from the 1970s, whereas serial number 4 refers to textbooks that appeared after the year 2000.

III. Topics

In the case of the changes that occurred in the topics, the subject of the examination was the complete textbook series. First, the experts had to record quantitative data about the changes with the help of another worksheet. The changes of topics had to be interpreted in the light of the earliest textbook: Number of topics; Number of identical topics; Number of new topics; Number of topics left out; Number of units; Number of identical units; Number of new units; Number of units left out.

The textual analysis related to the comparison of topics extended to the following:

- Appearance of new topics: Is it justifiable? Does it follow the development of science? Does it reflect scientific debate? Does it take characteristics of the age group into consideration?
- Structure of the topics: How to apply the principles of proportionality, coherence, logical structuring, consistency etc?

- Changes within the topics: Does it mean only quantitative change (increase/decrease)? Is the content change justifiable? What are the new and missing content elements?
- Real life topics and problems: How often do real life problems appear in the textbook? Are there examples from the students' world based on their earlier experience? Does the textbook provide students with enough useful/applicable knowledge, tools and methods?

IV. Conditions for Learning

The evaluation of conditions for learning was based on one of the textbooks from each individual series. The textbooks were graded on the score of the overall picture that developed based on the details (1: inadequate, 2: weak, 3: average, 4: good, 5: excellent).

The grading and the textual analysis extended to the following:

- *Informative apparatus*: table of contents, preface, chapter introductory and closing text, registry (name, subject etc.), titles, captions, mini-encyclopaedia.
- *Motivation*: interesting, stimulating, intriguing, making use of the characteristics of childhood etc.
- *Opportunity for independent study*: differentiation between core- and supplementary material, keys to exercises, student self-checking, opportunity for algorithmic learning etc.
- *Student activity*: questions (reproductive and thought provoking), activating, realistic assignments, inclusion of feedback, encouragement for independent questions etc.
- *Design*: layout, colour, size, typography, illustrations, paper, aesthetics etc.
- *Clarity of the text*: difficulty level, lucidity, use of the correct conjunctions

Based on the summing up of the grading, the tendency of changes appears to be favourable. The series of textbooks published in the 1970s received lower grading than the current textbooks in the case of every subject and in practically all aspects.

Learnability	Informative apparatus	Motivation	Opportunity for independent study	Student activity	Design
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1970'

Literature	2	1	2	2	2
Grammar	3	1	3	2	2
History	4	3	2	3	2
Mathematics	2	3	3	4	3
Chemistry	2	2	4	4	4
Physics	4	4	4	4	3

1980'

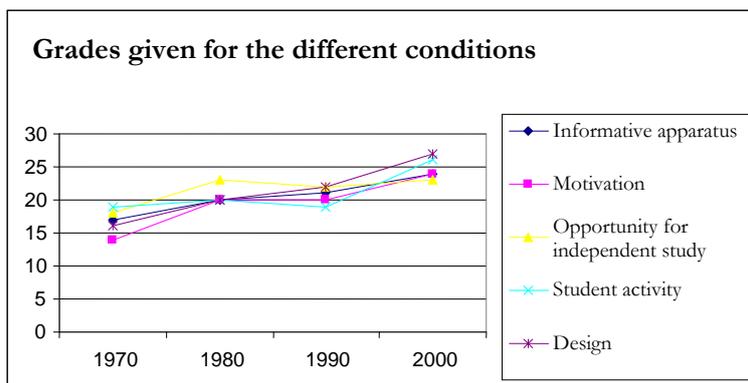
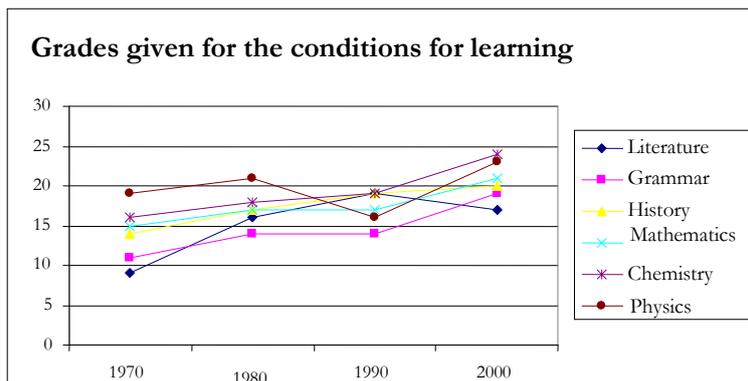
Literature 5/2	2	4	3	4	3
Grammar 5-6/2	3	3	4	1	3
History 7/2	5	3	3	3	3
Mathematics 5/2	2	3	4	4	4
Chemistry 8/2	4	3	4	4	3
Physics 7/2	4	4	5	4	4

1990'

Literature 5/3	3	4	4	4	4
Grammar 5-6/3	3	Between 3 and 4	4	1	3
History 7/3	5	3	3	4	4
Mathematics 5/3	3	3	4	3	4
Chemistry 8/3	4	4	4	3	4
Physics 7/3	3	3	3	4	3

2000'

Literature 5/4	3	3	4	4	$\frac{3}{4}$
Grammar 5-6/4	3	4	4	4	4
History 7/4	5	4	3	3	5
Mathematics 5/4	3	4	4	5	5
Chemistry 8/4	5	5	4	5	5
Physics 7/4	5	4	4	5	5



Based on the grades of the independently evaluating experts, an interesting development span became apparent. According to this the textbooks made for the introduction of the 1978 syllabus signified a considerable improvement in quality compared to previous textbooks. The burst of activity in the textbook market of the 1990s initially produced a deterioration rather than improvement. However, after the year 2000 the newer development produced by the textbook publishers brought perceptible improvements in quality.

Conditions for Teaching

The experts also chose the textbooks of one grade from individual series. Once again the textbooks were graded on the score of the overall picture that developed based on the details (1. inadequate, 2. weak, 3. average, 4. good, 5. excellent).

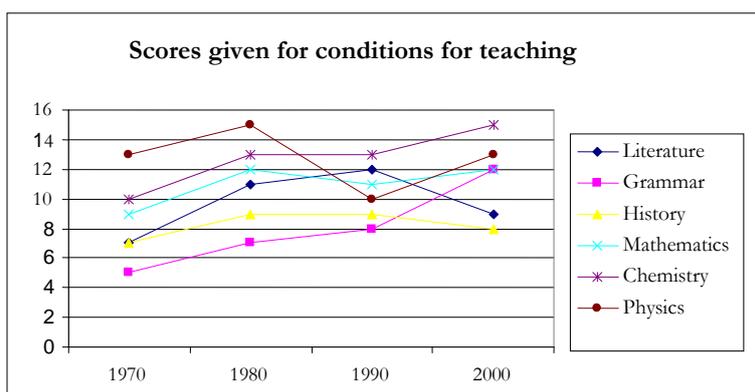
The grading and the textual analysis extended to the following:

- *Specialised scientific relevance*: scientific appropriateness, authenticity, up-to-date-ness, openness, accessibility not only to scientific knowledge but also to scientific methods, protection of the environment, training for environmentally conscious behaviour etc.
- *Pedagogic relevance*: suitability for the characteristics of the age group, structuring of the curriculum according to pedagogic aspects, its coherence, adequate reduction of scientific teaching material, its adequate transformation to suit the age group and the level of education, the functionality of illustrations.
- *Methodological relevance*: differential perspective, multi-perspective, controversial approach, problem sensitivity and encouragement to solve problems, encouragement for independent acquisition of knowledge, multimediality etc.

If we place the grades given by the experts next to each other, a positive development is clearly visible in the textbooks of the 1980s. After this, however, the experts indicated no real improvement either in the case of the textbooks of the 1990s or in those produced after 2000.

Teachability	Specialised scientific relevance	Pedagogic relevance	Methodological relevance
1970'			
Literature 5/1	3	2	2
Grammar 5/1	2	2	1
History 7/1	2	3	2
Mathematics 5/1	2	4	3
Chemistry 8/1	2	5	3
Physics 7/1	5	4	4

Teachability	Specialised scientific relevance	Pedagogic relevance	Methodological relevance
1980'			
Literature 5/2	4	4	3
Grammar 5-6/2	2	3	2
History 7/2	3	4	2
Mathematics 5/2	4	4	4
Chemistry 8/2	5	4	4
Physics 7/2	5	5	5
1990'			
Literature 5/3	4	4	4
Grammar 5-6/3	3	3	2
History 7/3	4	3	2
Mathematics 5/3	4	3	4
Chemistry 8/3	5	4	4
Physics 7/3	4	3	3
2000'			
Literature 5/4	3	3	3
Grammar 5-6/4	4	4	4
History 7/4	3	4	1
Mathematics 5/4b	4	4	4
Chemistry 8/4	5	5	5
Physics 7/4	5	4	4



Knowledge Elements

It has been a long-debated issue among teachers whether the amount of content knowledge in the textbooks has increased or decreased in the past 30-35 years. Our study has attempted to provide numerical data to assess this.

In textbook analysis it is a long-standing research method to compare the material of the same topic. We also applied this method to demonstrate the quantitative differences and tendencies. The number and list of the technical terms and other concrete knowledge elements that can be found in the textbook units related to the same topic provide a sound basis for comparison for the analysis.

Comparing the elements of knowledge, the experts carried out a detailed examination of individual topics in each subject. The data of this examination can be found in a worksheet too. For example, this is what a completed worksheet looks like in the case of history textbooks:

Title of topic	Pages	Technical terms divergent from each other	Technical terms	Foreign words	Dates	Geo-graphical names	Personal names
1970'							
Development of Capitalism in Hungary	34	95	150	0	25	21	17
1980'							
Development of Capitalism in Hungary	34	142	211	3	11	21	10
1990'							
The world and the happy years of peace	24	112	166	9	9	12	22
2000'							
The period of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy	30	128	173	3	9	21	22

The study and the analysis only extended to the core material but not the supplementary material and other informative apparatus. The experts regarded every special term and concept as a technical term, if they are not used in daily language, or are used with a completely

different meaning. The textual analysis regarding the teaching material extended to the following:

- Exposition of the content: the number of knowledge elements, their relationship to each other.
- Quantity and frequency of scientific concepts and technical terms.
- Quantity of foreign words.
- Concepts, concept systems, theories, models, patterns, structures.
- Types of concept explanation (definition and description), inductive, deductive explanation, exposition.
- Introduction of new concepts (reference, paraphrasing, association).

Illustrations

Illustrations are important components of textbooks. The quantity of illustrations, the variety of their types and content, their integration in the textual explanations, and their pedagogic functionality play a significant role in the suitability of textbooks for teaching and learning. Once again, the examination extended to one topic each. The experts had to collect the analytical data and perform the analysis relying on the data. The data regarding the illustrations were recorded in two types of table. The first table shows the data according to the type of illustration, while the other shows it according to the pedagogic function of the illustrations.

Chemistry	Illustration, pattern, formula	Graph, diagram	Picture, drawing	Map	Total
1970'	17	1	22	0	40
1980'	18	2	33	0	61
1990'	28	2	80	0	120
2000'	25	0	84	0	109

Chemistry	1970 ^a	1980	1990 ^a	2000 ^a
Piquing interest, motivation	16	8	34	22
Activating preliminary knowledge	0	0	0	0
Systematic arrangement	6	4	10	11
Comparison	6	8	12	13
Explanation of processes and problems	7	1	4	5
Demonstration of relations	6	4	1	3
Encouraging thought	0	5	3	1
Supporting the teaching of values	0	10	9	9
Molecular structure, spatial structure of molecules	0	10	21	15
Introducing common compounds	4	18	31	59
Total	45	68	125	138

The textual analysis regarding the illustrations extended to the following:

- Quantity of illustrations
- Pedagogic function of the illustrations: Piquing interest, motivation; Activating preliminary knowledge; Systematic arrangement; Comparison; Explanation of processes and problems; Demonstration of relations; Encouraging thought; Supporting the teaching of values
- Complexity and complicatedness of illustrations, patterns, maps
- Correlations between visual appearance and the conditions for learning.

Questions and Exercises

The questions and exercises in a textbook are some of the most important guiding tools of the work of both the teacher and the student. The type of textbook exercises may vary greatly in placing primary emphasis on independent work of students, on making the students think, on further thought or simple recital of what is described in the textbook. The pattern the textbook provides with this can have a significant effect on the work in classrooms and on the development of the students' learning habits.

Once again the comparative examination extended to one topic each. The experts tried to point out the characteristics of the

questions in textbooks and compare the textbooks with each other by means of the questions and exercises in certain textbook topics. The questions and exercises have been placed into four categories: questions assisting memorising, questions assisting deeper understanding, questions assisting the application of knowledge and questions assisting problem-solving thinking.

- Exercises assisting memorising: Recalling the acquired knowledge, organisation of facts and concepts, highlighting the main points.
- Exercises assisting deeper understanding: Analysing, synthesising, concretising, comparison, generalisation, organisation, deduction, evaluation, discovering connections and rules.
- Exercises assisting the application of knowledge: Independent work, solution of exercises.
- Exercises assisting problem-solving thinking: Defining the problem, selecting relevant information, selective recall of preliminary knowledge, finding the adequate solution, execution of the solution method, checking and evaluation of the solution.

The numerical results were recorded in tables. The example refers to nature and science textbooks.

Nature and Science	Assisting memorising	Assisting deeper understanding	Assisting application	Assisting problem solving	Total
1970'	22	8	11	6	47
1980'	17	21	18	10	66
1990'	22	16	4	5	47
2000'	35	27	28	10	100

The textual analysis regarding the questions and exercises extended to the following:

- Quantity of questions and exercises
- Pedagogic function of questions and exercises
- Types, variety, complexity and complicatedness of questions and exercises
- Difficulty level of questions and exercises.

Conclusions

A number of general deductions can be formulated based on the summative evaluation drawn from the detailed analyses, which can serve as a starting point for scientific and practical textbook development work.

Positive Changes

- The direct ideological content, Marxist/Socialist phraseology of textbooks has diminished, most spectacularly in the history and literature textbooks, but in the cases of the other subjects as well.
- Summarising the changes of the last decades, it can be declared that the canon of knowledge has changed in the majority of textbooks. Textbook authors followed the changes in sciences and asserted scientific results, most definitely in content but less so regarding scientific methods. Many examples demonstrated the scientific paradigm shift that occurred in their field of science (literature, grammar, history, chemistry, mathematics) and the intention to change that occurred in its wake, and also the negative phenomenon that this fact overburdened the textbooks regarding their content (interestingly enough particularly in the 1990s textbooks) because the authors tried to squeeze as many knowledge elements in their textbooks as possible, which made the books overcrowded and dense.
- However, the methodological renewal of textbooks belatedly and irregularly followed the positive changes regarding the content of teaching material. It was the textbook layout (colours, forms, typography) that changed most spectacularly, but the change in methodological approach, which would facilitate learning and teaching, is still to be realised.
- The need for the students' involvement and creative participation in the learning process became part of the creative concept of textbook authors (obviously supported by the *National core curriculum* and the *framework curricula*). Elements of this intention are already visible but we cannot speak of a general breakthrough in attitude.
- According to the above, adaptation to the characteristics of the students' age is an important pedagogic aspect. Although its realisation is rather uneven, analysts were appreciative of all the solutions that serve this pedagogic principle. The experts welcomed all

references to this in the textbooks. This is why they sometimes even over-appreciated the significance of sporadic solutions.

- The textbooks consciously seek contact with daily life to assist the practical usage of knowledge. This is particularly so in the case of science subjects.
- An extremely positive change, particularly in the science textbooks, is the conscious and determined intent of textbook authors on health and environmental education.
- Varied and high-quality textbook design.

Shortcomings, Problems

- The demand for the assertion of the multi-perspective, controversial approach has gained ground in pedagogic thought, and the textbook analysts also expected it. However, they found few examples of its realisation.
- The same is true for problem solving, problem sensitive thinking as well. The experts (history, literature, chemistry) indicated that textbook authors offered 'ready knowledge', ready solutions, although students should be encouraged to build and construct their own knowledge at least through the questions and exercises. In any case, the demand has been formulated (Grammar): textbooks should not envision knowledge 'set in stone', but rather mobile/variable knowledge that can be learned with independent student work from this teaching material.
- Many textbooks lack motivation for independent interpretation, formulation of students' own opinion and work. According to the analyst of history textbooks, the textbooks lack this approach and most of them are still teacher centred. This observation is also valid for the textbooks of other subjects.
- There is very little sign of the practice of different forms of social learning (exercises to be carried out in group work, project topics, group presentations etc.).
- One of the great shortcomings of our textbooks is that the explanation is too heavy, turgid and difficult to digest. It is a general opinion (the only exception being the nature and science textbook for the 10-year-old age group) that textbooks are dense, crowded, 'miniature reference books' (chemistry). For the sake of completion, it must be mentioned that there appears to be some shift towards the

'less is more' approach, but it can still be declared that our textbooks continue to be overcrowded.

- The weakness and chance character of the information apparatus in the textbooks was expressed to be a general shortcoming. If the textbook authors considered their textbooks to be a kind of reference book, with the help of which the students would independently – although with the assistance of the teacher – perform their own acquisition of knowledge in accordance with their age group, then the information apparatus of the textbooks should be much richer, should be much more supportive of independent acquisition of knowledge.
- Concerning the history textbooks – as a special shortcoming – the dominance of topics of political history must be mentioned, even though there is some visible shift towards lifestyle and cultural history.

New Tasks that can be Formulated Based on the Study

Concerning the details a large number of differences can be seen between the contemporary textbooks and those of the 1970s. The factual content has become more up-to-date. The illustrations have become more frequent and more colourful, and the exercises have become slightly more interesting and motivating. However, if we compare the topics of the textbooks and the didactic components and inner structures of the chapters and units, the similarity between the old and the new books becomes apparent. There has been hardly any change in the last 30 years in the quantity and topics of the units forming the backbones of the history, chemistry or physics textbooks. And this is connected to the other characteristic feature, that the teaching and learning strategies conveyed by the majority of textbooks still largely reflect the learning conception of the 1980s.

Focussing on the students and learning, interpreting learning as a constructive student activity, however, raises new questions in connection with textbooks as well. What kind of effect does the textbook have on the students' idea of the world and on their understanding of the world? How does the students' way of thinking influence their learning? How can the role of the textbook be increased in the fields of the development of thinking and the acquisition of learning strategies and learning methods? Answering

these questions should bring forth a change of approach both in the development and the evaluation of textbooks.

The adaptation of effective teaching strategies and methods is still thwarted by the conception, very strongly present in daily practice, according to which if a student acquires the adequate quantity of knowledge, this knowledge will somehow, someday enable him to understand and apply the comprehensive principles, models and theories of that particular field of knowledge or science. 'Quantity one day will turn into quality', many textbook writers still believe today. However, this pedagogical belief is supported neither by theory nor practice.

It should be an important task of textbooks to give the teachers incentives and examples to follow more effective strategies, to concentrate on key concepts, connections and interpretation frameworks, which are important for understanding the essence within the available time, and make the children practice their adaptive application in different contexts again and again. With this, they would provide adequate content and time for the development of the students' intellectual abilities. In order to realise this, textbook evaluations and analyses will also have to pay more attention to the conditions of learning and application of intellectual junctions, connections carrying adaptive knowledge and interpretation frameworks. New analysis criteria and methods will have to be developed which will help to clearly and factually explore whether the choice of the content of the textbooks, their structuring, wording and the related didactic apparatus can jointly provide the adequate conditions for the acquisition of well structured adaptive knowledge that can be recalled easily in task and problem situations.

Participants in the study

Professional project leader: Dr. Agnes Fischer-Dardai (PhD, habil.; Pécs University, university lecturer) and László Kojanitz (National Textbook Publishing House, editor-in-chief)
Hungarian Language and Literature: Zoltán Kerber
Mathematics: Ödön Vancsó
History: Márta Szabó
Nature and Science: Ágnes Kaposiné Héger
Chemistry: Péter Sebő
Physics: Dr. László Szabadi

Notes

¹ The textbook analysis raster which forms the basis of the study was compiled by Dr. Ágnes Fischer-Dárdai.



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THE CHANGING FORM AND USE OF TEXTBOOKS IN THE HISTORY CLASSROOM IN THE 21st CENTURY: A VIEW FROM THE UK

Terry Haydn

Much recent research about history text books has focused on the content of the text books, the choices available, and the ways in which the text books present or examine the national past of the country concerned. Less attention has focused on the extent to which textbooks are used in history classrooms, and teachers' and pupils' views of the efficacy of history textbooks as a mode of instruction. As well as changes to the form of UK text books, developments in information and communications technology have provided options for history teachers in terms of the range of resources and pedagogical strategies available to them. The paper presents the findings of a study of text book use in the UK. The study suggests that history teachers in the UK have very different views and practices in terms of text book use, and that these are linked in many cases to their ideas about the use of new technology in the history classroom.

The Context of the Research

Textbooks have been an important component of the school curriculum for a long time. Davis makes the point that textbooks have been 'both important and ubiquitous in schools across many hundreds of years and they continue to be central to schools' curricula and instruction at almost all grade levels in almost all countries.¹ Crawford has argued that textbooks are still the dominant definition of the curriculum in schools,² a view reaffirmed as recently as 2010 by Repoussi and Tutiaux-Guillon, who argue that in most countries, text books are 'still the dominant translation of the curriculum on schools and they continue to constitute the most widely used resource for teaching and learning, despite the development of new media and educational technologies.'³

Particular importance has been attached to the role which history textbooks play in the education of young people. As Popp notes, 'History textbooks are considered to be of vital importance to everybody: the history education that is taught is often considered to be nothing less than "the future of the nation" and the identity of society itself.'⁴ There have been major public controversies relating to

the content of school history textbooks, extending far beyond the academy, and into the national press, television news programmes and internet campaigns.⁵

However, given the arrival in many classrooms of the DVD player, the data projector, access to the internet and presentation software such as PowerPoint, has the text book maintained its dominant position as a mode of instruction in the history classroom? History teachers in many developed countries now have a much wider range of options in terms of the modes and media at their disposal. How has this effected pedagogy in school history, and in particular, what influence has it had on the extent to which history teachers use text books, and the ways in which they make use of text books?

As well as considering the influence which the development of new technologies may have had on the use of history text books, the research also considered changes to the form and purpose of history text books in the UK over the past three decades. Much of the recent debate about history text books has focused on the content of the text books, the choices available to history teachers in different countries, and the ways in which the text books present or examine the national past of the country concerned.⁶ How should the story of the national past be presented to young people? How should text books deal with 'dark pages' or 'skeletons' of the national past? How should text books represent countries which have been 'traditional enemies' of the nation? Which elements of the national past should be included in history text books? These are important questions, but this paper suggests that they are not the only questions that are worth asking about text books given the way that both text books themselves, and the delivery or pedagogy of history education in classrooms have changed over the past few decades:

- In what ways (and why, and with what effect) have history text books changed in the UK over the past few decades?
- How much (and in what ways) do history teachers use text books?
- What are pupils' views on using history text books?

This paper presents the outcomes of a small, exploratory enquiry into these questions in the context of history education in UK schools.

Research Approach

In addition to taking into account relevant literature on history textbooks in the UK, a range of British history textbooks which have been published over the past three decades (over 50 in all) were examined, to look for patterns of continuity and change. The views and practice (relating to use of text books) of 39 history teachers were elicited from a combination of questionnaire and interview survey, and 27 student teachers were also surveyed, towards the end of their 36 week course of initial training, in order to explore the extent to which they had made use of text books in their school placements, the ways in which they had made use of text books, and the factors influencing their use of text books. The surveys were undertaken between May 2009 and June 2010. In addition, there was email correspondence with the commissioning editor of a major producer of history text books in the UK to ask about recent trends in text book sales, and with a series editor of UK history textbooks whose writing spans the past two decades; the period since the introduction of the National Curriculum for history, and a period which has seen further changes and developments in the format of history textbooks in the UK.

Changes in the Form and Purpose of History Text Books in the UK, 1970-2010

Until the 1980s, history textbooks in the UK (as in many other countries) generally told one story about the past. For pupils, history was a 'received' subject, and the teacher's job was to transmit a simple, uncontested version of the past to pupils so that they would have a mental map or framework of the past, as a body of knowledge and a source of orientation for understanding the country they lived in. The content of the history curriculum in schools was dominated by the political story of the national past, generally treated in a broadly positive and celebratory manner. Treatment of the past was also still redolent of the Victorian practice of using school history as a moral exemplar for young people. In the following extract, from the preface of one of his text books, R.J. Unstead, one of the best selling and influential history text book authors of the 1970s⁷ explains the rationale or approach to writing the text books: 'In the four books of *England* I have tried to describe simply the chief events and

personalities in England's history so that they will interest the reader and help him to understand how and why certain happenings have taken place. Also, at a time when it is fashionable in some quarters to belittle England's achievements in the past and to doubt her place in the future, I have tried to show that whereas England has often acted foolishly or badly, her history shows the persistence of ideals which good men have lived by since Alfred's (Alfred the Great) day. In this story it is the character of a people that comes through; I hope the reader will recognise this character and be glad.²⁸

This started to change in the 1980s with the increasing influence of what was termed 'New History', with an increase in the amount of attention paid to the development of pupils' understanding of history as a form of knowledge. Increasingly, textbooks included historical sources as well as the author's narrative presentation of the past. Attention was drawn to the relationship between sources and stories. The past was problematised and it was made explicit to pupils that more than one story might be fashioned from historical sources. In 1981, history didactic Peter Rogers argued that all UK history text books were basically flawed: 'If we now ask what is really wrong with history textbooks, the answer should be clear. It is that they normally fail, almost totally, to teach or even to notice, the procedural aspect of history.'²⁹

Although many of those in the field of history didactics were in favour of these developments, which gave greater emphasis to students' understanding of disciplinary aspects of the subject, not everyone agreed with these changes and many university historians were sceptical of changes in the form of school history. In the words of Aldrich, 'in their view, it was the job of the university historian to determine the historical record, and the job of the schoolteacher to receive such wisdom and present it in simplified form to school pupils.'³⁰

Another major change to the format of school textbooks stemmed from developments in printing and technology, which made it increasingly affordable to include pictures, cartoons and diagrams in textbooks and to include coloured photographs, cartoons, maps and diagrams. This made textbooks much more visually attractive. The balance between text and pictures (or what Barnes has termed 'the alphabet/icon ratio'³¹) changed radically in the 1980s to the extent that by the 1990s, there were no history text books for pupils at Key Stage 3 (age 11-14) which had even a single page that was just text:

every page had at least some pictures and / or cartoons / diagrams / maps. This had profound implications for the amount of extended reading that pupils had to do in history.

Another influence on the format of textbooks was the inception of the National Curriculum for history in 1991. Assessment of pupil progress was to be considered in three strands: the development of pupils' historical knowledge and understanding, the pupils' ability to understand and use sources, and the pupils' level of sophistication in understanding 'interpretations' in history. This change in the balance between progression being measured in terms of the augmentation of pupils' knowledge of the substantive past, and pupils' understanding of history as a discipline or form of knowledge, inevitably had an impact on the format of both text books and public examination papers, with much more emphasis on source evaluation.

Public examinations in history for students aged 16 also placed much more emphasis on students' ability to understand and critically assess historical sources: in some cases the percentage of marks to be awarded for essay work was reduced from 100 % to 10 %.¹² This also contributed to the emphasis on sources and exercises based on the ability to critically assess sources in UK history text books.

Thus, in spite of the introduction of more visually attractive text books, with images, maps, cartoons and colour, there was a price to be paid in terms of the quantity of text focusing on the narrative and explanation of the substantive past that could be 'squeezed in' alongside sources, graphics, and sourcework exercises. The format had moved towards what become termed as 'the dreaded two page spread'; with every topic reduced to two facing pages within the text book, and each two page segment split between (very brief and simplistic) basic factual information about the topic, some sources relating to the topic, some maps, diagrams or pictures, and some questions for the pupils to answer, usually focussed on the sources which had been chosen for the topic. In the words of one series editor and writer of current history text books:

'Decontextualised source evaluation, kids expected to comment without wider knowledge, "gobbetty" sources not situated in cumulative enquiry journeys or contextual knowledge, questions on reliability or utility which went nowhere, lack of narrative context and narrative energy, low expectations re extended writing, double page spread mentality, isolated tasks clumped together, "design a poster"

activity parked next to an “imagine you’re a reporter” activity, just random stuff plonked together.”¹³

It should be stressed that in the wake of this wave of ‘first generation’ National Curriculum text books, lessons were learned and changes were made. A major change in history education in UK schools over the past decade, both in text books and in lesson planning generally is the idea of planning around ‘enquiry questions’, where a historical event, topic, person or phenomenon is subjected to a particular question and then explored, often with a focus on a particular second order concept, such as ‘change’, ‘significance’, ‘interpretation’ or ‘cause’.¹⁴ There was often also an attempt to provide a blend of ‘depth’ of enquiry into a particular historical question, with an overview of how the question ‘fitted in’ to broader spans of history, so that pupils would be able to see the issue in a wider historical context.

It is important to understand one particular change in the ‘job to be done’ by history text books. It was no longer the function of the text book to simply inform students of the one, authoritative or definitive account of what happened in the past (“This is what happened [...]”). One of the key functions of the history textbook was to help students to develop an understanding of why accounts of the past might differ, and to provide them with the ability to critically appraise the validity of differing accounts. In the words of Lee and Ashby, History is a complex and sophisticated discipline, with its own procedures and standards designed to make true statements and valid claims about the past. Many stories are told, and they may contradict, compete with or complement each other, but this means that students should be equipped to deal with such relationships, not that any old story will do [...]. It is essential that students know something of the kind of claims made by historians and what those different kinds of claims rest on.¹⁵

This is of course in marked contrast to the function of history text books in other countries.¹⁶ Further changes to textbook design included the development of ‘specialised’ forms of text books: text books for less able pupils and more able pupils, text books about particular facets of history, such as migration or citizenship issues, ‘depth studies’ on particular topics, books entirely focused on ‘What is History?’, and ‘E-text books’ and CD-roms designed for presentation via a data projector or interactive whiteboard, rather than being given out for pupils to read.

Thus, there have been radical changes to both the form and purpose of history textbooks in the UK, occasioned by changes in ideas about what school history school is trying to achieve for young people, changes in production technology, the emphasis placed on source evaluation by the National Curriculum for history and in history examinations, and the availability of other options open to teachers due to the development of the video recorder, the data projector and classroom access to the internet.

Teachers' Use of Text Books

How much (and in what ways) do history teachers in the UK use text books? A combination of questionnaire and interview was used to elicit the views of practising history teachers on text book use. In all, the survey provided some insight into the practice of 37 history teachers, in terms of how much use they made of text books, and in what ways they used them. A smaller sub-set of (13) teachers who were Heads of Department, and therefore responsible for departmental budgets, provided information about the proportion of the departmental budget which was spent on text books, and what forms of text book were purchased. These teachers, who all had several years of teaching experience were also asked about the extent to which schemes of work, and overall planning for learning, was based around the text books used in the department. Finally, this group of 13 heads of department were asked whether they felt that text books had become more or less influential as a resource for history teaching over the past decade.

It was interesting to note that out of the 37 teachers, none made absolutely no use of text books, although ten of them estimated that they used text books in '10 % or less' of their lessons'. There were 18 out of 37 responses, just under half of the sample, which indicated that text books were used in under 50 % of lessons: 16 respondents estimated that they used textbooks in between 50-70 % of lessons, and only three respondents reported that they used text books in over 70 % of their lessons.

In terms of how text books were deployed in classrooms, it was apparent that there had been a move away from 'whole class' use of textbooks within lessons, other than for quite brief attention to particular sources, maps or diagrams, and even here, the availability of the photocopier, or the facility to 'cut and paste' extracts from text

books into PowerPoint presentations meant that often, whole sets of text books were not given out in lessons. Several respondents said that they did not feel that the use of text books to do 'reading round the class' was not a good use of curriculum time, given the limited amount of time allocated to history on the school timetable.¹⁷ Textbooks were regarded as useful for setting homework, to be used in 'cover' lessons where a non specialist teacher might be standing in for a history teacher who was absent, and as a source of ideas and resources for approaching particular historical topics. Some teachers reported that they were also useful when attention was focused on the development of pupils' ability to analyse historical sources, as the text book provided ready-made collections on particular topics, with particular purposes in mind. Others saw the text book as a good way of introducing a new topic to pupils, or of getting them to do independent research using textbooks as one of a range of resources. There were some experienced teachers who staunchly defended the use of text books, as the following testimony demonstrates:

'Yes, we do use text books quite a lot [...]. Apart from perhaps a new, young member of the department who is full of enthusiasm for whiteboard stuff and whizzy things on the projector. The rest of us all find textbooks helpful, as long as they are well chosen and used sensibly. There are now some excellent A level text books which get pupils working and reading outside the taught sessions. They are useful for homework, and they can be used to give pre-lesson homework so that pupils come in to the lesson better prepared, and discussions and group work go better because of that. It's also important that pupils have something to read [...] you've got to get them into reading and text books can be a way of leading them into reading longer pieces of work, moving beyond what the text book can give you, so that they realise that history is not made up of just short little extracts.' (Experienced teacher and Head of Department). Another experienced teacher pointed out that text books had become '*a bit of a change from the usual*', given the effect of data projectors on teachers' practice:

'We all use text books some of the time, even though we have data projectors in the room [...] they have some good collections of sources and some good activities. It can also stop teachers becoming over dependent on PowerPoint, which has become the new orthodoxy or default mode for history teachers' (Experienced teacher).

However, this support for the text book was not typical of the majority of responses. There were several responses which gave qualified support for the use of text books as a sort of 'fall-back' or emergency option, or for use as a small 'component' within a lesson, but there were also a number of responses which were very critical of text books as the following extracts indicate:

'I hardly ever use text books [...]. I worry that text book work turns pupils off the subject now that we have more vivid and exciting options with access to data projector and whiteboard. I really think that it's awful using text books [...]. I would just bin them or burn them [...]. I really would just have bonfire and destroy them [...] some of them are older than X (the head of department) [...] really would rather not have them in the department [...]. They do more harm than good [...]. I sometimes use them as a punishment if pupils have been messing around, I threaten them with text book work' (experienced teacher).

'We've got some old sets but to be honest, no one in the department uses them very much [...]. It's hard to get a really exciting lesson from a text book [...]. It's so much easier to get hold of more attractive and exciting material from the internet and all the department are into ICT [...] we've got data projectors in all the classrooms so it's easy to incorporate music, images and digitised moving image extracts that are more vivid [...] make it easier to bring the subject alive [...]. Also, we are very keen to try and use more active learning approaches with the pupils doing things[...]. Group work, presentations, role play and text books are quite limited in terms of setting up these activities[...]. We still use them occasionally, for instance, there might be some sources or particular images that are usable within a group activity or as part of an enquiry activity – to add to a box full of other resources. We don't buy whole sets, but we do buy single copies of things to look for ideas and use bits of but it's very expensive compared to getting things from the internet [...] there are loads of brilliant websites where you can get good resources for nothing' (experienced teacher and Head of Department).

'No one in the department uses them much and I hardly ever use them. We have got sets of text books that can be used and they are available to student teachers but some of them are getting quite old [...] we have discussed whether to get any of the newer text books but we are not sure about this given the cost and the fact that none of us are big text book users. I don't think I ever use any of the

exercises from text books, I used to use a particular source or scan a picture to use as a starter for the lesson, but now that we can get images so easily from the internet, even this use has disappeared. We have space on the school internet to put resources, including digital clips from Youtube, Teachernet etc, and this means that we are moving further and further away from textbooks as basic tools for classroom teaching. We haven't given them up altogether and there are still sections that you go back to occasionally because you have used them in the past and are familiar with the sources and what you will do with them, but overall, they have become marginalised over the past few years and I think that goes for everyone in the department, not just me' (experienced teacher and Head of Department).

What emerges is a very broad continuum, with some teachers and departments having moved almost entirely away from the use of text books, others retaining them, but in a less dominant mode than in previous years, and some continuing to use text books as a central element of their pedagogy. At one end of the spectrum, one teacher estimated that they used text books in nine out of ten of their lessons, at the other end of the continuum, one teacher estimated that they only used text books in one in twenty lessons, with the other teachers in the survey distributed fairly evenly between these two extremes.

A smaller group of (13) history teachers who were also Heads of Department, and who were therefore in charge of departmental budgets were asked about the extent to which departmental schemes of work were planned around the use of text books, what proportion of the annual budget was spent on text books, and what sort of text books were acquired (special books for low ability pupils, teachers' resource books to supplement the ordinary text book, CD roms and software for the interactive whiteboard etc). One head of department noted that parents were still generally keen for their child to have their own text book, available for study at home, and that this was the mark of 'a good school' in the eyes of parents (although not all schools permit text books to be taken home by students).

Only two heads of department reported that schemes of work were planned around the use of text books, with nine heads of department stating that text books played little or no part in designing schemes of work. The average 'spend' on text books was 43 %, when averaged out between the 13 departmental heads, and

figures varied from 0 % to 80 %. Nearly all of them had explored the use of variants on the standard text book for pupils, with more than half reporting that they had purchased CD-roms, 'e-notes' and other electronic forms of text book. One reported that the purchase of an 'e-book' for £ 50, with photocopying rights and the facility to upload the book onto the school's virtual learning environment, was considered to be a considerable economy compared to purchasing a full set of traditional texts, but others reported that investment in CD-rom versions of standard texts, and other variations on basic texts was actually quite expensive, often running to hundreds of pounds, and with licences which had to be renewed annually. Several teachers also pointed to the availability of resources which were 'free' to departments as long as they were part of the local arrangements for the broadband consortium, which schools could buy into, for access to a range of learning packages purchased by the local education authority. One head of department expressed concern about the recent practice of examining boards bringing out textbooks for particular exam specifications, with the possibility of giving a possible advantage in the examination, to departments purchasing those texts.

Some heads of department questioned future investment in text books, given the substantial cost of buying sets of textbooks, and the fact that many members of the department made little use of them, but there was a variety of practice here, and there was only one department which had made the decision not to purchase any textbooks.

When asked why text books might have become less influential, several teachers stressed the role of the data projector in reducing reliance on text books (the majority of classrooms in UK schools now have a data projector as a standard piece of equipment). The following two extracts illustrate this point:

'The big thing that has changed is the availability of data projectors [...] if you've got a data projector in the room, that becomes the dominant delivery tool [...] too much so sometimes [...] people have become heavily reliant on PowerPoint so text books are not used so much now [...] they actually have a slight novelty value these days' (experienced teacher).

'Increasingly I find that I rely on PowerPoint [...] if there is anything in a text book I just put it in with the PowerPoint or photocopy it and use it as a handout [...] it's quicker and it saves time

having to give out all the text books and counting them all in' (experienced teacher).

One further question was posed in the survey of heads of department; and that was whether they thought that text books had become more or less influential as a resource for history teachers over the past decade. Only one head of department thought that text books had become more important, two felt that the role of the text book had stayed about the same during this period, the other ten heads of department thought that textbooks had become less influential as a resource for history teaching.

Student Teachers' Use of Text Books

The survey elicited the views of 27 student teachers about their use of text books. As with the experienced teachers, they were invited to comment on the proportion of lessons in which they used text books and their views on the usefulness of text books. They were also asked to estimate the proportion of lessons in which they made use of the data projector, and whether they felt that access to the use of a data projector impacted on their use of text books.

As with the experienced teachers, there were wide variations in the use of text books; two student teachers reported using text books for at least some part of the lesson in around 80 % of their lessons, whilst at the other end of the spectrum, four students estimated that they only used text books in around 5 % of lessons, and a further four reported that they used text books in only 10 % of lessons. Averaged out over all responses, student teacher feedback suggested that text books were used in just under a third of lessons (32 %) overall.

Whereas use of text books varied considerably, feedback on the use of the data projector suggested that nearly all the students made extensive use of the data projector in their lessons, as the following examples indicate:

- 'Data projector – again (as with text books) 80 % – vary the amount of use in each lesson, use mainly for visual sources.'
- 'Data projector is used in every lesson and does replace text book use to an extent.'
- 'I use a data projector in every lesson and I think it makes me use text books less.'

- 'I have used a data projector in almost every lesson.'
- 'I use the data projector and interactive whiteboard in 100 % of lessons.'
- 'Because I usually projected images on the board I needed text books less.'
- 'I use a data projector in most lessons but it has not affected my use of text books.'
- 'I use a data projector 98 % of the time.'
- 'A disadvantage of my teaching is that I really couldn't live without my projector and every time it breaks, I panic.'

Student teachers' use of text books did not appear to vary substantially from that of more experienced teachers, with the possible exception of some student teachers reporting that simply reading through the text book gave them some ideas about how to structure a series of lessons on a particular historical topic. As with experienced teachers, there was a mixture of 'whole class' use of text books, where the full set of books would be given out, and particular sources focused on and discussed, and use of some of the pupil tasks suggested in the text book, and pre-lesson use of the text book, to adapt some elements of the text book into a teacher-prepared worksheet or set of tasks. One student made the point that although she only used textbooks in around 10 % of her lessons, 'I think textbooks are important and they have in fact informed a lot of my planning, even if not used in the lesson.'

As with the experienced teachers, several students also noted that text books often provided a convenient way of setting homework for pupils in schools where pupils were allowed to take the text books home with them (which was not the case in all schools).

Three respondents made the comment that text books were sometimes used as a threat, if the class refused to settle or were not behaving well.

There was a suggestion in several responses that student teachers used text books extensively in the early stages of their school placements, and then reduced their use of text books once their 'repertoire' of teaching approaches developed, as the following examples indicate:

'When you start as a student teacher, it's reassuring to have text books as a sort of crutch [...] it gives you a sort of foundation for a lesson [...]. Not having to start from a blank page [...] it at least gives

you one component for a lesson. An hour can seem like a long time when you start teaching and the text book gives you a start. As you build up a stock of resources, ideas, stuff from websites and so on, you find yourself using them less.' 'On first placement I used them about 80 % of the time, on second placement, hardly at all.'

There were some indications of text book use been seen as 'a bad thing' or 'pedagogically incorrect', in terms of ideas about good pedagogical practice, or in terms of departmental culture:

I only used text books in about 5 % of lessons because I felt they were looked down on as "the lazy option." "They are used a lot in my department. I think that is wrong because it limits the creativity of teachers.' 'If you don't know the topic too well I guess you fall back on the textbook, but we all know how dull they are.' 'I feel as though now, with the degree to which we use ICT, there is a pressure to create your own resources. By using text books in class, you could be seen as being lazy.'

It is important not to overstate the influence of departmental culture, as several responses (both from experienced and student teachers) suggested that there were major differences in the extent to which teachers used textbooks within departments as well as between departments. To a large degree, the extent to which text books are used in history lessons is left to the individual teacher to decide.

Although it was not asked explicitly as a direct question, the responses suggested very strongly that if student teachers were offered the option of working in classrooms with sets of textbooks, or classrooms equipped with data projectors, the vast majority of them would choose the latter.

Pupils and History Text Books

There is also some evidence from recent UK research to suggest that textbooks are not regarded as an interesting or effective way of learning about history by pupils themselves. One recent survey which attempted to find out what pupils enjoyed and did not enjoy about doing history at school, and what most helped them to learn reported no positive comments about text book use, with twenty five negative comments emerging from the study. The following examples are representative of pupil feedback on textbook use (in response to the question, 'What did you least enjoy about studying history this year?':

- ‘Answering questions out of the text book.’
- ‘Reading text books!’
- ‘Working from text books.’
- ‘Any written work from text books.’
- ‘Writing and working from text books.’¹⁸

A study of over 700 pupils across five high schools which attempted to develop insight into what factors either motivated or deterred students from engaging in learning also found that working from text books elicited over forty negative comments and no positive ones.¹⁹

Recent reports by the Office for Standards in Education have also been critical of teachers who are heavily dependent on the use of textbooks in their teaching, because of the perceived negative effects on pupil motivation and engagement in the subject.²⁰

My small scale and exploratory survey of the views and practice of (37) history teachers and (27) student teachers showed that many of them believed that working with text books had a negative effect on pupil motivation and engagement with the subject. The following examples are not unrepresentative of the sample as a whole:

- ‘I worry that text book work turns pupils off the subject.’
(Experienced teacher)
- ‘It’s hard to get a really exciting lesson from a text book.’
(Experienced teacher)
- ‘I assumed that using text books would “switch off” the students.’
(Student teacher)
- ‘I think pupils have a negative view of textbooks.’ (Student teacher)
- ‘Use of text books is frowned upon as potentially boring [...] putting pupils off the subject.’ (Student teacher).

Not all responses were negative however, and one experienced head of department mounted a spirited defence of text book use:

‘My daughter is studying history, and she says that if the teacher is being a bit boring, you can always read through one of the other chapters in the text book. I don’t agree with this idea that less good teachers use text books and really good teachers don’t. It’s about how skilfully textbooks are used, there are skills of judgement in terms of which bits to use, how to use them, how to integrate them with other resources.’²¹

This testimony makes the important point that text books are not *a priori* boring, and that much depends on how adroitly they are used. One common abuse of text books in the UK is the practice of student teachers using text books to do 'reading round the class', whereby pupils take it in turns to read a paragraph aloud from the text book to the rest of the class. Some student teachers have acknowledged to me that they use this as a way of 'getting through' the lesson, at a stage of their practice when they may not have developed a broad range of teaching approaches and strategies. Although I have rarely seen this teaching approach result in a riveting experience for pupils, it again depends on the skill with which the activity is carried out, and the length of time which is expended on it.

The History Textbook 'Market' in the UK

In addition to the comparatively small scale of this study, other cautionary notes might be added in terms of its reliability. As the comments of student teachers indicate, in terms of history education 'culture', the use of text books is often not considered to be fashionable, compared to 'active learning' approaches,²² and the use of new technology, such as classroom response systems, interactive whiteboards and digital media editing. In this climate, some teachers and student teachers may be tempted to understate the extent of their use of text books. In terms of history textbook sales and trends over the past five years, correspondence with the commissioning editor of a major UK history textbook company suggested that sales of history textbooks have not declined over the past five years: 'The trend in 2008 and 2009 was that more was being spent on history books than in 2006 and 2007 (because of simultaneous curriculum change at three levels) but in 2010 the market is reverting to its pre 2008 levels.' The same correspondence also pointed to a gradual move towards digital rather than text based resources:

'Digital resources generally are taking a bigger and bigger share of the educational resources market (around 10 % of book spending in the Educational Publishers Council market) [...]. However given the very good free material available for history the market for paid for digital resources is not very significant yet. However if you ask a cross section of history teachers if they expect to spend more on digital resources in the future than in the past they are more likely to say yes than no.'²³

There was some evidence to support Wojdon's suggestion²⁴ that some history departments are buying digital forms of textbook or support for textbooks, because of the pressure to be seen to be using new technology, but it is probably too early to make well substantiated claims about this at this moment in time. The question of whether history textbooks will wither or reinvent themselves for the digital age is another area of textbook use which might benefit from further study in the future.

Conclusions

It should be stressed that the UK is probably atypical in terms of text book use. There is an open market in text books, schools are free to choose whatever textbooks they prefer. Unlike many other countries, there has never been any requirement for official authorisation of text books in the UK.²⁵ Moreover, the UK government has been particularly supportive of the development of ICT use in classrooms, so the option of using the data projector, the internet, the interactive whiteboard and voting technology is probably more prevalent in the UK than some other countries.²⁶ The extent to which 'multi-perspectivity' and the existence of different stories about the past are stressed in curriculum documentation, with an emphasis on 'interpretation', 'enquiry', and 'significance' is also at odds with models of history teaching in many other countries.²⁷ As the comments of many of the teachers cited indicate, there is little of the reverence, status and importance attached to history textbooks that can be found in countries such as Greece and Japan.²⁸ Also, although the text book has been a dominant mode of pedagogy in history teaching over the past century, developments in new technology mean that this situation may be changing. Nicholls argues that 'In some places textbooks define the history curriculum, in others they are used as one source among several others. In some situations their function may be central, in others extremely marginal. In some contexts textbooks may have no function at all.'²⁹

One concern arising out of the study is the extent to which over-reliance on the use of text books and worksheets³⁰ may have been replaced by a 'new orthodoxy' in history classrooms, where all or most lessons are built around the use of PowerPoint presentations. It is worth mentioning that one head of department reported that pupils at his school had drawn up a petition to the head teacher, to

protest against what they considered to be excessive teacher use of PowerPoint.

Another important issue is the appropriate balance and connection between 'stories and sources' in history textbooks. Although many of the most recent history text books have moved away from 'death by sources' and 'the dreaded two page spread' on each topic, there is still the question of where pupils will learn the habits of concentration and perseverance to read extended texts (such as books) which are still at the heart of serious learning. Although there are now slightly longer sections of text in history textbooks, there are still very few pages which do not include pictures and diagrams. Old fashioned text books may not have been as visually attractive to students, but they did usually contain series of pages of dense text which required sustained concentration on the part of readers. How well do current history textbooks prepare students for the world of 'grown-up' reading? There is also some evidence to suggest that the heavy emphasis on critical analysis of sources and the development of students' understanding of second order historical concepts means that insufficient time and attention have given pupils a 'big picture' of the past.³¹ In the words of Shemilt, many pupils are left with 'bits and pieces of knowledge that add up to very little and fail to validly inform or even to connect with their perceptions of present realities.'³²

What other questions are worth asking about history text books? The overarching purpose of this paper is to suggest that as well as further research on ideological and political facets of history textbooks, there is room for further exploration of what might be termed pragmatic, functional and pedagogical aspects of history text book use, particularly in terms of the effect that history text books have on students' ideas about history, particularly in terms of students' understanding of the *relationship* between stories and sources.

To what extent do history text books provide the basis of pupils' knowledge and understanding of the national past? Research by Wineburg³³ and Seixas et al.³⁴ raises questions about the extent to which history text books provide the basis of learners' knowledge and understanding of the national past after they have left school. How is the historical consciousness of young people shaped in the 21st century, and what part do text books play in this? This is another

area where further international research in history education might be of interest.

Another comparatively unexplored avenue of history text book research (in the UK at least) relates to pupils' ideas about the comparative reliability of history text books, in relation to other sources of information about the past. A UK study on students' ideas about the comparative reliability of sources of information³⁵ revealed that students believed that text books were the most reliable source of information that they received. CD-roms and the Internet were regarded as the next most reliable sources of information, with teachers rated as less reliable than the above, but more reliable than television, radio and newspapers. Perhaps disconcertingly, these rankings were virtually identical for both 11 year old and 16 year old pupils; the experience of school history did not appear to have disturbed pupils' preconceptions about the comparative reliability of information from different sources.³⁶

The question of whether history text books should attempt to convey an authoritative version of the national past to students, or equip students to deal with the problem of there being different versions and stories about the national past remains a crucial issue. The accession of a conservative dominated government coalition in the UK has led for calls for a strengthening of the narrative of the national past as a body of knowledge to be transmitted to young people, and for a positive rendering of that past (for instance, the suggestion that the British Empire was 'a good thing' and is to be celebrated).³⁷ As Loewen has pointed out, there are some dangers in using history textbooks to portray a bowdlerised version of the national past, with skeletons and dark pages excised, particularly in societies where people have access to alternative and less varnished accounts of that past.³⁸ In the course of a recent school inspection, Michael Maddison, the Chief Inspector for History in England, asked a (primary school) pupil what he would do if he picked out a book from the library which disagreed with what he had learned from his history text book. 'Put it back', the pupil replied.³⁹ The interchange raises an important point about how history text books might help students to make sense of the past.

Notes

- ¹ Davis, O. L., Jr. (2006) 'Preface', in S. Foster & K. Crawford (eds) *What shall we tell the children? International perspectives on school history textbooks*, xi-xiv Information Age Publishing: Greenwich CT.
- ² Crawford, K. (2000) 'Researching the Ideological and Political Role of the History Textbook: Issues and Methods', *International Journal of Historical Learning Teaching and Research*, 1, 1-8.
- ³ Repoussi, M. & Tutiaux-Guillon, N. (2010) 'New Trends in History Textbook Research: Issues and Methodologies toward a School Historiography', *Journal of Educational Media, Memory and Society*, 2 (1), 154-70.
- ⁴ Popp, S. (2009) 'National Textbook Controversies in a Globalising World', *Yearbook ISHD 2008/9 (31/32)*, 109-122.
- ⁵ See, for example, Liakos, A. (2008/2009) 'History Wars – Notes from the Field', *Yearbook ISHD 2008/9 (31/32)*, 57-74, and Repoussi, M. (2009) 'National Textbook Controversies in a Globalising World', *Yearbook ISHD 2008/9 (31/32)*, 75-90.
- ⁶ Nash, G. & Crabtree, C. & Dunn, R. (2000), *History on Trial: Culture Wars and the Teaching of the Past*, New York: Vintage; Roberts, M. (ed) (2004), *After the Wall: History Teaching in Europe since 1989*, Hamburg: Körber – Stiftung; Foster, S. & Crawford, K. (2006), *International Perspectives on School Textbooks*, Greenwich CT: Information Age Publishing.
- ⁷ For very differing views on Unstead's influence, see Lang, S. (1990) 'Mr History: the Achievement of R. J. Unstead reconsidered', *Teaching History* 58, 24-6, and Purkis, S. (1980) 'The Unacceptable Face of History?', *Teaching History*, 26, 34-5.
- ⁸ Unstead, R. J. (1968), *The Rise of Great Britain*, London: A&C Black.
- ⁹ Rogers, P. (1981) 'Some Thoughts on Textbooks', *Teaching History*, 31, 28-30.
- ¹⁰ Aldrich, R. (1989) 'Class and Gender in the Study and Teaching of History in England in the Twentieth Century', *Historical Studies in Education*, 1 (1), 119-135.
- ¹¹ Barnes, S. (1996) 'The Educational Implications of the Computer: a Media Ecology Critique', *Atlantic Journal of communication*, 4 (2), 180-208.
- ¹² See Hake, C. & Haydn, T. (1995) 'Stories or Sources?', *Teaching History*, 78, 20-22, for further explanation of this point.
- ¹³ E-mail correspondence with series editor of UK history textbooks.
- ¹⁴ For a more detailed explanation of this approach, see Riley, M. (2000) 'Into the Key Stage 3 History Garden: Choosing and Planting your Enquiry Questions', *Teaching History*, 99, 8-13.
- ¹⁵ Lee, P. & Ashby, R. (2000) 'Progression in Historical Understanding among Students Ages 7-14', in P. Stearns & P. Seixas & S. Wineburg (eds) *Knowing teaching and learning history: national and international perspectives*, 199-222, New York: New York University Press.
- ¹⁶ See, for example, Tutiaux-Guillon, N. (2007) 'French School History Confronts the Multicultural', in M. Grever & S. Stuurman, *Beyond the Canon: History for*

the Twenty-first Century, 173-187, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, Sato, M. (2009) *The History Textbook as Something which is Sacrosanct*, paper presented at the ISHD Conference, Braunschweig 16 September.

¹⁷ A recent survey by the Historical Association found that many high schools allocated less than an hour a week to history as a school subject (Historical Association, (2009), *Findings from the Historical Association Survey of Secondary History Teachers*, London: Historical Association).

¹⁸ Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2005), *Pupil Perceptions of History at Key Stage 3*, London: QCA.

¹⁹ Haydn, T. (2004) Why are pupils disaffected from learning?: <http://www.uea.ac.uk/~m242/nasc/cross/cman/quest.htm>

²⁰ Office for Standards in Education (2007) *History in the Balance*, London: Ofsted.

²¹ Interview with experienced head of department, London, 28 February 2009.

²² See Ian Dawson's website, <http://www.thinkinghistory.co.uk/>, for explanation and exemplification of 'Active Learning' approaches.

²³ E-mail correspondence.

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METHODS IN SWEDISH HISTORY TEXTBOOK RESEARCH

Anders Holmgren & Daniel Lindmark

The present article analyzes methodological awareness and use of methods in Swedish history textbook research, represented by five doctoral dissertations defended during the period 1997–2010. In a dissertation where textbook analysis comprises only a minor part of the study, methodological discussion tends to be limited. However, when textbook analysis is the primary focus, the most innovative methods are found and thus paid considerable attention. A number of methodological problems are identified, including inconsistencies between stated methodological choices and actual application. In general, the most recent textbook analyses contain more methodological discussion than earlier counterparts, a development that can be linked to the establishment of history didactics as a distinct research field.

In the course of the last four decades, the study of history textbooks has proven to be an important branch of Swedish research in history didactics (Schüllerqvist 2005; Lindmark 2010; Lindmark & Rönqvist, forthcoming). In 1969, political scientist and publicist Herbert Tingsten published a study of the nationalist tradition of Swedish textbooks, primarily as manifested in history teaching, and in 1972 historian Göran Andolf defended the first dissertation solely dedicated to history textbooks. Andolf's comprehensive study of textbooks and history teaching in Swedish upper secondary schools during the period 1820–1965 was followed by a number of dissertations and minor studies. The most recent dissertation in the field, defended by historian Vanja Ložic in 2010, analyses the relationship between the ethnic identification of students and their view of the subject of history. A section of his study addresses representations of migration history in history and civics textbooks.

Today, Swedish history textbook research is more vital and creative than ever before.¹ In addition to already published studies, ongoing research and dissertation projects are investigating textbooks from new perspectives and employing new methods. History textbook research includes studies of national and religious ideologies, representations of foreign countries and international conflicts, images of democracy, perspectives on ethnic minorities and

intercultural education, authorial intention and the use of educational media in the classroom, debates and conflicts, international revision efforts and their influence, and probing the boundary between textbook revision and textbook research.

Situated at the intersection of the humanities and the social sciences, the discipline of history didactics involves various methodological approaches. Methodological awareness is seldom evident in early textbook research, and methodological sophistication tends to vary with the disciplinary affiliation of the author. In general, scholars fostered in the humanities seem to be less inclined to apply advanced quantitative methods than researchers schooled in the social sciences. Only in exceptional cases have Swedish scholars invented new methods for researching history textbooks.

In the following we will discuss some of the methods applied in Swedish history textbook research, particularly in the most recently-defended dissertations. The aim is to chart the methodology and identify the strengths and weaknesses of methodological use and awareness. Our article takes a critical approach, meaning that problematic and controversial components will be paid special attention. We focus on two particular aspects of methodology, *awareness* and *actual use*. Is there an explicit discussion of the methods chosen in a given textbook analysis? Does the author reflect on and motive this choice? Which methods are actually applied in the analysis and to what extent is this done so adequately and consistently?²² However, we shall begin by remarking on dissertations featuring abbreviated, incidental studies of textbooks.

Incidental Textbook Analyses

Pedagogical texts, curricula and syllabi represent examples of artifacts defining conditions for teaching and learning in school (cf. Schüllerqvist 2005: 67; Selander 2003: 238). Until recently, a great deal of Swedish research in history didactics has been preoccupied with conditions for teaching history. Schüllerqvist (2005: 67-8) proposes that an important reason for this research interest could be that such empirical material allows the scholar to use traditional methods of text analysis. Since historians are so familiar with studying written documents, analyses of curricula and textbooks have not entailed any methodological challenges. Consequently, historians analyzing

textbooks and steering documents have seldom paid their methods any specific interest (cf. Andolf 1972).

However, lack of methodological awareness can also be found in more recent dissertations, especially when history textbook analysis makes up only a small part of the dissertation. This is the case with dissertations written by Sture Långström (1997) and Kenneth Nordgren (2006). In terms of methodology, they make use of more traditional textbook analysis. Långström's study places its main focus on the 'voice of the author'. In order to identify the various voices, Långström conducts interviews with authors. When describing this method, he displays conspicuous methodological awareness by identifying and discussing a number of problems. However, when presenting his abbreviated textbook analysis he does not address any specific method. In his dissertation on the teaching and culture of history in multiethnic Sweden, Nordgren dedicates one chapter to history curricula and textbook studies. However, no explicit discussion of methods of history textbook analysis is to be found in his dissertation. The only methodological considerations addressed are restricted to aspects of selection, i.e. which textbooks have been chosen and which themes explored.³

Fortunately there are examples of dissertations featuring a restricted amount of textbook analysis that demonstrate a high degree of methodological awareness. This is the case in the most recent Swedish dissertation in the field of history didactics (Lozic 2010). Lozic's study focuses on the effect of history lessons on the students' perception of ethnic identification, where interviews with students, teachers and authors of history textbooks constitute the empirical base. However, Lozic devotes an entire chapter to a textual analysis of the image of migration processes in selected Swedish history and civics textbooks (Lozic 2010: 142-206). Lozic explicitly declares that his method for detecting this image is *critical discourse analysis* based on a post-structuralistic approach. In this concrete use of method, he elucidates discursive variations and even explains how these discourses frame stories about the past, more specially regarding migration processes in the textbooks. Consequently, Lozic displays a high degree of methodological awareness and his discourse analysis is applied in an adequate and consistent manner in the empirical analysis.

Representations of Foreign Countries in Textbooks

Historian Janne Holmén's (2006) dissertation is a systematic analysis of how the USA and Soviet Union have been represented in selected themes including 'peoples', 'economy' and 'distinguished personalities' in a vast number of history and social studies textbooks published in Sweden, Norway and Finland between 1930 and 2004. In brief, Holmén makes use of small state theory and poses questions concerning what impact the domestic foreign policy might have exercised on the contents of the textbooks. According to Holmén, the most significant result of his study is the revelation that textbooks quickly adjust to accommodate new international circumstances. These rapid revisions are not the result of censorship or government regulation, but rather the respective authors' sensitivity to changes in the political climate. Such flexibility stands in bold contrast to prevailing notions in textbook research about conspicuous continuity in the textbook genre. Only when it comes to early periods in history do the studied textbooks display a substantial degree of continuity.

Holmén's sources are presented chronologically, decade by decade, in tables difficult to survey. These tables take up a whopping 150 pages, more than half of the space dedicated to actual empirical analysis. In this 'casuistry', examples from the textbooks are listed not as quotations, but rather as brief summaries of the passages in question, each equipped with a reference to the book and page where the example can be found. The volume of the casuistry increases as the decades progress, from twelve pages of examples from the 1930s (Holmén 2006: 106-17) to more than thirty pages for each decade after 1970 (Holmén 2006: 196-227).

Methodological Awareness

Holmén defends his *casuistry method* as an integral part of the mode of presentation. He states that he wants his presentation to be clear, practical and succinct. At the same time he wants to provide the reader with an opportunity to check the sources, thus the voluminous tables. It is, however, doubtful that the abundance of tables actually contributes to clarity of presentation, though they certainly do provide links to the sources. In their crude and bulky form, the tables seem to be a legacy from the first stages of processing the sources. A

more sophisticated and convincing method of involving the sources in the analysis would have been preferred.

Holmén criticizes previous textbook research and identifies some methodological pitfalls. According to Holmén, one of these would be to set about verifying or falsifying the statements made in the textbooks and, in cases of claimed faultiness, establishing a supposedly more correct view. Such an approach would not be practicable, and the outcome would not lead to the fulfilment of the objective of the investigation, i.e. to identify traces of the selected countries' foreign policies in the texts. Holmén also challenges the use of positive and negative *tendencies* as analytical tools. He argues that quantitative analysis of vocabulary charged with subjective judgement fails to create a firm foundation for definitive conclusions. Readers will still judge the exact same text as characterized by positive, negative or neutral tendencies, depending on their personal perspectives. To avoid subjectivity, Holmén (2006: 41-2) suggests the use of a method that analyzes 'relative tendencies'. This method claims to avoid subjectivity by determining whether texts display a stronger positive or stronger negative tendency than other texts under investigation. Holmén states that his method fulfils the requirements of inter-subjectivity: each and every reader will reach the same conclusion. Consequently, by explicitly discussing and motivating his methods, Holmén demonstrates a high degree of methodological awareness.

Use of Methods

Despite his efforts at avoiding subjectivity, Holmén's dissertation contains many statements based on *absolute tendencies*, which can be found both in the tables and the analysis of the contents of the textbooks. In the following we provide some examples from the author's treatment of the textbooks of the 1930s (our italics).

- 'Still, the peoples of Russia had some *positive* sides' (Holmén 2006: 100).
- 'The Swedish textbooks made a few *positive* comments on various peoples' (101).
- 'In the Finnish textbooks, some *positive* traits were emphasized' (101).
- '[...] 'the Norwegian textbooks [...] are *positive* toward collectivization and industrialization' (102).

- ‘In Sweden, it was only in Ernst Carlsson’s textbooks that something *negative* appeared’ (103).
- ‘In all textbooks, George Washington is described in *very positive* terms [...]’ (103).
- ‘Benjamin Franklin is also constantly presented in *positive* terms’ (103).
- ‘The *positive* description of these prominent American figures was most likely linked to the ideas promoted in the syllabi about encouraging students to admire great historical personalities’ (103).
- ‘Swedish and Finnish textbooks are *distinctly negative* towards the Russian revolution.... However, Norwegian authors found *positive* traits in Soviet society’ (103).
- ‘The white Americans possess many *good* qualities. However, Carlsson, Rönnholm and Moberg consider the power of money a *negative* thing’ (109).
- ‘The white Americans possess many *good* qualities. Leiviskä and Sahlberg also mention *negative* points’ (109).
- ‘The Swedish textbooks are *utterly negative* toward the Russian revolution’ (117).
- ‘Finnish textbooks are also *very negative* toward the Soviet state’ (117).

Actually, statements based on absolute tendencies abound in Holmén’s dissertation. To be sure, the author does not stop there, but proceeds to analyze the textbooks in relation to one another. When discussing the 1930s, he draws the following conclusion: ‘It is in Swedish textbooks that the relative tendency of describing Peter the Great and Catherine II is most negative. In Finnish textbooks, Catherine in particular was given a more positive treatment’ (Holmén 2006: 104). In the quoted passage, Holmén certainly lives up to the methodological awareness he displayed in the initial presentation of his method of relative tendency. However, much of the remaining analysis of textbooks from the 1930s is characterized by statements based on absolute tendencies. This is also the case with the summary presentations in the tables, where he even makes use of sub-categories like ‘Positive Traits Sweden’ and ‘Positive Traits Finland’ (Holmén 2006: 109). It is hard to understand why Holmén has chosen to use absolute tendencies to such an extent, when his methodological credo avows to avoid such statements in favour of

relative tendencies. Such inconsistency makes Holmén's attempt at establishing a new method of textbook analysis appear both half-hearted and unconvincing. Consequently, Holmén fails to apply his ostensible method of 'relative tendency' in an adequate and consistent manner in his empirical analysis.

Historical Consciousness in Swedish Textbooks

One of the most recent dissertations in the field, defended by historian Niklas Ammert in 2008, is an analysis of historical consciousness in 20th century textbooks. The study aims at describing and analyzing if and how Swedish history textbooks intended for use in lower secondary school have articulated expressions that may encourage historical consciousness. Another purpose is to apply the theoretical concept of historical consciousness to tangible source materials. This specific concept is however heuristic, since according to Ammert statistical evidence cannot be used (2008: 229).

In the opening pages, Ammert (2008: 19) states that one of the prime research questions concerns 'whether authors through their textbooks articulate a historiography that can help develop what in today's terminology is called historical consciousness'. The formulation of the question deviates somewhat from the specific purpose the author proclaims on the same page, i.e. to identify and analyze whether and if so how history textbooks express historical consciousness (Ammert 2008: 19). Consequently, the main line of inquiry would appear to focus on what a textbook is capable of *promoting and developing* among its readers, i.e. historical consciousness, not whether it *expresses* same. This confusion is redoubled when under the heading of 'Material and Method', the author states that it is *how* the narrative expresses historical consciousness that is the focal point of his study (Ammert 2008: 73).

Chapter 2 contains the theoretical blueprint of Ammert's dissertation, which includes central concepts such as 'narrative', 'uses of history', 'multi-chronology', 'identity', 'values' and 'progression'. It provides a thorough exposition of the research field and the author's point of departure in the hermeneutic tradition. Ammert (2008: 23-80) furthermore addresses different ways of studying the manner in which historical consciousness manifests itself in a given text.

Methodological Awareness

In general, however, the advantages of Ammert's dissertation outweigh its disadvantages. It is methodologically innovative insofar as Ammert concretizes concepts and applies them to his sources in order to identify various perspectives characteristic of various epochs. One of his conclusions is that the content as such has changed only slightly, while presentation and interpretation have undergone considerable evolution. In the empirical section (Chapters 3-6), the connection between the pupils' own life-world and the past and future is a fruitful and productive point of departure even when it comes to values in textbooks and teaching. Values are central in historical texts and Ammert (2008: 220, 230) demonstrates that in textbooks, they can serve to bridge the gaps in historical time.

Chapter 6 provides the clearest example of methodological innovation as Ammert refers back to his opening thesis and deftly wields his theoretical tools in analyzing the collected data under the rubric, 'The Values of History and the History of Values'. It is also refreshing to note that he keeps his theoretical points of departure separate from his methodological and analytical ones, an otherwise all-too common misstep. Nicholls (2005: 33) asserts that the field of textbook research is under-philosophized and that many studies in the field are rich in descriptive detail but short on robust critical analysis, largely due to the fact that many textbook researchers have neglected to consider the philosophical underpinnings of their research. Consequently, by keeping the theoretical and methodological aspects apart, Ammert's reasoning demonstrates a sophisticated degree of methodological and theoretical awareness.

Use of Methods

Does Ammert succeed as well when it comes to bridging the gap between the concept of historical consciousness in textbooks and the same concept as a characteristic of the pupils for whom they are intended? Essentially, Ammert makes use of three categories of style or perspective in his analysis of the relationship between historical consciousness and value: 1. A *genetic* perspective, based on explaining the past by drawing a line forward to our own time; 2. A *genealogical* perspective, which begins with the present age and allows its values to help interpret the past and its predominant values; and 3. A *reflective*

perspective which uses the past to illuminate the manner in which the concerns of our era face the future (Ammert 2008: 188).

At one point, Ammert expands on his conception of historical consciousness in relation to the task at hand. In the definition of the concept historical consciousness, terms like *experience*, *connection*, *interpretation*, *understanding* and *perspective* are central. They show that the attitude to the different dimensions in time and the relationship between them is fundamental. In other words, there is a theoretical relationship between values and historical consciousness (Ammert 2008: 185). This is in line with the reasoning in Alvesson & Kärreman (2007: 1278) about the essentials of innovative theoretical work and its development. Ammert (2008: 184) states that this relationship has never previously been investigated, partly due to a lack of interpretation tools. Ammert asks whether historical consciousness serves as a precondition to understanding values, or if causality should be turned the other way round – do values stimulate thinking across time periods? In answering his own question, Ammert concludes that genetic and prospective perspectives meet genealogic perspectives that interpret the value of equality from today's point of view. Different ways of regarding women's rights in society underpin the relationship between the past and the present. Accordingly, values historicize relations between different dimensions of time (Ammert 2008: 227).

In summation, Ammert concludes that values must be explained in historical context. At the same time, the values of the past, present and future overlap. 'The function of the concept [of "historical consciousness"] is to generate questions and interpretations more than to offer unambiguous and one-dimensional answers to complex questions,' maintaining that his study has opened the door to a solid understanding of the concept of historical consciousness and proposed study instruments to stimulate and challenge historical thinking (Ammert 2008: 229).

While indeed relevant, this statement fails to solve the nagging problem of whether the theoretical tools or the history textbooks are the objects of research. Consequently, it would have facilitated if Ammert had paid more attention to this matter, preferably in a specific section of his dissertation.

Concluding Discussion

History textbook research in Sweden offers even more approaches than those analyzed in the present article. Therefore, it should be noted that the dissertations discussed are not representative of the research field as a whole. However limited, the data serves to identify problematic elements such as the lack of explicit methodological discussion in textbook analysis. We have also identified inconsistencies between stated methodological choices and their actual application. Another finding is that only in exceptional cases do the authors explicitly and thoroughly discuss and evaluate the methodological problems with which they have wrestled in their empirical analyses.

This lack of discussion might be linked to the fact that the dissertations in question have been presented at departments of history. All the authors are historians and the academic tradition of the discipline may explain why the authors pay relatively little attention to methodological discussion. Representing the major tool of the historian's craft, text analysis is seldom problematized in historical studies. In the dissertations of Långström and Nordgren, textbook analysis is subjected to no methodological discussion whatsoever. Perhaps this is due to the fact that it comprises such a small part of their efforts; while they discuss their interview methods as the main source of information, they appear to perceive their respective methods of textbook analysis so mainstream and unproblematic as to not warrant addressing.

We have however observed a definite trend toward increased methodological awareness over the years. The most recent textbook analyses contain more of methodological discussion than previous studies. This is evident in Lozic's dissertation, in which textbook analysis represents a minor part of the empirical body. This development can be linked to the establishment of history didactics as a more distinct academic discipline manifested in a growing number of scholars and doctoral candidates, research projects, networks, conferences and publications (Lindmark & Rönqvist, forthcoming).

Holmén and Ammert have developed new approaches in their dissertations. Holmén's use of the method 'relative tendency' is based in a critical discussion of the predominant use of 'absolute tendency'.

Unfortunately, Holmén's initially demonstrated methodological awareness does not manifest itself in his empirical analysis, where he instead makes frequent use of the criticized 'absolute tendency'. Consequently, new methods need not only to be justified in methodological discussion, but also need to be applied and thoroughly evaluated.

Despite some indistinctness concerning its object of study, Ammert's dissertation represents the most convincing and promising approach among the methodologically more innovative studies. In a heuristic manner, Ammert improves upon central theoretical concepts in relation to empirical textbook analysis, and consequently delivers theoretical contributions of value to both historians and didacticians. The advantage of this integration of conceptual, methodological and empirical work becomes especially evident in his analysis of the role of values in history teaching.

Innovative textbook research cannot be linked to any specific method. Furthermore, innovative methodological elements do not necessarily lead to new and interesting results. Innovative research is just as much about new theories and new questions as new methods. The more traditional dissertations presented in this article do not make use of innovative methods of data analysis, but represent nonetheless innovative approaches yielding interesting results, such as Långström's study of the ideas and intentions of textbook authors, which contributes to a deeper understanding of the genre. Holmén's interesting results about the rapid and flexible adjustment of textbooks to the changing political climate are totally independent of his new method of 'relative tendency'. Even the discrepancy between his initially demonstrated methodological awareness and actual use of the chosen method casts no doubt on his major empirical findings. Consequently, following our view that the *raison d'être* of research is to generate new knowledge, our conviction is that no method can be given priority *per se*. Instead, the choice of method must be dependent on research questions and theoretical considerations.

Notes

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¹In 2010, two conferences on history textbooks were held in Sweden, one national and one international: ‘Historieläroboken – I gränssnittet mellan kursplan och klassrum’ (History Textbooks Between Syllabus and Classroom), Malmö University College, 4–5 March, 2010; and ‘Researching History Textbooks and International Textbook Revision’, Umeå University, 18–19 May, 2010.

²The complete set of questions is presented in Appendix I.

³See Lindmark 2010 for a more comprehensive presentation of Nordgren’s dissertation.

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Appendix

Textbook Research Methodology – Set of Questions

Note: This set of questions draws from Larsson (2005)

Methodological Awareness	Use of Methods
Is there an explicit discussion of the methods used in textbook analysis?	Which methods are actually applied in the textbook analysis?
Does the author motivate the use of the chosen methods?	Are the methods applied in an adequate and consistent manner?
Does the author distinguish between methods of data acquisition and methods of data processing?	Is there an internal logic between the research questions, data acquisition and data analysis technique?
Does the author address questions of validity and reliability?	Can specific methodological problems be identified in the study?
Does the author discuss the pros and cons of using a specific method in relation to the research questions?	
Are methodological problems taken into account when data is analyzed?	
Does the author explicitly address other methodological problems?	

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EDUCATION POLICY FOR MINORITIES – NEW HISTORY TEXTBOOKS IN GREECE: EXCLUSION AND SUPPRESSION OF OTHERNESS

Panayotis Kimourtzis, Giorgos Kokkinos & Panayotis Gatsotis

This article comprises a contribution to the examination of three interlinked, mutually complementary issues: a) social and educational attitude towards otherness in Greece, particularly towards minorities, b) the relation of history to social justice, and c) educational policy regards otherness. For this purpose, the article is structured in two parts. The first part seeks to present basic theoretical and methodological assumptions, while the second part consists of an analysis of new school history textbooks in Greece. It becomes obvious that, regardless of the thematic broadening of the history curriculum, highly politicized Greek history textbooks are dominated by the nation-centered view. Still this view does not necessarily correspond to the needs of youth living in a global world and furthermore it does not correspond to the idea of a pluralistic historical consciousness. An essential assumption of the authors' approach is that a shift of school history axis can contribute, in a decisive way, to the fostering of an inclusive, comprehensive historical education and an intercultural historical consciousness, according to the logic of concentric circles (from local to global) and the logic of thematic adaptation on the basis of the needs of every target group. Therefore, unforced coexistence with dominant population may well be enriched by the experience of otherness (class, racial, ethnic, linguistic, religious), historical narrative of the nation-state and history of excluded or victimized groups.

History Textbooks and Otherness: Challenges for Educational Policy

Focusing on the Greek case shows that during the past twenty years, measures and policies have promoted the improvement of legal, political and cultural rights of minorities, as well as the advancement of their socio-economic conditions. In fact, EU membership played a role both in terms of socioeconomic support for the country's development, as well as in terms of a close cooperation with the European institutions as a 'mechanism' that prompts member states

to encourage tolerance and the implementation of anti-discriminatory measures.¹

An additional factor of relative progress is linked to the increasing presence of immigrants in Greece. Yet, there are still challenges. As throughout many parts of the world, and despite arguments emphasizing on tolerance of otherness, empirical evidence shows the existence of competitive relations and sometimes strain. During the last two decades, migration flows to Greece led to addressing immigrants as a rather 'manageable' group, in terms of labour and social order, as well as in terms of education. Hitherto, integration of 'others' definitely falls short, principally because all measures aim on improving 'others' social conditions, without endangering, however, a fundamental pre-decision: to keep them as a less educated stratum, ready to offer low-cost labour. Actually, in order to change the fate of these people, overall social attitude has to change: Greece has to take measures and think creatively. Through this type of thinking the society (and the economy) could become enriched as a result of integrating bilingual and trilingual new members. Also, how Greece could become culturally enriched in the course of trying to understand these peoples' history. In short, we need long-term and multilevel interventions. For minorities, in some extent, we can think in a similar way as for the case of immigrants.

Referring to xenophobia, J. Limbach² suggests that it is a sign that something has gone wrong with education.³ On the one hand, an increasingly diverse student body has been a vital asset, providing a plurality of voices insisting on the historical treatment of various traditions, and not only the national or the Western one. On the other hand, one might argue that such a disparate mixture makes it all the more imperative that students be exposed to standard single stories about their national tradition since history is designed to nationalize, while the history of minorities or the world history distracts from it and possibly subverts this task. In between, the two views get a third: School history contains a double aim: first, to introduce plurality and multi-perspectivity in the classroom. Second, to construct a common identity based on political unity, guided by the concept of 'constitutional patriotism'⁴ as well as its principles and values. As for the complexity of minority education, this is affected by several factors related to educational policy and school textbooks,

as well as family social-economic conditions. An educational policy taking into account the multicultural reality of today should take measures at every level of education. This policy needs to foster mutual respect and acceptance of cultural difference and at the same time it needs to contribute to the integration of students, who are in danger of becoming excluded, into school life.

Intercultural orientation is a fundamental component of a pluralistic historical-political culture. Though, for this claim, we have to develop a dialectic historical consciousness that de-essentializes nation-states by showing their historicity and their diversity and by placing this diversity at the same time as the unity of the universal community at its own center.

History does not render justice. History contributes to solidify the concept of 'social justice'. Moreover history supports social justice, it refines its concept, amplifies its content, studies it systematically in different social contexts and times, and finally, records its transformations and substantiates. There has to be an awareness that it is a concept requiring a never ending questioning, which readjusts according to social changes. These assumptions are essential in the present analysis, because they are related to fundamental issues of epistemological, methodological as well as moral-political nature.

It is fortunate, in the authors' opinion, that the dominant trend still assigns the science of history to comprehend and explain; not to render justice through a transfiguration of its methodological tools and conceptual categories into procrustean forms within the logic of criminal law (such as offender/victim, guilty/innocent, offender and instigator, conviction/punishment/acquittal). In the same spirit, the historian's task abstains from the activities of a headhunter, a specialist, a witness or a judge, even though there are historians undertaking and performing these tasks.

According to its commitments, the Greek state is obliged to respect linguistic and cultural difference within its territory, in spite of the 'threatening' possibility of minorities' cultural alertness which could cause either a 'political radicalism' or 'a secession movement' (political identities).⁵ As for the Framework Convention,⁶ this stipulates that states should guarantee and ensure the right of persons who belong to minorities (mainly ethnic) to express and develop their ethnic, cultural, linguistic and religious identity, establish and preserve

institutions and organizations, as well as their right of equality before the law in a free way.

The authors recognize that nowadays historical-traditional minority populations in Greece have opportunities to become – more or less – integrated into the Greek society, and thus do not express (openly, at least) separatist intentions. This analysis has focused on questions of minorities, identity, otherness, human rights, multiculturalism, and citizenship, as well as their relevance with educational policy. In this context, the authors express their views regarding the ongoing reform of school history textbooks in Greece, focusing on the question whether it allows a ‘just’ representation of the minorities’ voice, according to the principles of Intercultural Education. Within this context, cases of ‘unfortunate’ and rapid withdrawal of school history textbooks can be recalled as signs of previous unfinished or unsuccessful attempts to reform the history school subject. Part of this chain is a rather intense ‘history/culture war’ evidenced in two recent cases: at first with the Kokkinos et al high school (12th Grade) textbook in 2002,⁷ followed by the Repoussi et al elementary school (6th Grade) textbook in 2006-7.⁸

So, while the basic aim of this analysis is to shed light on how new history textbooks in Greece deal with the question of minorities, this actually leads to two further questions:

Firstly: Is the reform of school history textbook taking place in Greece over the last years related to respect for minorities – as a form of otherness –, as well as, a resulting abolition of the traditional ethnocentric non-inclusive and non-comprehensive discourses (or not)?

Secondly: Does educational policy (associated with history textbooks’ content, along with curriculums’ general aims, goals, guiding principles and fundamental concepts) provide for the non-exclusion of minorities in Greece?

Defining the Sampling Units: Which Books?

Regarding the questions raised above, our analysis was based on six textbooks, referred to as ‘sampling units’. These include 6th, 9th, and 12th grade history textbooks both student’s and teacher’s books,

which were in widespread use during the 2007-8 school year and are still common today.

They were chosen because of to the official curriculum, in which the history subject includes the 1830-1990's period during these grades; the period when the question of 'minorities within the Greek state' arises.⁹ In addition, these cover the field of General Education, which means that they support school subjects attended by all students. Because of that fact, findings can provide an interesting insight of the country's relevant educational policy, especially when taking into account that Greece is the only European country without a free market of state-approved history textbooks. Furthermore, Greece is the only European country where educators have no autonomy at all to select contents, teaching tools and approaches. Methodological, thematic or hermeneutic perspectives besides the state-approved ones are not allowed.

Table 1:

Sampling units – History textbooks under analysis

Student's books

Book 6a: Aktipis, D. & Velalidis, A. & Kaila, M. & Katsoulakos, Th. & Papagrigoriou, J. & Choreanthis, C. (writers, 1st edition in 1990) Katsoulakos, Th. & Kirkini, A. & Stamopoulou, M. (1997 revision) Melas, D. (instruction and supervision, 2007 edition), *In the Modern Years, History for the Sixth Grade*, Athens: O.P.T.B.

Book 9a: Louvi, E. & Xifaras, D. (2007 – 1st edition), *Modern and Contemporary History, 9th Grade*, Athens: O.P.T.B.

Book 12a: Koliopoulos, J. & Svolopoulos, C. & Chatzivasiliou, E. & Nimas, Th. & Scholinaki-Chelioti, Ch. (2007 – 1st edition), *History of the Modern and the Contemporary World (from 1815 until today), 12th Grade*, Athens: O.P.T.B.

Teacher's books

Book 6b: Aktipis, D. & Velalidis, A. & Kaila, M. & Katsoulakos, Th. & Papagrigoriou, J. & Choreanthis, C. (writers, 1st edition in 1990) Katsoulakos, Th. & Kirkini, A. & Stamopoulou, M. (1997 revision) Melas, D. (2007 instruction and supervision), *In the Modern Years, History for the Sixth Grade, Teacher's Book*, Athens: O.P.T.B.

Book 9b: Louvi, E. & Xifaras, D. (2007 – 1st edition), *Modern and Contemporary History, 9th Grade, Teacher's Book*, Athens: O.P.T.B.

Book 12b: Koliopoulos, J. & Svolopoulos, C. & Chatzivasiliou, E. & Nimas, Th. & Scholinaki-Chelioti, Ch. (2007 – 1st edition), *History of the Modern and the Contemporary World (from 1815 until today), 12th Grade, Teacher's Book*, Athens: O.P.T.B.

In addition, it should be noted that the above mentioned school history textbooks are not the only ones covering the period in question (1830-1990's) within Greek contemporary education. As for secondary education (more specifically grades 9-12), two more books should be mentioned (Table 2).

Table 2:

Textbooks used in the broader field of current Greek school historiography

Book I: Margaritis, G. & Azelis, A. & Andriotis, N. & Detorakis, Th. & Fotiadis, C. (2008 – 10th re-edition), *Issues of Contemporary Greek History, 12th Grade (Theoretical Direction)*, Athens: O.P.T.B.

Book II: Nistazopoulou-Pelekidou, M. & Kofos, E. & Aelianos, C. & Alexandris, A. & Kitromilidis, P. & Ioakimidis, P. & Chasiotis, J. & Fotiadis, C. (1999 – 1st edition), *Historical Questions: The Macedonian Question, The North Epirus Question and Greek-Albanian Relations, Greek-Turkish Relations, The Question of Cyprus, Greece and European Union, Hellenism of Diaspora, Hellenism of the Black Sea Coast; 11th Grade, Optional Subject*, Athens: O.P.T.B.

These were not included in the 'sampling units' of this analysis but, instead, were taken into account as part of the broader field of current Greek school historiography, because:

- Both books might be considered as 'outdated' and not as part of the ongoing textbook reform, since their first introduction in schools goes back to 1998 and 1999 respectively.
- Moreover, they are linked to non-compulsory courses for Greek students. The first (book I) supports a school subject belonging to the optional sub-field of the Theoretical Direction,¹⁰ which means that only one part of 12th Grade students attends the specific school subject. The second (book II) supports an optional school

subject, not related to the direction of students' studies. Most of the students opt for the school subject of Informatics, which, contrary to the history subject, doesn't include a written assessment at the end of the school year.

Nonetheless, when examining the previously mentioned books (in comparison with the 'sampling units') it emerges that both books lay emphasis on external relations issues and the Hellenic Diaspora, i.e. international relations of the Greek state and the fate of Hellenism outside Greek borders (with the exception of the first two chapters of book I). This observation is based on the number of pages addressing various topics (table 3). Moreover, it is something more than a coincidence that some of the writers of book II, although coming from different ideological backgrounds, have also served the Greek state as high-standing officials, reaffirming the traditional ties between political power and connoisseurship.¹¹

Table 3

Number of pages relating to the chapters of textbooks I and II

Note: The first number indicates the number of pages devoted to each chapter; the second one indicates the same figure as a percentage (%) of the total number of the book's pages.

Chapters of book I	Pages	...%
Greek Economy (19th & 20th century):	44	18,1%
Greek Political Parties 1821-1936:	53	21,8%
Sum 1:	97	39,9%
The Refugees' Problem in Greece 1821-1930:	53	21,8%
The Cretan Issue:	46	18,9%
Hellenism of the Black Sea Coast:	47	19,3%
Sum 2:	146	60,1%
Total Sum:	24	100%
Chapters of book II	Pages	...%
The Macedonian Issue:	61	31,0%
North-Epirus Issue and Greek-Albanian Relations:	22	11,2%
Greek-Turkish Relations:	36	18,3%
The Cyprus Issue:	23	11,7%
Greece and the European Union:	13	6,6%
Hellenism of Diaspora:	42	21,3%
Sum:	197	100%

Focus on external relations and the so-called ‘national issues’ appears to be a different point of view compared to the more complex content of school history textbooks used in the field of General Education. The latter deal with a broader spectrum of issues related to the areas world, economic, social (including arts and science), and internal politics history. This difference gives evidence of Greek state’s intentions as for its educational policy based on the history school subject. You might easily assume, taking into account what is explicitly mentioned in the foreword of book II (table 2),¹² that the – prevailing – ‘raison d’état’ is to officially, responsibly and accurately informing Greek students about some core issues of Greek diplomacy and their historical background such as the Macedonian issue, the Cyprus issue, Greek-Turkish relations etc., as well as to contribute to the preservation or strengthening of national memory related to collective traumas such as the Pontiac genocide or the 1922 Smyrna Catastrophe and the consequent enormous problem of refugees’ incorporation in the Greek society.

Research Methodology

A selective, combining, and complementary research methodology has been used in order to approach the questions set in this analysis in a holistic way.¹³ These six textbooks were analyzed by using a quantitative method (i.e. examining the relation between total number of pages and the number of pages on the issues in question in order to find the particular emphasis put on certain aspects of the topic). On the other hand, the qualitative analysis of chosen textbooks (‘sampling units’) concentrated on:

- defining the problem,
- clarifying the authors point of view and disciplinary pre-suppositions,
- setting up the limits of the sub-field of research,
- raising the research questions,
- investigating the meaning attributed to key-concepts relating to minorities, such as ‘Millet-Bai’ or ‘Vlachs’ (*hermeneutic analysis*),
- forming the categories of the subsequent content analysis.

Content analysis was applied to the textbook content in order to:

- focus on the existing text,
- locate the references included,
- determine their frequency or infrequency,
- identify their direction (positive, neutral, or negative).

Content analysis has been used to draw conclusions from the frequency or infrequency of ‘sampling units’ references¹⁴ to linguistic, religious, and ethnic minorities within the Greek state (1830-1990’s), as well as to Hellenism as a minority-group (mostly in the Ottoman Empire). In addition, according to the nature of references, they were marked as positive, negative or neutral. Furthermore, a twofold content analysis was used consisting of a) minorities in Greece and b) Greeks as a minority, considering the two aspects as the two faces of the same coin: identity in relation to otherness.

Finally, the qualitative approach helped to compare results and relate conclusions with recurrent themes of the Greek school historiography at different levels, such as:

- Other history school textbooks in use, apart from ‘sampling units’ (such as books I & II, as well as the one for Muslims’ education):
comparative content analysis
- Curriculum’s guidelines, which lay emphasis on one or another point of view. (a) *Discourse analysis* was used to attribute meaning to results by placing them within their supervising context and (b) *critical discourse analysis* to highlight the embedded ethnocentrism of the located references.

‘Minority Groups’: Key-Concept of the Analysis

According to the United Nations’ Thesaurus (a tool of the United Nations’ Documentation & Information Centre), ‘minority groups’ are ‘sectors of the society differing from the predominant section of a population in one or more characteristics, such as ethnic background, culture, language, religion etc’.¹⁵ Capotorti’s ‘minority’ definition for the UN refers to ‘a group numerically inferior to the rest of the population of a state, in a non-dominant position, whose members – being citizens of the state – possess ethnic, religious or linguistic characteristics differing from those of the rest of the

population and show, if only implicitly, a sense of solidarity, directed towards preserving their culture, traditions, religion or language'.¹⁶ Marilena Kopa¹⁷ notes that '[although] some states, like Bulgaria or Greece, exclusively use the term 'minority' in respect to groups officially recognized as such and protected by international treaties', [every minority is defined as] 'a non-dominant group of citizens within a state, who: (1) constitute a numerical minority with ethnic, religious or linguistic characteristics, different from those of the majority of the population; (2) have developed consciousness of a separate identity and the willingness to preserve it. Moreover, there is solidarity among the members of this group, they have the same collective will to survive, and they aim at the essential and legally secured equality of their rights with the majority.'

According to the view indicated by existent National Statistical Service of Greece data, only seven – very general – terms state the presence of minorities in Greece. Rozakis¹⁸ characteristically notes that the absence in census of specialized questions as for the populations religious or language preferences reflects the general intention to discourage such discussions about otherness in Greek society.

As presented in table 4, minority status of 'Vlachophones', 'Slavophones', and 'Armenians', despite being officially mentioned in the 1951 census, did not appear in subsequent census. Furthermore, there is no reference to Jehovah's 'martyrs', or to the Followers of the Old Calendar, the Sarakatsani nomads, and the Turkophone Pontians.

Table 4:

Size of minority groups in Greece according to census data

	1928	1940	1951
Vlachophones			39,855
Slavophones			41,017
Armenians			8,999
Muslims	126,017	141,090	112,665
Jews	72,791	67,661	6,325
Catholics	35,182	30,614	28,430
Protestants	9,003	6,349	7,034

Source: National Statistic Service of Greece

Yet the legally recognized status of minority in Greece is reserved for Muslim Greek citizens of Thrace. Moreover, Greece's policy for minorities in the past considered the 'Aromanians', the 'Albanian Greeks' and the 'Slavomacedonians' linguistic and cultural difference as non-Greekness or even anti-Hellenism and disobedience towards the state.¹⁹

Which are the Minorities in Greece?

In order to form the categories of the *content analysis*, and therefore to answer the question 'Which are the minorities in Greece from 1830 up to the 1990's?' three sources have been consulted:

- Scientific Historiography
- Social Anthropology
- The (Greek) Research Center for Minority Groups.²⁰

To clarify *theoretical assumptions*, the authors strongly support the view that the content of school history textbooks, as well as the teaching practice itself – including a productive use of the textbooks, should always take into account the latest developments in the field of historians historiography and more generally, the latest results of scientific research (without disregarding, however, special needs and competencies of young students, and working conditions at school).

Table 5

Minorities in Greece: comparing different points of view – qualitative approach

- System-A: System of categories based on the authors' historiographic research (regarding the period 1830-1990's)
- System-B: System of categories based on the data of the National Statistical Service of Greece (regarding the period 1928-1951)
- System-C: System of categories based on the references located in history school textbooks in use (regarding the period 1830-1990's)

System-A	System-B	System-C	
Armenians	Armenians		
Vlachs of Macedonia, Thessaly, and Epirus	'Vlachophones'	Vlachs	
Jews (mainly of Thessalonica)	Jews	Jews	
Evangelicals (Protestants of the Anglican Church)	'Protestants'		
Catholics, especially of Cyclades	Catholics		
Muslims of the Dodecanese	Muslims		
Muslims of Thessaly			
Muslims of Thessalonica			
Muslims of Western Thrace		Muslims of Western Thrace	
Muslims of Crete ('Turk Cretans')			
Pomaks of Thrace			
Roma, mainly in Western Thrace			
Cham Albanians of Epirus			
Slavophones, Slavomacedonians		'Slavophones'	Slavophones, Slavomacedonians
Arvanites (Albanian-speaking Greeks)			Arvanites (Albanian-speaking Greeks)
Turkophone Pontian (Christian Orthodox) refugees from Asia Minor			
Followers of the Old Calendar		Followers of the Old Calendar	
Jehovah's 'martyrs'			
Sarakatsani nomads			

So, as a result of this triple analysis (Scientific Historiography, Social Anthropology and Research Center for Minority Groups publications),²¹ and despite the fact that West Thrace Muslims are the only officially recognized minority,²² herewith, 15 cases are examined (table 5). More specifically they are examined according to their 'otherness' (in linguistic, religious, and ethnic terms), as well as in relation to the results of the content analysis.

A comparative approach shows that the authors' *research approach* is the most analytical (table 5). The viewpoint of the *Greek history school textbooks in use* is more selective (as in the case of the National Statistical Service) but more concrete, referring to specific time and places. References to minorities located in school history textbooks under question regards 6 out of 15 minorities (40 %). This might be attributed to the sort of historical discourse, including its nexus of norms, expediencies and multilayered aims, which prevail in the books under question.

According to frequency of occurrence (table 6), two main poles of attracting references to minority issues concern Jews and Muslims of Western Thrace (12 out of 19). References to other minorities are of a rather negligible quantity of the total number of pages in the six books examined here.

Table 6:

References to the minorities: Frequency of occurrence in 'sampling units'

Sampling	Book	Book	Book	Book	Book	Book	Sum
Number	277	198	187	158	253	241	1314
Total number of references to the minorities in the Greek state (1830-1990's):							
	6a: 1	6b: 0	9a: 3	9b: 5	12a: 5	12b: 5	Sum
Number of references to the minorities, excluding Jews and Muslims of Western Thrace:							
	6a: 0	6b: 0	9a: 0	9b: 2	12a: 2	12b: 3	Sum

In any case, having taken into account the number of references to all minorities in relation to the total number of pages, one might conclude that this is quite marginal. The same stands for previous Greek history school textbooks. In addition, it seems revealing that the huge wave of economic migrants (more than one million today) that entered the country as of the 1990's has been totally ignored in both 9th and 12th Grade (Books 9a and 12a) 'new' school history textbooks.

Therefore, one might conclude that the issue of minorities and otherness constitutes something less than a 'minority issue' in Greek school historiography. On the other hand, 'history of historians' has

treated the minority phenomenon much more broadly, but still not adequately.

Nature of References to Minorities in Current Greek School History Textbooks

According to the nature of references located in current Greek school history textbooks (table 7), only one was characterized as negative (i.e. Followers of the Old Calendar), while positive (mainly in the case of Jews) and neutral references (mainly in the case of Vlachs, Jews and Muslims of W. Thrace) clearly dominate.²³ This finding reaffirms the relative progress, which has taken place over the last decades, regarding the representation of the ‘other’ in history school textbooks. In fact, this could be seen as a result of Greece’s interaction with international institutions, such as:

- UNESCO²⁴
- Georg Eckert Institute²⁵
- COUNCIL OF EUROPE²⁶
- EuroClio²⁷
- The Center for Democracy and Reconciliation in Southeast Europe²⁸

As noted in Xochellis et al²⁹ ‘the neutral references constitute the overwhelming majority’, because ‘the non-coloured discourse [...] gives the impression to the reader that writers choose deliberately this style, in order to present a history according to, as far as possible, the propositions of the Pedagogy for Peace.’

Table 7

References to minorities: Nature of references in current (2007-8) Greek history school textbooks (students’ and teachers’ textbooks)

Note: positive reference (+), negative reference (-), neutral reference (#)

Minorities in Greece (1830-1990’s)	
1. Arvanites (Albanian-speaking Greeks)	1#
2. Armenians	0
3. Vlachs of Macedonia, Thessaly, and Epirus	3#, 1+
4. Jews (mainly of Thessalonica)	3#, 6+
5. Evangelicals (Protestants of the Anglican Church)	0
6. Jehovah’s “martyrs”	0

7. Catholics, especially of Cyclades	0
8.a. Muslims of the Dodecanese	0
8.b. Muslims of Thessaly	0
8.c. Muslims of Thessalonica	0
8.d. Muslims of Western Thrace	3#, 1+
8.e. Muslims of Crete ("Turk Cretans")	0
9. Followers of the Old Calendar	1-
10. Pomaks of Thrace	0
11. Sarakatsani nomads	0
12. Slavophones, Slavomacedonians	1#
13. Turkophone Pontian (Christian Orthodox) refugees from Asia Minor	0
14. Cham Albanians of Epirus	0
15. Gypsies and Roms, mainly in Western Thrace	0
SUM	11#, 8+, 1-

Discourse Analysis: Some Remarks

According to references in herewith-analyzed textbooks, it is clearly inferred that Muslims of Thrace are practically the only minority officially recognized (cf. book 6a, p. 222). Another reference (book 12b, pp. 100-101) to the same group (Muslims of Thrace) underlines their decision to request integration into the Greek state in 1918, because of the suppression they suffered from Bulgarians during the First World War.

As for the very few references to the Vlachs, these, in fact, aim to declare their Greek historical consciousness and identity and not in the least to recognize their minority status (cf. book 12a, p. 73; book 12b, pp. 71-72, 75).³⁰ Our intention here is not to dispute the Greekness of 'Vlachs'.³¹ To be more precise, the intention is to show that, in this (minority) case, controversial *Alter Pars* is absent from the book in question, once again due to the prevalence of a traditional ethnocentric and one-sided point of view, and in detriment to a multiperspective – multivocal mode of historical representation.³²

Remaining references to minorities seem incidental, i.e. the main purpose of their authors is to discuss about something else and not about the minority itself. Therefore regarding Jewish minority in Greece, we discovered that most references belong to the context of the Nazi 'Final Solution' (book 9a, p. 102; book 9b, p. 121). The rest emphasize the demographic and economic power of the Jewish

community in Thessalonica (book 9b, pp. 86, 87) in the context of the annexation of Macedonia by the Greek state after the Balkan Wars (1912-1913). This emphasis may be due to the writers' will:

- either to acknowledge the strength of the Jewish community in Thessalonica, well before the Nazi-era,
- or to stress the – propagated as tolerant and inclusive – policy of the Greek state authorities regarding the non-Greek population in the New Lands, annexed after the Balkan Wars (1912-1913).³³

Reference to Arvanites (the 'Albanian-speaking' Greeks) aims at showing the social contempt suffered by Asia Minor refugees (book 9b, p. 113) from the 'autochthonous' Arvanites who were, in reality, no more 'Greeks' than refugees from Asia Minor. An exception worth mentioning (still, just one, located in the teacher's, not in the student's, book) is the reference to Slavomacedonians satisfyingly presenting the complexity of the issue (book 12b, pp. 154-156).

Textbook References to Greek Diaspora

According to references to Greek Diaspora (Hellenism outside the borders of the state), a sufficient – but not excessive – number of references deal with Hellenism as a minority phenomenon, mainly within the territory of the Ottoman Empire. It appears that the number of references concerning Hellenism outside the state's borders (21) exceeds the number of references concerning minorities within the Greek state (17).

References concerning Hellenism outside the state's borders seem predominantly positive (16/21: 76,19 %), with the neutral ones reaching 23,81 % (5/21). This is due to the recurrent theme of representing Hellenism outside the borders either as a victim, mainly of Turkish atrocity, or as an economically and socially progressive part of the overall population of an area (Hellenism of the Ottoman Empire inarguably suffered, often unimaginable atrocities; but the victimization discourse partially simplifies a far more complex reality).

Both issues relate either to the ideology of irredentism, concerning the Greek habitants of the lands which were finally annexed by Greece, or to the reassuring, self-confident, image of Hellenism as a nation struggling for justice and progress through time.³⁴

Table 8:

Hellenism outside the borders of the Greek state (1930-1990's):
number and nature of references

Note: positive references (+), negative references (-), neutral references (#)

Greeks of Asia Minor (mostly from Ionia and Pontus)	8 (2#, 6+)
Hellenism of South Russia	1+
Hellenism of Northern Epirus	3+
Inclusive references	3+
Total	21 (5#, 16+)

Comparative Content Analysis: Comparing with a Case of Alternative Historiography

A recently published history textbook was examined in order to compare conclusions reached through the examination of this analysis of 'sampling units'. This book titled *New and Modern History (9th Grade)*. Athens: O.P.T.B. 2007 [*Νεότερη και Σύγχρονη Ιστορία – Γ' Γυμνασίου*. Αθήνα: Ο.Ε.Δ.Β.] is used in Muslims' Education and could be considered as a sample of Alternative Historiography, although under the state's auspices. The project was directed by Professors Anna Frangoudaki and Thalia Dragona (University of Athens), scientifically supervised by Professor Efi Avdela (University of Crete) and written by a numerous team of distinguished scientists, most of them active members of the teaching staff of Greek Universities.³⁵ Content Analysis regarding the above book, by using the same categories of research (that is minorities within the Greek state during the 1830-1990's period), led to the findings presented in Table 9.

Table 9:

References to minorities in Greece (1830-1990's) in the 9th grade History textbook written for the Muslims' education in Greece
references to minorities

- Jews of Thessalonica: One neutral reference (p. 152), in the context of defining the term 'Sepharadites'
- Jews of Greece (mainly of Thessalonica) during the Second World War: One neutral reference (p. 213), in the discourse regarding Nazi victims

- Jews of Thessalonica: One neutral reference (p. 154), in the discourse regarding the victims of the fire which burned the old city of Thessalonica in 1917
- Muslims of Thessalonica: One neutral reference (p. 154), in the discourse regarding the victims of the fire which burned the old city of Thessalonica in 1917
- Muslims of Western Thrace ('non-exchangeable' population according to the Treaty of Lausanne): One neutral reference (p. 162), in the context of mentioning the terms of the Treaty (1923)
- Slavomacedonians: One neutral reference (p. 152), in the context of defining the term.

Actually the points located in initial 'sampling units' examination, also reoccur in the above mentioned book:

- Direction of the references is, once again, neutral.
- References concern only three (3) of the fifteen (15) minorities presented in Table 5. The 'norm' of silence – in general terms – reemerges, as this reflects a delicate issue of Greek diplomacy.
- With the exception of one case, all other references are related to the minorities of Jews of Thessalonica and the Muslims of Western Thrace. The noteworthy exception concerns the Slavomacedonians.

The reproduction of the 'norm' is obviously explained if we take into account that the above mentioned book follows content guidelines issued for the same curriculum. This becomes obvious by the 'list of contents' in the beginning of the above mentioned book, and it is explicitly stated in an article written by the supervising scientists.³⁶

The discourse context of the above mentioned book (where the 2nd and 5th reference appear) is similar to the rest of the initially examined 'sampling units', that is:

- reference to Jews relates to Nazi's Final Solution, and
- reference to Muslims of Western Thrace relates to the provisions of the 1923 Lausanne Treaty.

Yet, there is no reference to the cultural particularities, the social structure, and the historical course of the same minorities. However, in contrast to the initial 'sampling units' (i.e. books: 6a, 6b, 9a, 9b, 12a, 12b), in the Muslims' Education textbook there is a definition of

the terms ‘Sepharadites’ and ‘Slavomacedonians’, while references to minorities – victims of the 1917 fire in Thessalonica – have also been located. In particular, the attempt to clarify the meaning of the two terms is an interesting difference, as the second term (‘Slavomacedonians’) was highly charged during the Post-War period in Greece because of their participation in Greek Civil War of 1946-1949 by the side of the defeated Communist Left.

Conclusions

Whereas some of the explicit teaching aims of history subject within the curriculum offer the chance of discourse on minorities, there are still other mediating factors and overriding priorities at the level of textbooks discouraging such references (namely, the overriding priorities are those set by the reproduction of the traditional Hellenocentric national narrative).³⁷ From this point of view, the ongoing textbook reform leaves the traditional ‘norm’ intact, that is, the ethnocentric non-inclusive and non-comprehensive discourse; and this leads to a negative answer to our overarching question, stated in the beginning of the text.

Careful consideration of the official stance of the Greek government regarding the external relations issue is found in Greek school historiography, old and new. The cited references were a very small amount of the total number of pages. Since Muslims of Western Thrace are the only legally recognized minority, this is probably the reason why a considerable number of the located references refer to them. For the most part, again, minorities are not necessarily included in Greek school historiography in spite of:

1. the fact that, at the same time, there is a strong inflow of immigrants³⁸ children at Greek schools, particularly at the level of the Primary Education; and
2. the fact that one of the general principles of the Compulsory Education’s Curriculum refers to ‘providing equal opportunities for learning to all pupils’. It is indeed stated that: ‘equal opportunities should be provided to all pupils and more importantly to those that belong to minority groups’.³⁹ From the authors’ point of view, this provision could be translated, in the case of school history textbooks, as an unrealized prompt to

include the very existence of minorities, as well as their particular voice, in their narratives.

Nevertheless, instead of treating ‘disturbing’ or ‘dangerous’ questions, such as the minority’s social, economic, and political status, or the national consciousness of its members, schoolbook’s authors focus on the increase of the Muslim minority population (book 6a, p. 222), in order:

- to contrast it with the radical decrease in population of the respective Greek-Orthodox minority in Turkey (remaining in Constantinople, and the islands of Imvros and Tenedos, according to the 1923 Lausanne Treaty,
- to assume and praise, indirectly, the comparatively tolerant policy of the Greek state.

References to minorities were all neutral or positive, except one, which underlined the persistence (even ‘stubbornness’) of the Followers of the Old Calendar. This actually reaffirms the relative improvement in the field of school historiography, which has taken place under the impact of the Pedagogy for Peace, as authors avoid overtly negative references to minority population.

To conclude, comparisons clearly showed that Greek school history basically *suppresses* the very existence of minorities, since it selectively introduces very few among several aspects of the minority phenomenon (which the history of historians has treated more broadly, but still not adequately). Therefore, one might support that, although education is regarded as an internal affairs’ issue, yet, addressing minority issues in history schoolbooks is still connected with ideas about the state’s ‘unity and security’. As a result of this approach, relevant policies have been, more or less, subject to this view. So, while a long term and comprehensive policy for minorities, along with co-existence with majority, needs to address a mixture of measures aiming to create appropriate social, economic, political, cultural and ideological conditions, Greece’s educational policy, more specifically, is challenged (a) to impose a change in notions and stereotypical thinking as indicated in ‘sensitive’ subjects of the educational curriculum, and moreover (b) to reflect the presence, history and culture of minorities in schoolbooks.

Notes

¹ Triandafyllidou, A. & Anagnostou, D. (2007) ‘Policy Brief: The Muslims of Western Thrace, Greece. Recommendations for Regional Development Strategies’, *Hellenic Foundation for European and Foreign Policy (ELLAMEP) prepared for the EUROREG Research Project, CT-2003-506019*.

² Limbach, J. (2004) ‘Reflection Group Initiated by the President of the European Commission and Coordinated by the Institute for Human Sciences: The Spiritual and Cultural Dimension of Europe’, *DG Research*, 31-33.

³ Banks, J. A. (1993) ‘Multicultural Education: Historical Development, Dimensions, and Practice’, *Review of Research in Education* 19, 3-49.

⁴ Barton, K. & Levstik, L. (2004), *Teaching History for the Common Good*, 25-44, Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. Publishers; Sternberger, D. (1990), *Verfassungspatriotismus*, Frankfurt a. M.: Insel Verlag; Habermas, J. (1999), *Between Facts and Norms. Contributions to a Discourse Theory of Law and Democracy*, translated by William Rehg: Massachusetts Institute of Technology 1999; Müller, J. W. (2010), *Constitutional Patriotism*, Princeton: Princeton University Press.

⁵ Tsitselikis, K. (1996), *To diethnes evropaike kathestos prostasias ton glossikon dikaionaton ton meionotiton kai i elliniki ennomi taxi* [The international European system for the protection of minority linguistic rights and the Greek law and order], Athens-Comotini: Sakoulas Editions.

⁶ The Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities was signed by Greece on 22 September 1997 but has not yet been ratified and therefore has not entered into force.

⁷ Kokkinos, G. (co-ordinator and responsible of the writers) & Alexaki, E. & Vatougiou, S. & Gatsotis, P. & Kavoura, T. & Kondogiorgi, E. & Kostoglou, A. O. & Marketos, S. & Papatheodorou, J. & Proussali, E. & Raptis, K. & Syriatou, A. (2002), *History of the Modern and Contemporary World, 12th Grade of General Education Comprehensive School*, Athens: O.P.T.B. [Κόκκινος, Γ. κ.ά. (2002) *Ιστορία του Νεώτερου και Σύγχρονου Κόσμου, Γ' Ενιαίου Λυκείου Γενικής Παιδείας*, Αθήνα: Ο.Ε.Δ.Β.].

⁸ Repoussi, M. et al (2006), *In the Modern and Contemporary Years, For the 6th Grade of Elementary School*, Athens: O.P.T.B. [Ρεπούση, Μαρία κ.ά. (2006), *Στα Νεότερα και Σύγχρονα Χρόνια, ΣΤ' Δημοτικού*, Αθήνα: Ο.Ε.Δ.Β.].

⁹ The minorities issue (linguistic, religious, ethnic) is examined, within a broad time framework, beginning in 1830, that is, the year of establishment of the Greek state, and ending in the 1990's, when the country's population facts changed dramatically due to the massive influx of economic migrants – largely from countries of the former real socialism.

¹⁰ The so-called ‘positive’ and ‘technological’ directions consist the other two.

¹¹ Evangelos Kofos was an expert of the Greek Ministry of Foreign Affairs, ambassador, and special counselor regarding Balkan questions. Konstantinos

Ailianos is a Former General Secretary of the Greek Ministry of Interior and Honorary Ambassador. Panagiotis Ioakimidis is Professor at the University of Athens and was an expert of the Service of European Communities in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

¹² 'The need to fully and responsibly inform about issues that are recently [1st edition, 1999] of great concern for our country's public opinion, led to the decision to include several of them in the school textbook of the optional history course in 11th Grade, written by well known Greek scientists and scholars' (Foreword in: Nystazopoulou-Pelekidou et al (1999 – 1st edition), *Historical Questions: The Macedonian Question, The North Epirus Question and Greek-Albanian Relations, Greek-Turkish Relations, The Question of Cyprus, Greece and European Union, Hellenism of Diaspora, Hellenism of the Black Sea Coast; 11th Grade, Optional Subject*, Athens: O.P.T.B.

¹³ From this point of view, one might speak of contingency analysis, which combines quantitative and qualitative approaches. Pingel, F. (1999), *UNESCO Guidebook on Textbook Research and Textbook Revision*, 38, Hannover: Verlag Hahnsche Buchhandlung.

¹⁴ With the term 'references' (including the immediate phrasal context shaping their meaning) this analysis points to 'themes' constituting 'recording units', 'carriers of information', and the 'basis of this analysis'. According to Holsti [Holsti, O. R. (1969), *Content Analysis for the Social Sciences and Humanities*, Reading / Mass.: Addison-Wesley] the 'theme' is the most appropriate recording unit in highlighting propaganda, dispositions, attitudes, values, and beliefs. The 'references' located in this analysis, in the form of written text, varied from a small sentence (stated as 'succinct references') to – exceptionally – a few paragraphs (mostly stated as 'inclusive references'). Here, all 'references' were recorded by a first indexer (Ch. Kourgiantakis) and cross-checked by a second one (P. Gatsotis).

¹⁵ http://www.unicri.it/documentation_centre/library/thesaurus/ (28.11.2010)

¹⁶ Capotorti, F. [Special Rapporteur of the Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities] (1979), *Study on the Rights of Persons Belonging to Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities*, U.N. Doc. E/CN.4/Sub.2/384/Rev.1, U.N. Sales No. E.78.XIV.1.

¹⁷ Kopa, M. (1997), *Minorities in Post-Communism Balkans; Policies of the Centre and Minorities' Responses*, 32, Athens: Nea Synora – Livanis. [Κοπά, Μ. (1997), *Οι μειονότητες στα μετα-κομμουνιστικά Βαλκάνια. Πολιτικές του κέντρου και μειονοτικές απαντήσεις*, Αθήνα: Νέα Σύνορα – Α.Α. Λιβάνης].

¹⁸ Rozakis, C. (1996) 'The International Protection of Minorities in Greece', in K. Featherstone & K. Ifantis (eds), *Greece in a Changing Europe. Between European Integration and Balkan Disintegration?* Manchester: Manchester University Press, p. 98

- ¹⁹ Kahl, Th. (2009), *Concerning the Identity of the Vlachs, National-Cultural Approaches of a Balkan Reality*, Athens: Vivliorama, p. 162 [Kahl, Th. (2009), *Για την ταυτότητα των Βλάχων. Εθνοπολιτισμικές προσεγγίσεις μιας βαλκανικής πραγματικότητας*, 162, Αθήνα: Βιβλιόραμα].
- ²⁰ <http://www.kemo.gr/index.php?sec=home> (13.6.2009)
- ²¹ Clogg, R. (2002), *Minorities in Greece. Aspects of a Plural Society*, London: Hurst and Company; Mavrogordatos, G. (2003) 'National Minorities', in Ch. Chatziiosif (ed), *History of Greece of the 20th century, vol. B2*, Athens: Vivliorama 2003, pp. 9-35 [Μαυρογορδάτος, Γ. (2003) «Οι εθνικές μειονότητες», στο: Χρήστος Χατζηιωσήφ (επιμέλεια), *Ιστορία της Ελλάδας του 20ού αιώνα, τ. Β2*, 9-35, Αθήνα: Βιβλιόραμα]; Mavrogordatos, G. (1983), *Stillborn Republic: Social Conditions and Party Strategies in Greece, 1922-1936*, Berkley; Mazower, M. (2006), *Salonica. City of Ghosts*. Athens [Mazower, Mark (2006), *Θεσσαλονίκη. Πόλη των φαντασμάτων. Χριστιανοί, Μουσουλμάνοι και Εβραίοι 1430-1950*, μτφρ. Κώστας Κουρεμένος, Αθήνα: Αλεξάνδρεια]; Veremis, Th. (2004), *Balkans from 19th to 21st century, Construction and Deconstruction of States*, Athens [Βερέμης, Θ. (2004), *Τα Βαλκάνια από τον 19ο ως τον 21ο αιώνα. Δόμηση και αποδόμηση κρατών*, Αθήνα: Πατάκης]; Vogli, E. (2007), 'Of Greek Descent'. *Nationality and Identity in the National State of Greeks (1821-1844)*, Iraklio [Βόγλη, Ε. (2007) «Έλληνες το γένος». *Η ιθαγένεια και η ταυτότητα στο εθνικό κράτος των Ελλήνων (1821-1844)*, Ηράκλειο: Πανεπιστημιακές Εκδόσεις Κρήτης]; Divani, L. (1999), *Greece and Minorities; The United Nations' System of International Protection*, Athens [Διβάνη, Λ. (1999), *Ελλάδα και μειονότητες. Το σύστημα διεθνούς προστασίας της Κοινωνίας των Εθνών*, Αθήνα: Καστανιώτης, 7^η έκδοση]; Kora (1997), note 17); Manolopoulou-Varvitsioti, C. (2008), *Minorities in Greece. The Third View*, Athens: Papazissis Publishers [Μανωλοπούλου-Βαρβιτσιώτη, Κ. (2008), *Μειονότητες στην Ελλάδα. Η Τρίτη Άποψη*, Αθήνα: Παπαζήσης]; Marantzidis, N. (2001), *Yaschaschin Millet; Long Live the Nation; Refugee, Occupation and Civil War; Ethnic Identity and Political Activity in the Turkophone Greek-Orthodox Habitants of Western Pont*, Iraklio [Μαραντζίδης, Ν. (2001), *Γιασασίν Μιλλέτ. Ζήτω το Έθνος. Προσφυγιά, Κατοχή και Εμφύλιος. Εθνοτική ταυτότητα και πολιτική συμπεριφορά στους Τουρκόφωνους Έλληνορθόδοξους του Δυτικού Πόντου*, Ηράκλειο: Πανεπιστημιακές Εκδόσεις Κρήτης]; Kostopoulos, T. (2008), *The Forbidden Language. State Suppression of the Slavish Dialects in Greek Macedonia*, Athens: Black List [Κωστόπουλος, Τ. (2000), *Η απαγορευμένη γλώσσα. Κρατική καταστολή των σλαβικών διαλέκτων στην ελληνική Μακεδονία*, Αθήνα: Μαύρη Λίστα]; Margaritis, G. (2005), *Undesirable Compatriots. Records about the Destruction of Minorities of Greece; Jews, Tsamides*, Athens: Vivliorama [Μαργαρίτης, Γ. (2005), *Ανεπιθύμητοι συμπατριώτες. Στοιχεία για την καταστροφή των μειονοτήτων της Ελλάδας. Εβραίοι, Τσάμηδες*, Αθήνα: Βιβλιόραμα]; Michailidis, J. (2003), *Removals of Slavophone Populations 1912-1930: The War of Statistics*, Athens [Μιχαηλίδης, Ι. (2003), *Μετακινήσεις Σλαβόφωνων πληθυσμών 1912-1930: Ο πόλεμος των στατιστικών*, Αθήνα: Κριτική – KEMO]; Trumbeta, S. (2001), *Constructing Identities for the Muslims of Thrace. The Example of Pomacs and Roma*,

Athens: KEMO [Τρουμπέτα, Σ. (2001), *Κατασκευάζοντας ταυτότητες για τους μουσουλμάνους της Θράκης. Το παράδειγμα των Πομάκων και των Τσιγγάνων*, Αθήνα: KEMO]; Christopoulos, D. (2002), *Otherness as a Power Relation. Aspects of Greek, Balkan and European Experience*, Athens [Χριστόπουλος, Δ. (2002), *Η ετερότητα ως σχέση εξουσίας. Όψεις της ελληνικής, βαλκανικής και ευρωπαϊκής εμπειρίας*, Αθήνα: Κριτική ΑΕ & KEMO].

²² The Greek authorities recognise only one minority in Greece, namely the 'Muslim' minority in Western Thrace, by virtue of the Lausanne Peace Treaty of 24 July 1923.

²³ Of the nine references to Jews, six presented them (including the Greek Jews) as victims of the Nazi's 'Final Solution', one as victim of the 'New Turks', and two covered the economic power of the Jewish community of Thessalonica after the Balkan Wars (1912-1913) and during the Inter-War period. One of the references in book 9a (p. 132) regards a photographic document showing Jews concentrated and humiliated by the Nazi troops in the Aristotle's square of Thessalonica. The victimization they suffer raises the observer's sympathy and this is the reason why the reference was recorded as 'positive'. The same picture is included in the 12th grade students' book (book 12a, p. 131). The repetition of the same pictorial or textual teaching material at different schoolbooks occurs very often in Greek school historiography, given to the spiral curriculum, which refocuses on the same historical period (but in different depth and breadth) at different grade-levels. This phenomenon doesn't relate exclusively with the Greek case.

²⁴ http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.phpURL_ID=15245&URL_DO=DO_TOPI C&URL_SECTION=201.html (18.6.2009). Cf. Pingel (1999), note 13.

²⁵ <http://www.gei.de/index.php?id=16&L=1> (8.6.2009).

²⁶ http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/historyteaching/default_EN.asp (18.6.2009).

²⁷ <http://www.euroclio.eu/joomla/index.php> (8.6.2009).

²⁸ <http://www.cdsee.org/> (8.6.2009).

²⁹ Xochellis, P. (2000) 'The Image of the 'Other' in the History School Textbooks of the Balkan Countries', in A. Kapsalis & K. Bonidis & A. Sipitanou (eds), *The Image of the 'Other'/Neighbor in the History School Textbooks of the Balkan Countries; Records of an International Conference, Thessaloniki 16-18 October 1998*, 67-93, Athens [Ξωχέλλης, Π. κ.ά. (2000) «Η εικόνα του "άλλου" στα σχολικά βιβλία ιστορίας των βαλκανικών χωρών», στο: Α. Καψάλης / Κ. Μπονίδης / Α. Σπητιάνου (επιμέλεια), *Η εικόνα του «Άλλου»/Γείτονα στα σχολικά βιβλία των Βαλκανικών χωρών. Πρακτικά διεθνούς συνεδρίου, Θεσσαλονίκη 16-18 Οκτωβρίου 1998*, 67-93, Αθήνα: Τυπωθήτω – Γιώργος Δαρδανός].

³⁰ According to official statistical data of the 1940 census, Vlachophones living in the Greek territory were 26,750, while according to the 1951 census they were 22,736. It is worth noting that the 1923 Treaty of Lausanne raises the number to

150,000, while today, according to data presented by Thede Kahl (2009), p. 18, cf. note 19) they are no more than 300,000, among whom only 100,000 are proficient speakers of the Vlach or Armanian language. Recommendation 1333 of the Council of Europe encourages Greece (among other countries) to protect the Aromanian-Vlach language as a minority language.

³¹ In regard to their national consciousness, the Vlachs (mostly until the end of World War II) are basically divided in a) Vlachs of Greek identity, b) Arvanitovlachoi or Albanian Vlachs, c) Romanian Vlachs, d) Vlachs self-recognized as a separate nation. Cf. Note 19 Kahl (2009) pp. 39-43). Sarakatsani, Hellenophone nomad stock-keepers, should not be confused or identified with the Vlachs cf. note 19 Kahl (2009), p 12. Moreover, ‘Aromanians of Greece reject their categorization as a minority and deny the public cultivation of their language. Aromanians of Greece are nationally self-defined as Greeks’. Cf. note 19 Kahl (2009), pp. 149-50).

³² For a more impartial approach of the issue, cf. Kahl, Th. (accessed on 14.6.2009) ‘Does the Aromanian [language] have a chance of survival? Some thoughts about the loss of language preservation’, 8 <http://www.kemo.gr/index.php?sec=show&item=129>.

³³ Here the term ‘propagated’ is used, because, in reality, the Greek state’s policy did not avert the creation in Thessalonica, of the ‘EEE’ organization (the three ‘E’: ‘Ethniki Enosis Ellas’: National Union [of] Greece), being the starting point of Greek fascism. The organization was created in 1927, on the initiative of refugees coming from Asia Minor – followers of Venizelos. This organization is accused for the setting on fire of the ‘Kampel’ Jewish quarter in Thessalonica, in June 1931 (Mavrogordatos, 2003: 18).

³⁴ One of the main conclusions of Frangoudaki, A. & Dragona, Th. (1997), *‘What’s our Fatherland?’ Ethnocentrism in Education*, Athens: Alexandria [Φραγκουδάκη, Α. / Δραγώνα, Θ. (1997), *‘Τι είν’ η πατρίδα μας;’ Εθνοκεντρισμός στην εκπαίδευση*, Αθήνα: Αλεξάνδρεια].

³⁵ The book has not been printed. It was accessed (16.12.2008) in its electronic form in: <http://www.museduc.gr/index.php?page=2&sub=123b>.

³⁶ Avdela, E. et al (2008) ‘New Ways of Approaching the Historical Past: The Teaching Material for the Subject of History in High School’ in Th. Dragona & A. Frangoudaki (eds), *Addition, not Deduction; Multiplication, not Division; the Reformative Intervention in the Education of Thrace’s Minority*, Athens, 277-87, [Αβδελά, Έ. κ.ά. (2008), «Νέοι τρόποι προσέγγισης στο ιστορικό παρελθόν: το εκπαιδευτικό υλικό για το μάθημα της ιστορίας στο γυμνάσιο», στο: Θ. Δραγώνα – Ά. Φραγκουδάκη (επιμέλεια), *Πρόσθεση, όχι αφαίρεση: πολλαπλασιασμός, όχι διαίρεση. Η μεταρροθμιστική παρέμβαση στην εκπαίδευση της μειονότητας της Θράκης*, 277-87, Αθήνα: Μεταίχμιο].

³⁷ Ethnocentrism – experientially and research-wise – represents the foundation of identity construction, as well as the basis of identity’s distinction from what is

each time conceived as Otherness. Ethnocentrism sets in motion forces, which trace and safeguard the borders between the in-group and the out-group. ‘The Greek national myth is based on the assumption of cultural, ethnic, religious, linguistic homogeneity and homogeneity of the country’s population. The assumption that “Greece is a nationally homogenous country” dominated public discourse of our time’ (Christopoulos, 2002: 144-5).

³⁸ The huge inflow of migrants in Greece during the two last decades is addressed only in Sociology textbooks.

³⁹ ‘A Cross Thematic Curriculum Framework, General Part, (section 2) General Principles of Education’, 12-13 (translated from the Official Gazette, issue B’, number 303/13-03-03 and issue B’, number 304/13-03-03 by members of the Pedagogical Institute main staff and teachers seconded to the Pedagogical Institute) http://www.pischools.gr/download/programs/depps/english/3rd_b.pdf (14.6.2009).

QUESTIONS ON THE COMPARATIVE METHOD OF EUROPEAN AND U.S. TEXTBOOKS: THE EXAMPLE OF THE COLD WAR AND THE BERLIN BLOCKADE

Brigitte Morand

The comparative approach offers a particularly rich prospect for the study of textbooks, which are very complex objects. At first glance, one would think that they are simply the result of political choice and values of the country in which they are produced. But they are also determined by the evolution of knowledge in History, and by epistemological and ideological considerations. This article deals with the conditions of the comparison of textbooks, and proposes an approach combining quantitative and qualitative methods. Using the example of the Berlin blockade, we also give some first results that lead to questioning the place and use of pictures in the history textbooks.

Textbooks are very complex objects. At first glance, one would think that they are simply the result of political choice and values of the country in which they are produced, and of course those are very important parameters, as curricula dictate their contents. But they are also determined by the evolution of knowledge in History, and by epistemological and ideological considerations. My previous work was about the representations of the Cold War in French history textbooks since the sixties, but I think it is necessary now to compare French textbooks with others from Eastern and Western European countries and with American ones. But we have to consider how the comparative analysis of textbooks can be possible, regarding their different contexts and conditions of production, and to propose a methodological approach, before presenting some first results.

1. History Textbooks Today, a Comparative Approach

1.1 *European and American Textbooks: Different Contexts, but a Trend towards Uniformity*

The national context of textbooks' production is of great importance in understanding their form and contents. The first consideration is the level of decision for the curriculum. There are various possibilities: The federal or centralised State through a powerful ministry

of education (France, Russia and former USSR), the Länder (Germany), State Departments of Education or School commissions (United States). Then, after the publication of the books, in most of these countries there is an approval procedure, although it is not the case in France. And in the end, if several books are explored, to find out who is responsible for the choice of the books: the school board or the teachers themselves? With all these different possibilities, one would think that it might be too difficult to compare these contexts, making impossible a comparative study. However, although they are very different, there is a trend towards a growing uniformity among the textbooks.

American publishers try to consider the decisions of the selection boards of the most populated States, so their books can fit different curricula. This can explain the thickness of the American history textbooks (Young, 1990:82). In Russia, most of the states don't have enough money to buy the books, as they should according to the law. Therefore parents or schools have to buy them, and as a result the market for textbooks is more open than expected (Erokhina and Shevyrev, 2006:87). In France, publishers try to fit the expectations of the teachers, who are in charge of the choice of textbooks. The French publishers guess that teachers want to find documents, pictures, texts which are familiar to them. The result is a great conformity and surprisingly very stable contents from edition to edition, in spite of the changes in the curriculum. In spite of differences among countries the textbooks are more similar than previously expected. In all the countries of this study, the textbooks during the last two decades tend to be more and more attractive, with more pictures and an attractive design.

In U.S. and French textbooks, it is interesting to notice that recent books present a similar pattern: the text of the lesson is on the left page, and sources (pictures and texts) are on the right page. Very often the chapter (or unit) begins with an opening page, in France even a double page. The reason for the increasing iconography (and consequently a decreasing place for the text of the lesson), is not only the improvement of printing techniques. Textbooks are economic products, published by firms whose aims are to make money, and the quality of the iconography is a selling factor. Moreover, in order to make history more attractive for students, textbooks are now widely illustrated with photos from the mass media, and very often they use sources from the news agencies (at least for the history of the

twentieth century). So we can consider textbooks as mass media and interesting sources for the study of social representations.

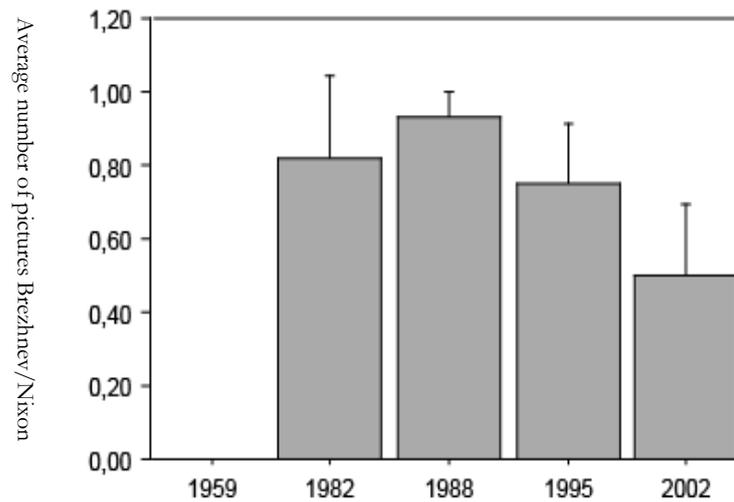
1.2 *Textbook Analysis, a Combined Quantitative and Qualitative Method*

This method was first tested for the purpose of my Ph. D. for the analysis of French books. In order to analyse the textbooks we must not only take into account the contents of the lesson, but also the forms and the means of the narrative: sources, iconography, place of the pictures, presentation of the pages. Therefore, I decided to adopt what Nicole Lucas called 'a diversified methodological approach' (Lucas 2001:60), combining quantitative and qualitative methods. Starting with an inductive method gives a view of what seems to be relevant. A first overview of the books helped at selecting and collecting large extracts related to the subject of the Cold War, which were classified in different items. Stored on digital files, they formed a consistent database which, although fragmented among the various items, provided a good overview of the textbooks. This makes it easier to manipulate and to compare data, to identify items that appear regularly in textbooks that can be quantitatively analysed. For some items I established their occurrence in the textbooks (i.e. mean number of items per textbook with standard deviation) and for some others their frequency or percentage of use among the books under consideration.

1.2.1 *An Example, the Treatment of the Washington Summit (1973) in French Textbooks*

This contribution, based on sixty books for the last level of French secondary school, analyses the representations of the Cold War in French textbooks since the sixties. The graph below shows the high occurrence of the photograph of Leonid Brezhnev and Richard Nixon during the Washington summit meeting in 1973 (vertically, the average number of pictures of the Washington summit in the books and horizontally, textbooks compiled by periods of curriculum).

Average number of the picture of the Washington summit in French upper secondary school textbooks:



Textbooks compiled by periods of curriculum

The photo does not appear before 1982, because of the stability of the curriculum, which did not change until 1982, and so the publishers did not change the contents of the books. In 1982 the study of the twentieth century after 1945 was introduced in the curriculum. Thereafter 0.8 pictures of the Washington summit per book is found in 1982 and 0.9 pictures per book in 1988 (several photos of this event could be found in the same book). In the most recent books (for the 2002 syllabus), this average number decreased, due to a more compressed vision of the Cold War in the syllabus, which did not give room to all the events. One can note the high variability of the occurrence among books, represented by the bar over the column (i.e. standard deviation).

The Washington summit is commonly illustrated in the textbooks with pictures showing the two leaders greeting the crowd from the balcony of the White House. The most frequent picture, that is very interesting for our purpose, shows Leonid Brezhnev smiling and whispering something to Richard Nixon. This is a very friendly attitude, and even ambiguous: is he going to kiss his partner? In one

of the books¹ this picture is in the front page of the chapter, called 'From Cold War to Détente', with this comment: 'the meeting of the Big Two is the culmination of détente and at the same time represents the joint domination of the United States and the Soviet Union over international affairs'. This comment is representative of the narrative of the Cold War in French textbooks. Here, the Cold War takes a prominent place because more than the simple description of facts and events, the purpose is in fact to reshape the image of France and Europe in a world ruled by the two great powers. The central representation of the Cold War in French textbooks is the 'condominium', a 'partage du monde' (the division of the world in two parts, with two leaders that agree together to rule the world for their own benefit). It begins with a foundation event, the Yalta Conference, the 'myth of the origins', according to Raymond Aron.² This 'Yalta myth' was first built by General de Gaulle, who was upset because France was not invited to participate in the conference, and worried about the future influence of France and Europe in the world. The myth was also widespread by journalists, such as Arthur Conte who wrote 'Yalta, the sharing of the world' in 1964. From then on, the meaning of Yalta in France was that the three big powers (Great Britain, the USSR and the USA) agreed to divide the world into spheres of influence without even consulting the rest of Europe (and above all, France). This interpretation is still very common in France, and sometimes people use the expression 'à Yalta', to say 'à not very satisfactory, but necessary sharing'. When in the eighties textbooks finally abandoned this 'Yalta myth', the myth of the division of the world was reincarnated in every event of the Cold War (the Suez crisis, the red telephone etc.). The new concepts introduced in history textbooks were also used to rename the 'Yalta myth' as the bipolar world, the 'condominium', the fight between democracy and totalitarianism.

The Washington summit, especially illustrated by the photo of Leonid Brezhnev and Richard Nixon, provides new evidence that international affairs are no longer Europe's business. To French eyes, this picture is very similar to the one the famous photo of Yalta, and a remake of the story. How do textbooks of other protagonists of the Cold War represent this period? Do European and American books share the same history? How do they build their own narrative? I will give a few initial results, with the example of the Berlin blockade.

2. The Airlift Plane, a 'lieu de mémoire' of the Cold War?

This work is based on 60 French textbooks, 57 German textbooks (of which 26 come from the former GDR) and 30 U.S. books, all of them for pupils of approximately the same age, between 15 and 17.³ Only French books have been quantified, but a quick survey revealed that in Germany, France and the United States, the same photo of the U.S. aircraft landing at Tempelhof Airport is ubiquitous. This famous photo was taken in 1948 by Henry Ries, a German reporter who fled the Nazis to America. It shows children watching a U.S. C-54 about to land at Tempelhof Airport in Berlin.⁴ As long as it is presented in almost every textbooks of these three countries, it seems that this picture belongs to what we can call a 'shared history'. But it doesn't tell exactly the same story.

2.1 *The German Textbooks and the 'Rosinenbombers'*

For German textbooks, the study consisted of identifying the pages on the period of the blockade, the event itself, and iconography proposed.⁵ Of course we must take into account the division until 1990, and compare the Western and Eastern textbooks. For the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG), the situation is rather complex since the educational system was not unified and depended on federal states (the system was extended to all Germany after reunification). Many different books were printed, a few of them were used in several Länder, and therefore can be considered representative of how the event was taught in classrooms. For the German Democratic Republic (GDR), the study is easier because the educational system (and the curriculum) was centralised. The number of textbooks was reduced, and they all gave the same official view of history.

The textbooks of the GDR said nothing of the Berlin blockade, not even to deny it. The textbooks, unchanged from the sixties to the eighties, insisted on the division of the country, and they gave a common scenario. Beginning with the creation of the dual-zone, the story went on with the Marshall Plan, then the 'imperialistic monetary reform' decided by the Western Conference in London, and finally the union of the three zones with its direct consequence, the division of Berlin and Germany. The blockade was mentioned in only one book in 1988, in which the event was presented as the product of Western propaganda.

In FRG and now in all German textbooks, the picture has been shown since the fifties. But since the eighties it is part of a narrative that emphasizes the role of American and English pilots, seen as heroes. In a book published in 2007⁶, a double page was entitled 'the monetary reform and the Berlin blockade'. On the left-hand page the monetary reform was illustrated by an extract of the 'Berliner Zeitung' of June 1949. The right-hand page was devoted to the blockade, illustrated by four pictures: a C54 landing, English food cans, an American airplane being unloaded, and a cartoon published in 1948 representing General Clay casually stepping over a belt of Soviet soldiers buckled with the Brandenburg Gate.

This is very representative of the way German textbooks usually tell the story: facts and anecdotes from the day-to-day life, clear presentation of ideological issues, iconic images (General Clay, the plane). In most of the textbooks the planes are called 'rosinenbombers', because just before landing pilots used to throw candies for the children. This anecdote, still very well-known to the German people, depicts the episode as a heroic action of sympathetic pilots. The purpose is to raise an affectionate feeling for the United States⁷.

2.2 The American Textbooks: A Technological Feat to Rescue the Free World

Since the fifties, the American textbooks insist on the technological prowess of the airlift. A book published in 1966 by Laidlaw Brothers⁸ offers a whole page of photographs (four photos, which were not very common by this time) on the episode of the blockade, focusing on technological performance: the inside of a ship, a truck being unloaded, a C4 on the tarmac at Tempelhof and of course, the famous picture of the children watching the landing ship, with the following commentary: 'German children gaze hopefully at a plane approaching a runway of the Tempelhof Airdrome. In this field, a U.S. pilot dropped candy to the children by way of handkerchief parachutes on each of his flights to Berlin.' The history of the candies is a way of raising the interest of students and of making the blockade more understandable. It also highlights American power, its organizational superiority, and it values the role of the United States as rescuers of the free world: 'More than two million Berliners were supplied with the necessities of life. They were also given a dramatic example of the determination of the West to resist the ruthlessness of the Soviets. The airlift lasted for about ten months. It cost the lives of a number of American airmen, but won the hearts of many

Germans'. American textbooks insist more on ideological issues than the German ones, but they emphasize the drama and the heroism of the pilots as well. In French textbooks, the picture of the plane takes another dimension.

2.3 *The French Textbooks: Europe under the American Wing*

The picture appeared in the eighties, at a very high frequency (more than 70 %) in the French textbooks, and remained very common thereafter (more than 60 % of the books published in 2002 shows it). Usually it is printed at the beginning of the Cold War chapter, just after the chapter about the World War II. The books emphasize the situation of Europe at the end of the war, showing ruins (economic, physical, and moral destructions). In 1983 the book published by Nathan⁹ depicted Europe as 'a field of ruins', not only material, but also 'moral and political ruin'.

In the French books the photograph of the plane is more a symbol of the decline of Europe after the Second World War rather than the symbol of Cold War. This picture is also the symbol of the American superpower. If French textbooks admire the technological prowess, they also highlight the enrichment of the United States during the war and suggest that the rescue of Berlin was perhaps not entirely disinterested: As some textbooks said: 'the war was not a disaster for everybody'.¹⁰

The picture of the plane expresses the ambivalence of how the United States is represented in the French textbooks. They recognise the importance of U.S. aid, but nevertheless they suggest that the result is an increasing control of Europe by the United States, and bears an implicit nostalgia for European power. This leads to the third meaning of the picture, the ideological dimension of the East-West conflict. The high frequency of the picture coincides with the generalization of the concept of totalitarianism in the French textbooks.

Conclusion

The comparative approach offers a particularly rich prospect for the study of textbooks. First, it opens an interesting field of research regarding the cultural dimension of these books. In a European perspective, it can also lead to promising studies on history and memory in the different countries. Is the airlift plane a 'lieu de

mémoire'? As we can see, although the picture is obviously shared by Europeans and Americans, it does not tell exactly the same story for everybody. The picture of the plane is also what I have called an 'image-type' of the Cold War¹¹. The growing uniformity of European and American textbooks can be seen as positive, as it leads to a growing sense of a shared history. Nevertheless it may reveal a problem, which is the second dimension of this study. For more than sixty years, French textbooks presented the same picture to illustrate the same event. These pictures carry stereotypes, sometimes stereotyped knowledge, sometime cultural stereotypes. In France, this can be reinforced with the increasing use of narrative in teaching history (as for example in the recent curriculum), in my opinion, at the expense of a critical and conceptual view of history. A future comparative analysis should study if these stereotypes are also shared.

Notes

¹ Gauthier, A. (dir.) (1991), *Histoire Terminales*, Paris: Bréal, 88. (86 dans l'édition de 1992, 90 en 1995).

² Raymond, A. (1997), *Les articles du Figaro*, Paris: Ed. de Fallois. T3, *La coexistence pacifique*, 550.

³ The French books come from the collection of CEDRHE, Centre d'Études de Documentation et de Recherche en Histoire de l'Éducation de l'IUFM de l'Académie de Montpellier - Université Montpellier 2. The German and American books were found at the Georg Eckert Institute in Braunschweig (Germany).

⁴ It can be seen on the New York Times website: <http://bintphotobooks.blogspot.com/2008/06/tempelhof-airport-berlin-airlift-of.html>.

⁵ Thanks to Ines Rilling, from the Georg-Eckert-Institute, and to Gilles Moutot, from the IUFM of Montpellier, for kindly helping me with the translation.

⁶ Brückner, D. & Focke, H. (2007), *Das waren Zeiten 2. Deutschland und die Welt nach 1871*, Bamberg: C.C. Buchner, 219.

⁷ This image seems to be deeply rooted in the memory of Germans from the former RFA. As I told them about my topic, people at the Georg Eckert Institute came spontaneously to tell me the story, or to evoke the memory of their textbooks.

⁸ *A World History and Cultures* (1966). The Story of Man's Achievements. Laidlaw Brothers, 600.

⁹ Marseille, J. (dir.) (1989), *Histoire terminales*, Nathan, 16-17.

¹⁰ Girard, L. (dir.) (1977), *Le monde contemporain, histoire et civilisations*, 286.

¹¹ Morand, B. (2008) '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', *Revue Tréma* 2008 (29), 49-62.

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**DIDACTIC EFFICIENCY ABOUT MULTIMEDIA
INSTRUCTION IN HISTORY:
EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH IN 1° ESO
(COMPULSORY SECONDARY EDUCATION)**

Cristòfol-A. Trepatal & Pilar Rivero

We present the results of an experimental research with over 300 high school students about the educational effectiveness of multimedia projections for learning history. In this research, we verified positive impacts on interest, attention, comprehension and retention of information, although there was no significant improvement in academic outcomes. We could also determine best practice examples and less effective methodologies.

Research in the multimedia learning sector is considered to be an emerging matter in the educational field (Wiley & Ash 2005). Multimedia learning is often defined as a combination of different communication channels (visual, auditory, etc.) and a diverse arrangement of information sorts (texts, images, animations, etc.). Furthermore, it includes among other things both the interactive teaching systems, which are operating online, and multimedia projections, which are integrated into the educational sessions. In the results of the research exposed below – considering a wider research group (Trepatal & Feliu 2007) – a controlled experiment about didactic efficiency in multimedially instructed history classes is taken into account. This study focused onto a collection of groups of 1° ESO (12-years old). It was aimed to identify and to analyze the impact of multimedia instruction in history teaching, mainly evaluating the students' learning processes. And additionally, in the second instance, it was focused on the teachers' motivation to incorporate such educational innovations, e.g. through projects linked to the recently gained knowledge about Social Science teaching by the ICT.

The final random test has been carried out up by five educational centers, with a total test panel of 300 students and eight teachers. The applied method combined quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis, including as well documentary tools: initial and final questionnaires which contained open and closed formulated question types as well as rating scales to fill in by pupils; final questionnaires for teachers; personal structured and semi-structured interviews with teachers and students; observation of the work processes dealing with

the created materials in class, while taking notes on the field-notebook aimed to evaluate the real benefit of the multimedia instruction tools in the classroom.

After we had given the complete freedom of using multimedia in an appropriate way for their classes to the teachers, four different types of using the tools had emerged. These four types also determine the four groups of the analyzed sample group. They are:

- Usage 1: Simultaneous use of multimedia presentations and pupils exercise books.
- Usage 2: Simultaneous use of multimedia presentations and pupils exercise books, but involvement of the multimedia tools into some teacher's material, followed by a quicker explanation pace.
- Usage 3: No simultaneous use of multimedia presentations and pupils exercise books. Presentation sessions, alternating with exercises after studying the topic in the textbook.
- Usage 4: The same as in usage 1, but not until the beginning of the following grade, after having worked on the topic in the previous grade, using the textbook.

Table 1:

Relevant cases: Pupils' distribution according to tools' usage

Case study	Pupils	Percentage	Teachers
Usage 1	134	44,7	5
Usage 2	55	18,3	1
Usage 3	24	8,0	1
Usage 4	87	29,0	1
Total	300	100,0	8

The material, which was used in the presentation, was designed by taking into consideration the different multimedia learning principles established by specialists: multimedia of spatial contiguity, of temporal contiguity, of coherence, of modality, of redundancy, of segmentation and of self-explanation (Adams 2006; Albalooshi & Alkhalifa 2002; Craig, Gholson & Driscoll 2002; Craig & Amernic 2006; Mayer 2001; 2005).

Some other criteria were brought into the discussion through some interviews with secondary education faculties:

- Open design for the concrete adaptation in the classroom context.
- Creation of a tool that allows teacher to follow his/her own explanation pace.
- Easy usage through basic tools: adaptation to teacher's abilities and to the technical conditions in the classroom.
- Involvement of process-oriented activities into informing treatment: historical maps, historical texts, ancient sources within these texts, working with documentary material, summarizing of information, written expressions, etc.
- Scientific update of contents.
- Brevity of audiovisual material: shortened documentaries or fragments of movies.
- Effects and animations, selected on its respective didactic potential (not on its technical capacity).

Concerning these quality criteria, a multimedia presentation about 'Roman world' was designed and tested in the classrooms during the years 2007/2008. The results confirm some former studies about multimedia learning, efficiently observed in other academic levels and can be summarized as follows:

- Like any other didactic tool, multimedia presentation has some more and some less effective features concerning its application to the classroom. Pace is essential to store information (Mayer, Heiser & Lonn 2001).
- The support of a pupils' workbook helps to memorize information when it is used simultaneously with multimedia presentation. The redundancy principle is confirmed. Nevertheless, it is not important whether the workbook is an ordinary one (in paper) or a digital one (journal).
- If tools are easily usable and obey to the general teacher's freedom of managing teaching methods and contents in an appropriate pace, the teacher's motivation is increased.
- There is a trend to assess rather positive, dynamic elements than static ones, independent of its text or graphic nature. Dynamic beats static. It is not the image era, but the animation era what distinguishes multimedia from printed media.

- Dynamic presentation facilitates pupils' comprehension and teacher's explanation (Craig, Gholson & Driscoll 2002) possibilities. It is also interesting to note that students recognize an improvement in their teacher's work. Adolescents consider that teacher's ex-planation is tidier and clearer and that it has a more appropriate pace. Teachers are also more conscious of improvements in their work, visible with the conducted interviews and with the utility of multimedia presented information – even during noisy and chaotic moments in the classroom.

Table 2:
Improvement in comprehension

Case study	Improvement ascertainment	Non improvement ascertainment	No answer
Usage 1	88,8 %	9,7 %	1,5 %
Usage 2	69,1 %	23,6 %	7,3 %
Usage 3	66,7 %	33,3 %	0 %
Usage 4	94,3 %	4,6 %	1,1 %

- The assessment of the experience was very positive. Nearly all pupils considered the performance of their classes as better with the use of multimedia presentation as without them. In consequence, it should be worth to use it as support for teacher's explanations in the classroom. The students' interest in history improves slightly and above that, according to pupils' opinion, the classroom dynamic increases with multimedia use (Craig & Amernic 2006). Students, according to the answers from the interviews, make a clear distinction between classroom dynamic and the topic of history. The contents are not considered to be changeable through any different way of teaching or learning and consequently, pupils do not think that any sort of dynamic can modify their personal preference of a certain subject.

Table 3:
Assessment in multimedia presentation

Case study	Positive assessment	Negative assessment	No answer
Usage 1	96,2 %	0,7 %	3,0 %
Usage 2	81,8 %	5,5 %	12,7 %
Usage 3	100,0 %	0 %	0 %
Usage 4	100,0 %	0 %	0 %

- Pupils realize the improvement of classroom dynamic and also the increase of their own attention during explanations (Jamet, Gavota & Quaireau 2008). This is especially interesting because of the knowledge that improvements in comprehension skills are linked to improvements in memorizing skills, a very important aspect in multimedia didactic processes. Nevertheless, it has to be mentioned that attention, according to teachers varies noticeable quite a lot, depending on the very varied criteria time of the day or day of the week in which the class is taught.

Table 4:
Attention

Case study	Increase	Occasional increase	No variation	Decrease	No answer
Usage 1	64,9 %	18,7 %	12,7 %	3,7 %	0 %
Usage 2	61,8 %	10,9 %	5,5 %	9,1 %	12,7 %
Usage 3	45,9 %	25,0 %	12,5 %	16,7 %	0 %
Usage 4	79,3 %	12,6 %	5,7%	0 %	1,1 %

- Pupils admit to notice that when they pay more attention both understanding and memorizing improves (Seufert, Schütze & Brünken 2009). Nevertheless, the improvement in comprehension and memorizing could not be transformed into a spectacular advance in students marks. This data result may surprise. Teachers explanation is the too short timeframe, in which the tools were only applied in didactic units; for an significant change in pupils' marks a longer work is required. Students, however, have a different perception according to our interviews. Some interviewed pupils say that multimedia instruction in classroom has two special positive aspects:

The first one is the improvement of the class dynamic; a turn towards a more enjoyable class dynamic! The second one is improvement of comprehension abilities, which has other positive consequences like improvement of memorizing abilities, which consequently means less time-consuming learning at home. Students' self-demanding level is a key factor: with multimedia instruction they pay more attention, understand better and memorize more, so the most of the students spend less time in studying after classes because they have a higher opinion of their knowledge, also with view towards passing the exams. They also usually rather prefer to reduce the time of studying than getting a better mark.

To shorten it up, it has been proved that multimedia instruction using dynamic resources is an efficient element in learning history, because it improves comprehension, attention, interest, memorizing and classroom dynamic abilities. At the same time it facilitates teachers' explanations and is a source of motivation for their work. Nevertheless, it is only one of the many factors that affect learning, so there are improvements but no spectacular ones concerning the pupils' marks. So, also other factors have to be taken into account.

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ANALYSIS OF SOME SLOVAKIAN HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

Barnabas Vajda

This paper deals with a qualitative and quantitative analysis of two Slovakian history textbooks. It analyses the amount of questions, tasks and exercises (QTEs) within the books and its exact cognitive reference. During the research process, the German-French joint history textbook was used as a reference or control book. While dealing with particular analytical issues, the paper generated general theoretical problems such as the classification of history schoolbooks as well as a concept of the didactical apparatus.

Thanks to the development of the international history didactics, which have put an enormous effort on improving European history teaching, we were able to witness many edge-cutting approaches in history schoolbook analysis during the last decades. Even after a brief selection from recent achievements we can conclude that many excellent papers have been written about the issues which necessarily had to be analysed. Some scientists approach from practical directions. In Gerd Stein's conception any book that is used in school environment can have three main dimensions/layers/levels such as levels of Informatorium, Paedagogicum and Politicum.¹ Other renowned history didacticians developed more differentiated models. Peter Weinbrenner developed a complex history book research model, while Á. Fischer Dárdai created a thorough checklist that enables a very detailed analysis of any history textbook.² Other scientists have approached the issue more generally, focussing on the problems of historical learning and thinking. Arja Virta has raised the question of content analysis as well as the possibility of phenomenological or phenomenographic analysis,³ while Wolfgang Hasberg has given guidelines for possible fields of empirical research.⁴

Unfortunately, despite these unique international efforts there are countries like Slovakia where a serious lack of empirical research of history schoolbooks (into schoolbooks at all) is present. Several schoolbook research topics and methods are simply lacking our scientific discourse and academic workshops and are not present neither in our undergraduate courses nor in in-service trainings. Even most basic schoolbook research areas such as the quantity of primary

sources or grammatical improvement of descriptive texts are lack our periodicals, despite the fact that these topics have been widely dealt with on international forums. Not even mentioning the most up-to-date research topics such as research into the interdisciplinarity, researching the role of related arts, research into the mono or multi perspectivity of sources, research on typography, etc.

In consequence, regarding our country (with rare exceptions) we can not speak neither about a sophisticated scientific schoolbook analysis culture, nor about a sensible and conscious schoolbook development that would implement results of history didacticians into the new generations of schoolbooks.⁵ Due to these professional drawbacks, there is certainly too less room for establishing general theories or rules concerning this country. Nevertheless, there are at least two fields that need theoretical clarification: 1. the classification of types of history schoolbooks; 2. the concept of the didactical apparatus.

I understand *schoolbook* as a general term, which refers to any book that has been written, edited or designed deliberately for school purposes. As such, schoolbooks have to be distinguished apart from books that also might be available for pupils e.g. in bookshops, but without deliberate educational purposes.⁶ Within schoolbooks we can distinguish at least three major types of books:

- *Reading book*: It is a text oriented book in which the descriptive texts of the authors prevail. It hardly contains primary sources and therefore it lacks any didactical apparatus for the analysis of sources.
- *Textbook*: Besides descriptive texts it contains a significant amount of sources, too. Regarding its methodology, it is based on the teacher – pupil interaction with the domination onto the first.
- *Workbook*: Primary sources prevail in it along with a) rich didactical apparatus that is deliberately designed for in-depth analysis of sources. Considering its methodology, it is an activity oriented schoolbook that requires or encourages pupils' activity during classroom situations, such as questioning, reasoning, arguing, etc. in spoken and written form.

As far as the *concept of didactical apparatus* in history schoolbooks is concerned we can conclude some general and some narrow interpretations. In the recommendations of our ISHD from Braunschweig (1989) and Brisbane (1991), the didactical apparatus is

understood as additional material that, besides the descriptive/authors/basis text, helps learning, i.e. support in the acquisition of historical knowledge and skills.⁷ In a more specific context, Jan Prucha distinguishes three types of didactical apparatuses:

- didactical apparatus presenting the knowledge (e.g. descriptive authors' text)
- didactical apparatus that supports orientation in the book (e.g. pictograms)
- didactical apparatus directing the acquisition of historical knowledge or skills (e.g. user instructions; questions, tasks and exercises supplied to the sources).⁸

According to the narrowest definition of the didactical apparatus it consists of

- icons, pictures and images of any kind (either as pure illustrations or sources)
- short textual accessories (such as mini-encyclopaedia, mini-biography etc.)
- questions and tasks (that need to be answered)
- exercises (i.e. tasks that need practise).⁹

I analysed two Slovakian history textbooks that have been used in secondary schools since 2001 and additionally a third book which is known as 'the German-French joint history textbook':

- Bartl, J. & Kamenický, M., & Valachovič P. (2000) *Dejepis pre 1. ročník gymnázií*. SPN, Bratislava, (book 1).
- Kovács, L. - S. & Simon, B. (2006). *Történelem a gimnáziumok 1. osztálya számára*. SPN, Bratislava, (book 2).
- Le Quintrec, Guillaume & Geiss, Peter (ed.) (2006): *Histoire/Geschichte—Europa und die Welt seit 1945*. Ernst Klett Schulbuchverlag, Stuttgart–Leipzig, (book 3).

During my research in 2008/2009 I was particularly interested in gaining more knowledge about 1. the number of questions, tasks and exercises (QTEs) and their proportion in comparison with the complete text of the book; 2. the number of icons and images and their proportion within the complete book, especially in comparison with the descriptive text, and 3. the cognitive structure of questions, tasks and exercises.

Just two books seemed to be not relevant for a scientific survey. It has to be noted, however, that schoolbook publishing in Slovakia is

strictly centralized. The country traditionally had a closed ‘one schooltype – one schoolbook’ system. It means that there is no schoolbook market, there are no alternative choices, and particularly each class and level has one schoolbook.

The books I chose were the only two available ones for that particular agegroup, and beyond that they belonged to the newest generation of schoolbooks introduced after 2000. (Research of any other available book would have been unfair concerning that they have been written before the last curricular reform in 1999.) Both are chronology based history textbooks, dealing with ancient and medieval history (both national and international), roughly from the anthropogenesis to the 15th century. Both were written for the same type of school, on the same level, i.e. tailored on 15-16 year old students in the 1st grade of gymnasium. Both books were edited in the same state-owned publishing company, distinguishing only in the date of publishing (2000, 2006). Physically they are of a comparable size.

Both books are history *textbooks*, i.e. they have been designated for school purposes and besides the descriptive text they contain a significant amount of primary sources as well as relevant didactical apparatus. Nevertheless, they neither have an attached teacher’s book nor an exercise book. I think it is very important to point out this fact because this means that any attempt from the authors’ side to encourage pupils’ activity is actually *in* these books and can be easily controlled right in the textbook. There is a difference in the language of the two books. The first book was published in Slovak language, the other in Hungarian, being designated for the gymnasiums of the 550 000 Hungarians in Slovakia.¹⁰

Why did I include the third book, the ‘German-French joint history textbook’ into my research? To increase the scientific validity of my research I chose it as a control book. I had at least two reasons to do so. Firstly, both German and French history schoolbook research as well as production are held in an high international esteem. Further, this particular book is a result of a long-lasting international cooperation including a very sophisticated methodological and didactical cooperation. Due to these circumstances I found it challenging enough to use it as an ‘etalon’ when checking and analysing the cognitive quality of Slovakian history textbooks. My research questions (relevant for this present study) were the following:

- How many QTEs are there in the books? What is their proportion compared with the descriptive/authors' text?
- What do QTEs refer to from a cognitive point of view? Do they help handling the descriptive/authors' text or do they help handling the primary sources?

My particular interest in questions, tasks and exercises originate in Ágnes Fischer Dárdai's checklist (see above). She does not only list QTEs as vitally important factors when analysing history schoolbooks but she also names five special markers for their evaluation:¹¹

- the standard of QTs if they are adequate to the pupils' age;
- proper proportion of reproductive and analytical QTs;
- the relevance of QTs, i.e. if they ask for relevant historical events;
- the importance of regularity of QTs, especially at the synthetical phase of learning;
- the cognitive variety of QTs.

I counted all QTEs in both books. I also measured the size of the book surface they occupy in square centimeters. Then I compared their size with the total surface size of the complete book. Percentally the Slovak textbook contains nearly exactly the same ratio/percentage of QTEs than the reference book, while the ratio in the Hungarian textbook remains below the results of the other two. This result was confirmed when I focused only on maps as one particular iconic source and even when I looked for the ratio of QTEs that help dealing with maps. We could consider that the didactical apparatus – at least in case of the Slovak book – is OK, because the size of its QTE is very similar, but in fact in one case it is even higher than in the test book.

The findings of my research are shown in the table below:

Book One Bratislava, 2000	Book Two Bratislava, 2006	Book Three Stuttgart–Leipzig, 2006
262 pages in all	281 pages in all	300 pages in all
Each page is 301 sq cm	Each page is 400,96 sq cm	Each page is 444,69 sq cm
Complete book is 78 862 sq cm	Complete book is 112 669,76 sq cm	Complete book is 133 407 sq cm
Number of QTEs: 214	Number of QTEs: 316	Number of QTEs: 455
QTEs occupy 3 568,6 sq cm	QTEs occupy 2 688,18 sq cm	QTEs occupy 4 123, 26 sq cm
QTE-proportion: 4,52 %	QTE-proportion: 2,38 %	QTE-proportion: 3,09 %
QTEs are labelled: 'Otázky a úlohy, zamyslenia'[In English: Questions and tasks, Thoughts, Ideas]	QTEs are not labelled	QTEs are labelled: 'Fragen und Anregungen' [Questions and Ideas, Stimulations]
Number of maps: 37	Number of maps: 54	Number of maps: 56
Maps occupy 6 027,97 sq cm	Maps occupy 3 983,23 sq cm	Maps occupy 10 713,92 sq cm
Map proportion: 7,64 %	Map proportion: 3,53 %	Map proportion: 8,03 %
Number of QTEs referring to maps: 7,00 %	Number of QTEs referring to maps: 4,43 %	Number of QTEs referring to maps: 7,47 %

In both Slovakian books the majority of QTEs refer to the basic text. Some examples: 'How did Emperor Augustus try to restore law and order after the period of civil wars?'; 'Explain the concept: cosmopolitan'. Very often it is explicitly written in the book that the answer can be found in the basis text e.g. 'find in the text'; 'find in the basis text the common features and differences between medieval Africa, Asia, and America'; 'compare two paragraphs in the text'.

It is typical especially for the Slovak book what we observe on pages 112-113. We might see here a very typical feature – when QTEs exclusively refer to the basic text even if there are brilliant primary sources provided on the very same page. Here, at the end of

the chapter about the Roman Empire there are two sources attached. One of them is a source written by Ammianus Marcellinus (ca. 330-395), a Roman military man and historian, also an eyewitness to the deeds of the Huns. The other source comes from a 6th century Roman bureaucrat and historian, Jordanes. In this letter source there is a detailed description of one of the best known battles from the period of migration of the nations, the battle at Catalaunum (nearby Tricassis; today Troyes in France) in 451. Both are wonderful written sources, in proper length, well prepared, containing many vivid historical impulses to work with. And yet, unfortunately not a single QTE helps dealing with them. In general, the proportion of QTEs referring to the sources and the basic text is approximately 10 % to 90 % in both Slovakian books. My doubts concern that QTEs in them: Especially in the Slovak book they are not explicitly expressed in most cases. In other words the text of the QTEs does not contain unambiguous instructions and as a consequence, it is often not clear (even for the analyst) what the pupils are expected to do. As a counter example, in the German/French joint practical textbook there is nearly always an open reference at the end of each EQT (e.g. M1, M2 etc.), saying which source the particular EQT is linked to.

Despite having a less developed didactical apparatus (in absolute numbers as well as in percentage; see the first research question above), in the Hungarian textbook there are much more explicit QTEs that are based on primary sources than in the Slovak one. This book makes very obvious a difference between two types of QTEs. QTEs that refer to the descriptive/basic text, printed in black and QTEs that refer to primary sources, printed in blue. It is even more valuable that this textbook contains altogether seven units of 'Műhely' (workshop) with specific QTEs for in-depth work with sources. Despite its bad results regarding the first research questions, these factors intensively improve the cognitive quality of the Hungarian book.

We can conclude that the vast majority of QTEs refer to the descriptive/authors' text. We can also conclude that there are only some limited examples of QTEs referring to primary sources in the Slovakian textbooks.¹² In both Slovakian textbooks we can rarely find QTEs that encourage application or exercising historical knowledge.¹³ These facts strongly influence the cognitive quality of the didactical apparatus in both books.

Both Slovakian textbooks are well done as far as their outer appearance is concerned but their didactical apparatus and especially their QTEs are far from sufficient. If we acknowledge that proper QTEs on a high cognitive level are important tools for encouraging pupils' sensible activities during history lessons – a rule that has been widely accepted by most prominent European history teaching associations – we have to admit that under severe scrutiny our Slovakian textbooks are not sufficient enough. There are less QTEs in them and even their majority (approximately 90 %) refer to the descriptive /basic text instead of referring to primary sources. In conclusion, our history textbooks are still text oriented reading books rather than activity oriented workbooks.

Generally said the majority of QTEs included in our books are ad hoc and hardly target oriented. Looking at it from didactical perspective, despite our books are more colourful than ever, and though they contain a variety of sources that is comparable to some Western European history textbooks, the cognitive content of the QTEs is lagging far behind. Using a metaphor, our textbooks show a 'closed-shop-window-effect'. It means that they look nice and attractive (they really do), but there is no way to get closer to their goods, because the 'shop' is closed. Our authors and publishers underestimate the importance of pupils activity, and do not aim at consistent training of important skills.¹⁴

Particularly, the overwhelming majority of maps included in both Slovakian textbooks remain totally unreflected by the didactical apparatus. For instance, although both books contain a few decent QTEs regarding historical maps, they do not show any necessity of practicing these skills. Both books regard basic historical skills as given and as self-evident skills which do not require any practicing or exercising. In fact, maps not necessarily need practice but in modern textbooks they are very suitable mediums for exercising. Maps without QTEs are a bigger sin than missed pedagogical opportunities – they are wasting valuable paper.¹⁵

Why is all of that a problem? The core of the problem is a serious discrepancy between reality and strategic aims of history teaching. Since 1989 Slovakia has undergone a significant transition as far as applied methodology in history schoolbooks is concerned. Previously in the communist Czechoslovakia history schoolbooks did not contain neither primary sources nor QTEs nearly at all. After 1989 there has been an increasing number of sources as well as icons/

pictures in our history schoolbooks. And yet, our authors and publishers still neglect or omit high quality QTEs, and simply underestimate their importance in the books. Recommendations of professional organisations and experts are still not taken seriously into consideration, therefore unfortunately the qualitative improvement of books is slow.

QTEs are suitable and compatible with the general aims of the modern history teaching set by the Council of Europe.¹⁶ The aimed process to create a shift from memory based learning to skills based learning has also been a very central goal of our ISHD. Our ideal of history teaching is based on investigative and collaborative forms and methods of teaching or learning. As it was expressed by Maria Repoussi, there should be 'a shift from the teacher to the child', there also should be 'a tendency to keep up with the pedagogical trends which view the child as an active learner' and history taught in schools needs 'a new pedagogical environment advocating shifts from expository to investigative procedures of learning'.¹⁷

My analysis confirms the findings of Euroclio, The European Association of History Educators. As it is stated in its comprehensive report from 2004,¹⁸ hardly any change has happened in Europe as far as practical use of history schoolbooks is concerned. According to Euroclio, history teaching in Europe is still textbook based, exactly as it was before 1989. History schoolbooks are often well designed but 'the contents are still traditional'.¹⁹ To neglect the QTEs is especially dangerous in a country like Slovakia where a free market of schoolbooks does simply not exist. But even in countries with a free schoolbook market it is possible that publishers only compete in decorating their books (e.g. with many images and maps), but they hardly compete in improving the cognitive content of books, including improvement of the QTEs. History textbooks should undergo a severe scrutiny, not only as far as their scientific knowledge is concerned but also as far as their didactical apparatus, and especially QTEs are concerned. As Euroclio states it, the majority of the European teachers fully understand the importance of increasing pupils' activity and their cognitive skills but they are uncertain in application of this necessity. Pupils' activity and exercise of their cognitive skills is only possible by using more sufficient and target centered QTEs.

Last but not least, QTEs fit to the definitions that recently defined the goals and criteria of modern history textbooks. Quoting just two

out of many, I just want to present here two definitions given by Viliam Kratochvíl and Falk Pingel. Viliam Kratochvíl argues that 'history textbook is a methodical medium serving both teachers as well as pupils as source of information, and also as professional guidance and encouragement for them [...]. Indeed, history textbooks can contribute to the development of the teaching quality only if and when they help to work out interpretations, when they eventually cease to serve as source of memorizing other peoples' interpretations'.²⁰ Falk Pingel goes even further saying that history textbook 'is to develop the ability to think for oneself, to locate, handle and critically analyse different forms of information and evidence, to frame relevant questions and to arrive at responsible and balanced conclusions and to see other points of view'.²¹

Notes

¹ Fischer-Dárdai, Á. (2006), *Történelmi megismerés–történelmi gondolkodás. A történelem-tanári továbbképzés kiskönyvtára* XLI. Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetem Bölcsészettudományi Kara-Magyar Történelmi Társulat Tanári Tagozata: Budapest, II. köt., 75-76.

² Ibid. 78.

³ Virta, A. (2010) 'Empirical Research on Historical Learning and Thinking in Finland', *Yearbook ISHD* 2010, 31, 11-24, 21-22.

⁴ See Hasberg, W. (2010) 'Risk and Perspectives Regarding Empirical Research for Historical Learning', *Yearbook ISHD* 2010, 33, 213.

⁵ There are some exceptions, e.g. Alberty, J. (1992), *Didaktika dejepisu*, Banská Bystrica: Univerzita Mateja Bela; Kratochvíl, V. (2008) 'K problémom tvorby didakticko-historického textu, Historické štúdie k životnému jubileu Mikuláša Píscha', in Miroslav Daniš (ed) *Historické štúdie k životnému jubileu Mikuláša Píscha*, Bratislava: Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Komenského, 86-97; Kratochvíl, V. (2004) 'Modely na rozvíjanie kompetencií žiakov. K transformácii vzťahu histórie a školského dejepisu', *Acta Historica Posoniensia V*, Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Komenského-Stimul: Bratislava; Vajda, B. (2008) 'Példa a forrás alapú, empatikus és multiperspektivikus tanulói foglalkoztatásra. A Kratochvíl-féle munkáltató történelmi feladatsor alapján', *Új Pedagógiai Szemle*, 11/12, 222-227; Vajda, B. (2008) 'Multiperspektivitás és történelmi megbékélés', *Fórum Társadalom-tudományi Szemle*, X. évf., 4. szám, 65-74; Vajda, B. (2007) 'Modernizálódó történelem-tanítás - kisebbségi helyzetben', *Iskolakultúra* XVII, 11/12, 110-119.

⁶ Cf. Egil B. Johnson makes a difference between schoolbooks [Schulbuch] written and used in schools with no particular didactical considerations, and textbooks [Lehrbuch] written especially for teaching purposes. Georg Kerschen-

steiner and Robert Seidel are authors of the concept of the workschool [Arbeitsschule]. See Fischer-Dárdai, Á. (2006), *Történelmi megismerés - történelmi gondolkodás. A történelmi elemzési továbbképzés kézikönyvtára XLI*, Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetem Bölcsészettudományi Kara-Magyar Történelmi Társulat Tanári Tagozata: Budapest, II. köt., 46-47.

⁷ Fischer-Dárdai, Á. (2006), *Történelmi megismerés - történelmi gondolkodás. A történelmi elemzési továbbképzés kézikönyvtára XLI*, Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetem Bölcsészettudományi Kara-Magyar Történelmi Társulat Tanári Tagozata: Budapest, II. köt., 108.

⁸ Labischová, D. & Blažena, G. (2008) 'Příručka ke studiu didaktiky dějepisu'. *Scripta Facultatis Philosophicae Universitatis Ostraviensis*, Univerzita v Ostravě: Ostrava, 46.

⁹ Vajda, B. (2009), 'Bevezetés a történelemdidaktikába és a történelemmetodikába. Úvod do didaktiky a metodiky vyučovania dejepisu', *Selye János Egyetem*, Komárom, 100.

¹⁰ In Slovakia, about 10 % of the population is native Hungarians. These pupils can attend either Slovak schools or schools where the language of education is Hungarian. Some 75 % of each age attend the latter one. These schools follow the Slovak state curricula as a general rule, however since 1989 they have gradually developed some own alternative versions of the curricula as well as the schoolbooks. In our specific case, the history textbook in Hungarian language is based on the very same Slovak national curricula that is used in any Slovak school but actually the book (not only the language but the content too) is different from the one used in Slovak schools.

¹¹ Fischer-Dárdai (cf. note 1), 111-116.

¹² Some positive examples when QTEs refer to primary sources: At the end of the chapter dealing with King Sigismund of Luxemburg and Jan Hus there is a task which explicitly says: 'Use the data from the Chronicle by Jan z Turca', 247/4; another one: 'According to the images, describe the social life in the villages.', 31/4.

¹³ Some positive examples when application or exercising of historical knowledge is encouraged: 'Compose an essay on the invention of the wheel which meant a turning point in the communication, military history, commerce and building', [52/5]; 'Make up a collection of monuments from different periods of Rome, i.e. kingdom, republic, empire', [113/4]; 'Determine links (subordination etc.) between the following representatives of the Roman Republic: dictator, praetor, senate, censor, aedilis, lictor', [96/2]. Nevertheless in this latter case without precise didactical instructions we can only guess what kind of a 'product' authors expect from the pupils, perhaps some mind map illustrating the system of the Roman republican civil servants, etc.? Just to give you a hint of a much more precise formulation of tasks, here is a similar example from the German/French mutual textbook: 'Skizzieren Sie die Bevölkerungsentwicklung der letzten 200 Jahre', [203].

¹⁴ On skills see e.g. Vella, Y. (2009) 'In Search of Meaningful History Teaching. A Collection of Research Work on the Teaching of History', published by the History Teachers' Association Malta; also on students' 'missing ability to apply deductive methods' Khodnev, A. S. (2010) 'Empirical Research on History Learning in Russia: the Students' Difficulties in Working with Primary Sources and Ways to Overcome them', *Yearbook ISHD* 2010, 33, 91.

¹⁵ There is a possibility that Slovak teachers would create independent QTEs on their own as creative compensation for the QTEs missing from books. I know that some really practice this, and do in-depth work with maps despite the low number and low quality of QTEs referring to maps. Nevertheless, besides such thick books, besides the strictly prescribed curriculum, and besides the continuously reducing number of history lessons per week – minimally there is a serious doubt about the efficiency of such individual initiatives.

¹⁶ See the latest Recommendation 1880 of the Parliamentary Assembly of Council of Europe from June 26, 2009, especially points No 6. and No. 8 where there is stated that 'A reduction in course content should be followed by better skill development and help students' motivation to further evaluate and explore topics themselves, and multiple perspective teaching relies on primary and secondary material availability and involves interactive teaching.' <http://assembly.coe.int/Mainf.asp?link=/Documents/AdoptedText/ta09/EREC1880.htm>. [2009.6.26.]

¹⁷ Repoussi, M. (2008/2009) 'Common Trends in Contemporary Debates on History Education', *Yearbook ISHD* 2008/2009, 31/32, 77-78.

¹⁸ van der Leeuw-Roord, J. (ed.) (2004), *History Changes. Facts and Figures about History Education in Europe since 1989*. Publication of Euroclio, the European Standing Conference of History teachers Associations.

¹⁹ See *ibid.* 94-95.

²⁰ Kratochvíl, V. (2008) 'K problémom tvorby didakticko-historického textu', in M. Daniš (ed) *Historické štúdie k životnému jubileu Mikuláša Pícha*, Bratislava: Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Komenského, 86-97.

²¹ Pingel, F. (2000) 'The European Home: Representation of 20th Century Europe in History Textbooks', *Council of Europe Publishing*, 14.

ANALYZING AND EVALUATING INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY (IT) RESOURCES FOR HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

Joanna Wojdon

The article presents an overview of the Information Technology resources accompanying Polish history textbooks for all levels of education, published between 1999 and 2009, available both in the Internet and on the attached CD/DVD-ROMs. It analyses how these resources are used by pupils and their teachers – this part of the research is based on a questionnaire. Due to the fact that they remain mostly unused and no examples of good practice were found, the existing IT resources are evaluated according to the recommendations made by the American specialists in history education. Eventually, suggestions for publishers and proposals for further research are made.

The amount of text in the history textbooks for all levels of education has been shrinking for the last few decades. If one compares today's books with the ones that were in use thirty or fifty years ago, one can easily notice that the older ones consisted mostly of author's text with some citations from primary sources and a few questions or (textual) exercises that summarized a chapter. Today there are many more pictures, schemes, maps and other sorts of visuals on every page. And the most recent trend is to accompany at least a teacher's book, but more and more often a student's book also with a CD-ROM containing additional materials that correspond with a printed version of a textbook but are not the same as in print. Additional materials are also put in the websites.

These questions should be asked: 1 if preparing textbook IT resources is worthwhile its efforts (or maybe skeptics like Larry Cuban are right who say that a lot should be changed in a school system itself before information technology can bring its positive effects¹ and 2. what should be done to make it worth the effort.

Before answering these questions, however, one should try and find out how to measure the quality of the IT resources, i.e. what it means that certain webpages or computer applications are good, effective or at least better than others. While formulating the place of the textbook IT resources in the history education and proposing further research in this area, the following elements will be taken into

consideration: an overview of the history textbook IT resources available in Poland AD 2009, results of a survey conducted among pupils and their history teachers, and the conclusions of the American pedagogical research on using computer programs as teaching aids.

I. Textbooks in Poland

Since the last major reform of education in Poland (1999) about 20 sets of history textbooks for each stage (primary, lower secondary and upper secondary) have been published yearly. Each textbook must be approved by the Ministry of Education before it can be used in school. The approval is based on the reviews by experts both in history and in history didactics. This article will be based on the textbooks that were in use between 1999/2000 and 2008/2009.²

I.1 *Textbooks and their IT Resources in the Web*

There are 15 publishing houses in Poland that publish history textbooks. Six of them offer books for all stages of education. Three print more than one set at a time.³ Every publisher has its webpage where it at least presents its textbooks series. History curricula are often put in the website as well, alongside lesson plans. Materials submitted by the teachers are also often published. They usually include detailed lesson scenarios and tests. Unlike school textbooks and workbooks, other teaching aids do not require ministerial approval. One of the 'Nowa Era' lower secondary school textbooks offers links to additional materials on-line, mostly articles from magazines thematically related to the topics discussed in particular chapters of the textbook.⁴ Some of the resources are free and open to the public, others are restricted to the teachers whose students use a particular textbook. Most of those materials are just .pdf or .doc files to be used in a printed form and they involve Information Technology only in the process of distribution, not in teaching.

I.2 *Textbooks and CD-ROMs*

Some publishers have chosen to put their IT resources on CD-ROMs attached to teachers' books. They may include a regular selection: curriculum, detailed lesson plans, and assessment procedures, but also teaching aids such as primary sources (texts and pictures), maps, diagrams or schemes to copy (often with the editing

options). Two publishers have prepared collections of films and sound records corresponding to their textbooks.⁵

Only three publishing houses offer genuine IT resources that require a computer to operate. Most of them are available on CD-ROMs.

- Each new Nowa Era's textbook for primary and lower secondary school is accompanied by a pupil's CD-ROM with a multimedia application developed by Young Digital Poland.⁶ It has the same structure as the textbook it accompanies, but is filled with other types of media: animations, films, sound, pictures, maps and diagrams. Short introductory texts are similar but not the same as in the textbooks. A few short sentences are used to summarize each chapter. They are displayed on the screen and read by a narrator, which should facilitate their memorization. Short slide shows with a narrator explaining historical phenomena and cartoons illustrate every lesson. There are also many interactive exercises and – what the kids should like most – games that involve both manual skills and historical knowledge (pupils earn points both by playing an ordinary, rather easy, game, and by answering questions related to a history lesson).
- Wydawnictwa Szkolne i Pedagogiczne and Nowa Era have interactive tests on their websites, but only for a few chapters of selected textbooks – they seem to be pilot projects that look promising but have not been developed.
- The three above-mentioned projects are closely related to particular *textbooks* while two other ones – although prepared by textbook publishers – are more universal and can be used with any textbook, by any publisher, at every stage of education.
- Wydawnictwa Szkolne i Pedagogiczne have developed 'interactive charts': schemes and diagrams to be presented during a lesson. A teacher can choose to show only some parts of a chart (e.g. only one style of a Greek column, not all three of them) or only some elements (texts or pictures). Each chart is followed by short trivia-questions.
- Gdańskie Wydawnictwo Oświatowe offers interactive historical maps of Ancient Rome and of Poland. They are available both in the Internet (fee depends on the number and duration of licenses) and on a CD-ROM accompanied with a booklet in case of Rome, and with an exercise-book in the case of Poland. The map of the Ancient

Rome starts in 753 B.C. when Rome was founded and it is marked with just a dot on the territories inhabited by different tribes. There is an option of moving the map forwards and backwards year by year. The borders change and the main reasons for the changes are mentioned in a textbox (e.g. to certain battle or peace treaty). There are links to short descriptions of the geographical sites that appear on the map. A zoom in/out option allows users to change the map scale (although this feature could have been extended, as the adjustments are minimal today). Two additional, static maps show: 1. a network of Roman roads and 2. contemporary states on the ancient Roman territory. The map of Poland is based on the same technology. The history starts in mid-10th century and instead of the map of the roads there is one with historical sites of interest in today's Poland.

It should be mentioned that other textbook publishers also include more or less interactive maps in their educational packages. Some of them are prepared by a leader in the area of map editing in Poland, Polskie Przedsiębiorstwo Wydawnictw Kartograficznych (PPWK). Map developers complain however that textbook editors are reluctant to go beyond just displaying the maps from their paper atlases on the screen, although technically it is possible to prepare many more layers (with border changes marked as often as once a month or even once a week – which is useful e.g. in case of WW II) and with many more details (in the zoom-in mode) for an electronic version.⁷ German publishers, for whom PPWK also works, use those IT opportunities much more willingly – and one should hope that this is the proper trend.

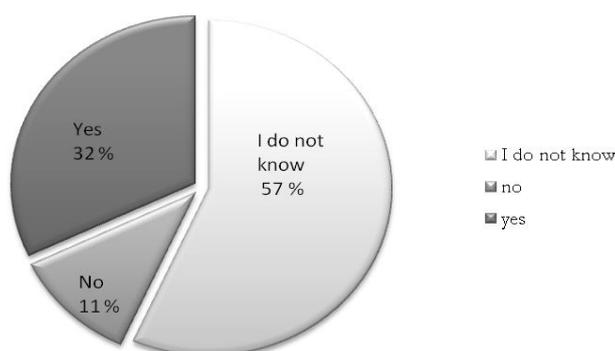
II. How are These Resources Used by Pupils?

The aim of the questionnaires (see appendices B and C) was to find out if the teachers and pupils know about the IT resources accompanying their books, how they use them (if at all) and if they are satisfied with the contents of these media. The questionnaires should also show the correlation between a teacher's attitude towards the IT and the way his/her pupils use it. Last but not least, it was supposed to indicate some reasons why teachers might be reluctant to incorporate technology into their everyday practice.

With the help of undergraduate and graduate students during their practical training at school, the survey brought 27 teachers' and 523 pupils' responses, including 275 from primary schools, 168 from

gymnasia (lower secondary) and 80 from licea (upper secondary schools), mostly from the region of Wroclaw, but there are some answers from other parts of Poland, too. Sadly, most pupils do not even know *if* there are any IT resources for their textbooks. Less than one third (164 or 32 %) respondents chose 'yes' to answer the question 'Does your history textbook have its webpage with additional materials or an attached CD-ROM?', Fifty-seven answered 'no' (11 %), while the rest (290 or 57 %) said 'I do not know' or did not tick any answer.

Fig. 1.
Does your textbook have a webpage or a CD-ROM attached to it?



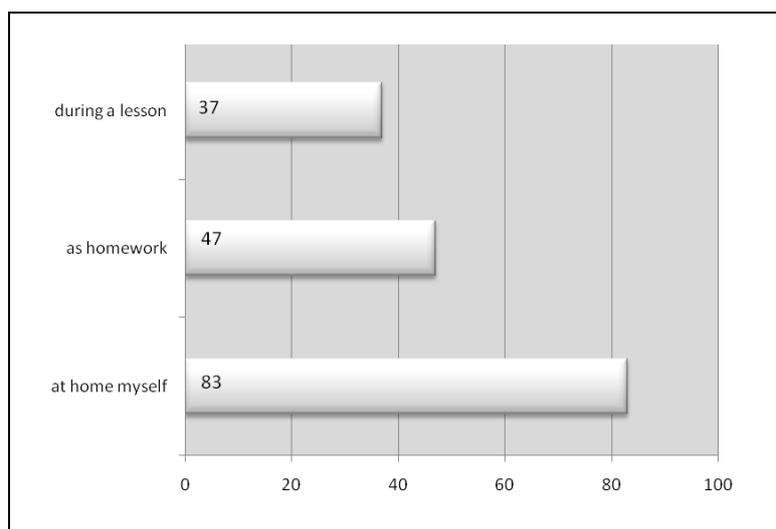
Most of those who answered 'yes' were primary school pupils (116 out of 275, i.e. 42 %), while only 48 out of 248 (19 %) secondary school students chose this answer. The explanation of this phenomenon may be the fact that most primary school textbooks published by 'Nowa Era' (one of the largest textbook publishers in Poland) have a CD-ROM attached to the textbook, and information about it is placed on the book cover – it is really difficult not to notice this fact. At the same time, most upper secondary school textbooks just do not offer any IT materials for pupils. Other have some materials on their webpages but one has to search the Internet to find out.

The majority (81 %) of those who know about the IT resources of their textbooks used it, 19 % (31 pupils) did not. 37 pupils reported

to use the resources during a history lesson, 47 at home on their teacher's demand, and 83 on their own initiative (some marked more than one option). Generally, very few pupils use their history textbooks' IT resources (only 25 % of all who were interviewed), and even less (14 %) were somehow encouraged to do it by their teachers, either at school or as homework.

Fig. 2.

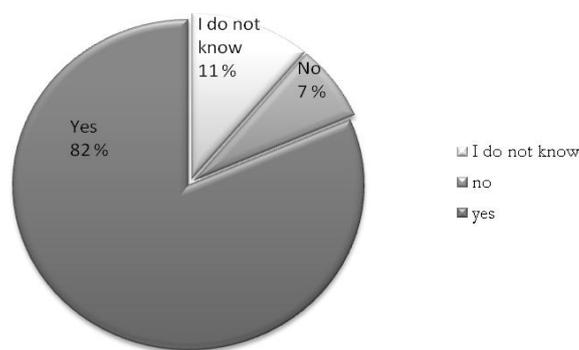
Have you ever used materials that can be found there? (N = 164)



What about the teachers? Out of 27 respondents, 22 thought that the textbooks they teach from have some IT resources, 2 said they do not (which is not true) and 3 did not know. Teachers' awareness is therefore higher than the pupils'.

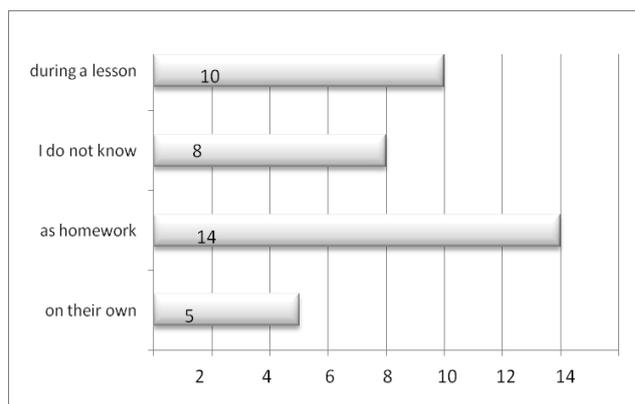
Fig. 3

Do the textbooks teachers know that there are webpages with additional materials or CD-ROMs attached?



They are also more optimistic about the level of IT resources usage.⁸ Almost one third (10) reported that they use them during the history lessons, more than a half (14) answered that they assign the usage for homework, five teachers thought their pupils use them at home on their own initiative, and eight teachers reported that they do not know whether their pupils made any use of the resources.⁹

Fig. 4. Do your pupils use materials that can be found there?



The results of the questionnaire prove that textbook IT resources are not very popular among Polish pupils and teachers. They remain mostly unused, especially during the history lessons, but also at home. Most students are unaware of their mere existence. It can be noticed however that putting IT resources on a CD-ROM and attaching it to a pupil's book increases the chance that a pupil will find and examine them, even if his/her teacher does not find it worth his attention and time.

In today's practice however, if the resources are not even opened, it is difficult to judge how effective they are (or could be). No patterns of their incorporation into the teaching process can be observed. There are only some individual experiences and individual impressions of both students and teachers. This should be taken into consideration while discussing the next issue.

III. What are the Pupils' and Teachers' Opinions about the IT Resources?

Only the answers of those pupils who chose 'yes' when asked if IT resources for their textbook exist and who reported to use the resources were taken into consideration.¹⁰ There were 114 such opinions altogether, most of them positive. Pupils use words like good, interesting, useful, helpful, providing a lot of information. Some of them seem surprised that the educational materials can be interesting. They pay attention to the games at the end of each unit. Only six opinions were critical: too few details, boring (I prefer a science CD-ROM), not interesting, could be more interesting, the same as the textbook, sometimes too difficult to understand.

Out of the 19 teachers' opinions, only two contain some criticism (that materials are difficult to use during a lesson and that there are too few of them). Most teachers find the IT resources useful, especially as a repetition tool, also in the form of a game. Films and interactive maps were noticed as well (although sometimes it is not clear whether the teachers had in mind students' book resources or the teacher's books). Generally, teachers describe IT materials as attractive, interesting, enhancing a textbook, helpful, also in individual work, e.g. with children with special educational needs. Most users therefore approve the model of the IT resources adopted by the textbook publishers. Either the publishers' approaches to this

kind of materials are correct, or users do not have (and do not know) any alternative solutions.

It seems at the moment that publishers' efforts should go to promoting their IT products rather than developing new forms that would remain unused as they mostly are today. It also seems that pupils rather than teachers should be the publishers' target group as there is not much difference between the popularity of the IT resources among the pupils whose teachers encourage or accept the IT usage, and those whose teachers are indifferent or sceptical about the new media.¹¹ Of course, one can suspect that if the teachers introduce the IT resources into their classroom practice it will encourage (or even force) their pupils to use them. There is still a long way to go, however, in this regard and popularity or quality of the textbook IT resources are not the only obstacles.

In the questionnaire more than a half of the teachers complain about the lack of a computer and a multimedia projector in the classroom.¹² Another problem (for almost half of them) is the unavailability of a computer lab and that there are still less computers than pupils in a class. Other reasons (old or outdated hardware, software problems, lack of experience) were chosen much more seldom. Only one teacher ticked problems with the pupils' discipline – it may prove high pedagogical competences of the respondents or be the result of the fact that they have never tried using computers during a history lesson and are not aware of this sort of difficulty. Teachers who chose 'other problems' point out that they do not have enough time to fulfill all the curriculum requirements because computer activities are time consuming.

IV. How do They Compete with Other Educational Electronic Media Available to the Pupils?

Although Polish pupils are not too much interested in the materials provided by the publishers of their textbooks, they say to use Information Technology in their education.

426 use some webpages to learn history, 48 other computer programs (mostly encyclopedias). 182 declare that they know some

history-related webpages, although only 152 of them can give a name (or names) of such pages, and only in 16 cases the webpages are:

- existing;
- related to history, not of a general character, like different types of encyclopedia or webpages with school essays, or websites of the textbook publishers;
- not Wikipedia pages or subpages (like www.historia.pl which is probably the first thing that comes to a Polish web-surfer's mind when asked about a history-related webpage).
- It means that not much more than 3 % of all the pupils know any webpages related to history. Webpages that pupils use to learn history are shown in the Table 1.

Table 1:
History-related websites, according to the pupils' indication

Page	# pupils	Comment
Wikipedia	304	general encyclopedia, not history-oriented
Google	90	search engine, not history-oriented
ściąga, bryk, zadane, zapytaj	48	pages with ready-to-copy school essays, including historical ones
historycy.org	12	large forum dedicated to history; cited only by secondary school pupils
Onet	9	web portal with an on-line encyclopedia
Pwn	3	the largest Polish publisher of encyclopedias and dictionaries
plemiona, metin, darkorbit	3	sites of computer games
nowaera.pl	2	site of a textbook publisher
historiapolski.pl	1	Museum of the History of Poland
bitwapodgrunwaldem.pl	1	Anniversary of the battle of Grunwald of 1410
konflikty.pl	1	historical battles, wars, conflicts
megaslownik.pl	1	multilingual dictionary
wp.pl	1	web portal

Wikipedia is popular among schoolchildren of all ages. Sites specializing in history are known mostly to secondary school pupils. So are the pages that offer essays and/or solutions of other types of homework.¹³ There is a lot of work that needs to be done by the history teachers to improve this situation. They should not avoid guiding pupils to the Internet, while today they seem to be merely observers, at best.¹⁴

Pupils know a lot of computer games (142, i.e. 27 %, gave at least one name) though one can question how much they are related to history. Some of them (including the second most popular, ‘Call of Duty’) are ordinary shooters put into a historical scenery. Other popular games include different types of strategic and role-playing games. Most of them are somehow related to war. Apparently, peaceful elements of the past do not attract either game developers nor players as much as struggle. Everyday life is present in some games however, though usually it is a mean of preparing to fight more effectively.

Table 2:

Most popular computer games related to history, according to the pupils’ indications (only titles with 3 and more indications are included)

game	# pupils	game description	level of education	# of teachers
Age of Empires	15	real-time strategy	all	1
Call of Duty	14	shooter	mostly secondary	1
Polanie	11	Polish real-time strategy	all	
Civilization	10	turn-based strategy game	mostly primary	1
Heroes	10	turn-based fantasy strategy game	all	
Games from textbook CD	8		primary	
Medal of Honor	8	shooter	secondary	
Total War (Rome, Medieval)	8	strategy that ‘combines turn-based strategy and resource management, with real-time tactical control of battles’ ¹⁵	secondary	2
Stronghold	8	real-time strategy	secondary	
Battlefield	7	shooter	all	
Cossacks	6	real-time strategy	all, but rather older	
Metin	6	role playing, fantasy	primary	
Europa Universalis	5	strategy game	upper secondary	1
Tribes	5	science-fiction shooter	all	1
Sims	4	strategic life-simulation, no history		
Sniper Elite	4	tactical shooter	upper secondary	

Game	# of pupils	game description	level of education	# of teachers
Wolfschanze 1944	4	action game	all	
Counter Strike	3	Shooter		
Crusader	3	action game		
Empire Earth	3	real-time strategy		1
Pharaoh	3	strategy/simulation, city-building	lower secondary	

Other history-related IT materials remain almost completely unknown to the pupils. Only four of them mentioned electronic encyclopedias. Only two persons knew historical maps, and another one mentioned “EduROM”, a sort of multimedia-textbook that has its primary and lower-secondary edition for almost every school subject, including history. Teachers perform much better in this regard. Their sample was smaller, so 3 indications on “EduROM” or historical atlases make 12% each. They also know (or have them written in their notebooks) other titles of educational historical software.

Not only the textbook IT resources remain unknown to most pupils, but so do other IT educational materials. Pupils seem to be interested in them, but at the same very incompetent. It should be a teacher’s role to show them what materials are available and how they can (and should) be effectively used, but pedagogues are rather reluctant to take this role.

V. Options for Evaluating Materials

A model of the textbook IT resources has not been yet elaborated. It is difficult to find examples of best practice in the area of incorporating them into an educational process. There are no publications dealing with this issue in Poland. And even those devoted to the information technology in historical education in general (not only to the textbook IT resources) are rather proposals that arise in the didacticists’ minds than the reports from the field of the school practice.¹⁶ Perhaps, some experimental classes should be organized in order to check the effectiveness and attractiveness of the textbook IT resources. Before this happens however, we should look for other options of evaluating materials that are available for the pupils and teachers.

One of the options is to confront the existing software with the recommendations made by American educational researchers (not only in the area of history).¹⁷ They prove that the following elements are essential in modern history teaching and that information technology can be helpful in implementing them in school practice:

1. *Audio-visual primacy*: 'An approach that makes visual teaching its primary concern means that history teachers should give audiovisuals first consideration as a means of conveying, promoting study of, and encouraging thought about content of their courses. They also should devote special attention to the visual elements of content. Teachers often can depict the subject and make it more complete and real and thus more thought provoking (Cantu & Warren, 190).' Such attitudes, although time consuming, promotes visual thinking, thinking in images, which leads to the highest levels of cognition. 'Visuals [...] have potential to engage much of the brain and other parts of the neurological thought system.' Textbook IT resources in the first place are full of visuals: images, slide-shows, animations, films. There are many more visuals on a CD-ROM than in any paper textbook, and this is one of the greatest advantages of electronic data carriers. On a closer look, however, it turns out that many of the pictures are merely illustrations or even decorations, their contents are not analyzed in the text and it is virtually impossible to examine them more carefully as they are displayed for a very short time and then simply disappear. One can try and prove that even this way of using them facilitates memorization and builds proper associations in a pupil's mind. There are examples of good exercises that involve visuals, e.g. dressing a medieval knight, peasant and priest, whose clothes are mixed, and then named, while being put on the correct person. Too often however there are no good descriptions of the pictures (or there are not any at all), no tasks to do, questions to answer or comments to read, listen and/or discuss.

2. *Primary sources analysis* helps students to 'develop the historian's critical thinking perspectives, or "habits of mind" that can be acquired only through the systematic analysis of historical materials. [...] Primary research exercises also help students learn to question authority, particularly the typical reliance created by the repetitious use of textbooks and direct instruction by teachers.' Last but not least, this method of teaching 'can motivate students to become more active learners. In the process of engaging in primary source research,

many students become enthusiastic about history rather than being bored by it (Cantu & Warren, 169).’

Cantu and Warren prove that with the growing access to the Internet at schools ‘teachers can no longer legitimately complain about lack of availability of primary source materials.’ Polish teachers are not as lucky as their American colleagues, because the Polish sources available in the Internet are not as thoroughly prepared for use at school as the ones from the American National Archives.¹⁸ These are usually raw materials, with information about the source itself at best, but with no suggestions how to integrate it in a lesson plan.¹⁹ Textbook IT resources addressed to the teachers provide a lot of historical sources, often with comments and instructions how to use them in a class (sometimes with questions to ask and with other materials to use – including visuals). Pupils’ CD-ROMs (and webpages) almost completely lack such materials (unless they are parts of the paper version of a textbook which is copied into a .pdf file). They usually adopt the same old authoritarian textbook style that claims to know everything and to carry ready-to-learn-by-heart material rather than provide pupils with sources and provoke doubts, questions and discussion.

3. *Assessment* is one of the most vexing and taxing issues associated with teaching. It is also one of the most important both for students and teachers. [...] Teachers think carefully about the development of their instructional objectives and the relationship between those objectives and their choice of assessments. Students and teachers cannot benefit from assessments that focus on relatively unimportant aspects of the material presented or demonstrated by students.’ (Cantu & Warren, 241)

Information Technology allows teachers to base the tests not only on traditional texts, but also on maps or pictures – that are of comparable or even better quality than in the printed form – and on the sound recordings, animations and films – that are completely unavailable for individual use in traditional education. Dragging and dropping objects with a mouse to fill a test is much more pupil-friendly than using a traditional pencil. Final output usually looks much neater on a screen than on paper. Exercises can be re-done over and over again until satisfactory results are achieved, and – unlike in the paper form – a blank questionnaire is always neat and clean, even if erased several times.

Immediate results are one of the greatest advantages of the electronic tests. A pupil does not have to wait for his/her score. Some applications offer sound feedback which immediately informs whether the answer was correct. This may be one of the reasons why the pupil interactive exercises are the most popular parts of educational software. There are also different forms of graphical presentation of the results (smileys, progress bars or pies, pictures). Tracing a pupil's progress is an important (and positive) feature of all the Young Digital Poland applications while online tests by Wydawnictwa Szkolne i Pedagogiczne provide only current overall score.

There are lots of tests in the textbook IT resources of different types (true-false statements, multiple choice, gap filling etc.), also in the form of an arcade game, but they usually check only basic knowledge, from the bottom of Bloom's taxonomy. More sophisticated tests involve such skills as reading maps, interpreting primary sources or recognizing visual elements, but they are much less common.

4. *Cooperative learning*: Warren and Cantu claim that 'cooperation should be used about 70 percent of the time in a classroom. Cooperation is the unconscious goal of interaction. More than 90 percent of all human interactions are cooperative (Warren & Cantu, 205)'.

Polish textbook IT resources are individualistic. They seem to be designed rather for individual use at home than for cooperative work in the classroom – and the questionnaire proves that this is the predominant way how they actually are used. On the other hand, such an individualistic design may discourage teachers from incorporating those materials into their classes – and here we have a vicious circle. While at the same time we can read that 'another purpose cooperative learning serves is to maximize achievement when using computer-assisted instruction', yet each pupil may be good at something else and together they will master a really good piece of work. A Webquest would be a good example of this type of engaging IT into the teaching-learning process, but no single example of Webquest was found in the analyzed materials.

5. *Active learning, inquiry-based activities* are the opposite of the authoritarian style of traditional teaching where teachers' lectures and textbook readings made pupils passive receivers of facts and interpretations, and they were usually bored from the very beginning of

the lesson. Warren and Cantu propose several strategies of learning and of developing lesson plans that involve pupils' intellectual and emotional spheres and encourage them to actively participate in their learning process. They include searching for different sources of information, evaluating them, collecting and arranging them, using them to produce new entities and reflecting on the learning process.

Non-linear structure of the WWW and CD-ROM materials of the Polish textbooks let pupils decide what to read, see or listen, in which order, how many times etc., but in the analyzed materials there are only scarce references to outside resources, e.g. books or other Web pages. One can more easily find references to the Internet materials in the printed textbooks than in their IT resources on CD-ROMs. And as mentioned above, Webquest – a typical inquiry-based technique involving information technology – remains almost completely unknown to history teachers and pupils in Poland.

Conclusions

Analyzed materials prove that there are educational IT resources related to history in Polish. Pupils try to use them, but usually on their own and in their own amateur way. Teachers do not recommend, help or check if and what their students do in this regard though some of them find the textbook IT-resources a useful repetition tool.

Unless the textbook IT resources are used at school and at home it may be difficult to guess how effective they are. Hopefully, their growing popularity among textbook publishers will encourage both teachers and pupils to include them in their everyday practice and thus give more opportunities for evaluation. Perhaps, experimental classes can be organized to compare the effectiveness of the IT-supported history learning with the traditional one, preferably not only in terms of the increase of knowledge, but also of the practical skills acquired and of the pupils' satisfaction with the subject.

The analysis of the textbook IT-resources should not be limited to basic bibliographic data, i.e. titles, authors, software developers, publishers and forms of publishing. The following questions should be asked as well: To whom are the resources addressed? What pedagogical goals do they help to achieve? What teaching methods do they suggest? What teaching aids do they contain? How are they related to the textbook they accompany and to other resources? How

do they use computer hardware? The answers should be helpful in the evaluation process.

In order to enhance the usage of the textbook IT resources, they should be better related to other educational materials. Teachers' books should include practical advice on how to incorporate these resources into lesson plans. So far, they mostly remain merely gadgets for the minority of computer-savvy and IT-enthusiastic teachers and pupils who switch their PCs on not only for entertainment. Until satisfactory didactical solutions and examples of good practice in using IT for history teaching and learning are published, teachers will be more willing to look for excuses like the lack of computers at schools and at pupils' homes, technical problems etc.

Notes

¹ Cuban, L. (2001), *Oversold and Underused. Computers in the Classroom*, Cambridge (Mass.), London: Harvard University Press.

² For a full list of the textbooks examined and of their IT resources – see Appendix A. New reform in education, with new national curricula and new textbooks, was launched in 2009 and will be completed by 2012. So far, only initial parts of the new textbook sets have been published. They do not add too much to the IT usage, however.

³ Nowa Era, Wydawnictwa Szkolne i Pedagogiczne, Wydawnictwo Szkolne PWN.

⁴ Roszak, S. (ed) (2009), *Śladami przeszłości*, Nowa Era: Warszawa.

⁵ For a detailed list of IT resources accompanying books by different publishers – see appendix A.

⁶ Earlier, Young Digital Poland developed Edu-ROMs, a form of electronic textbooks – although unofficial ones, with no ministerial approval – for most school subjects for primary and lower secondary school. Nowa Era textbook CD-ROMs look quite similar to Edu-ROMs, with user interface and general stability significantly improved.

⁷ Przybytek, D. (2010) 'Ziemie Zachodnie i Północne – multimedialny pokaz kartograficzny' (Western and Northern Territories – cartographic multimedia presentation), paper presented during a conference 'Muzeum Ziemi Zachodnich – historia i perspektywy' (Museum of Western Territories – History and Perspectives) in Wrocław (Poland), May 18-19, 2010.

⁸ Teachers generally report much more computer usage during the history lessons than pupils do. All but 3 of them wrote that they either prepared PowerPoint presentations for their lessons or had lessons in a computer lab. At the same time, 96 % of pupils reported not to ever have computer used during a

history lesson. And those who gave positive answers were individuals from different classes and schools. There was no group that would indicate using computers during the history lessons.

⁹ There are fewer incongruences in the teachers' answers. Nevertheless, two of them said their pupils use the IT resources during the history lessons and at home, although one of them chose 'no', and another one 'I do not know' if there were any IT resources for their students' textbooks.

¹⁰ Approximately the same number of other pupils also gave their opinions. Some of them indicate that the respondents could think either about their entire textbooks or generally about the Internet or IT teaching materials.

¹¹ 224 pupils said that their teachers encouraged them to use computer to learn history or approved that, 299 chose options 'does not approve' or 'discourages'. The results of 'computer literacy in regard to history' differed only slightly between groups, however:

Teacher's attitude towards IT	Total	Pupils know historical websites	Pupils know historical comp. programs	Pupils know Other historical IT resources
Positive	224	188 (84 %)	28 (12,5 %)	21 (9 %)
Negative	299	238 (80 %)	30 (10 %)	24 (8 %)

¹² My personal experience as a teacher trainer proves that this problem can be quite easily overcome. Our students who appreciate multimedia presentations usually bring their own laptops or they can use the one that usually accompanies a beamer provided by the school. The projector is usually not in the history classroom, but is locked somewhere at school and available upon request (though normally remains unused as there are no teachers interested).

¹³ A question about plagiarism confirms that the older the pupils are, the more likely is the fact that they or their friends ever plagiarized. General ratio is 77% (237, i.e. 45 % themselves plagiarized, of whom 86 in history; 367, i.e. 70 %, have a friend who did it), with 67 % at primary schools, 84 % at lower secondary ones, and all but two pupils from upper secondary school.

¹⁴ First, they should educate themselves in this regard as only about a quarter of the teachers provided the names of the real history-related websites.

¹⁵ [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Total_War_%28series%29_\(4.09.2010\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Total_War_%28series%29_(4.09.2010)).

¹⁶ The most recent Polish research in this field, including bibliography is a book by Osiński, Z. (2005), *Technologia informacyjna w edukacji humanistycznej* [Information Technology in humanistic education], Toruń: Firma Wydawniczo-Handlowa "Mado".

¹⁷ All references (and page numbers) in this section refer to: Cantu, D. & Warren, W. (2003), *Teaching History in the Digital Classroom*, Armonk, London: M. E. Sharpe.

¹⁸ <http://www.archives.gov/education/> (13.09.2010).

¹⁹ The largest collection of thoroughly edited documents from the Polish history is available at <http://dziedzictwo.polska.pl/>. A selection of the documents available with English description can be found at <http://www.poland.pl/>, menu 'Polish archives' (13.09.2010).

Appendix A

Textbook publishers examined and their IT resources for pupils and teachers

GWO: www.gwo.pl; WWW open: Curriculum and time schedule; WWW locked¹⁹: Tests and other materials from teacher's books; CD/DVD: Interactive maps, CD about the Warsaw uprising.

Juka-91: www.juka-91.com.pl; WWW locked: For registered teachers.

MAC: www.mac.pl; WWW locked: Lesson plans and tests for registered teachers

Nowa Era: www.nowaera.pl; WWW open: Links to articles and other resources; WWW locked: Plenty of materials for teachers, including tests; CD/DVD: CD-ROM for each primary and lower secondary textbook.

Operon: www.operon.pl; WWW locked: Teacher's materials; CD/DVD: DVD with films

Stentor: www.stentor.pl; WWW locked: A few tests and lessons plans, some upon fee

Wiking: www.wiking.com.pl; WWW open: Tests, lesson plans, vocabulary of historical terms

WSiP: www.wsipnet.pl; WWW open: Tests, pictures, anecdotes for selected chapters of selected textbooks, Demo of interactive charts; WWW locked: Materials for registered teachers. Films to buy; CD/DVD: For teachers, interactive charts, WSiP is a publisher of other educational software.

Wydawnictwo Szkolne PWN: www.wszpwn.com.pl; WWW locked: Teacher's materials only upon registration; CD/DVD: Teacher's materials on 4 CD-ROMs for primary and lower secondary school; interactive atlas and tests for upper secondary school to buy (for teachers)

Znak: www.znakdlaszkoly.pl; WWW open: Teacher's books in .pdf files, curricula; CD/DVD: A CD with teacher's materials to buy

Żak: www.wydawnictwo-zak.pl; WWW open: Results schedule

Other publishers examined (with no IT): Graf-Punkt, Zielona Sowa, Pazdro, Scholar, Adam

Appendix B
Pupils' Questionnaire

1. How often do you use computer to learn history:
 - a. at school during the history lessons
 - b. at school in the computer lab
 - c. at home on your teacher's request
 - d. at home on your own initiative
2. What's the attitude of your history teacher towards using computer while learning?
 - a. He encourages us
 - b. He accepts when we do it
 - c. He is indifferent
 - d. He discourages us
 - e. He does not allow us to use computer
3. Is the attitude of other teachers similar?
4. What materials do you use while using computer to learn history:
 - a. Websites
 - b. Educational software
 - c. Other (what?)
5. What is your history textbook (give the names of authors, publisher)
6. Does your textbook have its webpage or a CD-ROM attached to it?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. I don't know
7. Have you ever used materials that can be found there?
 - a. Yes, during a history lesson
 - b. Yes, at home on my teacher's request
 - c. Yes, at home on my own initiative
 - d. No
8. What do you think about those materials?
9. Do you know related to history:
 - a. Computer programs (software) (please give the names)
 - b. Webpages (please give the names)
 - c. Internet forums (please give the names)
 - d. Games (please give the names)
10. Have you ever copied homework from the Internet
 - a. For a history lesson
 - b. For other lessons (of what subject(s)?)
11. Do you know a person who did it?
12. Has your teacher ever noticed it?
13. If yes, what were the consequences?

14. Do you use computer to learn (besides computer science lessons):
- a. During a lesson of _____
 - b. While doing my homework for _____

Appendix C
Teachers' Questionnaire

Sex:

Teaching experience (in years):

Subjects taught:

1. Have you ever taken part in courses/post-graduate studies/trainings of IT?
2. What have you learned during those classes?
3. What is your opinion about those classes?
4. How would you grade your computer skills, using school grades from 1 to 6?
5. Have you ever prepared for your history lesson (please give an example of a subject):
 - a. a multimedia presentation
 - b. a lesson for a computer science teacher to be taught in a computer lab?
 - c. your own history lesson in a computer lab
 - d. homework to be done using a computer (using a computer optionally____, using a computer compulsory ____)If you do one some of these things regularly, please write how often.
6. What makes it difficult for you to use a computer during a history lesson:
 - ___hardware
 - ___no computer in the classroom
 - ___no beamer
 - ___no software
 - ___no access to a lab with a computer for each pupil
 - ___old hardware
 - ___unreliable software
 - ___long installation process
 - ___pupils' discipline:
 - ___while computers warm-up
 - ___during work with computers
 - ___your lack of competences
 - ___your lack of self-confidence
 - ___other factors (what?)
7. Do you use a computer to prepare your lessons:
 - ___searching for information in the Internet
 - ___copying ready-to-use materials from the Internet
 - ___preparing your own materials for the pupils (e.g. tests, worksheets)

- ___preparing multimedia presentations
___otherwise (how?)
8. What is your attitude towards using a computer in your pupils' homework?
___I encourage
___I accept
___I am indifferent
___I discourage
___I do not allow
9. Do you know materials related to history (please give examples of names/addresses):
a. computer programs
b. WWW pages
c. Internet forums
d. computer games
10. What history textbooks do your pupils use (author, publisher)
11. Do these textbooks have their webpages with additional materials or a CD-ROM attached
___yes
___no
___I do not know
12. Do your pupils use materials that can be found there?
___during the lessons
___as their homework
___at home on their own
___I don't know
13. What do you think about those materials?
14. Have you ever assessed a multimedia presentation prepared by your pupils?
15. What were the criteria for that assessment?
16. Do you accept pupil's works printed on a computer printer?
___as a file (attached to an e-mail or on a pendrive)?
17. Has any of your pupils happened to present you a work that he had copied from the Internet as his/her own?
18. How did you recognize that?
19. What were the consequences for him?
20. What are your methods to deal with plagiarism among pupils?
21. Do you use Internet (e.g. e-mail) to communicate with
___your pupils
___their parents
22. What are, in your opinion, the advantages of using computer during history lessons?
23. And what are the disadvantages?
24. What are, in your opinion, the advantages of using computer in pupils' homework?
25. And what are the disadvantages?

FORUM



TRANSNATIONAL HISTORY IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Marko Demantowsky

This article presents an argument from a German background and point of view in a current American debate about new challenges in teacher education. Experience and theory both show how necessary Transnational History is as a foundation for contemporary teacher training. Three ways to proceed in Germany are presented here, with suggestions for other countries, too.¹

1. Current Debate

This study originated in an ongoing debate entitled ‘Training Teachers of World History’ that has appeared in ‘Perspectives on History’ (the magazine of the American Historical Association) since October 2009.² Robert McBain and Lauren McArthur Harris of the University of Wisconsin initiated the debate, being intellectually alert to serious deficiencies in the education of American teachers of world history.

Bain and Harris see two major problems. The first concerns supply and demand.³ Serious political developments in the United States and beyond stimulated a new interest and demand for World History courses in schools. According to a current survey 75% of all American high school graduates have attended such a course, an increase of 100% over 1982. Correspondingly all schools are eager to include such courses in the curriculum. There was, however, not enough teacher training to meet the demand. Teacher education at universities was still dominated by courses dealing with national history as promoted by Senator Robert Byrd’s Teaching American History Institute.⁴ So World History courses are still taught in an inappropriate way or even by teachers without any formal world historical training.

In the German Laender there are no World History courses competing with standard history courses, so one cannot make a claim for more teacher training based upon the number of students enrolled in World History courses. But the political and cultural changes due to globalization which Bain and Harris use as an explanation for the US trend are of relevance in Germany as well.

This is why one may talk of a similar new need for historical orientation in the USA and Germany. So the reflections of Bain and Harris are interesting for the German discourse as well.

Bain and Harris call their second concern the Problem of Coherence.⁵ Teachers notice that World History does not provide a convincing narrative framework when compared with national history courses that often provide a flat success story. It is all too easy to end up in the trap of the old or traditional narrative of World History (rise of the west) with its more or less hidden background philosophy if one tries to narrate or teach the *one* history of the whole world. Even the glorified *National Standards for World History* (1996) cannot in the end escape that trap of hermeneutic blurring.

The so-called Problem of Coherence is not so much a problem as a paradoxical risk and a special chance for history classes to question our common nostricentric boundaries instead of accepting them as an initial condition that is taken for granted. Moreover one can probably more seriously investigate such a Transnational History if it is not, as in the USA, taught separately from the common history course but, as we can hope for in Germany, forced to integrate repeatedly within the latter. This is similar to what Denis Shemilt once called 'polythetic narrative framework'.⁶ However, he used the term in the context of another derivation and with regard to a British history course.

2. Why Do We Need Transnational History in Teacher Training? Examples.

Anyone discussing teacher education has to bear on its field of reference: lessons in school. Here are three examples: German history textbooks and lessons dealing with the end of the Seven Years War, the First World War, or the revolutionary changes of 1989, usually treat these subjects just as they had done forty years ago.⁷

German pupils learn specifically more about the Treaty of Hubertusburg than about the Treaty of Paris. The conclusion of the Seven Years War appears first and foremost as 'the Miracle of the House of Brandenburg' and not as the first effective global balancing of interests (which it probably was), which brought about cultural relations and coinage important to the present day.⁸

The same holds true of the end of the First World War. German students may learn a lot about the Treaty of Versailles and its severe results for the German Empire but they usually learn nothing about the other peace treaties of Saint-Germain, Neuilly, Trianon, Sèvres or Lausanne and their worldwide rearrangement of boundaries and state loyalties that have brought about persistent conflict right up to the present day.⁹

Finally, 1989: teachers and students often consider themselves fortunate if their history class reaches this very contemporary era at all. If '1989' is treated at all then it is probably in accordance with the leading medium of the history class – the textbook. Following the common depictions German pupils can learn a lot about governmental actions from Moscow, Berlin, Bonn, Paris and London to Washington, but they mainly learn about German reunification. They can also learn something about the East German civic movement, and the struggle for freedom of travel, speech or political participation. German narratives also normally do not forget to refer to the Polish *Solidarność* or to the first Hungarian reformers. However, dozens of African, Latin-American and Asian upheavals, revolutions and reform movements between 1988 and 1991 from Beijing to Rangoon, Addis Ababa, Pretoria, Assuncion and Santiago de Chile – just to name a few – remain blinded out completely. Under such treatment 1989 does not stand out as the long year of real global interrelation, which appears strange from the perspective of today. It ought to be considered as a year of a worldwide breakdown of usurped state power regardless of each country's political agenda. From a transnational perspective '1989' can be regarded as a pandemic of the democratic desire for freedom.¹⁰

These three examples were chosen to make clear and concrete why we need schools and teachers to think in terms of Transnational History.¹¹ They ought to show by examples what potential for learning exists in the manner of historical thought.

In my opinion it is also possible to deal with this argument on a more abstract level.

3. Why Do We Need Transnational History in Teacher Education? Theory

Here I follow two aspects. First, the perspective and approach of Transnational History is a question of hermeneutical completion. Many historical interpretations of past phenomena simply remain insufficient if one forces them onto the narrow framework of national narratives. It is, admittedly, a familiar objection to this argument that every didactical decision on certain subject arrangements, whether at schools or colleges, is necessarily determining and excluding. We simply have to choose, according to this argument, between alternatives, and that is why hermeneutical completion is not more than an empty phrase. One might notice an underlying assumption: if a decision is basically and inherently arbitrary, then I can practice those subject patterns that my students and I are accustomed to. Nothing is more comfortable than this didactical habit.

However, it is at the same time, unfortunately, logically not convincing. If we think of Transnational History, the term 'hermeneutical completion' refers not to *any* subject arrangement but to special ones. The special nature of these cases consists of their cross-border, cross-culture, cross-era or cross-domain structure. There are plenty of historical phenomena that can be explained sufficiently in a national narrative ('Basisnarrativ').¹² There are, however, also some historical phenomena needing strict transnational explanation, as measured by the general methodological principles of historical research. 'Historians no longer have to invent the world in order to study world history.'¹³

Secondly, in the other aspect of the subject, the argument of hermeneutical completion is not only a methodological one. Beyond that and perhaps not less important is the fact that requirements of our educational target groups – or, to use Bain's and Harris's words, the history referring demands of students in times of cross-cultural mass migration with its continuous repercussions and the much-emphasized economic, environmental and cultural globalization – have changed considerably. In short, it is not a matter of course that our apparently comfortable nostrocetric narrative framework is indeed truly plausible for our current learning groups at school and at college, being often composed of students from totally different Web-2.0Lifeworlds which demand completely different identi-

fications than those we are used to. The situation is regionally different but structurally the same.

One may observe a common situation, 'non-contemporaneity of the concurrent' or in German an 'Ungleichzeitigkeit des Gleichzeitigen.' Many teachers and teacher educators are educated and prepared for life in times and situations characterized by a scarcely developed cultural and ethnical diversity. Nonetheless they are confronted by rising diverse cultural requirements in their learning groups today. This mental and social gap has to be bridged if history education at schools and colleges is to fulfill its responsibility to encourage and support a balanced historical interest and identity. Education needs mutual comprehension.

4. Framework Conditions for Transnationally Oriented History Education

The call for Transnational History at German general-education schools requires that the deficiencies of current practice be described. When I consider all the scientifically generated empirical data about German history education, when I consider common knowledge, and finally when I consider my own experience as a former teacher or my current experience as a teacher-trainer, I have to assert that Transnational History or a global perspective on history is in effect irrelevant in German history education. The traditional master narrative in its national or Western variation, depending on the era being studied, governs the German pupil's access to history.

Much has changed positively since the 1970's, due to the awakening of History Didactics in Germany. We can look with pride at vigorous and up-to-date teaching principles like source-orientation, method-orientation and project-orientation among others. However, regarding the basic patterns of different variations of the creation of historical significance and identity, we are confronted by very traditional one-dimensional historicism. In textbooks and in their plans for lessons and panel discussions there is cultivated a nostrorcentric one-dimensional outlook which can only be marveled at.

The reason for that peculiar inadequacy of methodological innovation and for the unchanging content cannot be found in the social circumstances of history education. Rather, the broad diversity

of today's pupils should lead teachers to reflect earnestly upon the traditional patterns of history narration. The reason for that inadequacy is to be found, in my opinion, mainly in the individual teacher and the different phases of teacher education. Above all, this inadequacy is *not* based on a lack of emphasis on textbooks or curricula. Criticism of official curricula is always possible and desirable, but it should not become a cheap excuse which simultaneously claims a didactical authority of instruction for itself. Curricula and textbooks are one thing, concrete lesson plans are another.

And indeed, looking analytically at contemporary German history school standards and curricula one can find many fashionable phrases in the political and educational prefaces and many fashionable trends concerning historical content. But one can find absolutely nothing leading to a systematic and reasonable answer to the social, economic and environmental diversity challenges of the present time and our probable future.

Current curricular prefaces deliver plenty of concepts like 'competence expectations,' 'global knowledge,' 'guiding knowledge' and 'performance standards'. Any explanation of the standards and content of curricula requires an understanding of the modern world, of transcultural contacts and of how people across the world understand or misunderstand one another. However, if one looks just a little further, leafing through the fanciful language of educational policy, one discovers those features of the curricula that have the most significance for history teachers in their daily professional lives: the content charts.

Admittedly, beside the well-known canon of Western knowledge some non-European and normally non-German topics are stipulated too – but just concerning the three 'classical,' nostrocetric historical fields of world history: the era of 'Discoveries' beginning with Columbus, the era of 'Imperialism' of major European powers, and finally the confrontation of the Cold War and its by now predictable successful outcome.

Briefly speaking, the seemingly super-modern curriculum follows the old-fashioned dichotomizing mantra of 'The West and the Rest,' if 'the Rest' gets on the horizon at all. To complete the picture, I would like to mention the most modern among the approximately one hundred history curricula in federal Germany, the curriculum of North Rhine Westphalia for the Sekundarstufe I (secondary school)

from 2007.¹⁴ A glance at the current curriculum from the Land Berlin for 2006 leads to no other result. The conclusion that Bain and Harris came to with similar results for the United States in 2009 is indeed worth considering. The basic narrative patterns of historical teaching are obviously strongly resistant to change.

5. Conclusions: What Does Teacher Education Need in Order to Enable Teachers to Teach Transnational History?

Three points stand out:

- The substantial change and improvement of official guidelines and the corresponding textbooks is a long-term business and it is in addition a political business. Insofar as it is political it is incalculable and contingent upon outside circumstances. Frequent attempts to exert influence on education policy and textbook production certainly make sense, but they do not refer directly to our professional responsibility; nor do they exhaust it.
- In order to promote the desired change we must look at the everyday professional practice of history teachers at university. Bain and Harris claim correctly 'However, a crucial question remains. What knowledge of world history is most valuable for teachers of world history?'¹⁵ From what I have observed, the Science of History in Germany has expanded extensively over the last twenty-five years to include suggestions and criticisms from representatives of the schools of Historical Comparison, the History of International Relations, Postcolonial Studies, Global History and Transcultural History, just to name a few. One result among others was a kind of a 'New National History.'¹⁶ Therefore the problems which might be charged to history education at German schools certainly are of less concern to history courses taught at university. Nevertheless in courses of, for example, Medieval History, students should not only be taught the theoretical and conceptual questions of Transnational History. It is from my point of view much more important to challenge every subject systematically according to the problem of hermeneutical completion.¹⁷ Whatever the political and cultural borders might be at the time under study, whatever traditional limits of explanation might exist in our time, the educational question is: what are the real sufficient historical explanations and interpretations?

Concerning university courses in History Didactics it seems to be important to make intellectual autonomy sustainably possible in dealing with historic-political demands, curricula and textbooks, all this with regard to the circumstances and the normative setting of the prospective occupational field, which can be quite divergent as far as the new approach of Transnational History is concerned. Teachers must be able to understand and to explain the principles of narrative construction as oriented toward certain target groups. They must also be able to recognize and judge the conditions and factors of the process in which master narratives are generated, how they keep their validity and how they manifest themselves concretely. Thus they do not only need a knowledge of historical fact in order to plan lessons but also the competence of deconstruction in order to become able to make their pupils do their part in constructing a corpus of history which is reasonable, communicable and which can also be criticized – in short, a somewhat sophisticated historical identity.

- In conclusion, still more important than straightforward teacher training seems to be advanced teacher training. From research we know that young teachers, confronting the mighty and innumerable demands of school reality and school supervision, tend to distance themselves quickly from what they learned at college.¹⁸ This is especially valid at a point where established certainties are brought into question. Thus young teachers need support, and that is why a continuous and persistent follow-up in Transnational History teaching is necessary to hold firmly in place those historical skills, habits and competences that hopefully we instilled in teachers at college. This presumes a better organizational frame of German advanced teacher training. And it naturally presumes the willingness of university lecturers to commit to teacher training. Often good intentions fail in practice because there are no handouts of specific historical content for teacher with which one could compensate for deficiencies in the fields of Transnational History. These deficiencies are conditioned by the different ages and experiences of teachers, but they could be rectified by specific directives from the university for use in history classes in schools. This appears to me as a prospective field for commitment.

Coming to the End

Bain and Harris have not only triggered an important debate in the United States. The above mentioned problem of supply and demand is relevant for Germany as well, but in a different way. I have tried to demonstrate how one might work on this problem. The Problem of Coherence which is stressed by Bain and Harris can however not be regarded as such: paradoxically, the attempt to solve it leads behind current standards of scientific knowledge in the discipline. Those standards should maintain their power of veto in the field of World History education.

Notes

¹ With many thanks to Mr. George Wrangham for his linguistic corrections, all remaining inaccuracies are mine.

² Bain, R. & McArthur Harris, L. (2009) 'A Most Pressing Challenge: Preparing Teachers of World History', *Perspectives online 2009*: (<http://www.historians.org/perspectives/issues/2009/0910/0910tea1.cfm>, last opened at 2010-05-15); Cohen, S. (2009) 'Teaching Teachers of World History', *Perspectives online 2009* (<http://www.historians.org/perspectives/issues/2009/0910/0910tea2.cfm>, last opened at 2010-05-15); Tischler, B. (2009) 'Teaching World History – Issues and Possibilities', *Perspectives online 2009* (<http://www.historians.org/perspectives/issues/2009/0910/0910tea4.cfm>, last opened at 2010-05-15); Stearns, Peter N. (2009) 'Getting the Big Picture: Teaching World History Teachers', *Perspectives online 2009* (<http://www.historians.org/perspectives/issues/2009/0910/0910tea3.cfm>, last opened at 2010-05-15).

³ Bain, R. & McArthur Harris, L. (2009), paragraphs 2-4.

⁴ Vide <http://teachingamericanhistory.org>, last opened 2010-05-15.

⁵ Bain, R. & McArthur Harris, L. (2009), paragraphs 5-11.

⁶ Shemilt, D. (2000) 'The Caliph's Coin. The Currency of Narrative Frameworks in History Teaching', in P. N. Stearns et al. (eds) (2000): *Knowing, Teaching & Learning History. National and International Perspectives*, New York/London: New York University Press, 83-101, esp. 97f.

⁷ This empirical based supposition gets currently even more evidence by the results of a Bochum master thesis project, vide van Laack, Christina (2010), *Globalgeschichte in NRW-Geschichtsschulbüchern? Drei Fallstudien*, Bochum: Ruhr-Universität [in print]. For a theoretical approach vide Popp, S. (2003) 'Weltgeschichte im Geschichtsunterricht? Geschichtsdidaktische Überlegungen zum historischen Lernen im Zeitalter der Globalisierung', in S. Popp & J. Förster (eds) *Curriculum Weltgeschichte*, Schwalbach: Wochenschauverlag, 68-103, esp. 71-77.

- ⁸ Füssel, M. (2010), *Der Siebenjährige Krieg. Ein Weltkrieg im 18. Jahrhundert*, Munich: Beck.
- ⁹ E. g. vide Fromkin, D. (1989), *A Peace to End All Peace. The Fall of the Ottoman Empire and the Creation of the Modern Middle East*, New York: Owl Books.
- ¹⁰ Demantowsky, M. (2009) 'Die Komplexität von 1989'. Plädoyer für eine globale Perspektive, *Geschichte lernen* 2009, 22/128, 39-45.
- ¹¹ Transnational History is supposed to be a general term of all contemporaneous approaches to meta-national history narrative frameworks, such as Global History, modern World History, Postcolonial Studies and so on, vide Budde, G. & Conrad, S. & Janz, O. (2006) 'Vorwort', in: eidem (eds) *Transnationale Geschichte. Themen, Tendenzen und Theorien*, Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 11-14.
- ¹² Cf. Popp, S. (2003) (note 7), 71.
- ¹³ Bright, C. & Geyer, M. (1987) 'For a Unified History of the World in the Twentieth Century', *Radical History Review* 39 (1987), paragraph 1 (<http://www.emazine.com/lectures/fora.htm>, last opened at 2010-05-15).
- ¹⁴ Ministerium für Schule und Weiterbildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen (ed) (2007), *Kernlehrplan für das Gymnasium – Sekundarstufe I (G8) in Nordrhein-Westfalen, Geschichte*, Düsseldorf.
- ¹⁵ Bain & Harris 2009 (note 2), paragraph 21.
- ¹⁶ Blackbourn, D. (2004) 'Das Kaiserreich transnational. Eine Skizze', in S. Conrad & J. Osterhammel (ed) *Das Kaiserreich transnational. Deutschland in der Welt 1871-1914*, Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 302-323.
- ¹⁷ Comparable argument by Popp, S. (2003) (note 7), 88-90, similarly the demands by Günther-Arndt, H. & Kocka, U. & Martin, J. (2009) 'Geschichtsunterricht zur Orientierung in der Welt – Zu einer Didaktik von Globalgeschichte', in *geschichte für heute*, 2/3, 25-30, esp. 26. Some ideas complementary by Osterhammel, J. (2009) 'Weltgeschichte – von der Universität in den Unterricht' in *Weltgeschichte – von der Universität in den Unterricht*, Konstanz: Universität Konstanz 5-13.
- ¹⁸ Terhart, E. (1990) 'Sozialwissenschaftliche Theorie - und Forschungsansätze zum Beruf des Lehrers 1970-1990', *Zeitschrift für Sozialisationsforschung und Erziehungssoziologie* (1990), 10, 235-254.

HISTORY TEXTBOOKS AND THE ACOUSTIC DIMENSION. A NEW FIELD FOR TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS?

Robert Maier

Mentions of acoustic phenomena (noises, sounds, melodies etc.) in history textbooks, though themselves 'dumb', enable pupils to imagine the 'sound' of history. This study explores how intensive this phenomenon is, its causes and the ways in which it is presented. By taking a look at textbooks from earlier periods, one may realise that the widespread advancement of images has led to the neglect of the acoustic dimension of history in textbooks. Cultural influences also have to be brought to account. The study of a Brazilian textbook shows that, in cultures which rely only minimally on written tradition, the reconstruction of historical sonospheres acquires greater importance. New media make it possible to place greater emphasis on the acoustic dimension of history in classrooms. If textbooks are commensurate with the medial pilot function ascribed to them and recognise the critical treatment of 'sounds' as a pedagogical exercise, the challenge they face is considerable indeed.

Hardly anyone would deny that there is an acoustic side to history. On an individual level, voices, sounds, screams and melodies are often the most lasting memories as they possess a particular emotional value. Sound sequences constitute historical rituals such as drum rolls and fanfares. Tonal icons are key expressions of identity within communities, such as hymns or the chimes of Big Ben, and, like Joseph Goebbels' cry, 'Do you want total war?', they take on symbolic character for a particular epoch.

For a long time, the history conveyed by textbooks was reduced to texts. This only changed during the course of the last few decades as a result of new printing technologies. Now it is hardly possible to imagine textbooks without images that are discussed and evaluated. With the acoustic dimension of history, however, it is quite a different story. Now, as ever, textbooks are a silent medium, and consequently textbook analysis has never truly concerned itself with 'tonal history'.

At first sight this appears to be entirely logical and understandable, though it is only partly correct. Just as purely textual schoolbooks have fostered, inspired and specifically created visual conceptions of

history, 'silent' textbooks also *evoke* the 'sounds' of history. Generally, they do so unsystematically and randomly by mentioning and highlighting sounds, voices and melodies in the contexts of particular cases, and by describing them in terms of their effect on contemporaries. Whether and to what extent the sonosphere of real history is manifested in the textbook depends on the intuition and preferences of the individual authors. This essay will enquire more closely into this aspect of textbooks.

First, we must enquire how 'sound-intensive' history textbooks are. Which tonal implications do they assimilate? Are the textbooks relatively uniform in this respect, or do they differ dramatically? We can extend this question diachronically. Have earlier textbook authors perhaps attributed greater value to the acoustic dimension of history? Has the broad inclusion of images in textbooks influenced their 'sound intensity'? And has the focus on images perhaps brought about a neglect of acoustic aspects?

We can assume that textbook authors of different eras and cultures have considered different tonal observations worthy of communicating. Stereotyping nations or social groups by means of acoustic attributes is a well-known phenomenon.¹ Do textbooks exhibit and reinforce such procedures?

From a didactic point of view, one might proceed by asking to what extent and where it might be appropriate to heighten pupils' awareness of acoustic aspects, parallel to the objective of learning to adopt a 'critical approach to images'. These research questions give rise to methodological issues. How can the tonal intensity of textbooks, for example, be recorded and quantified?

Finally, a second approach to the complex matter of 'acoustics and history textbooks' can be brought into play. Modern textbooks emphasise their pivotal links with other media. They are conceived as part of a media package and connect their contents with internet products, thus developing the potential to overcome their 'silence'. How successful are they in doing so? It will not be possible to present satisfactory answers to these questions within the context of this first approach to this topic. Rather, the questions can only be addressed progressively, and by considering various methods of analysis. In single cases these can be put to the test and lead towards establishing a thesis.

Analysis of German Textbooks Currently in Use

The empirical basis for my study consists of three textbooks, each of which addresses the whole of history from prehistoric times up to the present day. This includes the five volumes of the textbook *Forum Geschichte*,² the four volumes of the work *Horizonte*,³ and the book *Entdecken und Verstehen*,⁴ which comprises three volumes. These twelve volumes contain a total of 3020 pages.

The methodological aim of this analysis was to note all pages which have recourse to acoustic phenomena in history; for instance, details of somebody shouting or whispering, singing or making music; chiming bells, signal tones, or the rumble of gunfire. The textbooks even contain indirect evocations of acoustic events insofar as they mention musical instruments, contain song texts or lend a quotation the aura of a significant dictum, all of which inspire acoustic conceptions in the reader. The line, ‘The Athenians were upset about that’, for instance, was relevant to my statistics. The extreme nature of the interpretations in some of the passages, especially in the last passage, is clear, and was only attenuated by the fact that testpersons were questioned in order to create a certain degree of intersubjectivity.⁵ However, since the initial aim was to compare the sound intensity of books, and not to establish an objective scale depicting the sustainability of sound, this shortcoming of the exploration was not very apparent. Naturally, visual material can similarly indicate acoustic aspects; a painting featuring the flautist of Sanssouci, for instance. Such references were also included in the study. The quantitative enumeration produced the following results (see also appendix I):

- 319 acoustically relevant passages were identified in the textbooks. From a total of 3020 pages, this shows that a tone ‘sounds’ occur once on (roughly) every tenth page (9.6 pages, to be exact). The differences between the various textbooks are not particularly pronounced. In *Forum Geschichte* a tone ‘sounds’ on roughly every eleventh page (10.8); in *Horizonte* on around every tenth page (9.8); and in *Entdecken und Verstehen* on approximately every eighth page (7.8). These are astonishingly low frequencies. We may conclude from this that, to a large extent, textbook authors generally omit matters of sound in their portrayals of history.

If one distinguishes between the occurrences of sound in sources and authored texts, the result is as follows:

- 61 percent of acoustically relevant passages are found in the source sections of the books, and around 39 percent in the authored texts. While there are indeed more indications of ‘tonal matter’ in the sources than in the authored texts, it is by no means the case that the sources constitute the actual or exclusive domain of ‘sound history’. This could have been assumed when developing a thesis, for sources generally represent the more emotional, more lively text genre.
- The ‘tonal intensity’ of the source texts in the three textbooks is astonishingly homogenous; thus, all three textbook authors collected an equal number of sources with acoustic qualities. There are nevertheless dramatic differences between the authored texts. The authors of *Entdecken und Verstehen* refer in their own texts almost twice as frequently to the acoustic dimension of history than the authors of *Forum Geschichte* (51 times as compared with 30, although the authored texts of the latter volume are significantly more comprehensive). We therefore concluded that the extent to which the authors’ individual narrative styles evoke acoustic elements varies dramatically. I suspect that this is an arbitrary phenomenon, on the assumption that these ‘tonal tracks’ were not laid intentionally.

The description of acoustic phenomena primarily refers to the following media:

- Song texts (with their relevant sheet music)
- Musical instruments and their use (e.g. bells, trumpet fanfares, etc.)
- Statements by individuals (dicta, cries, screams, etc.)
- Statements by large groups (chanting choruses, uproar, etc.)
- Machines and appliances
- Sounds of nature and animals.

There are no specific themes in relation to which sound is treated. An acoustic commentary comprises all topics covered by a textbook. In this case:

- Events of war
- Staged politics, revolution
- Everyday life, industry
- Culture, theatre, sport, celebrations.

There are three different kinds of texts which deal intensively with sound, and which may be extrapolated from their authors.

There are narrative fictive texts characterised by their literary quality. One example of these is to be found in the book *Entdecken und Verstehen*, with which the textbook author introduces pupils to the world of Bronze Age 'Ötzi': 'An ice-cold wind swept over the rocks [...] A man was wheezing up the mountain with a heavy load on his back [...] he had the feeling he was being followed [...] Suddenly there was a loud cry. He fell to the ground, covered in blood [...] before long he was struggling to keep his eyes open from the heavy blood loss [...] Don't fall asleep, he repeated to himself, over and over again. Don't fall asleep, for to sleep now would mean certain death.'⁶

A second category of texts lays claim to academic quality, which occurs as authored texts in textbooks. The following excerpt, taken from the same book, serves as an example describing town life in the Middle Ages: 'With daybreak drawing night, a lively hustle and bustle would arise; a constant coming and going, gauging and pondering, calling and chattering [...] Every moment there was a din of chimes and pious song, interspersed with the bellows and grunts of livestock, bawling rioters and good-for-nothings in the taverns, the hammering, planning and tapping of those working in the open workshops, the clatter of carts and stamping draught animals and on top of that the noise of numerous criers, who at a time in which only few people could read, were obliged to take on the role of posters and neon lights. [...] With the advent of nightfall the din would dwindle abruptly. After nine o'clock in the evening the town would sink into a deep slumber.'⁷

A third category consists in the sources with which contemporaries describe the sonosphere. The example below describes everyday life in a Roman bath, as handed down to us in a letter from Seneca to Lucilius: 'I live directly above the baths. Now just imagine all the various sounds that might lead you to resent your own ears. Whenever men exercise their muscles and swing their hands, loaded with leads; whenever they work themselves to death – or at least pretend to do so – I hear them groaning and spluttering. Whenever a client is treated with ointment or massage I hear various pitches of hand slapping. If the adjudicator of the ball games then proceeds to count the balls, well now I am truly at the end of my tether. And now imagine, on top of all that, the hue and cry caused by a fellow in

search of a quarrel, the yelling of a thief caught in the act; the bellows of a bathing guest who enjoys the sound of his own voice, and then the tremendous splashing of people jumping into the pool. At the same time, there is the thin and shrill voice of the hair-plucker, who incessantly yells in order to make his presence felt, rather than holding silent until he has found a client whom he then causes to scream in his place. And then finally there are all the various cries of the merchants peddling drinks, sweets and sausages, each and every one with his own version of sing-song.⁸

Excursus 1: Historical Textbooks

In order to get an impression whether and to what extent the ‘sound intensity’ of textbooks can be deduced from the time in which they are produced, we included textbooks from earlier periods in the investigation. And since it had already become apparent that the style and specific characteristics of authors and the particular period of history in question had a degree of influence on the results, two volumes written by different authors were selected which deal with the same period and which were written at around the same time. The sample included Harry Brettschneider’s *Hilfsbuch für den Unterricht in der Geschichte auf höheren Lehranstalten*⁹ and Ferdinand Schultz’s *Lehrbuch der Geschichte für die Oberstufe höherer Lehranstalten*.¹⁰

Here too, we noted the frequency of references to and descriptions of acoustic events (see appendix I). 31 references to sound were identified in the space of 212 pages in Brettschneider’s book, while in Schultz’s book 72 references were identified in the space of 224 pages. Both books are therefore more ‘sound intensive’ than textbooks currently in use. On average, acoustically relevant matter was found on every fourth page (on every 4.2 pages to be precise). It is remarkable that there are large numbers of rulers’ dicta, interspersed with Latin and French words, which were presumably frequently bandied about in public and had found a firm place in the collective acoustic memory. It is also remarkable that the populace is presented as a ‘soundbox’ of political events (‘[...] accompanied by the people’s cheers’; ‘[...] by the ranting of the mob’; while the beheading of the king was accompanied by ‘a muffled moan from the people’; ‘everything groaned under the weight of the despot’s violence’). Finally, great significance is attributed to the history of

music in these books, in relation to which sound qualities are repeatedly evoked.

Excursus 2: Non-European Textbooks

The question whether anomalous evidence may be found in other cultures could be dealt with in the scope of this investigation only on the basis of one book, and with methodologically insufficient means. We selected the Brazilian textbook, currently in use, by Rubim Santos Leão de Aquino, which covers history from the Central and South American natives to the Empire of Brazil.¹¹ The quantitative analysis shows that acoustically relevant passages occur on approximately every seventh page (6.8 to be precise). This is a higher frequency than in German textbooks. However, these findings are not sufficiently empirically founded and therefore require further investigation. There are fewer images in Brazilian textbooks, which means that there is a greater need for elaborate sound descriptions. Moreover, this book features the history of the natives of Brazil, little of which has been handed down in writing. Their culture and rites are depicted with frequent reference to their storytelling tradition, their music, their musical instruments and use of the voice, as well as sounds of their celebrations. It is striking how the most important historical event of the country – the declaration of independence – is honed into an acoustic event. The corresponding chapter is entitled ‘A Independência foi no grito’ (independence began with a shout).¹² The book then explains that, on 7 September 1822, Dom Pedro I proclaimed the independence of Brazil. ‘Foi no célebre Grito do Ipiranga’¹³ (this took place via the famous ‘Ipiranga Shout’), as depicted in the painting by Pedro Américo, *The Ipiranga Shout*.

Conclusion

Mischa Meier recently made reference to the ignorance of historians in the face of film in relation to the arrogance of the old philological disciplines towards motion pictures.¹⁴ The latter assumes that one does not need to understand the grammar of moving images. In accordance with the results of this brief study, one may certainly also acknowledge the arrogance of contemporary textbook historiography towards the acoustic dimension of history. It is simply outlandish if a textbook author evokes the emotional power of the ‘Marseillaise’

during the French Revolution merely by referring to the linguistic characteristics of the text.¹⁵ Every pupil today has access to this source in its acoustic form via new media.

History not only loses plasticity and its sensuous dimension when we overlook its acoustic elements. In the excerpt from the textbook *Entdecken und Verstehen 1* dealing with town life in the Middle Ages, as quoted at the beginning of this article, one can read the succinct phrase, 'every moment there was a din of chimes'. Chimes make more than merely a din. They were a splendid means of communication whose language was marked by very fine distinctions. And they were a form of power. Is there a better way of understanding the church's claim to power than by experiencing the carpet of sound laid all over Europe by the church in the early stages of Christendom? None of this is brought into focus in this textbook.

Even the majority of historians are not aware that, until well into the Middle Ages, scribes could only understand texts in relation to sound. Only by reading aloud deciphered texts words and their meanings could be revealed, for texts generally consisted of 'tapeworm letters'. This phenomenon, which marked the realm of experience in cloisters and offices, has not been handed down.

Textbooks should devote more serious attention to acoustic phenomena. However, they will only do so if textbook analyses actively and critically call for this desideratum. This topic is by no means founded merely on hollow sounding words.

Notes

¹ In this regard, one may think of the pejorative definitions of the languages of other peoples as nasal, hard, barking, gibberish etc. These are based on the fact that the negative stereotypes of nations are transferred to their language. Yet, over and above such machinations, national linguistic clichés are sustained in everyday life. A critical commentary about a new MP3 player with a voice function refers to the 'voice over' commentary as follows: 'The French woman naturally sounds slightly lascivious, whereas the Dutch woman sounds entirely unimpressed, the Greek man somehow moustachiod, the Portuguese and Polish women gentle, the German man hard and sober, and the Turkish woman self-confident.' Quoted in Frenzl, M. 'Der Klang der Dinge. Silberbälfischchen – Wieso der neue iPod Shuffle eine polyglotte Krawattennadel ist', *Hear the World. Das Magazin für Hör-Kultur*, (11), 23.

- ² Regenhardt, H. et al. (2005-2008), *Forum Geschichte*, Lower Saxony Edition, Berlin: Cornelsen, 5 vols for years 5-10.
- ³ Baumgärtner, U. et al. (2005-2006), *Horizonte*, Baden-Württemberg Edition, Braunschweig: Westermann, 4 vols for Gymnasium.
- ⁴ Berger - v. d. Heide, Th. et al. (2006-2009), *Entdecken und Verstehen*, Lower Saxony Edition, Berlin: Cornelsen, 3 vols for *Realschule*.
- ⁵ This is the exercise as described in the textbook Baumgärtner, U. (2007), *Anno 8. Vom Absolutismus bis zur Industriellen Revolution*, Edition Gymnasium Berlin, Braunschweig: Westermann, 99.
- ⁶ Berger - v. d. Heide, Th. et al. (2008), *Entdecken und Verstehen 1*, Lower Saxony Edition, Berlin: Cornelsen, 46.
- ⁷ Berger - v. d. Heide, Th. et al. (2008), *Entdecken und Verstehen 1*, Lower Saxony Edition, Berlin: Cornelsen, 179.
- ⁸ Baumgärtner, U. (2005), *Horizonte*, Baden-Württemberg Edition, Braunschweig: Westermann, 153. The source is referred to as Seneca, Philosophical Writings III.
- ⁹ Brettschneider, H. (1906), *Hilfsbuch für den Unterricht in der Geschichte auf höheren Lehranstalten*. Part VII. *Vom Westfälischen Frieden bis zur Gegenwart*. 5th Edition. Halle a. S.: Verlag der Buchhandlung des Waisenhauses.
- ¹⁰ Schultz, F. (1894), *Lehrbuch der Geschichte für die Oberstufe höherer Lehranstalten*. Section Four. *Geschichte der neueren und neuesten Zeit von 1648 bis zur Gegenwart*. Dresden: L. Ehlermann.
- ¹¹ Santos Leão de Aquino, R. et al. (1995), *Voce é a história, Brasil 1, Do indígena ao período regencial no Brasil* [You are History, Brazil I, From the Native Indians to the Empire of Brazil], Rio de Janeiro: Editora ao Livro Técnico.
- ¹² Santos Leão de Aquino, R. et al. (1995), *Voce é a história, Brasil 1*, 99.
- ¹³ Santos Leão de Aquino, R. et al. (1995), *Voce é a história, Brasil 1*, 100.
- ¹⁴ Meier, M. & Slanička, S. (eds) (2007), *Antike und Mittelalter im Film. Konstruktion – Dokumentation – Projektion* (Beiträge zur Geschichtskultur, Bd. 29) Cologne et al.: Böhlau.
- ¹⁵ This is how the exercise is formulated in the textbooks by Baumgärtner, U. (2007), *Anno 8. Vom Absolutismus bis zur Industriellen Revolution*, Edition Gymnasium Berlin, Braunschweig: Westermann, 99. Dieter Brückner and Harald Focke show that this can be done quite differently, by incorporating the acoustic factor, in a special chapter of their textbook entitled 'Projekt: Die gesungene Revolution' ('Project. The Sung Revolution'). See Brückner, D. & Focke, H. (2010), *Das waren Zeiten 3*, new edition for Niedersachsen, Berlin: Buchner, 52.

Appendix 1

Frequency of references to and descriptions of acoustic events in current German textbooks

Textbook	Number of pages	In authored text	In sources	Total	Average
<i>Forum Geschichte</i> 5-10	1126	30	74	104	10,8
<i>Horizonte</i> 1-4	1023	42	62	104	9,8
<i>Entdecken und Verstehen</i> 1-3	871	51	60	111	7,8
Total	3020			319	9,6

In old German textbooks

H. Brettschneider: <i>Hilfsbuch</i> 1906	212			31	6,8
F. Schulz: <i>Lehrbuch</i> , 1894	224			72	3,1
Total	436			103	4,2

In the Brazilian Textbook

<i>Voz é a história,</i> Brasil 1 (R. Santos Leão de Aquino) Rio de Janeiro 1995	109			16	6,8
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REFLECTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR THE 'EUROPEANIZATION' OF NATIONAL AND REGIONAL HISTORY MUSEUMS

Jutta Schumann & Susanne Popp

If you pass in review on the performances of the museums as institutions, which create identity, their constitutive role in the process of nation-building and in the formation of national identities becomes evident. Even today historical museums, especially national museums, are expected to contribute to the advancement of an European awareness in a united Europe. This article presents suitable deliberations and theses, which are focused on history didactics research. The aim is to point out how existing collections could provide an European focused re-interpretation and how they could present themselves that way in a new role as integrating European education institutions.

I. Introduction

In the context of the European 'nation building', the institution of a national Museum often functioned impressively as an agent of political and social change. Wherever in former times a national museum promoted the material self-presentation of a nation, it also created a social place where visitors learned to come together as members sharing a national citizenship, while being educated in their prestigious national and European cultural heritage and in their historical identity. Today there are many ideas about whether museums are able effectively to promote the topic of 'Europe' on behalf of the formation of an European identity. Based on this background, studies today are dealing with the coherence of the formation of nation states in the 19th century and the development of national museums that functioned as an 'identity factory' and were intended to promote the 'spirit of the nation' (Benes 1986; Desvallées 1992; MacDonald 2000; Grigoleit 2005; Colardello 2002; Korff 1990; Jöhler 2002; Kaplan 1994; Korff 1994; Schaer 1993).

In the light of this 19th century background the key question is how far today's museums, which are after all the keepers of European cultural artefacts, are able to make a contribution to achieving a common European identity. Many conferences, such as the one held

at the department at the University of Basel (Kreis 2008), are held on this topic focusing on the chances and opportunities of forming museums dealing with 'Europe' as a central issue. Even though researchers in general agree that museums play an important role in forming an European identity, the question of how this idea is to be put into practise remains largely unanswered (DeJong 2008, Ballé & Poulot 2004). For example, controversy surrounds the question of what type of museum could support most effectively the growth of European consciousness. In this process it is possible to distinguish different types and designs of museums. The Musée de l'Europe in Brussels, for example, emphasizes the process of unification since 1946 but also tries to establish a reference to daily life with regard to everyday history (Pomian 2008). In contrast, the Musée des Civilisations de l'Europe et de la Méditerranée in Marseilles, is designed anthropologically while taking intercultural issues into account (Kreis 2008). The implementation of a European museum in Aachen, where the intent was to make important events and movements in European history the subject of discussion, failed due to a referendum. The emergence of 'special interest museums' that focus entirely on transnational developments and deal with the promotion of the modern European present (e.g. migration, integration, interculturality) is another trend aside from the tendency to build such new museums as have been discussed above. These museums are either new foundations or new installations for old collections (Maze 2008).

Furthermore, the discussion deals with the question of the best strategy for museums to support European consciousness. Hartmut Kaelble, for instance, advises against a top-down prescribed identity which tries to replace regional or national identity by an overall European one (Kaelble 2008). According to him the museum should become a place that inspires its visitors to deal with their own identities and therefore encourage self-reflection. In this point of view Hartmut Kaelble strongly agrees with the research results of the German History Didactics (Popp & Schönemann 2009) that strongly deny the top-down-model and recommend a didactical concept that offers many varying views and multiple perspectives on the subject with the intension to encouraging self-reflection by dealing with many reference systems of identity.

In this contribution we wish to present a concept based on considerations in the field of history didactics in order to support the

above-mentioned discussion about the question if and how already *existing museums* are able to add a European perspective or even focus on new aspects by altering the framework of perception and interpretation while making only minor changes in their presentations. The main focus of the new concept is the re-interpretation of objects which are already a part of a museum's collection. This strategy needs no expensive construction of new museums and provides an opportunity to offer a European perspective to the visitor to any existing traditional history museum, be it regional or national.

II. 'Europe' as a New Challenge for 'National Museums'

As institutions which preserve the common European heritage, national museums are often expected to re-interpret existing collections and to present them as a representation of European citizenship. In doing so they are supposed to create social sites where the visitors, while being educated about their common European heritage, experience their identity as citizens of the European Union by actively confronting the political, social and cultural issues of a society.

One important issue regarding the challenges of European integration is clear: whereas, in the course of 'nation building', the self-image of the nation excluded many population groups from inclusion in the nation and relied upon an educated elite, on the other hand the principle of universal democratic participation and social cohesion are true for European integration. This means that all population groups, being expected to identify with the European Union, have a goal that they should be in line with the representations of the common European cultural heritage, even if they do not meet the profile of the traditional visitor to a national museum. This has grave implications for the choice of contents of an exhibition and for the presentation of the objects themselves, as well as on the social context of the museum and on the relationship between the visitor and the design of the museum.

Thus, the national museums which, despite a tendency towards a decreasing number of visitors, have maintained their established elitist orientation will have to face great challenges. At the same time, however, the cultural and educational policy-makers of the European Union have to decide how to support those institutions which

preserve the European cultural heritage especially in respect to the predicted demographic change. There are agreed concepts for the design of the future role of national museums, but what it really means for traditional museums to change in the prescribed way is rarely examined. National museums are often constructed in different ways and do face different risks and opportunities, so it would be only reasonable to expect that different kinds of support will be needed.

In the well-known ICOM/UNESCO-questionnaire museums which have the title of 'National Museums' are defined as museums 'which are owned or administrated by central or federal government authorities'. Beyond this simple definition there is a typical government-directed orientation toward the obligatory cultural heritage. For this reason and because of the general nature of museums (cf. ICOM statutes, Article 3), museums of this type offer very inconsistent images. This is not surprising in view of the great variation in the history of nation-building and in the history of the European state in the 19th and the 20th centuries. How difficult it is to find a definition for this type of museum was shown very clearly by the Conference Proceedings 'Setting the Frames' (Aronsson & Hillström 2007) of the European NaMu-programme, which is very demanding in its theory and is most inspiring for researchers.

In 1983, European National Museums were explicitly confronted by European identity policies for the first time, when the 'Solemn Declaration on European Union' (Stuttgart, 19 June 1983) introduced political measures to advance European identity in order to strengthen the European community and to lead it beyond a mere economic association. The Declaration referred to the concept of 'the common European cultural heritage', and thus postulated the strategy of first strengthening the cultural identity of European citizens before trying to achieve political identity. In this, the highly visible cultural diversity of Europe was considered to be a great value and a characteristic well worth preserving. The concept of a common European cultural heritage indicates participation and democracy, as every member of this union – independent of its cultural background – has a democratic claim on the common European cultural heritage. Museums, in particular national museums, deal with the common European cultural heritage which is entrusted to them by the citizens, so it is self-evident that they must make this heritage available to citizens in such a way that they can profit from it as much as

possible. In other words, the potential of the common cultural heritage to create a common European identity can only fully develop when the responsible museums take as a basis the principle of social inclusion and the participation of people.

Therefore, the concept of a common European cultural heritage gives the national museums the very important function of advancing European identity and integration and thus democratic culture. But it also requires them to change fundamentally their philosophy which is often very traditionalist and which concentrates on an audience with an elitist education, on the purity of the 'object itself', and on scientific research, while neglecting the challenges of 'museum education'. It also asks them to place the objects and collections more at the disposal of the general population, to be open to new visitor groups, and to re-interpret their inventories in such a way that the dimension of European cultural heritage is clearly demonstrated.

III. New Concepts and Measures

There is broad agreement in the analysis of the problems of the functions of national museums in the context of globalization, transnational integration, new media, the status of Anglo-American museology and related disciplines. This also concerns influential international institutions such as UNESCO, the European Council, AAM, ICOM, NEMO, EMF, and the EU cultural policy. There is also common understanding on the setting of targets for the necessary process of change. Thus museums, and in particular the national museum of the future, are given the task of functioning as public spaces in the sense of the antique democratic *αγορά* (agora), where visitors are addressed as citizens of a community and take part in open communication with their fellow-citizens from different social backgrounds in order to discuss the challenges of a common cultural heritage.

This assignment of a new social function to the traditional national museum is to be seen in these contexts:

- the shrinkage of neutral public space in cities, which is accessible to all citizens regardless of gender, race, ethnicity, age or socio-economic level (c.f. Oldenburg's theory of 'third place', Oldenburg 2000);

- the shrinkage of direct communication due to the increase in digital and virtual means of communication;
- a predicted demographic change in Europe, leading to a growing population of citizens with a migration background, which is one of the main reasons why museums should actively address this group of visitors (Kramer 1996; Rogan 2003; Sandell 2003);
- social and political efforts to strengthen the social cohesion and democratic participation in a dynamically changing multicultural society which shows a strong tendency to make more narrow and private the life of the individual as well as a growing social inequality, and which therefore sets at risk the ideal of a democratic and participatory civil society (Golding 2009; Kelly 2009, MacDonald 2003);
- the democratic conviction that all citizens have the right to profit from the common European cultural heritage; so that museums are expected to create presentations and accompanying programmes with which the people identify and recognize the issues with which they are concerned.

Such a realignment demands new concepts and new measures in the various work fields of the museum, in particular:

- in the choice of topics and displays (e.g. the inclusion of transnational topics such as migration or cultural transfer),
- in the design of exhibitions, the creative development of communication and use of the media, whose principal interest it is to reach those museum audiences which feel rejected by the traditional museum.

This could be done in the following ways:

- using objects and narration as a support to understanding and as a basis for the construction of meaning;
- designing displays to be aesthetically, intellectually and motivationally stimulating, so that a visit to a museum becomes an overall experience of real quality;
- including new visual and media technology;
- including interactive and participatory experiences, e.g. through visitors creating their own blog or curating their own exhibition;
- in the cooperation of museums in specific organizational development (e.g. systematic visitor research, staff development, guarantee of museum sustainability).

IV. Innovation Processes with References to History Didactics

a) *On the thematic level*

As a theme, the innovation process has to aim at a re-interpretation of existing museum collections in order to display a national self-representation of European citizenship and the European cultural heritage. This includes a critical evaluation of the ideology of their existing national and European narratives.

- There are many different possible approaches to a new emphasis in the collection in the light of a common European cultural heritage, such as the history of objects themselves if they show a transnational origin or have been transferred from one country to another. Furthermore it would be likewise revealing and informative to document Europe's conception of itself analytically within the overall collection and in the exhibitions of the museums, particularly those with ethnological collections. Generally speaking, the importance of the inventory of a museum, regardless of its provenance or national relevance, can be emphasized as illustrating the European cultural heritage. Therefore, these inventories have to be allocated thematically in a number of ways: as the result of transnational processes and structures, of interaction and communication, of exchange and transfers with migrations or interplay, or they can be presented as local, regional and national examples in a European context.

- *The principle of change of perspective* means that one aims to reinterpret the existing objects as representatives of a common European cultural heritage. This is not only due to the level of explicit theme and content, but also on the more fundamental level of a different approach, namely the 'change of perspective'. This concept was particularly developed by the Didactics of History in connection with the transformation of national narratives in history education. If an object is presented in a way that the observer experiences a change between the staging of a national meaning and the staging of a European meaning – analogous to a flip image – then a deconstruction of essential concepts takes place, which for instance locates the 'national' quality of an object in itself rather than in an act of construction. Through this 'conceptual change' the visitor will experience that it is by no means necessary to exchange the familiar, 'national' perception of an object with a new European one, or *vice*

versa. The visitor is able rather to be engaged actively in the construction of both levels of meaning and therefore has them both at his disposal. The method of the 'change of perspective' shows, that not the countries, laws or political strategies but the citizens themselves are able to create 'Europe' with their way of thinking, their perspectives and attitudes, and that it is possible for them to stay connected with their region, nation or other aspects of their backgrounds at the same time.

- *The principle of present-day relevance*, which also comes from the Didactics of History, is considered crucial when one tries to communicate the purpose and importance of working with the past when teaching history. In addition the interest in history of non-expert-students or visitors can often be addressed only if the meaning of the object concerns relations and questions that are relevant to them. It is advisable not to give up the approach of teaching history to non-experts, since to concern oneself with the past is not an end in itself, but is essential for an education that aims at shaping or developing responsible citizens who appreciate seemingly obvious fundamental democratic views since they know their history. If a national museum wants to address the visitor as a European citizen and if furthermore it wants to attract a new audience, it must necessarily establish ties between the objects themselves and the presence of the visitor. Means to this end include contrasts, multi-perspective observations, comparisons, cognitive dissonance, and raising important social questions and controversial topics as well as involving the visitor in the exhibition.

- Through *the principle of social inclusion* a European-oriented museum differs considerably from a traditional one. The principle of inclusion maintains that the European cultural heritage can only develop an identity forming and -connecting impact if it is in fact understood as a common heritage for which everyone is eligible. Hence museums cannot continue to exclude those social groups and the topics relevant to them from the presentation of the diverse European cultural heritage. These are very often are still excluded due to invisible and as yet invincible boundaries of social distribution, and they only appear on the level of presentation, serving as a negative contrasting foil for the superior self-expression of the national elite. A study of demographic change encourages us to imagine that in the future the younger members of society will have an enhanced

migration background, so one will understand why many of the 'others' and the 'strangers' of former presentations of European identity in museum collections will have become part of this society long ago. In order even to play a role in the multicultural history of Europe, which reaches beyond the traditional visitor, national museums will have to reinterpret their stock of objects and to discover what kind of perspectives can be developed to make a visit to the museum more attractive to young people with a migration background.

b) On the Level of Presenting Exhibitions

To put into practice the stipulated process of innovation and transformation it is not enough to choose a suitable topic and to apply the principles of 'change of perspectives', 'present-day relevance' and 'social inclusion'. If national museums want to reduce social barriers and want to remain competitive with other media and newly established museums they will have to change their methods of display.

- *On the way to entertainment?* The function of museums and especially national museums should not be confined to that of a temple, guarding precious objects only accessible to members of the elite who are equipped with enough cultural capital. In order to bring their displays of the European cultural heritage within the reach of the vast majority of EU citizens, museums have to help the visitor overcome his inhibitions by introducing more lively and graphic exhibits, or different cultural or cognitive approaches to the matter at hand. To achieve this aim museums need to display exhibits in a more approachable way. This includes incorporating multimedia presentations which will diminish the language and reading difficulties by providing scenographical descriptions, which in turn will open up new narrative and cognitive perspectives. They will create a new impetus to thought by using multimedia or virtual objects of comparison, which will provide additional *information on demand* (IOD) and open up conceptual ideas of change. All this will help alleviate anxiety about the exhibit.

- *Activating visitors:* Due to new electronic media (e.g. internet and digital television) collecting information from every library imaginable is just a click away. This allows people to participate actively in their own educational program. It should be added that the plethora of

easily accessible information changes our way of reception. The changes in media technology require that an innovative concept has to provide the visitor with a more active role. This means provision of problem- and action-oriented elements with the help of IOD-technology which presents additional channels of information and new possibilities of communication with other visitors. Apart from that it offers ways to support or enlarge the role of the museum through activating the visitors. This attempt to promote the visitor's understanding, which includes the inclusion of different perspectives and the removal of a visitor's fear of new media technology while at the same time respecting the varied backgrounds of different visitors, will take the place of indoctrination. The success of scientific and technical museums that encourage the concept of 'hands on' proves that active participation will achieve a higher level of entertainment and therefore raise the visitor's interest and consequently will attract a new target group.

- *Setting the narrative and context of an exhibition:* Art museums tend to rely on the purely aesthetically pleasing effect of their exhibits ('aura') but completely to neglect the narrative content of objects. However, preserving an object with this intent alone would miss the point of a historic and rational discourse. If an exhibit is introduced as common 'European cultural heritage', it is necessary to provide visitors who need contextual and narrative references with exactly this kind of information. This will make sure that they will gain new, and one hopes, surprising insights into cultural heritage and that they will be able to profit fully from the concept of 'change of perspective'.

c) On the Level of National Museums' Commitment to Society

Museums have a wide spectrum of tasks which range from collecting and preserving objects to educating the public, undertaking scientific research, and presenting their collections in a pleasing way. The European Union and Europe as a whole are experiencing profound social and political changes in reaction to the rapidly accelerating processes of globalization. Anglo-American discussions in particular emphasize that museums, especially national museums, play a leading role when it comes to establishing cultural identity today. These discussions also highlight the European model of unity arising from the diversity of cultures and cultural heritage. The demands facing museums today are that they demolish cultural barriers that exclude

visitors, that they attract new visitors, that they feature as a 'social arena', and that they offer a 'third place' in contrast to the isolation experienced by so many citizens.

- *Museums as 'social arenas'*: Museums should be used as forums for discussions of relevant political and social problems and challenges, where people from different contexts of life can meet. This comes from the conclusion that institutions which set themselves to reflect upon heritage and culture and therefore on collective identity will not be able to distance themselves from the major questions of the present day. This undertaking can be combined with the consideration outlined above, namely that all citizens will be able to participate fully and communicate with each other openly.

- *Museums as a 'third place'*: The new media are changing in structure both employment and education (e.g. television, playstation, computer games). So more and more people spend their time within their own private space, with the result that the nature of these activities leads to the isolation of the individual. Neutral open space is dissolving in urban communities, while at the same time the importance of public and semi-public space (e.g. at shopping malls) increases. Against the background of these developments the importance of museums also grows with the realization that they represent an increasingly rare neutral open public space where people can experience authentic forms of personal encounter. This is also where they can meet in their particular roles as equal European citizens discussing together important political, social and economic concerns.

Conclusion

In Germany the scholarly discipline of History Didactics with its main categories 'historic consciousness' and 'historic culture' is a central science for the topic of 'history identity'. History Didactics looks at historical identity not as an essential category in itself but as a dimension, which evolves flexibly between different reference systems – as for example local, regional, national and European aspects in different contexts and changing formats. This leads to the fact that the idea of an 'European identity' and e.g. a national identity are not mutually exclusive. As a consequence, the learning process which will lead to a better understanding of the European dimension

and the common European heritage as well as strengthening the European identity will be seen as constructive processes. These will have to be shaped and interpreted by visitors to museums. The change of perspective and the constructive learning theory discussed above will promote the educational mission of museums. Against the background of the many periods of conflict in European history we are convinced that it could be useful for museums to reflect carefully about the concept of history didactic concerning the 'unity of diversity' and the multifaceted construction of historical identity.

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**PAST AND PRESENT IN CONTEMPORARY
HISTORY EDUCATION. AN EXPLORATORY
EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON
PROSPECTIVE HISTORY TEACHERS ***

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Contemporary Western-European societies harbor divergent and partially conflicting expectations towards history education. History as a school subject is considered both as a contribution to the formation of democratically inspired, tolerant citizens and as an introduction into historical thinking, characterized by, among other things, the ability to detach oneself from present-centered perspectives. In order to gain insight into the resulting tension between past and present in history education, the beliefs of prospective history teachers (enrolled in different types of teacher training in Flanders, Belgium) were explored through a questionnaire and a set of performance tasks. Even though no more than preliminary results are presented here, it is clear that most prospective history teachers do strongly value the involvement of the present in history education and in their history lessons, rejecting a purely 'historicist' approach of the past. They do so usually from a rather 'presentist' perspective, even though there is equally a certain openness towards a postmodern understanding of the inter-relatedness of past and present.

The 14 January 2009 issue of the leading Flemish newspaper *De Standaard* included an article with the heading 'German coffee brand errs with Nazi quote'.² The coffee brand, Tchibo, was advertising their various coffee tastes in petrol stations with the slogan 'Jedem das Seine' ('To Each his Own').³ Sixty-five years earlier, the same motto had covered the entrance gate of the concentration camp of Buchenwald. Soon there was sharp criticism of such advertising by the Jewish community in Germany. They talked about 'bad taste unmatched due to a lack of historical consciousness' and 'an inadequate history education'.⁴

This kind of newspaper articles does testify of common expectations and opinions with respect to history education. In many western societies there seems to be a certain consensus on what history teaching is supposed to achieve. It should raise young people to be tolerant and critically minded citizens with a democratic

attitude, able to deal with the diversity of a multicultural society.⁵ In addition, history education is expected to shape a collective identity, shared by every layer of society, which ought to create a feeling of ‘togetherness’ amongst the different nationalities in one country.⁶ In short, it is expected to provide a remedy for contemporary social problems such as racism, intolerance, violence, injustice and so on. It is commonly accepted in our society that ‘good’ history education can solve these problems in a flash on.

These social expectations towards history education are also translated in the attainment targets for secondary school issued by the regional Flemish government.⁷ In the text that explains and further develops these targets, the function of history education is described in four goals: development of historical consciousness, formation of identity, providing of cultural education and formation of social defensibility. It is remarkable that two out of these four goals, namely the formation of identity and the formation of social defensibility, hold a direct link with contemporary society. Whereas the presence of the present is understandable in these categories, the prominent and dominant importance attached to it within the category of historical consciousness is striking. In this category, one finds phrases such as ‘Historical science translated to education serves the pupils as members of society’ or ‘History education is functional when pupils succeed in bringing the past into relationship with the present and the future’.⁸ Although there is no definition of historical consciousness in these guidelines, the concept is implicitly treated as a synonym for the awareness that the past can be useful for the present. There is prominent attention for the kind of history that is functional for contemporary society.

This focus – however valuable – creates a rather limited and unilateral image of the past and ignores other fascinating aspects of it. In addition, it seems rather odd because in contemporary history didactics the emphasis is mainly on the specific historical character of historical thinking or reasoning. Manuals on history teaching, like that of Arie Wilschut, devote many pages on how to learn pupils to think historically.⁹ Concerning these concepts of historical thinking and reasoning, we refer to two examples from the Dutch field of history didactics. According to Wilschut’s description, pupils are able to think historically when they meet three conditions. Firstly, they need to learn to respect the facts and the evidence from the past. Secondly, they have to understand that developments in the past were not

predetermined and could have ended up in a very different way than they did. And thirdly, they need to accept that humans are historical, time bounded creatures with variable value patterns. Jannet Van Drie and Carla van Boxtels' research on historical reasoning – based upon a review of literature of historical reasoning and results from an expert-novice study they conducted – mentions the distinction between six related components within the concept of historical reasoning. Dependent on the goal and complexity of the task given to pupils, some or all of these components are called upon. Van Drie and van Boxtel define historical reasoning as the combination of 1) the asking of historical questions, 2) contextualization, 3) putting forward claims and supporting them with arguments, 4) using source material, 5) organizing information to describe processes of change and explaining or comparing historical phenomena and 6) using (substantive or methodological) historical concepts.¹⁰ In addition, they also indicate the often-noticed inability of pupils to understand the historical context due to the dominance of their contemporary framework.¹¹

Consequently, it might be argued that the dominant position of the contemporary perspective obstructs attention for such historical thinking, in which pupils learn to contextualize the circumstances and situations in which people lived in the past. In order to obtain in-depth knowledge about the past, pupils need to detach themselves from their contemporary perspective and their contemporary conceptual frameworks. They must learn to be open to the otherness, the 'strangeness' or even more the 'unrecognizable' character of the past. Pupils should learn to place historical events and phenomena within their historical context. The social requirement of attachment with the contemporary society can be an impediment for this historical thinking. For example, how can pupils understand the meaning of the witch persecutions in the 16th century if they aren't able to detach themselves from their contemporary ideas about religion and superstition? Without this ability of detachment, pupils can only conclude that mankind in the 16th century was silly or cruel.¹²

Does focusing on the type of history that is functional for contemporary society imply that there is no attention for the other aspects of the past in secondary history education? And does the prominent position of the present and the belief that history education should be useful for contemporary society mean that there

is no other understanding of the past in classrooms? In order to answer these questions, we explored prospective history teachers' position towards past and present. The decision to execute our research was based on the following reasons. Unlike history teachers in the field of practice, these prospective history teachers constitute a rather homogeneous group. They are almost of the same age, – between 18 and 25 –, and they share a nearly similar amount of teaching experience. In further research it would of course also be interesting to explore the ideas about the relationship between past and present of history teachers who already practice their profession for some time.

Previous Research

Historical thinking and historical consciousness of children and youngsters has been researched in several studies.¹³ Some of them used quantitative research tools, such as questionnaires (e.g., the questionnaire within the *Youth and History* research and the questionnaire of Bodo von Borries' research amongst German youngsters).¹⁴ Quantitative research into the ideas and conceptions of (prospective) history teachers is rather scarce. Noteworthy are on the one hand the teacher questionnaire of the pilot study of Bodo von Borries and on the other hand *The Beliefs about Learning and Teaching History Questionnaire* of Lilliana Maggioni, Patricia Alexander and Bruce Van Sledright. In his teacher questionnaire – that was very similar to the one he administered to pupils of secondary school – von Borries explored the presence of moral judgment on the topic of the Crusades in history education. The findings of his research report are an equal tendency to moral judgment amongst teachers and pupils. In their reconstruction of the past, teachers seemed to be as judgmental and condemning of the past as their students.¹⁵ The research of Maggioni, Alexander and Van Sledright explored the epistemological knowledge of history teachers. They sought to discover how teachers thought about 'what' historical knowledge is and 'how' historical knowledge is created. The ultimate purpose of their study was to determine what impact teachers' epistemological beliefs have on their educational choices, on pupils' learning experiences and on learning outcomes of pupils in history classes. They concluded that when history teachers pay attention to the 'precarious' nature of historical knowledge and teach how to deal

with this knowledge, pupils are more willing to start researching and questioning historical material in a critical way.¹⁶ Neither of the (quantitative) studies mentioned above, examined explicitly teacher's beliefs about the relationship between past and present.

Alongside quantitative research, there has been some qualitative research on the ideas and conceptions of prospective history teachers. Worth mentioning and – concerning the content – the most closely related to our research, is the study on student teachers' conceptions of history by Arja Virta. She explored through open-ended questions that were answered in writing, student teachers' conceptions of history and their ideas of the significance of history as a school subject in society. One of the most significant – qualitatively analysed – results of her research showed that most respondents thought that the role of history was to explain the contemporary world. Other findings were, amongst others, the apparently very limited attention of these student teachers for the relativity and fragility of historical knowledge.¹⁷ Sam Wineburg and Suzanne Wilson applied a different qualitative research method, namely that of the performance or behavioural tasks. In their study – one of the first examples of an investigation into the actual conduct of history teachers – teachers were presented with three behavioural tasks: the assessment of student assignments, the choice of primary source material for lessons and the examination or review of some history textbooks. The purpose of their study was to find out how these teachers filled in their own roles and responsibilities, what their ideas were about the abilities, motivation and learning behaviour of students and to get a picture of their expertise and their discipline-based pedagogical-didactical knowledge.¹⁸ Other examples of qualitative research on prospective history teachers' ideas and conceptions are for example Peter Seixas' study on student teachers' historical thinking, and Williamson McDiarmid's research on historical understanding of prospective teachers.¹⁹ In our research we combine quantitative and qualitative research methods through the creation and administration of a questionnaire and a set of *performance tasks* that explore the dealing of prospective history teachers with past and present in history teaching.

The Creation of a Questionnaire and a Set of Performance Tasks

In order to get at adequate propositions for our questionnaire, we created hypothetical profiles of history teachers' different ways of dealing with past and present. The question of the relationship between past and present is not only a history-teaching dilemma, but also an epistemological problem within historical scholarship. In our attempt to create these profiles, we called upon literature from the fields of theory of history and history didactics about historical thinking and about the relationship between past and present.²⁰ Based upon this literature and upon convictions that we derived from class observations, experiences with student teachers and discussions with academic historians, teacher educators and history teachers, we constructed three different profiles. With these profiles, we have no claims towards the theory of history: they were merely used as auxiliary tools for the creation of adequate phrases for the questionnaire.

We distinguished three prototypical examples of teachers' dealing with past and present: a 'historicist', a 'presentist' and a 'post-modernist' position. Although we are aware of the controversial and questionable nature of these labels, we chose to use them for expository purposes and because we are convinced that each of them invokes a more or less coherent way of dealing with past and present in history. The 'historicist' will assign an independent status to the past and therefore not immediately relate it to the present. (S)he emphasizes the contextual nature of the past: in order to be able to speak about and understand the past, one has to release every contemporary framework and try to apprehend the ideas and acts of people in the past. The historicist would argue, for example, that we cannot understand the occurrence of the Thirty Years' War, if we are not aware of – amongst others – the enormous impact of religion in 16th century social life. We suspect that this type of teacher will emphasize the discontinuity between past and present in his or her classes and (s)he will have pupils consider the 'stand restraint' of people from the past. The 'historicist' history teacher will consider 'detachment' of contemporary society as an important objective of his or her teaching. The 'presentist' history teacher on the other hand will introduce the present as often as possible in his or her classes. This type of teacher will often depart from contemporary social

issues or will select subjects that relate to 'hot' controversial issues in contemporary society. Topics like the recent financial crisis or flares of AIDS in Africa will be used by this teacher to explain for example the financial crisis of the 1930's or the devastating effect of the plague in the Middle Ages. This teacher emphasizes the progression throughout the centuries, which culminates in a climax in our own society – linear-progressive thinking –, and focuses on the similarity between past and present: A goal that is reinforced by the pedagogical demand for joining the world of the child or young person. Finally, the 'postmodernist' history teacher will pay much attention to the difference between history and the past. (S)he will want to ensure that pupils are aware of the fact that the past is never directly and clearly revealed to us. Although, for example, many gothic churches – as we perceive them today – are the result of 19th century renovation, we (often) do not consider this 19th century representation that also influences our image of medieval times. This 'type' of teacher will focus on the representations and reconstructions of the past, both by past societies and present society. This teacher will use the present to demonstrate how we shape the past and how our collective memory influences this re-creation of the past.

Based on these three profiles – of which we are aware that no history teacher matches exactly with one of them – we formulated propositions about history teaching and history as a scientific discipline. We opted to ask not only questions about the views on the use of past and present in history teaching, but also about history as a discipline because we assume that there will be a relationship between (student) teachers' beliefs about teaching history on the one hand and the historical discipline on the other hand. However, we notice a much less explicit or unilateral focus on the functionality of history for contemporary society in the practice of the historical discipline as in the research in historical science.²¹ These beliefs raise our curiosity about whether history teachers have other or similar ideas about the use of past and present in both the teaching of history and the historical discipline. Before formulating concrete propositions, we first looked for different categories within the domain of history education in which we could make a clear distinction between the three profiles. We were able to distinguish two significant categories: on the one hand the category of *'the function, goals and position of history'*, on the other hand the category of *'the use and function of all types of*

primary and secondary sources’,²² Based upon these categories, we formulated ‘profile-typical’ phrases.

For the ‘historicist’ teacher statements like *‘learning to think historically is learning to realize that the past is fundamentally different from the present’* (educational aspect) and *‘the past has an intrinsic value. It is worth to study it for its own sake’* (scientific aspect), were created. Examples of statements of the ‘presentist’ history teacher are *‘an important goal of the history lesson is to teach pupils to observe the past starting from contemporary social issues’* (educational aspect) and *‘the usefulness of history is that the study of the past leads to a better understanding of the present’* (scientific aspect). For the ‘postmodern’ history teacher statements were formulated such as: *‘A history teacher should reflect on how the contemporary meaning of concepts like ‘equality’ and ‘justice’ dyes our view of the societies of the past’* (educational aspect) and *‘historians should pay attention to the influence of collective memory on the interpretation that people give to the past’* (scientific aspect). For technical reasons and in order to avoid socially desirable answers, the questionnaire was also provided with a number of negatively worded statements. For example: *‘It is not the task of a history teacher to include current social discussions in history class.’* The ‘presentist’ would obviously answer this argument negatively, because (s)he believes that current public debates must be treated in history class.

In a second phase of our research the three hypothetical profiles were also used as an auxiliary tool for the creation of *performance tasks*. Because of the complex relation between teachers’ conceptions and their actual teaching behaviour, it was also decided to construct another kind of research tool in addition to the questionnaire in order to investigate this behaviour more directly.²³ Inspired by the previously discussed investigation of Sam Wineburg and Suzanne Wilson, an attempt was made to create or imitate the setting of a specific teaching situation as accurately as possible.²⁴ The *performance tasks* of our research are embedded in the context of a lesson plan, because for prospective history teachers there is a very strong link between the actual teaching on the one hand and the lesson preparation conditions on the other hand.²⁵ The *performance tasks* were set up around the theme of the Crusades, as this issue can be easily linked to current events and problems in contemporary society (such as the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq under the presidency of George Bush Junior). Both because of practical considerations – such as the amount of time from the student teachers available to perform the task – and because of research-based reasons – namely to seek

'profile-typical' and not merely didactic answers – the *performance tasks* were given a 'half-open' structure. Concretely, this meant that students had to formulate the objectives and an evaluation assignment themselves, but the other parts of the lesson preparation – like for example the lesson introduction – had to be chosen from pre-selected materials.²⁶

In order to create an introduction of the theme, the students had a choice of six different sources, of which two per each profile were provided. For the 'historicist', one of the sources was the call of Pope Urban II to the First Crusade. For the 'presentist' a cartoon was chosen representing George Bush Junior as a crusader. One example of the sources fitted to a 'postmodern' approach was a fragment about Godfrey of Bouillon from a textbook of 1956, in which he was glorified as an absolute hero of the crusades. Besides this selection of a proper introduction, the prospective history teachers were asked to choose from three different versions of a lesson on the Crusades. Each of these three texts was written from the perspective of one of the three profiles. The document for the 'historicist' profile is narrative in nature and focuses on the past. The source material consisted out of a primary source and a source on the concept of the holy war. From the outset, the lesson with the 'presentist' approach suggests an evident link with the present and passes judgment on the past. The source assignments focus more on the 'legitimate' guilt of the West about the Crusades and on the atrocities of the crusaders in Jerusalem. In the lesson with a 'postmodern' profile, considerable attention is devoted to image building throughout the centuries around the Crusades and to the evolving meaning of the concept 'crusade'. The source assignments in this lesson are mainly about the interpretation and representation of the Crusades in the West and in the East. Students are expected to justify their choices and to indicate how they would proceed with the material. This way, we get a clearer picture about the reasons why these prospective history teachers deal with the notions of past and present in a certain manner in their history teaching.

Procedure

The questionnaire was administered to approximately 300 students. Most of them, – 270 students –, were being educated as professional bachelors for secondary education. These students combine their

training as history teacher with an education in another subject, such as English, mathematics or Roman Catholic religion. They are being educated to teach in the first three or four – out of six – years of secondary school. A much smaller amount of these students – 23 of them – are university-trained historians. They pursue a second (university) degree in order to become teachers in the last three or four years of secondary school. The questionnaire uses a six point Likert type-scale going from totally agree to totally disagree. The first version of the questionnaire was tested with two different groups: first with a group of professional bachelors for history education and then with a group of recently graduated historians who got additional training to become history teachers. Based on the results of this *try-out* with both groups, the questionnaire was adjusted and refined: items that could be misinterpreted were deleted from the list and replaced by more explicit alternatives. For example the item *'I like to start a lesson on slavery in the past with the dreadful issue of child slavery today.'* was replaced by *'It is useful to start a lesson on slavery in the past with the dreadful issue of child slavery today.'* because the original item asked for the action and not the idea on this subject of these prospective history teachers. The *performance tasks* – of which sound recordings were made – were administered to approximately 30 students, including 25 professional bachelors for secondary education and 5 masters in history. Due to a limited time-schedule and limited availability of the students, it was impossible to have more respondents. A *try-out* of these *performance tasks* with a group of approximately 20 bachelors for secondary education convinced us to subject the *performance tasks* orally to these students instead of in writing. The written responses of these prospective teachers were too limited and contained too many merely didactical explanations of their choices.

Preliminary Analyses: Complexity of the Relationship Between Past and Present

In order to explore the results of the questionnaire, we performed a factor analysis (principal components analysis with Varimax rotation) on part one (the educational part of history) and part two (the scientific aspect of history). Analysis of the *scree-plot* and the *eigenvalues* for part one suggested a one-factor solution. Based on this factor solution we constructed a scale by summing up the items that loaded

above .35 on this factor and dividing them by the number of items. The internal consistency of this scale was .743 (Cronbach alpha). The scale has a mean of 4.3749 (between rather agree and agree) and a standard deviation of .51913. For the second part of the questionnaire we followed the same procedure, but no reliable scale could be constructed. The *performance tasks* were analyzed qualitatively: the set of interviews was typed out in full. Based on these transcripts, we examined the participants' actual choices of the lesson material that was placed at their disposal and their justifications and argumentations for their choice. In addition, the results of the *performance tasks* were compared with these of the questionnaire.

The scale for the educational aspect comprises 12 items.²⁷ Although we created the items of this questionnaire based upon the three profiles – namely that of the 'historicist', the 'presentist' and the 'postmodernist' – we chose to look at the results of the factor analysis independent of these profiles and – thus – not only considered them as a confirmation or rebuttal of these hypothetical profiles. At first glance the relation between certain items is obvious. Items like '*the subject of history introduces pupils to abuses in the past. It is important that in history class pupils learn to formulate a critical judgment on these abuses*'; '*it is useful to start a history lesson on slavery in the past with the devastating problem of child slavery today*' and '*in a history lesson, class society can be treated as an example of the violation of human rights*' hold a very explicit judgment of the past. The respondents do not seem to be afraid of anachronisms or of condemning the past by using contemporary moral values. These findings correspond with the results of the earlier mentioned research of Bodo von Borries, who also noticed how easy history teachers condemned and judged the past from their contemporary perspective.²⁸

Another interesting result is the appearance of item 1 – '*learning to think historically is learning to realize that the present is the result of the past*' – together with item 12 – '*an important goal of the history lessons is to learn pupils to observe the past starting from contemporary social issues*'. There seems to be some kind of circular reasoning in the ideas of these prospective history teachers on the use of past and present in history class. An explanation for this kind of argumentation can be given by the examination of the *performance tasks*. During the interviews of these students, it became very clear that almost all of them felt the urge and necessity to incorporate the present in their history lessons. The motivation that was given for using the present in 90 % of the

cases was that by using the present, the past would get more comprehensible for pupils. For example, the majority of respondents chose – out of six possible choices – the cartoon of George Bush Junior depicted as a crusader to start a lesson on the medieval crusades because it *'catches the attention of the pupils'*. In addition, most of them chose either the 'presentist' inspired lesson or the 'postmodernist' lesson and gave as an argument for choosing them the evident reference to the present in these documents. Very often the present is used in history lessons because of didactical reasons. Many history teachers sigh that pupils are not intrinsically interested in the past and do not see the purpose of learning history. Therefore they reach to the present in order to attract the attention of their pupils, based on the conviction that the sense of familiarity between the past and the present will enhance the attention and motivation of their pupils for history classes. Starting from the above conviction of the 'familiar' past – even if there is such a past –, these teachers will easily neglect a completely different kind of past reality without always being aware of it. Indeed, in this manner, pupils never experience the 'historical sensation' of touching a facet of the impenetrable, mysterious and exotic past that tingles their curiosity. Pupils will not receive the ability to learn to 'empathize' with past societies because they are 'trapped' in their own.²⁹

Following the logic of the respondents, the relation between the belief that the past creates the present and the conviction that starting from the present is necessary to understand the past, becomes evident. The keyword in this relationship is 'familiarity': the present is familiar or similar to the past – this is what these teachers try to make clear to their pupils –, thus the past is responsible for creating the present. In short, the present helps us to understand the past that created the present. For example, several respondents believed that studying the Crusades could help pupils to adopt a more tolerant attitude towards Muslims today. Knowledge of the acts of the crusaders in Jerusalem could help pupils to realize that the contemporary conflict in the Middle East is not unique in history and that we – the 'Christian' West – were not always on the 'good' side. The most important function of the past for these prospective history teachers is that of the ability to put the present in perspective. This could also explain the inclusion of the item *'learning to think historically is learning that there is a complex interaction between past and*

present. We considered this item mainly as a 'postmodern' feature, but it appears that it can also be otherwise interpreted.

Although the relationship between the majority of the items that resort under the scale is rather clear, the presence of item 7 and item 8 in the same scale is puzzling. Item 7 – *'a history teacher should reflect on how the contemporary interpretation of concepts like 'equality' and 'justice' dyes our view of the societies of the past'* – aims at creating the awareness amongst pupils of their own framework when they encounter the past. Item 8 – *'in a history lesson, class society can be treated as an example of the violation of human rights'* –, on the contrary, simply states that a phenomenon of the past can serve as an example of an infringement on contemporary legislation. Regardless of the contradiction between these two items, the respondents agreed with both of them. Perhaps, because of the rather indirect phrasing of these items the respondents were not aware of the contradiction. It seems that these student teachers agree on the importance of showing their pupils the complexity and the varying interpretations of the relation between past and present in theory, but that they don't deal with it consciously in the history classroom. This is also made clear in the *performance tasks*, in which many of the respondents chose for the 'postmodern' inspired lesson, not because of its focus on the different ways of interpreting the Crusades throughout the centuries, but because of the connection that was made in this lesson with contemporary society. Most of these student teachers weren't able to distinguish the difference between the 'presentist' inspired lesson and that of the 'postmodernist'. Like Bodo von Borries, we don't have an obvious explanation for this gap between theory and practice and must plea for further research on this topic.³⁰

These analyses are only preliminary and have to be explored and examined more thoroughly – for example if the ideas of professional bachelors in history education and those of masters in history differ from each other on certain topics or not –, but at first glance they already show some interesting results. Teachers' beliefs about the relationship between past and present are certainly not univocal or unambiguous. Certainly, one cannot fit (prospective) history teachers in just one box, like that of the 'historicist', the 'presentist' or the 'postmodernist'. Every teacher incorporates a bit of each profile in combination with a lot of other aspects. Although, it is already clear that there's very little or almost no attention for the purely 'historicist' approach of the past, where no connection at all is sought

with the present. Our research and this article do not aspire to be a plea against the use of the present in history education: references to the present can certainly add value to history lessons. History teachers, however, should be aware of how they apply the present in history class, when dealing with the past. History lessons that only seek to attach the past with contemporary society ignore an equally important aspect of this past, namely, the past reality in which people lived according to different ideas, values and habits. Ignoring this kind of history omits opportunities like teaching pupils open-mindedness towards – for example – distinctively different cultures. Because whoever is willing and able to accept the strangeness and remoteness of past societies, may also adopt this attitude towards other cultures in our own society.

Notes

* This article was submitted to the Yearbooks' editors in september 2009. The research findings discussed in the article are the result of analyses performed in 2009.

¹ This research could not have been conducted without the much appreciated assistance and cooperation of the teacher educators and student teachers of the Department of Teacher Training from the Mechelen University College, the Leuven University College, the Catholic University College Bruges-Ostend, the Catholic University College of Torhout, the HUBrussels, the Catholic University of Leuven and the Ghent University. We would like to address our gratitude to Leen De Grève, Nele De Witte, Leen Alaerts, Ilse Van Hooydonck, Walter Smits, Karel Van Nieuwenhuysse, Sebastian Vande Ginste, Pieter Boussemaere, Steven Debaere and Prof. Bruno De Wever.

² The original heading of the article reads '*Duits koffiemark gaat de fout in met nazitekst*'.

³ sn. 'Duits koffiemark gaat in de fout met nazitekst', *De Standaard*, January 14th, 2009. http://webnieuws6.standaard.be/Artikel/Detail.aspx?artikelId=DMF14012009_154 (18.05.09)

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⁵ Wils, K. (2006) 'Dilemmas Galore: History Teaching in Flanders and the Netherlands', in E. Erdmann & R. Maier & S. Popp (eds) *Geschichtsunterricht international – Bestandsaufnahme und Visionen. Worldwide Teaching of History – Present and Future. L'enseignement de l'histoire dans le monde – Bilan et visions*, Hannover: Hahnsche Buchhandlung, 337-48.

- ⁶ Grever, M. (2006) 'Nationale identiteit en historisch besef. De risico's van een canon in de postmoderne samenleving', in M. Grever & E. Jonker & K. Ribbens & S. Stuurman (eds) *Controverses rond de canon*, Assen: Van Gorcum, 27-58.
- ⁷ Flanders is the northern, Dutch-speaking part of the federal Belgian state. The Flemish community was assigned with the power over education in Flanders.
- ⁸ Entiteit Curriculum (Core Curriculum) (1998): Visies op het vak geschiedenis (Visions on the subject of history).<http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/DVO/secundair/1stegraad/a-stroom/uitgangspunten/geschiedenis.htm> (18.05.09)
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- ¹⁹ McDiarmid, W. G. (1994) ‘Understanding History for Teaching: A study of the Historical Understanding of Prospective Teachers’, in M. Carretero & J. F. Voss (eds) *Cognitive and Instructional Processes in History and Social Sciences*, Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers, 159-86; Seixas, P. (1998) ‘Student Teachers Thinking Historically’, *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 26 (3), 310-41.
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- ²¹ Jordanova, L. (2000), *History in Practice*, London/New York: Oxford University Press.
- ²² For a table with a few examples of the different ideas of the three profiles on these categories, see attachment 1.
- ²³ Calderhead, J. (1996) ‘Teachers: Belief and Knowledge’, in D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (eds) *Handbook of Educational Psychology*, New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 709-25.
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- ²⁵ Danielson, Ch. (2008), *Enhancing Professional Practice: a Framework for Teaching*, Alexandria: ASCD.
- ²⁶ For a list of the sources and materials from which these student teachers could choose, see attachment 2.
- ²⁷ A list of these items is added as attachment 3.
- ²⁸ Von Borries, B. (1994) ‘(Re-)Constructing History and Moral Judgment: on Relationships Between Interpretations of the Past and Perceptions of the Present’, in M. Carretero & J. F. Voss (eds) *Cognitive and Instructional Processes in History and Social Sciences*, Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers, 339-55.
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Attachment 1

Table with differentiating categories for the three profiles

Example for category 1

Function, goals and position of history

	'Historicist'	'Presentist'	'Postmodernist'
Historical thinking (definition)	= detachment from the present	= attachment with the present	= awareness of the complex relationship between past and present

Example for category 2

Use and function of all types of primary and secondary sources

	'Historicist'	'Presentist'	'Postmodernist'
The function of motion pictures in history class	= to introduce pupils into the atmosphere of a certain era	= are a contemporary medium with which pupils need to learn to work	= to show pupils the influence of (contemporary) society on the representation of past events

Attachment 2

List of sources and materials of the performance tasks

Selected sources for a lesson introduction on the Crusades per profile

'Historicist'	'Presentist'	'Postmodernist'
Image of Peter the Hermit from a manuscript, titled " <i>Abreviam de las Estorias</i> ", from the 14th century	Cartoon of George Bush Junior depicted as a crusader	Excerpt on Godfrey of Bouillon from a history textbook from 1956 (the image-building is reflected in the glorification of Godfrey)
Excerpt from the call of Pope Urban II to the First Crusade as described in the chronicle of Fulcher of Chartres	Newspaper article about an eight year old Iranian boy who wants to die in a holy war against western civilization	Picture of the statue of Godfrey of Bouillon in Brussels, erected in 1948 in honour of this 'great' hero of the young nation

Three different versions of a text on the Crusades – including source assignments – adapted to the three profiles

	'Historicist'	'Presentist'	'Postmodernist'
Text	Narrative text that focuses exclusively on the past	Text refers persistently to the present and incorporates moral judgment on the crusaders	Text devotes much attention to the image building around the Crusades throughout the centuries and to the evolving meaning of the concept 'crusade'

	'Historicist'	'Presentist'	'Postmodernist'
Source assignments	<p>1. Excerpt from the Call of Pope Urban II to the First Crusade from the chronicle of Robert the Monk</p> <p>2. Excerpt from an interview with historian Thomas Asbridge on the origin of the concept of the 'holy war'</p>	<p>1. Newspaper article about the apologies of pope John Paul II for the injustice done by the Catholic Church during – amongst others – the Crusades</p> <p>2. Excerpt on the massacre in Jerusalem from the chronicle of Fulcher of Chartres</p>	<p>1. Excerpt from an interview with historian Thomas Asbridge, who describes the representation of the Crusades in different centuries in the East and in the West</p> <p>2. Excerpt from an article on the mythologizing around Godfrey of Bouillon</p>

Attachment 3

List of items grouped for the educational aspect

1. Learning to think historically is learning to realize that the present is the result of the past.
2. Above all, history education should learn pupils to explain contemporary issues from their knowledge of the past.
3. History education is not responsible for the upbringing of pupils as good citizens (*reversely coded*).
4. The subject of history introduces pupils to abuses in the past. It is important that in history class pupils learn to formulate a critical judgment on these abuses.
5. Learning to think historically is learning that there is a complex interaction between past and present.
6. It's useful to start a history lesson on slavery in the past with the devastating problem of child slavery today.
7. A history teacher should reflect on how the contemporary interpretation of concepts like 'equality' and 'justice' dyes our view of the societies of the past.
8. In a history lesson, class society can be treated as an example of the violation of human rights.
9. Examining the power dynamics of some contemporary dictatorship helps pupils to understand the meaning of the notion of absolutism.

10. Pupils have to learn that the reconstruction of the past is based on the interpretation of the available sources.
11. Learning to think historically is learning that in history the past is reconstructed over and over again.
12. An important goal of the history lesson is to learn pupils to observe the past starting from contemporary social issues.

MISCELLANEA

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EXTRACURRICULAR INSTITUTIONS AND HISTORY EDUCATION. EXAMPLES OF COOPERATION IN GERMANY

A statement by Peter Lautzas –
the president of the German Association of History Teachers

Not just lately on the annual congress 2007 in Thessaloniki it became obvious to the attentive observant that because of the evidently increasing historical interest in many countries both the historical science and the historical didactics of public mission have an equivalent role which is seeing themselves having a public obligation and making responsible use of it: The exertion of influence on the genesis and composition of historical awareness should be acknowledged as being an important due to our lives and the translation of scientific knowledge into real life practice inwards this process as a central task. This means that the current problems of basic meaning in the society should be recognized rapidly and that solutions are found for the area of education – or at least aspects and strategies therefore are promptly suggested. The society is entitled for this.

Also the German Association of History Teachers (VGD) feels itself obliged to it, as far as it concerns its didactical efforts. How the VGD tries to meet this commitment in its practical work, shall be illustrated by an example, which is subject of the following text. I want to show the strategies of the German Association of History Teachers

- for working on currently relevant topics of history education,
- for looking after important aspects,
- for drafting didactical guidelines

in order to stimulate professional teaching and to gain new ideas, so that students are educated both by their teachers to look back in history and to use history for solving problems in our everyday life.

What is called ‘political education’ in Germany means rather ‘political’ in the sense of the ancient Greek philosophy to participate in common life and to be engaged in its positive development. So history has to provide examples of the past to improve the handling of today’s problems. For this purpose I will briefly explain the aims,

methods and results of this approach, mentioning the cooperation of our association with

- publishing houses,
- scientific institutions,
- state organisations,
- foundations,
- broadcasting companies
- and television.

Because the most of these institutions have been and still are interested in publishing their own work, they established funds to realize initiatives. Let me take our first project, which started in 2003 and ended in 2005, to demonstrate our strategy in detail:

The first step:

In the autumn of 2002 my first entitlement as president of our association was in the research for latest topics we dealt with. In consequence of the German reunification in 1990, a massive problem occurred in German society: How should we treat the GDR, the former (1949-1990) communist part of Germany and its history? Just to fade out this period of German history, a strongly supported approach, is certainly no option in modern history and social theories. Should we really have talked only about the history of the FRG in those years? From 1990 on, Germany again had a common history and it became clear that the years 1949 to 1990 were only a small period of the whole national history. But nevertheless, we had to develop a strategy how to handle this period as a whole Germany: In education as well as in political life. If our Association claimed to play a significant role in this question, it would be entitled to work out answers or at least ideas presented for debate.

The second step:

The situation reminded me of an publication in 1988 by Christoph Klessmann, titled 'two states, one nation'. Obviously, this thesis, suggesting a general unity between the two German states throughout the times of enmity and Cold War was the key feature to solve our problem. In 2003 Christoph Klessmann became head of an recently established organisation in Potsdam, called the 'Centre of Research on Contemporary History' (Zentrum für Zeitgeschichtliche Forschung). After I had met Christoph Klessmann there I could

convince him of participation in our project, in scientific and educational discussions.

The third step:

To associate representatives of academics, didactics and teaching in an working group, which would be able to handle our multilayered topic was the next step to take. So, initially seven professors from the mentioned centre and seven members of the German Association of History Teachers (VGD) shaped the working group. Later on, even respectively one representative of the Birthler-Office ('Office of the Federal Commissioner preserving the records of the ministry for state security of the former GDR') and of the 'Federal Foundation for the examination and reappraisal of the Communist dictatorship in East Germany' (Stiftung zur Aufarbeitung der SED-Diktatur) joined the group. After appointing eight conference terms, which should respectively last over three days, starting in March 2004 I even could acquire 50.000 Euro from the Robert-Bosch-Foundation.

The fourth step:

In the course of a quite controversial process, dragging on over 2004 and 2005, the working group drafted a concept paper, including a new perspective: The German national history during the years of division can be described with the term 'asymmetrically intertwined parallel histories' that means:

- 'parallel history' because of two actually autonomous existing states;
- 'intertwined' because of a permanent maintenance of political and social contact (e.g. visiting relatives, mutual exchange between sports delegations, etc.);
- 'asymmetric' because the influence from the FRG have been by far more intensive than from the GDR (e.g. lifestyle, music, television, etc.).

The fifth step:

The development of this new perspective of an 'parallel' German history required a pre-evaluation in the German society, where strong objections existed in wide parts of the West-German society concerning equal standards in history and conditions of life. To take this aspect into consideration, the working group launched some

regional conferences for history teachers. To a further central conference in Berlin we invited subject specialists from the ministries for educational and cultural affairs, from the 'Federal Agency for Civic Education', from several institutes for further education and for didactics and finally textbook authors and editors. Fortunately, in this environment the new perspective was basically welcomed and accepted. All these conferences were financed by the 'Federal Foundation for the examination and reappraisal of the Communist dictatorship in East Germany'. At the German Historians' Symposia in Kiel, 2004 and in Konstanz, 2006 we put this new scientific concept paper up for discussion – and gained again wide acceptance for it.

The sixth step:

In 2004 the working group began to publish its results on a wider scale. So, the publication of one central book, in which the perspective is illustrated exemplary, was fundamental:

- This mentioned book was published by the 'Federal Agency of Civic Education' (Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung) at the end of 2004 with the title: 'Teilung und Integration – Die doppelte deutsche Nachkriegsgeschichte als wissenschaftliches und didaktische Problem', Schriftenreihe Band 284 (Division and Integration – The double German Post-War-History as a scientific and didactical problem, series number 284). It was printed in a quantity of 20.000 copies at the price of 4 Euro each. Also distributed by a specialized publishing house for didactical topics (Wochenschau).
- To lounge an scientific debate about the new perspective, the book plus special practical objections, considering the practical concretion in education, were published in several periodicals.
- Finally the very cost-intensive production of an so called 'didactic DVD' in partnership with the 'Federal Foundation for the examination and reappraisal of the Communist dictatorship in East Germany' and the FWU (film in science and education), a state controlled film agency, specialized on educational issues has been initiated.
- By picking up an current co-operation between the VGD (German Association of History Teachers) and the ZDF (German national television broadcaster), whereat educational aspects are medial prepared to suit into school lessons, our working group could

even claim its influence in 15 educational films and above that we even tried to incorporate the new perspective, against oppositions by the broadcaster, into historical films, dealing with the time between 1949 to 1990.

- On the occasion of the 20th anniversary of the German reunification in 2009 there will be many opportunities for invited members of the working group to introduce the worked out perspective in several speeches on conferences, meetings and other events.
- In regional organized courses for further training within the different German federal states the perspective will also reach the teachers.

Finally it can be concluded that the project was performed very quickly by the VGD, even if the association just picked up already existing ideas.

By application of similar strategies the VGD is currently working on a variety of topics, all of them linked with present German questions of society and education, but focusing of course the historical dimension. Our group is entitled to build a didactical framework, giving guidelines for teaching this matters and to provide tools to realize them.

- One working group dealing with the didactical implementation of 'German-Jewish history', a very important topic for Germany as well as Europe. Sponsored by the most important publishing house for school books, Klett, the group is seeking for a way of handling with the crimes of the Nazis within present-days' generation. It is also an aim of the VGD to focus on long periods of peaceful coexistence and high mutual influences in history instead of just pointing out events of persecution and murder. Moreover, the Christian-Jewish relation in former times has to be refined within the history of other minorities in Europe. Also in this field the VGD establishes connections to Jewish organisations and authorities against resistance. Besides a school book by Klett, covering the topic, contributed first results to a discussion about it on the German Historians' Symposium in 2006.
- Further on our association is working on the topic of 'World History', which is underrepresented in German curricula. Although the global perspective is fundamental for students in the age of 12 to 18, even more because the national perspective throughout European school lessons is still dominating. To realize an publication until the

next German Historians' Symposium in Berlin, 2010 the relevant working group explains the topic more moderate as 'Perspective of World and Global History in the History classroom'.

• 'Meeting of Cultures', in my opinion the most important and controversial project of the VGD, is seeking for a didactical framework for students with a multi-cultural background, who are in Germany mainly out of a Muslim minority, who has already been living partly over generations in Germany. Considering the increasing immigration in Germany and Europe, teachers have to be prepared with a better knowledge about diverse cultural backgrounds. In 2007, this working group, sponsored by the well-known Herbert Quandt foundation, aspired to 'support the idea of closer cooperation between cultures in the History classroom'

- by providing specially trained teachers
- by initiating a better understanding of different cultures
- and by encouraging the process of integration beyond young people of foreign cultures in Germany.

The working group 'Meeting of Cultures' consists of six VGD members and twelve professors or academics of several institutions, among them two Muslim and two Jewish members. Considering the interaction of culture and religion the working group is currently preparing a publication, titled 'Cultures in Conflict? - On the Coexistence of Jews, Christians and Muslims in History'. The book will be published by the 'Federal Agency for Civic Education', in order to guarantee the distribution onto the education sector, as well as by the more scientific oriented publisher Wochenschau. Additionally, this polarizing as to the same extent historical immanent topic is presented on the next German Historians' Symposium. So much for the subject at the moment. After completing all running projects, the VGD will be able to focus future issues like migration.

**MIH MULTICULTURAL
INTERDISCIPLINARY HANDBOOK:
TOOLS FOR LEARNING HISTORY AND
GEOGRAPHY IN A MULTICULTURAL
PERSPECTIVE**

Valentina Zangrando & Oliver Simmet

MIH Multicultural Interdisciplinary Handbook: tools for learning history and geography in a multicultural perspective is an educational research project funded under the Lifelong Learning Programme, sub-programme Comenius Multilateral Projects. The project develops research work both in the fields of educational technology, where design solutions and methodologies allow the construction, distribution and use of learning objects, and in the disciplinary areas of geography and history, subjects in which these content and those investigating new forms of dissemination of educational content had developed in an multicultural perspective.

The *MIH* project meets these educational needs by providing new tools that help teachers and pupils to plunge deeper into the culture and the language of another nation via its memorials, its history and its landscape/geography. Moreover, it intends to promote the common European identity, as it introduces a European perspective in the schools' History and Geography programmes, which are usually confined to national borders.

Today, it is generally national guidelines that determine school programmes; school handbooks and didactics are based on them. Going beyond the limits of the national programmes, and furthering the understanding amongst young people and their educators of the diversity of European culture, languages and values – the principal objective of the Comenius – we plan to operate at the level of the handbooks and didactics. The aim of the *MIH* project is to offer a tool for studying events through an approach that is both comparative and interdisciplinary: historical content will be organised based on underlying geographical realities dealing with such topics as borders, migrations, landscape and resources.

The cooperative work of selecting and drawing up the key topics, a major activity of the project's core members, will provide the materials for designing a training course addressing current and

future teachers that will emphasise the European dimension in teacher training.

The Handbook, available in the five languages of the partnership plus English, can be used both by teachers interested in multicultural learning as well as by those involved in CLIL projects. In the latter case, teachers will have at their disposal the consistent path, the original documents and a general methodology that recent reports have shown to be missing. They will promote language learning.

The Digital Modules will be the final tool of the project. The modules will be available as free materials that can be used in class or for independent study by pupils; they will motivate pupils by supporting listening comprehension and oral production and represent an important contribution to the development of digital educational content.

The project introduces at least five innovative elements in schools:

1. The Handbook is simultaneously a learning tool and an integrated and consistent presentation of historical events related to the transformation of the territories considered, completed by a methodological analysis.
2. It addresses CLIL classes (or similar) but also regular classes, and can be used whenever a teacher chooses to make pupils aware of historical events as seen from the viewpoint of other nations.
3. The range of countries involved, including Spain and Italy as well as those further north, goes beyond that in the Franco-German handbook, which addresses bilingual regions and institutions involved in Franco-German cooperation.
4. The range of 'foreign' languages in which the material will be available – beyond the three most common: French, German and Spanish – may increase interest in these languages; they include full support for both Italian and Polish.
5. The digital modules –based on selected excerpts of the Handbook– will be freely downloadable as podcasts. Key targets are teachers, who can use them in class, and students, who can use them for independent study. Other users who currently have no equivalent available can also use them. As a tool, it presents a number of advantages: it can motivate students and provides practice for listening comprehension; it is well adapted to ubiquitous learning principles; it widens the potential users and opens new paths for the exploitation of the results.

In this until the September of 2011 ongoing MIH project scientists from eight renowned research facilities out of six European countries take part: Besides Spain, Italy, Poland and France there are also representatives from Austria and Germany involved. Currently, they are cooperating on a new concept of the training course. With that online facility the handling of the manual and of the created digital teaching-learning material is conveyed to teachers and students enrolled for teacher. In an final phase these multicultural modules are tested and evaluated in consideration of their practical suitability in history and geography lessons. The results are permanently available online after the finalization of the project under www.mihproject.eu.

The cooperation with an international composed scientist circle proved itself as very productive, right from the outset of the project. The different scientific traditions and standards of the both involved disciplines and countries have been discussed intensively and lead to an lively technical exchange of ideas concerning the interpretation of supposedly unambiguous didactical terms and methods. This productive cooperation have already gainfully affected the developed learning modules and overall it contributes to a stronger anchoring of the European perspective in school lessons and in the research of history didactics.

Elisabeth Erdmann: Bernd Mütter, HisTourismus. Geschichte in der Erwachsenenbildung und auf Reisen, 2 Bde., Oldenburg 2008

(Oldenburger Schriften zur Geschichtswissenschaft, Heft 8.1, 8.2)

[Bernd Mütter, HisTourismus. History in adult education and away on travel, 2 vol., Oldenburg 2008]

In these volumes presents Bernd Mütter his experiences from 15 years of commitment in Master's degree internships at the university of Oldenburg, community college classes and educational journeys. For him it is important to establish 'a progress report, which is determined by the systematic questions of history didactics and reports about a model, which is developed from teaching'. After the presentation of the challenging Oldenburg concept historical learning in adult education and on travel is as well as contents, issues, concepts of methods, media in historical adult education and HisTourismus covered in a categorical access. Then destinations in the implied region, focussing the European perspective, are presented, namely Verdun and Sedan, which can be seen as stumbling blocks or bridges to an European historical awareness, as well as Flanders and Florence. The second volume contains the corresponding travel concepts and experiences as well as an outlook.

The fluent style shows that also complex theoretical issues can be presented understandable. Necessarily you have to agree with the author when he refers to the fact that historical reality remains indispensable as a regulative idea for dealing with history and that the lack of knowledge about historical awareness today represents one of the main mental obstacles for the unification of Europe. It is to be hoped that the perspectives, which Mütter points out as transference possibilities of his model, will be used and consequently have an effect.

Elisabeth Erdmann

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ABSTRACTS
ZUSAMMENFASSUNGEN
RÉSUMÉS

Marie-Christine Baquès

Historical Narratives in French School Textbooks, and the Writers' Responsibility for the Pupils

Some characteristics of French history textbooks can be explained by certain common conceptions in terms of teaching history among the authors and the teachers. My hypothesis is that the historical narrative in school textbooks is established by linking together institutional demands, publishing constraints and the following convictions: 1. Reference to academic history and the model of a historical narrative mainly shaped by notions. 2. The conviction that documents, mainly the iconographic ones, should be immediately accessible and clear. 3. The conviction that pupils as youngsters are deterred by any intellectual effort, an insight which consequences the development of exercises mainly focused on extracting information from documents.

Einige Merkmale französischer Geschichtsschulbücher können durch die Vorstellungen von der „Schulgeschichte“ und die Bezugnahme auf die Sicht der Lernenden erklärt werden, die gleichermaßen von Schulbuchautoren und Lehrern vertreten werden. In diesem Aufsatz wird die Hypothese vertreten, dass historische Narrative in Schulgeschichtsbüchern auch in einem engen Zusammenhang stehen mit institutionellen Erfordernissen, verlegerischen Zwängen und einer Gemengelage von Konzepten und Vorstellungen, die auch folgende Faktoren einschließt: 1. Den engen Bezug der Schulbücher auf die an den Universitäten gelehrte Geschichte und auf begriffliche Strukturen 2. die Überzeugung, dass Schulbücher Quellen (insbesondere Bildquellen) den Schülern unmittelbar erschließen müssen und 3. die grundsätzliche Auffassung, dass Schüler von intellektuellen Anstrengungen abgeschreckt werden könnten, was zur Folge hat, dass Übungen sich auf das Extrahieren von Informationen beschränken.

Certaines caractéristiques des manuels d'histoire français peuvent être expliquées par les représentations de l'histoire scolaire et des élèves que leurs auteurs partagent avec les enseignants. Je formulerai l'hypothèse que le récit historique des manuels relie étroitement la demande institutionnelle, les contraintes éditoriales et un ensemble de conceptions et de représentations incluant: 1. La référence à l'histoire universitaire et au modèle d'une histoire fortement structurée autour de notions. 2. Une conception des documents, en particulier iconographiques, comme immédiatement lisibles. 3. Une représentation des élèves comme peu motivés par l'effort intellectuel ce qui conduit à concevoir des exercices limités à un relevé d'informations.

Grzegorz Chomicki**The Picture of the 'Saxonic Period' in History Textbooks. The Reception of Achievements in Historiography**

This article is a study of the changing picture of the 'Saxonic period' in Polish history textbooks for schools from the end of the XIX century to the beginnings of the XXI century. The content (choice of material) and the textbook narration are analyzed. The 'Saxonic period' are the years 1697-1763. During that time the Polish Commonwealth had electors of Saxony on its throne: Augustus II and Augustus III Wettin. The characterisations of the Wettins found in textbooks personified an egoistic, perfidious, inapt foreign king, who cunningly exploits the conquered country. It was a particularly durable 'black legend', immune to the progress of historical research. In the majority of textbooks the 'Saxonic period' is described very traditionally, actually for decades in the same way. Authors are unable to construct a narration of this complicated period, which would be near to new research results and at the same time would not consolidate the widely spread stereotypes.

Der Artikel untersucht das sich wandelnde Bild der in Polen regierenden Wettiner in polnischen Schulgeschichtsbüchern für den Zeitraum vom Ende des 19. Jahrhunderts bis zum Beginn des 21. Jahrhunderts. Dabei stehen der Inhalt (Wahl des Materials) und die verwendeten Narrative im Mittelpunkt. Die in Polen als 'Sächsische Periode' bezeichnete Regierungszeit der Wettiner reichte von 1697 bis 1763. In dieser Phase bestiegen die Kurfürsten von Sachsen, August II. und August III. den Thron des vereinigten Königreichs Polen-Litauen. Die Lehrbücher charakterisieren die Wettiner als egoistische, hinterlistige und unfähige fremde Könige, die geschickt das fremde Land für ihre eigenen Zwecke ausnutzten. Dieses Geschichtsbild war extrem dauerhaft und langlebig gegenüber neueren Forschungsergebnissen. Die Untersuchung der Schulgeschichtsbücher hat ergeben, dass die 'Sächsische Periode' auch heute noch in einem Großteil der Bücher sehr traditionalistisch dargestellt wird. Die Schulbuchautoren sind dabei nicht in der Lage, eine Geschichtsnarration zu schaffen, die sich an die neuen Ergebnisse annähert und nicht weit verbreitete Vorurteile festigt.

Cet article est une étude de l'image changeante du règne de la maison de Wettin en Pologne dans les manuels scolaires d'histoire à partir de la fin du XIXe siècle jusqu'au début du XXIe siècle. Notre analyse regarde le contenu (choix du matériel) et la narration des manuels. La période concernée dura de 1697 à 1763. Alors, les électeurs de Saxe, Auguste II et Auguste III, montèrent successivement sur le trône de la Pologne-Lituanie. La caractéristique des Wettins trouvée dans les manuels présente un roi étranger - égoïste, perfide et inapte, qui exploite astucieusement le pays conquis. Cela devint une légende noire particulièrement durable, insensible au progrès des recherches scientifiques. Dans la plupart des manuels, la période en question est décrite d'une manière tout-à-fait traditionnelle, la même depuis des décennies. Les auteurs sont incapables de construire une narration présentant cette époque compliquée qui serait à la fois abordable sans toutefois renforcer des clichés largement répandus.

Marko Demantowsky

Transnational History in Teacher Education

This article presents an argument from a German background and point of view in a current American debate about new challenges in teacher education. Experience and theory both show how necessary Transnational History is as a foundation for contemporary teacher training. Three ways to proceed in Germany are presented here, with suggestions for other countries, too.

Dieser Text ist ein Diskussionsbeitrag zu einer in den USA geführten Debatte über scheinbar neue Anforderungen an die Lehrerbildung. Dabei wird eine 'deutsche' Perspektive entwickelt und deren Hintergrund beleuchtet. Der Text argumentiert sowohl mit auf Erfahrung basierenden Erkenntnissen als auch mit theoretischen Überlegungen bezogen auf die These, dass eine transnationale Perspektive grundlegend für eine zeitgemäße Lehrerbildung im Fach Geschichte ist. Zum Abschluss werden drei pragmatische Schlussfolgerungen vorgestellt, die sich auf die deutschen Verhältnisse beziehen, aber vielleicht auch in anderen nationalen Kontexten eine Anregung sind.

Cet article est une contribution provocante à un débat actuel aux Etats Unis sur les conditions exigées par la formation des enseignants. À cette occasion, je développerai une perspective 'allemande' en mettant en lumière tous ses aspects. Les argument ne se réfèrent pas seulement à l'empirisme, mais aussi à la théorie pour une implication d'une perspective transnationale, qui est considérée fondamentale pour une formation des enseignants moderne dans la matière d'histoire. Enfin je présenterai trois déductions pragmatiques qui se réfèrent à la situation en Allemagne, mais qui peuvent peut-être aussi imprimer une impulsion dans un autre contexte national.

Jonathan Even-Zohar

World History in Dutch Textbooks: Measuring Words, Reconstructing Textbooks and the Future of Historical Visualization

Between 2006 and 2007, I conducted extensive research into the world-historical perspective of Dutch history textbooks between 1975 and 2005. The purpose was to find all non-western elements in the Dutch history textbooks, so as to judge the quality of the non-western/world-historical perspectives, and how this has changed over time. The content of 65 textbooks for pupils aged 12-15 was dissected and a database containing over 12.000 entries of 'non-western' history was built. This database provided a subcategorized quantitative overview, whilst providing a methodology from which to conduct further research. In this paper I will critically review this methodology by identifying four methodological obstacles that could arguably lessen the validity and significance of the research and the results. The first two obstacles deal with the quantitative research and the statistical methodology, while the remaining two touch more on issues relating to qualitative analysis.

In den Jahren 2006 und 2007 führte ich eine umfassende Studie durch, in der ich die globalhistorische Perspektive niederländischer Geschichtsbücher untersuchte, die zwischen 1975 und 2005 erschienen sind. Ziel der Studie war es, alle nicht-westlichen Aspekte, die in diesen

Geschichtsbüchern thematisiert wurden, zu finden und die Qualität der nicht-westlichen bzw. globalhistorischen Perspektiven zu bewerten. Darüber hinaus galt es herauszufinden, wie sich diese Perspektiven im Laufe der Zeit verändert haben. Zu diesem Zweck wurde der Inhalt von 65 Schulbüchern für Schüler zwischen 12 und 15 Jahren analysiert und eine Datenbank mit über 12.000 Einträgen angelegt. Diese lieferte eine in verschiedene Unterkategorien gegliederte quantitative Übersicht und stellte gleichzeitig eine Methodik zur Verfügung, die eine weitergehende Forschung in diesem Feld ermöglicht. In diesem Aufsatz werde ich diese Methodik kritisch hinterfragen und vier Problemfelder aufzeigen, die durchaus die Validität und Signifikanz der Studie und ihrer Ergebnisse mindern könnten. Die ersten beiden Problemfelder beziehen sich auf die quantitative Studie und die statistische Methodik, während die beiden letzteren sich eher mit qualitativen Analysen beschäftigen.

Entre 2006 et 2007, j'ai mené une recherche approfondie sur l'enseignement de l'Histoire mondiale dans les manuels hollandais parus entre 1975 et 2005. Le but était de trouver tous les éléments liés au monde non-occidentaux dans les manuels d'histoire hollandais, afin de juger la qualité de l'approche non-occidentale et de l'Histoire mondiale, et comment peu à peu cela a changé. Les contenus de 65 manuels scolaires pour des élèves de 12 à 15 ans ont été analysés et une base de données de 12 000 entrées a été créée. Cette base de données contient un aperçu quantitatif qui se subdivise en sous-catégories en fournissant une méthodologie qui va permettre des recherches continues dans ce domaine. Dans cet article je vais remettre en question ma méthodologie de recherche en identifiant quatre problèmes méthodologiques qui pourraient diminuer la validité et l'importance de l'étude et du résultat. Les deux premiers obstacles sont l'étude quantitative et la méthodologie des statistiques alors que les deux autres se réfèrent aux problèmes liés à l'analyse qualitative.

Agnes Fischer-Dardai & László Kojanitz

Textbooks Analysis Methods for the Longitudinal Study of Textbook Contents (Research Conclusions)

The research performed in the spring of 2006 carried out a comprehensive analysis for the comparison of school textbooks in Hungary over the past 30 years. The experts involved in the work examined over a hundred textbooks from the 1970s to the present day. The main issue was to examine how textbooks have changed over the course of time. Do they reflect the social requirements that have changed in the meantime? Do they stimulate problem solving and social learning? Do they stimulate the practical application of the gained knowledge more than they did before? During their research the authors concluded that new analysis criteria and methods need to be developed. The goal is to explore whether the selection of content, the structuring, the wording and the related didactic apparatus provide adequate conditions for the acquisition of well-structured adaptive knowledge that can be easily recalled in task and problem situations.

In einer im Frühjahr 2006 durchgeführten Analyse wurden über hundert ungarische Schulbücher der letzten drei Jahrzehnte untersucht und verglichen. Der Fokus der Untersuchung lag dabei auf der Frage, inwieweit sich die Schulbücher im Laufe der Zeit verändert haben. Reflektieren sie z. B. die geänderten sozialen Rahmenbedingungen? Fördern sie problemlösendes Denken und soziales Lernen, und legen sie inzwischen z. B. mehr Wert

darauf, dass Schüler erworbenes Wissen praktisch anwenden können. Während der Forschung wurde allen beteiligten Autoren klar, dass die Überprüfung dieser Fragestellungen neue Analyse Kriterien und Methoden erfordern würden. Ziel war es herauszufinden, ob die Bücher durch die Auswahl von Inhalten, die Strukturierung, die Sprache und durch das verwendete didaktische Material adäquate Möglichkeiten für einen gut strukturierten, adaptiven Wissenserwerb bereitstellen, der Transferleistungen bei der Lösung von Aufgaben und Problemen ermöglicht.

Cette étude, exécutée en printemps 2006, a réalisé une analyse totale pour la comparaison des manuels d'histoire en Hongrie publiés pendant les dernières trente années. Les experts qui étaient mêlés au projet ont examiné plus que cent manuels des années soixante-dix jusqu'à ce jour. La question centrale était comment les manuels ont changé avec le temps. Réflètent-ils les exigences sociales qui ont changé entre-temps? Est-ce qu'ils promeuvent les compétences des élèves à résoudre des problèmes et des compétences sociales et l'élaboration pratique des connaissances, est-elle plus importante que jadis? Les auteurs ont tiré la conclusion qu'il faut développer des nouvelles méthodes et des nouveaux critères d'analyse. Le but sera d'examiner si la choix des contenus, des structures, de la formulation et des méthodes didactiques offre des conditions adéquates qui permettent l'acquisition d'une connaissance adaptative, qui peut être employé orienté vers le problème.

Terry Haydn

The Changing Form and Use of Textbooks in the History Classroom in the 21st Century: A View from the UK

Much recent research about history text books has focused on the content of the text books, the choices available, and the ways in which the text books present or examine the national past of the country concerned. Less attention has focused on the extent to which textbooks are used in history classrooms, and teachers' and pupils' views of the efficacy of history textbooks as a mode of instruction. As well as changes to the form of UK text books, developments in information and communications technology have provided options for history teachers in terms of the range of resources and pedagogical strategies available to them. The paper presents the findings of a study of text book use in the UK. The study suggests that history teachers in the UK have very different views and practices in terms of text book use, and that these are linked in many cases to their ideas about the use of new technology in the history classroom.

Ein Großteil der jüngsten Forschung über Geschichtsschulbücher konzentriert sich auf den Inhalt der Bücher, auf die vorhandene Auswahl und auf die Art und Weise, wie Schulbücher die nationale Geschichte untersuchen und präsentieren. Weniger Aufmerksamkeit wurde der Frage gewidmet, in welchem Ausmaß Geschichtsschulbücher im Unterricht tatsächlich verwendet werden und welche Bedeutung Schüler und Lehrer den Büchern als Mittel der Lehre beimessen, obwohl Veränderungen in der äußeren Form der britischen Geschichtsschulbücher sowie auch die neuesten Entwicklungen der Informations- und Kommunikationstechnologie Lehrern in der heutigen Zeit erweiterte methodische Möglichkeiten an die Hand geben. Dieser Aufsatz präsentiert die Ergebnisse einer Studie zur Verwendung von Geschichtsschulbüchern in England. Die Studie zeigt, dass Geschichtslehrer sehr unterschiedliche Einstellungen und

Praktiken im Hinblick auf die Nutzung der Schulbücher zeigen und dass diese unterschiedlichen Einstellungen wiederum stark verknüpft sind mit vorhandenen Einstellungen zur Nutzung neuer Technologien im Geschichtsunterricht.

Beaucoup de recherches récentes sur les manuels d'histoire ont mis l'accent sur le contenu des manuels scolaires, les choix disponibles et la façon dans laquelle les manuels présentent ou examinent le passé du pays concerné. Moins d'attention a été axée sur l'étendue de laquelle les manuels sont utilisés en classe d'histoire, et les opinions des enseignants et des élèves sur l'efficacité des manuels d'histoire comme un mode d'enseignement. Ainsi que les changements de la forme des livres au Royaume-Uni, l'évolution des technologies d'information et de communication ont fourni des options pour les enseignants d'histoire en termes de la gamme de ressources et les stratégies pédagogiques à leur disposition. Le document présente les résultats d'une étude sur l'utilisation des manuels au Royaume-Uni. L'étude indique que les professeurs d'histoire au Royaume-Uni ont différentes opinions et pratiques en termes d'utilisation des manuels et que ceux-ci sont liées souvent à leurs idées de l'utilisation des nouvelles technologies dans la classe d'histoire.

Anders Holmgren & Daniel Lindmark

Methods in Swedish History Textbooks Research

The present article analyzes methodological awareness and use of methods in Swedish history textbook research, represented by five doctoral dissertations defended during the period 1997-2010. In a dissertation where textbook analysis comprises only a minor part of the study, methodological discussion tends to be limited. However, when textbook analysis is the primary focus, the most innovative methods are found and thus paid considerable attention. A number of methodological problems are identified, including inconsistencies between stated methodological choices and actual application. In general, the most recent textbook analyses contain more methodological discussion than earlier counterparts, a development that can be linked to the establishment of history didactics as a distinct research field.

In diesem Artikel werden das Methodenbewusstsein und die Methodenverwendung in der schwedischen Geschichtsschulbuchforschung anhand von fünf Dissertationen, die zwischen 1997 und 2010 vorgelegt wurden, untersucht. In einer Dissertation, in der die Lehrbuchanalyse einen geringen Teil der Studie ausmacht, ist die Methodendiskussion wenig intensiv. Wenn hingegen die Lehrbuchanalyse im Zentrum der Studie steht, schenkt man Methodenfragen eine merkbar höhere Aufmerksamkeit. In dieser Kategorie findet man auch die innovativsten Methoden. Diese Dissertationen werden deshalb in dem Aufsatz eingebender behandelt. Eine Reihe von Methodenproblemen wird identifiziert, u. a. die Inkonsistenz zwischen gewählter Methodik und deren tatsächlicher Anwendung. Im Allgemeinen weisen die neuesten Lehrbuchanalysen einen höheren Grad an Methodendiskussionen auf als frühere Studien. Dies ist eine Entwicklung, die mit der Etablierung der Geschichtsdidaktik als eigenes Forschungsgebiet in Zusammenhang steht.

Cet article a pour objet la conscience méthodologique et l'utilisation de méthodes dans la recherche sur les manuels d'histoire suédois, telle que représentée par cinq thèses de doctorat

soutenues entre 1997 et 2010. Lorsque l'étude des manuels se limite à une partie de la thèse, la discussion méthodologique tend à être assez limitée. Quand l'étude des manuels en est le sujet principal, la méthodologie reçoit une attention considérable. On trouve dans cette dernière catégorie les méthodes les plus novatrices. Ces thèses sont donc considérées plus en détail. Un nombre de problèmes méthodologiques sont identifiés, incluant le manque de cohérence entre les choix méthodologiques explicites et les méthodes réellement utilisées. En général, les études les plus récentes sur les manuels comprennent plus de discussions méthodologiques que les précédentes, une évolution qui peut être liée à l'établissement de la didactique de l'histoire comme un champ distinct de recherche.

Panayotis Kimourtzis, Giorgos Kokkinos, Panayotis Gatsotis
Educational Policy for Minorities – New History Textbooks in Greece:
Exclusion and Suppression of Otherness

This article comprises a contribution to the examination of three interlinked, mutually complementary issues: a) social and educational attitude towards otherness in Greece, particularly towards minorities, b) the relation of history to social justice, and c) educational policy regards otherness. For this purpose, the article is structured in two parts. The first part seeks to present basic theoretical and methodological assumptions, while the second part consists of an analysis of new school history textbooks in Greece. It becomes obvious that, regardless of the thematic broadening of the history curriculum, highly politicized Greek history textbooks are dominated by the nation-centered view, still this view does not necessarily correspond to the needs of youth living in a global world and furthermore it does not correspond to the idea of a pluralistic historical consciousness. An essential assumption of the authors' approach is that a shift of school history axis can contribute, in a decisive way, to the fostering of an inclusive, comprehensive historical education and an intercultural historical consciousness, according to the logic of concentric circles (from local to global) and the logic of thematic adaptation on the basis of the needs of every target group. Therefore, unforced coexistence with dominant population may well be enriched by the experience of otherness (class, racial, ethnic, linguistic, religious), historical narrative of the nation-state and history of excluded or victimized groups.

Dieser Artikel ist ein Beitrag zur Prüfung von drei miteinander verknüpften und einander ergänzenden Themen. Das erste bezieht sich auf soziale Komponenten und pädagogische Einstellungen gegenüber dem 'Anderen' und zwar insbesondere gegenüber Minderheiten. Das zweite Thema umfasst die historischen Erfahrungen mit sozialer Gerechtigkeit; das dritte Thema befasst sich mit der Bildungspolitik im Bezug auf das 'Anderssein'. Hierzu wurde der Artikel in zwei Hauptteile untergliedert. Im ersten Teil wird versucht, grundlegende theoretische und methodologische Thesen zu präsentieren, während der zweite Teil eine Analyse der neuen Geschichtsschulbücher in Griechenland liefert. Die Analyse zeigt dabei, dass, unabhängig von der thematischen Reichweite des Geschichtslehrplans, die stark von der Politik geprägten griechischen Geschichtsschulbücher von einer ethnozentrischen Sichtweise beherrscht werden. Diese Ausrichtung entspricht jedoch nicht unbedingt den Bedürfnissen der in einer globalen Welt lebenden Jugend und der Idee von einem pluralistischen historischen Bewusstsein. Eine wesentliche These der Autoren ist, dass eine Verschiebung der Inhalte des Geschichtsunterrichtes bei Berücksichtigung der Prinzipien des Fremdverstehens und der Alteritätserfahrung

entscheidend zur Förderung einer integrativen und umfassenden historischen Bildung und zum Aufbau eines interkulturellen historischen Bewusstseins – entsprechend der Logik der konzentrischen Kreise (vom Lokalen zum Globalen) und der Logik der thematischen Anpassung an die Bedürfnisse jeder Zielgruppe – beitragen kann. So kann die historische Erfahrung des Anderssein (hinsichtlich z. B. von Klasse, Ethnie, Nation, Sprache, Religion) historische Narrationen zum Nationalstaat bereichern und zur friedlichen Koexistenz zwischen dominierender Bevölkerungsgruppe und Minderheiten beitragen.

Cet article constitue une contribution à l'examen de trois questions interdépendantes et mutuellement complémentaires : a) l'attitude sociale et éducative envers l'altérité en Grèce, en particulier envers les minorités, b) la relation entre l'histoire et la justice sociale, et c) la politique éducative concernant l'altérité. Pour cette raison, l'article est structuré en deux parties. La première partie vise à présenter des hypothèses théoriques et méthodologiques, tandis que la deuxième partie consiste en l'analyse des nouveaux manuels scolaires d'histoire en Grèce. Il est évident qu'indépendamment de l'élargissement thématique du programme scolaire d'histoire, les manuels scolaires d'histoire grecs, très politisés, sont dominés par une approche ethnocentriste. Mais cette approche ne correspond pas nécessairement aux besoins d'une jeunesse qui vit dans un monde globalisé, et en outre il ne correspond pas à l'idée d'une conscience historique pluraliste. Une des hypothèses essentielles des auteurs est qu'un décalage des axes de l'histoire scolaire peut contribuer de manière décisive à la promotion d'une éducation historique globale et d'intelligibilité du monde, ainsi qu'à une conscience historique interculturelle selon la logique de cercles concentriques (du local au mondial) et la logique de l'adaptation thématique sur la base des besoins de chaque groupe-cible. De cette façon, la coexistence non contrainte avec la population dominante peut très bien être enrichie par l'expérience de l'altérité (de classe, raciale, ethnique, linguistique, religieuse), par le récit historique de l'Etat-nation, et par l'histoire des groupes exclus ou des victimes.

Robert Maier

History Textbooks and the Acoustic Dimension. A New Field for Textbook Analysis?

Mentions of acoustic phenomena (noises, sounds, melodies, etc.) in history textbooks, though themselves 'dumb', enable pupils to imagine the 'sound' of history. This study explores how intensive this phenomenon is, its causes and the ways in which it is presented. By taking a look at textbooks from earlier periods, one may realise that the widespread advancement of images has led to the neglect of the acoustic dimension of history in textbooks. Cultural influences also have to be brought to account. The study of a Brazilian textbook shows that, in the description of cultures which rely only minimally on written tradition, the reconstruction of historical sonospheres acquires greater importance. New media make it possible to place greater emphasis on the acoustic dimension of history in classrooms. If textbooks are commensurate with the medial pilot function ascribed to them and recognise the critical treatment of 'sounds' as a pedagogical exercise, the challenge they face is considerable indeed.

Indem Geschichtsschulbücher akustische Phänomene (Geräusche, Töne, Melodien etc.) erwähnen und beschreiben, induzieren sie – obwohl von ihrer Natur her 'stumm' – beim Schüler auch

Vorstellungen vom 'Klang' der Geschichte. Die vorliegende Studie sondiert, wie intensiv dies erfolgt, welche Anlässe genutzt werden und welche Präsentationsformen vorherrschen. Ein Blick in alte Schulbücher stützt die These, dass das breite Vordringen der Bilder eine Vernachlässigung der akustischen Dimension der Geschichte im Schulbuch bewirkte. Auch kulturelle Einflüsse sind in Rechnung zu stellen. Die Untersuchung eines brasilianischen Schulbuchs legt nahe, dass bei der Darstellung von Kulturen mit geringer schriftlicher Überlieferung die Frage der Rekonstruktion geschichtlicher Sonospären an Bedeutung gewinnt. Die neuen Medien ermöglichen es, die akustische Dimension der Geschichte im Klassenraum stärker zur Geltung zu bringen. Wenn die Schulbücher ihrer zugeordneten medialen Lotsenfunktion gerecht werden wollen und auch den kritischen Umgang mit 'Lauten' als Aufgabe erkennen, stehen sie vor einer Herausforderung.

En évoquant et décrivant des phénomènes acoustiques (bruits, tons, mélodies, etc.), les manuels scolaires d'histoire, bien que 'muets' par leur nature, induisent aussi chez les élèves des représentations de la 'consonance' de l'histoire. La présente étude explore l'intensité de ce processus, les contextes dans lesquels celui-ci s'inscrit et les modes de présentation prédominants. L'examen de manuels scolaires anciens étaye la thèse selon laquelle la considérable augmentation des supports visuels a entraîné dans les manuels la mise à l'écart de la dimension acoustique de l'histoire. Il convient de tenir également compte de l'influence des facteurs culturels. L'analyse d'un manuel brésilien laisse supposer que la question de la reconstruction de sonosphères historiques gagne en importance pour la représentation de cultures peu dotées d'une tradition écrite. Les nouveaux médias permettent de mettre plus en valeur la dimension acoustique de l'histoire dans l'enseignement. Les manuels scolaires se voient placés devant un défi, s'ils veulent satisfaire à la fonction médiale de guide qui leur est dévolue et s'ils prennent aussi pour tâche l'approche critique des 'sons'.

Brigitte Morand

Questions on the Comparative Method of European and U.S. Textbooks: The Example of the Cold War and the Berlin Blockade

The comparative approach offers a particularly rich prospect for the study of textbooks, which are very complex objects. At first glance, one would think that they are simply the result of political choice and values of the country in which they are produced. But they are also determined by the evolution of knowledge in History, and by epistemological and ideological considerations. This article deals with the conditions of the comparison of textbooks, and proposes an approach combining quantitative and qualitative methods. Using the example of the Berlin blockade, we also give some first results that lead to questioning the place and use of pictures in the history textbooks.

Der komparatistische Ansatz bietet besonders ergiebige Perspektiven für die Analyse von Schulbüchern, die sehr komplexe Untersuchungsgegenstände darstellen. Auf den ersten Blick könnte man meinen, dass Schulbücher das Ergebnis des politischen Willens und der Werte des Landes sind, in dem sie hergestellt werden. Aber sie werden auch vom Fortschritt des historischen Wissens und von epistemologischen und ideologischen Überlegungen beeinflusst. Dieser Artikel stellt die Ergebnisse einer Vergleichsstudie von deutschen, französischen und

amerikanischen Schulbüchern vor, bei der ein kombinierter Ansatz aus qualitativen und quantitativen Methoden gewählt wurde. Am Beispiel der Berlin-Blockade liefert die Studie darüber hinaus Ergebnisse, die aufschlussreich für die Problematik der Verwendung von Bildern in Geschichtslehrbüchern sind.

L'approche comparative offre d'intéressantes perspectives pour l'analyse des manuels scolaires, qui sont des objets très complexes. Au premier regard, on pourrait penser qu'ils sont simplement le résultat des choix politiques et des valeurs du pays dans lequel ils sont produits. Mais ils sont aussi déterminées par l'évolution du savoir historique, ainsi que par des considérations épistémologiques et idéologiques. Cet article porte sur les conditions d'une étude comparée des manuels, et propose une approche combinant méthode quantitative et méthode qualitative. À travers l'exemple du blocus de Berlin, nous donnons aussi quelques résultats conduisant à un questionnement sur la place et l'utilisation des images dans les manuels d'histoire.

Jutta Schumann & Susanne Popp

Reflections and Suggestions for the 'Europeanization' of National and Regional History Museums

If you pass in review on the performances of the museums as institutions, which create identity, their constitutive role in the process of nation-building and in the formation of national identities becomes evident. Even today historical museums, especially national museums, are expected to contribute to the advancement of an European awareness in a united Europe. This article presents suitable deliberations and theses, which are focused on history didactics research. The aim is to point out how existing collections could provide an European focused re-interpretation and how they could present themselves that way in a new role as integrating European education institutions.

Blickt man in der Rückschau auf die Leistungen des Museums als identitätsbildende Institution, so spielte dieses historisch im Prozess des nation-building und der Formierung der nationalen Identitäten eine konstitutive Rolle. Auch heute wird von historischen Museen – aber vor allem auch von Nationalmuseen – erwartet, dass sie in einem geeinten Europa einen Beitrag zur Förderung eines europäischen Bewusstseins leisten. Der vorliegende Aufsatz präsentiert dazu Überlegungen und Thesen, die an der geschichtsdidaktischen Forschung orientiert sind. Ziel ist es dabei aufzuzeigen, wie bestehende Sammlungen eine europäisch orientierte Re-Interpretation leisten und sich damit in einer neuen Rolle als integrierende europäische Bildungsinstitutionen präsentieren könnten.

Regardant les mérites des musées en matière d'une institution de la formation d'identité, on peut constater qu'ils ont joué un rôle constitutif dans le procès historique de nation-building et de la formation des identités nationales. Aujourd'hui on attend d'un musée historique, et surtout d'un musée national, qu'il apporte une contribution à l'encouragement d'une connaissance européenne. Cet article présente des réflexions et des thèses orientées aux recherches de la didactique historique. Il est le but de montrer comment les collections existantes peuvent faire une re-interprétation européenne et comment ils se présentent par conséquent dans un nouveau rôle d'une institution éducative qui contribue à l'intégration européenne.

Kaat Wils, Andrea Schampaert, Geraldine Clarebout, Hans Cools, Alexander Albicher and Lieven Verschaffel

Past and Present in Contemporary History Education.

An Exploratory Empirical Research on Prospective History Teachers

Contemporary Western-European societies harbor divergent and partially conflicting expectations towards history education. History as a school subject is considered both as a contribution to the formation of democratically inspired, tolerant citizens and as an introduction into historical thinking, characterized by, among other things, the ability to detach oneself from present-centered perspectives. In order to gain insight into the resulting tension between past and present in history education, the beliefs of prospective history teachers (enrolled in different types of teacher training in Flanders, Belgium) were explored through a questionnaire and a set of performance tasks. Even though no more than preliminary results are presented here, it is clear that most prospective history teachers do strongly value the involvement of the present in history education and in their history lessons, rejecting a purely 'historicist' approach of the past. They do so usually from a rather 'presentist' perspective, even though there is equally a certain openness towards a postmodern understanding of the interrelatedness of past and present.

Heutige westeuropäische Gesellschaften setzen unterschiedliche, und teilweise widersprüchliche Erwartungen in den Geschichtsunterricht. Das Schulfach Geschichte wird als ein Beitrag zur Ausbildung von demokratisch gebildeten, toleranten Bürgern betrachtet, aber darüber hinaus auch als ein Fach angesehen, das eine Einführung in das historische Denken gibt und die Fähigkeit fördert, sich von einer gegenwartsfixierten Perspektive zu lösen. Um Erkenntnisse über die daraus resultierenden Spannungen zwischen Vergangenheit und Gegenwart zu gewinnen, wurden die Überzeugungen zukünftiger Geschichtslehrer (jeweils in der Lehrerausbildung für unterschiedliche Schularten in Flandern, Belgien) anhand eines Fragebogens und einer Liste von performativen Aufgaben (performative tasks) untersucht. Obwohl hier nur vorläufige Ergebnisse vorgestellt werden können, wird deutlich, dass die meisten zukünftigen Geschichtslehrer die Bedeutung der Gegenwart für den Geschichtsunterricht und für ihre Geschichtsstunden stark betonen und einen sich lediglich aus der Geschichte speisenden traditionellen Ansatz zur Interpretation der Vergangenheit ablehnen. Meistens könnte man ihre Perspektive als 'präsentistisch' umschreiben, sogar wenn sie zugleich eine gewisse Offenheit zeigen für ein postmodernes Verstehen der gegenseitigen Abhängigkeit von Vergangenheit und Gegenwart.

Les sociétés contemporaines en Europe occidentale ont des attentes divergentes et partiellement contradictoires au sujet de l'enseignement de l'histoire. L'histoire en tant que matière scolaire est considérée aussi bien comme une contribution à la formation de citoyens démocratiques et tolérants que comme une introduction à la pensée historique, caractérisée par la capacité de se détacher de perspectives orientées vers le présent. Afin de mieux comprendre la tension qui en résulte entre le passé et le présent dans l'enseignement de l'histoire, les convictions de futurs enseignants d'histoire (inscrits dans des types différents de formation d'enseignants en Flandre, Belgique) ont été explorées à travers un questionnaire et une série de tâches de performance (performance tasks). Bien que les résultats présentés ne soient que préliminaires, il est déjà évident que la plupart des futurs enseignants attachent une haute valeur à l'implication du

présent dans l'enseignement de l'histoire et dans leurs leçons d'histoire. Ce faisant, ils rejettent une approche strictement 'historiciste' du passé. Le plus souvent, la perspective qu'il adoptent est plutôt 'présentiste', même s'il y a également une certaine ouverture envers une compréhension postmoderne de l'interdépendance entre passé et présent.

Cristòfol-A. Trepà & Pilar Rivero

Didactical Efficiency about Multimedia Instruction in History:
Experimental Research in 1° ESO (Compulsory Secondary Education)

We present the results of an experimental research with over 300 high school students about the educational effectiveness of multimedia projections for learning history. In this research, we verified positive impacts on interest, attention, comprehension and retention of information, although there was no significant improvement in academic outcomes. We could also determine best practice examples and less effective methodologies.

In diesem Beitrag werden die Ergebnisse einer experimentellen Untersuchung mit über 300 Schülerinnen und Schüler präsentiert, die sich auf die pädagogische Wirksamkeit des Multimedia-Einsatzes für das Lernen im Fach Geschichte konzentriert hat. In dem Forschungsprojekt konnten die positiven Auswirkungen des Multimedia-Einsatzes auf das Interesse, die Aufmerksamkeit, das Verständnis und die Speicherung von Informationen belegt werden, aber gleichzeitig konnten keine signifikanten Verbesserungen des Lernergebnisses festgestellt werden. Darüber hinaus konnte die Studie Aufschluss darüber geben, welche Methoden und Praxisbeispiele im Unterricht gute bzw. weniger gute Lerneffekte erzielten.

L'efficacité didactique sur le multimédia instruction dans des cours d'histoire: la recherche expérimentale en 1° ESO (enseignement secondaire obligatoire). Nous présentons les résultats d'une recherche expérimentale avec plus de 300 élèves du secondaire sur l'efficacité de l'enseignement de la projection multimédia pour apprendre l'histoire. Dans cette recherche, nous avons vérifié l'impact positif sur l'intérêt, l'attention, la compréhension et la rétention de l'information, bien qu'il n'y ait aucune amélioration significative des résultats scolaires. On peut aussi déterminer les meilleures pratiques et des méthodes moins efficaces.

Barnabas Vajda

Analysis of some Slovakian History Textbooks

This paper deals with a qualitative and quantitative analysis of two Slovakian history textbooks. It analyses the amount of questions, tasks and exercises (QTEs) within the books and its exact cognitive reference. During the research process, the German-French joint history textbook was used as a reference or control book. While dealing with particular analytical issues, the paper generated general theoretical problems such as the classification of history schoolbooks as well as a concept of the didactical apparatus.

Dieser Aufsatz liefert eine qualitative und quantitative Analyse zu zwei slowakischen Schulbüchern, die sich insbesondere auf den Bereich der Arbeits- und Übungsaufgaben konzentriert und nach deren Bezugsfeldern fragt. Parallel dazu wurde das jüngst entwickelte

deutsch-französische Geschichtsschulbuch als Referenzobjekt benutzt, um Vergleichswerte zu gewinnen. In dem Aufsatz werden schließlich auch allgemeine theoretische Problemstellungen der Schulbuchanalyse erörtert so z. B. Fragen nach einer Klassifizierung von Geschichtsschulbüchern und nach der Konzeption des dort verwendeten didaktischen Materials.

Cet article traite des analyses qualitatives et quantitatives sur deux manuels d'histoire slovaques. Il analyse combien de questions, d'exercices et de devoirs se trouvent dans les manuels et à ce qu'ils se réfèrent cognitivement. Pendant les recherches un manuel d'histoire franco-allemand a servi comme référence. En présentant des questions analytiques, l'article soulève des problèmes théoriques comme la classification des manuels scolaires d'histoire et la conception du matériel didactique.

Joanna Wojdon

Analyzing and Evaluating Information Technology (IT) Resources for History Textbooks

The article presents an overview of the Information Technology resources accompanying Polish history textbooks for all levels of education, published between 1999 and 2009, available both in the Internet and on the attached CD/DVD-ROMs. It analyses how these resources are used by pupils and their teachers – this part of the research is based on a questionnaire. Due to the fact that they remain mostly unused and no examples of good practice were found, the existing IT resources are evaluated according to the recommendations made by American specialists in history education. Eventually, suggestions for publishers and proposals for further research are made.

Der Artikel liefert einen Überblick zu den IT-Produkten, die ergänzend zu polnischen Geschichtsschulbüchern aller Jahrgangsstufen in den Jahren 1999 bis 2009 im Internet oder auf CD bzw. DVD zur Verfügung gestellt wurden. Die mit Hilfe von Fragebögen durchgeführte Untersuchung zeigt, wie und in welchem Umfang Schüler und ihre Lehrer diese technischen Möglichkeiten nutzten. Im Ergebnis wurde sichtbar, dass das Internet und die verfügbaren CDs und DVDs kaum verwendet werden und auch keine Beispiele für eine sinnvolle und gute IT-Nutzung verfügbar sind. Dementsprechend schließt der Artikel mit einer Evaluierung der vorhandenen IT-Produkte basierend auf amerikanischen Forschungsergebnissen und versucht auf diesem Wege, Vorschläge für Herausgeber und für künftige Forschungen auf diesem Gebiet zu machen.

Cet article présente un bref aperçu des ressources de la technologie de l'information accompagnant des manuels d'histoire polonais pour chaque niveau d'éducation, publiés entre 1999 et 2009, qui sont disponibles sur Internet et sur les CD/DVD-ROMs ajoutés. Il présente l'analyse comment les ressources sont utilisées par les élèves et les professeurs – cette partie de la recherche s'appuie sur un questionnaire. En raison du fait que ces ressources restent pour la plupart inutilisées et que'on ne trouvait aucun exemple du bon usage, les ressources-IT actuelles sont évaluées selon les recommandations développés par des experts américains de l'éducation historique. Finalement on présente des propositions pour les éditeurs et pour des recherches supplémentaires.



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