Editorial

Professionalism, Scholarship, Theory and Research

The third volume of a journal is one of some significance: it suggests that the initial idea is receiving sufficient interest and support to be viable. IJHLTR has clearly taken root, even if not yet firmly established within the secret garden of the curriculum. We are delighted to announce that IJHLTR now has the support of the British association of history teacher educators: the *History Teacher Educators Network*. Our main purpose in establishing the journal was to provide a forum at the intersection of professional practice, scholarship, theory and research where major issues can be addressed within the canons of professional discourse. The problem we faced in 1999 when we planned the journal was stark: where did you go to find out what was happening both nationally and internationally in the world of history education?

This edition has a genuinely cosmopolitan flavour, with an emphasis upon the issue of history teacher education, with papers addressing common such concerns from Turkey, Yugoslavia, the Balkans and Finland. Central is the issue of quis custodet: what kind of history teacher education curriculum and history teacher educators should a society have? Within societies that had relative internal stability in the 20th Century, the role and function of history within the curriculum was largely tacit, drawing upon sets of inchoate yet firmly held assumption. History education becomes a crucial, vibrant and vital concern where the world has been turned upside down through war and revolution, and where new polities emerge from the shattered structures that existed before. History here is not an abstract, academic subject. It is living politics and current affairs, providing a temporal dimension to opinions and passions - the cement that glues together ethnic, religious, social and economic groupings and gives them identities. The killing fields of Kosovo and Cambodia bear grim testimony to the power of history where it takes the form of myth and legend, a weapon in the hands of demagogues and their murderous followers and allies.

Already within IJHTLR there is a significant clustering of papers around the issue of the role of history within the educational underpinnings of a society during the formative years of its citizens. The paper on history curricula from around the world attempts to draw together a number of strands concerning history and its educational role, drawing mainly upon information available in the public domain. Yet, there is no point in having the most progressive and emancipatory history education curriculum if those who train teachers at all stages of their career are drawing upon the principles and practices of the ancien regime.

The professionalism of teacher educators, their trainees and teachers needs to connect directly to the corpus of scholarship. Scholarship involves the free flow of ideas and findings with a related dialogue. Within the world of history teacher educators there has been over the past twenty years a stress upon the nature of the discipline and how that relates to both overall curricular requirements at a national, regional, local and school level and the teaching and learning experiences of pupils. Attempts to ground history teaching in an understanding of the academic basis of the discipline, or more accurately, academic bases, has produced an impressive volume of curriculum development and research that links history teaching to its disciplinary foundations.

Yet scholarship has not fully addressed the political imperative: the increasing role of statism in shaping and directing the content of the national history curriculum. Internationally this has had profound effects upon attempts of teacher educators to

promote a history curriculum that balances the substantive and syntactic dimensions, that places equal emphasis upon the skills and process as upon factual knowledge. Since the 1980s there is a danger of national history curricula enshrining the view, prejudices and principles of the political nation with its emphasis upon nationalism entombed in substantive content. History educators need to address the problem of educating their masters, or at least influencing the ways in which they structure the history curriculum and related requirements for teacher educators. Perhaps a way forward is the increasingly constructivist nature of public history: the history that flows like a tide through public consciousness on a daily basis. The media feeds upon history, with a flood of programmes and newspaper and journal articles that provide often contrasting interpretations of a society's past. History for life saturates the media, and in requiring citizens to shape and form their understanding, perhaps this provides an entrée for history educators.

The concept of a constructivist public appeals, able to maturely consider different interpretations and their evidential bases before reaching independent judgments. Yet behind the façade of constructivism we need to recognise different theoretical positions and assumptions. Theory is an important and vital element within our work – at root what is underpinning the approaches that we are advocating? A central concern is exactly what understanding do teachers have of the discipline that they are teaching? Values, attitudes and beliefs can shape and influence the form which classroom teaching takes, as American research has clearly suggested. Another aspect of theory is the stress being placed upon teachers as researchers, developing an evidential base for the improvement of learning and teaching. In this edition we report on one teachers application of scholarship and research to the creation of a school museum – as a case study this is an impressive confirmation of the important role that teacher research can play. Similarly, Terry Haydn's paper on ICT raises some crucial questions about the agenda that politicians, civil servants, national and local advisors and commercial interests have imposed upon us. Internationally billions of dollars have been spent on introducing ICT into the curriculum, yet the corpus of evaluative research is extremely limited. At an individual level the theory behind the teacher-as-researcher approach to history education is unproven and untested. Theory is often implicit, yet of no less important for being unrecognised and even unheeded. The link between History and Literacy is a ripe area for the unpicking of theory. Within the statist prescriptions for a literacy dimension to the curriculum where is there a critical examination of the theoretical basis of the policies that are being implemented? Within the National Literacy Strategy now in its third year of implementation in England there are two major theoretical yet untested premises: the key role of phonetics and the functionalist, genre school.

Yet as history educators we need to look at the evidential basis upon which we operate. Despite the shifting sands of post-modernism and the fierce debate that swirls around the heads of those involved in that particular dialogue, there are still grounds for arguing for an empirical approach to history education. History involves the building up of understandings that fully account for the authorial position, that recognise the nature and provenance of the sources, that allow for the positions from which evidence is constructed and presented, that recognises the incomplete and fragmentary nature of the record of the past. The pictures and interpretations that we present are as valid as an acknowledgment of their subjectivity allows. In drawing upon historians' common concern with an evidential, defensible basis for claims, we have as secure a foundation as we can for our discipline. As such, history educators have a strong claim to combine academic historical accounts and interpretations with the penchant of social scientists for case studies. The papers in this edition of IJHLTR bear testimony to historians sharing common interests and perceptions and their optimism that history education can make a better tomorrow for today's children.

Does the Teaching of History in Turkey Need Reform?

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Abstract: *There has been some dissatisfaction with the teaching of history that has been voiced by scholars since the 1970s in Turkey. Despite the long interval, these problems are still a feature of this field for the following reasons: government negligence, lack of well-qualified staff for the teaching of history, the preparation of history teachers and lack of an up-to-date curriculum for both school history and secondary school history teacher education institutions. Through this paper, it is intended to examine some of the controversies about the teaching of history in the last three decades.*

Key Words Teaching history in Turkey, Controversies about teaching of history in Turkey, Turkish History Curriculum, History Teacher Education in Turkey

Introduction

Since the 1970s, the quality of the teaching of history has come under criticism in Turkey. According to some educators and scholars, the teaching of history is far from being satisfactory because of the traditional teaching methods and approaches. For example, in Turkey the methods employed by history teachers tend not to engage the interest of students, requiring little of them but list of memorised dates and facts. It seems that there is not much chance for them to use their imagination or their critical judgement. As a result of this situation, the teaching of history in schools appears far from interesting or even comprehensible. In this paper, it is intended to examine some of the controversies about the teaching of history in the last three decades.

Points of criticism

When the literature of the teaching of history is examined in Turkey, it shows that since the 1970s there have been publications which criticise the teaching of history in schools. For example, according to some educators, history has not much engaged in the interests of children (Aksin, 1975, pp.286-287, Safran, 1993, p.35) because of the memorisation and dictation employed in the history lessons. Some Turkish historians have in fact been conscious of these drawbacks since the 1970s. For example, there were two important conferences which were held to explore history studies and the teaching of history in Turkey, one of them being held in 1975 by the Association of Philosophy. At this point, it must be emphasised that what was remarkable was the first conference being held not by the Association of History as might have been expected but the Association of Philosophy. This was because it seems that most of the members of the philosophy association were not satisfied with the purposes and methods of the teaching of history, although some of the historians themselves had been critical.

At this conference, some famous historians and scholars expressed their ideas regarding the development of historical studies in Turkey since the Ottoman Empire and one of the sessions of the conference was devoted to the teaching of history at Primary and Secondary level. At this session, discussion centred on the following topics. First, the primary and the secondary school history curriculum was criticised by some of the participants of the conference and it was stressed that the history curriculum at the primary and secondary levels had some defects in terms of content and purpose (Ucyigit, 1975, pp. 269-275; Tuncay, 1975, pp. 276-285; Parmaksızoglu, 1975, pp. 301-303; Turan, 1975, pp.304-306). In particular, Turan (1975, p.304) stressed that, at primary schools, pupils were required to

learn 5000 years of mainly Turkish history, which is an enormous amount. Besides this, Parmaksızoglu (1975, pp. 301-303) pointed out the lack of local history teaching in the early years of schooling. According to him, young pupils should begin to understand the history of their environment through local history. In addition to this, some of the participants of the conference criticised the Turkish history textbooks at the primary and secondary levels (Aksin, 1975, pp.285-287; Tezel, 1975, pp.292-298; Tuncay, 1975, pp. 276-285; Turan, 1975, pp.304-306). In particular, Tuncay (1975, pp.276-285) pointed out that while some Turkish history textbooks contained certain truths and dogmas, Turkish children should not be taught that in the past the Turks were always powerful and all-conquering.

Thirdly, it was stressed that the Turkish history curriculum programmes were not structured according to the level of children's understanding (Aksin, 1975, pp.285-287; Parmaksızoglu, 1975, pp. 301-303). In sum, certain problems of the teaching of history, which are still almost the same in Turkey, were discussed but, unfortunately, these problems have not been dealt with since then through negligence and a lack of scholars. However, this conference began a new epoch regarding the teaching of history because the topics discussed in the conference have been given attention by some historians (Ozbaran, 1992, p.95). The reports of the conference in themselves form a valuable part of the small body of literature available on the teaching of history in Turkey.

Since this conference, most of the problems touched on have continued until the present time and this situation has impelled some scholars to discuss further the problems of the teaching of history. In 1994, therefore, a conference regarding the teaching of history and Turkish history textbooks was held. It is regarded as one of the most important conferences in Turkey for the teaching of history since 1975. At the conference, first of all, Ozbaran, who was one of the organisers, criticised professional Turkish historians and said that in Turkey history studies have been dominated by the narrative approach (Ozbaran, 1994, pp.23-33). Besides this, Somersan (1994, pp.368-370) highlighted the importance which oral history should have in the teaching of history. Furthermore, Turkish history textbooks were discussed and, according to some of the participants, these have included some wrong and some dogmatic statements, which have led to enmity between Turkey and other countries. Besides this, it was argued that Turkish history textbooks were not designed to match the ways in which children learn history (Tuncay, 1994, pp.52-54; Timucin, 1994, pp.55-61). Additionally, at the conference, psychological aspects of the teaching of history were discussed, mainly centring on the American perspective (Erpulat, 1994, pp.255-264; Paykoc, 1994, pp.330-337; Acıkgoz, 1994, pp.313-329; Tanrıogen; 1994, pp.338-343). Through this conference, some crucial problems to do with the teaching of history and history textbooks in Turkey were discussed. Therefore, as a result of these discussions, it was seen that some Turkish intellectuals and scholars, some history specialist and some not, have become aware of some of the publicly discussed common problems in the teaching of history. However, issues discussed at the conference have not been resolved because of the reasons mentioned above, although these reports are available.

Both of these conferences were useful in revealing some drawbacks of the teaching of history in Turkey because the problems in the teaching of history were discussed by scholars in a systematic way, although the outcomes of their discussion were not enough to solve the problems of the teaching of history in Turkey. Besides this, the speakers at these two conferences had their contributions published and the publications have come to the attention of history teachers and history teacher educators.

In addition to the above publications, there are some recent studies which suggest that the teaching of history in Turkey is not up-to-date. For example, Kostuklu (1997) said that the

teaching of history needs to be changed in the light of the recent developments taking place in this field. In addition to this, Özbaran (1998, pp.68-71) stressed the following points as drawbacks of the teaching of history in Turkey:

- *Dimensions in history teaching are limited.*
- *Textbooks are not up-to-date.*
- *Nationalist views are dominant.*
- *Contemporary history is not included.*
- *Teaching methods are not up to date.*

The above ideas are in line with the two most recent pieces empirical research. For example, research comparing Turkish and English history textbooks in terms of the issues of design, construction and usability has recently been done by Kabapinar (1998). He pointed out that in Turkey history textbooks have to be written in the light of strict government regulations, unlike in England. He also said that when Turkish history textbooks are compared with English history textbooks, it seems that English history textbooks use many more pictures, tables and figures to increase the comprehensibility of topics. He further added that:

> *… it is possible to conclude that Turkish history textbooks seem to be used by pupils for the acquisition of basic facts and ideas, and they do not include written and pictorial sources which might encourage enquiry. In short, English students seem to have more opportunities to develop their own understanding, interpretation and imaginative pictures of the historical past in comparison with their Turkish counterparts (ibid., p.142)*

Through his study, Kabapinar stressed an important aspect of the teaching of history in Turkey: the teaching of history is centred in practice on the acquisition of facts and ideas rather than stimulating and encouraging the thinking and enquiry skills of children.

In another empirical study, Demircioglu (1999) has provided empirical data through a comparison which has suggested that educating secondary school history teachers is not up-to-date in Turkey. He conducted a comparative study examining how Turkish and English secondary school history student teachers are educated. In the light of this study, it appeared that in Turkey, secondary school history student teachers are not given an adequate education when compared with those in the English secondary school teacher education system on how to teach history in secondary schools. For example, this study has suggested that Turkish secondary school history student teachers were not taught how to make history more interesting and comprehensible. History student teachers were also not taught how to persuade children of the importance of history in their lives.

When the roots of the above dissatisfactions are examined, the following can be listed as reasons for it. To begin with, there are not enough academics and scholars who deal with history teacher education and the teaching of history because of the nature of education faculties. When the education faculties were structured, new staff, who were transferred from the arts faculty's history departments to the education faculty's history teacher education departments, were all historians and their research fields were pure history. At the same time, most of the existing staff of departments for the teaching of history in education faculties were not academics and they did not undertake research. In addition, the new staff, the academic historians, were not required to conduct research into the teaching of history because it was considered that there was no need for it. Most of the staff of the education faculties themselves have also not felt a need to undertake research into ways to educate secondary school history teachers, or indeed ways how to teach history. In fact, the new staff have continued their research into pure history. Thus, if anyone did want to do such

research they would be starting from scratch, given the lack of both literature and scholars (Demircioglu, 1999).

Secondly, it seems that another important factors which caused dissatisfaction with the teaching of history is the history curriculum. When the Turkish history curriculum is examined, it appears that it is not designed to teach history in an active way. In other words, it is not considered appropriate to bring history up to the present. As a result of this, Turkish history teachers seem to find difficulty in using a variety of methods and approaches to make history enjoyable, comprehensible and valuable in the eyes of children because memorisation, dictation and a certain amount of questioning, are the favourite history teaching methods in the majority of the Turkish schools. In addition to this, there has been a failure by government to develop and change the history curriculum in order to make history lessons more interesting, accessible and beneficial to children.

Finally, another big limitation seems to be the system of educating history teachers. As mentioned above, Demircioglu's study has suggested that the system of educating secondary school history teachers is not up-to-date in Turkey. For example, in the light of this study it appeared that Turkish secondary school history student teachers are not given adequate education in how to teach in general and how to teach history in particular because the curriculum of history teacher education is not up-to- date or even adequate when compared with the English system. As a result of this, history student teachers are not taught how to make history more comprehensible and enjoyable. Even if they were given a contemporary education in teacher education institutions, they would not implement what they were taught in secondary schools because of the present history curriculum.

Conclusion

In sum, it can be said that in Turkey there have been some dissatisfactions with the teaching of history which has been voiced by scholars since the 1970s. Despite the long interval, these problems are still a feature of this field for the following reasons: government negligence, lack of well-qualified staff for the teaching of history, the preparation of history teachers and lack of an up-to-date curriculum for both school history and secondary school history teacher education institutions.

In the light of all this, the following recommendations may be made in order to overcome the above obstacles. First of all, the Turkish secondary school history curriculum should be developed to take account of the ways in which children learn, think and develop and of the various kind of differences among children. This development should stress historical enquiry, comprehension, analysis and synthesis to a large extent together with the concepts of change, continuity, cause and consequence. In addition, the Turkish secondary school history curriculum should be designed on the basis of history as an active study, using active imagination, active thinking and purposeful teaching because " … good history is active history" (Farmer and Knight, 1995, p.1). Moreover, the content and activities of the Turkish secondary school history curriculum should be enriched to accommodate children's ways of learning history as an active study and to encourage children to think creatively and critically. In this design, topics should be allocated according to children's ages and needs. For example, local history should be used in the early years of schooling in order to increase children's understanding at this age.

Secondly, the curriculum of Turkish secondary school history teacher education departments should be restructured to educate effective, imaginative, creative and dynamic secondary school history student teachers. With this in mind, the following points should be included

when the secondary school history teacher education programme is structured. First, student teachers should be given an adequate training in basic professional skills and the teaching of history. Secondly, they should be given opportunities to develop their creativity and reflective skills to enable them to be critical of their own and others' practice during their university and school-based studies. They should also be encouraged to work professionally and constructively within the changing demands of the teaching profession. Thirdly, throughout the education process they should be given enough opportunities to develop their cognitive, motivational and interpersonal values and attitudes so as to become effective secondary school history teachers. Besides this, secondary school history teacher education programmes should be restructured to educate those secondary school history teachers who are aware of the importance of social justice and equal opportunities in the classroom, schools and society.

Finally, history teacher educators working in secondary school history teacher education departments should upgrade their own knowledge and skills regarding contemporary changes in the teaching of history and teacher education. In particular, they should be informed about current ideas of ways to educate reflective, imaginative and creative secondary school history student teachers. Universities should also require and encourage their secondary school history teacher educators to undertake research into the teaching of history and in education. For this reason, the research facilities of secondary school history teacher educators should be increased and the findings of teacher educators' results should be used to improve the quality of the teaching of history in Turkish secondary schools.

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Subject Discipline Dimensions of ICT and Learning: History, a Case Study

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Abstract*: The paper examines the views of history teachers in the United Kingdom on the potential of new technology for enhancing teaching and learning in history, including their views on which new technology applications are most helpful to teachers of history, what factors are most influential in limiting their use of new technology, and what forms of investment in the use of new technology they regard as most useful.*

These views are set in the context of considerable enthusiasm and financial investment in new technology on the part of politicians and policy makers, and research evidence which suggests that there is a 'rhetoric-reality' gap between the claims made for the use of new technology in education, and what is current practice.

The paper suggests that at least some aspects of the use or non-use of ICT are related to the nature of the subject discipline involved, and that there is a need to take into account subject discipline issues rather than treating new technology as an undifferentiated 'generic' learning tool if the rhetoric-reality gap is to be addressed.

Key words: New technology, History teaching, ICT, Education policy, Subject disciplines, Teacher attitudes to new technology, History education, computers

ICT and education: the enthusiasm of politicians in the United Kingdom

Not all countries have enthusiastically lauded the potential of new technology to enhance educational outcomes or invested substantial proportions of their educational budgets into the provision of computers for schools. Behre (1998, p. 58) points out that:

> Compared to Sweden, most countries in Europe go easy, or even very easy, in computerising their schools. The question is whether they are so conservative that they have not grasped the idea, or whether they are smart, having understood that the school has more important things to do.

Britain is one of the countries which *has* embraced educational technology with enthusiasm, high hopes, and financial commitment. Politicians of all parties have vied with each other in their claims for the transformative potential of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) in education. It is difficult to find any examples of negative or sceptical views about the role of computers in education from British politicians, and the role of ICT in education has been elevated to a priority for the nation's future well-being and prosperity. From Kenneth Baker's aim to put a computer in every school in England (see Baker, 1993, pp. 57-64), to David Hunt's claim (1995), as Minister of State in the Department of Education and Employment (DfEE), that 'It should be cool to compute', to Eric Forth's boast (1995) that 'Britain leads the world in IT in schools,' through to the Labour Party's commitment to connect every school in England to the internet (Labour Party, 1994, Department for Education and Employment, 1997), and Tony Blair's frequent eulogies on the educational power of new technology, politicians have been unreservedly positive about computers and learning. The following statement from Blair is not untypical of the discourse of politicians about the role of computers in education: 'The future lies

in the marriage of education and technology. The knowledge race has begun. The pace of technological change means the task is urgent. Knowledge is power. Information is opportunity.' (Blair, 1995) In advocating the extension of Internet access in schools, he argues, 'It's going to bring libraries and archives right into the classroom… The children can access virtually anything they want.' (Blair, 1998) Charles Clarke went as far as to place skills in ICT even above literacy and numeracy in declaring that 'Familiarity with ICT is the most vital life skill for the generation now going through school.' (Clarke, 1999)

Heppell (1995) and Smart (2001) make the point that part of the political espousal of ICT in education may be at least in part a matter of political image rather than a clear sighted and research based awareness of its educational potential. In Heppell's words, 'Ever since Harold Wilson spoke of the "white heat of technology", politicians have assumed that silicon offers a hot-wired short-cut to voters' hearts, especially when jobs, schools and national pride entered the equation.' Smart links New Labour's enthusiasm for the web to 'a lifestyle statement… youthful, entrepreneurial, inclusive and full of potential.'

Political enthusiasm has led to a substantial financial commitment to the provision of computers to schools, internet access, and in-service training in ICT for teachers. The UK now has one of the highest computers to pupils ratios in the world (Research Machines, 1997), and comparatively high percentages of schools linked to the internet. A 1998 survey (DfEE, 1998a) estimated that there were on average over 100 computers per secondary school in England, with one computer for every 9 pupils. Proficiency in new technology was also made a compulsory component of initial teacher education. Under current regulations, trainees cannot qualify to teach unless they have demonstrated competence in over a hundred 'statements' of proficiency in new technology. In 1999, the government invested £230 million in Information and Communications Technology (ICT) training for serving teachers.

ICT and education: the rhetoric-reality gap

In spite of strong support from politicians and policy makers, and substantial investment in ICT in schools, recent research findings have found that although the number of computers in schools has steadily increased over the past several years (DfEE, 1995, 1998a, 2001) by some indicators, computers have had a declining influence on teaching and learning in UK schools. (DfEE, 1998a, Lynch, 1999) The percentage of headteachers reporting ICT as making a substantial contribution to teaching has fallen from nearly 40% to under 20%. (DfEE, 1995, 1998a)

Even 'official' statistics on computer use may be overstating actual use; the biennial DfEE surveys are based on information from 'providers' rather than 'clients' (i.e. teachers rather than pupils). Surveys of pupils and former pupils (see, for instance, Lienard, 1995, Mellar and Jackson, 1994, Haydn, 1996) suggested that under 10% of high school students had more than occasional classroom contact with computers. Moreover, Cox *et al.* (1999) found that one of the main reasons which teachers gave for using computers in their teaching was 'because they felt they ought to.' There has also been a degree of concern and disappointment over the progress of the *National Grid for Learning* in the UK; the virtual gateway site for education that was to be the equivalent of the *Encyclopaedie* of the Enlightenment philosophers. (Selwyn, 1999)

If computers are so wonderful, why aren't teachers using them? There is now an emerging realisation in the UK that computers are not an unproblematic educational miracle, and that more careful thought needs to be invested in what teachers and

learners can actually do with computers, and what factors are limiting their use. There is now what Trend *et al.* (1999) refer to as a 'rhetoric-reality gap' between the claims made for ICT, and what computers are currently 'delivering' in schools in the UK.

This paper examines the proposition that not all the factors influencing computer use are 'generic' across all school subjects, and that some of the factors involved may be related to the nature of particular subject disciplines. The paper describes a small scale survey of high school teachers within the subject discipline of history, to explore the factors influencing the use or non-use of computers, and attempts to analyse the implications, in terms of finding ways forward for bridging the 'rhetoric-reality gap' in education and ICT.

ICT and education: subject discipline dimensions

Analysis of the discourse of politicians on ICT and learning reveals that there is little delineation between the 'value-added' which it might contribute to different subjects on the school curriculum. ICT is seen in general terms as 'a good thing.' In so far as its attributes for improving teaching and learning are analysed, it is primarily in terms of the increased speed and access it affords for the transmission of information, and the increased volume of information which can be moved around the various components of the educational system. The National Grid for Learning for 'the delivery of subjects' (DfEE, 1997, p. 5) is described as 'a way of finding and using on-line learning and teaching materials… a mosaic of interconnecting networks and education services based on the internet, which will support teaching, learning, training and administration in schools, colleges, universities, libraries, the workplace and homes.' (DfEE, 1997, p. 3)

As Noss and Pachler point out, the vision of education that is produced in the document is clear:

> Teachers will be linked to the centres of power; the DfEE will be able to communicate directly with schools and issue its latest instructions; schools will be able to send performance data to each other and to the DfEE; and, an aspect with increasingly high profile in the media recently, teachers will be able to download worksheets directly into their classroom.
> (Noss and Pachler, 1999, pp.197-8)

There is a tendency to view learning (and education) as principally a matter of the transmission of information, and to underestimate the complexity of the processes involved in teaching and learning. In the words of John Naughton (1999), 'It's not every day that you encounter a member of the government who appears to understand the Net. Most politicians (Clinton, Blair, Blunkett, to name just three) see it as a kind of pipe for pumping things into schools and schoolchildren.'

Political enthusiasm for ICT in education has focused primarily on 'cutting edge' applications, such as the internet, and CD-rom, multimedia technology (see, Haydn, 1999 for examples). But there is no necessary correlation between the sophistication of the technology, and its utility for enhancing teaching and learning in particular subjects. A good example of this is voice recognition software- a technological miracle, but not yet an educational one. When, in lectures on new technology over the past 4 years, I asked trainee teachers if they had seen it used in the classroom with real, live children, only one of over 600 students had ever seen it used.

In some respects, the utility of various ICT applications for teaching and learning depends on the nature of the subject discipline it is being used for. Data logging, for example, is invaluable for the science teacher, but is of no interest to history teachers. Integrated Learning Packages (or 'drill and skill' software, as it is sometimes called) such as Research Machines *Success Maker* software have proved to be helpful in moving pupils forward in maths, (see BECTa, 1999) but do not seem to work for geography and history. Sharp's research (1995, p.12) on the use of television and video recorder in British schools showed that some subjects made much more use of educational television broadcasts than others, with only 15% of maths departments reporting departmental use, compared to 89% of geography departments. The word processor is 'blunt-edge' technology, compared to recent multimedia and communications technology developments, but as Walsh remarks, from the point of view of the history teacher, it is an invaluable asset:

> It can search, annotate, organise, classify, draft, reorganise, redraft and save that fundamental of the historian, the printed word. When we consider these processes, and the implicit difficulties they represent for so many of our pupils, the true power and value of the word processor becomes clear. It is not a typewriter, it is an awesome tool for handling information.' (Walsh, 1998, p6)

Given the variations in ICT use between different school subjects, and concern over the limited progress which has been made in integrating computers into day to day teaching, one way of gaining possible insights into the use of computers in schools would be to focus on the use of ICT in a particular subject.

ICT and history teachers

The next section of the paper summarises the results of a small scale survey of secondary history teachers in the UK, which explored a range of questions related to history and ICT, including the ranking of ICT applications according to their perceived usefulness to history teachers, factors deterring teachers from using ICT, and overall attitudes to the use of ICT to teach history. A copy of the survey is given as an appendix to the paper. The research complements work done by Easdown (1994) and Bardwell and Easdown (1999) on history teacher and trainee teacher attitudes to ICT.

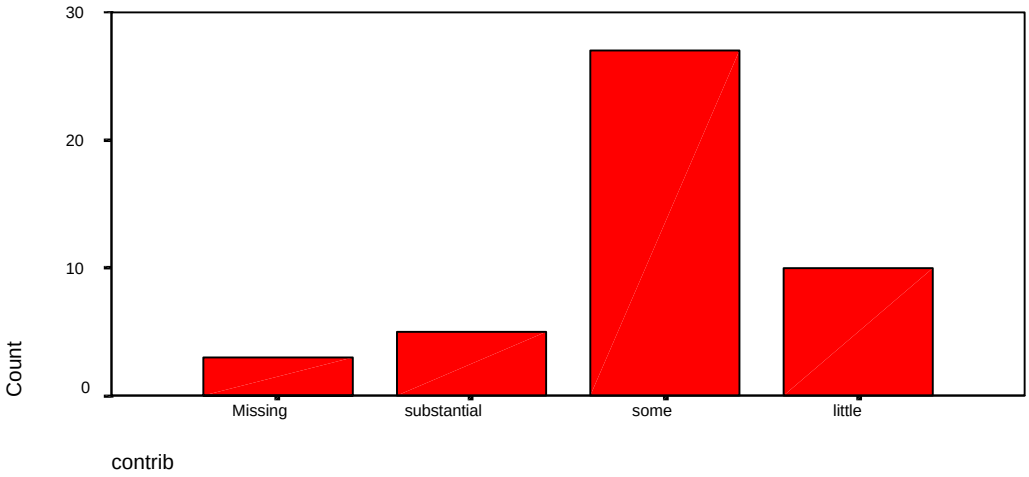
Data collection was done by telephone interview, and in most cases, the respondents had the opportunity to look at the questions posed before the telephone interview itself. In 3 instances, respondents e-mailed or posted responses. In all, 42 history teachers responded; 28 were in their first 5 years of teaching, and 14 had taught for longer than 5 years. Experience and seniority ranged from Newly Qualified Teachers, with one year of teaching experience, and heads of department with over 20 years experience. Data was analysed using a mixture of SPSS and Filemaker Pro Software. Data Collection took place between May 2000 and March 2001. This paper focuses on four particular areas addressed by the questionnaire and interviews:

- History teachers' use of ICT
- History teachers' attitudes to ICT
- History teachers' reasons for not making greater use of ICT in their teaching
- History teachers' views on investment in ICT

History teachers' use of ICT

In terms of the general contribution of ICT to history teaching, response was roughly in line with other recent surveys of history teachers' use of ICT (Bardswell and Easdown, 1999, DfEE, 2001), in that only a small minority of the sample claimed to make 'substantial' use of ICT in their history lessons, with most respondents falling between 'some', and 'little' use. The only exception to this was in terms of 'no use' of ICT. Whereas 14% of the Bardwell and Easdown survey 'admitted' to not using ICT in the history classroom, all 42 respondents claimed to have used ICT at least once. Few teachers in the survey used computers in more than 10% of their history lessons, and the biggest group fell into the 'between 1 and 5%' category. Figure 1 gives the responses to the question, 'How big a contribution does ICT make to your history teaching?'

Figure 1: Contribution to teaching



In terms of the nature of computer use, responses indicated that computers were used much more frequently for researching information on historical topics and the preparation of teaching materials than in the classroom itself. Although the use of ICT to improve and streamline assessment procedures has been prominent in recent coverage of ICT issues in the education press, very few respondents reported using ICT extensively for assessment purposes.

When asked to identify the new technology application which they found most helpful for teaching history, by some way the most popular application was television and video; the first choice of over 50% of respondents. The internet was the next most popular choice, with 6 out of 42 history teachers regarding it as the most helpful new technology application. Word processing and spreadsheets came next, there was also a residual affection for simulation packages in history, with several respondents bemoaning the failure to replace the aging 'BBC model B' history simulations with more modern equivalents.

In addition to identifying a single ICT application as being most helpful to the history teacher, interviewees were asked to rank 11 different ICT applications in order of their usefulness for teaching history. This second strand revealed an interesting difference in emphasis, with 'word processing' emerging as the application which scored most highly, mentioned by 34 respondents and totalling 360 points (Using a 1-11 point scale, with 11= most helpful application), followed by television and video (mentioned by 36 respondents, and totalling 341 points), and the internet (36 respondents, 337 points).

Almost all respondents said that they used television and video more often than computers, often massively so- 'by huge amounts', 'fifty times more- probably even

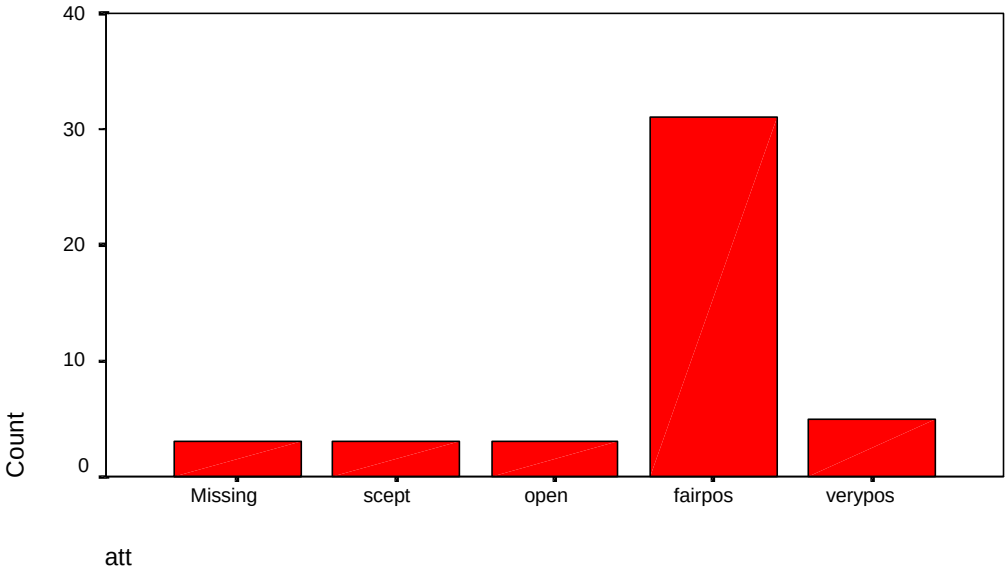
more than that', were not untypical of responses to this question. When asked why television was used more frequently than computers, the most commonly given response was convenience- ease of use, not having to book another room, or move pupils around the school. The facility to use short extracts from television programmes was also commonly mentioned as a 'flexibility' type factor; 'You can just use it for 5 minutes, to make a point vividly or powerfully.' Several interviewees made the point that the department had accumulated a considerable 'archive' of appropriate television programmes, and a similar 'stock' of computer based materials had not yet been collected. More than one respondent felt that the television provided a way of making history 'come alive', in a visceral or emotional way, in a way that computer materials did not. For some interviewees, the use of television and video was an important tool for making the past seem 'real' to pupils.

The survey suggests that in spite of the high profile of computers in education, and the belief of politicians and policy makers in the UK in the transformational potential of computers in education, it is difficult not to come to the conclusion that thus far, the use of television and video recorder may have had a far more profound impact on the teaching of history than the computer. Rather than putting pressure on teachers to use computers in their teaching, and asking them to take 'a leap of faith' in the use of ICT (DfEE, 1997, quoted in Cohen, 1999), it might be more helpful to consider exactly what it is about television and video that leads history teachers to use them more often than computers.

History teachers' attitudes to the use of ICT

Most teachers in the survey expressed 'fairly positive' views about the potential of ICT to improve teaching and learning in history (see Figure 2), although many also stated that they felt under pressure to use computers in their teaching. When asked about where the pressure came from, responses varied from 'the head' or 'school management team', to the fear that if computers were not seen to be used, it would reflect badly on the department in an Ofsted (Office for Standards in Education) Inspection, to the perception that the pupils enjoyed using them, or that they ought to use them because 'computers are becoming more and more important.'

Figure 2: Attitude to ICT



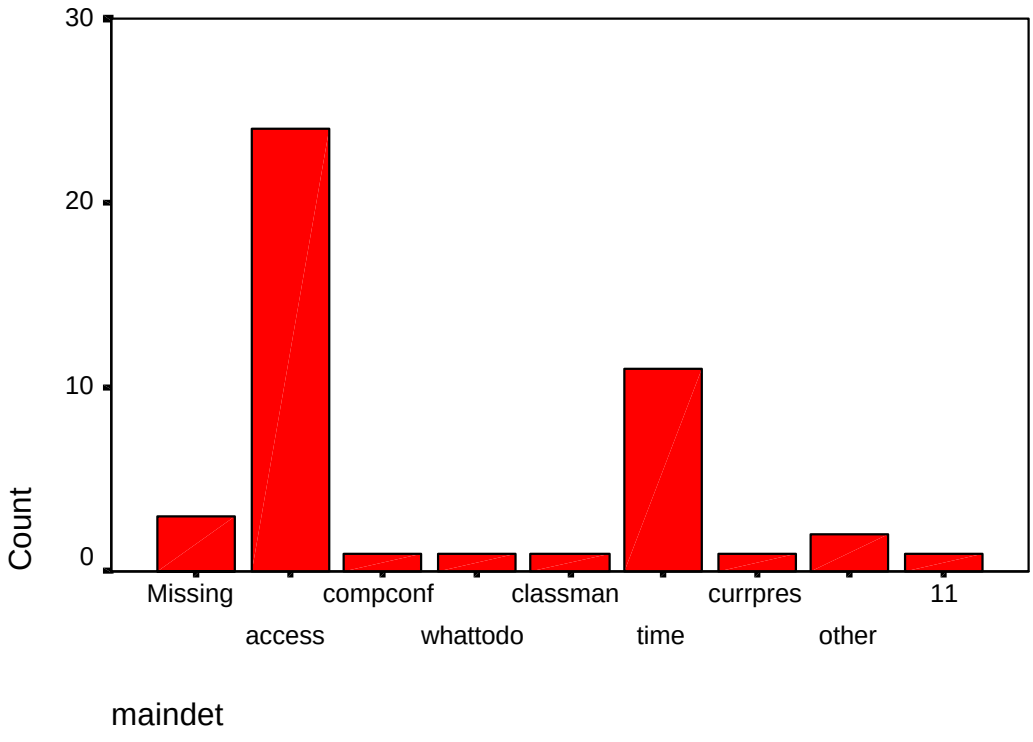
In terms of the government's financial commitment to ICT in education, the majority of respondents viewed this positively, often with caveats that it should be balanced with expenditure on books and other resources. One respondent felt that school investment in ICT had been at the expense of the school's library facilities. Very few interviewees felt that investment in ICT should be reduced.

Reasons given for not making greater use of ICT in history teaching

When asked to rank a list of factors which might deter them from making greater use of ICT in their classroom teaching (see Figure 3), 'Lack of time to plan how to integrate the use of computers into lessons' emerged as the most influential, and the most commonly mentioned barrier to ICT use. It was mentioned as a deterrent by 30 out of 42 respondents, and when 'weighted' on a scale of 1 to 9 (9= most important deterrent), scored 262 points. This was closely followed by 'difficulty in getting access to computers', mentioned by 30 interviewees, and scoring 250 points. The third most influential factor was 'pressure to cover curriculum content', mentioned by 22 teachers, and scoring 150 points. Factors which were seldom mentioned as deterrents, or which were low on the list of teachers' concerns were:

- 'lack of confidence/knowledge of how computers work,
- 'anxiety about the classroom management implications of the use of computers',
- 'ideological' resistance to the use of computers- 'you do not believe that computers have much to offer in developing pupils' historical knowledge and understanding.'

Figure 3: Most influential deterrent to using ICT



It seems possible that the moves towards networked suites of computers in schools may have increased access problems for history teachers. In spite of Abbott's

assertion that ‘UK schools are approaching optimum numbers of computers in classrooms’ (Abbott, 2000, p. 46), many of the respondents in this survey did not feel that they had easy access to networked computer rooms, few history departments possessed or had easy access to large monitors for whole class display using computers, and many history departments either had no computers in history classrooms, or only had obsolete or unreliable machines.

Although ‘access’ emerged as the most commonly cited ‘main factor’ in limiting ICT use in history, when ‘points’ totals and ‘number of respondents mentioning it as a factor’ are used, ‘teachers’ time’ emerges as a major issue, particularly as recent government plans to provide in-service training in ICT for all serving teachers requires them to undergo training in their own time.

Time also emerges as an important factor in terms of teachers’ responses to other recent initiatives to develop the use of computers in education. High hopes had been invested in the potential of the internet education gateway sites, the National Grid for Learning and Virtual Teachers’ Centre (NGfL and VTC), as ‘hubs’ for the dissemination of educational resources and information. Fig. 4 gives the responses of history teachers to the question, ‘How much use do you make of the NGfL?’ Many teachers said they had not looked at it, or were unaware of its existence. Together with lack of awareness of its existence, ‘lack of time’ to consider its use was frequently given as a reason for not making use of the NGfL (see Fig. 5)

Figure 4: Use of NGfL

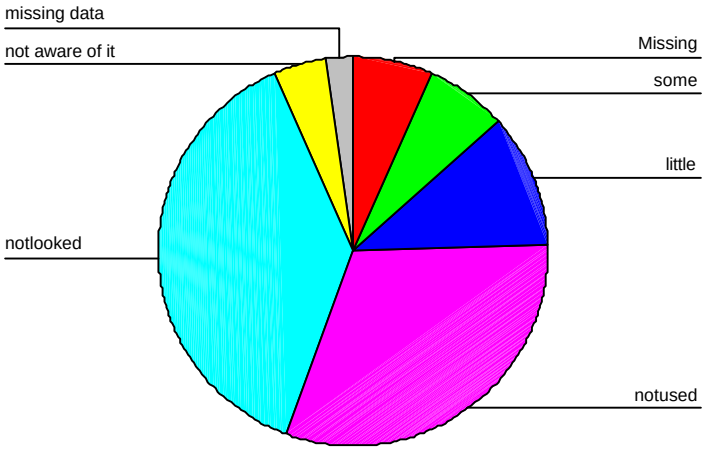
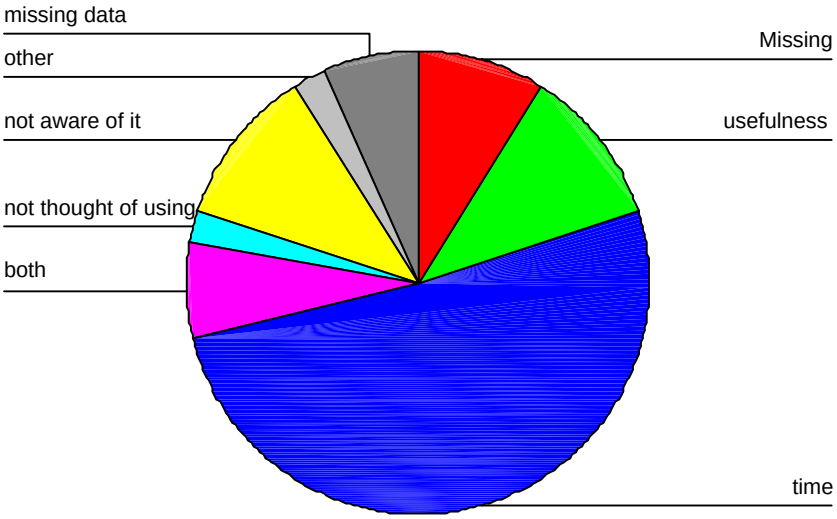


Figure 5: Reasons for use of NGfL



Similarly, the information booklet designed to help subject teachers to identify their training needs in ICT was poorly received, with respondents either being unaware of its existence, finding it unhelpful, or feeling that they did not have time to fully consider the materials (Figures 6 and 7).

Figure 6: Training needs materials

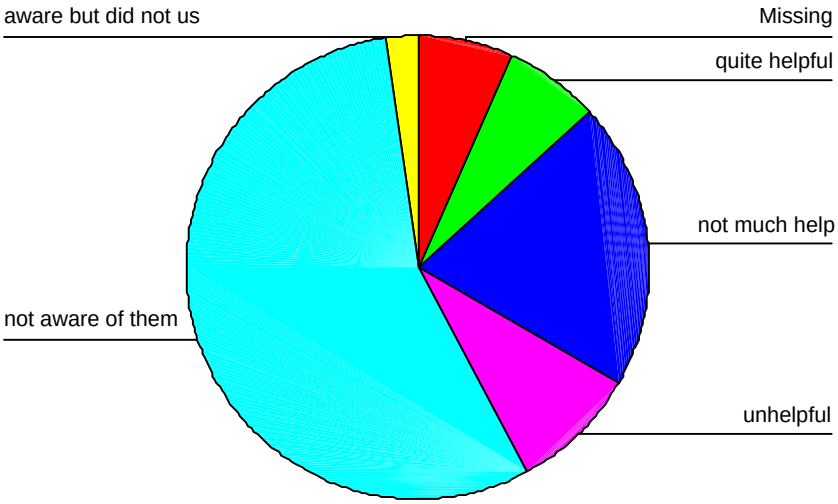
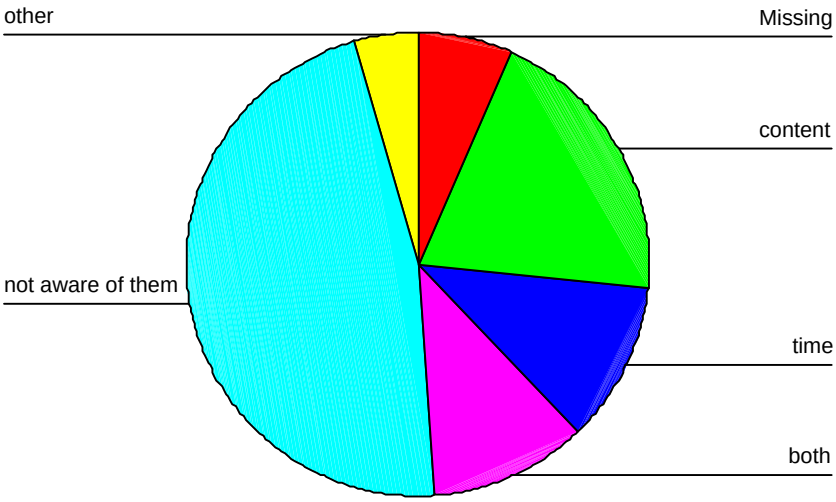


Figure 7: Training needs, reasons



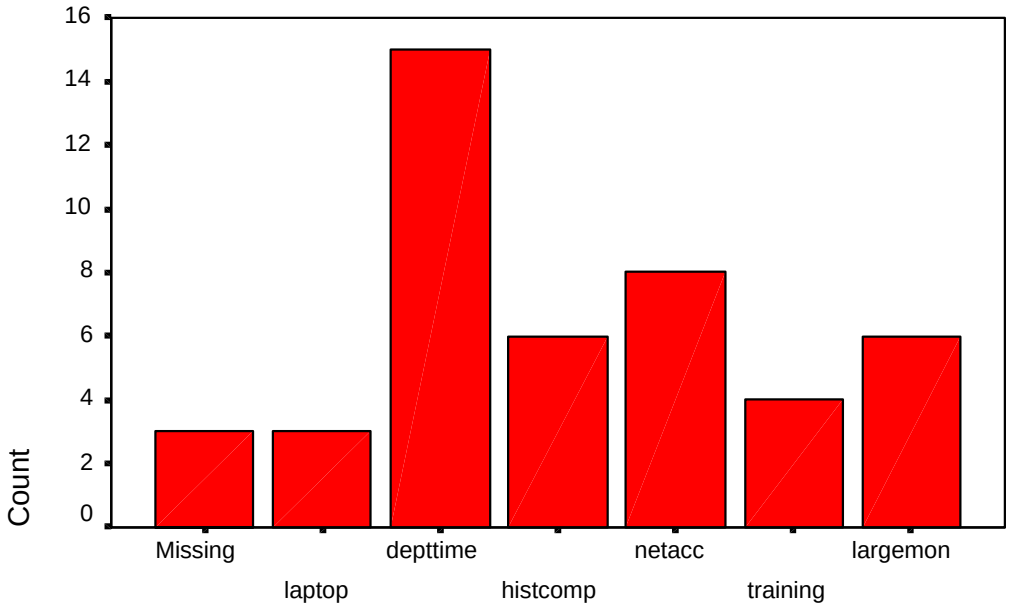
According to the responses given, lack of technical competence in ICT did not seem to be a major factor in the use of computers; all but one of the teachers in the survey felt 'generally confident', or 'to some extent confident' in their personal use of computers, with 68% 'confident', and 29.3% 'to some extent' confident. A slightly lower proportion felt fully confident in the use of ICT within the history curriculum (58.5%), but again, only one respondent did not feel confident in history and ICT.

Access, and pressures on teachers' time emerge as the major constraints on the development of ICT in history teaching. There is little evidence in this survey to suggest that 'ideological' opposition to new technology or technological inadequacy are major factors in history teachers' unwillingness to use ICT more regularly in their classroom teaching. There is some contrast here, with Easdown's earlier survey (1994), which suggested that some mentors of history trainees, and trainees themselves, questioned the utility of ICT to teach history.

History teachers' views on investment in ICT

Interviewees were asked to rank a range of strategies for developing the use of ICT in subject teaching. Again, the data analysis identified the number of 'first choices' for investment in ICT (Fig. 8), as well as the number of respondents who felt that particular forms of investment would be helpful, and the comparative 'points score' arrived at by totalling points according to ranking (6= first choice).

Figure 8: Investment in ICT



Both in terms of 'first choices', and overall points score, teachers' time again emerges as an important factor, with 'Provision of more dedicated time for departmental development of ICT' emerging as the factor which was perceived as being most potentially helpful in moving forward in history and ICT. More time for staff training, more computers in history classrooms and more large monitors for whole class display all emerged as more desirable priorities than the provision of personal laptop computers for history teachers.

Implications for future policy and investment in ICT

The survey elicited the views of 41 history teachers, and there is clearly room for both larger surveys, and consideration of the perspectives of teachers in other school subjects. Some of the factors which deter teachers from using computers may well be the same across all curriculum subjects, but it is possible that there are also aspects of ICT in schools which vary from subject to subject, and exploring the subject discipline dimensions of ICT and learning may provide insights which will help to reduce the 'rhetoric-reality gap' between the claims which are made for ICT in education, and what is current practice.

The survey suggests that some of the government strategies for 'delivering' ICT- and implementing education policy in general may be limited in their effectiveness. The faith in the 'Communications' strand in ICT- the ability to disseminate information 'down the wires'- does not automatically mean that the message gets through. There is evidence to suggest that the use of the various electronic sites, (for example, the National Grid for Learning, The Virtual Teachers' Centre, The Standards Site, The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority Site) is creating an information overload which means that teachers do not have time to digest all the information being transmitted, and do not have the time for professional dialogue with colleagues, and reflection on personal practice, which may be more effective ways of making

progress in the integration of ICT into day to day teaching. In the words of Noss and Pachler (1999, p.199)

> The vision of connectivity is one of delivery… There is no mention of the computer as a potential source of empowerment either for the student or for the teacher… It might be better to have as the short term goal the serious engagement of teachers with the substantive ways in which the computer might afford students the exploration of deep and hitherto inaccessible conceptual knowledge.

In spite of Abbott's assertion that the UK is nearing the optimum number of computers in schools (Abbott, 2000, p. 46), the evidence from this small survey suggests that access is still a problem for many history teachers, and that simply increasing the number of networked computer suites in schools will not resolve all access problems. History teachers' comments on the use of television and video in their classroom teaching suggest that there is scope to develop more flexible use of ICT. Lessons, typically, consist of several components, rather than one long activity, and the facility to use whole class projection in history classrooms, together with some computers for 'hands-on' use, would offer the possibility of using ICT for 'bits and pieces' of lessons, in the same way that they use video extracts.

Large display monitors are not 'cutting edge' technology, and have not elicited the interest and enthusiasm of politicians and policy makers, and yet one of the main reasons why the video recorder has had a far greater impact on history teaching in the UK than computers (Sharp, 1995) is the obvious advantage that in terms of the logistics of the classroom, a single large television screen can be used very conveniently with a large class of pupils. The provision of large monitors in classrooms would do more than anything to make it easy to incorporate the use of computers into day to day teaching, for pupil or teacher demonstration, and interactive whole class teaching.

There is little to suggest that 'Luddite' tendencies, or technological inadequacy are major factors in the limited use of ICT. Together with flexible access to the use of ICT, 'teachers' time' emerges as the most precious resource in education, and the granting of time for teachers to work together to explore the potential of ICT may be more helpful than maintaining the flow of information from the centre which is creating 'information overload' on teachers. In the 1970s, many local education authorities granted one year secondments to substantial numbers of teachers to develop their professional skills on taught Masters Degree courses. Financial retrenchment reduced, and virtually eliminated this form of professional development. There is perhaps a case for giving teachers substantial amounts of time to explore how to integrate ICT into their pedagogy.

There is little to suggest that increasing the flow of information from 'the centre' is an effective way of effecting change in ICT and education. It is not a question of filling up teachers' 'hard disk space' with information about ICT, it is at least in part about providing the time and access which will enable them to develop more powerful information processors in relation to learning and new technology.

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Biographical notes

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Appendix
History teachers' use of ICT in their teaching

Use of ICT as a history teacher

1. How big a contribution does ICT make to your history teaching ?

Substantial Some Little None

2. In what *ways* do you use ICT in your teaching:

Preparation?

Teaching/classroom activities?

Assessment?

3a) How much use do you make of the NGfL/VTC?

Substantial/some/little/have looked at it but not made use of it/not looked at it

3b) Is your use of NGfL/VTC influenced by your views on a) its usefulness or b) lack of time to consider how you might use it? a b

4. In roughly what percentage of your lessons do you use computers?

(Please give the answer as a percentage)

5. Do you feel generally confident in your *personal* use of ICT

Yes No To some extent

6. Do you feel confident in the use of ICT within the history curriculum?

Yes No To some extent

7. Do you have access to a personal computer at home? **Yes No**

8. Do you have internet access at home? Yes No

9a) How helpful did you find the "Identification of Training Needs for the use of ICT in subject teaching" materials?

Very helpful Quite helpful Not much help Unhelpful Not aware of them

9b) Are your views on the usefulness of these materials influenced primarily by their content, or lack of time to fully consider them? Content Time

10. Do you feel under pressure to use/develop use of ICT or is reason for use/development stem from your own interest/ belief/ enthusiasm for ICT in history teaching? pressure interest/belief/enthusiasm

(If pressure, from whom?)

11. It would be helpful to know what are the factors which might have influenced or limited your use of ICT, and which were most influential

A) Can you put a tick against any of the factors listed below which had the effect of limiting your use of computers in your teaching, and prioritise them in order of their influence. (1= most important, 2= next most important, etc)

Difficulties in getting access to computers

Lack of confidence/knowledge of how computers work

Lack of confidence/knowledge of what to *do* with computers in history lessons

Anxiety about classroom management implications of use of computers

Lack of time to plan how to integrate use of computers into your lessons

Pressure to cover curriculum content

You do not believe that computers have much to offer in developing pupils' historical knowledge, skills and understanding

The attitude/approach of teachers in the history department you work in

Concern that the computers might crash/not work

Any other factors?

B) What is access to computers like in your department/school?
How many computers in the history department/classrooms?
How easy to get access to networked rooms? Difficult Easy Reasonable
Access for pupil use of the Internet?
Access to Internet for you as a history teacher?
Access to large monitors for whole class display?

C) Do you use the TV and video more than the computer in your history teaching?

Yes No

By a ratio of roughly……?

If so, why do you think you use TV and video more than computer?

12. Attitude to ICT

Which of the following statements most closely accords with your attitude to the use of ICT in history teaching:

(Please tick the statement which most closely describes your feelings)

a) Negative- I don't think that computers have much to offer teaching and learning in history

b) Sceptical- computers might be of some use in history teaching and learning, but their importance has been overstated

c) Open-minded- computers seem to have a much to offer but it remains to be seen whether they will bring major benefits to history teachers and learners

d) Fairly positive- computers have considerable potential for enhancing teaching and learning in history, but they have to compete alongside several other important priorities in terms of my professional development

e) Very positive- computers have enormous potential for enhancing teaching and learning in history. I see ICT as one of the most important priorities in terms of improving teaching and learning in history.

f) None of the above

13. In what order would you place the following factors in terms of helping to develop the use of ICT to improve teaching and learning in history:

Provision of laptop computers for history teachers

Provision of more dedicated time for departmental development of ICT

Provision of more computers in history classrooms

Better access to networked computer rooms

More staff training in ICT

Provision of large monitors for whole class computer display in history classrooms

Other suggestions?

14. Are there better ways of improving teaching and learning in history than investing in ICT, (spending the money on more books for instance?)

15. A ranking of the utility of ICT applications for educational purposes

Think about the utility of the following applications. Place them in the order in which you feel that they have the potential for enhancing the quality of teaching and learning in history. (11 for the most important, 10 for the next most important etc.)

Art software	
Multimedia authoring/presentation software	
Simulations	
Spreadsheets	
CD-roms	
Databases/datahandling packages	
Internet	
Desktop publishing	
Word processing	
TV/Video	
Voice recognition software	

Any other applications?

16. Can you think of any occasions where you or your department use ICT in a way that you feel improves the quality of teaching and learning of history?

Thank you very much for your help**.**

Creating a Community School Museum: Theory into Practice

Sonia Kerrigan

Abstract: *This case study investigates the educational purposes and benefits of creating a school museum for primary schoolchildren. It identifies how such a museum might help in the wider education of pupils, the teaching of the English statutory national curriculum for history and other subjects. The paper analyses the process by which a middle school set up it's own school museum designed to operate authentically as a real community museum involving not just the children attending the school but also the local community. The project passed through four phases: initiation, planning, establishment and running. In the context of bringing about change certain factors were crucial: the support of the head teacher and senor management, a specific set of needs that such a museum might meet, staff, pupil and community support, expert external support and guidance and the physical resources to implement the vision. To create an authentic museum guidance was sought from local museums, the Education Officers working within them and others involved museum management.*

Keywords: Community Education, History teaching, Humanities, Museum education, Museums, School-based curriculum development,

Why are museums important for school children?

The English History National Curriculum, a statutory requirement, documents the types and range of cognitive performance that pupils should progressively and characteristically demonstrate throughout their compulsory schooling. It groups skills and cognitive qualities under five key elements. Key element 4 of these is concerned with' Historical Enquiry ' In relation to the primary school stage, it states that 7-11 year old pupils should learn, ' How to find out about aspects of the periods studied from a range of sources of information including documents and printed sources, artefacts, pictures and photographs, music and buildings and sites '. (History National Curriculum 1995, 2001) Accordingly, all children should actively use artefacts and documentary evidence, and axiomatically their teachers need to be able to collect, collate and use such sources with confidence in their teaching.

A museum, in being a repository of the collective memory and cultural identity of a society in a concrete, tangible artefactual form, through its association with objects from the past is an important resource for teachers to draw upon. The teacher's role is then to inform and educate the pupil studying the artefacts held in the museums, with the proviso that the stay in situ. Echoing R.G. Collingwood, historical artefacts give you an entree to the minds and behaviours of the people who produced and used them. Artefacts in a museum bring the past to life in the minds of the children visiting and interacting with them. Hazel Moffat, in her role as a government history inspector, states in the Introduction to School Museums and primary history 'Artefacts, whether a utensil, an article of clothing, or a piece of furniture for example, can illustrate social and economic change within and between periods of history. With other sources, they can assist pupils' investigations into the remote and distant past. Above all they can capture pupils' interest and help to motivate them in asking and then finding out the answers to their questions' (Moffat, 1994)

Using artefacts and documents is in line with modern investigative, enquiry and problem-solving approaches teaching that actively engages children's minds. In

English Heritage's widely used 'A teacher's guide to learning from objects' the author, Gail Durbin argues:

> Teaching methods traditionally have concentrated on book and word based exercises, which ask children to read or write in response. They do not often seem to require children to learn from things. If you can understand objects you can also explore the lives of people who provide no permanent written information about themselves (the urban poor, babies, prehistoric people, rural nomads) and of people whose language you do not read or speak. Objects have a remarkable capacity to motivate. They develop the need to know, which will first spark children's interest, then their curiosity or creativity and then stimulate their research. Handling objects is a form of active learning that engages children in a way that other methods fail to do (Durbin 1990)

Barwell outlines the importance of evidence and how museums have a role in this aspect of history education in terms of both developing an understanding of the evidential basis of historical knowledge and the development of the related enquiry and process skills. (Barwell 1990) Artefactual evidence, which has survived enables direct contact with the people from the past who designed, made and used them:

> Children presented with an object, document or photograph will enjoy playing detective and if teachers can resist the temptation to interfere too emphatically or too often they will often surprise with their observational skills and their ability to make informed guesses (Barwell 1990)

As the Schools Council (1972) argued the physical, tactile interaction between child, teacher and artefact is essential, particularly where the objects were made to be handled. However, teachers need guidance in showing children how to use this kind of artefactual evidence, it is a major element in the history teacher's craft. Teaching knowledge, i.e. the professional craft knowledge of the teacher provides the basis for teaching. Teacher's professional development involves enrichment and enhancement as needed in areas like museum education. An area of teaching craft knowledge that is relatively underdeveloped or simply absent, is the use of artefacts in developing pupil subject knowledge, historical understanding, problem-solving and social skills.

Using artefacts has a major benefit in terms of differentiation at both ends of the ability range. Less able children or those with specific learning difficulties can engage with objects:

> Everyone can use objects. Children who for whatever reason do not read, write or speak English easily, or those with learning difficulties will often relate well to objects. Whereas the range of reading and writing ability within a class can divide it across a very wide spectrum, the range of ability in dealing with objects will divide them much less. (Barwell 1990)

John West's research (1981) showed how children with learning difficulties improved significantly in their general abilities after following a programme of structured discussion about historical pictures and artefacts. ' Active learning approaches using artefacts improve children's learning because they personally engage the pupils in the record of the past and help them learn about people.'

To teach effectively with artefacts initially it may be helpful to provide children with a structure to help them analyse an object. Such pedagogic supports and scaffolds are an essential dimension of a school museum. Artefacts can be immute, complex,

mysterious, difficult and impenetrable objects to children. The messages that they give need mediating for the pupils and the knowledge broker is the teacher. Essential is the provision of a structure that ties into the pupil's mind at their existing level of understanding, which then extends their knowledge through providing the necessary support. Eventually they will be able to frame their own questions and set about answering them. Such a structure may follow the one outlined in English Heritage's 'Learning from objects' (see fig. 1). Adams and Miller (1982) have also put together a useful questioning structure for pupils to use when looking at objects.

Figure 1

Questions to ask about an object

First Stage: About a single object

1. What is it? It is real?
2. What is it made of '?

How is it decorated?
3. What was its function'?

How did it work?
4. What is it worth?

Intrinsic value, historical value, contemporary value?

5. How old is it? Does it look old?
6. Where was it made?
7. Where was it found?

Second Stage: Putting objects into a Historical Context.

7. What do the objects indicate about the person, society?
of the time or aspect of that society e.g. technology,
warfare, trading, domestic life?
8. What gaps are there in the material evidence?
presented? Why might this be?

9. Is any bias shown in the collection of objects displayed?
10. How does the evidence correlate now with contemporary documentary and pictorial sources? (Adams and Miller 1982)

Schools can obtain regular access to quantities of artefacts and documents through the medium of creating their own museum, with hopefully a member of staff trained as the museum curator. S/he could assist children's' learning and advise other teachers on how to use artefacts and documents effectively. This combines the authenticity of the genuine article with the support of an on-site expert. (Schools Council 1972) Also, the school museum can provide a genuine context for locally produced and related objects. It is useful to cognitive development to set artefacts in their physical context, with their meaning being derived from contextualisation. 'Through involvement in all the facilities offered by museums pupils can be brought to see history, not as a separate subject but as the very warp and weft of life '(Barrand 1969)

Using museums to teach history especially aspects of Key Element 4 in the 1995 and 2001 History National Curriculum, and to assist with problem solving, investigative and enquiry methods of teaching and learning, is desirable and will enable teachers to cater for different ability levels amongst their pupils. But schools may have problems of accessibility to museums or to the expertise of the museum staff. The elements crucial for successful museum education involve teachers with professional pedagogic knowledge about using artefacts to enrich teaching learning and access to artefacts as and when appropriate in the everyday curriculum. Hence the need to develop school museums like the one we introduced at West Exe.

The initiation of a school community museum

Ten factors combined to provide the impetus needed to implement the Community Museum Scheme. All were essential: some were of greater importance than others. Figure 2 incorporates many of these elements in a flow diagram for those considering establishing their own school museum.

1 There was a tradition and pattern of drawing upon local historical resources in our school to counteract the problem of limited pupil accessibility to artefacts. This reflected a national pattern, where many teachers already have a classroom collection of objects or even a classroom museum. In some schools, as with us, the idea expands into a school museum. This may be a deliberate decision or it may also happen when items have been collected to resource areas of the history curriculum. This is how Peter Brice began his school museum (Brice 1971). I had a similar experience. In the summer term of 1995 our Year 5 project was *The Local Area*, including the history of the school. We were well resourced with local maps, photographs, artefacts and documents. Many of these were brought in by the pupils. The project, as I wrote in my Log Book (in which I kept a record in diary form of the history of the school museum), 'proved very rewarding and created a lot of interest amongst the pupils and their parents. This was very clear when parent interviews were held on the 23rd and 24th of May '. Many of the parents had lived in the area all their lives and had attended the school as pupils themselves!

2 The support of the head When I was appointed as Deputy Head teacher I was asked to take on curriculum coordination for History. Being an 8 -12 years Middle school this would involve aspects of both Key Stage 2 and 3. In subsequent talks the Head teacher several times mentioned his idea of a West Exe Room II, which, in his mind, would be a kind of local studies library / museum, specifically related to the area. Museum education encompasses all Key stages, although for the purposes of this, paper I am primarily concerned with the primary field in Key stage 2. The seed of the idea was sown then but even more crucial was that I had the full support and encouragement of the Head teacher. Without this it is unlikely that any plans for a museum room would have got off the drawing board. Similarly, the crucial backing of the Head teacher had been apparent in the setting up of a school museum at Ludlow Middle School. Here the head had a strong interest in history and a belief that children learn history best by handling objects from the past. These could engage pupils in thoroughly researched role play within a realistic 'context consisting of authentic decoration, furniture and artefacts .' (Woodcock and Hampton Ludlow Middle Schools Victorian Classroom Museum 1994) It was also necessary for the Head to convince the staff that such an initiative and the expenditure involved would be a worthwhile investment of energy and money. Once established the head's continuing support was essential for timetabling purposes and for giving the public access to the museum that mostly consisted of items of local interest.

The establishment of the school museum reflected more general findings on the important role of the head in supporting and sustaining innovation (Taylor, 1978; Vandenberghe, 1984).

3 Cultural - our school was constantly striving to further involve the parents and local community. This was an aim the head and I shared, as his new Deputy Head. A community museum was one means to achieve this. This was also a factor in the mind of the Ludlow head teacher when establishing his museum, Previous projects of a similar nature had proved to him the immense worth such a venture had in establishing a positive, happy relationships with parents, elderly neighbours and the community at large. Children engaged in such an exercise talked avidly to adults about their memories and they soon became. The museum's successful development involved a newspaper article asking for locals to contact us about the history of the locality, drawing upon their memories and memorabilia. The response provided a secure foundation for launching the museum's development.

4 Other organisational and institutional factors, grounded in shared values and beliefs, also influenced our decision to establish the museum: 'The degree to which a school is innovative is to a large extent a function of it's own organisational character' (Hoyle 1975). 'It is important for the various components of the social structure of the school to be in phase for innovation to work. That is there should not be a great discrepancy, between values, internal organisation, authority patterns , curriculum and modes of teaching' (Hoyle 1975) Here my role as deputy head at the hub of school life played a key part. As a new Deputy Head I had more than enough to occupy me in the first few years. By then, with some credibility and professional respect gained with the, body of staff, the museum venture came to the forefront. I did not initially realise that my professional position in the school gave me a distinct advantage when informing people about the project. Being Deputy Head made it easier to get the ear of staff, parents, governors (especially as I was a Teacher Governor representative and therefore known to them), P.T.A. (again I was a committee member and therefore well known to them). The P.T.A played a crucial role in providing the funds to make the project viable. In speaking to outside agencies and community members, being Deputy seemed to carry weight and influence, at least this was my perception eventually. The school governors also were involved in the museum's establishment, they were both interested and supportive.

5 Dedicated professional expertise The establishment of the museum meant that I had to gain the knowledge and expertise to establish and run the museum. This was a long-term yet steep learning curve. Four elements were involved: assimilation of the available professional and academic literature on the subject; visiting local classroom and school museum to seek advice; consultation with all the local museums and their education officers and finally, and most importantly, a week long museum work experience placement in the local museum. In ensuring maximum benefit from these four avenues I kept a detailed museum diary in which I recorded positive factors/elements that I felt would contribute towards the successful establishment of our community museum. Detailed expertise developed as the project unfolded, for example, conservation policy. Conservation involved preservation and prevention of decay. The main dangers to a school museum's collection are light, water, dust because of its lethal cocktail of pollutants, pests and insects who are attracted to organic materials such as paper, starch, leather or animal glues.

6 Staff support and cohesion The school museum was established against a background of staff cohesion that had shared goals. A considerable turn over of less

supportive staff, since the arrival of the Head, two years before me, and the strengthening of year teams and curriculum groups across the school was encouraging. Staff were receptive to innovations, but with the National Curriculum , subsequent revisions, the advent of Local Management of Schools etc. there was a danger, as, Hoyle pointed out, of 'innovation fatigue' ,innovation is often short-lived'. The staff needed to be involved from the start. I had already recognised the cross-curricular value the room would have for them. I needed to involve subject coordinators so that they would want to use the room, for exhibitions with Science, Art , Geography and other themes .

If an innovation is to have any hope of being anything more than a passing novelty , then the teachers concerned must be involved from the start. And their involvement must be genuine, not just a matter of being told what to do and why but a proper participation in the planning and decisions' (Nisbet, 1973) I would need to include in the school development plan ideas for involving staff and also for offering in-service opportunities. For the financial year beginning April 1995, the Management team and Governors had made a conscious policy decision that the majority of in-service funding would be spent 'in -house, for the benefit of the whole staff, picking up on areas we had identified as a 'whole school' need. From April 1996 , my job description included management of the in-service budget. For innovation to work Hoyle had outlined a four-point plan:

(i) 'that a greater proportion of in -service education for teachers (INSET) should be, linked with specific school innovations;
(ii) that more INSET should focus on functioning groups e.g. a departmental team. the Heads of department or the whole staff,
(iii) that INSET should ideally begin in the school and that schools should establish their own development programmes
(iv) that schools should receive support, including consultancy , for their staff development programmes from their local professional centres.' (Hoyle 1975).

7 Individual staff involvement and commitment However ,as Fullan (1982) points out the special relationship between the individual teacher and the innovation should not be overlooked. In the year we established the museum the feeling in my team of four teachers was that we had space to develop new topic themes for Year 5 in the Summer term, which we would then shape into the new orders for next year's planning. The school had just internally appointed a new Geography coordinator, who also happened to be a member of the year 5 team.

8 Curriculum Continuity and Development The community museum mapped on to the staff's perceptions of how the overall humanities curriculum in the school could be developed and improved. The possibility of covering huge chunks of the English National curriculum with the whole cross -curricular potential of such a museum room was a very obvious advantage to me as the person largely responsible with the head of overseeing the whole school curriculum as well as my colleagues. The team decided to do a local study unit for the summer term which would develop both history and geography skills. One aspect of the history study would be to look at the history of our own school and widen it into the local vicinity. With development of knowledge about running a museum, it became clear that the museum could contribute to other areas of the curriculum, such as Science. There was a major scientific element in museum conservation work. This factor also reinforced the head's commitment to the project. The head, had in his study various artefacts to do with the school and its history.

9 Resources financial, physical, 'skills' At the outset we needed a room, the financial resources to make our vision viable, and the availability within the area of the expertise to turn vision into reality. All of these were forthcoming. However, do not underestimate the cost involved – it was only through the enthusiastic backing of the P.T.A. that we were able to raise the large sum of money needed to refurbish and equip the museum room. A key element was keeping the P.T.A, governors and staff involved fully informed of the financial implications of the project, and how the budget was developing.

10 Pupil involvement and enthusiasm From the start we mobilised the backing and support of the pupils, involving eighteen of them drawn equally from the 9-12 year age range them in introductory investigation of possible sources for the room. The group of eighteen pupils with my support provided the nucleus for the museum's establishment. The group visited the local newspaper archive to search for photographs and articles. This visit was both successful in terms of what we discovered and in generating pupil enthusiasm, commitment and involvement. At the same time we had also had published in the newspaper an article which asked locals to participate. Three locals came forwarded with the result was that the group of eighteen interviewed, tape recorded and photographed them using structured interviews. The group also drew up plans for the room we had been allocated to transform it into a community museum. Already the structure for establishing and maintaining the museum was in place. The pupils served as the nucleus of a group of particularly interested children and adults whose commitment to the museum was a significant factor in its creation. De facto this group had operated as a 'pilot' for the museum.

Wider pupil involvement followed once we had decided to go ahead with the community museum. In order to capture the children's interest and imagination I gave a series of whole school assemblies, using the Log Books, describing incidents like a school fire which destroyed the old original school building, local extensive floods in the 1960s and the effects on the school, stories of corporal punishment and of one irate parent who became so upset when a head teacher banned football, in preference for rugby, that the parent marched into school and punched the unfortunate head teacher. The school at present has an excellent orchestra and annually hosts a large-scale drama / musical production. The children were interested to discover that this was an old tradition, going back to the Boy's Secondary school, when Gilbert and Sullivan operettas were performed so convincingly that at the final performance the boys, taking girl's parts, had to remove their wigs to prove they were in fact boys! A response of this was that a parent, an 'old boy' himself, donated some of his old school uniform and school report

Planning the community museum

Having decided to start a museum, we needed to be systematic in relation to its planning. As a result of my own preparation, including the invaluable week's secondment, I devised an action plan that covered:

- writing to Exeter city council for a grant, to ensure the room presently being modified would be developed to make it suitable for holding collections with low-lighting, steady temperature, blinds on the windows, dehumidifier, sticky- trap and linings for cases.
- preparing Accession and documentation systems, including decisions on House style.

- writing a Constitution and numerous policies on Collecting, Conservation, Storage, Display, Security , Handling Artefacts, Classification and Indexing, Role of Curator and Conservator, Assistants and Volunteers, Disposal, all of which would form a Handbook of Guidance.
- Discussing with the I. T. Coordinator about a suitable data -base and other Coordinators for their ideas of contributing to the room.
- contacting Paul Wilson of the W.R.E.N. trust about recording personal memories,
- visiting other little museums such as Kingsbridge , Topsham , Dawlish and contact Curators

As part of the action plan I drew up a list of questions that served as guidelines:

1. Whom did I want the 'West Exe Room' to cater for?
2. What would constitute the community museum's geographical area?
3. What would I accept in the way of donations, e.g. repeats, only what would fit through the door!, within certain time bands etc. Etc?
4. How would I handle unstable materials and protect and conserve?
5. What are the functions of the room, i.e. to educate? To cover the National curriculum? To have fun??
6. Who will do all the work and sustain impetus once the museum was up and running?
7. How will I protect against it taking over my life, or that of a colleague or colleagues?
8. How will I store, handle and display items?
9. How can I be proactive in collecting?
10. What collection policy did I need to draw up for accessions, recording, monitoring, handling artefacts, collecting, disposal, security,
11. How would I deal with change over time, i.e. showing different items, the relationship of exhibits to a changing school population

It was vital that we had the confidence that we could find the materials for the proposed museum. The professional and academic literature on class and school museums were reassuring and a valuable source of ideas. Accounts of these museums and our 'pilot' convinced us that there was a wealth or resources available via the offices of the pupils, their families, acquaintances and interested members of the local community. Asking children, parents, governors and friends of the school would widen the circle of potential donors. The involvement of the Parent Teachers Association was a natural way of drawing upon the community for exhibits. We noted that the process of natural change within our community would generate historical materials, e.g. from families moving, shops closing down, bereavement , searching lofts, attics, rooms and outhouses that contained things no longer needed. Personal and family documents would be readily forthcoming and, even if only on short term loan, we realised that they could be successfully copied.

Our museum followed the advice of John West in realising that there were six main categories of sources available to us: personal, business, official, newspapers, ephemera and the oral record. Personal documentation included birth, death, wedding certificates, family photograph albums, call up papers for the armed forces, letters and newspaper cuttings – all of which make excellent starting points for local history studies and relating local history to national history. Business archives yield information on entertainment, costume, diet and domestic life, farming, building and transport. Trade directories are particularly valuable in illuminating local life down the ages. Official documents include the school log books, school reports, minutes of the education committee and even OFSTED inspection reports! Newspapers supply a

wealth of information. Ephemera can be illuminating, ranging from graffiti that covers the Romano British era to the modern day. In particular, old postcards are the archetypal ephemeral document, recording often uniquely visual evidence. To establish the museum collection on a systematic, organised basis we followed the advice of the local museum's staff and catalogued exhibits using these headings:

A Arts
B Buildings
C Communicatons
H History
I Industry
N Natural Environment
P Public Services
R Religion
S Sport

We needed to systematise the collection of our sources, placing on a firm and consistent footing the relationship between donors and the school. So, I had to develop both a Collections and a Disposal Policy, the latter to deal with unwanted exhibits and in case the museum should close. In establishing the museum the 'Collections Policy' laid down clear guidelines for parents/carers, children and donors for the management of the collection. Both the Collections and Disposal policies followed general museum policy our local museums had implemented and Wilkinson's advice (1994). But her recommendations only became of value once I was actually in a museum setting during my work experience placement.

Collections Policy

1. 'The West Exe Room' will accept donations and deliberately attempt to procure for the collection items only from, or relevant to the geographical area of West Exe, as outlined in the map shown
2. Donations and loans, which are relevant, will be accepted at the discretion of the Curator.
3. Items donated must be entered into the Accessions Register, classified and entered into the card index within one month of receipt.
4. A thank you letter will always be sent to acknowledge donations and loans. This will act as a form of receipt. A copy will be kept in the 'Donations and loans file'
5. When items are loaned a 'Loan form' should always be completed .
A copy should be kept on file and a copy given to the person. Or organisation making the loan. A definite date for return should be stated and adhered to. If the period is to be extended this should be noted in writing and agreed by both parties.
6. If copies are to be made of items loaned, which will then be kept in the room, permission must be sought from the owner/ organisation.
7. Some items will have multiple copies made to form 'handling collections'.
8. Initially it will be policy to de1iberately collect items relevant to 'Social history'. However offers of donations relevant to archaeology / natural history/fine art will also be welcomed.
9 Realistically only items which will fit inside 'The West Exe Room' , or its immediate vicinity , provided this does not present a hazard,-will be accepted.
10. Repeats of items are acceptable at the discretion of the Curator.
11. Items from the Roman, Tudor, Victorian and 1930s periods are particularly desirable.

12. A record should be made of the condition and detail of an artefact on arrival. This will be on a 'Conservation form'.
13. Professional advice can be sought from the curators at the Royal Albert Museum.

Disposal Policy

1. If an item is in such a bad state that it cannot be realistically repaired, it should then be disposed of safely. Specialist advice should be sought if in doubt. This must be entered in the Accessions Register and the item crossed off.
2. If an item is sound but unwanted, a suitable 'home' should be found in another collection.
3. Some items when donated will only have a limited life span , especially if they are meant to be handled. This fact should be pointed out to the donor before final permission is granted to Accession.

We devised a Loan Form for the logging of all items, figure 00. This was part of a systematic keeping of museum records to log, record, monitor and track items. An element here was to record as much information as we could about the object and its context. De-contextualised objects can be of limited educational value. Once items had been donated, we needed to process them and discover as much as we could about them and their context.

The day-to-day running of the museum also needed placing on a clear footing. Staffing and their roles had to be established, also clear rules for pupil interaction with exhibits. Protection of these was vital from the traces of acid in human sweat and traces of dirt on human hands. So, I purchased a bulk lot of cotton gloves for the pupils to wear whenever they were engaged in handling activities. I explained this was why snooker referees wore white gloves when handling snooker balls. To prevent serious damages like breakages I had to develop strategies for handling artefacts. Appendix 1 on our website, www.ex.ac.uk/historyresource contains both the regulations for the day-to-day staffing/running of the museum and conservation.

The final element in the museum was to make sure that the room itself was planned so at to serve as a museum that would both give its exhibits maximum protection and optimise its educational benefit. The room was equipped with as many of the facilities of a modern museum as possible. For its educational use we adopted consistent layout for displays, with brief text [in depth available if required], using keys rather than lengthy explanations beside the items on display. Since the manner of display directly impacts upon the interpretation of the collection there is a direct relationship between the display and the educational function of a museum room and schools wishing to develop such a school museum should therefore give the display aspects special consideration.

I. Items -will be selected for display to form exhibitions with particular themes.
2. Exhibitions will be changed regularly with a minimum of one per term.
3. Exhibitions will often have an historical theme. However exhibitions will be regularly invited with a natural history / science / art geography theme. The subject coordinators will be encouraged to participate in collecting and displaying items for such themes.
4. As far as possible artefacts / documents will be protected in glass display cases, clip frames, polyester envelopes etc. which are transparent but offer a degree of protection.
5. 'Taster displays' will be used around the school building and also off- site e.g. in St, Thomas Library, Royal Albert Museum etc.
6. Links with Royal Albert Museum should be utilised so that we can take advantage of loans from their collection and also seek specialist advice.

7. Items on display should always be accompanied with information printed using the House style. This should be one font with different type styles. Text should be at least 18 point for clear visibility.
8. Text accompanying displays should be brief with more in depth material available if required
9. Number keys should be used in display cases to cut down text.
10. Playback videos on a loop, computer games and audio tapes are useful accompaniments to some displays.
11. Displays may sometimes reflect anniversaries.
12. Lectures and workshops may be held in conjunction with exhibitions.
13. Private showings, with a guest list, may precede exhibitions .

Establishing the museum

Now that our 'West Exe Room' was a serious proposition I wanted to involve as many pupil, parents and members of the community as possible. The media for this was the school newsletter, a parent's notice board situated in the playground and two articles in the local Exeter newspaper. These articles produced some legal documents about the school's foundation, an ex pupil willing to be interviewed and a wonderful collection of local photographs. This included the only surviving photograph of the original school – no picture of it had survived in the local records office or in the newspaper archive! News also spread by word of mouth, a Mr Bright contacted us. As he had worked in the local branch library he was a mine of information, suggesting numerous leads we might follow up for more information. Museum exhibits began to arrive in a steady flow. evidence of the first school on the site which had opened in 1902 . Artefacts included a very large framed photograph of the school's founder and the silver trowel and wooden gavel used by the founder at the' laying of the foundation stone service' .There was the original booklet of the school for it's official opening, which had numerous photographs of the building when it was brand new. We also had a selection of the school Log Books and Admission Registers.

The collecting of exhibits coincided with the setting up of the room; its refurbishing, equipping and organisation; and the writing of the documentation to make the running of the museum viable. The process lasted six months, during which we also established the West Exe Club for pupils. It meets twice a week in the lunchtime and its members are responsible for the day-to-day running of the museum. The school decided to mark the inception of the community museum with a grand opening – over 50 guests attended and the local press published articles about the event. The next phase in the project was to integrate the museum within the school's overall curricular provision, to enhance the teaching, learning and the social education of pupils and to promote its role within the wider community. Thus within twelve months we had held an exhibition on 'Local Authors and Illustrators', combining English, Art, History and Local Studies, as several authors had published upon local topics. While inspection evidence needs to be treated with caution, the government's inspection report reviewed the community museum:

> Very active links with the local community and a full programme of visitors offer excellent enrichment and support for the curriculum. The school has established the West Exe Room for projects connected with visitors and the community. This is a valuable and well-used facility.
>
> In History … a thorough and effective scheme of work underpins the subject… There is a wealth of resources to support the curriculum. The recent addition of 'The West

Exe Room', a museum based in the school which is open to the public each week, is an example of the school's commitment to this subject (Ofsted)

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Information Technology and the Teaching of History: The Problems of Pedagogic Innovation

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Abstract: *In this article, with the conceptual and empirical support gleaned from various investigations, including those carried out by the author himself, we shall argue that the apparently indisputable relationship between computer technology and educational innovation is neither obvious nor necessary. The aim is to shed light on the problems faced by the latter and on some of the conditions that should be met to make it possible. We shall emphasise those determining factors that are specifically pedagogic, by means of an original theoretic and heuristic category: the principle of double contextualization.*

Keywords: Teaching of History, Pedagogic innovation, Information technology, Cultures of teaching, Double contextualization, Innovation opportunity structures

Introduction

The calls that have been heard over the last two decades pressing for the computer to form part of the curriculum, and more recently for educational centres to be connected to the Internet, are of disparate nature and strength. However, one of the arguments brought to bear that has always been emphasized is the following: namely, that the use of information technology as a tool for teaching and learning in the various school subjects can lay the foundations for a qualitative improvement in classroom methods.

Nevertheless, the real repercussion of government plans introduced to equip non-university education levels with ICT capability seems rather limited (at least when compared to the expectation aroused), judging by the results of evaluation research carried out in various countries. To mention some examples, the wide-ranging studies promoted by the *International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement* (IEA), and those undertaken in Spain by Escudero (1992) and Cabero *et al.* (1993), coincide on one point: although there is a place now for computer literacy on most timetables, the use of available equipment as a didactic medium in the remaining school subjects is relatively small. Figures are even lower where history, geography and other social sciences teachers are concerned (see Ehman-Gleen, 1991; Guimerà, 1993; Ramiro, 1998 or Merchán, 2001). Furthermore, and although a shortage of evidence leads one to be prudent, everything points to the fact that when use is made of the equipment, the innovatory impact is similarly limited.

In spite of this, claims that information technology is a direct and sure route to a new and more effective pedagogy have lost none of their vigour. They overlook the fact that innovation is always a complex and uncertain process, which depends on many factors and has no guarantee of success beforehand. We must add to this that the very substantive priorities designed to modify a situation rarely avoid controversy. It is never a good idea to equate change with improvement without due debate based on research and evaluation, and even less so at the current time. Indeed, the simplicity of some of these claims about the impact of ICT on learning, teaching and society does not mean that they have been made naively. We should not forget that the institutional complexity schooling is marked by diverse social demands which are conflictive, even antagonistic, and cannot be easily balanced. We must, therefore, see the pressure brought to bear on this institution for 'technological modernisation' against that backcloth.

From the different 'visions' of schools' function and purpose, Goodson and Mangan (1998a: p. 123) pick out three as being historically predominant. In the first place, the

liberal or *academic* tradition, according to which schools should concentrate on transmitting the most important aspects of our cultural heritage -the legacy of disciplines- since they are valuable in themselves and enrich the mind. Secondly, for the *pedagogic* or *developmental* tradition, the learner's needs and interests are those which should become the main objective, so as to encourage his/her cognitive and affective development. Finally, the *economic and vocational* tradition stresses the importance of a kind of knowledge that ensures the production sector has a qualified workforce and helps pupils to obtain information and skills suitable for their future working lives.

Computing in education has frequently reflected the tensions that exist between these views (and others that could be added to the list), but during the process of the introduction of computers into the classroom one of them has been fostered with special force. Although there is an abundance of literature praising the 'cognitive benefits' that these tools promote, such claims are becoming more forthright than the empirical evidence that should corroborate them (cf. Romero, 1997, 1999, 2001). Moreover, it is often unclear how these supposed intellectual benefits should and can be integrated into day-to-day practices. This small detail, however, has not prevented the generalised diffusion of a 'culture of inevitability' (Goodson-Mangan, 1998a: p. 129) regarding the inevitable opening-up of schools to the Information Age. The most common justification centres on the need to adapt to the great economic and social transformations brought about by new technologies in all areas, to provide the qualifications that the labour market requires, to acquire the skills and attitudes that enable companies to exploit to the full the increased productivity that the latest generation of materials have made possible, and in short, to ensure the competitiveness of the country in the international market. It is obvious which of the views I am alluding to. From this standpoint some opinion-making authorities identify one-dimensionally the interests of schools with the interests of the private sector economy, relegating other essential finalities to the background or forgetting them altogether. And on occasions their interpretation of the relationship between production, training and employment is quite simply tendentious (for a broad discussion of this matter see Romero, 1999).

It can be said that this pressure has been successful insofar as it has led to the computer being a resource that is more or less available in schools. However, its arrival can be seen as another 'reform from above', made more serious by the fact that the culture of inevitability has to a certain extent drowned out any dialogue with the great curricular traditions, including objective, evidential based evaluation and related research. Of course, this is not the most ideal setting that one could imagine in which to dream of a generalised pedagogic innovation.

What I propose in this article is, precisely, to use various investigations (including those I have carried out myself) as a conceptual and empirical support to argue that the supposed relationship between information technology and educational improvement is neither obvious nor necessary. In doing so I hope to be able to shed a certain amount of light on some of the conditions (though not all) that should be met to make this improvement possible. This last restrictive reminder is important. The main part of my thoughts will be centred on specifically pedagogic requirements, without seeking in the least to use up the whole range of matters under consideration.

The weight of pedagogical traditions and routines

Some time ago, Nichol, Briggs and Dean (1987) pointed out that a beneficial introduction of modern ICT tools in the teaching of history is subject to the same conditions that affect all educational innovations. In the international literature that deals with these matters, there seems to exist, despite conceptual divergences, a broad agreement on one appraisal: the multiplicity of efforts directed towards curricular and pedagogic change

throughout the last half-century in the western world has only had, excepting the most committed circles, an uncertain impact. Some of the modifications that have received government backing have certainly managed to take deep root. However, despite this, when one looks below the surface of successive innovations and related pedagogic realignments, it can be seen that a deep-seated inertia exists in the everyday life of the classroom.

One of the conclusions that may be drawn from these analyses is that the very possibility of change that is neither trivial nor marginal is played out in the intersection of a multitude of planes. One of them concerns the very definition of the projects for change –since it is unwise to take their relevance, merits and consistency for granted from the outset- and the strategies that have been arranged for their implementation. Another obviously has to do with all manner of circumstances, both inside and outside school, which interfere with the action of educational agents, working against or in favour of different options. Among the remaining factors, there is one that I should like to draw particular attention to here.

The pedagogic and institutionalized routines on which curricular reforms have foundered time and again can only be understood, insofar as they are institutionalized models of historically established behaviour, when the special combination of restrictions and opportunities then present in school organization are taken into account. This being so, one of the additional causes of their significance lies in the systems of values, rules and regulations (which give meaning) that surround them. The schemes of perception, suppositions, categories and distinctions relating to scholastic knowledge, teaching, learning, academic performance, student diversity, classroom control and management, etc., embodied in training sessions contain a discriminating filter (Popkewitz, 1998) that limits what may be understood as feasible and reasonable professional behaviour. This 'basic grammar' (Tyack-Tobin, 1994) is deeply structured but also gives some structure to schooling, since it generates ways of thinking, seeing and acting. In this respect, as Popkewitz points out in the aforementioned work, it marks the discursive limits of a space within which are 'constructed' the subject (the aforementioned tacit suppositions become catalysts of that strange 'alchemy' that turns the knowledge of historiography or geography ... into a school discipline), the children as students, and the teachers themselves.

This confinement can undoubtedly constitute an obstacle to innovation, from the moment it contributes to narrowing the area of possible action. If a proposal challenges fixed habits and assumptions, its chances of success diminish. Therefore, one fancies that it is very difficult to breach such a barrier without calling into question, refuting and in some way destabilizing the supposed naturalness of the principles that uphold it.

The social history of the *curriculum* and the sociology of knowledge applied to this field (which enable us to consider school subjects as 'selective cultural conventions' —as far as history is concerned see Cuesta, 1997, 1998— and half-hear the deep social resonances of pedagogical codes) are an obligatory stop for the gathering of munitions with a view to undertaking this 'deconstructive' task. Research work on the process of teachers' professional training and the functioning of the different formal and informal mechanisms of their socialization is another one. It is advisable to provide answers, however tentative and provisional they may be, to some important questions: Why and how do certain mechanisms prevail over others? To what extent do training programmes get to grips with 'basic grammar'? Are new languages, watchwords and resources really levelled at its core or do they simply add to it? (cf. Banks-Parker, 1992).

Professional cultures and the irradiation of innovative impulses

Confidence in the promoting of improvement through good 'designs' drawn up by experts, which were scientifically validated and could be brought into general use (by means of a process of centralized dissemination that ensures that those who receive this external solution adopt it and, subsequently, faithfully put it into practice) began to wane from the 1960s onwards. Following the publication of reports that demonstrated the failure, or the relative failure, of curricular reforms managed in such a technical and bureaucratic way, and the irruption of 'cultural' studies that have drawn a more complex picture of innovations, a broad agreement regarding the lack of firmness of strategies that are imposed from above has been generated, criticizing them as simplistic, unaware of the reality they claim to alter, and in short, as non-viable. Their fallacy is seen to lie in the fact that they have failed to take into account the professional culture of teachers, which is decisive for the success or otherwise of new proposals. Far from being passive users, teachers interpret, select and value them from their system of beliefs, habits and rules. In some cases they make them their own, changing and recreating them in accordance with diverse patterns that are difficult to foresee, even contrary to the spirit that originally inspired them. In others they simply reject them. As a result, there would appear to be no sign of change unless that 'thick layer of meanings' (Ruddock, 1986) can be cracked open and the internalization of other schemes of meaning encouraged.

This conceptual readjustment has given cause and has served as an argument for alternative ways of promoting innovations. As it does not seem possible to *prescribe* improvement, efforts have centred on obtaining the involvement, approval and active support of teachers, stimulating and generating contexts that favour the emergence of dynamics of change from within schools themselves. In order that these actions might take hold to a greater degree, calls have been made for these grass-roots levels to become protagonists, as far as curriculum design is concerned, so that teachers can make decisions in accordance with their priorities and perceived requirements. So as to stimulate and create the conditions for the emergence and consolidation of autonomous curricular change and innovation, emphasis has usually been placed on the organizational restructuring of workplaces, participatory processes, and interpersonal relationships, with a view to creating a favourable atmosphere in which the professionals themselves can re-examine methods, agreed planning and collaboration. Opportunities would thus be created for an increase in professional development of teachers and, as a result, for schools to become the source of 'regeneration'.

Nevertheless, throughout the nineties doubts began to arise. The empirical evidence that has been compiled does not allow us to establish a clear connexion between the aforementioned strategies and the enrichment of the educational experiences being offered to pupils. On numerous occasions the special emphasis placed on process has led the institutional atmosphere to stand as an end in itself, while at the same time substantive changes on a didactic level are eluded. As Miles (1993) and Fullan (1994) state, an alteration in structures of organization and relations is a necessary factor, but insufficient; on its own this does not affect the core of teaching and learning, in the absence of projects directly focused on what is happening in the classroom. Innovations at a didactic level can demand organizational changes, whereas the opposite nexus is not clear (Bolívar, 1999).

Even if excessively schematic, the panorama outlined in the preceding paragraphs reminds us that we should continue to make our concepts and strategies as precise as possible in the interests of facilitating teachers' professional development, as well as the germination of innovative proposals, as they are two sides of the same coin. Approaches and actions that aim to break this kind of 'hermeneutic circle', according to which the prospects for innovation are reduced when there is serious discord with existing

pedagogical rules and practices, while they increase when they adapt to them (at the expense, reductio ad absurdum, of giving up all possibility of change). We are advocating, then, ways of confronting and negotiating the foreseeable conflicts and discrepancies that, as micropolitical analyses have well documented (see, for example, Ball, 1987 or Blase, 1997), tend to divide school staff when initiatives that question the status quo are announced. In any case, these efforts should never lose sight of changing political realities on a national and global level, which, at this historic juncture, are restructuring state education systems and narrowing schoolteachers' working frameworks.

The *double contextualization* of teaching media

Bearing in mind the general reflections set out above, I have attempted elsewhere (Romero, 2000, 2001) to determine the place of media, such as ICT, and related materials in a teaching context, as well as the origins of their didactic value. The intention was none other than to put to the test the supposed relationship between new technologies and educational innovation. It is as well to clarify, before continuing, what I understand by 'innovation'. The word is often seen as the introduction of something perceived to be new by those it is intended for; for example, a resource hitherto unheard-of in the classroom. However, a large number of scholars consider the term to be inappropriate unless it is accompanied by the intention to produce *a qualitative transformation of educational practices* (and related student learning)*, in a direction seen as desirable.* I go along with their criterion. Of course, by no means do I wish to suggest that the problems of definition are so easily cleared up. 'Innovation' is a moot point, like all those that allude to complex matters, just as the elucidation of what 'desirable' is. However, I will content myself with stating this elementary discriminating principle, as it is useful in order not to confuse as such any trivial or marginal change *from the point of view of teaching and learning.*

If we start from this premise, it seems clear that what is hypothetically innovative is not the mere availability of computers or the Internet, but their *didactic significance*. Hence the importance of analysing their provenance. To undertake this task I have made use of an original theoretical and heuristic category, which I have termed the *principle of double contextualization.* With it I have claimed that the pedagogic significance of a resource is not an *a priori* fact, but one that is constructed.

Indeed, no medium is educational until it is pedagogically 'constructed'. Neither the computer, nor television, nor a video cassette-recorder, nor a map, nor a book ... unless it is relocated at new coordinates, in accordance with regulating guidelines that set down a purpose and form of *educational* use. This relocation means either elaborating *ad hoc* materials (software for learning curricular contents, a televisual program for practising a foreign language, a subject textbook, etc.), or devising an approach that allows the insertion of products that come from outside school in a didactic strategy, at the service of specific objectives (a database management system to give support to small-scale research, or which can be confined to recording information about characters in history, etc.). This process is necessary and by no means arbitrary. All curricular material, every proposal on how to use a resource, simply by being available, has experienced it. The consequence is its *impregnation* through traditions and ways of understanding what the teaching of history, or whatever the subject, is and should be. So, for example, the symbolic and operative possibilities of media are subordinate to the transmission of certain contents to the detriment of others. What is more, the idea that one has of scholastic learning, the treatment it is given, and how one tries to facilitate and organize the students' approximation towards it, lead to a *selective* exploitation of such possibilities

and to the instilling of them in a characteristic direction. I have termed this process *genetic-constitutive contextualization.*

However, the 'character' that is breathed into the medium in this way is not the ultimate determinant of the use, function or prominence that it will have in the classroom. Teachers interpret and take this character in a particular direction in accordance with their preferences, needs or sensitivities. Therefore it would seem correct to speak, like Ben-Peretz (1990), of *curricular potential* that is susceptible to recreation, alteration or adjustment in each classroom, in compliance with the plans of thought and action of the person in charge. In other words, the application of the resource or material in turn shapes its didactic meaning, whenever the teacher decides why, what for, or how to use it (or why to reject it), in 'adapting' it to his/her professional culture, routines and environmental circumstances. This is the second contextualizing instance, which I have termed *praxis contextualization*. Through this the medium is likewise imbued with pedagogical codes, traditions and grammars, since practice is not only an individual manifestation but also a sociohistorical and institutional one.

Curricular material is open to diverse interpretations, some of which contradict their creator's intentions. Yet this material is the result of selective control, so the interpretation of it cannot be unlimited from the start. As can be seen, this is a complex dialectic, in which both contextualizations play a part. They both entail adapting the medium to pre-existing teaching approaches. Therefore, these approaches contain the *didactic* mould of the changes that take place (and of what remains). The medium does not determine the teaching approach, rather, it gives visible form to it. It is certain that the technical and symbolic attributes of media are independent from the use that is made of them. The person that contextualizes the resource does not invent its internal properties, but takes advantage of them. That is to say that its involvement may introduce important variations in the environment in which a teaching style takes shape. From our point of view, however, these variations should be seen as a favourable (or limiting) element of a pattern of educational action rather than its transformation into a new one. At best, information technology will help in an instrumental manner, enrich or amplify a hypothetical change that has not been brewing at its heart but in its environment (which would be no small thing).

In short, the seed of renovation of pedagogy (if it actually exists) can be found in these contextualizations; mere computerization of curricular material does not *necessarily* increase their efficacy, as the computer's multifunctional nature enables it both to support quality approaches and to prop up tendencies that cannot easily be justified. What is more, even if there is good alternative material at hand, its mere existence does not guarantee either that it will be used extensively or that its use will be inspired by the desire for improvement that inspired its promoters, unless we manage, at the same time, to influence teachers' plans of thought and action and their working conditions.

The heuristic strength of the principle of double contextualization has already been put to the test. Empirical research has been undertaken (see Romero, 2001) with the aim of detecting this double process. On the one hand, with the educational software that has the backing of the Spanish Ministry of Education and with some commercial multimedia packages intended for the teaching of history. On the other, in experiences with the computer carried out by secondary school history and geography teachers taking part in the 'Athenea' Project. This project was set up by Spanish central government during the 1985/6 academic year with the aim of promoting the use of information technology as a cross-curricular resource and, so, improving the quality of teaching in all subjects. I used as a source a database with descriptions of these experiences created by the central teams of the aforementioned plan during its experimental phase.

As far as the software packages are concerned, most of those tested conformed perfectly, regardless of how well or badly they were expressed, to old-fashioned educational philosophies. Neither did an analysis of the experiences provide surprises. As was to be expected, the use of this technology fitted easily identifiable teaching styles. On top of all this, the statistically dominant guidelines followed traditional routines, both from the point of view of topics to be worked on and from that of the learning activities to be developed with the help of these tools.

The following serves as an example: in 44% of the cases examined, the activities were mere supplements to the contents instead of means by which to construct learning. The age-old idea is the one enshrined in a myriad textbooks: the main part of learning work consists of *receiving* 'finished' knowledge, which means that 'exercises' are only given to reinforce its acquisition. In another 23% this machine was used to solve classic 'practical work' for training in certain techniques, like making a chronological pyramid or a climate chart. In fact they are of the same supplementary nature as the preceding cases, so they could just as well be added to the first percentage. Only in a third had the intellectually creative collaboration of the student been called for, by means of heuristic tasks which demanded that answers be worked out rather than reproduced. Contrary to what might have been supposed, there was not a clear correlation between the type of software and the activity. In all the enquiries and problem-solving activities, generic programs were used (mainly databases and spreadsheets), but the same was true in half of those labelled as reinforcing supplements.

These results are consistent with those obtained through other investigations, such as the 'Curriculum and context in the use of computers for classroom learning' project, funded by the Ontario Ministry of Education, and conducted by researchers at the University of Western Ontario (see Goodson-Mangan, 1998b). Its aim was to examine the repercussion that the use of information technology had in different subjects in the secondary school curriculum in use in that province of Canada, namely: Social studies (history, geography and sociology), Art, Family studies and Technological studies. Since it was focussed on secondary education, they had in mind a line of research that confirmed the central role of *subject sub-cultures* in teacher preparation and professional socialisation, and therefore in the shape of the explicit assumptions and tacit conventions that were behind their day-to-day actions in the classroom. As a result, they adopted as a work hypothesis that subject sub-cultures precede the introduction of computers and are the background to this event. So they set out, in the first place, to see whether these well-established subject- teaching activity patterns were really an active element relevant to the introduction of computing resources. Secondly, and provided that relationship were corroborated, how they were influenced by (and what their reaction was to) the presence of these "intruders". The evidence obtained clearly confirmed the first point. As far as the second was concerned, they detected a common pattern in the way these resources were introduced into the classroom. Very few teachers, regardless of the subjects they taught, reconsidered their approach to lesson planning and routines significantly: 'Small bits of existing lesson plans are replaced by computerized bits but the basic objectives and structure remain much the same' (ibid: p. 117). As with other initiatives 'from above', the pragmatic response to this comprised readapting it and carrying on more or less as they had before. According to the authors: 'It is possible for the culture of computing to completely colonize some areas of the curriculum. In most areas, however, the antecedent subject sub-culture in effect colonizes the computer, and uses it to teach the existing subject in the existing way' (ibid: pp. 119-120). Therefore, this technology may become nothing more than 'a veneer to comply with the demands of modernity', without endangering loyalty to traditional knowledge and teaching.

To sum up, 'teacher-proof' reforms are indefensible. Not only nor mainly for reasons of viability, but for reasons of a democratic nature. However, a desirable growth in

professional autonomy requires an analytical distancing from the here and now to heighten the awareness of our situation and how our own habits contribute to its durability. It also demands a certain *sense of possibility* (to use Robert Musil's expression) in order to challenge the identification of 'what is' with 'what should be' and so to suggest corrections. Without this criticism and self-criticism, and without a discussion of alternative projects, it is very difficult to drive a non-rhetorical wedge into the 'basic grammar' of schools.

Innovation opportunity structures

The principle of *double contexualization* allows us to infer the *didactic* prerequisites that must be fulfilled for innovation to advance, but these prerequisites are only one of the planes on the intersection of which the very possibility of improvement takes place. Curricular persistence or change raises questions that pedagogy cannot resolve *per se*, although if they are not dealt with its contribution will be reduced by a lack of perspective. In fact, the field of contextualizing positions does not operate on an inert horizon, but also expresses the dominant vectors that cross the school system: the hegemonic social definitions of useful and legitimate knowledge, the direction government policies take, as well as the breadth of alliances and support (whether social, academic, corporate, or from the media...) mobilised on their behalf, working conditions and schools' organisational parameters, the kind of training received by the teachers, and the equipment available, etc. These all produce a peculiar and variable combination of restrictions and opportunities. In relation to the integration of ICT as a natural, everyday element in pedagogy and school-learning, developments of the past decade have militated strongly against this development.

As an illustration of this, we note the latest revision of the secondary school curriculum in Spain, undertaken by the *Popular* Party (Spanish Conservative Party) Government. In Spain since the 1990 Education Act ('LOGSE', Ley de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo), curriculum development has been a shared responsibility pertaining to the Central Government (Ministry of Education), the Autonomous Governments, and the schools and the teachers themselves. The Ministry of Education sets a general framework, common to the whole of the State, which is then more specifically defined by the Autonomous Governments and, finally, by the schools and teachers. Within this structure, the Ministry of Education specifies the general objectives to be attained by each pupil at all levels of the non-university education system, the common basic content for each curriculum area or subject, and the assessment criteria.

Two Royal Decrees, published in January 2001, have restructured the common core, in what is becoming the Spanish version of the 'Back to basics' movement promoted by the triumphant conservative educational restoration in other advanced countries since the eighties. Within the social curriculum, they consecrate a re-nationalised and more clearly re-disciplined cultural essentialism that has restored an old curricular tradition, held up by the History of Spain and an eurocentric World History, both organised in accordance with a strict chronological order, and by their perennial companion Geography. An ancient and obsolete curricular rule that, *de facto*, has replaced the idea of 'common basic contents' with dense syllabuses that are prescribed in a highly detailed way and arranged in more inflexible sequences.

Together with a cultural slant, what we have here - if I may fall back on Bernstein's classic terminology (1971) - is a reinforcement of the *classification* of knowledge (the accentuation of the boundaries that separate some contents from others and scholastic knowledge from non-scholastic knowledge) and its *framing* (the accentuation of the boundaries between what can and what cannot be transmitted in a pedagogical relationship). Obviously, this has repercussions in the distribution of power within the

school system, since it entails the consolidation or increase by decree of vertical and hierarchic control over the curriculum. With the resulting drastic loss of scope for autonomy and professional teaching control, the *double contextualisation* factors that enable teacher-centred innovation vanish into thin air.

Meanwhile, paradoxically, new ICT linked technologies continue to be the emblems of the 'quality' policies the Government claims to pursue. In the light of the new legal framework, their insertion in the curriculum may cease to be heralded as a means towards pedagogic innovation and may be rhetorically presented as its symbolic substitute. But this would be an evidently deceitful ideological abuse.

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Student Teachers' Conceptions of History

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Abstract: *This paper reports on the beliefs and conceptions of history that young adults have constructed on the basis of their history studies at school. The data consist of open-ended written responses of 92 first and second year university students (prospective primary school teachers) to the following questions:*

1) Why do we study history at school?
2) What is the significance of history in society?
3) How do I understand the concept of history?
4) What does history mean to me?
5) What is my own place in history?
The data were analysed qualitatively, and the method resembles the phenomenographic approach, trying to find out different aspects of meaning.

This approach to young adults' beliefs of history is often ignored in school history, which emphasises transmission of factual content. For most respondents, the role of history was mainly cognitive, as an explanation to the contemporary world. Critical approach to history, and to controversial issues was less obvious, and very seldom the respondents made remarks on the relativity and fragility of historical information. Some of the students also made a distinction between history as a school subject, and history as a dimension of the worldview. One group of students underlined the emotional and entertaining function of history. Most respondents were obviously not used to thinking about the personal significance of history, but nevertheless, they were ready and willing to apply history as a tool of organising the world they live in.

Key words Understanding history, Beliefs, Teacher education, Orientation,

Introduction

The goal of the present study is to examine the nature of the belief structures that young adults, first and second year students in the primary school teacher education programme, have about history. More specifically, the research questions are focused on the student teachers' conceptions of history and its significance in society and as school subject, and the way they describe their own connection to history.

When examining an individual's relation to history, we are dealing with *historical consciousness,* which can also be seen as a broader collective concept, related to the historical culture of the society. Historical consciousness as a concept is highly complex, and there are a number of different approaches to it. According to a common definition, historical consciousness includes not only consciousness about the past, but also its connections with the present and the future as dimensions of the same historical process. (Jeismann, 1980, pp.185-193; Jensen, 1997, pp. 58-60) Individual historical consciousness is related to historical knowledge, understanding and interest, and also to the beliefs about the nature of history. It is not only a relation to a school subject or subject area, but also a central element in the formation of individual and collective identities. Historical consciousness can thus be seen as a framework for human thinking, and as the historical dimension of the individual identity.

The present study also represents the research of *epistemological beliefs* about a subject area. The boundary between beliefs and knowledge is not very clear; beliefs are not totally identical with academic knowledge, because they cannot be verified or falsified. People may not be totally conscious of their beliefs, but they function as preconceptions, mental images and implicit theories, and as metacognition. Beliefs can be tools for understanding the reality, and they influence the adoption of new information, as it is constructed on the schemata that

an individual has in his or her mind. The beliefs can be created rather early, and it may be difficult to change them (Pajares, 1992). Thus they may make a hindrance for learning new conceptions, but at least they constitute a framework for learning.

For instance Hammer (1994) examined students' beliefs about physics, and defined them as:
1) beliefs of the structure of physical knowledge (is physics a collection of details, or a coherent system),
2) beliefs of the content of physical knowledge (does it consist of formulas, or concepts behind the formulas), and
3) beliefs about learning physics (learning as reception, or as an active process where the student is constructing meanings).

The present study will concentrate on the student beliefs about the structure and nature of history, not on the conceptions of learning history.

In this study, I examine students', and more specifically student teachers' conceptions and consciousness of history, *after their upper secondary school studies of history, or as a result of them*. All the respondents had recently graduated from the upper secondary school, and some of them had some university level courses in a history department. If the students learn history with their only purpose to pass the final examinations, guided by instrumental motivation, then the reflection on the personal relation to history remains insignificant.

The concept of historical consciousness is one of the key concepts in history education, and at the level of curriculum texts, the goal of teaching history is to imprint historical thinking in students' minds. This goal may, however, easily be forgotten or ignored in the practice of school history, which in many countries emphasises the transmission of factual content. This is true for the Finnish upper secondary schools, where teachers pay very much attention to the final examinations and, at the expense of the goals related to thinking, try to cover the course content as thoroughly as possible (cf. Virta 1995). Among history teachers, there has not been much discussion about the beliefs or conceptions of history that are transmitted to the students by the history curricula.

It may be assumed, on the one hand, that beliefs about history or historical consciousness are filtered, or constructed as by-products of factual instruction, in some form, although they are not assessed in tests or examinations. On the other hand, the school is only one agent in this process - although often the most consistent. It is impossible to analyse the role of the school or that of the other agents, and it is impossible to know to what degree the student responses in the present study reflect history teaching or for instance family traditions, or individual thinking.

Previous research

The present study deals with prospective teachers' conceptions and beliefs about history, which may be highly significant for the way in which they will teach history to their own students. In the literature on teaching and learning history, one of the premises has been that teachers' historical thinking and their knowledge make the basis for the meaningful teaching of history, and enable them to develop students' historical thinking (cf. Jaeger & Davis, 1996; Evans, 1994). This logical and understandable conception is not, however, based on empirical evidence, due to the scarcity of research on teaching history. Research on learning history has expanded during the last few years, and the historical thinking and historical consciousness of the adolescents and the youth has been examined in several studies (Armento, 1991, pp. 946-948; Downey & Levstik, 1991, pp. 401-408; Agnvik & von Borries,1997; Voss & Carretero, 1997). However, there are not many examples of research on history teachers' or teacher students' historical thinking.

The closest parallel for the present study is Anderson's (1996) research on Swedish primary school teacher students' conceptions of history. He examined how the prospective teachers understood the concept of history in the beginning of their studies, after the basic course of history, and after one additional course (N in the three phases: 76, 76, and 56). In the

beginning, it was typical of the students to describe history in a highly atomistic manner, as consisting of names, dates, and events (67/76), while a minority underlined the holistic nature of history. After the basic course, the number of those understanding the comprehensiveness of history had become larger, although the respondents very seldom reflected on the meaning of history for identity, or on the critical or problem-centred thinking required in history. Most respondents related time dimension to history, and emphasised the connection between history and the present. It can be assumed that the history course had assisted the students to construct their individual conceptions of history.

Haussler Bohan and Davis (1998) examined prospective social studies teachers' historical thinking as related to their skills of dealing with contradictory evidence. They also reported on three individual students' thinking, and found weaknesses in their use of historical evidence and in their historical and critical thinking.

In a similar research, Jaeger and Davis (1996) examined how history teachers interpreted historical documents. After interviewing 15 teachers, they found three main types of history teachers with three different approaches to history and evidence:
1) history as a reconstruction (the constructivist approach),
2) history as entertainment and narrative (no critical touch to the evidence, and no effort at seeking for the main ideas of the texts), and
3) emphasis on the accuracy of information (exact facts, no comments or deductions).

These categories can be compared with Evans' (1994) typology of history teachers that is based on their conceptions of history and on their teaching styles, which included the storytellers, academic historians, relativist reformers, cosmic philosophers, and eclectics.

Vinson (1998) has found the following approaches to the goals of history teaching among American social studies teachers:
1) transmission of cultural heritage,
2) history as a social science,
3) emphasis on reflectivity,
4) enlightened social criticism, and
5) support to students' personal development.

The study indicated that the respondents gave least importance to the first two goals, and wanted to underline goals related to reflectivity, social criticism and student development.

On the basis of the studies referred to above, teacher approaches to history can be highly diverse, which certainly has implications for their students and for the practice of teaching. Consequently, it is worthwhile to pay attention to student teachers' historical thinking during their initial teacher education.

Data and methods

The data of the present study consist of open-ended written responses by 92 first and second year university students (prospective primary school teachers) to the following questions:
1) Why do we study history at school?
2) What is the significance of history in society?
3) How do I understand the concept of history?
4) What does history mean to me?
5) What is my own place in history?

The students answered these questions in the beginning of their history course in the primary school teacher education programme. The course was, due to curricular arrangements, lectured twice during the year, separately for both groups. The data were collected in the late 1990's. The possible development of the students' conceptions was not followed up, because the possible changes may have been the consequences of several factors besides the impact of the rather short history course.

The total number of students was 80 + 80, but only about a half of the respondents returned this assignment, because all students did not attend the first lecture. The questions may also have been rather difficult, as they were open-ended and focusing on an aspect to history that the students had obviously not been used to reflect on. In Tables 1-4, the symbol A refers to the second, and B to the first year students.

The data were analysed qualitatively, with a method resembling the phenomenographic approach, trying to find out different aspects of meaning. A single respondent often expressed a number of ideas related to one question, and in such cases, each shade of meaning was recorded. The final model of classification was constructed after reading the data a number of times.

Although the analysis is qualitative, the author has counted the frequencies of expressions, in order to get an overall conception of the nature of the student conceptions. A rough quantitative procedure is useful, also due to the relatively high number of the responses. The reliability of the categorisation or interpretation was not checked by another examiner but instead the author will try to illustrate the various types of interpretations by examples and quotations.

In open-ended responses, the expressions often vary to a great degree, and it has been necessary to combine similar shades of meaning together, irrespective of the dissimilarity of formulation. The responses of the two student groups are reported in the tables both separately and combined.

The findings

Why history

The first two research questions were focused on the student teachers' conceptions of the significance of history for the society (Why do we study history at school? What is the significance of history in society?). The different justifications for history expressed by the respondents are described in Table 1.

TABLE 1. The student teachers' conceptions of the significance of history

Approach given	Group A	Group B	Total
Basis for the understanding of the present, the society, and the culture	37	32	69
Cognitive and factual importance of history	28	19	47
Meaning for the construction of the world view and identity	26	10	36
Understanding development and change, and the time concept	15	19	34
Learning from history, using history as a basis in decision making	17	17	34
Understanding one's own background (the personally significant history)	13	9	22
Maintaining and transmitting cultural heritage	11	11	22
Anticipating the future on the basis of history	7	13	20
Understanding other cultures	8	10	18

Respect for the work of the earlier generations	7	3	10
Learning about the mankind	6	3	9
History repeats itself, is predictable	4	4	8
Development of critical and analytical thinking skills, sense of relativity	6	2	8
Creating a feeling of national affinity	2	2	4

The most common justification for history (notwithstanding variations in expressions) was that history was seen as the basis for the present time, for the present society and for the culture. This way of thinking is highly relevant also for the professional historians, and can have been transmitted through history teaching, but can as well be a product of independent thinking. Also in the European comparative research *Youth and History*, it was typical of the 14-year old Finnish students, as well as of other Scandinavians, to see the past as the explanation of the present (Ahonen, 1997, p. 258). Additionally, the respondents in the present study often explained that history is integral in the shaping of people's worldview and way of thinking. In the following examples, the respondents described the role of history in the orientation to the world, as creating a sense of security and proportion (as a frame of reference):

It is important to know why and how we have come to this stage of the social development. Thus we can understand the present situation. We cannot understand the relation between the NATO and Russia if we are ignorant of the period of the cold war. It is the basis of the continuity of the society. Without history there is no future. Knowing the old culture, and our connection to it, creates us a sense of security.

-- History makes a frame or reference and helps us to understand our place in a broader temporal and local context. Human narcistic egoism may calm down a bit, when people understand their own place in the changes over time periods. History may help us to see things and the world as more relativistic. Events are connected to each other by causal and temporal relations.

Relatively many of the respondents emphasised the intrinsic value of historical knowledge, and its value for the understanding of foreign cultures. The role of history as the tool for creating nationalistic feelings was expressed only by few students, which may indicate that the Finnish history teaching is no more transmitting great nationalistic narratives. Constructing national identity is however included in the goals of the history curriculum (1994).

There is an interesting cluster of argumentation in the data, maintaining that *history repeats itself ,* is predictable and can be used in the present day decision making as a store of examples, which are helpful for developing the present society and constructing the future. This is evident in the following excerpts:

History is a school subject, because it is a part of the general education, and on the basis of it the students can learn better to anticipate the future. -- History is needed in the society, because we have to learn and explain the past, so that we also can predict the future. We must learn from history, because it repeats itself.

We can learn from history. We can avoid previous mistakes. We can anticipate the impacts of our decisions and actions for the future.

These are understandable explanations, to a certain limit. History and the future belong to the same time dimension, and are parts in the common historical process, although direct prediction of the future on the basis of history is highly problematic. The conception of history as repeating itself was surprisingly frequent in the data, and it is not very likely that this conception would have been inferred from the history teacher or textbooks, although certain similarities and analogies certainly have been pointed out in instruction.

Extremely few respondents saw that history could be a tool for the development of critical thinking or other thinking skills. It may be assumed that these goals are somewhat invisible in the present history teaching, although they are vital for the academic research of history, and are also underlined in the history curriculum for the upper secondary school. Only a small number of the respondents mentioned that history helps us to understand human beings, although history is frequently defined as the story of man or the story of human activity. This may be explained by the tradition of history teaching, which emphasises the collective, or macro level history, and political history, without much connection to individuals.

For most of the respondents, the role of history was mainly cognitive, as the explanation of the contemporary world. A critical approach to history and controversial issues, were less obvious, and very seldom the respondents made remarks of the relativity and fragility of historical information. It is not astonishing, and the data may be seen as an indication of the rather objectivistic tradition of teaching history.

What is history

One of the research questions concentrated on the students' conceptions of history as a concept and as a domain. The various definitions are described in the Table 2.

Most respondents attached the notion of time and the past to the concept of history. In the simpliest definitions, history was described as the past, or as the continuum of historical periods. Relatively many of the respondents described history as a line of development, related to the present or as the basis for the present. History was often explained on the basis of events: it is something that has happened. In the more atomistic definitions, history was described as a list of separate elements, events, people.

History is all that has happened prior the present time. History is people, events, achievements and losses.

History is information about the past times, stories of wars, of how nations became independent, of crises, and industrialisation. History tells us what was done in the past.

These examples indicate a rather atomistic and general understanding of history. The concept is not clearly organised. Similar definitions were frequent also in Anderson's (1996) Swedish data.

Table 2. Student teachers' definitions for history.

Definition	Group A	Group B	Total
History as the past (time dimension, continuity)	17	15	32
History is something that has happened , things, events, life	12	13	25

History as a line of development, related to the present	15	9	24
Past events, things, persons	11	12	23
Description or knowledge of the past	11	12	23
History as research, as science focusing on the past events and their background and consequences	11	7	18
Reference to the various sectors or levels of history (political or cultural history, micro history etc.)	10	7	17
Reference to culture and human action	9	6	15
Critical approach to historical information / relativity of knowledge	3	3	6

The responses where history was seen as science and research were not frequent, but we may be happy with this frequency, taken the mainstream of history teaching, as familiarising the students with the historical substance and to a less degree to the historical research.

History means to me a science investigating the past events, their backgrounds and consequences. Also the events that happened near our time belong to history, although we may not be able to interpret them objectively, because we live in them.

History is all that has gone; this moment is history. History is so large a domain that no one can know it as a whole; everybody has one's own history. These human destinations make world history.

History is a large question mark. There is no one historical truth. You cannot be certain that everything has happened in the way people say. You have to be critical. You have also to pay attention to the differences in the historical time and the present, and in the cultures, etc.

The last quotation indicates the questioning of the historical truth, and understanding the meaning of the time context for interpretations of history. Although most of the definitions represented a fairly atomistic and one-dimensional way of thinking of history, it is remarkable that some of the young adults indicated epistemologically elaborated reflections.

Individual relation to history

An individual relation to history was inquired in the question What does history mean to me? This is partly related to the first question, at a more individual level. Personal argumentation resembled to a great degree the broader significance given to history (cf. Table 1).

Table 3. The personal meaning of history.

Meaning	**Group A**	**Group B**	**Total**
History as a tool for understanding the present, culture and society	17	9	26

History has significance in the construction of one's identity, world view, or self-image	4	6	10
History may be interesting as such, although the school subject was not	4	4	8
Experiential relation to history	-	4	4
History seen as strange and remote	1	2	3
Reflection of one's personal history	2	1	3
Own knowledge of history insufficient	1	-	1
The meaning of history depends on the way it is presented	-	1	1

Most respondents wrote that history was for them a key to contemporary culture and society, and also pointed out the role of history in shaping the worldview.

[History means to me] Information of my roots, how we have come to this moment. Experience, imaginary trips to the past, basis for the present. History means very much to me.

Until today, history has been primarily a school subject. Additionally it has significance as it helps me to find my place in society. To understand other people and the society.

Some respondents described their relation to history highly personally: 'When I know my roots, I can better construct my self-image.' The written texts do not tell whether it had been the school history, or history outside the school that had been the source for these more personal reflections.

Some of the student teachers wrote about the meaning of history in the dimension interest, experience - disinterest, feeling of remoteness, and some remembered history as a boring school subject, but might also point out that history as such may be interesting.

I have always been interested in history, it is nice to know about the world and people of the past, and their way of thinking.

History means to me an attractive world, endless object of interest, tool for understanding for instance the present society, cultures, habits.

In school I did not feel that this subject would be interesting - wars and dates came in through one ear and went out through the other…(due to the teacher or own attitude?). Some topics were highly interesting, and they were related to people, ordinary people, every day history. Old photos, family history, letters, and histories related to them were highly interesting.

The question 5 is closely connected to the question 4, but now the students had to ponder history mainly as an identity issue. All respondents did not answer this item, and many of the responses were short and laconic, while some of them were almost lyrical and sentimental.

Table 4. The students' conceptions of their own place in history

Description	**Group A**	**Group B**	**Total**
Seeing oneself as a part of history			

(participating, acting)	13	18	31
Related to historical period or continuum	15	10	25
One's own meaninglessness / being outsider in history	11	10	21
Seeing oneself as a part of the chain of generations	11	7	18
Importance of personal history	4	9	13
Seeing oneself as a product of one's culture / history	2	1	3
Having an active role in shaping one's history	-	2	2

The quotations exemplify how the student teachers related their personal lives to historical contexts and the continuum of generations, and they also describe their own action as part of history. Simultaneously, some responses indicate the feeling of one's smallness in the course of history.

[I have my place] In this period of time, its events. I am one of the proud decision makers looking towards the future. I would rather be Ben Hur.

I have a position of a very small part in the history, belonging to a certain family and class…

I am in history as a drop in the ocean.

Through my personal history, I have my place in the present society, which influences my life through its present-day history.

In a minority of the responses, one can discern a passive attitude to history; seeing oneself as a product of the culture, or one among many in the masses in the history, while a few others pointed out their active role*: I am all the time creating my own history* .

Discussion

On the basis of this small-scale data, it is not possible to draw powerful generalisations about young adults' or prospective teachers' historical thinking, but some trends are visible in it. In most responses, the meaning of history was seen mainly as cognitive, as an explanation of the present social and political conditions, and to a lesser degree a question of an experiental or empathetic relation to history. This is understandable, taken the tradition of teaching history in the upper secondary school with a clear emphasis on factual content. Critical, analytical and scientific interpretations of history were, however, rather uncommon in this data, notwithstanding some respondents' remarks on the fragility and relativity of historical information.

Individual interpretations of the sense of history may be highly diverse. Bodo von Borries (1988) has investigated the motives of historical interest of German adults (N=25), and found that the basis of interest could on one hand be intellectual, on the other, emotional. Those who had a cognitive orientation to history, thought that the function of history was to transmit tradition, and they wanted to find explanations for contemporary issues: history could be an object of analysis, a tool for understanding development and conflicts of the contemporary world, reflecting on the alternatives of the future, or instrumental in the formation of one's identity. Those who had an emotional orientation to history, saw it as a source of fantasy, and experience of beauty, but also as an substitute of adventure. All these approaches were evident in the present data.

It has been common to underline the development of students' historical thinking and historical identity in the official school curricula, and other pedagogical texts, as the goals of teaching history, but it is unclear to which degree these goals are concretised in the practice of history teaching. The short and laconic style of most responses in the present data may be an indication of the fact that the student teachers felt it difficult to reflect on the meaning and nature of history. However, it is evident that the respondents had skills and possibly even need to use history as a tool for organising their ideas about the present world.

It can be taken for granted that an understanding of the nature of historical knowledge and of its significance is vital for history teachers. In their teaching, they are not only dealing with the factual content of history, but also contributing to their students' historical thinking. Students create their views of history on the basis of formal history teaching, and also on the images transmitted by the media, and through family traditions. This view, filtered through a number of channels, may be haphazard and disorganised. It is the history teaching at school that should help the students to integrate these elements and to indicate to them that they live in the middle of history. The teacher cannot transmit a ready made model of historical consciousness or set of historical beliefs, but what he or she can do is to activate a curious and critical attitude towards information.

In their pre-service education the prospective teachers should have opportunities to clarify their own beliefs and conceptions about history and its functions for society and for individuals. They should also become able to transform their philosophy of teaching history into practical teaching activities, and to find such teaching methodologies that they can support their students' independent thinking and motivation. Prospective teachers should learn how to use methods supporting critical thinking and reflectivity on the one hand, and empathy on the other hand.

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Teacher Education in Yugoslavia

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Abstract: *Pre- and in-service teacher education in Yugoslavia has no structure and pattern providing the system to cover all teachers coming from diverse background. Current situation of teacher education in Yugoslavia is presented in this paper. Its main characteristics and difficulties are outlined in relation to 1) the legislation and normative and 2) users needs. After analyzing the current situation, we present an agenda for reform and development that should enable teacher education to respond to the changing needs of Yugoslavia. Throughout the paper we refer to the initial and continuing professional development of history teachers: they are one element in the overall equation.*

Keywords: The National Pattern: Pre-Service, Primary, Elementary, Grammar/Vocational Middle Schools

Pre-Service Teacher Education

Government regulations relevant for teacher education in Yugoslavia cover the whole range of forms in which it exists, differing in accordance with the type of institution involved and diverse course length and contents. Below we outline the five main types of provision.

Teachers for **pre-school** children acquire their education at teacher colleges, the education lasting 2 years with the courses in main three areas:

- General,
- Courses in pedagogy and psychology,
- Different methodologies of particular subject matter teaching covering almost one half of the overall curricula.

Current discussions are being held on expanding the two-year pre-service pre-school teacher education to four years, as we have recently had changes in education of primary school teachers.

Primary school teachers are trained for four years at university level at the Primary School Teacher Faculties. When we analyze the relationships between all course elements, we can see that: there is a kind of balance between

1) so-called 'general' courses (like mathematics, sociology, foreign language),
2) different disciplines in pedagogy and psychology (general pedagogy, child development, educational psychology, didactics, sociology of education) and
3) Different methodologies of particular subject matter teaching related to subject matters included in primary school curricula.

Elementary school teachers for higher grades (5-8), together with **secondary** school teachers, acquire their pre-service educational training in the course of completing university degree in their major subject. For example, teachers of math, history or arts, get their degree at the Faculty of Mathematics, Faculty of Philosophy or Faculty of Arts respectively. As a part of their university education, teacher training varies from faculty to faculty in length, as well as, in structure. It varies, even, inside the same faculty from department to department (i.e., from one professional profile to the other). This diversity is not so much connected with the percentage of students who, after gaining their diploma, become teachers, but more with an implicit predominant professional image that more or less includes teaching as its

component. As a consequence of the whole interplay of circumstances, this group of teachers is the one that gets the least teacher training among all teachers.

For example, being involved in pre-service training of prospective teachers at the Faculty of Philosophy, we have the opportunity to analyze more thoroughly the situation at this Faculty. Prospective history teachers acquire their teacher training as a supplement to their major subject. This part of the education of our students consists of three courses aimed to cover relevant areas extracted from three scientific disciplines:
- Psychology (a potpourri consisted of issues in general, developmental, educational and social psychology);
- Pedagogy (theory of education, history of education, school pedagogy and didactics)
- Methodology of teaching history.

Each of these three courses lasts one school year with two hours per week. After completing a course, students have to pass an exam that is generally oriented towards theoretical knowledge assessment (some exception is methodology of history exam). So, our students acquire their teacher training during three school years, with only one course per year being a supplement to the majority of their major courses. This pattern is obligatory for all history students irrespectively to their future career plans (there is not diversity in the university education of prospective teachers and researchers). After completing whole university program, graduated students are eligible for getting job as history teachers in elementary, grammar schools and middle vocational schools.

This picture can be applied to other faculties that educate great number of prospective teachers like science, mathematics, geography, languages, and physical education... Teacher of arts can get their education at Art College (two years), but their license is adequate for higher grades in elementary schools only.

Teachers of professional subject matters in **middle schools for vocational training** don't acquire any teacher specific training in the pre-service phase.

Special teachers (all levels) for children with disabilities are trained in Faculties of Defectology[1] where they acquire bachelor's degree (4,5 years). For those special teachers who teach an individual subject matter at higher grades of elementary schools and in grammar schools a university degree level in the subject matter is required by law, with supplementary specialist training provided by the Faculty of Defectology. So, if a history teacher wants to apply for a vacancy at special school, s/he will be obliged to undertake this additional training in special needs. But, in practice, it is rarely that this legal requirement is fulfilled in special elementary schools. The majority of subject matter teachers in higher grades of elementary schools are trained in Defectology only.

Teacher pre-service training at a Faculty of Defectology is an integral part of students' training for degree level. Apart from some general and more professionally specific courses covering medical and psychosocial aspects of individual impairment in question, a significant number of classes are targeted at teacher training. For example, these are courses with titles such as:
- Pedagogy of People With...(impairment),
- Psychology of People With...,

[1] This tittle is applied from the old expression "defect" used for the children with mental, sensory and physical disabilities

- Methodology of Teaching Pre-school Children With...
- Methodology of Teaching Elementary School Children With...
- Educational Psychology,
    - Child Development,
    - Introduction to Pedagogy and
    - Adult Education...

The **main features** that can be deduced from this overall picture can be considered in a two dimensional framework:

1. Lack of a unified standard of previous training required for a license to become a teacher
2. Diversity of teacher education provided at different institutions in term of the different emphases put on the teacher-training component (ranging from those institutions where teacher education is the main aim of university education to those who neglect school as a source of employment for their students).

These differences are directly caused by the diversity and lack of standards legally imposed at a national level. Differences are reflected in length of courses, curricula and subject matter, ranging from compulsory elements to the purely optional.

Differences between institutions responsible for teacher education also have some indirect consequences on teacher training itself. There is the issue of education predominantly developed in autonomous individual institutions in charge of training a category of teachers. There are differences in the implicit pedagogy of teachers coming from different institutions, with their differences in aims of teacher training, in the content of education considered to be relevant to fulfill the stated aims and differences in training methods.

Quantitatively the differences between Higher Education courses range from two-thirds of elementary school teachers' courses consisting of teacher training to no teacher training involved in vocational subject teachers.

I

Table 1 TEACHER EDUCATION IN YUGOSLAVIA- PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

Subgroup of teachers	Type of education - institution/length of training	Prevalence of teacher training	Type of knowledge provided in teacher training courses
- Pre-school teachers	2 years teacher college	Domination of teaching preparation courses	Exercising versus academic? Knowledge vs. skills? Declarative vs. procedural knowledge?
- Elementary school teachers for younger ages (grades 1-4.)	4 years university Faculty for Elementary School teacher education	Domination of teaching preparation courses (63,39%)	Exercising versus academic? Knowledge vs. skills? Declarative vs. procedural knowledge?
- Elementary school teachers for higher grades (5-8.) - High school teachers	Faculty of respective major	Teacher training as a supplement (varying from 2,5 to 15,17%)	Academic versus exercising?
- Vocational/secondary school teachers	4-6 university Faculty of Economics, Technical	No teacher pre-service training provided	
- Special teachers	University level - 4,5 years Faculty of Defectology	Teacher training as integral part of University education (varying from 13,54 to 44,95% respectively)	Towards a balance between academic and practical?
University teachers	University postgraduate education	no teacher training	No systematic knowledge

These differences lead to differences in type of skills and knowledge acquired by teachers trained at different institutions: it seems that (as a trend, as we perceive it) there is a correlation between the prevalence of courses and classes devoted to teacher training, from one side, and the type of skills and knowledge the institution provides, from the other. Our hypothesis is that the bigger the part occupied by teacher training in overall studies the greater is the emphasis on practicing; the smaller proportion of teacher training courses in overall university curricula, the greater the emphasis on academic skills and knowledge.

When referring on history teachers, we can poin tot:

- Main emphasis in study plan is on major, teacher training courses being a small component of their studies
- Teacher training is organized through separate discipline-based courses
- Dominant orientation on academic knowledge rather than on professional skills
- Lack of professional practice aimed to school experience acquiring
- Lack of university teachers qualified in history teaching methodology.

In-Service Training

By law, all teachers have to undertake in-service training. But, the organization of in-service training itself is not defined precisely by legal regulations in relation to individual school programs. This leads to wide differences between schools in terms of dealing with in-service training – some of them being very active, the others without any real involvement. Legally, one of the roles of professional teams attached to schools – school pedagogue and/or psychologist – is to organize in-service teacher training. But, we have to have in mind that we have a number of schools without any professional support for their teachers, i.e. without any school psychologist or pedagogue. So, every school creates it's own program for in-service training during the school year. This program has to be approved at the government level. In-Service is delivered through different forms. Thus in some cases individual training (i.e. studying literature), or attending lectures in or out of schools, thematic discussions, courses, training seminars, counseling seminars, symposia, field trips, study journeys and so on.

What happens when a newly graduated history student gets a job at school as a teacher? During the first year s/he has a formally assigned mentor provided to introduce her/his to her/his teaching practice. After this one-year working experience, s/he has to pass an examination called "professional teacher examination", or "state exam" in order to be allowed to continue to teach. This examination is consisted of two compulsory and two 'alternative' separate exams. Two compulsory exams cover curricula:

1) Legislation on education with state constitution and
2) Subject methodology in subject s/he teaches at school.
   The two 'alternative' exams are:
3) Psychology and
4) Pedagogy.

Last two exams are called 'alternative' because they supplement these courses if they are missing in pre-service university education of the novice in question.[2] But, if a teacher took these courses during his or her university studies, s/he is 'released'

[2] This could refer to the teachers who graduated during some short-lasted educational reforms that did not requested them to pass TE courses

from this part at state examination. This requirement also confirms that the system assumes that a teacher needs only a minimal amount of knowledge (without skills, almost) in the areas of psychology and pedagogy.
The only part of this examination aimed at assessing teacher's professional (practical performing) skills is realization of an assigned teaching unit in a real classroom (out of his/her own school, usually).

Even if legal regulations define the whole system of in-service training as obligatory, this 'post-first-year' exam is the only part with mechanisms provided to ensure its realization. The real relation between his/her one-year mentored experience and this final exam is just formal: mentor writes his/her own assessment without any contact with final-exam committee. Mentors are not specially trained for mentoring novices and they are left without any support in this additional task. So, very often, mentor is present just at a formal level. The question here is, can this examination really be considered as teacher professionally oriented, bearing in mind that:

1) it requires of knowledge of state structure, legislation of state system and
2) that there are no other sources than handbook for its preparation.

Even if it is a legal obligation for a teacher to pass this examination, this doesn't mean that there is any systematic organisation of teacher preparation to pass it. There is no indication of what s/he is expected to work on during that one year, how s/he is going to prepare for the assessment or what are the relationships between his/her everyday practice and the assessment itself.

Also, we can question whether it is in-service training at all, when we have in mind that some of the teachers study educational-psychological issues for the first time in their lives. Accordingly they can only get some introductory knowledge (acquired by others on undergraduate level courses). For them this is, actually, a form of postgraduate education aimed to compensate what's missing from undergraduate level, but not an advanced training.

Apart from the weakness of state organised in-service training, in Yugoslavia we have a wide range of provision offered by great number of domestic and foreign NGOs. These in-service training are aimed at improving the practice of different categories of teachers. They differ in aims and contents so that some of them are provided for civic education in general, others being constructed purposefully for teachers. The latter are targeted to compensate for the imbalance between academic knowledge and teaching skills at present embedded in the system of pre- and in-service training, i.e. they are more skills-oriented. These programs are very promising in the term of changes in overall teacher education including changes in aims, methods and curricula contents becoming more relevant for teachers, pupils and their parents. With these programs, we have now a greater diversity of options for each school team that tries to develop improved teacher training programs.

Main Difficulties in Teacher Education

Overall, we can identify at three groups of problems:

1. organisational
2. conceptual
3. social

Organisational
Organisationally, there is a general lack of mechanisms to provide dynamic educational change. Here we have in mind the absence of any mechanism for the identification and recognition of local, grass-root initiatives and their role in the restructuring of the educational system. Local initiatives come from either aware, informed teachers or parents in relation to their children's needs. At present some NGOs may support these initiatives, but before October '2000 CHANGES' they were seldom supported by Minister of Education, at least in Serbia. There were no opportunities to incorporate effective evaluated programs as an element in the system of pre- or in-service training.

Also, we don't have an institutionalized structure dealing with teacher education as its main task. (What is needed is a structure that deals with needs assessment, program coordination, recruitment and support for the training of teachers at all stages). We need provision of a continuous process for improving the system of teacher education.

There is either an absence or a low level of professional training for some groups of teachers (involved in higher grades in primary and in secondary schools)
During their studies, the emphasis is given to their academic subject, but not to their prospective professional teaching roles. The main feature of university curricula is absence of, or short length of courses in pedagogy, psychology and subject methodology. Those faculties that provide some teacher education give a small number of classes, so that they can offer only introductory superficial information, instead of providing a much deeper awareness on educational issues and the acquisition of teaching skills. Here, courses aimed to teacher training are a simple addition to, separated from courses covering their training in their major. There is a:

- Lack of systematic, regulated in-service training for improving professionalism
- Here we refer to the above analysis of in-service training system.
- The connection between pre- and in-service training is strictly formal, so that,
- There is no link between different institutions dealing with training different categories of teachers and their prospective or current job institutions (i.e. link between schools and university is not provided)
- There is no connection between teacher training and a teaching career
- There is no career paths linked to training / professional development.
- No preparation of university teachers for teaching practice (job)

Conceptual difficulties
Some of the problems in teacher education system in our country come from conceptions underlying educational practice in general and implicit theories on teacher roles. These we can list as:

- Lack of generally accepted standards for evaluating teaching practice and for getting license to be a teacher
- Dominance of training teachers to transmit knowledge versus training to facilitate individual construction of their students' knowledge
- Lack of training aimed to building skills and attitudes – We train our teachers more to be a knowledge appliers/technicians instead of self-reflective explorer of his/her own teaching practice. Their education is more academically oriented (with curricula consisted of individual disciplines recognized findings), or else, when practical, simple recipes proceedings.
- Curricula and methods of teacher education are out-of-date

- Lack of research dealing with teacher education issues (we had a recent discussion on teacher education when we had preparatory discussions for expanding primary school teachers' education from colleague to degree level, but without any previous research)
- Legal regulations on education are more based on providing jobs for people coming out of University, than on needs for becoming a good teacher

Social - general situation in the country (socio-economic and value system)
Three elements are concerned:

1) Discrepancy between legislation and practice
2) Overall poverty and low status of education inside it (low income of teachers, low standard of school equipment), that leads to
3) Low motivation of teachers and negative selection of young people who choose teaching for their career

Some of the above listed difficulties could be considered as very factors influencing current situation in education, as well as a consequence of some other factors that are more basic. Therefore, it is sometimes impossible to separate the situation (the difficulty) from causes leading to the situation. If we try to outline the most striking aspects of general social situation influencing teacher education, we should consider:

- wider social context and general characteristics of our society (valuing education and teacher job, social status of teachers as a professional group, context for research in social issues…)
- methodology of organizing our system of education and network of educational institutions (bureaucracy and centralization, current situation at school…)
- -individual and collective initiatives and action (learnt passivity of an individual, belief in external determinism; interplay of individual and group interests and power).

All these circumstances are useful not only for understanding the current situation, but also as a background for identifying new resources and ways of changes. During the year 2001. the discussions at all levels already started about the current situation with a systematic assessment and elaboration of an overall proposal for reform of the educational system reform. Teacher education reform has been recognised as its crucial component. One of the precursors for real change is extensive involvement and respect for the contribution of different groups of participants in the debate: from students, teachers and parents up to the university experts, administrators and government representatives.

Guidelines for an Alternative Teacher Education Model

Given the teacher education system in our country described above, we, as teacher trainers are often challenged to reflect on questions of how to improve what we offer to our students/prospective teachers:

1. What are the objectives of my course?
2. What content to include in course syllabus in order to meet these objectives?
3. What types of knowledge do I expect my students to acquire?
4. How to organize my teaching so to make a connection between pre- and in-service teacher education?
5. How to prepare prospective teachers to act in a whole range of situations they might face?

6. How to educate teachers to become promoters of education system reform, instead of its obstacle?

All these questions can be clustered around topics arising from what is our image of a good teacher: good technician, his/her knowledge applier or creator and researcher? The preferred model leads to a solution for the basic dilemma of what knowledge we expect our students to acquire: more academic, concept-oriented knowledge about the iissues relevant for teaching profession or building skills and attitudes covering the diversity of needs and alive classroom situations? Being a pedagogist and a psychologist by background, we also face a dillema how to build a share discourse with our history students so to bridge our differences in type of our education? How to bulid a network of their knowledges in history and psychology-pedagogy? How to support our students in their professional identity development so to strengten teacher, rather than historian part of it? How to teach prospective history teachers to teach history as a multicultural course, how to teach them to teach their pupils in muticultural values and tolerance?

Reflection on these dilemma, together with the opportunity to get to know more about alternative, different programs has fostered an authentic motivation to change our own practice. These dilemmas are the ones we as teacher trainers face, but they are shared by all those concerned with securing good teacher education, and, in general, good teaching.

At present circumstance to not allow us to create a structured model of teacher education. What we can do is to discuss some principle guidelines for approaching the issue and about some of our experiences in leading teacher training courses that we have organized and implemented in a different, alternative way. The starting point for this new approach to teacher education lies in re-exploring and, when possible, redefining the aims, curricula and methods of teacher education in an interactive framework as opposed to traditional, prescriptive manner. This alternative framework means a different relationship between teacher practice at school and teacher training (preparation) for this practice; different roles for teachers and different types of classroom dynamics both in teacher training courses and in (prospective) teacher work at school.

Aims

Our aim is not to train students/prospective teachers to become expert in lecturing, knowledge transmitting and assessing, nor to become (at least not only) “curriculum consumers”. We want them to learn how to become professionals, capable to take an active attitude toward their own practice and open to continuous reflecting this practice. This means continuous re-examining of one’s own teaching aims in relationship with planed curricula and active teaching methods.

Contents of the framework

In the term of the course content selected as relevant for prospective teachers, we argue that teacher trainers (as well as all teachers) have to have in mind significance, not only of ‘knowledge about’ scientific issues relevant to the given subject matter, but also, the importance of re-examining and building prospective teacher’s attitudes toward theoretical knowledge and practical issues. To do so we need to include in our curricula some of the issues neglected in current system: self-assertiveness, empathy, attitudes, communication skills, cultural diversity, tolerance, human and children rights awareness, meaning of multiculturalism in education, problem identifying and stating, openness to new ideas and attitude changes, community work. All of these elements are selected in accordance with stated aims, and do not represent list of themes as structured facets of curricula. They should rather be

considered as areas in what we would like to help our students to: construct personally relevant meanings and attitudes that will have a dynamic power and influence their behavior in their future teaching career, and, develop skills necessary to deal with problems and challenges in their everyday practice.

In short, we argue that what prospective teachers need to acquire in their pre-service training is not declarative 'knowledge about', but a practice-oriented network of knowledge together with the readiness and capacity to act in accordance with this knowledge.

Methods

In order to realize out stated aims, to develop desired meanings and skills in our students/prospective teachers, we try to use teaching methods that are more promising in terms of influencing their personality and attitudes than the previous system. These are active teaching methods, particularly workshops using experiential learning as the main type of learning. Teaching methods that we have had the opportunity to master and implement in our in-service programs are based on trainees' own experiences and problems they had detected. Since our students, prospective teachers, do not have teaching experiences, simulation games and role-playing are emphasised in our activities. Using this active teaching methods, we provide students/teachers with the opportunity to learn the method of teaching through direct experience, together with the facets of knowledge/skill involved as a workshop topic. In doing so, teacher trainer shares her/his own meanings and skills with her students in accordance with her/his stated pedagogical principles.

An example from our own research on classroom interaction gave us the evidence that over 70% teacher of classroom behavior was lecturing, i.e. verbal instruction in the form of one-way information giving. If we criticize this type of teaching practice in our course and describe strategies teachers can implement to increase pupil's active participation, this is going to remain as a declarative statement only. But, if we organize our course in the form of workshop, and assign students the task to try to find possible ways to increase pupils' initiative and active participation in the classroom, we can expect with higher probability that our students, once in a classroom, will try to foster their pupils' participation since: they've got experiential evidence that this is meaningful.

They have learned the method to make it real. Of course, we can't consider methods separately from aims and course content. Both aims and course content depend on the methods we choose. Our selection of methods is contingent upon our aims and orientation in content selection. It is a rather complex dynamic network of double binds.

Benefits

In the light of the above-proposed new aims, contents and methods in teacher education model, we describe a number of our experiences of implementing this model with our students/teachers. Our experiences are, for now, limited to parts of our two courses – pedagogy and psychology – on pre-service level and some in-service teacher training programs. The evaluation data provided us with a list of the main benefits participants gained from active learning methods and seminar contents like:

- changes in their perception of the teaching profession in general
- changes in attitudes towards pupils' needs, rights and entitlement
- better communication skills

- mastering of new methods and forms of practice as well as
- successful strategies for motivating pupils
- improvement of co-operation with parents, colleagues and community in general
- enrichment of and redefining their own goals (the goals are not referred to cognitive only, but they expanded to socio-emotional, group dynamics management, and so on)
- rising awareness on the need to build a critical attitude towards the authority of the institution and the habit of continuing re-exploring it
- Changes in personal qualities and values towards flexibility, non-directiveness, openness, responsibility, tolerance and personal commitments.

Both, students and teachers felt that these training programs contributed to increasing their confidence, efficacy in their decision-making processes, openness to changes and recognizing other's needs, their optimism and readiness to act, readiness to explore themselves critically (their attitudes and practice), accepting one's own responsibility, tolerance to uncertainty.

We, as trainers/course leaders shared with our trainees a satisfaction and joy with the new programs compared to the traditional ones, opportunities to exchange our experiences in a new and more relevant way that this new approach provides.

Suggestions to Trainers

The ideas we have presented for the reform of teacher education is one of many possibilities. We do not argue that colleagues should accept our approach as a prescription to be used in every context, but as a framework for both overall orientation and elements a teaching or teacher training program (course).

Each individual course should be a programme for action, with different outcomes in different contexts. Each course would encompass diverse groups of creators/participants, students/prospective teachers, and teacher trainers/course leaders… Most important for the teacher educator is to develop a procedure of continuous training assessment, self-monitoring and reflecting his/her own work. To do so, one can:

- take notes on his/her own observation, impressions, feelings, experiences;
- ask students about their expectations at the beginning of the course
- ask students to make their comments, express their ideas freely
- ask students to evaluate newly acquired knowledge and skills, their feelings in relation to their expectation
- ask students to express freely their assessments of contents (themes, topics, issues), methods and outcomes (their personal profits, changes)
- get involved in a team work with some colleagues covering related subject matter
- video-tape classroom events
- Keep in touch with former students – now working as teachers – and monitor unmet needs – what they feel now had not been met during the training…

These are changes in teacher training practice one could make inside the system described, in spite of obstacles given in the first part of this paper that are part of the macro context we work and live in. Teacher trainers should be leaders of, and agents of change, in building more active attitude towards some aspects of the teaching context, through:

1) taking the initiative to build a closer connections between subject matter courses (major) and teacher education courses

2) overcoming de-contextualized character of the current teacher education itself
3) changing the relationship between school and university (establishing connections and co-operation)
4) undertaking activities leading to awareness of the need for increasing role of teacher education courses in University studies plan

Concerned and conscious teacher educators will find other opportunities than those listed for taking new initiatives that lead to small step-by-step changes of the quality of teacher education as well as bigger ones. S/he will be continuously researching or fostering how his/her students undertake research aimed to identify new ways forward. Finally, s/he will be continuously searching for any resources to develop new policies in teacher education aimed at the improvement of the wider social context so to provide higher quality of educational system in general.

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History Curricula from Around the World for the 21st Century

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Abstract: *History curricula from around the world are extremely varied yet share many common features. A central concern is education for citizenship, both in terms of national identity and the development of the values, attitudes, knowledge and understanding and thinking skills to participate. History curricula actively respond to the particular circumstances of the countries concerned, particularly where society is in a rapid state of transition and faces serious challenges and problems.*

Keywords: History curricula, Nationalism, Pluralism, Skills and processes, Citizenship, Assessment

Introduction

The History Education Centre at the School of Education, University of Exeter, recently carried out a survey of history curricula. The survey aimed to sample a representative set of curricula frameworks from around the world, with as many contrasting and complementary models as possible. We also aimed to identify general factors that shaped the form and functioning of the history curricula concerned. Interestingly, and rather depressingly, from the English perspective was the finding that in all the countries sampled history played a role in the curriculum until the end of compulsory schooling. All countries in our sample except for the USA had a form of a National Curriculum. The USA system of state control – a federal pattern, allows for diversity and the exercise of local democratic management. However, there is a system of advisory national standards that each state takes into consideration when forming its own curriculum. Similarly, the German pattern is federal, with the individual states i/c their regional education system.

Research Design

There were three main sources of information: a questionnaire that we issued, appendix one, the internet and correspondence with individuals, institutions and the governments' education departments agencies. Also we carried out a literature review. We obtained extensive data from the following countries, with ten fully completed questionnaires:

1 France
2 Ireland
3 Japan
4 Netherlands
5 New Zealand
6 Northern Ireland
7 Norway
8 Peru
9 Romania
10 Russia
11 South Africa
12 Spain
13 USA

For each country we produced a small-scale case study, analysing our data under these headings:

- Curricular principles,
- Curriculum control, i.e. national, regional; centralised and diffused
- Integration – from 'weak' through to 'strong' integration with other subjects
- Citizenship
- Sustainable development – the 'global village' perspective
- Cultural awareness and development
- Spiritual, moral and socal development
- Cross curricularity in terms of ICT and Literacy
- Key skills and thinking skills
- Assessment
- + any other points of possible interest

Curricular principles
Underlying principles for creating and structuring the curricula clustered around two poles: the *factual, substantive content* of the curriculum, i.e. the body of knowledge and understanding pupils should acquire, and the *modes of thinking that* the subject develops: its skills and procedures, the syntactic dimension. In terms of personal development, students' beliefs, attitudes, values and behaviours are an outcome of the interplay between the substantive and the syntactic.

The substantive, factual dimension
Substantive knowledge covers a discipline's conceptual framework for structuring, organising and expressing understanding, its substantive concepts that frame historical discourse and its semantic network of linked, discrete items of information. A consistent theme for all curricula was the substantive role of history in the development of pupils' identities, both individually and socially. The cultural and heritage dimensions were present in the aims and objectives of all the curricula. Implicit were the curriculum framers' perceptions of their own nation states, both historically and currently. History Education's content, i.e. factual knowledge and understanding, had a clear aim in terms of the orientation of citizens towards both their own society and the international community. Here history plays an explicitly political role. Important for the curricular framers were perceptions of the nature and role of the individual within society. What were the personal attributes that each citizen would develop through the learning of history? i.e. what thinking skills and problem solving skills that a citizen needed would history foster? what kind of inter-personal skills? Overall, what kind of citizen would strengthen the polity that the curriculum presented? A model citizen for a totalitarian, single-party state is very different from a model citizen for a democratic society. As such, the history curriculum is an overtly political construct. The New Zealand curriculum pulls no punches:

> The school curriculum, through its practices and procedures, will reinforce the commonly held values of individual and collective responsibility which underpin New Zealand's democratic society. These values include honesty, reliability, respect for others, respect for the law, tolerance (rangimarie), fairness, caring or compassion (aroha), non-sexism and non-racism.
> The school curriculum will encourage students to understand and respect the different cultures which make up New Zealand society. It will ensure that the experiences, cultural traditions, histories, and languages of all New Zealanders are recognised and valued. It will acknowledge the place of Pacific Islands

> communities in New Zealand society, and New Zealand's relationships with the peoples of Asia and the South Pacific.

The role of History in educating pupils for participation in a pluralistic and democratic society received heaviest emphasis in the Northern Ireland and South African curricula. An American curriculum from Massachusetts took an holistic view of the citizen, encompassing the cultural dimension:

> The goal of a history and social science curriculum is to enable students by systematic study to acquire the knowledge, skill, and judgment to continue to learn for themselves; to participate intelligently, justly, and responsibly in civic life, and in deliberation about local, national, and international issues; and to avail themselves of historical and cultural resources - historic sites, museums, parks, multimedia information sources - wherever they may live or travel.

The Norwegian curriculum is built about the centrality of spiritual, moral and social development. During the 16-18 phase of the Dutch curriculum the stress is upon personal development and citizenship.

The political role of history was highlighted in societies in transition, particularly where their transition had an immediate impact upon their educational system, e.g. Romania, Russia, and S. Africa. A new or different national identity explicitly required a new and different history curriculum. Curricular perceptions of the state varied greatly, ranging from a predominantly nationalistic orientation to a clear international perspective and focus.

The national perspective had very different emphases. In Japan the aim was that pupils should acquire a respect for Japanese history and tradition. The teaching of history in Russia also focused upon national history within a world context, very much a continuation of the Soviet pattern. The Massachusetts syllabus also had a clear focus upon the development of the U.S.A. as a nation up to modern times, related / embedded in a traditional view of Greco-Roman civilisation. The Romanian syllabus had a European orientation, homing in upon Romanian history per se only during the final year of study. However, this was in the overall Romanian context of a syllabus that ‘inculcates love for the country, for the Romanian people’s history and traditions.’

Internationalism and pluralism were a much stronger feature of the New Zealand, Norwegian and South African curricula. Internationalism focuses upon placing national history within a wider international framework, pluralism examines the complementary, equal and different roles of discrete ethnic, religious and social groups within society. Romania is introducing the history of the European Union as an element in its High School History Curriculum – perhaps an interesting link between the political nation’s zeitgeist and the curriculum. The South African example is the most extreme in terms of pluralism. Divorced from its historical context: history has disappeared, being part of an Objectives Based Outcomes curriculum built around a ‘model’ of the new, post Apartheid S.African society and citizen, Here we have the anaesthetised past, it is too painful, and even, perhaps, too dangerous, to be an element in the national curriculum. The international dimension in terms of studying and learning from other cultures was a feature of the Irish and Norwegian curricula.

Family, community, regional, national and international perspectives It is simplistic to pigeonhole a curriculum into a national or international category. There was a diversity of models, covering the family, local, community, regional, national and international perspectives. The Irish curriculum’s has a concentric pattern. It

involves a ‘study a range of people and events in the past in order to develop a balanced understanding of family, local, national and world history’, The Irish emphasised the role of the community: pupils should ‘learn about the people, events, issues and cultural experiences which have helped to shape the local community and the environment’. In Northern Ireland a framework curriculum that enabled each community/sector/interest to present their own interpretations of the past had a clear social dimension in two of its educational themes – Education for Mutual Understanding and Cultural Heritage, and in the syntactic skills and processes dimension of their history curriculum. The New Zealand curriculum also moves from the local to the world stage, with relevance to New Zealand being a criterion for topic selection.

Modes of Thinking – The Syntactic Dimension: Skills, Processes and Procedural Concepts

Most of the curricula have a skills and processes dimension, but the emphasis placed upon it differs. The South African curriculum uses generic skills and processes as the basis for its Outcomes Based Education curriculum. As such, it has no overtly historical procedural framework. The revised Irish curriculum has a very strong emphasis upon promoting a full range of skills and processes in the study of History as a domain/discipline, resulting in the development of the following concepts:

- Time and chronology
- Change and continuity
- Cause and effect
- Using evidence
- Synthesis and communication
- Empathy

New Zealand provides a detailed, progressive, integrated framework for the enquiry process. The Romanian syllabus also had a strong syntactic side to its syllabus and using specialised vocabulary.

Constructivism – Netherlands The Netherlands curriculum is explicitly rooted in a constructivist, even a subjective/post-modern view of historical knowledge. ‘Since we can study the past only in an indirect way, by means of sources from the past and about the past, the emphasis is, by definition in the case of historical knowledge and understanding, on the formation of an image’.

Curriculum Design

There were three main curricular patterns. *a] chronological pattern* – very common, with moving forward in time from pre-history to the present. *b] framework Curriculum* Content is given as simple headings covering major themes or periods. Selection and interpretation is left to the teacher, and./or to groups as teachers representing different and even conflicting viewpoints. The Northern Irish curriculum has this pattern – interestingly, this seems to have diffused the political bombshell lurking below the surface. In New Zealand there is a prescribed list of topics, then freedom to choose in accordance with selection criteria. *c] Chronological outlines +depth studies +choice of areas – themes and topics:* There were many different patterns here.

Curriculum control, i.e. national, regional; centralised, diffused
The countries surveyed had a range of patterns. One problem is that it is not easy to see whether there was a central, national system of enforcement in place, such as exists in England via OFSTED [Office for Standards in Education] , to monitor implementation and to ensure that the curriculum is taught in accordance to the government's decrees. In New Zealand there is a system of internal assessment / moderation by internal assessment panels.

If we accept that de facto assessment drives the taught curriculum, then the Norwegian model is interesting. Here assessment for the 15-17 age range is locally produced, in accordance with central guidelines. New Zealand has a mixed system of monitored internal assessment and external examination.

Integration
Four curricula from Northern Ireland, Norway, New Zealand and South Africa have contrasting models of integration. The spectrum ranges from 'weak' to 'strong' integration. At the weak end subjects retain their identity and are correlated / combined in terms of common and overlapping areas of content, skills, processes and concepts: both substantive and syntactic. Strong integration sees a curriculum built around concepts, skills and processes – the subjects lose their identity completely.

Northern Ireland The political background is the defining, determining, driving element in the shaping of the Northern Ireland curriculum. Within the current curriculum there is a major stress on Education for Mutual Understanding. The Northern Ireland Council for the Curriculum, Examinations and Assessment (CCEA) had been reviewing the whole curriculum and came out with a document of recommendations in 1999, seeking phased implementation in 2001. The document supports 'education for democratic citizenship'

Norway Norway includes History as one of three elements in a carefully planned, progressive Social Studies Scheme for the ten years of compulsory schooling. Social Studies is treated as a discrete subject: the three academic disciplines of History, Geography and Social Sciences contribute sharply defined and different elements to an holistic Social Studies concept. The local community dimension to the curriculum is a central feature. Active participation in school affairs through the pupil council and other cooperative bodies makes school work in a broader sense an important feature of training in Social Studies.

New Zealand Over-riding concerns are the promotion of multi-culturalism and the thinking and understanding required in a plural, democratic society.

- Social Studies is a major vehicle for promoting multiculturalism
- It supports the development of conceptual understanding needed to understand the developments that have resulted in the modern world
- It develops the skills and processes required to understand the basis upon which statements about society are based

South Africa The South African government has introduced an Objectives Based Outcomes Curriculum 2005. It divides into eight learning areas. Each is targeted upon a set of skills/processes, concepts and related substantive knowledge. History falls into the Human and Social Sciences area. The Human and Social Sciences [HSS] rationale does not specifically mention history. In fact, no 'traditional' subjects can be mentioned within this system.

HSS is the study of relationships between people and between people and their environment; develops distinctive skills and a critical awareness of social and environmental patterns, processes and events, based on appropriate investigations and reflection within and across related focuses, Concepts are linked to various outcomes. Thus outcome 1 (the SA history outcome) incorporates change over time, change and continuity.
Outcome 2 (dealing with patterns of social development) mentions patterns of similarities and differences between societies

Citizenship
Education for citizenship is central to all the curricula reviewed. It is explicit, up front and focused in societies that are in a period of rapid change and development, particularly if they are moving from a 'totalitarian' to a 'democratic' form of government. However, different societies interpret 'citizenship' differently, and accordingly we can recognise two main citizenship 'clusters' of outcomes, one linked to the qualities of thinking that individuals and groups should exercise as citizens, the other to national identity. Qualities cover:

- tolerance, respect and understanding of others
- informed judgment and understanding needed to exercise responsible citizenship in an informed and sound manner [this covers the whole range of thinking skills / processes [Ireland, Northern Ireland, New Zealand, Norway, Romania, South Africa]

In South Africa Curriculum 2005 stressed the citizenship goal.

General aims: To contribute to:

- the personal development of pupils
- the development of a sense of citizenship
- the development of positive values and attitudes
- the development of an understanding and appreciation of their heritage and that of other people and cultures
- their understanding of the unique nature of individuals and events
- their understanding of history as an academic discipline and the intellectual skills and perspectives that such a study encompasses.'

to develop responsible citizens in a culturally diverse, democratic society

National Identity was a strong feature of the curricula for Ireland, Japan, Peru, Romania, Russia and the USA. Citizenship plays a major role in the French curriculum. Located within a framework that encompasses both History and Geography," Education Civique" is nonetheless examined as a separate subject. It aims, at Secondary level to address issues such as "What are the rights of the Citizen?" "Debates about Democracy" and "The organisation of the State". Notably it attempts to locate these issues within the notion of France as a plurality. The Dutch History curriculum is explicit in addressing citizenship issues,

The pupils should know some principal issues relating to the constitution and the role of citizens in it. These include at least:
- Municipal government;
- The National government: First and Second Chambers;
- The significance of the monarchy in the Netherlands;

- The Kingdom of the Netherlands;
- European administration;
- The police;
- The judicial system

Sustainable Development – the 'global village' perspective
There was widespread acknowledgment in the curricula of the importance of the environment, both in terms of each country and globally. New Zealand has culture and heritage and place and environment as two of its five Social Studies curriculum's strands. The Dutch, Irish and Norwegian curricula are also explicit.The Irish curriculum gives the fullest acknowledgment.

Ireland
- to foster sensitivity to the impact of conservation and change within local and wider environments [Ireland]
- learn about the people, events, issues and cultural experiences which have helped to shape the local community and the environment
- develop a sense of responsibility for, and a willingness to participate in, the preservation of heritage.

Assessment

If we accept that the assessment system can shape and determine the form and nature of classroom teaching and learning, then it has a key role in any curriculum development. Our case-studies covered a diverse range of practices, both in terms of the form of assessment and the locus of control, from teachers and parents through to centralised management and administration of the whole process. Assessment can take different forms: of interest may be oral assessment used in Holland and Norway and multiple choice testing in America. New Zealand is introducing a form of profiling.

Different countries also laid different emphasis upon formative, summative and diagnostic assessment. There were a wide variety of assessment patterns, with varying stress on the importance of internal assessment, different perceptions about the importance of providing formative assessment and a variety of ages at which external examination is considered necessary.

Overwhelmingly, the main purpose of the written examination seems to be to test factual re-call. In Japan this is not problematic. The aim of the History curriculum is to impart knowledge which will be tested by multiple choice questions. Consequently a fifty-minute lecture by the teacher with no student response required is the norm. However, in other countries there is a clear mismatch between the objectives of the curriculum and the means of assessing achievement. In Massachusetts we are told that 'students will acquire the ability to frame questions that can be answered by historical study and research; to collect, evaluate, and employ information from primary and secondary sources'. Yet the state-administered tests for Grade 5 and Grade 10 consist for the most part of multiple choice questions, with a few limited 'open response' questions. The Irish Junior Certificate syllabus espouses 'skills essential to the research and writing of history' yet there is no course work component or oral examination and the written examination does not ask students to analyse or evaluate source material. The same applies to the Leaving Certificate.

One exception is the Netherlands, where for the 16 - 18 syllabus a variety of assessment methods are allowed and a piece of historical research is obligatory.

In New Zealand the National Certificate of Educational Achievement Levels being introduced from 2002 onwards, will be a full and detailed statement of a student's achievements, based on internal and external assessments. This will clearly be a summative document, but it will also give a meaningful profile of a student's achievements that can inform the next phase of their life.

Conclusion

The analysis of the contrasting history curricula from around the world has illuminated many aspects of history teaching. The overwhelming conclusion is that the history curriculum is a political construct: it is seen as a central and essential element in education for membership of a modern state. The curriculum controllers view of that state determines the shape and form of the history curriculum, although in the post 1989 world following the collapse of the Soviet System there is a consensus that we are educating for participation in a democratic society, however that might be defined.

Biographical details

Jon Nichol is head of history at the School of Education and Life Long Learning, University of Exeter. The main theme throughout his career has been to make history an engaging, lively, stimulating and rewarding subject for children of all ages. Consequently he has been engaged for over 25 years in curriculum research and development, covering subjects as diverse as Gaming and Simulation, Literacy and ICT while running a sequence of projects that cover the 5-19 age range.

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Changing Professional Practice, Training Balkan History Educators to Become Agents of Change

Joke van der Leeuw-Roord, Executive Director EUROCLIO

Abstract: *Essential is the long term role of history education in providing a back cloth to the development of plural democracies. Nowhere is this more starkly illustrated than in societies moving rapidly from one political system to another predicated upon diametrically opposed principles. The Balkans provide an object lesson for the importance of history education: here we see a heady brief of nationalism, socialism and tribalism being decanted into new democratic bottles. The long-term hope of such societies lies in changing the values, beliefs and attitudes of its citizenry. One element in this equation is the educational system, within which history education plays as big a role as it did under communism.*

Keywords: Professional Development, Balkans, History Teaching, Teacher Training, Inservice

Introduction

History has provided Europe and therefore also the Balkans with a wide range of more serious and dangerous controversial and sensitive issues: wars, disputable behaviour of politicians, deportations, slavery, slack moral attitudes, bombardments of innocent people, imperialism, ethnic cleansing, shoa, collaboration with occupying forces, religious intolerance, refugees and war crimes. Issues, which are interpreted quite contrasting by different people, nations and countries. These issues still play an important role in the everyday life of many. This history does not belong to the past; it is every day reality.

A major characteristic for the learning and teaching of history in the Balkans, in Europe and beyond is the distinct focus on national history. Within the national history, the perspective of the national majority group is dominant in history education. There is little place for ethnic, linguistic nor religious minorities and even gender history does not play a significant role. However even when history educators broaden their national focus, their international perspective is mostly coloured by national priorities.

In many, mostly Eastern European, countries the courses for school history are divided in a course on national and a course on European or world history. The national history course is often considered more important. School history presents *national mirrors of pride and pain*, in which pupils are made aware firstly of national sufferings and secondly of credits to national pride. The damage done to others and the mere fact that others can even have been victims of one's own country or the national majority group, are issues, which hardly feature in history curricula or textbooks. And what happened to *others* and is not part of *our past* does also not concern us at all, and is therefore not included.

The clear dominance on national history in school history makes that also Balkan pupils are made aware of an interesting selection of national issues. As a result they leave school with a biased picture of the past. They carry this representation of the past into their future life and in their turn pass it on to later generations. In such way historical myths and other untrue representations of the past have long lives.

The learning and teaching of history is politics

Writing new curricula for history is a highly political and sensitive issue in society. In many countries we find rather political aims for the learning and teaching of history such as raising awareness for national heritage, creating patriots and lawful, critical and/or democratic

citizens and developing national identity. And when history education is discussed media and politicians focus always on the lack of knowledge of pupils (and the general public) of especially national heroes, events or data. Neither media nor politicians do question the long-term negative effects of such national approach in history education nor do they question the educational needs of young people. Such questions do not serve short term political interests.

The role of EUROCLIO

As soon as EUROCLIO, the European Standing Conference of History Teachers' Associations, started its activities in 1993, it was confronted with the uneasy relationships between Europeans who knew their national histories very well: the history educators of Europe. Therefore EUROCLIO's policy has been to face these national pasts with its sensitive and controversial issues in a European context and to look for ways ahead in assisting history educators in Europe to introduce young people to a complex, multidimensional past.

EUROCLIO has worked very hard to create *mutual trust* among the history educators in Europe by bringing them to gather and inviting them to share experience and inspire each other. *It has started an active discussion among history educators about what should be taught; why those events, dates and persons should be taught and how such history could be taught.* As a result topics where also ordinary people, bystanders, women, minorities and other *others* from the past become more visible, are now elements in history curricula in many European countries.[i]

History is interpretation

There is a growing belief among history educators in Europe that the learning and teaching of history is far more than a national biased account. History is an interpretation and we should not hide this fact from school children. We do not believe that history is identical with the past, our historical knowledge is culturally filtered. It is a selective reconstruction of the past and an interpretation of what has happened. Each person and each time have other interpretations about what happened in the past.

However the wide introduction of the concept interpretation in school history is still hindered by the strong belief among some leading academic historians that through careful research an objective historical truth can be discovered. In such an approach, authorised versions of well-known academics or even state-approved accounts are considered to be the true story/narrative of the past. Such an approach hardly considers that only a reasoned account of the facts makes sense, and that this reasoning always leads to a (personal) interpretation. That others disagree with such interpretations is at its best ignored however often just considered as mistaken or false.

In modern history *education we aim to help young people know and understand the world in which they live and the forces, movements and events which have shaped that world*. Or to give the answer to the question: *How have we got to where we are now?* However many educators also feel that the way they answer this question has repercussions for the future of a younger generation. By presenting this past they also consider questions as *what do my pupils need to know from the past to live in the future and what message will be meaningful for a person living in the 21st century?*

In short we envisage an approach to the learning and teaching of history, which develops the pupils understanding that different interpretations of the past, develop or construct different understanding of the present and influence different options for the future.

Innovative topics for school history in the Balkans

The learning and teaching of history in Europe, and this counts also for the Balkans, generally follows a strict chronological order and present the past from pre-historical times to the end of the 20th century. The *darker side of European history* is well represented. Most topics do not promote any sense of European unity. As a Rumanian historian wrote, 'Europe, with the exception of Ancient Greece, is always seen in terms of conflict, war and rivalry between countries'. This fact has fuelled a debate among history educators if history could not introduce alternative topics and more thematic approaches. It is possible to move school history from the traditional national approach to more common experiences, however respecting diversity. This diversity means highlighting different ethnic groups, nationalities, religions, languages and dialects, different cultures, customs, lifestyles and traditions and the plurality of local and regional loyalties but it also means emphasising conflicts, nationalism, xenophobia, intolerance, genocide and ethnic 'cleansing'.

Topics such as environment, political life, migration, technological and scientific developments and urbanisation can be taught from a wider perspective, such as the perspective of neighbours, the perspective of the whole of the Balkans or even the perspective of the whole of Europe. The Council of Europe Teachers Handbook *Teaching 20th-century European History* developed by Bob Stradling gives possible suggestions for alternative themes and approaches[ii].

However we have to be aware that expanding the amount of topics for school history could lead to a further increase of information in the history textbooks and lessons. The problem for school history is not so much to make a choice about what should be taught but more about what should be left out. Teachers complain already constantly about the lack of time to cover all curriculum demands. And EUROCLIO research has recently demonstrated that the time allocated to history in schools is everywhere in Europe under pressure[iii]. Therefore the problem of curriculum selection will become an even more pressing problem in the future. In this case we need a *qualitative* not a *quantitative* change. Too much information makes history boring. Pupils should be able to digest the history lessons and even more important they should like it and become more and more interested.

History is learning

The work of EUROCLIO always focuses on innovative, meaningful and effective ways of learning and teaching of history. It came out that in problematic or painful national situations as well as for complex, sensitive and sometimes even troublesome international levels, a focus on innovative methodology or ways of learning and teaching is helpful. Such innovative methods of learning offer possibilities for a more complex understanding of history.
In countries and regions with a more sensitive past, there is therefore now a natural relationship between history and civic education. Traditionally the work of history educators had no purpose to decrease the differences or even tensions between countries or regions. History education is too often misused for aims which have very little to do with the learning of young people. However the modern approaches, which favour development, acquisition and applications of democratic values and techniques of democratic practice are now the focal points in the work of history educators. These are still political objectives and therefore such strategies aim on a history education that can contribute to a better understanding among peoples. However these strategies also aim on a more effective learning process.

Multiperspective approaches, interactive learning methods, working with sources and different interpretations have recently appeared in many Balkan history curricula. The teaching and learning of history which aims to develop pupils' critical thinking and their capacity for individual inquiry is a methodological development, acknowledged by many specialists. Students should learn to develop critical attitudes to historical facts and evidence.

All these changes are tightly connected with the general process of educational reform, which takes place everywhere in the Balkans and beyond.

The EUROCLIO project *Understanding a Shared Past, Learning for the Future*

We found out that teachers in the Balkan, as everywhere else in Europe, are eager to learn about modern teaching practises. A recent example how EUROCLIO contributes to the process of implementation of innovative content and methods on classroom level is a Dutch sponsored Stability Pact Project called *Understanding a Shared Past, Learning for the Future*. This 3-year project develops a Teachers Handbook under the title *Change and Continuity in Everyday Life in Albania, Bulgaria and Macedonia* on the learning and teaching of contemporary history. The handbook will look at the impact of political, social/economical and cultural life on the inhabitants of each country, including the linguistic, ethnic and religious minorities. The handbook will be available in three languages and will be send to each secondary school in Albania, Bulgaria and Macedonia.[iv] In the year 2003 the project management will organise at least 9 teacher-training seminars to disseminate the Handbook and to implement its strategies. The Project core-group exists of 8 history educators and university teachers from each country advised by specialists from Denmark, Latvia, Portugal and the Netherlands. It is perhaps interesting to realise that before the project, history educators from the three countries had never met, and therefore knew nothing about each other systems and approaches. Even the Albanian and Macedonian history educators within Macedonia had hardly ever contacted each other.

Such history projects require very intensive work. People are trained in modern approaches and have to read new historical Balkan literature, also from abroad. They have to carry out research work in public and family archives, to find suitable multiperspective source materials for their topics. They have to prepare the materials for classroom level and they have to develop assignments, questions and tasks, which foster critical thinking and independent learning approaches.

The project participants are therefore invited to participate in local and international seminars and conferences related to their work. They have already participated in conferences and seminars in the project region and in Austria, Norway, Estonia, Rumania and Germany. We also co-operate with other actors in the field of history education in the region as the Georg Eckert Institute, Kultur Kontakt, the Joint History Project and others. The donor has just given permission to an extension of the project. The history curriculum of Albania will undergo a revision in the coming years in order to assist the implementation process of new content and approaches.

However more is being done in the Balkans in relation to history education. The Council of Europe and EUROCLIO have together organised this year a series of teacher training seminars in Albania, Serbia and Macedonia and hope to be able to organise more activities in the coming year. We also co-operate with EUSTORY, the European Students Competition network, and have organised a teacher-training seminar in Bulgaria in the end of November. In July EUROCLIO has participated in intense history teacher-training course in Rumania, carried out by the Centre Education 2000+. All these activities primarily focus on the methodology of active learning and teaching history. From October 2001 till June 2002 members of EUROCLIO will carry out 4 history teacher training in-service seminars in Yugoslavia, which also aim to set up a independent History Teachers Association. For the coming years we look for further intensifying our work in Bosnia, Kosovo, Croatia and Rumania.

Final Remarks

History educators in the Balkans show a growing awareness that school history should largely focus on the intellectual and personal development of young people, that school history should help young people to understand the present and that school history should contribute to their preparation for the future. A vital component for such learning and teaching of history is applying innovative approaches and methods. This viewpoint is hardly contradicted by any modern history educator.

Although this principle is the basis of most of the current history curricula in the Balkans, far too little is done to implement this point of departure in practical classroom instruments
If pupils need to adopt a critical attitude towards historical facts, evidence and interpretation and have to apply thinking processes essential for democratic attitudes, teachers need to be supported in their efforts to change their teaching strategies. Teachers have to be trained in practical methods and have to be supported by materials, which enables them to apply these new strategies in the learning and teaching of history.

In most Balkan countries little is done to make a move from curriculum theory to classroom practice, as practical expertise and money for implementation strategies are often lacking. National educational authorities should together with local and international agents of change talk to possible donors and convince them of the need to support the implementation of innovative working strategies. A learning and teaching of history, which fosters open and democratic attitudes, is an important tool to create a more peaceful Balkans environment.

However one participant of this years EUROCLIO Annual Conference in Tallinn wrote that that conference showed *'how much of the traditional history is maintained, in all progress that is made, for instance by shifting to teaching skills. Real innovation is, I was convinced already before the conference but now more than ever, a shift in focus'*…. And he is right. Without this change of focus, which means extending the content of history education to local minority groups, which means shifting from the national to a wider perspective and which means respecting various viewpoints and interpretations, nothing will change.
Politicians in the Balkan have to take their responsibilities and accept the new curriculum approaches for history. The politicians should be aware that the way they understand the past is coloured by national and therefore biased interpretations. Slogans based on such interpretations are perhaps popular during elections however they do not contribute to a modern and more reconciled Balkan environment as such slogans might cause internal and external tensions. The EUROCLIO approach for history education in Europe and so also in the Balkans is only possible when the local politicians, media and educational authorities fully support this shift of focus.

For us the aims for the learning and teaching of history in schools is to foster the pupils understanding that everything and everybody has a (his) story, that these stories are told from certain backgrounds and points of view and that they do not necessarily merge. That there is not a single truth, that there is often not even a clear right and wrong however, sometimes there is an unmistakable good or bad. We want that pupils acquire some understanding of the recurring patterns and the dynamics of change, which have shaped the (Balkan) past. We want that pupils leave school with an understanding that a complex present is related to a complex past. And that also for their future it is important that they ask themselves every now and then *how did we got to this certain point and what sort of message could that give me before I take any further steps.*

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